

DISSERTATIONES RERUM OECONOMICARUM
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32

ELINA KALLAS

Emotional intelligence, organizational culture
and their relationship based on the example
of Estonian service organizations

The Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu,
Estonia

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Supervisors: Professor Maaja Vadi (PhD), University of Tartu, Estonia
Associate Professor Kulno Türk (PhD), University of Tartu,
Estonia

Opponents: Associate Professor Dana Mesner-Andolsek (PhD), University of
Ljubljana
Professor Milvi Tepp (PhD), Tallinn University of Technology

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THE LIST OF AUTHOR'S PUBLICATIONS AND CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

I Single publications or parts of collective monographs

1. **Tolmats, E.** (2003). Relationship between organizational culture and individual values of the Russian-speaking members of an organization in Lithuania. In *“Organisational Culture in Estonia: Manifestations and Consequences”*, Vadi, M (Ed.). Tartu: Tartu University Press, pp. 118–134.
2. **Tolmats, E. Reino, A.** (2005). The relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture: based on example of two business sectors in Estonia. In *“National and international aspects of organizational culture”*, Vadi, M. (Ed.). Tartu: Tartu University Press, pp. 27–48.
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 5. **Tolmats, E.** (2004). Relationships between organisational culture and individual values of the Russian-speaking members of organisations in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. 9th ISSWOV Conference, New Orleans, USA, 3.–6. August 2004.
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INTRODUCTION

The motivation and the importance of the research

The understanding of activities in organizations and the behavior of employees has been taken in a new direction – exploring the emotions and capabilities of employees to deal with emotionally loaded situations and environment. The belief that work and emotions should not be mixed (Mann, 1999) and that emotions have to be left outside organizational boundaries is being replaced by the recognition that emotions are important in the organizational context. The study of emotions in organizations was neglected for too long, and the idea of an individual difference variable that focuses on emotional abilities is an entirely appropriate focus for researchers (Ashkanasy, Daus, 2005). Studies of emotions have been shifting towards organizational research and the introduction of the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) is one important area where emotions started to attract the attention of researchers. Mayer and Ciarrochi (2006A) claim that EI is the latest development in understanding the relation between reason and emotion. This presents new opportunities in the research into organizational behavior where emotions are attracting greater emphasis and interest.

Emotions reflect human behavior not only in every-day life, but also in the work place. It is impossible to overcome the fact that people come to work with emotions, and events while performing their job and relationships with colleagues, customers and other stakeholders evoke emotions. But how these emotions are dealt with and utilized at work is illustrated by the term EI, which includes a set of competences that help a person to explain, understand, use and handle his/her emotions, relate to other people in an effective manner and regard emotionally demanding situations constructively. In various occupations emotions have a different syntax and emphasis – both in public display and in private thought (Fineman, 1993). Some jobs are more emotionally demanding than others and the competency to understand and handle emotions is crucial for particular occupations in order to achieve sufficient performance levels. There is an increasing amount of empirical evidence that emotions are important in the provision of services (e.g. Kernbach, Schutte, 2005; Manna, Smith, 2004; Rozell, Pettijohn, Parker, 2004; Bardzil, Slaski, 2003), and moreover emotional intelligence is the crucial competency for employees of service organizations (hereafter referred as service employees) and particularly for service providers (service organization employees who actually interact with and deliver a service to the customer).

The service economy is increasing in many countries and the enlargement of service provision in other industries is obviously taking place. Manufacturing companies are looking for ways to add value for the customer by adding services to pure product manufacturing; traditional service companies are widening the scope of different channels by which services are provided in

order to increase sales and lower costs. Service organizations pay special attention to developing service processes and measuring service quality because customers are more likely to choose a service organization based on emotional experiences they have had in response to service acts. This leads attention to the competencies of employees in direct contact with customers and who therefore shape the service event. One area of competency that could be beneficial for service providers is EI because service work does involve direct contact with customers and there is a need for employees to understand their own emotions and those of others, and to manage their emotions in an advantageous way in order to make a difference in the service encounter. The present dissertation discovers how service employees perceive their EI competencies, how these perceptions relate to the importance of emotions, and events that evoke emotions in the work of a service organization.

Organizations are not “cold” places that people enter just to work (Ashkanasy, 2002). In work related situations, the organization creates a “scene” where interactions take place. Social activities in organizations produce and reflect emotions (Fineman, 1993), and thus, represent the affective dimension of organized operations. The organization could be handled in terms of its organizational culture, which is a set of values and norms perceived by organizational members as the proper way to think and act. Organizational culture (further on the abbreviation OC is used) is the collective manifestation of human nature, and some properties can be generally shared among group members (Kilmann, Saxton, Serpa, 1985). One of these properties is the capability of EI, which serves as a set of competencies and norms about how people relate to the acknowledgement of emotions at work, the skills they have for regulating their emotional states and those of others, and how they consider difficult situations and decision-making through the emotional prism. This is done by means of interpretation – through the process of translating events and developing a shared understanding (Daft, Weick, 2001). Links between EI and OC encompass deeper interpretations, and thus, make the topic even more challenging. Connections between the two concepts are yet to be revealed and the present dissertation makes it possible to find novel aspects or human behaviors in organizations by presenting the relationships between EI and OC.

Estonian service organizations have been studied in a rather fragmented manner. There is not much research to be found on the topic of competencies in Estonian service providers nor about the culture of Estonian service organizations. This dissertation tries to close the gap from the perspective of EI competencies and organizational culture. Thus, the dissertation contributes on two levels: general research settings and Estonian service organizations.

All abovementioned has drawn the author of dissertation to focus on the topic of the relationships between EI and OC. First of all, there is a **motivation** to discover the conceptual background for EI and its manifestation in organizational settings. Secondly, a motivation lies in examining the theoretical grounds for the relationship between EI and OC and fill some gaps in the

literature. Thirdly, the author of the dissertation seeks to conduct the study in order to gather empirical evidence on the proposed issues and offer a practical outcome from theoretical considerations. Fourthly, in order to collect empirical data, the search for a suitable measurement tool at that time did not result in any instruments that could be applied in organizational settings. This motivated the author to develop an EI measurement tool especially for the organizational environment. Fifth, what is not clear creates a challenge – this motivated the author to find out what is behind the results on relationships between EI and OC and how these could be interpreted and implemented. Finally, EI has been a popular topic, and as Fineman (2000: 101) says, “the flow and rhetoric associated with emotional intelligence has grown with extraordinary speed”. If to compare how much literature dealt with the topic of EI when the author of dissertation commenced this work and how much there is now that it is complete, the difference is dramatic. The topic has not only been talked about, but it has been studied empirically, developed methodologically and widened in relation to other important and related topics. This is one of the bright examples of how one rather unexpected notion became the primary interest due to wide popularization; it has been picked up by researchers and is now finding its place in the literature on organizational behavior.

The phenomenon of Emotional Intelligence emerged in managerial and academic literature under curious circumstances. The term EI had already been formulated in 1990 (by Salovey and Mayer), but its popularity emerged in 1995 and not via academic discussion, but through increasing interest among practitioners thanks to publications aimed at the general public (contributed mainly by Goleman’s internationally best-selling books “Emotional Intelligence” in 1995 and “Working with Emotional Intelligence” in 1998). Over the past decade, EI has been the topic of best-selling books, magazines and newspaper articles (Mayer, Ciarrochi, 2006A). Since the popularization of EI, academic interest in the topic has increased dramatically and conflict between disciplines, opinions about conceptualizations and criticisms of measurements have all led to extensive empirical investigations. The author of the present dissertation started working with the topic of EI in 2004, and at that time the volume of literature was rather limited and mostly focused on theoretical discussions. At present, the volume of empirical investigations on EI is sufficiently extensive¹, and it is still possible to find unrevealed relationships with other concepts. There is considerable disparity between the definitions of and approaches to EI as well as between the measurement tools used. Approaches to EI vary widely and it is difficult to figure out what its most important features actually are. Thus, the comprehensive and comparative analysis conducted in this dissertation is designed to help discover what is

¹ For example, by searching for articles in the EBSCO host Academic Search Complete with the phrase “emotional intelligence” in the title, 637 publications were extracted as a result (12.07.2010).

meant by EI and what similarities and differences exist between the various approaches.

The OC of service organizations is not so systematically covered by the theory and empirical investigations. OC in service organizations is different compared to other industries because there should be a clear focus on the customer in order to gain the desired outcomes. Activities in service organizations are measured through service quality by mapping the determinants of the service process, but some service organizations tend to be more successful than others and the source of this variation could be found in OC. This dissertation covers the peculiarities of OC in service organizations and empirically defines those features of OC that are perceived as predominant in service organizations. Also, the research on the importance of emotions in perceptions of OC and events that evoke emotion opens new agenda for discussions.

Still there is unease in any deeper investigation of the relationships between EI and OC, from defining the phenomena to measuring it and making conclusions. An important issue that should be regarded at the beginning of the dissertation is the consideration of the notions of EI and OC from an epistemological point of view and the methodological issues of induction and deduction. “Epistemological questions involve the concepts of knowledge, evidence, reasons for believing, justification, probability, what one ought to believe, and any other concepts that can only be understood through one or more of the above” (Fumerton, 2006: 1). The mission of epistemology, the theory of knowledge, is to clarify what the conception of knowledge involves, how it applies, and to explain why it has the features it has (Rescher, 2003). Zagzebski (2009) summarizes the philosophical consensus of the main question of “knowledge” in epistemology stating that knowing is a relationship between a conscious subject and an object, where the object is some portion of reality. She claims that the mentioned relationship is cognitive, meaning that the subject thinks about the object rather than only sensing or feeling it; thus, knowing includes believing. Induction and deduction are the products of different responses to explanation versus understanding, unity versus diversity regarding the subject and the scientific method, and the question of foundational knowledge (Stadler, 2004). Thus, methods of induction and deduction are rooted in the main questions of epistemological science: what is knowledge and where does it come from. The inductive process is one that moves from the observation of a variety of specific objects to a general characterization of the observations; the deductive process is one in which specific predictions are derived from general premises (Proctor, Capaldi, 2006).

Inductive and deductive methods in the epistemological context enable to overcome a particular tension between phenomena of EI and OC and their measurement peculiarities. While EI and OC are discussed as phenomena or as “perceived by the senses as facts that can be scientifically described” (Websters Dictionary, 2002: 320), the measurement of the phenomena is conducted by

mapping perceptions and thus reflecting states or “frames of mind” (Websters Dictionary, 2002: 406) in subjects, and then the interpretation of the research results returns to the nature of epistemology. This means that the reality of the subject about the object (in the current case, the perceptions of the respondents about EI and OC) creates a broader understanding of or knowledge about the phenomena. Thus, it is believed that self-reasoning reflects states that explain foundational knowledge, and thus, enable to create generalizations about the studied notions and their relationship to each other. Nevertheless, the interpretation of the results is conducted in a rather cautious manner because the gap between perceived states of mind still cannot serve as the complete basis for explaining the phenomena in general.

In the present dissertation, both methods of induction and deduction separately and in combination have been used in two layers. The first layer starts with the generalizations of approaches to EI and OC that stem from multiple theories, hypotheses for empirical research, empirical investigations and conclusions. In the first layer, generalizations from secondary research serve as an input for the second layer of induction and deduction, starting with setting up the propositions for the present research. Then conducting the study enables to generalize the results for general research as well as for Estonian settings, and not directly draw theoretical conclusions, but rather find relationships and principals that have implications.

Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) believe that EI research will continue to be a central plank of future research into organizational behavior. The originality of the research stems from the unique combination of variables: EI and OC. The present dissertation makes a considerable contribution to the development of the field because it (1) clarifies the notion of EI especially in the service provision context, (2) provides an extensive overview of OC in service organizations, (3) opens up the discussion about relationships between EI and OC within empirical study, (4) contributes to EI and OC topics in Estonian service organizations, and (5) provides explanations and practical suggestions about the application of the study results. The aim and research tasks of the dissertation show how the topic has been systematically approached.

The aim and research tasks of the dissertation

The **aim** of the dissertation is to explore the manifestations of emotional intelligence in service organizations and its relationship² to organizational culture based on the example of Estonian service organizations. This is achieved by analyzing EI and investigating OC and their theoretical and empirical

² Herein and after the positive relationship assumed between EI and OC, if not stated otherwise.

connections in the service context. In order to achieve the aim, the following **research tasks** have been set:

1. Explore and analyze the origin of and approaches to emotional intelligence and its manifestations in the work and service context as a basis for developing an emotional intelligence measurement methodology;
2. Investigate the role of emotional intelligence in organizational culture and service provision in order to clarify the theoretical grounds for understanding the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture;
3. Find out what the peculiarities of organizational culture are in service organizations, including exploring the Estonian service sector and organizations serving as a contextual input for deduction of relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture;
4. Examine theoretical grounds and previously gathered empirical evidence to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture;
5. Deduce the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture and formulate research propositions throughout the dissertation in order to formulate a research contribution for studies into emotional intelligence, organizational culture and the relationships between them in general and in the context of Estonian service organizations;
6. Develop methodology for measuring emotional intelligence in organizational settings;
7. Conduct research among Estonian service organizations, analyze data and present the results in the light of the propositions formulated.

The structure of the dissertation

Present dissertation consists of two main chapters. The main focus of the research lies on emotional intelligence and its manifestations at work, in the provision of services and in organizational culture.

The **first chapter** investigates the theoretical constituents of EI, the nature, role and disposition of emotional intelligence in service provision, and how it manifests itself in organizations and its relationship to culture. The history of the EI concept is elaborated upon, definitions of EI are investigated and different approaches to EI (ability based, competency based and mixed models of EI) are also presented and compared. The author of the dissertation presents her own integrated approach to EI to form the theoretical basis for the empirical study. The differences between elements of EI in the context of various professional and individual characteristics are analyzed and discussed in the light of theoretical and empirical evidence. The essence of service provision is investigated and the disposition of EI in service provision is discussed. In order

to examine the role and the importance of EI in organizational culture and service organizations, a typological approach to OC is presented and the peculiarities of OC in service organizations are investigated. The importance of EI in the organizational and work context is investigated and a general framework for the relationships between EI and OC are formulated. Thus, in the first chapter the nature of EI is expounded in the context of service provision and organizational culture. Throughout the first chapter, most of the propositions for the general organizational research are set.

The **second chapter** is primarily directed towards the study of EI and its relationship with OC using the example of Estonian service organizations. This chapter describes the service sector, organizations and the services themselves in Estonia. The research propositions that contribute to the Estonian organizational context are also set. After the peculiarities of Estonian service organizations are explored and the propositions are presented within the study framework, the arrangement of the empirical study is explained and the sample described. How the methodology for EI measurement was created is also demonstrated and the instrument for measuring OC is introduced. The next focuses on presenting the results of the study on the relationships between EI and OC in Estonian service organizations. The results are presented in two parts: firstly, the analysis and the results focus on finding evidence for propositions related to EI; and secondly, an analysis is conducted in order to find support for the propositions that were set up to investigate the OC of service organizations and relationships between EI and OC. Finally, the second chapter summarizes the results of the study and checks for any correspondence with the propositions. The dissertation ends by presenting managerial and developmental implications and offering a practical overview of how it is possible to apply the study results in practice.

The dissertation is structured so that the focus is on EI, and thus, OC and other characteristics of individuals, which have been under examination, serve as contextual features. Still, the aim is to explore the manifestation of EI in service organizations and its relationship to OC and it was done at the level of theoretical discussions and empirical investigation. The dissertation's structure allows contributions to be derived on two levels: the general research level and the Estonian organization level.

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Being grateful does not take away my responsibility for all mistakes and errors found in this dissertation. I take full responsibility for those.

1. THE THEORETICAL CONSTITUTIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, ITS MANIFESTATION IN SERVICE ORGANIZATION AND RELATIONSHIP TO CULTURE

1.1. The nature, approaches and disposition of emotional intelligence in providing services

1.1.1. Assumptions about and definitions of emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a concept that emerged in the academic world and managerial practices in the late twentieth century, but its origins in the theories of emotion and intelligence are much older. The notions of ‘emotion’ and ‘intelligence’ as assumptions within EI will be investigated in order to establish the background for defining EI. In this part of the dissertation different definitions of EI are presented and analyzed within the framework of their proximity to the terms “emotion” and “intelligence”, and the history of the EI concept is explored.

The term “emotional intelligence” is a combination of the words “emotion” and “intelligence”. Fineman (2003: 46) elaborates that “bringing together ‘emotion’ and ‘intelligence’ looks odd, like trying to fuse chalk and cheese”. Orme (2001) notes that EI is not an oxymoron – it involves both the process of tuning into emotions and the need to be analytical about emotions. Emotional intelligence is the most recent ‘take’ on an ancient philosophical debate about the place of emotion and reason in human affairs. Emotional intelligence explores how emotions can be used ‘intelligently’ in daily life and work settings. Traditionally, intelligence has been kept separate from emotions. (Fineman, 2003) Mayer (2006) elaborates that the key question regarding whether something ought to be named emotional intelligence is whether what is described as particularly relevant to the terms “emotion” and “intelligence”. In order to be clear about this consideration the following part of the Dissertation is focusing on defining emotion and intelligence and present various definitions of EI by analyzing the proximity to combination of the terms “emotion” and “intelligence”.

There is no commonly shared definition to the ‘emotion’. Just when it seems an adequate definition is in place, some new theory rears and challenges the understanding of the notion (Solomon, 1993). There are almost as many definitions as there are theoretical approaches explaining the dynamics of emotions and in empathizing the term ‘emotion’ it could be asserted that this concept subsumes the phenomena denoted by other labels – sentiments, affect,

feelings, moods, and the like³ – which are often employed by theorists and researchers (Turner, Stets, 2005). Basically there are two models of emotions: *organismic model* that defines emotion mainly as a biological process and *interactional model* adds a point of social entry during the experience of emotions (Hochschild, 2003). From among the variety of theories on emotion, the sociological perspective was chosen in order to open up our understanding of the topic. Kemper (1993) states that sociologists examine how emotions are released, interpreted and expressed by virtue of the demands and circumstances of human membership in groups. Kemper (1993: 41) cites that the “social matrix determines which emotions are likely to be experienced when and where, on what grounds and for what reasons, by what modes of expression and by whom”. This kind of understanding is mostly suitable, because further on the role and functions of emotions are explored in the light of organizational behavior and management studies.

Although emotions are almost always constrained and channeled by the socio-cultural context, the nature of emotion and its intensity are still driven by biological processes. From the sociological perspective, emotions involve certain elements (although not all of these elements need be present for emotion to exist): (1) the biological activation of key bodily systems, (2) socially constructed cultural definitions and constraints on what emotions should be experienced and expressed in a situation, (3) the application of linguistic labels provided by culture for internal sensations, (4) the overt expression of emotions through facial, voice, and paralinguistic movements; and (5) perceptions and appraisals of situational objects or events. (Turner, Stets, 2005) Emotions are also central components of human reactions to many types of stimuli; they can directly cue specific behaviors, as well as indirectly influence behavior by their effect on physiological, cognitive or social processes (Lord, Kanfer, 2002). Emotions refer to a class of elicitors, behaviors, states and experiences (Lewis, 1993). Emotions have a definite impact on human behavior through various processes.

There can be no argument that social relations produce emotions. Emotions, by almost general consent, have an object. They are “about” something. One is happy about something, angry at someone, afraid of something. Emotions, in other words, are intentional phenomena; they involve a subject-object relationship. This applies to subjective experience as well as to behavior. (Frijda, 1993) Lord and Kanfer (2002) acknowledge that emotions are aroused in social relationships and emotions serve as a guide in social interactions. Kemper (1993: 42) cites that “a large class of human emotions results from real, anticipated, imagined or recollected outcomes of social relations”. Coming from the assumptions that social relations can be usefully expressed in two

³ In the present dissertation the term ‘emotion’ is treated in the same manner proposed by Turner and Stets (2005) – sentiments, affect, feelings, moods etc. are viewed as the derivatives of emotions.

dimensions of power and status and a very large number of human emotions can be understood as responses to the power and/or status meanings and implications of situations, he divides outcomes in social relations as self-oriented (the self's power and the self's status) and other-oriented (the other's power and the other's status). So, the sources and outcomes of emotions could have intra- and interpersonal character. For example, shame could be experienced as the outcome of inner processes (realizing that something went wrong) as well as the result of interpersonal relations (somebody points out a mistake).

In light of the abovementioned, emotions could be viewed as an output of the social context from one perspective, and as the production of biological processes from the other. Fineman (2003) divides emotional perspectives roughly into four types: emotion as biological; emotion as early experiences; emotion as cognitive appraisal; emotion as social. Emotions have intra- or interpersonal sources of formation and forms of experience. This generalization is presented in figure 1. Within the framework of the present dissertation, emotion is considered to be a state of mind in individuals that has an impact on behaviour through social, cognitive and psychological processes.

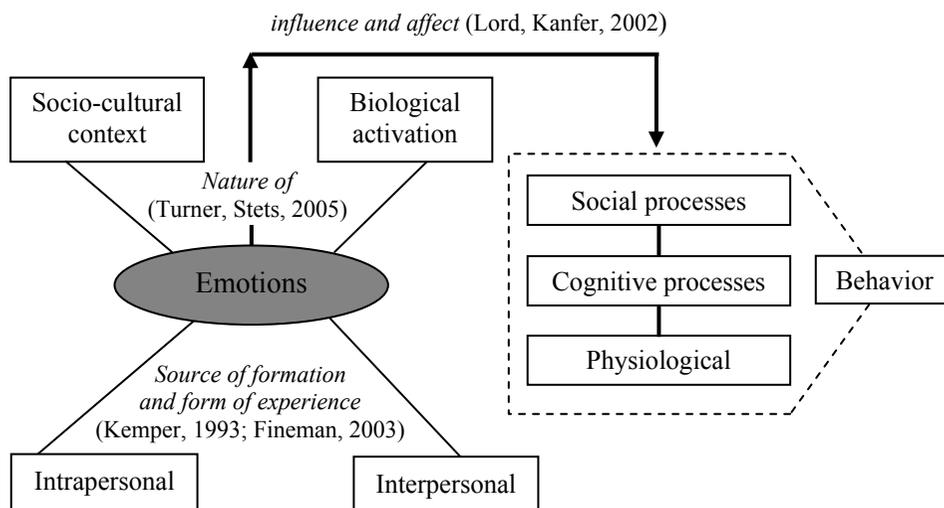


Figure 1. Nature of emotions, their source of formation, form of experience and affect on behavior (modified Fineman, 2003)

The next concept that needs to be explored is 'intelligence'. Wechsler (1958: 7) defines intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally and to deal effectively with his environment". Gardner (1993) views intelligence as the set of intellectual competencies what entail a set of skills. He claims that human intellectual competence must entail a set of skills for problem solving – enabling the individual to resolve genuine

problems or difficulties that he or she encounters and, when appropriate, to create an effective product – and must also entail the potential for finding or creating problems – thereby laying the groundwork for the acquisition of new knowledge. Intelligence includes all abilities to understand and learn and adapt one’s behavior to the situations life offers (Thorndike, 1942), and deals with the capacity to carry out abstract reasoning and thinking skills (Fineman, 2003). Thus, intelligence is considered to be the mental ability to reason, think, resolve problems and adapt to a changed environment.

Although intelligence is not merely the sum of intellectual abilities, the only way it can be evaluated quantitatively is by measuring the various aspects of these abilities. Intelligence can be measured by way of abilities because what we are concerned with eventually is not the abilities themselves but what enters into or emerges from them. (Wechsler, 1958) Abilities mean the physiological or mental power to act and express developed skills (Websters dictionary, 2002), and are individual traits, which influence accomplishment of activity and thus, are a precondition for successful performance. Skills are developed abilities (Websters dictionary, 2002), the successful performance of activity and are based on behavior acquired by repetition. Boyatzis (2007) defines competencies as the underlying characteristics of a person that lead to or cause effective and outstanding performance. Competencies⁴ in the context of the present dissertation are seen as the knowledge, skills and abilities that an employee applies in performing a job (Draganidis, Mentzas, 2006). Thus, the measurement of intelligence could be done by means of competency evaluations. This is important to distinguish in understanding different models of EI further on in the dissertation.

In the intelligence literature, it is possible to draw out the intra- and inter-orientation of intelligence. Gardner (1993) says that intrapersonal knowledge allows one to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings. The core capacity at work is to access one’s own feeling – one’s range of affect or emotions: the capacity to effect discriminations instantly among these feelings and, eventually, to label them, to enmesh them in symbolic codes, to draw upon them as a means of understanding and guiding one’s behavior. Interpersonal knowledge permits to read intentions and desires in many other individuals – even when these are hidden – and potentially, to act upon this knowledge. The core capacity here is the ability to notice and make distinctions between other individuals and, in particular, between their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions. (*Ibid*) In figure 2 it is possible to see how intelligence manifests as a set of competencies. Intelligence per se is not giving enough information about individual abilities, but through the

⁴ There is no consensus and consistency in using following terms in related literature: “*competence*” (an area of work), “*competency*” (the behaviour(s) supporting an area of work), “*competencies*” (the attributes underpinning a behaviour) (Moore, Cheng, Dainty 2002). In present dissertation named terms are used with the same meaning.

manifestation of intelligence as competencies (set of knowledge, skills and abilities) it is possible to judge how the individual is coping with the environment and tasks. Competencies in turn influence behavior and give a clue about a person's intelligence level.

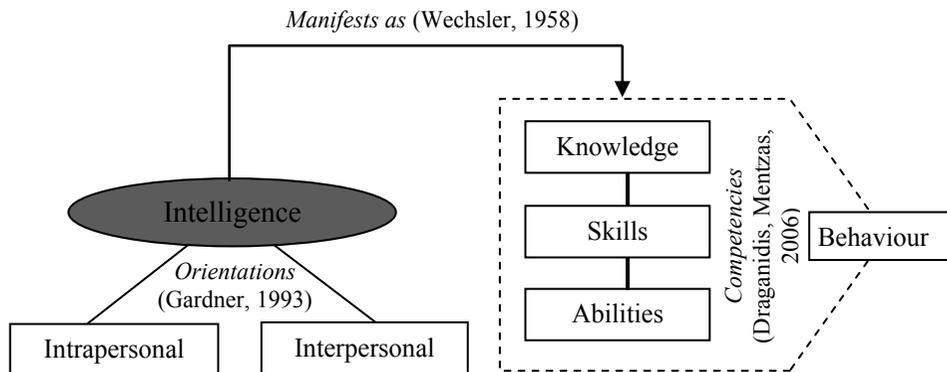


Figure 2. The constituents of intelligence, its orientations and impact on behavior (composed by the author)

EI is a rather novel and young concept, but its roots go back to the beginning of the last century. The notion of EI began on the basis of theories about intelligence and ability. There is a long history of social intelligence, the precursor to EI (Fineman, 2003). In 1920, Thorndike already differentiated intelligence into a multimodal approach that comprised three types of intelligence: abstract (dealing with ideas and symbols), mechanical (dealing with objects and technical concepts) and social intelligence (the ability to understand other individuals) (cf. Scherl, Trueman, Sture, 2005). Later, Thorndike (1942) presented such abilities as leadership and its various forms, the ability to cooperate in various ways, energy, the ability to control oneself and others and the ability to face the facts about the world and oneself and adapt one's own external behavior and inner flow of ideas to reality. Thus, the roots of EI go back to the beginning of the twentieth century when intelligence theory started to develop. One of the first observations refers to the ability to relate and interact to others.

Further on it was agreed that intelligence is not only the result of rational thinking, but there are other factors that influence the ability to reason. Wechsler (1940) asserted that affective, social and personal factors have considerable importance for interacting effectively. He stated that nonintellectual abilities are necessary factors that it is responsible to possess in order for individuals to manage successfully. (cf. Wechsler, 1958) Wechsler (1958) claims that intelligence does not consist of general abilities, but there are non-intellectual factors (e.g. the ability to educe relations, the level of mental energy and desire for success) as well general intelligence. This development in

intelligence theory shows how intrapersonal abilities started to emerge as a component of intelligence (e.g. Wechsler's "mental energy" and "desire for success").

Considerable advances in intelligence theory from the EI perspective came with Gardner's approach. Gardner (1983) developed his research about multiple intelligence theory (seven intelligences) and asserted that intra- and interpersonal intelligences are as important as cognitive abilities (cf. Scherl, Trueman, Sture, 2005). Gardner (1993) presented among other types of intelligence intra- and interpersonal intelligences (personal intelligence) that are important in understanding the EI concept. He claims that on the one side, there is the development of the internal aspects of a person. The other elements of personal intelligence turn outwards towards other individuals. (*Ibid.*) The idea of multiple intelligences helped to put social intelligence firmly on the map (Fineman, 2003). Gardner's approach provided the cornerstone for the EI concept.

In 1990, Salovey and Mayer were the first to construct the actual term "Emotional Intelligence". They conceptualize EI through the set of abilities that are the appraisal and expression of emotions in the self and others, the regulation of emotions in the self and others, and the utilization of emotions including flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention and motivation (Salovey, Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer provided the first formal definition of the EI concept, an explanation of the skills involved and the first ability scale explicitly intended to measure EI (Mayer, 2006). EI emerged at the beginning of the 90s and all other approaches have more or less made reference to the pioneers, Salovey and Mayer.

Between 1994 and 1997, EI became popularized and broadened (Mayer, 2006). Goleman (1995) published his book on the topic and stimulated further research. He popularized the concept of EI and made it accessible not only for scientists but for the broader public. He presented five domains of EI: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivating oneself, empathy and social skills (Goleman, 1998). Mayer (2006: 8), commenting on this bestseller book about EI, stated it was the "combination of lively writing, extraordinary claims for the concept, and a loose description of it that created an explosion of activity in a new, and increasingly fuzzily defined area". Goleman's book was somehow the beginning of the chaos in the area of EI and the wait for a more profound research.

At the beginning of 1997 and extending to the present, a multiple concepts about EI have gradually been taking place; new measures as well as a more profound research have been developed (Mayer, 2006). Now the notion of EI is rather a well covered research area, but still lacks consensus in terms of content, definitions and measurement. This is partially due to the fact that as EI has achieved widespread public attention, the notion was not only picked up by scholars, but also by consultants whose aim was to provide services for organizational and managerial development and not conduct research. Thus,

many easy and simple interpretations spread and played a role for the increasing public interest.

The development of approaches to EI has been retrospective and some authors refer to it as “old wine in a new bottle”. However, it has not diminished the interest in further conceptual development and empirical investigation of the notion. The development of the EI concept is summarized in figure 3 – the preliminary period starts with Thorndike, who presented the notion of social intelligence, Wechsler presented the importance of affective social and personal abilities, and Gardner introduced multiple intelligence theory, which was of considerable influence in the creation of EI. After those preliminary theories had been introduced, Salovey and Mayer constructed the term EI, and Goleman contributed by popularizing it.

| | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Thorndike, E.L. ~ 1920 | presents the notion of social intelligence |
| Wechsler, D. ~ 1940 | presents non-intellectual affective, social and personal abilities |
| Gardner, H. ~ 1983 | introduces multiple intelligence theory including intra- and interpersonal intelligences |
| <hr/> | |
| Salovey, P., Mayer, J.D. ~ 1990 | constructed the actual term Emotional Intelligence |
| Goleman, D. ~ 1995 | published book on Emotional Intelligence and popularized the concept |

Figure 3. Preliminary theories influencing the development of the EI concept (composed by author)

Cherniss (2001) claims that there is still much that is unclear about the nature of EI, and one of the most basic controversies involves the definition of the concept itself. Mayer (2006: 9) elaborates that “definitions of EI have ranged from the focused, in which EI is conceived of as a traditional intelligence involving the emotions, to the diffuse and sprawling, in which EI is conceived of as a broader collection of often-studied attributes such as persistence, optimism, and sociability”. The abovementioned clearly illustrates the lack of consistency in defining EI, which is in fact a rather common development path for such new concepts. Mayer and Ciarrochi (2006B) even claim that for EI to be taken seriously, it must reflect its constituent terms – emotion and intelligence – and their combination. Herein different definitions of EI are presented (see table 1). The set of definitions is diverse – from known to rather

Table 1. Definitions of EI

| <i>Author(s) and year</i> | <i>Definition of EI</i> | <i>Comments about the relevancy to the terms of “emotion” and “intelligence”</i> |
|--|--|---|
| Sparrow, T. and Knight, A. (2006) | EI is a habitual practice of using emotional information from ourselves and other people, integrating this with thinking, using these to inform decision making to help get wanted outcomes from the immediate situation and from life in general. | Accurate and exact reflection of emotions in the context of intelligence. |
| Singh, D. (2006) | EI as the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. | Rather accurate reflection of emotions and intelligence. |
| Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. and Roberts, R.D. (2004) | EI refers to the competence to identify and express emotions, understand emotions, assimilate emotions in thought, and regulate both positive and negative emotions in oneself and others. | Accurate and exact reflection of emotions in the context of intelligence. |
| Cooper, R. and Sawaf, A. (2000) | EI as the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection, and influence. | Emotions and intelligence are somehow related, but remain vague. |
| Dulewicz, V. and Higgs, M. (1999) | EI as being aware of, and managing one’s own feelings and emotions; being sensitive to, and influencing others; sustaining one’s motivation; and balancing one’s motivation and drive with intuitive, conscientious and ethical behavior. | Reflects emotions and intelligence, but has other terms such as motivation. |
| Weisinger, H. (1998) | EI is the intelligent use of emotions meaning that the individual intentionally makes emotions work for him or her by using them to help guide behavior and thinking in ways that enhance results. | Rather closely related to the term “intelligence”, but the term “emotion” is not explored enough. |
| Bar-On, R. (1997) | EI as an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures. | The term “intelligence” is reflected, but a clear link to emotions is not visible for all components. |
| Goleman, D. (1995) | EI is the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationship. | The term “emotion” is reflected, but the link to “intelligence” is not clear enough. |
| Salovey, P., Mayer, J.D. (1990) | EI 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 use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions. | Accurate and exact reflection of emotions in the context of intelligence. |

Sources: Composed by the author; definitions based on Salovey, Mayer, 1990; Bar-On, 1997 cf. Bar-On, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Weisinger, 1998; Dulewicz, Higgs, 1999; Cooper, Sawaf, 2000; Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2004; Sparrow, Knight, 2006; Singh, 2006.

unknown authors; from clear to fuzzy statements. Comments by the author about the relevance of each definition of the terms “emotion” and “intelligence” offers insight into the analysis of definitions. In the author’s opinion, any definition of EI should display an accurate and exact reflection of emotions in the context of intelligence.

Mayer and Ciarrochi (2006B) claim that a definition of EI must sensibly describe the interaction of emotion and intelligence, and conclude that other researchers working in the area have generally followed Salovey and Mayer’s definitions, often changing its phrasing just slightly. From table 1 it is possible to notice that those definitions that display an accurate and exact reflection of emotions and intelligence indeed are rather similar to the first definition of EI presented by Salovey and Mayer. It could be marked that the definitions of Weisenger and Singh have a rather correct indication of emotions and intelligence and remain different from other definitions. Thus, the precise definition of EI should encompass the terms “emotion” and “intelligence”, and in order to create a novel notion; it should make an additional contribution or clear understanding compared to Salovey and Mayer’s original definition of EI.

To summarize the discussion elaborated above, the phenomena of Emotional Intelligence could be measured through competencies. This approach is similar to Goleman’s (1995) idea that EI consists of competencies, for instance, compared to Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) view according to which EI is a set of abilities. EI is made up of short-term, tactical, ‘dynamic’ skills that can be brought into play as the situation warrants (Stein, Book, 2001). Thus, EI could be sensed through competencies, because it includes both abilities and skills and manifests itself in certain situations. This is suitable because it is possible to learn and develop EI, but still it requires assumptions stemming from individuality. Examining EI through competencies provides an opportunity to explain the idea in an organizational setting, implementing, for example, competency based management and competency models and systems.

The concept of EI has received a lot of criticism from the academic world. Allik (2009) even claims that in scientific journals there is a continuous investigation of the notion (EI) that does not really exist, or exists under quite another name. One of the main arguments is whether there is any scientific basis for the notion at all or whether it is just sales hype for consultancy companies. Fineman (2003) argues that the packaging of EI has been crucial to its acceptability. He notes that the skilful use of rhetoric is an essential tool of the trade for management and organizational consultants: crafting words, arguments and images to persuade the client to take the product. Mayer and Ciarrochi (2006A) admit that journalists have led people to believe that EI can make them healthy, rich, successful, loved and happy, but such bold and important claims need to be evaluated scientifically. Though they believe that the intersection between the scientific and the popular world can lead to genuine collaboration between the scientist and the public, but only if the scientists care enough to write clearly, and the interested reader is motivated to think critically.

Others tend to suggest that the term EI means a lot less than it might seem, and that it is a marketing concept, not a scientific term (Dulewicz, Higgs, 2003). There are two different worlds – the scientist’s and the journalist/consultant’s – that mostly follow independent paths. The consultant looks for here-and-now usage, while the academic says, ‘hang on, not quite yet’. Hence, the popularizing of EI entails turning a blind eye to some contradictory evidence, and reshaping or simplifying the complexities. It becomes oversold, oversimplified and, therefore, makes some claims that are bound to disappoint. (Fineman, 2003) This is probably a rather natural conflict between theoretical and implicational aspects of any topic. In some cases the theoretical considerations finally end up in practical application and create dispute and in some cases (as with EI) the notion firstly finds interest among the wider public and then ends up in academic discussions.

Locke (2005) claims that the definition of the EI concept is constantly changing; most definitions are all-inclusive, and within one definition there are contradictions. Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2006) admit that despite the effort of researchers in finding consensus in the conceptualization of EI, the construct remains slippery and no common understanding has been reached in terms of whether EI should be conceptualized as a cognitive ability, a personality trait or as a desirable set of personal characteristics. Despite the fact that there is a lack of clarity and a fuzziness around the concept of EI, interest in research is not decreasing, but rather increasing. Firstly, interest in analyzing different definitions and approaches can provide a clearer understanding of those models that are original and not duplicates of the well-known models. Secondly, analysis of EI measures will provide an understanding of how to evaluate the level of EI in individuals. Thirdly, the research of EI in particular occupational settings provides valuable additions to the development of the field. Service provision is one area of research where EI phenomena could contribute to the understanding of this field of operations, as it reflects the manner in which inputs are combined to allow the delivery of events as well as how EI is a characteristic of the human input, and this could all have considerable influence on the process of service provision.

1.1.2. Ability, competency based and mixed models of emotional intelligence

There are a lot of theories and models that help to clarify the notion of EI. Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) present three streams of EI research and measures: stream 1 is based on the four-branch abilities model proposed by Mayer and Caruso; stream 2 encompasses various self- and peer-report measures based on Mayer-Salovey; and stream 3 comprises expanded models of EI that encompass components not included in the Mayer-Salovey definition. Opengart (2005) suggests that EI approaches fall into three main branches: ability models,

personality models and mixed models. Ability models conceptualize EI as a set of mental abilities or skills that pertain to the accurate processing of emotion-relevant information (Brackett, Geher, 2006). Competency-based models of EI see emotional competencies as the underlying components for EI. Mixed models define and measure EI as a set of perceived abilities, skills and personality traits (Brackett, Katulak, 2007). The same rationale in grouping these approaches has been applied. *Ability based models of EI* are represented by the famous researchers in the field, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, and the less known researcher, Singh. *Competency and personality based models of EI* are represented by Goleman and the researchers, Dulewicz and Higgs. The *mixed models of EI* are represented by Bar-On and Cooper.

The choice of the following approaches to EI is not incidental. There are three reasons why particularly those have been selected. Firstly, the following approaches have made a large contribution to the development of the EI field. Secondly, the empirical evidences presented in the dissertation are largely based on following approaches and theories, so that the material introduced is unitary and tractable. Thirdly, these approaches are rather different from one another – some of them are famous, some of them are hardly known; some have a proficient empirical basis, some are used mainly in consultation activities; some are broad, some focus on a rather narrow scope of the components of EI. The choice of these different approaches has its own special contribution to this work – it gives a reader of the dissertation a diverse understanding of the notion of EI, about its measurement opportunities and areas of application. In each approach the following aspects are executed (if available from the literature): a definition of EI, a model and/or components of EI and a measurement of EI.

There are different options for measuring EI. Mayer (2006) suggests that multiple kinds of data about a person's EI can be examined – criterion-report data, self-report data and observer-report data – and each is good for specific purposes. In the *criterion-report test* (also known as ability/performance testing) the individual is asked to produce a solution to a problem and then that solution is compared to a criterion of correctness (*Ibid.*). One concern with the ability approach to testing is that EI tests assume that there are right and wrong answers, and most importantly that there are stable estimates and the test measures what it suppose to measure (Caruso, Salovey, 2004). Criterion-report testing is reliable where standards or norms against which the answers are evaluated are accurately computed and based on an extensive database of responses.

The *self-report test* typically involves having the individual make a judgment or endorsement as to what he or she is like (Mayer, 2006). Self-report measures of EI require participants to describe themselves on Likert-scale items and rely on their own self-understanding (Brackett, Geher, 2006). Barchard and Hakstian (2004) claim that self-report measures are better understood as measures of self-perceptions of abilities than as measures of EI abilities themselves. There are certain disadvantages of self-report testing because it is

not possible to ensure that person will not over or under estimate his or her abilities and competencies or gives socially desirable evaluations. Self-report tests give information about how the person evaluates his/her EI competencies at a certain point in time and do not give information about the phenomenon as such. Still, this does not mean that self-reported measures are useless. The introduction to the dissertation discussed how EI and OC phenomena and their measurement could be comprehended from the epistemological point of view. It was concluded that the reality of the respondent about objects of the study (meaning the perception and self-assessment of the state) creates knowledge about the phenomenon itself. It is presumed that self-reporting defines knowledge and allows to generate a common understanding about the notions under investigation. Thus, using self-report measures does not create barriers in explaining, measuring and making generalizations about phenomena.

The *observer-report test* makes sense if EI refers to effective behavior. In observer ratings, an observer – someone who knows the person – decides whether a person is emotionally intelligent or not (Mayer, 2006). An example of the observer-report test is the 360-degree measure, meaning that for any given target person, multiple scores are yielded as a result of the target's self-report and reports provided by relevant observers of the target (Brackett, Geher 2006). Observer-report tests have their own risks and the accuracy of the results rely on the closeness and acquaintance of the observer to the individual being assessed.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey's ability based model of EI

Mayer and Salovey (1997) define EI as 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. Mayer and Caruso (2002) claim that EI refers to the capacity to understand and explain emotions, on the one hand, and of emotions to enhance thought, on the other. Their EI model concentrates on a combination of emotions and thinking (Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, 2000) concurrently in both personal and interpersonal settings. Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) bring forward four abilities around which they build their Four Branch Model of EI (see descriptive overview in appendix 1): identifying emotions, using emotions to facilitate thought, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000) first developed the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS) a twelve-subscale ability test in the middle of 1990's, and then the Mayer, Salovey and Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). MSCEIT is based on the four-branch ability model of emotional intelligence. The MSCEIT includes tasks such as judging emotions in faces and designs, generating and then reasoning with an emotion, defining complex emotional terms, and selecting an optimal emotional decision-making strategy. The MSCEIT is a paper-and-pencil ability-based measure of emotional intelligence (Caruso, Mayer, Salovey, 2002), and is a performance-based test because

there are better and worse answers on it, as determined by consensus or expert scoring (Brackett, Geher, 2006). The MSCEIT score has an internal consistency of 0.96, with alphas for the four branch scores ranging from 0.81 to 0.96 (Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, 2000), and also has a factor structure congruent with the four-domain model of EI (Brackett, Geher, 2006). MSCEIT is a fairly widely used test and much research has been made in order to find relationships with other personality measures to measure the validity of MSCEIT.

Singh's ability based model of EI

Singh (2006) defines EI as the ability of an individual to appropriately and successfully respond to a vast variety of emotional stimuli being elicited from the inner self and immediate environment. EI constitutes three psychological dimensions: emotional sensitivity, emotional maturity and emotional competency, which motivate an individual to recognize truthfully, interpret honestly and handle tactfully the dynamics of human behavior (*Ibid*). The components of the EI model are emotional competency, emotional maturity and emotional sensitivity (see description of the components in appendix 2). He claims that an EQ test that measures all three dimensions mentioned above has been standardized for professional managers, businessman, bureaucrats, artists and students. The EQ test has a test-retest reliability of 0.94 and validity of 0.89 (*Ibid*). The current model is not widely used, still the author of the dissertation includes the model in order to contribute to the variety of examples of EI approaches and their applications.

Goleman's competency and personality based model of EI

Goleman (2004) defines EI as the capacity for recognizing one's own feelings and those of others, for motivating one's self, and for managing emotions well in one's self and in relationships. Goleman (1995) brings out five main domains of EI (overview of domains is in appendix 3): self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. Goleman (2001B) resets the conceptualization of EI by presenting emotional competence, which is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work.

The development of the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) started with a self-report competency questionnaire (Matthews *et al*, 2004). Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000) present a model of EI with twenty-five competencies arrayed in four clusters (see appendix 3) and after statistical analysis a new model was presented. Goleman (2001B) has refined the initial model of EI and the current measure consists of twenty competencies nested in four clusters of general EI abilities – self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Eventually, the second version of the ECI measures a different competence-based model than that described in Goleman's initial conceptualization (Matthews *et al*, 2004). A competency in his approach is

defined as a characteristic of an individual that is causally related to criterion-referenced performance in a job or situation (Druskat, Sala, Mount, 2006).

The ECI is a 360-degree assessment that gathers self, subordinate, peer and supervisory ratings on twenty social and emotional competencies. Survey respondents use a 6-point scale to describe themselves or another person in terms of each competency. (Gowing, 2001) The purpose of the ECI is to measure the key competencies that contribute to outstanding performance in the workplace (Hughes, Patterson, Terrell, 2005). In the ECI, respondents are asked to describe him or herself or another person in terms of each item on a scale of 1 to 7. The reliability Cronbach alpha for the self-reported scales vary from 0.62 to 0.87 (n≈670) and for the assessment of others from 0.80 to 0.94 (n≈427). (Boyatzis *et al*, 2000) Several competencies have overlap with other psychological concepts, especially those studied in the motivational and social psychological literature (Matthews *et al*, 2004). Still the ECI shows some promise regarding its ability to predict relevant outcomes in work-related settings (Brackett, Geher, 2006). Goleman's approach to EI is rather comprehensive and applicable in work settings, because it contains the main competencies that are required for emotionally intelligent behaviour. Only one component that is reflected in the definition and included in the initial approach – motivation – could have a relationship with similar concepts (but in another context).

Dulewicz and Higgs's competency and personality based model of EI

Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) define emotional intelligence as being aware of, and managing one's own feelings and emotions; being sensitive to, and influencing others; sustaining one's motivation; and balancing one's motivation and drive with intuitive, conscientious and ethical behavior. They contend that EI elements are personal, not ability factors, based in part on the results of studies showing clear links between many EI elements and personality factors as measured by personality questionnaires (Dulewicz, Higgs, Slaski, 2003). The authors decided to design an EI questionnaire derived from the findings of the extensive work on EI, and then proceeded to test it out on over 200 managers. Extensive analysis of the results demonstrated that EI has seven components or clusters of attributes (Dulewicz, Higgs, 1999; Dulewicz, Higgs, 2003; Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002) (for an overview of components see appendix 4): self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence, intuitiveness and conscientiousness.

Dulewicz and Higgs (Dulewicz *et al*, 2003) measure EI by means of an Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ). The EIQ was designed to assess through self-report seven elements of an individual's EI. Before designing the EIQ the authors conducted a comprehensive review of the existing literature from contributors in the field to ensure that all of the critical elements of EI were represented in the questionnaire and had acceptable content of validity. Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for each of the element scales ranged

from 0.6 to 0.8. Originally, the EIQ was designed to focus on the core EI constructs for managers in work settings and latter research has proven that the EIQ has more job-related validity. (Dulewicz *et al*, 2003) Thus, the measure was mainly tested in the organizational context and not in general research settings. The approach created by Dulewicz and Higgs is tested in work settings and has shown reliable application in organizations.

Bar-On's mixed model of EI

Bar-On (2000) defines EI as a multifactorial array of interrelated emotional, personal and social abilities that influence a person's overall ability to actively and effectively cope with daily demands and pressures. He presents five components of EI (see full description in appendix 5): intrapersonal intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, stress management, adaptability and general mood. Bar-On notes that EI as a non-cognitive intelligence is an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life, to cope with daily situations, and to get along in the world (Gowing, 2001). This is a rather broad approach to EI, and hence, it includes those components which do not refer directly to the emotions and intelligence (e.g. stress management).

Bar-On developed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), a self-report measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence. EQ renders a total EQ score and five EQ composite scale scores comprise fifteen subscale scores. (Bar-On, 2000) The EQ-i was developed over a period of 17 years and was standardized on the basis of 3 831 adults in North America. It has been translated into more than 30 languages. (Bar-On, Handley, Fund, 2006) Each individual who completes the measure receives a report showing how strong his or her scores are in each of the areas and receives a debriefing of the results (Hughes *et al*, 2005). The EQ-i comprises 133 items and uses a 5-point response scale with a textual response format (Bar-On *et al*, 2006). Bar-On (2000) in his extensive publication on the measurement inventory found that it has good reliability, factorial structure and validity. The Cronbach alphas for the scale vary from 0.70 to 0.86 (Gowing, 2001). The greatest concern with the measure is that it has considerable semantic overlap with other measures (Brackett, Geher, 2006) and its predictive validity may simply be a consequence of the EQ-i functioning as a proxy measure of personality (Matthews *et al*, 2004). Despite the concerns, EQ-i is an extensively tested measure and provides a lot of comparative data and research results that greatly contribute to EI research.

Cooper's mixed model of EI

Cooper and Sawaf (2000: xiii) define Emotional Intelligence as "the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection, and influence". They explain that emotional intelligence requires learning to acknowledge and understand feelings (in the self and others) and appropriately respond to them, effectively

applying the information and energy of emotions in daily life and work. Cooper introduces his Four Cornerstone Model of EI (see appendix 6), which “moves emotional intelligence out of the realm of psychological analysis and philosophical theories, and into the realm of direct knowing, exploration and application” (Cooper, Sawaf, 2000: xxvii). The model consists of four cornerstones (see full description and the model in appendix 6): emotional literacy, emotional fitness, emotional depth and emotional alchemy.

Cooper measures EI using the Emotional Quotient Map (EQ Map) created in 1996. The EQ Map is normed on the North American workforce and is a self-report, self-score measure. Individuals compile their own results on an interpretation sheet. It is designed strictly for developmental purposes and not for hiring or selection. Each person who takes the measure scores results and then turns to the Interpretation Guide for an understanding which describes the EQ Map as a multidimensional guide, which helps to discover the facets that make up an individual’s personal EI and its relationship to performance, creativity and success. The EQ Map is composed of two Current Environment Scales, fourteen EQ Dimensions, and four Outcomes (see appendix 6). (Hughes *et al*, 2005) The Cronbach alpha for the scales of the questionnaire rate from 0.53 to 0.91 (n=824), and this is evidence of its content and construct validity (Gowing, 2001). It is necessary to note that the EQ Map and Four Cornerstone Model of EI are not directly related conceptually – the scales of the EQ Map reflect different parts of the model. For example, measuring scales of emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, intentionality, constructive discontent and personal power will reflect Emotional Honesty, Constructive Discontent, Applied Identity (Cooper, Sawaf, 2000) and probably other cornerstones. This approach has a couple of disadvantages: firstly, the names for the EI components do not reflect the content and could lead to misleading interpretations; secondly, the main underlying components of EI are present in the “cornerstones” in a crosswise manner.

Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages and from the point of view of the present dissertation the application of the approach in organizational settings is crucial. In table 2 approaches are compared with respect to advantages/disadvantages, availability of the measure and application in the organizational context.

One serious claim about EI is that the concept has been approached from many different angles, and it can be argued from too many angles. Fineman (2003) notes that EI includes self-actualization, independence, flexibility, stress tolerance, impulse control, optimism, happiness, self-awareness, interpersonal connections, achievement drive and conscientiousness. The credibility of EI is strained as each new attribute, and each new measure, is added. Those who wish to assess EI need to ask themselves which particular version of EI and which measure they prefer. (*Ibid*) Brackett and Geher (2006) claim that broad definitions and measurements of EI, which do not refer exclusively to skills

Table 2. Comparison of approaches to and measures of EI

| <i>EI approach and measure</i> | <i>Advantages</i> | <i>Disadvantages</i> | <i>Application in organizations</i> |
|--------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Mayer, Caruso, Salovey; MCSEIT | Links <i>emotions</i> and <i>intelligence</i> in an exact way. Criterion report test enables objective verification. Measure is widely tested. | Measure is not freely available for research purposes. Consensus scoring in difficult questions might cause a bias. | Measure was developed and tested for general research settings and later shifted to managerial and leadership studies. |
| Singh; EQ test | Clear application for occupational settings. | Limited testing. | Standardized for occupational settings. |
| Goleman; ECI | Popular and comprehensive approach. Measure is widely tested. Focuses on those EI competencies that lead to effective performance. | Measure has overlaps with other motivational and social psychological tests. | Approach is utilized for organizational context; management and leadership. Popular in management consultation application. Measure has been mainly tested in workplace settings. |
| Dulewicz, Higgs; EIQ | Suitable measure for work context. | Limited testing. | Longitudinal studies among managers; measure has job-related validity; studied among sales and service employees. |
| Bar-On; EQ-I | Approach has wide scope of components. Measurement is accompanied with debriefing. Measure is widely tested. | Self-report measure relies on self-concept accuracy. Measure has overlaps with other personality trait and well-being measures. | Popular in management consultation application. Studied in leadership behavior and with respect to performance measurement. |
| Cooper; EQ Map | Self-assessment measure is available. Conceptualization differs from mainstream. | Model and measure are not comprehensively related. Scant scientific discussion on measure. | Used manly in consultancy to develop managers and leaders. Tested on thousands of executives, managers and professionals in more than a hundred organizations in service, technology and industry. |

Sources: composed by the author using Mayer, 2006; Brackett, Geher, 2006; Dulewicz, Higgs, Slaski, 2003; Ashkanasy, Daus, 2005; Cooper, Sawaf, 2000; Matthews, Zeidner, Roberts, 2004.

associated with the terms “emotion” and “intelligence”, are probably improper uses of the term, so it is difficult to decide what list of traits, skills and perceived abilities it encompasses. Many authors point out that the somewhat more complex and diverse nature of EI acts against its effective measurement (Dulewicz, Higgs, 2003). There is still much that is unclear about the way in which EI should be measured, and in some cases this lack of clarity has led to conflict and controversy among researchers and practitioners (Cherniss, 2001). Still, approaches to EI do give a clear understanding that there are competencies and abilities that help individuals to behave in accordance with their emotions or those of others. In the next sub chapter of the dissertation approaches to EI are compared and analyzed in order to find similarities and develop an integrated approach to EI. Also, the competencies of EI are explained in general terms as well as in terms of the organizational context.

1.1.3. An integrated approach to emotional intelligence in organizations

By analyzing the theories and models of EI, it is possible to locate two main orientations within EI: intra- and interpersonal competencies. In light of this similarity between approaches, the authors embarked upon a further examination. In Table 3 it is possible to follow the analysis of approaches to EI according to intra- and interpersonal competencies. The decision of classifying components of EI to be intra- or interpersonal stems from the analysis of the descriptions of approaches presented in Appendices 1–6.

As seen from Table 3, in each approach explored there are components of EI that are either intra- or interpersonal. But there are some competencies or abilities that do not qualify under these components. These are motivation (Goleman; Dulewicz and Higgs), conscientiousness (Dulewicz and Higgs), emotional depth and alchemy (Cooper) and general mood (Bar-On). It could be argued that these components of EI do have another focus or interrelation with concepts other than “emotion” and “intelligence”. Thus, in the author’s opinion these should be eliminated from the further framework.

As the EI canvas has unfolded, so have the number of attributes associated with it (Fineman 2003). Kornacki and Caruso (2007) state that EI is both intrapersonal and interpersonal. They explain that intrapersonal is the EI within ourselves: how individuals take and process emotional information affecting individual thoughts and behaviors; interpersonal is EI that occurs when two or more people interact. Thus *emotional intelligence* could be defined as a set of intra- and interpersonal competences, where intrapersonal competences concentrate on those abilities and skills that help a person to explain, understand, use and handle his/her emotions, and interpersonal competences of EI help a person to relate to other people in an effective manner and regard

Table 3. Comparison of approaches to EI according to intra- and interpersonal competencies or abilities

| <i>EI approach</i> | <i>Components of EI</i> | <i>Intra*</i> | <i>Inter*</i> |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, 1990 | Identifying Emotions | x | – |
| | Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought | x | – |
| | Understanding Emotions | – | x |
| | Managing Emotions | – | x |
| Singh, 2006 | Emotional Competency | x | – |
| | Emotional Maturity | x | – |
| | Emotional Sensitivity | – | x |
| Goleman, 1995 | Self-awareness | x | – |
| | Self-regulation | x | – |
| | Motivation | – | – |
| | Empathy | – | x |
| | Social skills | – | x |
| Dulewicz, Higgs, 1999 | Self-awareness | x | – |
| | Emotional resilience | x | – |
| | Motivation | – | – |
| | Interpersonal sensitivity | – | x |
| | Influence | – | x |
| | Intuitiveness | x | – |
| | Conscientiousness | – | – |
| Cooper, 2000 | Emotional Literacy | x | – |
| | Emotional Fitness | – | x |
| | Emotional Depth | – | – |
| | Emotional Alchemy | – | – |
| Bar-On, 1997 | Intrapersonal intelligence | x | – |
| | Interpersonal intelligence | – | x |
| | Adaptability | – | x |
| | Stress management | x | – |
| | General mood | – | – |

* *Intra* means intrapersonal abilities or competencies; *inter* means interpersonal competencies or abilities. “x” means that component of EI refers to intra- or interpersonal competencies and “–” means that it does not.

Sources: composed by author based on Mayer, Caruso, Salovey, 2000; Singh, 2006; Goleman, 1998; Dulewicz, Higgs, 2004; Bar-On, 2000; Cooper, Sawaf, 2000.

emotionally demanding situations constructively. EI influences people’s regular behavior. Since the models of EI have rather a broad scope of abilities, competencies and factors, the author of this dissertation decided to retain the approach of 1) Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (e.g. 2002), where EI is approached in terms of the combination of the two words, “emotion” and “intelligence”, 2) the ideology of Goleman (2001B) according to which EI represents a set of emotional competencies, and 3) to consider EI as a set of intra- and interpersonal competencies (as the result of the comparison of approaches to EI, see figure 4). The approach developed by the author of the present dissertation

focuses on EI in the organizational context and does not aim to explain human behavior in general settings. Thus, in figure 4, the conceptualization of EI in the current dissertation is presented.

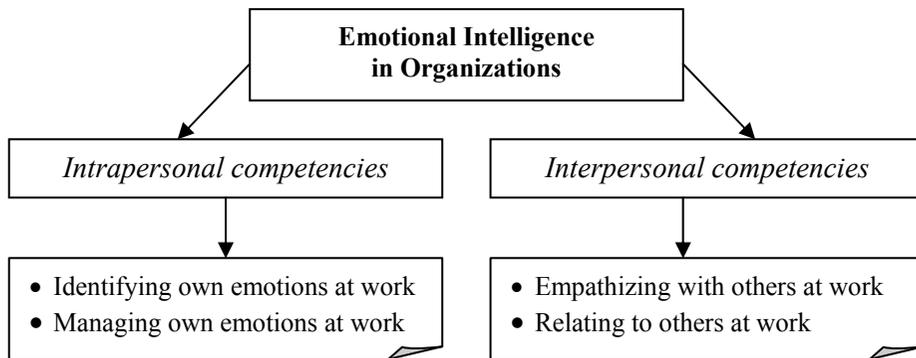


Figure 4. The conceptualization of EI: author’s approach

In the following, the competencies of EI are explored and what role these play in the organizational or work context is explained. The explanation of the following competencies is presented: identifying one’s own emotions at work, managing one’s own emotions at work, empathizing with others at work and relating to others at work. There are referred to different levels of EI (e.g. low, average, high) through the dissertation meaning that the subjective evaluations, opinions, perceptions or empirically evaluated (constructed) levels are described. Thus it is complicated to state on what exactly low or high level of EI indicates, because various basis are used to express levels of EI.

Identifying one’s own emotions at work

Self-awareness is the ability to recognize and label an increasingly complex range of feelings, and to link these with possible causes (Morris, Casey, 2006). Emotional perception involves registering, attending to and deciphering emotional messages as they are expressed in facial expressions, voice tone etc (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2001). Self-awareness relates to an individual’s self-knowledge and what encompasses the individual’s tendency to know and be in touch with their feelings and to understand their feelings and emotions (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). Identifying one’s own emotions is the ability and skill to recognize one’s own emotions at the moment those are evoked.

Self-awareness also allows individuals to make a realistic appraisal of their own strengths and thus they are able to make the most of them (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002), and this leads to the rational function of self-awareness and to enhancing decision-making. There is a major difference between experiencing emotions and recognizing them. Recognizing one’s own emotions is the ability

to use the analytical capabilities of the brain. (Singh, 2006) People who are able to identify emotions as they are evoked are more efficient at building an adequate self-picture by keeping in contact with emotion-evoking events and thinking. This is the one area where “emotions” and “intelligence” meet – when emotions occur acknowledging them, thinking rationally and analysing starts in order to classify the emotion and decide whether it is adequate or not to feel that way in the given situation. Identifying emotions is definitely not an easy task to perform because usually people get too involved in the emotion itself and the related processes (e.g. physical changes in the body), so that there is not enough attention paid to analyzing the emotion. Still, physical changes in the body are the best clues that provide a signal to start the rational process of analyzing emotions. For example, if the heart starts to race, this is a signal of the arousal of some emotions that caused changes in the physical sense, and a person with high self-awareness starts to analyze this and find links to emotional states and the causes that are behind the emotional arousal.

Emotional self-awareness is considered to be one of the building blocks for developing high EI in organizational settings (e.g. Weisinger, 1998, Goleman, 2001B; Caruso, Salovey, 2004). Identifying emotions or emotional self-awareness is claimed to be a helpful attribute for tuning in on one’s own job performance, and those employees who are high in self-awareness are able to monitor themselves and observe themselves in action (Matthews *et al*, 2004). Highly self-aware individuals tend to recognize feelings as they happen and relate their personal feelings to the context in which they are working (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). Individuals who can accurately identify their emotions are aware of their abilities and limitations; they can seek out feedback and learn from their mistakes and know where they need to improve and when to work with others who have complementary strengths (Goleman, 2001B). Emotional self-awareness makes it possible to be more effective with the environment – when this skill is well-developed, individuals can easily recognize when something is emotionally draining or energizing, identify the reason why and make an informed decision about continued involvement with a person, activity or organization (Hughes *et al*, 2005). Thus, the competency to identify one’s own emotions at work is beneficial in many ways; for example, it helps to monitor one’s own reactions to activities and work-relationships, it helps to find out what tasks are motivating and it helps to focus on developing our weaknesses.

Managing one’s own emotions at work

Caruso and Salovey (2004) suggest that the ability to manage emotions makes it easier to see things from a different perspective, enhance thinking, make more effective decisions and behave in a more adaptable manner. The management of emotions entails modulating experience and the expression of emotions within oneself in order to achieve one’s goals (Lopes, Côté, Salovey, 2006). There are two competencies to master when managing emotions successfully. The first

involves the ability to promote positive emotional states, for example, states of calmness and optimism, appropriate to what people are trying to achieve. The second competency involves the ability to modify the immediate impulses triggered by the experienced emotions. In this case it is the ability to delay a response for a short-period in order to allow the ‘thinking’ part of the brain to get the message; generate alternative strategies that will result in fulfilling longer-term interests and those of others. (Morris, Casey, 2006) Still, emotional management encourages emotions to be experienced, although not always expressed (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 2001). Managing emotions helps to adapt to situations in the way that will not harm emotional well-being.

In the occupational environment, self-regulation involves repressing personal needs and feelings and controlling impulses in favor of organizational needs (Matthews *et al*, 2004), and this is considered to be an important skill and ability for solving problems and conflicts (Weisinger, 1998). An emotionally upset person’s performance at work will suffer; hence, being able to deal with both professional and personal upsets will help achieve full productivity (Singh, 2006). This component of EI requires the ability to recognize both the positive and negative impact on one’s own feelings and emotions in the work context and to control these to ensure that both organizational and personal goals are satisfied (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). Emotional management could mean reframing a bad experience to make it seem more bearable; telling funny stories to keep one’s colleagues in good spirits; playing up one’s anger to make sure that a subordinate gets the message; or dampening one’s exhilaration about a promotion if a colleague who is sitting nearby did not even get a bonus (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schütz, Sellin, Salovey, 2006). The ability to deal with emotional upsets is a powerful asset in building and/or maintaining self-confidence and accepting challenging tasks (Singh, 2006). Thus, managing emotions is the competency that ensures adequate reactions to emotion-evoking events and enables to control oneself and situations in the organizational context.

Empathizing with others at work

Empathy competence involves an awareness of other’s emotions, concerns and needs (Goleman, 2001B). The capacity for accurate empathy consists of putting oneself in the place of another person and imagining how one would feel if one were that person (Lane, 2000). Being able to read non-verbal cues that contradict spoken words, helps to know what is really going on in a situation (Singh 2006). Empathizing with others does not mean being indiscriminately nice to others, nor sacrificing one’s own needs and interests for those of others (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). Empathy operates on two levels: one level is where the self and the other actually experience the same emotions, while the second level is where the self and the other achieve a cognitive understanding of what “it would feel like” to be in the other’s place. Empathy thus allows individuals to share each other’s emotions. When empathy leads to the sharing of positive

emotions, it motivates people to sustain or enhance empathetic contact, thereby promoting social solidarity. (Turner, Stets, 2005) Empathy is the ability to ‘tune in’ on another person’s inner world and to see the outside world from that person’s perspective; it has three components (Morris, Casey, 2006):

- awareness and knowledge of other people’s feelings, thoughts and motivations through ‘reading’ contextual and other information;
- the ability to see things from a different point of view and appreciate the differences in how people feel about things;
- the motivation to use an empathetic response, in line with another’s needs, often subjugating one’s own.

Empathizing with others encompasses a complex and often contradictory set of behaviors (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002), but still aims to tune in on the same level of understanding with the other person. When empathy leads people to sharing negative emotions, they become motivated to engage in altruistic behavior that can alleviate the burden imposed by negative emotions, and in this way empathy with regard to negative emotions can motivate people to behave in ways that promote social solidarity (Turner, Stets, 2005). When empathy leads to sharing positive emotions, they display positive emotions even if the person is not in a positive mood at that moment. Empathy could be accompanied with emotional labor especially in service work regarding emotional displays – reaction to a counterpart’s emotions are empathetic, but do not always reflect the inner state of the person.

The ability to empathize with others in the workplace is important when problems require accepting conflicting opinions; empathy constitutes the basis for mutual trust and acceptance, which is crucial, for example, when initiating radical changes in an organization (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). Goleman, Boyatzis and Rhee (2000) claim that an empathic employee can tune in on a number of emotional signals, listen carefully and understand different points of view. Indeed, empathy combines the ability to sense and understand what others are feeling with the ability to recognize how such feelings may conflict with organizational or situational requirements (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). The key to effectively applying empathy lies in learning how to give others accurate feedback on what others feel and why (Hughes *et al.*, 2005). Still some people can instantly empathize with others, while others cannot (Singh, 2006). Nevertheless, in organizational settings there is sometimes the necessity to not use empathy, because too much empathy might lead to an inadequate evaluation of the situation. Goleman (2004) highlights that avoidance of empathy is beneficial when there is a question of the reallocation of resources or in occupations where empathy could harm one’s own emotional well-being (e.g. psychotherapists, surgeons). Empathizing with others is a useful competency as it helps to create effective and authentic relationships at work, it helps to give feedback in a way it makes a difference and it helps to identify the motives and reasons behind behavior of colleagues at work.

Relating to others at work

This is a very wide-ranging category, which encompasses the ability to build rapport in dealing with others, exhibit co-operative behaviors, promote social harmony and display social competencies. It incorporates the ability to initiate relationships as well as respond appropriately and productively in the context of existing relationships. (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002) Relating to others hinges on the ability to attune to or influence the emotions of another person (Goleman, 2001B). Relating to others as a competency involves being honest and regarding emotional expressions. It helps individuals to relate to others in an effective manner, to express emotions in considered way and to be sensitive towards other's feelings.

Weisinger (1998) affirms that the importance of interpersonal skills in EI is crucial, and its value in the workplace is immeasurable. Effectively communicating with others means having emotional flexibility, being able to deal with difficult topics directly, listening actively and sharing information (Matthews *et al*, 2004). The ability to impact and influence others is closely related to the ability to connect and use emotions – when working with others it is possible with emotions to influence the behavior of others and the work can become more productive (Singh, 2006). Even when a person is aware of personal feelings of, for example, frustration in a work context, one can still make effective decisions. This requires the ability to maintain focus on results or actions, while also being able to express personal feelings effectively. (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002) The EI competency of relating to others means the effective expression of emotions and the ability to influence other's behavior using emotions. The ability to manage interpersonal relationships in order to achieve results thus entails the ability to persuade others to work as individuals and in teams to achieve important work-related goals (*Ibid.*). The ability to relate to others in an effective manner is also crucial in workplace settings in order to create friendly connections between people.

EI is not about being illogical or overly emotional, it is about the intelligent use of emotions and utilizing the information contained in emotions to take effective decisions (Kornacki, Caruso, 2007). Emotionally unintelligent behavior occurs when emotions and thoughts impede effective action (Ciarrochi, Blackledge, Bilich, Bayliss, 2007). An understanding of EI stems from comprehending the role of intelligence in working with emotional information. EI could be beneficial in the work context because the wise use of emotions could lead to increased efficiency and expected outcomes.

EI competencies of identifying and managing emotions and empathizing with and relating to the emotions in others have certain applications in workplace settings. EI competencies in organizational settings are summarized in the following table 4.

Table 4. The content of EI competencies at work: author’s approach

| Intrapersonal competencies of EI | Interpersonal competencies of EI |
|---|---|
| <p><i>Identifying one’s own emotions</i> Identifying one’s own emotions means that the employee notices, pays attention to and thinks about his/her feelings. The employee admits emotions and understands the reasons behind emotion-evoking events. The employee catches the emotion as it occurs and can distinguish between different feelings. At work the employee understands how feelings vary and evolve during work-related changes.</p> | <p><i>Empathizing with others</i> Empathizing with others means that the employee can place him/herself in the place of a colleague, and can feel what the colleague feels. The employee notices the real (also unexpressed) emotions felt by colleagues, the reasons behind those feelings, and understands when the colleague’s behavior is not congruent with his/her emotions. The emotions of colleagues are considered important; in cooperation and problem-solving, the feelings of colleagues are considered.</p> |
| <p><i>Managing one’s own emotions</i> Managing one’s own emotions means that the employee can manage emotions at work and change them according to the situation. The employee can remain exhilarated and in a good mood, avoid the harmful influence of negative feelings on performance, and control negative emotions that retard work activities. The employee is optimistically disposed, magnifies positive emotions according to the situation and keeps positive attitudes despite misfortune.</p> | <p><i>Relating to others</i> Relating to others means that the employee can cheer up colleagues, and enhance positive relationships between them. The employee reacts to colleague’s feelings, and creates effective, friendly and informal relationships. The employee knows how his/her emotions influence colleagues, can openly talk about emotions, shows real feelings and colleagues know what he/she feels.</p> |

Source: composed by the author.

There is a common consensus about the fact that the competencies or abilities underlying the EI concept are interrelated (see figure 5). Healthy individuals spontaneously model and respond to the mental states of other people to guide their own interpersonal behavior. Self-awareness competencies provide a foundation for the appropriate use of self-management and relationship management competencies. (Sala, 2006) Emotional self-awareness is the key ability to communicate feelings to other (Hughes *et al*, 2005). Empathy requires self-awareness – the understanding of other’s feelings and concerns flows from the awareness of one’s own feelings (Goleman, 2001B). Empathy underlies all interpersonal skills and cannot develop without a basic level of self-awareness and understanding (Morris, Casey, 2006), and one’s ability to empathize cannot exceed one’s ability to monitor one’s own emotions (Lane, 2000). Empathy is vital for the ability to develop and maintain deep and lasting interpersonal relationship (Hughes *et al*, 2005). The ability to recognize and have insight into the needs, motivations and feelings of others, to respond to these and to be able

to resolve conflict between individuals, groups and organizations requires a high level of interpersonal skill and behavior (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). Relating to others builds on other domains of EI, especially on the identification and management of one's own emotions (Goleman, 2001B).

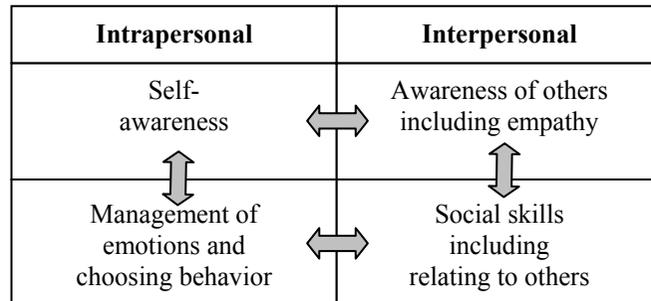


Figure 5. Evolving model of EI (modified Morris, Casey, 2005)

Thus, it could be summarized that self-awareness as the ability or competency to identify emotions forms the basis for the management of one's own emotions and empathy. The EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and empathy form the basis for social skills and enable to relate to others. Stemming from the discussion above following proposition could be presented:

Proposition 1.1.3: Estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are significantly correlated to each other.

In the present sub chapter the competencies of EI have been explained in a more detailed manner. This helps the reader to understand what is really behind these phenomena and how they could be used in work-place settings. As EI manifests at the individual level (the author of the present dissertation claims that there are no "emotionally intelligent" teams or organizations), there should be differences according to various individual characteristics.

1.1.4. The differences in emotional intelligence according to occupational and individual characteristics

Fineman (2003) claims that current renditions of EI are insensitive to gender, social class and national culture. History is littered with failures to find universal personal qualities for managerial success, and emotional competencies are no exception (*Ibid*). Still there is a considerable amount of research on EI differences according to individual and professional characteristics. This part of

the dissertation investigates how EI differs according to: occupation and area of activity, academic intelligence and education, ethnic affiliation, gender and age.

Occupation and area of activity

While companies operating in a certain business sector or industry employ people from particular professions then the importance of EI could differ according to the profession or occupation. Though studies on the topic of EI in the occupational environment are limited, it is generally agreed that EI has a crucial importance in occupational settings (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). Alvesson (2002) says that it would be in fact odd if CEOs, typists, factory workers, salesmen, engineers and product designers shared norms and acted upon them in a similar way. Different jobs call for different types of EI. For example, success in sales requires the empathetic ability to gauge a customer's mood and the interpersonal skill to decide when to pitch a product and when to keep quiet. Success in painting or professional tennis requires a more individual form of self-discipline and motivation. (Singh, 2006) In appendix 7 it is possible to see the list of professions that require different levels of EI.

Singh (2006) demonstrated in his study carried out among representatives of 18 professions that various occupations require different levels of EI. On the basis of a statistical analysis, he found three clusters of respondents (see Table 5). The cluster analysis clearly reveals that all 18 professions can be clustered into three clusters. *The first cluster* constitutes four professions exhibiting an extremely high EI level, meaning that with reference to EI these professions are similar. This probably indicates that one needs to have an extremely high degree of EI to achieve job satisfaction in these professions where one may need to express feelings, identify and label feelings, manage and control impulses, interpret emotional cues that may influence social behavior. *The second cluster* is homogeneous in nature and to be successful in these professions one needs a high level of EI. *The third cluster* constitutes eight professions and individuals with moderate EI can also perform effectively. Nevertheless, having a high or average level of EI cannot simplistically be labeled 'good' or 'bad' in a profession. It is necessary to have the right balance of various emotional competencies that can help one to become a star performer. (*Ibid*) Bagshaw (2000) notes that occupations like social work, teaching, psychology and HR management have recognized the need for EI; other occupations, like accountancy, engineering and biochemistry bear the traditional stereotype of being emotion-free zones, but those too are coming to realize that behaving in an emotionally intelligent way is essential for business success. In the research on professions presented, no service employee level of EI was directly indicated, but there are professions in each cluster that refer to service sector work. This means that even within the service sector it is possible to find variations in the required EI level.

Table 5. Clusters of professions according to EI level

| <i>Clusters</i> | <i>Professions included</i> | <i>Level of EI</i> |
|-----------------|--|--------------------|
| Cluster I | Artists, insurance, advertisement, social work | Extremely high |
| Cluster II | Teaching, legal, tourism, politics, business/ entrepreneurship, police | High |
| Cluster III | Judiciary, administration, information technology, medicine, banking, engineering, accountancy, nursing | Average |

Source: Singh (2006)

EI is considered an important ability and competence for managers and leaders in an organization (Caruso, Salovey, 2004; Mayer, Caruso, 2002; Goleman, 2001A). It could be proposed that the EI of employees from the different levels of the organizational hierarchy could be different due to the situational attributes of emotional reactions in the organizational context. Goleman (2001A) finds that in general the higher a position in an organization, the more EI matters. The more complex the job, the more important EI is, if only because a deficiency in these abilities can hinder the use of whatever technical expertise or intellect the person may have (Singh, 2006). The disparity in understanding the required level of EI in different occupations exists, because there are not much research done and results of the studies are distinct. In figure 6, there is one more option to differentiate EI according to various occupations showing what the importance of EI could be as a competency in order to perform successfully in that job. Nevertheless it should be noted that in some occupations not all EI competencies could be considered as beneficial. For example, it is not expected that surgeons or prison guards have high empathy and soldiers have a high ability to identify their own emotions – these even might hinder their performance.

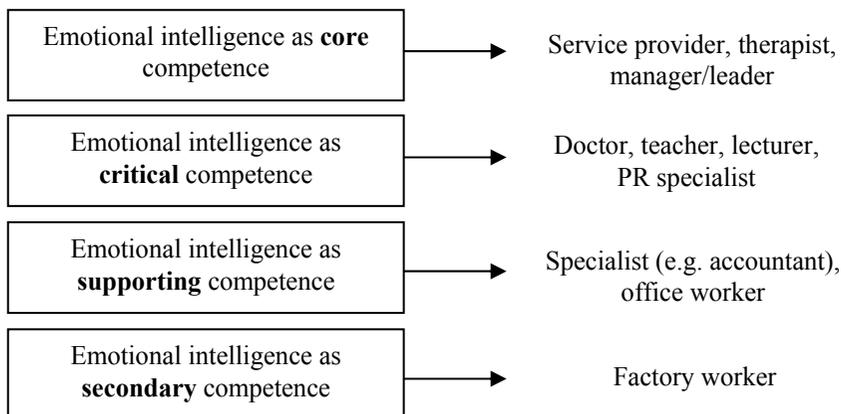


Figure 6. The importance of EI as a competency in different occupations (composed by the author based on the ideas of Singh, 2006; Bagshaw, 2000; Orme, 2001; Jacobs, 2001)

Jacobs (2001) has made an attempt to compose EI competence models for different occupations such as managers, individual contributors (professional, entrepreneur), salespeople and human service employees (social workers, therapists, medical personnel, teachers). She claims that in hiring and selecting candidates with different occupations it is necessary to differentiate between the EI competencies that are relevant for that certain job. Orme (2001) also finds that various occupations require different aspects of EI – for instance, if the job involves a high degree of contact with other people, there are in greater need of the ability to manage emotions, whereas a counselor requires a higher ability to understand emotions. Jobs that involve interacting with other people, working in informal teams or empathizing with and understanding others are those that require EI (Singh, 2006). This means that different occupations require the application of different EI competencies.

In addition to occupational disparities in EI it could be proposed that EI differs according to area or sector of activity as well. For example, Manna and Smith (2004) found in their research that EI was the dominant factor in differentiating industry type, at least for the insurance and financial sector, which were under investigation. The results of a study by Burns and Neisner (2006) suggest that emotions may play a lesser role in the level of satisfaction experienced by consumers in a retail setting than in a service setting. Thus, there is enough theoretical, though less empirical evidence that the importance of EI competencies differ according to occupations and areas of activity. Stemming from that the following proposition is presented.

Proposition 1.1.4.A: Employees with different occupations evaluate their EI at a significantly different level.

Academic intelligence and education

One of the most disputable areas about EI is its relationship to academic intelligence. Some studies show that high academic or general intelligence is not related to EI, which shows that EI is not predicted by high academic or general intelligence. It has been long believed that success at the workplace depends on your level of intelligence or intelligence quotient (IQ) as reflected in academic achievements, exams passed, marks obtained, degrees and so on (Singh, 2006). Hedlund and Sternberg (2000) cite previous studies by Schutte and say that EI was unrelated to the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) scores of college freshman. Other studies show that, for example, the Bar-On EQ-i total score does not predict academic achievement (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). Esmond-Kruger, Tucker and Yost (2006) conducted a study among 460 students and measured their grade point average (GPA) and EI and found that there is no significant relationship between EI and GPA. These research results imply that there is no clear connection between EI and academic achievement.

Still, Wechsler in 1958, admitted that IQ is neither the only nor a complete measure of intelligence. Intelligence is too complicated an entity to be defined

by a single number. It is a function of other factors besides sheer intellectual ability. This must be so because individuals having the same IQ's may differ considerably in either their actual or potential capacity for intelligent behavior. These other factors – drive, emotional balance, persistence – are not always measurable or even easily discernible, but have to be taken into account in concrete situations. (Wechsler, 1958) So, it is still not clear enough what the relationship is between EI and academic achievement: it is also claimed that emotional competencies are of prime importance for academic success (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). For example, in research conducted by Fatt and Howe (2003) among 100 undergraduate students, they show that educational background is the predictor of the respondents' EI scales according to MCSEIT for identifying emotions and understanding emotions. Fernández-Aráoz (2001) suggests that in hiring and selecting, candidates with highly relevant experience and high IQ do not necessarily have a high aggregate level of relevant EI competencies. The author of this dissertation presumes that there are no differences in EI according to educational level and proposes the following:

Proposition 1.1.4.B: The higher education of employees is not related to higher evaluations of the level of EI competencies.

Ethnic affiliation

EI research is considered to be both scant and contradictory on the topic of EI differences according to ethnic affiliation (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). In Goleman's conceptualization, there is clearly an implicit assumption that citizens of diverse cultural origins can possess EI in equal measure (*Ibid.*). Supporting this proposition, Bar-On (2000) claims that there are no significant differences in EI between various ethnic groups. Lopes *et al* (2004) found in their study of EI conducted by means of MSCEIT that a German sample provided similar responses to those of the normative sample, which suggests that ability measures of EI may be cross-culturally valid. Still their research results are based on measurement issues rather than differences of EI among respondents with different ethnic affiliation.

Nevertheless, there is some evidence from empirical studies that show some differences in EI between groups of respondents with different ethnic backgrounds. For example, Poon and Fatt (2002) investigated Singaporean undergraduates and foreign undergraduates of various nationalities. They found that in such sections of EI as identification and understanding emotions there were significant differences in mean scores between the two groups of undergraduates (foreign students scoring higher). Singh (2006) explored the nature of management practices in Indian organizations, and tested 204 Indian, Japanese, American and European managers operating in Indian organizations. He found that the European managers lead in EI compared to the rest of the sample, followed by Indians, Americans and Japanese, in that order. The author explains different EI levels on the basis of the variety of the work and

managerial culture of the explored regions. Fineman (2003) colorfully notes that what might be regarded as an emotionally intelligent response in a mid-western US business could be radically different in a downtown store in Kowloon or Karachi. The author of this dissertation presumes that there are differences in EI according to individuals with different ethnic evaluation and proposes the following:

Proposition 1.1.4.C: Employees with a different ethnic affiliation evaluate their level of EI competencies at significantly different levels.

Gender

Hofstede (2001) puts forward a colorful comparison by saying that feelings and fears about the behavior of the opposite gender are of the same order of intensity as reactions when people are exposed to a foreign culture. Gender also has an important effect on emotions and EI because different gender role norms are applied in the workplace (i.e. what is acceptable for a male is not always acceptable for a female) (Caruso, Salovey, 2004). There is some empirical evidence about EI differences among men and women.

Singh (2006) explored the nature of management practices in Indian organizations and tested 204 Indian, Japanese, American and European managers operating in Indian organizations. He found that male and female managers are positively and significantly different according to EI, indicating that females have greater EI compared to males. The results of the survey conducted by Poon and Fatt (2002) show that there were significant differences between males and females (males scoring higher) in mean estimations of such aspects of EI as identifying and managing emotions. Research conducted by Fatt and Howe (2003) among 100 undergraduate students shows that there were significant differences in mean scores for identifying emotions and using emotions within MCSEIT with males scoring higher. According to the findings from research conducted by Bar-On (2000), women are more aware of emotions, demonstrate more empathy, relate better interpersonally and behave in a more socially responsible manner than men; on the other hand, men appear to have better self-regard, are more independent, cope better with stress, are more flexible and are more optimistic than women. Goleman (2004) referring to a number of studies claims that women tend to be more empathetic than men. Also Gowing, O'Leary, Schulze and Wegman (2006) found higher scores for females in several of the interpersonal and social competencies measured in their research. So, gender differences could cause a variation in EI competencies and so the following proposition is made:

Proposition 1.1.4.D: Women evaluate their level of EI competencies significantly higher than men.

Age

Several researchers (e.g. Goleman, 1997; Dulewicz, Higgs, 1999; Watkin, 2000; Diggins, Kandola, 2004) suggest that it is possible to develop EI over our life span. According to research presented by Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000), it is suggested that EI develops with age. Studies have tracked that people's level of EI through the years show that people get better and better in these capabilities as they grow more adept at handling their own emotions and impulses, at motivating themselves, and at honing their empathy and social adroitness (Goleman, 1998). Stein and Book (2001) think that the shrewd employer would do well to anchor his or her staff with mature individuals: elders add much-needed stability and they also tend to prove more adept than their junior counterparts at problem-solving and frequently have a firmer grip on reality.

Bar-On (2000) found in his research that the older groups scored significantly higher than the younger groups on most of the EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory) scales – respondents in their late forties and early fifties received higher mean scores. Another study conducted by Punia (2006), but reported by Singh (2006), among 250 Indian executives show that with respect to the respondents' age (four age groups were formed: below 25, 26–35, 36–45, over 46) there are significant differences revealing a parabolic trend. This means that a person's EI level first increases with age, reaches a peak and then starts decreasing. Stein and Book (2001) refer to a study that took place in Canada and the US among 4 000 people, according to which EI rises steadily to an average level (late teens) where it remains throughout 40s and once past 50, EI tapers a bit.

The research reported by Singh (2006) shows different results for EI differences in age groups. The study among government officers did not indicate any age differences in EI estimations among age groups 30–45 years and 46–60 years. Still, he does observe that the second group is slightly higher on the EI score compared to the first group, which indicates some development of EI with age, although the scores of both groups fall in the average EI category and differences are not significant. (Singh, 2006) There is more evidence on EI differences among various age groups and stemming from that the author of the dissertation proposes the following:

Proposition 1.1.4.E: Middle-aged employees evaluate their EI competencies significantly higher than younger or older employees.

According to the propositions set, there is a clear assumption that different characteristics influence the level of EI. This suggests that EI is not a universal capability and depends on other aspects. An important issue what could impact EI are related to context – the next sub chapter analyzes the essence of service provision as feature of EI manifestation at work.

1.1.5. The essence of service provision

The service sector is becoming one of the dominant economic fields around the world. Still, service provision has a distinct character compared to manufacturing. Over the last half century there has been a massive structural change, shifting employment in most of the developed world away from manufacturing and towards services (Grugulis, 2002). In this part of the dissertation the service economy and its developmental trends are expounded. The essence and character of service provision, the components of service quality and what happens during a service encounter will all be explained. This part of the dissertation helps to build a contextual background for understanding the role of EI in providing services.

“A ‘service economy’ consists of ‘service activities’ which are brought to bear on physical objects, human subjects, information or institutional entities in such a way that these are somehow influenced without being physically transformed, or where the focus is on the use and function of objects which are the subject of activities rather than on the physical transformation of them” (Normann, 2000: 4). Haksever, Render, Russell and Murdick (2000) present the following reasons behind the growth of the service sector: the increase in efficiency of agriculture and manufacturing that releases labor for services; a decrease in investment as a percentage of GDP in high-income industrialized countries or an increase in the percentage of GDP in low-income countries; a rise in per capita income; deregulation of the economy; demographic shifts; an increase in international trade; and joint symbiotic growth of services with manufacturing.

The largest single area of job growth since 1996 was in sales jobs within distribution, hotels and catering; the next biggest increase is going to be in personal and protective service jobs, but mostly in the public sector (Thompson, Warhurst, Callaghan, 2000). The decline in traditional manufacturing industries and the rise of the service sector has created the need for entrepreneurs in the workplace: flexible and multi-skilled workers who enable companies to compete in volatile markets (Bolton, 2005). Alvesson (1993) claims that the shift from mass production to services is associated with the change in emphasis from control of behavior and measurement of outputs to control of employees’ attitudes and commitment, the latter being crucial for the service-mindedness in employees which in turn determines the level of customer satisfaction. This actually shifts the understanding of the requirements of work-staff in many positions. Customer orientation, proactivity towards customers and a readiness to understand the needs of the customer is something what should be present in all positions that have an interface with the customer. Literally, the specific competencies needed to implement the job might be secondary in comparison with the right attitudes toward serving customers in organizations which strive to be the best partner for the customers.

Change in the service sector has not been merely quantitative, there has also been a dramatic shift in manufacturing organizations towards a service sector mind-set. Nowadays it is sometimes difficult to identify the character of activities in manufacturing companies, because they provide not only manufacturing of products, but a large range of services for the customer starting from proposing and selling modifications to products in cooperation with the customer and finishing with after-sales services. Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) also agree that customer service is provided by all types of companies as long as it supports the company's core products. So, even in manufacturing companies at least some of the personnel are expected to have competencies and attitudes that support and enable the creation and retention of effective relationships with customers.

In order to proceed with the topic it is necessary to define what is meant under the term service. Grönroos (2001: 46) defines *services* as a "process consisting of a series of more or less intangible activities that normally, but not necessarily always, take place in interaction between the customer and service employee and/or physical resources or goods and/or systems of the service provider, which are provided as solutions to customer problems". *Services* can be defined as economic activities that produce time, place, form, or psychological utilities. Almost all purchases of goods are accompanied by facilitating services, and almost every service purchase is accompanied by facilitating goods. The key to understanding the difference between goods and services lies in the realization that these items are not completely distinct, but rather are two poles on a continuum. (Haksever, *et al*, 2000) Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) claim that *services* are deeds, processes and performances that encompass a wide range of industries (e.g. telecommunication, hotels, transportation, financial services), but that services can also be offered to the market place by manufacturers and technology companies. So, service is a process that could involve goods and definitely involves an interaction in one way or another.

Through the years, researchers and analysts have used one or more criteria to characterize services. Haksever, *et al* (2000) present the following four most often mentioned characteristics of services: intangibility (services are not physical objects, but performances), inseparability (services are consumed when they are produced), perishability (services are noninventoriable commodities) and variability (provided by humans to humans, it happens during interactions). Grönroos (2001) highlights that for most services, three basic characteristics can be identified: (1) services are processes considering activities or a series of activities rather than things; (2) services are at least to some extent produced and consumed simultaneously; and (3) the customer participates in the service production process at least to some extent. Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) say that services are intangible, heterogeneous, simultaneously produced and consumed, perishable and they meet the following features: services cannot be inventoried, returned or resold; services cannot be readily displayed and communicated;

service delivery and customer satisfaction depend on employee actions and many other uncontrollable factors; there is no sure knowledge that the service delivered matches what was planned and promoted; customers participate in and affect the transaction and each other; employees affect the service outcome; and it is difficult to synchronize supply and demand with services. Thus, there is a tremendous difference between goods and services, but it needs to be kept in mind that in today's world pure goods can hardly be found on the market because they are almost always accompanied by some kind of service provision.

Two primary dimensions make up customer service: the *procedural* side if the service consists of established systems and procedures to deliver products and/or services; the *personal* side of the service shows how the service personnel (using their attitudes, behavior and communication skills) interact with customers (Martin, 1994). Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) claim that the *service act* can be considered across two dimensions: who or what is the direct recipient of the service, and the tangible nature of the service. This creates four possible classifications (see figure 7). The most important consideration of service providers competencies should probably be placed on those services where the direct recipient of the service is people and especially during intangible actions because commonly in private organizations the final output of all activities is to make earnings for owners through convincing the customer to pay for the services provided.

| | | Direct Recipient of the Service | |
|----------------------------------|--|--|---|
| Nature of the service act | | People | Things |
| Tangible actions | | <i>Services directed at people's bodies:</i> Health care Passenger transportation Beauty salons Exercise clinics Restaurants Haircutting | <i>Services directed at goods and other physical possessions:</i> Freight transportation Industrial equipment repair and maintenance Janitorial services Laundry and dry cleaning Landscaping/lawn care Veterinary care |
| Intangible actions | | <i>Services directed at people's minds:</i> Education Broadcasting Information Services Theatres Museums | <i>Services directed at intangible assets:</i> Banking Legal services Accounting Securities Insurance |

Figure 7. Examples of service act directions (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998)

One way to identify service performance is through examining service quality. Due to the “unstable” character of service provision there have not been many attempts to provide theoretical overviews about service quality. Still Zeithaml, Parasuraman and Berry (1990) present five dimensions of service quality:

- *Reliability*. The ability to perform the promised service both dependably and accurately. Reliable service performance is a customer expectation and means that the service is accomplished on time, in the same manner, and without errors all the time.
- *Responsiveness*. The willingness to help customers and to provide a prompt service. If a service failure occurs, the ability to recover quickly and with professionalism can create a very positive perception of quality.
- *Assurance*. The knowledge and courtesy of employees as well as their ability to convey trust and confidence. The assurance dimension includes the following features: competence to perform the service, politeness and respect for the customer, effective communication with the customer, and the general attitude that the server has the customer’s interests at heart.
- *Empathy*. The provision of caring, individualized attention to customers. Empathy includes the following features: approachability, sensitivity and effort to understand the customer’s needs.
- *Tangibles*. The appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials. The condition of the physical surroundings is tangible evidence of the care and attention to detail that are exhibited by the service provider.

Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) go further and introduce how service quality is perceived by the customer using these five dimensions to form their judgments of service quality based on a comparison between expected and perceived service (see figure 8). They consider the gap between expected and perceived service as a measure of service quality, satisfaction is either negative or positive. The interaction with the customer-service provider is crucial in service quality creation. The customer enters into a service act with certain past experiences with service organizations, and if there are no previous experiences then expectations are formed based on information gathered from different sources. The expected service is derived from the personal needs that the customer wishes to satisfy with the help of the service organization. Thus, the expected service quality comes from rather fuzzy reasoning about the service organization’s ability to meet the customer’s needs. Still there are many unstable variables in the creation of perceived service quality – if the previous experience, the information gathered by the customer and the organization’s set-up just barely ensure satisfaction of the customer needs in the customer’s opinion, but in the process of the service act needs are unexpectedly satisfied to a superior level (e.g. due to the service provider’s high competencies or familiarity with procedures or even good mood while providing service), the service quality will be evaluated at a high level while there are other

competitors where the same level of quality represents the minimum requirements. Finally, perceived service quality does create positive or negative experiences creating satisfaction or dissatisfaction and thus positive or negative emotions.

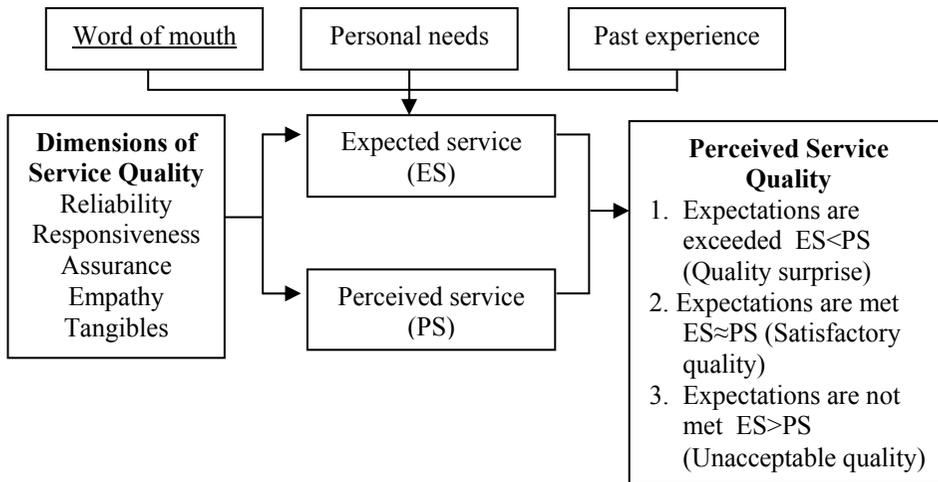


Figure 8. Perceived service quality (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, Berry, 1985)

As seen from the process of forming the perception of service quality, the service act is central in forming customer satisfaction. Customer service is a task that involves interactions with customers in person or by other means and is designed, performed and communicated with two goals in mind: operational efficiency and customer satisfaction (Lovelock, 1985). A service is offered by a provider to a consumer through an interface which describes the contract between the provider and the customer (Allen, 2006: 9). So, the immediate interaction in the service proceeds by creating the preconditions for further sales as the customer mediates organization-related information to other potential customers in a positive or negative light.

When customers purchase the process of being served as well as (or instead of) a physical product, employees become an integral part of the sale or service provision (Grugulis, 2002). While sales tools are becoming more technologically advanced, such as the use of laptops, voicemail and email, sales is still about successful interaction with the customer whose expectations over time have dramatically changed – they are becoming more empowered and expecting more in terms of service (Manna, Smith, 2004). People on the front line, dealing with customers face to face, make all the difference to customer satisfaction, because of the need to be able to understand customer needs, find ways to increase customer satisfaction and offer appropriate assistance (Bagshaw, 2000). The employee plays an integral part in creating the service experience

for the customer. Service provision involves the active participation of both service provider and customer.

Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) claim that one of the unique characteristics of services is the active participation of the customer in the service production process. Normann (2000) who originated the theory of '*The Moment of Truth*' claims that most services are the result of social acts taking place in direct contact between customer and representatives of the service company. Normann states that perceived quality is realized at the moment of truth, when the service provider and the service customer confront one another; thus, the moment of truth is where the quality of service operation is created. The moment of truth has also been defined as: "any episode in which the customer comes into contact with any aspect of the organization and gets an impression of the quality of its service" (Haksever, *et al*, 2000: 22). Detecting customers' emotional expressions during the "moment of truth" could provide frontline employees with helpful cues as to how to customize service delivery (Mattila, Enz, 2002). The "moment of truth" is usually known as a service encounter.

The *service encounter* is when a consumer directly interacts with a service. Controlling and enhancing the service encounter is a critically important task since service encounters are the customer's main source of information for conclusions regarding the quality of the service and no marketer can afford to leave the service encounter to chance. (Shostack, 1985) Service encounters may be simple or complex processes. Usually, they consist not of a single episode, but a series of episodes involving multiple facets of an organization. There are many opportunities for dissatisfying or satisfying the customer and encouraging them to return. Therefore, service encounters must be carefully designed and managed. (Haksever, *et al*, 2000) The *quality of a service encounter* may be defined as the shared experience of gain by participants and the stable pattern of behavior associated with a given type of service encounter (Klaus, 1985). Unlike the production of goods, quality is ephemeral in the services environment – it can disappear in a moment during a negative interaction between a customer and service provider (Varca, 2004). Thus, the service encounter is central in determining the organization's ability and more specifically the service provider's ability to satisfy the customer's needs.

There are contradictory positions about the impact of the organization on the service encounter. Normann (2000) claims that what happens during the service encounter is no longer directly influenced by the company. He says that it is the skill, the motivation and the tools employed by the firm's representative and the expectations and behavior of the client which together create the service delivery process (service provision). Bolton (2005) also thinks that occupations such as front-line service jobs rely almost wholly on the embodied capacities of the worker. On the contrary Haksever *et al* (2000) imply that the service encounter is perceived by the customer as the organization. In other words, they explain that when a customer is treated badly by an employee, the customer

does not think that he or she came into contact with a rude person working for the company, but he thinks he or she is dealing with a rude company. Bateson (1985) presents a service encounter triad (see figure 9), where role of the service providing organization is evident. Every moment of truth involves an interaction between a customer and a service provider; each has a role to play in an environment staged by the service organization (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons 1998). Both presented positions are true – what happens during a service encounter is out of the direct control of the organization, but is the basis for conclusions the customer makes about the organization.

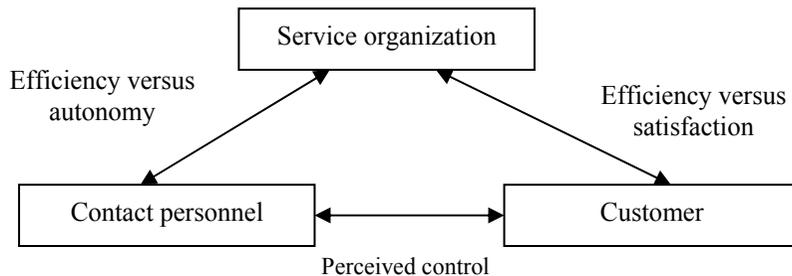


Figure 9. The service encounter triad (Bateson, 1985)

The *service encounter triad* (see figure 9) captures the relationships between the three parties in the service encounter and suggests possible sources of conflict. To control service delivery, managers tend to impose rules and procedures on the contact personnel to limit their autonomy and discretion when serving the customer and to limit the extent of service provided for the customer and the lack of customization that might result in a dissatisfied customer (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998). In order to have an effective relationship between the service organization and the contact personnel, the service company should design a service system which supports service provision keeping performance standards and customer satisfaction in mind (Lewis, Entwistle, 1990). In the interaction between the contact personnel and the customer, the efficiency and the quality of the service becomes dependant on the contributions from both the customer and the service provider (Gummerrson, 1998). The behaviour between the contact personnel and the customer has the element of perceived control by both parties: the contact personnel want to control the behavior of the customer to make their own work more manageable and less stressful; at the same time, the customer is attempting to gain control of the service encounter to derive the most benefit from it (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998). Wang and Davis (2008) in their research on the imbalance of the quality of the customer's relationship with the contact employee and the company found that customers would experience discomfort when the key contact employee becomes unavailable, and when a imbalance of relationship exists customers are more

likely to reevaluate their business relationship with the service organization. Thus relationships between all three parties should be considered and kept in balance. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) conclude that ideally, the three parties gain much by working together to create a beneficial service encounter and the moment of truth can be dysfunctional, when one party dominates the interaction by focusing solely on his or her own control of the encounter. Understanding the service encounter triad helps to create procedures that leave enough autonomy to influence the service process and the responsibility to react flexibly to changes in customer behaviour. It is also important to provide service staff with an understanding that customer satisfaction is not the absolute aim of the organization and “walking in the customer’s shoes” should take place in a limited area and scope. Thus, control of the situation should remain in the hands of the service staff.

McCallum and Harrison (1985) present interdependence theory to explain the social interaction in a service encounter. Interdependence is the effect the interacting people have on each other’s outcomes (the reward each person receives from the joint behavior minus the costs of enacting the behavior) in a social relationship. Service providers and consumers are interdependent to the extent that the behaviors chosen by each party have an effect upon the outcomes received. An interdependence analysis places the service encounter firmly in the context of social relationships. (*Ibid*) By maintaining a satisfactory social interaction the aims of the customer and organization need to be achieved. The differentiating aspect is the ability through interaction and respectful social interaction to provide the customer with the expected output and not provoking the organization’s goal achievement.

Klaus (1985) includes the social environment in the service encounter process and goes even deeper in representing the framework of interaction in the service (figure 10). The task performed in the service encounter and the satisfied psychological needs of the participants are the content of the service encounter configuration. Through the perceptual and cognitive apparatus of the interacting individuals, the procedural and contextual elements of the service encounter are transformed into subjective experiences and behaviours that again become elements of configuration. All managerial efforts to affect service quality have to consider the perceptions, responses and interactive behaviours of the participants. (*Ibid*) Svensson (2006) elaborates that the behaviors and actions of service providers and service receivers represent a process-oriented approach, and addresses two key questions in service encounters: what do service providers and service receivers do and how do they react in service encounters? These questions imply a wider context for the interaction. Klaus (1985) continues that the customer and the agent are surrounded by a set of external factors that represent the organizational, cultural and social characteristics of the service. The agents’ characteristics, attitudes, skills and behaviour are conditioned by the service organization for which they work. The customer’s characteristics, attitudes, skills and behavior in the interaction are

affected by cultural rules. In addition, there are sets of socially determined external factors such as previous experience with the service organization, client familiarity with the kind of service, available alternatives, pre-existing expectations etc. Finally, the situational context sets constraints and conditions on the encounter. There are effects from the physical setting of location and time and situational factors specific to either participant – for example, the agent’s mood, tiredness, or how much time the customer has to set aside for the encounter. (*Ibid*) This framework includes most of the frameworks and theories described earlier in this part of dissertation. It incorporates the contextual aspects of service that enlarge the understanding of service provision results.

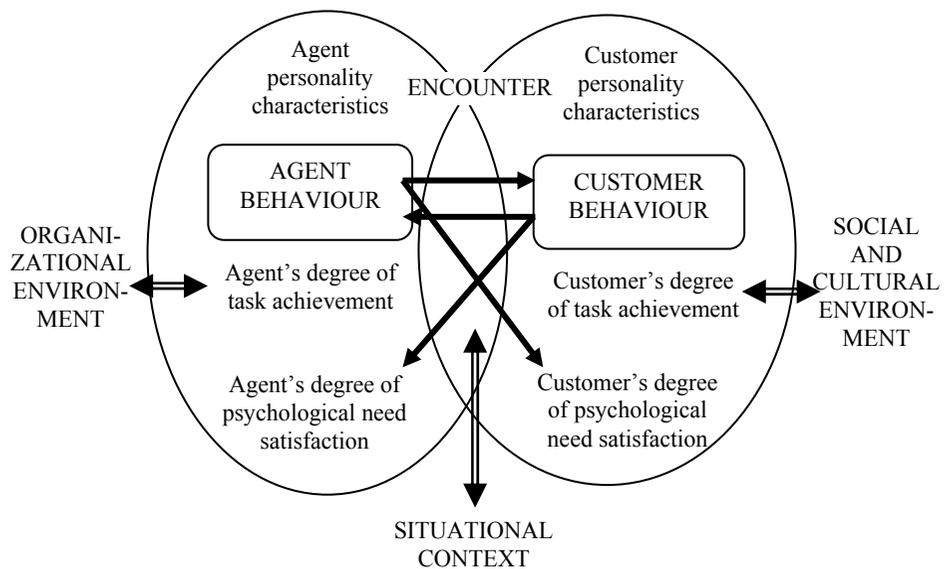


Figure 10. The framework of the service interaction (Klaus, 1985)

The service organization establishes the environment for the service encounter, and the interaction between customer and contact personnel occurs within the context of an organization’s culture as well as its physical surroundings (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998). According to the framework of the service interaction it is not only about the interaction – the organizational and social environment play an important role in the way the customer perceives the service provision. This actually does not simplify the research area, because the environment and moreover the perception of the environment add variables to conduct a distinctive analysis of service encounter formation. Still, within the framework of the current dissertation not everything is going to be a topic of focus – the central focus is the emotional context of the service encounter and the role of organizational culture in the formation, provision and outcomes of the service.

Behavioral aspects of a positive climate for services that is considered the situational context of a service encounter have a clear emotional content – such as empathy, concern and the emotional self-regulation required of customer-facing positions (Bardzil, Slaski, 2003). Mattila and Enz (2002) propose that in service organizations it is necessary to create such an environment that fosters positive affect for the employees because their study results indicate that the customer's self-declared mood states after the service encounter and their displayed emotions during the service encounter were both significantly associated with the overall assessment of the service providing organization. The results of the study of the role of emotional satisfaction in service encounters conducted by Wong (2004) show that a positive in-store experience induces a positive emotional state and subsequent positive affirmative behavior (customer loyalty), while a negative in-store experience could nullify the influence of pre-existing good feelings and enhance a negative emotional state. Martin (1994) points out the emotional characteristics of service, which explains the extent to which the interaction between customer and service provider relies on emotion-based reactions and situations. Thus, emotions and the emotional context of service provision are considered to be important features and are going to be explored in more detail in the next sub chapters of the dissertation.

1.1.6. The role of emotional intelligence in service provision

Emotional intelligence is considered to be a significant concept in service work. Firstly, in this part of dissertation how skills, attitudes and personality contribute to service provision in order to perform the service work is going to be explored. Secondly, the position and role of EI in service provision in light of theoretical and empirical conclusions is going to be analyzed. The term, emotional labor, is explained and its relation to EI and the function of emotions in service provision are elaborated. Finally, what an emotion evoking event is, how it could be classified and how it is linked to EI is investigated.

As a consequence of service sector growth, it is not technical or even thinking skills that are of increasing importance to most employers, but person-to-person skills (Thompson *et al*, 2000). Varca (2004) presents three dimensions of individual difference in the characteristics of service providers: skills, attitudes and personality (see figure 11). Skill is the individual's capacity to perform a task and according to Varca (2004) service work requires a unique set of skills. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) present the important role of service employee skills in the service delivery system, and according to sales opportunities, these range from clerical, assistance, verbal, procedural, trade and diagnostic skills. They say that the direct workforce makes up a major part of the service product and so must be able to interact with the public. Skills that service employees are expected to have or acquire might be wide ranging.

These could embody communication skills, problem-solving skills, self-management skills, conflict resolution skills etc.

Sparrow and Knight (2006: 27) define attitudes as “an evaluative position (based largely on feelings, with related thinking/beliefs, and strongly influencing doing/action) towards a person (including our self), a group, an organization, an idea, etc.” Attitudes describe a person’s learned predisposition to act toward a subject, and include an affective or evaluative component (Fishbein, Ajzen, 1975; cf. Varca, 2004). Certain attitudes can be important for the service provider because they drive behavior and serve as a control mechanism. Essentially, this reinforces behaviour consistent with one’s attitudes and the self-concept underlying those attitudes. A worker with positive attitudes toward services should not behave rudely toward a customer because that act of rudeness would be emotionally costly. (Varca, 2004) Attitudes within service provision include a positive disposition towards people, relationships and results (helping people to satisfy their needs brings expected results for the service organization). Employing service providers with suitable attitudes will ensure the achievement of goals, customer satisfaction and loyalty, and the required outcomes.

Personality is defined as the set of behavioral patterns that characterize a person across time and across situations, and the profile of need underlying those behaviors (Hogan, Johnson, Briggs, 1997). Personality plays an important role in service work – some individual characteristics are more suitable for service work than others; for example, a person high on extroversion is likely to arrive at a service job early, willingly stay late, and look forward to meeting new customers because the work fulfills a fundamental need (Varca, 2004). Motowidlo, Brownlee and Schmit (2008) in their study found that the set of personality variables, including extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism, explains incremental variations in knowledge about how to handle customers in a retail store. There is a certain precondition for the personality of service providers. It is expected that a service employee is helpful, open, cheerful, accurate, attentive, caring and friendly. A profile for service employees should be composed, and service employees who meet the necessary personality profile will usually succeed in service work and presumably do their job well. Varca (2004) also claims that for workers with the “right” attitude or personality profile, the act of providing service has hedonic value being intrinsically rewarding. While skills are more easily developed than personality and attitudes, the latter should especially be evaluated when recruiting service personnel.

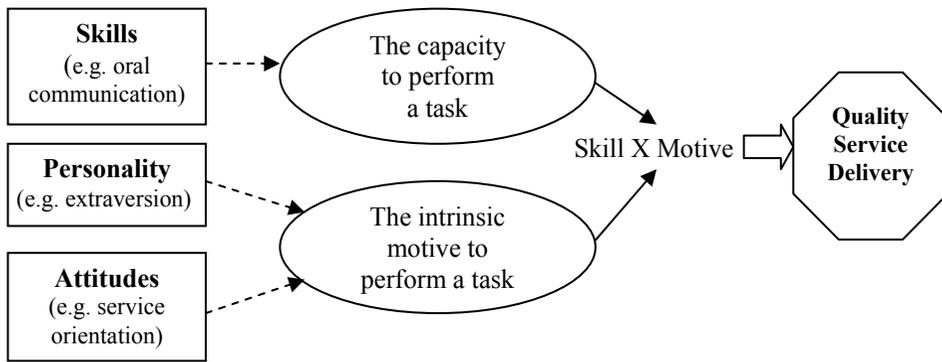


Figure 11. Service provider’s dimensions for effectiveness in delivering quality service (Varca, 2004)

Attitudes and personality, though different, are conceptually linked because both are motivational constructs. Therefore, both can be critical during service encounters. However, it is equally critical to recognize that neither can directly influence excellent performance. Performance is firstly a product of skill, not motive. Simply put, a highly motivated service provider will still have poor customer relations if s/he cannot speak and listen effectively (Varca, 2004). The presented framework (figure 11) is rather comprehensive and shows where the organization could influence the service employee in the delivery of quality service. Personality is rather difficult to reshape, but skills are taught and attitudes could be influenced. By describing the tasks and performance measures of service providers within the framework of quality service standards it is possible to plan and implement training for skill acquisition or improvement. While shaping a motivation system, attitudes can be influenced, for example, by linking remuneration with customer satisfaction and thus showing what kind of attitudes are a precondition for performing a task. Personality could be influenced by the organization to a small extent. If the tasks are described then the type of personality requirements for the service provider can be set and these should be considered in the recruitment process as one determinant of delivering quality service.

Skills are essential in performing the job and achieving the desired outcomes. Due to the interpersonal character of the service act, the emotions displayed play an important role in shaping the service process and could be psychologically beneficial for the customer. Service employees are required to show respect, or care, or attentiveness without expecting to receive this consideration in return. Their emotional outlets considered necessary for customers, such as anger and abuse are denied to those that serve them. (Grugulis, 2002) EI could be considered a set of competencies (skills, knowledge and abilities) that indicates the closest link to the skills that are necessary in order to deliver quality service. Nevertheless, EI plays an

important role in influencing attitudes and personality, and this is the basis for some abilities. Thus, skills, personality and attitudes are notions that relate to EI in different ways and the connections between these are tight and reciprocal.

In order to explain this peculiarity of the service employee's behavior, Hochschild (1979) introduces the term *emotional labor*. Hochschild (2003: 7) defines *emotional labor* as what "requires one to induce or suppress feeling in order to sustain the outward countenance that produces the proper state of mind in others". Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) rephrase this and say that emotional labor is about delivering smiles, making eye contact, showing sincere interest, and engaging in friendly conversation with people who are essentially strangers and who may or may not ever be seen again.

Hochschild (2003) presents two types of emotional labor: surface acting and deep acting. *Surface acting* means that expressions on the face or the postures of the body are "put on" and are not part of the individual. In *deep acting* conscious mental work keeps the feeling that the individual conjures up from being part of his or her self. (*Ibid*) Kemper (1993) expresses this by saying that surface acting is accomplished when the individual purposely puts on a suitable emotion – for example, smiling when he or she feels like crying, in order to swing the feeling away from sadness. Deep acting is done when the individual attempts to change the feeling by changing the determinants of the feeling – mainly the mental construction or appraisal that gave rise to the feeling.

Emotional labor is mostly considered in service work where the service provider has an immediate interface with the customer. Emotional labor is asked of people when they have to manage their emotions so as to present a particular face to the customer on behalf of their employer (Statt, 2004). Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul and Grember (2006) claim that emotional labor defines which emotions employees are expected to display and which they should suppress in the course of interacting with customers. Friendliness, courtesy, empathy and responsiveness directed toward customers all require huge amounts of emotional labor from front-line employees. A front-line service employee who is having a bad day or isn't feeling just right is still expected to put on the face of the organization when dealing with customers. (Zeithaml, Bitner, 2003) The emotional state of the salesperson sets the tone for the exchange that follows. People often buy from someone they like, and if a salesperson seems insincere, pushy or emotionally unstable, the buyer often has reservations about making a purchase. Increased emotional coherence in the salesperson fosters greater respect and trust in the buyer, deeper, more effective listening, more understanding and clarity, and greater potential for a successful sale. (Childre, Cryer, 1999) Emotional labor is an important issue in service provision, because certain types of emotional states and behaviours are expected from the employer and customer. Those employees who are not able to perform emotional labor are probably not suitable for service work.

Emotional labor has drawbacks as well. Statt (2004) asserts that it is in heavily customer-oriented jobs that emotional labor is most directly linked to

stress. Thus, emotional labor might increase occupational stress if there are insufficient explanations about the expectations of the implementation of the service employee role. Grugulis (2002) suggests that expressing warmth towards and establishing a rapport with customers may provide a genuine source of pleasure for workers, but emotional labor does not necessarily legitimize the expression of human feelings in a way that supports the development of a healthy individual, instead it offers these feelings for sale. This means that the wrong interpretation of emotional labor (as being part of the job done) could lead to a bias in self-esteem and the self-image of the worker. Bolton (2005) argues that because emotional labor is intangible, immediately perishable and open to variation, and because its qualitative features are hard to define and deemed to be the magic ingredient of many occupations, it is barely recognized and poorly rewarded. Ideally, behavioural standards stemming from emotional labor should at least be incorporated into job descriptions and communicated to employees.

Bolton (2005) claims that emotional labor is an integral part of everyday social and organizational life, and has always been a vital part of many labor processes. Increasingly, however, the emphasis in the labor market is on creativity rather than rule-bound behavior, with communication, teamwork, customer care, individual initiative and self-reliance being seen as key skills. Still, employees who successfully carry out emotional labor may not be acknowledged as skilled workers at all. Rather, they are said to have certain types of personality, to possess particular character traits or have natural caring qualities. (*Ibid*) It raises one very important question – is emotional labor a competency or personality trait? Generally it is agreed that a personality trait involves habitual patterns of behavior, thought, and emotion (Funder, Fast, 2010), being rather stable over time. Competency consists of abilities, skills and knowledge (Draganidis, Mentzas, 2006), and it could be assumed that by acquiring knowledge and drilling the skills of emotional labor it could be substantially developed in order to implement required interactive tasks. Thus, emotional labor is closer in terms of its content to competencies and could be developed as a part of the job requirements.

Some research has been conducted on the topic of how emotional labor influences customer behavior and the perception of the service provided. The results of the study conducted by Mattila and Enz (2002) show that the customer's mood measured immediately after the service encounter and their emotions displayed during the interaction correlate strongly with the customer's assessment of the service encounter. Hennig-Thurau *et al* (2006) in their experimental study found that the authenticity of the employee's display of emotional labor has a strong and significant impact on the change in customer positive affect – high authenticity through deep acting results in a significantly greater increase in the change in customer positive affect than low authenticity through surface acting – but the extent of employee smiling does not significantly influence the change in customer positive affect. Grandey, Dickter

and Sin (2004) found in their research into the regulation of the emotions of service employees in interactions with aggressive customers that deep acting was more likely during customer aggression for those with low stress appraisals than those with high. Furthermore, they specify that those who found aggressive customers less stressful focused on modifying their cognitive appraisals of the customers and engaged in mood regulation – all forms of deep acting. These study results indicate that applying emotional labor is beneficial and effective when creating customer relationships.

According to Opengart (2005), EI and emotional labor are related topics – they function together. In her interdisciplinary framework analysis she draws the following conclusions: 1) employee EI cannot be assessed or developed without an understanding of the context of what opens up through the rules of emotional labor, 2) EI provides the employee with the foundational ability to perceive the display rules within a given job context or situation, and 3) emotional labor cannot be performed well without possessing a foundation of EI. She claims that both should be acknowledged as existing, often as job requirements, particularly in service positions. In addition, Statt (2004) notes that in a sense most jobs involve emotional labor because most jobs are likely to be done better when employees use appropriate expressions with each other. Even though, it seems that EI and emotional labor do have one major difference – emotional labor is one of the constituents of the EI orientation of the management of one’s own emotions. So, emotional labor is a dimensionally “lower” notion and rather a part of EI competency.

One aspect of emotional labor is managing one’s own emotions in order to meet customer expectations and the requirements of the organization in terms of delivering quality service. Before emotions can be managed it is necessary to identify emotions at the moment those are evoked, evaluate how appropriate the felt emotions are to the situation and decide whether to display the felt emotion or manage one’s emotional states via surface or deep acting. Also, empathy as one of the competencies of EI would be helpful for activating deep acting. Thus, it is not always about managing one’s own emotions, it is also about influencing the emotions of others, and in so doing relationships are managed and the context might be changed. As emotional labor mainly appears in service provision, so EI is important in service work.

There are a number of research results that indicate the importance of EI in creating customer satisfaction and a positive service experience. Barlow and Maul (2000) theorized that the success of practical workplace applications involving EI and the results of empirical research in the field show that high EI in service providers contributes to customer satisfaction (cf. Kernbach, Schutte, 2005). Manna and Smith (2004) conclude from their study about the need for EI among sales representatives that communication skills and EI are very important to sales employees. Kernbach and Schutte (2005), relying on the results of their study of the impact of the service provider’s EI on customer satisfaction, conclude that customer satisfaction relates to a customer’s emotional experience

during the service encounter, and that service providers with high emotional intelligence should be better able to create a positive emotional experience for the customers. Rozell, Pettijohn and Parker (2004) found in their research that EI scores of salespersons were significantly related to customer-orientation levels. They also studied EI and the performance of salespeople and the results show that those sales employees who were in the highest performance category had average EI scores that were significantly greater than the scores of those salespeople occupying the “lowest” performance group.

Sales competencies are the combination of natural behaviors, attitudes, values, EI and learned practices applied by effective sales professionals to deliver superior results (Butler, Scheelen 2002). Singh (2006) states that success in sales requires an ability to judge client moods and the emotional skill to decide when to promote the product and when to keep quiet, and such a profession may satisfy only when one has the requisite level of EI. Excellent service is more likely to be facilitated by employees who are emotionally self-aware and who understand others on a more emotional level (Bardzil, Slaski, 2003). Jacobs (2001) presents the emotional intelligence competence model for salespeople and characterizes them as follows: high achievement motive (to make the customer buy the product), empathy and service orientation (to influence the customer successfully, understand the customer’s needs) and building relationships (long-term trusted advisor role). Thus, EI is beneficial in service work because it makes it possible to evaluate the service situation, the service provider’s own emotions and those of the customer in an adequate way and give such service experience that will lead to customer loyalty, repeat purchases, and thus enhance the performance of the service organization. How different EI competencies such as self-awareness, self-management, empathy and social competency are applied in service provision will later be investigated mainly on the basis of research results.

The competency of emotional self-awareness

Reynolds (2003), while examining the role of EI in the negotiation process found that EI is required during all stages of negotiation, but some stages will require higher levels of certain elements of EI (e.g. self-awareness should be at a medium level in the stage of identifying customer needs and at a high level during the actual negotiation process). Grandey *et al* (2004) found in their study that sales employees who were more likely to feel hostile and anxious were also more likely to report a higher number of hostile and aggressive customers. This implies that a greater ability to identify one’s own emotions and experiencing more positive emotions could have a positive impact on perceiving customers as more friendly. The research results of Rozell, Pettijohn and Parker (2006) indicate that emotional self-awareness was significantly related to sales performance. The research results imply that emotional self-awareness is a vital competency in order to create a positive attitude towards the customer and to perceive the service interface in an adequate way.

The competency of emotional self-management

Grandey *et al* (2004) found in their study that those service providers who found aggressive customers particularly stressful reported engaging in surface acting and venting (i.e. not regulating their emotions) to a greater extent and took more time off work in the three months following data collection. The research results of Rozell *et al* (2006) indicate that emotional self-control was significantly related to sales performance. The management of one's own emotions is a significant competency for implementing emotional labor (deep and surface acting) and managing occupational stress.

The competency of empathy

Providing good customer service is based on empathy (Singh, 2006). Jacobs (2001) claims that salespeople must be empathetic in order to understand the underlying needs and issues of each customer and work to address those needs. Empathy helps people understand the customer's needs and emotions during the service encounter. Carefully following the emotions of the customer makes it possible to "push the right button at the right time" and make a sale that satisfies the customer and provide benefit for the organization.

Social competency

Service employees must interact with the public and therefore require significant interpersonal skills (Haksever *et al*, 2000). Goleman (1998) sees service orientation as one of the components of the social skills of EI. He claims that people with this competence: understand customer needs and match them to the service or the products, seek ways to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty, gladly offer appropriate assistance, and grasp the customer's perspective, acting as a trusted advisor. One aspect of social skill is knowing how emotions affect others, basically how to use "emotional contagion" in service provider and customer relationship building. Hennig-Thurau *et al* (2006) explain that conscious emotional contagion is determined less by the extent to which the sender displays emotions during an interaction (e.g. frequency of smiling) and more by the authenticity with which the emotions are displayed (e.g. genuineness of a smile). They found in their experimental research that customers in their study who encountered authentic employees (who were engaged in deep acting) were far more likely to adopt the emotions of that employee than were those who interacted with inauthentic employees (engaged in surface acting).

How competencies of EI contribute to the service provision process has been discussed, but not about the emotions that are evoked during this process that influence both the service provider and the customer. Grönroos (2001) states that it is quite obvious that felt emotions, such as anger and depression, guilt and happiness, delight and hopefulness, somehow affect the pure cognitive perception of the service process. Emotions play a critical role in the customer-

contact employee interaction (Wong, 2004), and the emotions customers experience during service encounters play crucial roles and directly affect the success of the service relationship (Hennig-Thurau *et al*, 2006). This probably depends on the service situation and the skills, attitudes and personality of the service provider and of course on the customer's present mood and personality.

It is also a complex task to identify which emotions play a crucial role in service provision. For example, Yule (2002) claims that the largest emotional motivators to buy are fear and greed and the smallest is logic – while buying, people buy a product emotionally and then justify it to themselves logically. Most often, consumers seek products and services that lead to the evoking of positive emotions. However, a movie or book that makes people sad is not necessarily considered a bad consumer experience. Adventure travel packages, movies, books, music, and in general all types of entertainment services appeal to the emotions. (Haksever *et al*, 2000) Grönroos (2001) indicated that negative emotions may have a stronger effect on satisfaction with quality than positive emotions. Laros (2006) has worked through a huge amount of literature on consumer emotions, and in her dissertation she proposes a hierarchy of consumer emotions (relevant and limited number), which consists of three levels: the superordinate level with positive and negative affect, the basic level with four positive and four negative emotions, and the subordinate level with specific emotions (see figure 12). She argues that emotions are related to purchase intention and product evaluation. Though, it is necessary to mention that she was exploring consumer emotions toward products, not services. Still it is one visible attempt to make a hierarchy for emotions in consumer behavior.

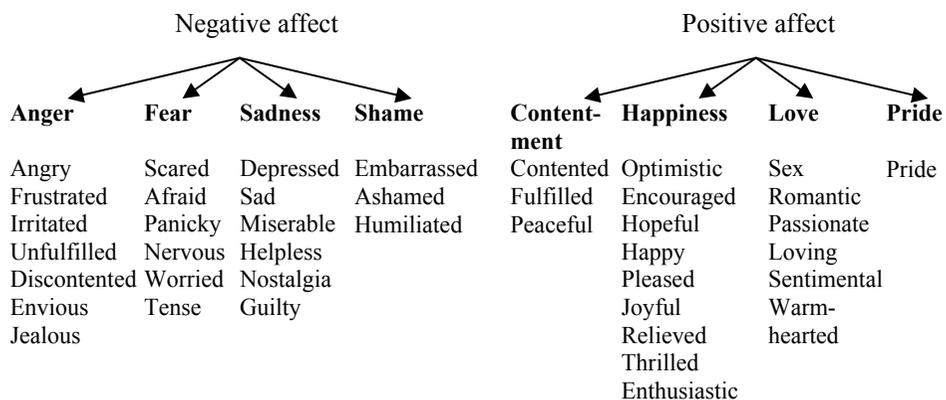


Figure 12. The hierarchical structure of consumer emotions toward products (Laros, 2006)

Grönroos (2001) claims that emotions that the customer feels when consuming a service have not been generally included in perceived service quality models, or models for measuring satisfaction with service quality. However, there has

been some research in the area of how emotions influence the perceived quality of the service. Childre and Cryer (1999) analyzed the role of emotions in sales and conclude that the first expression within a buyer is usually an emotional one: feelings of discomfort and distrust or security and comfort with the salesperson. Wong (2004) found in a study of the role of emotional satisfaction in service encounters that the customer's feelings of enjoyment serve as the best predictor of customer loyalty, while feelings of happiness serve as the best predictor of relationship quality. Burns and Neisner (2006) found in their research that the level of customer satisfaction perceived by the consumer is adversely affected by a negative emotional response from the service provider. The results of research conducted among hotel workers by Mattila and Enz (2002) suggest that customer emotions and moods explain a significant amount of the variation in the service encounter evaluations. The displayed emotions provided by customers are an important indicator of the overall service experience and give an employee a clear view of how the customer is likely to assess the customer-contact employee interaction (Wong, 2004). These results provide with the insight that emotions felt by consumers play a role in the formation of perceived service quality, and thus the service employee's understanding of how emotions influence the service encounter should be explained and considered.

It is rather obvious that the emotions felt by the customer affect the service delivery process, but not much literature covers how the emotions felt by the service provider influence the service process. Emotions occur as a reaction to events or incidents. Events at work have a real emotional impact on participants – people feel guilty at work, they feel angry, they feel happy, they feel anxious, often all in the same day (Weiss, 2002). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) presented their Affective Events Theory according to which the authors concluded that mood cycles at work do exist and individuals differ in their cycles of pleasantness and activation at work (cf. Brief, Weiss, 2002). Affective Events Theory draws much needed attention to streams of events that can unfold in workplaces and that generate emotional reactions or mood changes (Brief, Weiss, 2002). Wright, Cropanzano and Meyer (2002) distinguish between positive and negative affects, where the positive affect implies the extent to which an individual experiences positive emotions and negative affect – the extent to which an individual experiences negative emotions. Thus, the affect could be evaluated as positive or negative, and lead to positive or negative emotional experiences. Van Overwalle, Heylighen, Casaer and Daniëls (1992) reason that to appraise the situation, people often rely on relevant information about the event so that this information not only guides the cognitive appraisal, but the emotional experience as well. Thus, an *emotion-evoking event* is the critical stimulus that causes certain emotions, which are appraised as positive or negative. Still it should be noted that the research on the events that evoke emotions is limited indeed, and theoretical considerations differ in terminology and content. For example Roseman, Spindel and Jose

(1990) propose the term, emotion-eliciting events, which implies identifying emotion-causing patterns of appraisal of an infinite variety of situations that elicit the same emotion in different people or at different times. In the present dissertation the emotion-evoking event is considered the notion to be researched.

It could be proposed that emotion-evoking events could be classified roughly into two main categories (similar to emotions evoked in customers): positive and negative. This means that some events evoke positive emotions in an employee and some events, negative emotions. There are definitely also some ‘neutral’ events that do not evoke any positive or negative emotions. These events are not considered because they are not perceived as critical and do not cause any deviation in the process of service delivery. If we narrow our approach to service provision then it is possible to propose that some service work related events do evoke negative and some positive emotions. Stemming from the idea of the service encounter triad, the events are related to the customer, the service organization and the service provider him or herself (see figure 13).

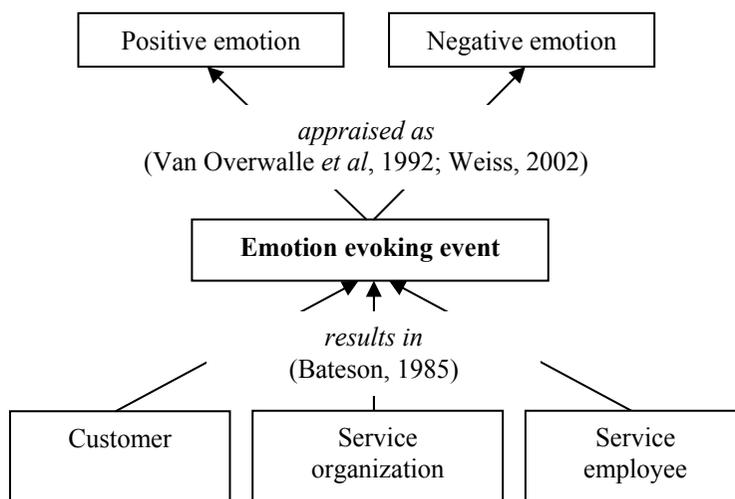


Figure 13. The stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events (composed by author)

Based on the service encounter triad, it is proposed that emotion-evoking events are related to the customer, the service organizations and the service provider him or herself. According to this discussion the following proposition is made:

Proposition 1.1.6.A: The customer, service organization and service employee him/herself are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events that are emotionally appraised as positive or negative.

Further on, as the emotion-evoking event is appraised and positive/negative emotions elicited, the role of EI enters the framework. Firstly, it is necessary to identify what kinds of events evoke emotions in the service provision process. Secondly, the management of emotions helps to enhance positive emotions and regulate negative emotions in order to understand their impact on performance and on the customer. Thus, it is proposed that:

Proposition 1.1.6.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions in service organizations.

Emotions play a significant role in service provision, and this shifts our interest to figuring out how the EI competency of service providers could benefit the organization. Thus, there are certainly other aspects that influence the process of service provision, for example, the set up of the organization, norms and traditions, the ways employees behave and management manages, history and the character of activities. One interesting area is what role emotional intelligence plays in organizational culture. This is going to be investigated in the next sub chapter.

1.2. The organizational culture of service organization and its relationship to emotional intelligence

1.2.1. Approach to organizational culture

The study of OC has been approached from a number of perspectives: types of organizational culture (e.g. Harrison, 1995; Gabriel, 1999; Hofstede, 2001), levels of organizational culture (e.g. Trice, Beyer, 1993; Schein, 1997), organizational practices related to organizational culture (such as symbols rituals, traditions etc. e.g. Trice, Beyer, 1993) and organizational culture with relation to other features (such as leadership styles, performance e.g. Kotter, Heskett, 1992; personality e.g. O'Reilly *et al*, 1991). Despite the options for studying organizational culture it still remains a complex field to research and it is rather difficult to overcome the pragmatic difficulties of a multi perspective inquiry (Witmer, 1997). This means that there is no single perfect concept to explain such a complex phenomenon as organizational culture.

Schein (2004) claims that categories in studying organizational culture are useful for making sense of the variations that are observed. He explains that such cultural concepts become useful if they (1) help make sense and provide some order out of observed phenomena, and (2) help to define what may be the underlying structure in the phenomena by building a theory of how things work, which in turn, (3) enable to predict to some degree how other phenomena that

may not yet have been observed will appear. It is probably not a subject for discussion that the categorization of OC indeed helps to present the main aspects of OC in one or another way and draw useful suggestions for managerial implications.

There are many definitions of OC, but this dissertation does not aim to analyze the conceptual basis and historical roots of OC. The author of the present dissertation starts from the point that OC has a major effect on organizational activities and does not raise any doubts about that. In order to bring the reader to the same understanding, OC definitions and approaches that are relevant from the point of view of this work are presented. The author of the dissertation intentionally excludes classical, repeatedly cited definitions and attempts to create an easy understanding of what OC is. Still it cannot be denied that this could simply remain an attempt because as Kilmann *et al* (1985: 2) state that there is “a vague sense of what the term organizational culture means: something to do with the people and the unique quality of the character of the organization”.

Taylor (2005) claims that the culture of an organization can mean the difference between success and failure. She says that culture is what is created from the messages that are received about how people are expected to behave; cultures develop in any community of people who spend time together and who are bound together through shared goals, beliefs, routines, needs or values. Taylor brings such components of OC as values, behavior, systems and symbols. Cameron and Quinn (1999) explain that OC shows “how things are done around here” reflecting the prevailing ideology that people carry inside their heads and how they perceive organizational activities. Knapp and Yu (1999) emphasize this by saying that OC happens between people. Normann (2000: 220) says: “the personnel, the structure, the norms, the rewards and the heroes mirror the culture”.

OC explains why people are together, how they are expected to behave, what they see around them and finally what makes them feel good or bad. People know or at least assume how to behave because they observe and learn how other organizational members behave and follow described and perceived systems. People see (literally) a symbolically loaded environment and emotionally charged relationships. In terms of feelings, actually all of what has been mentioned could make people feel good or bad. For example, challenging goals could make them feel good; discordance between declared and perceived values could make them feel bad; knowing how things need to be done could make them feel good; choosing inappropriate behavior patterns makes them feel bad; the tradition of getting flowers from colleagues on their birthday makes them feel good; seeing that people around them get along with each other also makes them feel good.

Values play a dominant role in building and understanding OC. Howard (1998) claims that an organization’s culture can be reliably represented by the values which drive its members’ attitudes and activities, and while

organizations may differ in terms of their dominant values, there are common value dimensions that run through most organizations. Values are important because they lay the foundation for understanding attitudes and motivation as well as influencing people's perceptions by implying that certain behaviours or outcomes are preferred over others. Values generally influence attitudes and behaviour (Braithwaite, Scott, 1991). Values are presumed to encapsulate the aspiration of individuals and societies: they pertain to what is desirable, and to deeply engrained standards that determine future directions and justify past actions (Braithwaite, Scott, 1991). One more function of values is that they provide a standard against which actions are evaluated (Sullivan, Sullivan, Buffton, 2001). Thus, values serve several important functions and meanings that are crucial in human behavior in the organizational context. People do not talk about values every day, but they act and perform mainly in accordance to shared values. Even more, people expect certain behavioural patterns from others in accordance with how they perceive the other people's adherence to the organizational values.

The set up in organizations indeed varies, and for the purposes of analysis, diagnostics and improvement there are different approaches to categorizing OC. As mentioned before one possibility for analyzing OC is through its types. Reino (2009) in her dissertation on the topic of OC and its manifestations in organizations compares and analyses the most popular typologies (Taylor's typology is added by the author) (see table 6).

Table 6. Typological approaches to OC

| <i>Authors</i> | <i>Types of OC</i> |
|--|---|
| Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981, 1983); Quinn and McGrath (1982); Cameron and Quinn (1999) | Human Relations type; Open System type; Rational Goal type; Internal process type |
| Harrison (1972, 1987); Handy (1985) | The Power Culture; The Role Culture; The Achievement Culture; The Support/Person Culture |
| Kabanoff and Daly (2000) | The Elite culture; The Meritocratic culture; The Collegial culture; The Leadership culture |
| Goffee and Jones (1998, 2001) | The Fragmented culture; The Mercenary culture; The Communal culture; The Networked culture |
| Deal and Kennedy (1982, 1988) | The tough-guy culture; The work hard/play hard culture; The bet-your-company culture; The process culture |
| Taylor (2005) | The Achievement culture; The Customer-Centric culture; The One-Team culture; The Innovative culture; The People-first culture |

Source: Reino, 2009; Taylor, 2005.

In the current approach, OC is being treated by means of perceived organizational values through various types of OC. The Competing Values Framework presented by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) enables to study OC on the basis of perceived and shared values. Cameron and Quinn (1999) claim that the Competing Values Framework has been found to have a high degree of congruence with well-known and well-accepted categorical schemes that organize the way people think, their values and their assumptions, and how they process information.

Organizations are placed within a framework formed by two dimensions (see figure 14) – flexibility vs. stability and internal vs. external foci (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983). One dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize flexibility, discretion and dynamism from criteria that emphasize stability, order and control. That is, some organizations are viewed as effective if they are changing, adaptable and organic; and others if they are stable, predictable and mechanistic. The second dimension differentiates effectiveness criteria that emphasize internal orientation, integration and unity from criteria that emphasize external orientation, differentiation and rivalry. Some organizations are viewed as effective if they have harmonious internal characteristics; and some organizations are judged to be effective if they are focused on interacting and competing with others outside of their boundaries. (Cameron, Quinn, 1999) Every organization strives to enhance its organizational outcomes and the strategic decisions for attaining that aim. On the one hand, there is the need to decide whether to be flexible or have standardized operating routines, and on the other hand, whether the organization should follow and satisfy the needs of internal stakeholders or the needs of external stakeholders and forces. Four types of OC could be distinguished within the framework (see figure 14): Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes. What kind of personality, attitudes and skills employees who value a certain type of OC have acquired could also be proposed.

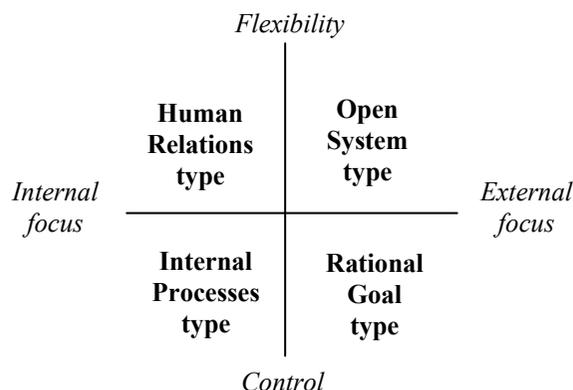


Figure 14. Competing Values Framework (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983)

The *Human Relations type of OC* is characterized by a focus on internal maintenance with flexibility, concern for people and sensitivity to customers (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). High levels of cohesion, morale, trust and belongingness serve as the means to achieve human resource development (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983; Kalliath, Bluedorn, Gillespie, 1999). Organizations where this type of OC is developed are very friendly places to work where people share a lot of themselves and the leaders are mentors. The organization is held together by loyalty and tradition; commitment is high. The organization emphasizes the long-term benefit of human resources development and attaches great importance to cohesion and morale. Success is defined in terms of sensitivity to customers and concern for people. The organization places a premium on teamwork, participation and consensus (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). The author of the dissertation proposes that employees who favor the Human Relations type of OC are relationship oriented, empathetic, they want to find consensus between organizational goals and customer requirements while creating trusting and close connections with them.

The *Open System type of OC* is characterized by a focus on external positioning with a high degree of flexibility and individuality (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). In this type of OC adaptability, changing capacity and an orientation towards customers (Brown, Dodd, 1998) are valued. Organizations where this kind of OC is dominant take risks and favor creativity (van Muijen, Koopman, 1994). The main target for this type is growth, resource acquisition and external support (Quinn, Rohrbaugh, 1983). Organizations with a developed Open System type of OC are dynamic, entrepreneurial and creative places to work. Employees and leaders take risks, and are committed to experimentation and innovation. The organization's long-term emphasis is on growth and acquiring new resources. Success means gaining unique and new products or services and being the market leader is important. The organization encourages individual initiative and freedom (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). Certain personalities, attitudes and skills probably exist in employees who favour the Open System type of OC. Employees tend to be creative and seek new ways of doing their job, but they also question the *status quo* and push the organization towards continuous change. They have diverse problem resolution skills and cooperative and optimistic attitudes.

The *Rational Goal type of OC* focuses on external positioning with a need for stability and control (Cameron, Quinn, 1999), and favors planning and goal setting to achieve productivity and efficiency. This is a result-oriented organization whose major concern is with getting the job done. People are competitive and goal oriented and the leaders are hard drivers, producers, competitors, tough and demanding. Reputation and success are common concerns. The long-term focus is on competitive actions and the achievement of measurable goals and targets. Success is defined in terms of market share and penetration. Competitive pricing and market leadership are important (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). In the author's opinion, employees who perceive the Rational

Goal type of OC to be important are driven by performance; they plan their activities in order to achieve high efficiency, they have positive attitudes even if failures occur. The study by Li, Wang, Taylor, Shi and He (2008) show that the more an organization values achievement, the higher their employees rate the importance of achievement orientation in the job. This indicates that certain attitudes support the perception of the type of OC as important.

The last type, the *Internal Processes type of OC*, focuses on internal maintenance with a need for stability and control (Cameron, Quinn, 1999), consolidation and continuity (Lamond, 2003) through formalized communication and centralized decision-making processes (Howard, 1998). This kind of organization is a very formalized and structured place to work. Procedures govern what people do and leaders are expected to be good coordinators and organizers who are efficiency-minded. Maintaining a smooth-running organization is most critical. Formal rules and policies hold the organization together. The long-term concern is on stability and the performance of efficient, smooth operations. Success is defined in terms of dependable delivery, smooth scheduling, low cost and predictability (Cameron, Quinn, 1999). In the author's opinion, employees who value the Internal type of OC like stability, clear boundaries and job responsibilities, they prefer tasks that are supported by regulations in order to decrease uncertainty. They can concentrate on details, they are precise and accurate and have positive attitudes towards following rules.

Evidently no pure types exist in the real world, and usually the features of all four types described above exist in each organization, but still organizations vary in terms of the dominant type and the subsequent balance between the other three. It is also not correct to say which OC type should be perceived as dominant, because it depends on many variables. Gordon (1985) concludes that research relating industry characteristics, cultural patterns and performance strongly suggest that there is no single "winning culture". He continues that rather, factors such as the characteristics of industry, marketplace, diversity, size and the market position of the organization define the broad shape of the appropriate culture. Normann (2000) also confirms that every industry and every company has something special which is unique and which can be explained via the particular circumstances under which it has been conceived and developed; thus, culture is largely a passive product of context.

In table 7 it is possible to track the basis and principles upon which an organization performs within its particular OC type. In the description of each type of OC, certain values, environment, managerial practices and success factors are presented. As described earlier, it could be proposed that employees with a certain personality, competencies and attitudes are likely to perceive a certain type of OC to be important. Still there has not been so much research that could confirm the proposed descriptions. Nevertheless, the employees' profiles have links to perceptions of OC because different people are motivated by different drivers.

Table 7. The description of the types of OC in the Competing Values Framework

| | |
|---|---|
| <p>Human Relations type of OC <i>Values:</i> loyalty, morality, justice, cooperation <i>Environment:</i> close and warm interpersonal relationships, cohesive groups, trustfulness and traditions, human working environment <i>Management:</i> encouraging and mentoring subordinates, development of personnel, delegate power to employees, promote participation, commitment and loyalty <i>Success:</i> satisfied employees and customers</p> | <p>Open System type of OC <i>Values:</i> risk taking, innovation, development and growth <i>Environment:</i> dynamic and entrepreneurial, readiness to change, variable structure, temporary roles <i>Management:</i> promote entrepreneurship, creativity and activeness, encourage initiative <i>Success:</i> innovation and inventions – new products, services and solutions</p> |
| <p>Internal Processes type of OC <i>Values:</i> rules, standardization and control <i>Environment:</i> formalized, structured, stable, technical aspects are considered, behaviour is formal <i>Management:</i> a lot of hierarchical management levels, exact implementation of rules and procedures is demanded, information management <i>Success:</i> smooth planning and low costs</p> | <p>Rational Goal type of OC <i>Values:</i> achievement of goals, performance, competitiveness <i>Environment:</i> commitment to high performance, performance driven remuneration <i>Management:</i> raise organizational productivity, performance and profitability thru planning and aim setting <i>Success:</i> sales, profits, market share.</p> |

Sources: composed by author based on Quinn, Rahrbaugh, 1983; Parker, Bradley, 2000; Roots, 2002.

Not much research has been done in order to find what types of OC are dominant in different industries. Most of the research focuses on validating the competing values model (see Howard, 1998; Lamond, 2003; Kwan, Walker, 2004; Helfrich, Li, Mohr, Meterko, Sales, 2007). Still, some findings can be presented. Dastmalchian, Lee, and Ng (2000) made a more extensive study among thirty-nine Canadian and forty South Korean organizations. They found that companies in the hospitality industry have a greater emphasis on the values of an entrepreneurial culture (Open System type of OC); health and social services organizations show the highest scores for a clan culture (Human Relations type of OC); communications and utilities companies tend towards a hierarchical culture (Internal Process type of OC); manufacturing, finance and insurance and wholesale and retail companies showed the highest scores for a result-oriented culture (Rational Goal type of OC). Singh (2004) studied the relationship between organizational culture and market orientation. She conducted a study among companies operating in the machine tool industry. Market orientation was defined as “a set of organization wide activities coordinated in such a way that it derives customer satisfaction through the superior performance of products while still being competitive in the marketplace” (p. 3). She used types of OC in the study and found that Open

System and Rational Goal types of culture are positively related, and Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC are negatively related to market orientation. The latter two types of culture appeared to be at least desirable cultures for the enhancement of market orientation.

Parker and Bradley (2000) analyzed Australian public sector organizations and found that the dominant OC type is Internal Process involving a commitment to rules and attention to technical details. Helfrich *et al* (2007), while researching health organizations found that the most dominant type of culture was hierarchical (Internal Process type of OC). According to the results of research by Trivellas and Dargenidou (2009), the dominant type of OC for educational institutions was found to be hierarchy (Internal Process Type of OC). Research conducted in a commercial enterprise by Brown and Dodd (1998) indicated that the dominant type of OC in the company studied was the Rational Goal type of OC and desired type was more striving towards the Human Relations type of OC. Igo and Skitmore (2006) investigated OC in a large Australian engineering, procurement and construction management consultancy company, which has a dominant market culture (Rational Goal type of OC), but the desired culture was found to be an employee focused culture (Human Relations type of OC). These findings refer to the fact that there are different OC profiles in different industries. It could be suggested that the dominant type of OC for public companies is Internal Process type of OC and for private companies – Rational Goal type of OC. Important signals stemming from the study's overview is that the desired type of OC is the Human Relations type of OC, which shows the possible shift of companies managerial practices from internal or result focus to an employee-centred mind-set.

The Competing Values Framework forms the basis for the empirical investigation of OC in current dissertation. The questionnaire developed by Reino is used in order to map OC, and she brings forward the reasons why the subsequently described framework is suitable: 1) the framework is based on dimensions used for defining OC by several authors; 2) the dimensions are relevant in transition societies, where the dynamics are especially important; 3) the framework distinguishes four types of OC, which are quite easily comprehensive because a large number of types of OC would making interpretations more difficult (Reino, 2009). The Competing Values Framework is applicable for empirical investigations because it enables enough variability for mapping the OC of organizations operating in different industries. For example, results from research by Kwan and Walker (2004) indicate that institutions could be differentiated from one another on one or a combination of the four cultural types depicted by the competing values model. Also, the types of OC reflect values and ways of operating that allow to analyze and explain human behavior within organizations. There are many organizations that conduct their businesses in different industries – they have a certain technological base, structure and set of values. In the next sub chapter of the dissertation the peculiarities of OC particularly in service organizations will be analyzed.

1.2.2. The peculiarities of the organizational culture of service organizations

Not much literature and research could be found on the topic of organizational culture in the context of service organizations. In this part of the dissertation the importance of organizational culture in service organizations is described, the customer and service-orientation of the organization or culture is explored, and the value set for service organizations is discussed. Starting by creating a link between services and culture, Siehl (1992) explores this relationship by stating that the characteristics of services are intangibility and customer contact, which makes it difficult to monitor the service delivery process directly, which in turn implies the necessity for culturally-based shared values. She goes further to state that intangibility and customer contact also lead to a need for service employee flexibility. Service organizations must be willing to tolerate and even encourage a certain degree of departure from written-policies at the customer-employee transaction level (Parasuraman, 1987). The set up of service organizations due to the peculiarity of the character of the work refer to an increased interest in organizational culture because many processes are not possible to describe and repeat in exactly the same way. The importance of the OC comes into the picture mostly because a significant relationship between service-orientation and organizational performance has been found. For example, the results of the study conducted by Gebauer, Edvardsson, Bjurko (2009) in manufacturing companies indicate that a service orientation within the OC is positively associated with overall performance. Research conducted by Lytle and Timmerman (2006) in commercial banks clearly reveal that organizations with a higher level of service orientation witness higher levels of financial performance in areas of return on assets and product performance indicators. Thus, the rationale behind studying the service orientation of organizations or cultures is not just derived from the attempt to investigate “soft”-issues, but there are also links to financial performance.

Harrison (1987) says that the kind of service that an organization offers, both internally and to its customers, is a reflection of OC – the combination of values, preoccupations, social structures and norms. He claims that culture is the key to understanding service. Davidson (2003) says that organizational culture shapes not only employee actions, but also the commitment to the service. Haksever *et al* (2000) highlight important components of organizational culture by providing some examples for service organization: a) shared understandings – the company will support employees if they act in the customer’s interest with reasonable costs to the company; b) shared things – most employees eat lunch with customers in the company cafeteria (modified by the author); c) shared sayings – such as “we live up to our commitments to the customer” (modified by the author); d) shared doings – employees all pitch in together to solve the customer’s major problem; e) shared feelings – if the employee is not willing to go the extra mile for the customer, he/she does not fit in the organization. The

nature of the OC as a shared set of organizational influencers is one of the key factors in service organizations. Due to the immediate character of service provision many aspects of work cannot be saved, but are transferred, shared.

Schmenner (1986) proposes a service process matrix where services are classified across two dimensions that significantly affect the character of the service delivery process (see figure 15). The horizontal dimension measures the degree of labor intensity, which is defined as the ration of labor cost to capital cost. The vertical dimension measures the degree of customer interaction and customization, which is a marketing variable that describes the ability of the customer to affect the nature of the service being delivered personally. Little interaction between customer and service provider is needed when the service is standardized rather than customized. (Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998) This

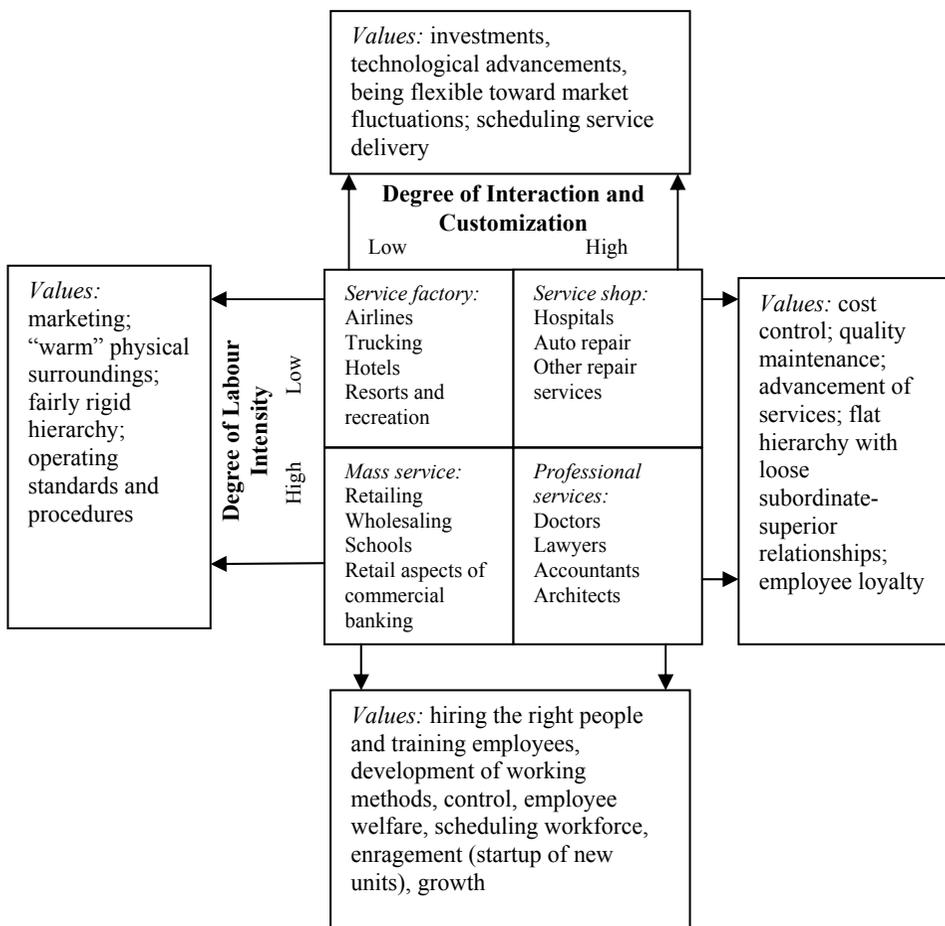


Figure 15. The service process matrix (modified Schmenner, 1986, cf. Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998)

kind of service differentiation is suitable in order to understand the role of service staff competency requirements. The high degree of interaction and customization require a high level of service orientation and skills to interact with the customer. The second valuable outcome of the service process matrix is the demonstration of the values of service organizations. There are different values that characterise service organizations with a certain degree of interaction/customization and labour intensity. These values do reflect the set-up of the organization in terms of structure, technology, systems and competencies. Despite the character of the service process, organizations strive to deliver a high quality of service that is congruent with values that support business needs. This implies that due to the fact that the service process is a diverse process there might be various cultures of service organizations within one sector.

Davidson (2003) proposes relationships exist between organizational culture and service quality. He presents OC as a combination of empowerment and training, organizational climate, operating procedures and resources, which all have an impact on service quality. He points out that the key is to understand the integration of the elements contributing to customer satisfaction, and thus, organizational performance. Normann (2000) presents a more holistic view for understanding the importance of OC in service organizations within the framework of a service management system (see figure 16). He extracts the following elements of the service management system: the market segment, the service concept, the service delivery system (which consists of personnel, customers and technology/physical support) (rather similar to Bateson's (1985) service encounter triad), the image, and the culture and philosophy. According to Normann (2000), culture and philosophy embrace the overall principles by which the social process leading to the delivery of services and benefits to clients is controlled, maintained and developed in order to maintain the long-term efficiency of the service organization.

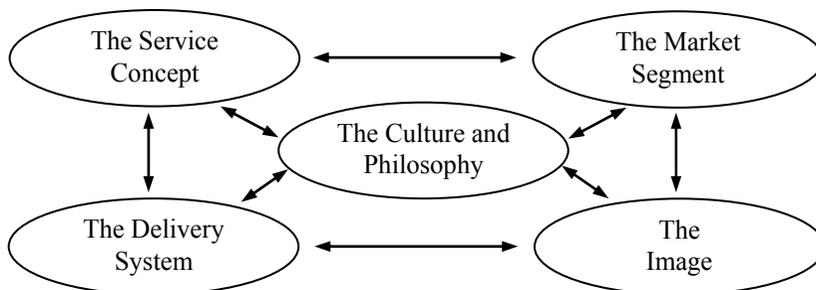


Figure 16. The place of culture in the service management system (Normann 2000)

This kind of approach, in which OC is placed at the center of the service delivery process, has little or no empirical evidence (Wilson, 1997). This makes it difficult to evaluate the suitability of the concepts in practice. It could be the case that there are logical connections at the conceptual level, but in practice some other influencing factors have a greater effect on service provision.

When talking about OC, especially in service organizations, such terms as the *customer-* or *service-orientation* of the organization or OC are found in the literature. In order to maintain a clear understanding about the differences, these terms are explained separately because there is a somehow confusing use of this terminology. Firstly, the features of *service-oriented organizations* are explored. Zeithaml and Bitner (2003) claim that customer-, service-oriented organizations will have at heart a service culture, defined as a culture where an appreciation of good service exists, and where giving good service to internal as well as external customers is considered a natural way of behaving and one of the most important norms.

Allen (2006) proposes that the main business driver of the service orientation of an organization is agility: the speed, cost-effectiveness, accuracy and flexibility required for organizations to prosper. Hopson, Laughary, Murgatroyd, Ripley, Scally and Simpson (1999) suggest that the approach to establishing a truly customer and service-oriented business has to be comprehensive, integrated, well-resourced and well-managed. Nevertheless, there are some common factors that make some service organizations more prosperous than others. These factors do not deal particularly with the characteristics of the service provided, but with how and in which environment it has been done. In table 8 the author has summarized the features of customer- or service-oriented organizations according to five dimensions: employees, management, systems, performance and the customer.

Secondly, the literature investigates the features of the *service orientation of OC*. A customer-oriented culture is a prerequisite for a service organization to excel in a competitive marketplace (Parasuraman, 1987). Harrison (1987) elaborates that an organization's cultural orientation has implications for every aspect of its operations and its internal and external relationships; each orientation tends to produce a typical attitude and style of customer service. The idea of service orientation is to provide customer value by contracting others to do what a company has to do just to get by, and by focusing the company's own resources on what it does best (Allen, 2006). Gebauer *et al* (2009) in their research distinguish between four elements of service orientation of OC: service orientation of management values, service orientation of employees' values, service orientation of management behavior and service orientation of employee behavior. They found in their study that any increase of service norms and values is the result of a specific interaction between values and behavior at two different levels: managers and employees. Ultimately, it is all about the values that organizational members hold to support service provision and behavior that would benefit by adding value to the customer and delivering the expected services.

Table 8. Features of customer- or service-oriented organizations

| <i>Dimensions</i> | <i>Features</i> |
|-------------------|--|
| Employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• quality training and development of employees;• a clear understanding of the competencies needed at each level to build the business and deliver the mission;• recruitment, induction and advancement;• investment in people and emphasis on high social technology;• treating employees as internal customers. |
| Management | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• visionary and robust leadership;• visible and sustained commitment from the top management;• a clear, motivating business mission or vision;• active change management by line managers;• commitment to quality communication;• management by values;• management continuously seeks ways to improve. |
| Systems | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• effective business systems;• control systems are rigorous with regard to factors vital to success in the client relationship;• organizations are both strongly decentralized and centralized at the same time;• constant monitoring and prospecting activities to understand important trends and possibilities in market;• easy processes to collect data from customers. |
| Performance | <p>orientation towards quality and excellence;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• use of data and research to drive performance;• measuring and appraising performance;• mobilization of all resources and energy to achieve maximum excellence in its chosen field, markets or customer segments. |
| Customer | <ul style="list-style-type: none">• consciousness of bottom line about customer retention;• commitment to the customer and to service quality;• emphasizing customer relationships and their satisfaction;• intimate understanding of customers and their needs. |

Sources: composed by author based on Hopson *et al* (1999); Normann (2000); Gouthier, Coenen, Schulze, Wegmann (2007).

There is a difference between customer- or service-oriented organizations or the service-orientation of OC. The first indicates that an organization has an OC which has service and customer centric values at its core. In the latter it could be assumed that just one orientation of OC is considered. In the present dissertation the focus is on what kind of OC characterizes service organizations or what OC supports and promotes the service orientation of organizations.

Harrison (1987), on the other hand, discusses that the effect of culture is quite aside from whether the service is ‘good’ or ‘bad’. Each produces a kind of service, which is qualitatively different from the others, different in ‘taste’ and

‘feel’. Each may provide ‘good’ or ‘bad’ service, and the definition of good service will differ from one culture to the other. The ‘goodness’ of the service depends on the style. For example, warm, friendly and relaxed service is not necessarily ‘better’ than fast, efficient and impersonal service, but it certainly feels different. (*Ibid*) So it is rather difficult to describe the “right” organizational features that provide the proper set up for an organization. Even in the service sector organizations may vary to a great extent – hospitals, hotels, banks, prisons, ministries, airlines, schools etc. In addition, each organization tries to find its own way of serving the customer in order to create some kind of differentiation from its competitors.

By developing and nurturing a set of customer-oriented core values, a service organization can create a relatively unique and consistent way of dealing with customers (Parasuraman, 1987). If there is one value that permeates the culture of successful service organizations it is certainly the emphasis on serving the customer. Haksever *et al* (2000) colorfully describe the bored, gum-chewing clerk, the argumentative maintenance person, the service reps who conduct personal phone conversations while the customer waits, and the government bureaucrat who knows little and cares less and that even these represent a service culture in which superlative service is the norm. The core *value* for service organizations is definitely the customer.

Parasuraman (1987) claims that the most precious asset that a service organization can acquire is a single-minded dedication on the part of all employees toward satisfying its customers – concern for the customer must be paramount at all levels and during all customer-employee transactions. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) propose that the organizational value of customer service, when consistently communicated by management, permit contact personnel to act with considerable autonomy, because their judgment is founded on a shared set of values. They continue that the organization benefits from a shared set of values, because contact personnel are empowered to make decisions without the need for the traditional level of supervision, which assumes that only management is vested with authority to act on behalf of the organization. Thus, one of the most important issues in service OC is that the customer as a value is shared among employees. Wilson’s (1997) research findings support this view very well. He investigated OC in banks and found that there was cultural variation among branches of the bank, but there was one area of consensus which transcended all branches and staff groupings – this related to the behaviors and attitudes associated with customer orientation. Research found no variance in this subscale of OC, no matter which way the employees were grouped.

Lytle and Timmerman (2006) notice that there is a mounting interest in service orientation research because it appears to be a defining factor in the creation of superior customer service and customer value. They imply that little attention is paid to service orientation as a socially constructed variable (as OC is). Thus, not many particular OC approaches for service organizations could be

found. Harrison (1987) connects the Types of OC with the service concept and draws out four oriented services (derived from the Types of OC): Power Oriented, Role Oriented, Achievement Oriented and Support Oriented Service. Further on the research results on OC in service organizations will be presented.

According to Trivellas and Dargenidou's (2009) research results, adhocracy (Open System type of OC) was found to be the most powerful predictor of higher education service quality. They elaborate that such values as intrapreneurship, experimentation, creativity, proactiveness, adaptation and innovativeness are conducive to enhanced quality of teaching and administration. Parasuraman (1987) claims that embracing values like "willingness to be flexible" and "quest for creativity" can boost employee morale and improve service quality. The study conducted by Bellou (2010) in Greek public hospitals indicate that the most prominent organizational values include being careful and precise, being rule oriented, showing respect for the individual's rights and being easy going. This indicates values that are present in Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC. The study conducted by Al-khalifa and Aspinwall (2001) indicates that service organizations had predominant Hierarchical (similar to Internal Processes) and Rational (similar to Rational Goal) types of OC. Research conducted by Lund (2003) among marketing professionals indicates that respondents perceived their organizational culture to be predominantly market (or Rational Goal type of OC), they identified a clan culture type (or Human Relations type of OC) as the next most similar in their organizations, followed by adhocracy (Open System type), and last by the hierarchy type of culture (Internal Processes type). Øgaard, Larsen and Marnburg (2005) studied culture in fast food companies and found that the market (present in Rational Goal type) and hierarchy values (present in Internal Processes type) are prized most. Igo and Skitmore (2005) presented research results from a culture survey among service organization employees that indicate the dominant culture profile emphasizes the market (or Rational Goal type) and clan (Human Relations type) cultures. Lytle and Timmerman (2006) found in their research in banks that service orientation positively affects an employee's organizational commitment and his/her sense of *esprit de corps* within the organization (referring to the importance of Human Relations type of OC). Thus, their notion that committed employees working and building relationships within a positive and supportive team environment, deliver better service was supported. Parasuraman (1987) claims that OC conducive to ultimate customer satisfaction must also foster feelings of togetherness and mutual respect among all employees (these refer to the Human Relations type of OC). Previous research indicates that in service organizations values that are perceived to be dominating within the framework of the Human Relations type of OC are represented most. Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC have also been mentioned in studies. Based on this empirical evidence the following could be proposed:

Proposition 1.2.2.A: In service organizations, features of the Human Relations types of OC are perceived as dominate.

Dastmalchian *et al* (2000) studied a variety of service organizations and found that companies in the hospitality industry have a greater emphasis on values of entrepreneurship culture (Open System type of OC); health and social services organizations score clan culture highest (Human Relations type of OC); a hierarchical culture is dominant in communications and utilities companies (Internal Process type of OC) and manufacturing, finance and insurance and wholesale and retail companies scored highest on result-oriented culture (Rational Goal type of OC). This indicates that there is a variance within the service sector and among service organizations. Chatman and Jehn (1994) show that the predominant culture among service organizations was outcome oriented, but they also conclude that there was considerable variation within the service sector in terms of innovation, stability, people orientation, easy-goingness, detail orientation and team orientation dimensions of culture. It is difficult to suggest in which types of OC there could be found variations in OC perceptions within one sector; thus, according to the above overview of research, the following proposition is made:

Proposition 1.2.2.B: There are significant differences in perceptions of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC among employees of service organizations.

Herein it is necessary to note that in propositions above the perception of OC is presenting the major interest while the author of the dissertation considers OC as a set of perceived and shared values, norms, traditions, symbols and behavioral patterns. Thus the OC is considered to be the sum of perceptions that from epistemological point of view create an objective reality about the OC. Certainly it could be a source of wide discussions whether the perceptions of organizational members reflect OC, but as an OC is a collective phenomenon it could be considered as a set of perceptions that mirror OC.

Hopson *et al* (1999) claim from their experience that in the field of services successful programs involve a fundamental culture change, embedding quality and a service ethos, and a belief in continuous improvement deep in the working life and of everybody in the business. They conclude that creating a service culture is a major task – it cannot be done simply by talking about it, writing about it, producing training programs to encourage it or expecting it to happen overnight. Based on results of a study of service organizations Wilson (1997) also warns that it is naïve, if not somewhat dangerous, for managers to consider culture as a corporate resource that can be easily managed and manipulated. Gebauer *et al* (2009) present implications stemming from their research results that managers have to be aware of the complex interactions between values and behavior that form the service orientation of OC – managers must behave in a

service oriented manner in order to direct the service orientation from the managerial to the employee level.

This is not easy to achieve, but no company will be a significant player unless it creates a service culture and ethic, because it will be the culture that, in the long term, shapes the behavior of its people. The organization's leadership has to be clear about the features of the culture required in the business to achieve its mission – the values and behavior that it wants to be most evident, and how the present culture is described and its predominant features and influences (Hopson *et al*, 1999). Thus, service organizations will benefit considerably from creating a customer- or service-oriented OC. There are certain set ups for service organizations, and the employees who work there should have the required competencies as well as EI. In the next sub chapter the importance of EI in organizational culture is explored.

1.2.3. The association between emotional intelligence and organizational culture

In the present subchapter the place of emotions in OC is explored, and different approaches to links between EI and OC are investigated. How vision, values and symbols are linked to emotions will also be discussed. The role of emotion-evoking events in OC is presented through an interpretation process.

Mumby and Putnam (2001: 1683) claim that “in Western society, the rational is up and the emotional is down” and explain that in organizations, emotions are consistently devalued and marginalized while rationality is privileged as an ideal for effective organizational life. Fineman (2003) elaborates that people in organizations are presented as emotionally anorexic and the way feelings are produced, reproduced, camouflaged, communicated and acted upon in organizations is not revealed. Research on the neurology of emotions now demonstrates that the longstanding juxtaposition of emotionality and rationality as polar opposites is simply wrong – there are difficulties in making decisions without using emotions. Sociological theories about emotions almost always assume that emotions guide decisions, both consciously and unconsciously. (Turner, Stets, 2005) Putnam and Mumby (2001) present such notions as the *emotionality of rationality* and the *rational conception of emotions* to emphasize the need to abandon the efforts of scholars to construct a final organizational vocabulary and create a new “space” for research. All this leads to the new idea of understanding emotionality in organizational studies. Emotionality cannot be neglected, but a deeper understanding of emotions in organizational life should open new opportunities for interpreting the behavior of organizational members.

Turner and Stets (2005) postulate that culture is visualized as taking on meaning to the extent that it can activate emotional responses in individuals – emotions make culture meaningful and give it the power to regulate conduct. Fineman (1993: 20) claims that “the organization of dramatic appearance, and

the intrinsic emotionality of organizational order and meaning, means that organizational culture with its swirls, sectors and solidity, is of emotions". The perception of OC is accompanied by the process of making interpretations, which captures emotions while making decisions about the meanings that are given to particular actions.

OC happens between people (Knapp, Yu, 1999) – it forms as a result of the interaction between an individual and an organization (Schein, 1997). OC as an emotional phenomenon (e.g. Trice, Beyer, 1993; Griseri, 1998) cannot exist without people, and features such as subjectivity, irrationality and emotionality could be used to describe the concept. Alvesson (2002) highlights that OC could serve an affective-regulative function and provide instructions for emotional expression. Fineman (1993: 9) claims that "feelings shape and lubricate social transactions. Feelings contribute to, and reflect, the structure and culture of organizations." This highlights the importance of EI in the organization, because in the context of OC, attention may focus on broader patterns of feelings or on emotions in a more restricted sense (e.g. involving self-control and the reduction of pressure through socialization and symbols) (Alvesson, 2002). Childre and Cryer (1999: 29) propose that "in an age of chaos, organizations rise and fall more due to emotional management or mismanagement within the culture than mere product success or process improvements". The role of emotions and emotional competencies in employees cannot be underestimated in organizational culture and thus links between the two concepts should exist.

The failure of established ways of thinking about organizations has led to a growing focus on the non-rational aspects of organizational behavior, such as vision, values, symbols and behavioral patterns rather than the traditional rational focus on strategy, goals and objectives. The key to success appears to lie in achieving a balance between the emotional and rational positions of organizational behavior (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002). This need for balance is summarized in Figure 17, which illustrates that strategy has two components and organizations need to focus on both achieving results and aligning individual behaviors with their goals and strategy. From figure 17 we can see that emotionally loaded vision, symbols, values and behaviors of organizational members represent elements that form organizational culture.

Vision is reflected the long-term strategic goals and a vision should be challenging enough, but still a reachable end-state. Vision is mostly expressed in written documents and webpages and represented by organizational managers or leaders to employees for 'guiding' or 'motivating' purposes. Fineman (1993) states that in cultural manipulation leaders craft their words and arrange physical settings to create emotional images that move minds and hearts. This is definitely possible when the vision is expressed with inspiration and emotional considerations. The wording of the vision should raise some feelings (e.g. "the best", "the biggest", "most popular", "most consumable" etc.). Depending on the particular set of values and situation those feelings might be positive or negative as a result of the meaning giving process.

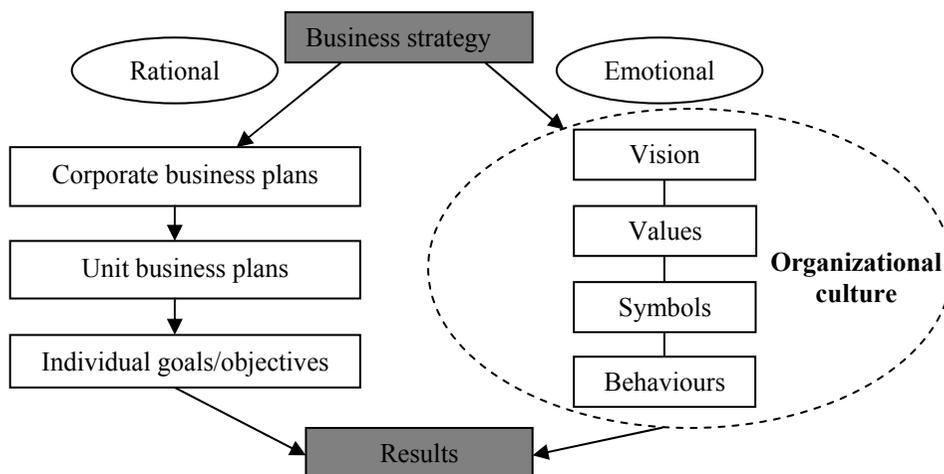


Figure 17. Balancing the emotional and rational aspects in the organization (modified from Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002)

Leavitt and Bahrami (1988: 67) colorfully state that “humans are emotional creatures, but they also use their heads. Attitudes, beliefs and values are the progeny of the marriage of emotion and reason”. The emotional dimension of OC focuses on how people sense, value and use symbols in an expressive manner (Alvesson, 2002). Intelligent use of the emotions (Weisinger, 1998) of employees could result in a better understanding of the organizational values, mission, vision and strategies that drive organizational processes. Company breakfasts, dinners, dances and intensive weekend ‘motivating’ sessions symbolize to participants a special form of company membership. They provide channels for reinforcing company values. (Fineman, 1993) Values do manifest in different ways and one powerful channel is symbolic expressions.

The culture of emotions for a society is revealed not only in language, but also in rituals, art forms and other cultural elements. Emotions are what give cultural symbols the very meanings and power to regulate, direct and channel human behavior and to integrate patterns of social organization. (Turner, Stets, 2005) Organizational symbols are strongly emotionally loaded. Employees in the organization use symbols in order to show their emotional states or moods. For example, resisting the rules as a symbolic act shows anger or other negative emotions toward activities. One example of symbols presented by Fineman (2003) is *emotional zones* – these are either designed by the organization for relaxation, escape or leisure, such as coffee rooms, lounges, designated smoking areas and exercise spaces, or are informal, invented through everyday social interactions and can include certain corridors, car parks, lobby areas, washrooms and out of site corners of rooms. Symbols are powerful means for expressing emotions in order to show what is important in an organization (values) or how employees relate themselves to values manifestations.

For most sociologists, emotions are socially constructed in the sense that what people feel is conditioned by socialization into the culture and by participation in social structures. Cultural ideologies, beliefs and norms as they impinge on social structures define what emotions are to be experienced and how these culturally defined emotions are to be expressed. (Turner, Stets, 2005) In understanding emotions in an organization it is necessary to know about the cultural and organizational context that shapes the way emotion is expressed and controlled (Fineman, 2003). Culture provides accounts of the origins and nature of different emotions, including their likely causes and outcomes, and it identifies how emotions are to be expressed and managed (Turner, Stets 2005). From this it could be supposed that emotions are important in organizational culture. The following proposition is going to be tested empirically:

Proposition 1.2.3.A: The importance of emotions at work is significantly related to perceptions of OC types.

OC shared practices, in a way, provide a course of behavior from the point of view of emotions – what emotions to express and how to express them. OC reflects what people feel, what they ought to feel and what feelings should be displayed. The culture of an organization helps to create and reinforce the dominant emotions of control in the workplace, such as guilt, fear, shame, anxiety or ‘looking happy’. It is necessary to learn what emotional ‘face’ is appropriate and when. Employees are subject to influences from the boss, workgroup and colleagues on how and what to feel, or pretend to feel – to keep the social atmosphere cool, to be suitably different, to be the right kind of male, female, manager, accountant or personnel specialist. People in organizations have roles to play at work and those roles have emotional scripts attached to them (and hypocrisy is part of the act). (Fineman, 1993) The discrepancy between what a person feels or is expected to feel and what this person must display can become highly alienating if the work is emotionally loaded (Turner, Stets, 2005). Kemper (1993) elaborates that cultural considerations interfere: there are “feelings rules” and “expression rules”, which inform that feelings may be inappropriate (too intense or too mild, too long or too brief in duration, suitable or unsuitable for someone with our social identity) or that the manner of expressing feelings is acceptable.

There is no straightforward research conducted in the field of relationships between OC and EI⁵, but it has been acknowledged that EI has a certain manifestation in the organizational context. EI influences organizational activities in a number of areas: employee recruitment and retention; development of talent; teamwork; employee commitment, morale and health; innovation and creativity;

⁵ For example, searching in the Emerald Fulltext and EBSCO Academic Database online did not result in any publications that had the words “emotional intelligence” and “organizational culture” in the title or in the keywords at the time the Dissertation was completed.

productivity and efficiency; sales and revenues; quality of service and customer loyalty (Cherniss, 2001). The application of EI is of course different in each of these areas; for example, in recruitment EI testing could give supportive information about a person's capabilities, but for example, to link productivity with EI is challenging and even in many cases unnecessary to attempt. Scherl *et al* (2005) in their research about the effectiveness of EI training demonstrated the significance of EI, especially in the recruitment of new employees. German managers described the importance of identifying levels of EI in the hope of filling vacant position in terms of team-working abilities, performance, outcomes and their required working climate. The managers believed that EI had contributions to make to corporate success in the following areas: sales, CRM, conflict management, teamwork, change management, fluctuation and absenteeism. This research does indicate that there are even more areas where the EI of employees could be a beneficial competency.

While analyzing the literature on the role of emotions and EI in OC, a couple of trends have been discovered. Firstly, there are models and discussions implying that everything starts from individual evaluations of situations and emotional reactions which lead to certain perceptions of organizational culture (e.g. Taylor, 2005; Alvesson, 2002). Other models and considerations suggest that organizational culture causes emotional reactions in individuals (e.g. Druskat, Wolff, 2001; Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002; Cherniss, 2001). In both approaches the role of EI in OC is discussed. Secondly, there are authors who talk about what individuals are feeling in organizations and authors who elaborate on how individuals express their feelings in the organizational context. These issues are also addressed in this part of dissertation.

Fineman (2003) claims that in understanding emotions in the organization it is necessary to know about the personal background of the individual and the meaning of situations to the individual. Taylor's (2005) model of building OC is based on the understanding that "people are the cultural journey". She says that culture is about the message sent which demonstrates what is valued, what is important, what people do in organizations to fit in, and to be accepted and rewarded. Taylor forms her model on three levels – BE-level, DO-level and HAVE-level – explaining that what people do is caused by who they are and how someone is at the BE-level determines what they DO which determines the outcomes they HAVE. She states that in order to have organizational results and shape behavior in the organization, it is necessary to understand each element on the BE-level, because behavioral change is caused by changes in mind-set (consisting of three elements of feelings, beliefs and values, and the level of awareness).

Taylor (2005) does not deliver a direct link to emotional intelligence, but some components of the model do refer to that. For example, self-awareness is described as the ability to step back and watch one's own behavior, reactions and feelings. She presents examples of types of emotions that impact behavior and performance outcomes: negative feelings are cynicism, frustration, anxiety,

nervousness, mistrust, anger, distraction; and positive emotions such as excitement, confidence, drive, energy, trust. She brings up the importance of changing behavior by changing feelings or by choosing different responses focusing on the EI domain of managing emotions. Taylor also explains the importance of valuing the feelings of others (empathy) and creating trustful relationships in order to change behaviors and achieve personal contributions and thus results. The intrapersonal competencies in EI are revealed on the BE-level – the ability to identify one’s own emotions helps to increase the level of self awareness; the ability to manage one’s own emotions helps find congruence in felt emotions and values and beliefs; the ability to empathize and relate to others helps one interact with others.

Schein (2004) claims that at the core of every culture are assumptions about the proper way for individuals to relate to each other in order to make the group safe, conformable and productive. EI emerges primarily through relationships and at the same time EI affects the quality of those relationships. Relationships can help people to become more emotionally intelligent even when they are not set up for that purpose. The Cherniss (2001) model of relationships between EI and organizational effectiveness suggests that ultimately any attempts to improve EI in organizations will depend on relationships. Emotional intelligence in organizational leadership influences organizational effectiveness through its impact on organizational culture. At the same time, the HR functions of recruitment and selection, training and development, and management performance have a strong impact on leadership. However, leadership in turn will influence the extent to which HR functions are effective in helping organizational members increase their EI. (*Ibid.*) One can argue about the presented model, because leadership and HR practices are extracted from OC. The author of this dissertation thinks that those are part of OC and influence the formation of the culture. Still it is one of the few attempts to present relationships between EI and OC.

Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) admit that the topic of OC and its relationship to EI is an extremely difficult area riddled with definitional and philosophical debate. Still they attempt to find links between the two concepts and draw the model presented in figure 18. From the experience of the authors it is evident that the culture within the organization has a significant impact on decisions around promotions and perceptions of success and failure. In an organization with a culture of only valuing and rewarding the achievement of short-term financial gains, it is unlikely that much effort will be placed on developing such abilities as EI. Even if an organization attracts individuals with high EI they are unlikely to find much fulfillment in working for it and will leave. Thus, if there is a need to be able to fully understand the significance of EI it is necessary to recognize that the relationship between EI and performance is mediated by organizational culture. (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002) In the presented model it is not really obvious at what levels the inputs of the model are placed.

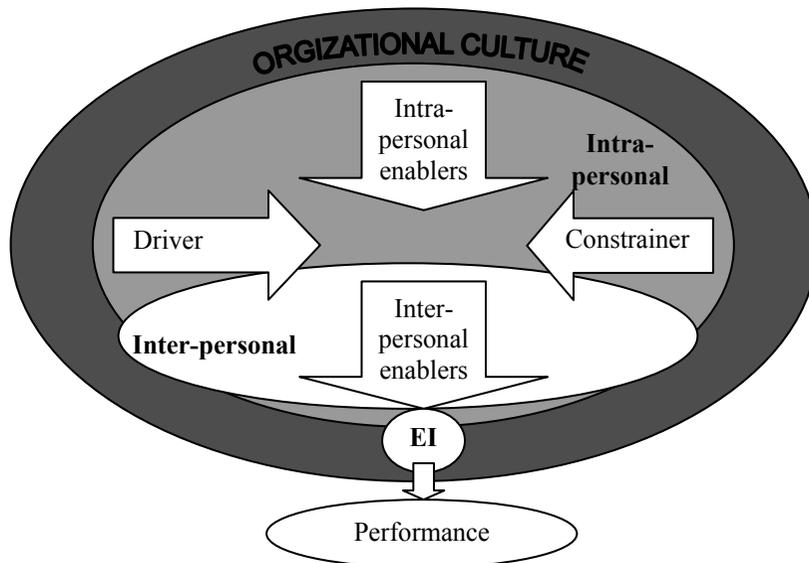


Figure 18. A model of EI in the context of organizational culture (Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002)

The original model by Dulewicz and Higgs (2002) in a way lacks consistency in its features, but in 2004 they revised their model by opening up the aspects behind the features. They specify that the intrapersonal component consists of such competencies as emotional self-awareness, emotional resilience and intuitiveness. Interpersonal competencies consist of interpersonal sensitivity and influence. The driver coming from OC is motivation and the constrainer is conscientiousness. In their research they found that the driver, intra- and interpersonal elements are positively and significantly correlated to performance. Higgs and Dulewicz (2004) conclude that the revised model highlights the importance of the interpersonal elements as the interface between the intrapersonal elements and the work environment; and when working with others, the intrapersonal elements are brought into play and contribute to performance through the interpersonal elements.

Figure 19 presents the next framework for exploring the role of emotions and EI in OC. In this approach the focus of the initiator of emotions is shifted from the individual to organizational culture. Druskat and Wolff (2001) claim that an individual's interpretation of an emotion-evoking event is shaped by organizational culture. They offer the example that in some cultures arriving late to a meeting is interpreted as socially correct whereas in other cultures it is considered unacceptable. The differences between two cultures in people's interpretation of lateness will therefore elicit different emotions from the individual involved. So the first step from the event is the awareness of the situation and the emotion that the event has evoked. (*Ibid*) It is necessary to note

that an emotion-evoking event once again has a firm place in exploring links between EI and OC. Roseman *et al* (1990) present the following factors of event appraisal: (a) valence: whether an event is unpleasant or pleasant, (b) certainty: whether the outcome of an event is uncertain or certain, (c) agency: whether the self or someone else is responsible for the occurrence of an event, (d) interestingness: whether an event is neutral or interesting, and (e) globality: whether an event can be localized in space. Thus, during the first step after the event has occurred there are a number of processes that an employee needs to perform: awareness of the situation, awareness of the emotion that the event might elicit, and appraisal of the event in order to go further to the step of interpretation.

The next step involves the interpretation of the situation and emotions, where cultural norms influence the interpretation of an emotional stimulus (Druskat, Wolff, 2001). Van Overwalle *et al* (1992) claim that social receivers may use relevant information not only to appraise the situation for themselves, but also to reconstruct how others might interpret the event and how they might feel. If the practices shaped by OC and experiences shared among organizational members provide a positive impact on the interpretation (“what I feel is OK”) then the management of emotions takes place with a magnifying effect. If the norms of OC imply a negative effect on interpreting the situation (“what I feel is wrong, not appropriate, not sound”) then by managing emotions those are suppressed (emotional labor emerges with deep or surface acting) or changed. Next, OC influences the selection of a culturally accepted response what leads to actions that are sound in the OC (Druskat, Wolff, 2001). In this model, intrapersonal competencies of EI (such as identification and management of emotions) are linked with OC through the interpretation process, the choice of a response and actions.

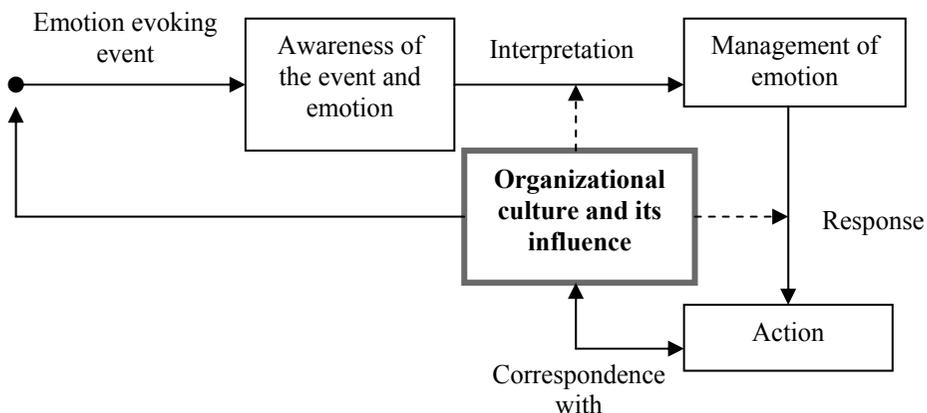


Figure 19. The link between intrapersonal competencies of EI and OC (idea stems from Levy, 1984; cf. Druskat, Wolff, 2001)

Druskat and Wolff (2001) state that the integral element is the cultural norms that channel the interpretation of emotional stimuli and subsequent behaviors in a way that has a positive impact on human activities and performance. Herkenhoff (2004) has made case studies based on the model above and provided practical examples of national, professional and organizational cultural ‘tuning’ that led to positive change outcomes. An emotion-evoking event serves as a critical incident for exposing organizational values. In the service context the emotion-evoking events are related to customers, service organizations and the service provider him or herself (see subchapter 1.1.6.). The context of OC is crucial in interpreting events as positive or negative. So, it is possible to propose following:

Proposition 1.2.3.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to the perception of OC types.

Despite the fact that these approaches to describing the links between EI and OC somehow lack consistency in the scope and depth of presented notions, they are still attempts to create an integral view of links between the concepts. As mentioned before, this is not an easy task because EI is a concept, which is revealed on the individual level and OC is a collective phenomenon. Svyantek and Rahim (2002), while completing an overview of the links between EI and behavior in organizations, conclude that there is a complexity of understanding the relationship between EI and organizational behavior because different research findings are contradictory. Still in combining the two concepts, a new understanding of human behavior in organizational settings could be derived.

1.2.4. The deduction of relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture

The importance of emotions in organizational life cannot be neglected and this is going to be discussed in the present sub chapter. The kinds of manifestations of the features of types of OC that are related to EI competencies will also be investigated. The propositions about the relationships are presented as deductions based on previous empirical research and theoretical elaborations. In addition, the process of interactions between EI and OC is explored in greater depth.

Bagshaw (2000) elaborates that in the past, emotions have simply been considered a hindrance to rational processes and efficiency, yet it is known that organizations are a cauldron of emotions, both positive and negative, which have a powerful influence on the success or failure of an enterprise. Far from getting rid of emotions, it is necessary to use them and work with them. It is not possible to leave emotions behind the doors of the organization – emotions are like individual values that form a personality albeit temporary and immediate in character. Employees as well as customers and other involved parties while

interacting with each other exchange emotions and shape them or their behavior according to what the situation requires.

Emotions are important in workplace settings and they have an impact on individual behavior. They also have an effect on relationships between organizational members and between organizational members and stakeholders. Emotions influence work-related cognitive and emotional processes, which in turn affect social behavior, task accomplishment and performance (Matthews *et al.*, 2004). Emotions have an impact on instructions and provide information about actions and concerns (Feldman, 1999). Caruso and Salovey (2004) argue that emotions are required to allow individuals to make good decisions, take optimal actions to solve conflicts and cope with change and success in the organization. The wise use of emotional knowledge in the workplace is an advantage resulting in successful task performance.

Childre and Cryer (1999) compare organizations with living systems composed of people who think and feel. They see each organization metaphorically as a large complex organism whose health and resilience depends on many of the same factors that determine an individual's health and balance. Putnam and Mumby (2001) claim that emotions represent the process through which members of organizations constitute their work environment by negotiating shared realities. Knowing what people feel in an organization is critical to creating a successful organization, because employees' skills in the organization work along with feelings, and knowing how to create a positive ambience and mood is vital (Garden, 2000). Emotions help to create the contextual background for facts, and thus enhance decision-making and help tune in on what is going on in the organization.

Grugulis (2002) even claims that in many organizations, emotions are set in the centre slot – the way employees feel and the feelings they produce in others have become, for many, the main aim of the work. Flight attendants are required to make passengers feel good, debt collectors 'create alarm' to persuade debtors to pay, leaders need to involve their staff to follow changes and achieve goals. People working in the most prosaic jobs, from bank clerks and waitresses to language tutors and bar staff must demonstrate the 'right' emotional orientation, look and sound. (*Ibid*) Thus, emotions have become part of the roles that employees present in their workplaces. The extent to which emotions are expected to be part of the job for different positions definitely varies, and still it could be suggested that the importance of emotion-evoking events as influencing performance is not acknowledged in all positions.

Schein (2004) discusses developing rules in the organization by saying that people must decide how to deal with authority problems and how to establish workable peer relationships. He claims that authority issues derive ultimately from the necessity to deal with feelings of aggression; peer relationships and intimacy problems derive ultimately from the necessity to deal with feelings of affection, love and sexuality. Employees in the organization do produce the required work, emotions, information, reactions to the organization's culture

and values, development of potential and so on. Emotional production (i.e. the sum of felt emotions plus the sense attributed to these emotions) is the source of self-motivation, it influences decision-making, loyalty and creativity. (Bourion, 2005) Emotions are evoked in the workplace and the choice of the direction of the emotions helps to cope with challenging situations (e.g. using assertiveness to show authority) or create close relations with co-workers (e.g. using a smile to show support).

Garden (2000) presents various feelings that could occur in organizations. She divides these feelings in the organization into three psychological areas: inclusion, control and affection. She claims that it is necessary to create 'enough' positive feelings in each of the three areas (see table 9). Accordingly, emotions are manifested in the sense of belongingness and the desire for responsibility and respect. These are the normal preconditions for task implementation that accompany the delivery of results.

Table 9. Feelings in organizations

| <i>Inclusion</i> | <i>Control</i> | <i>Affection</i> |
|---|---|---|
| People want to feel included, that their existence is acknowledged, that they are recognized in the sense of being seen and heard in their own right, not just when they achieve or perform. They want to feel accounted for as well as recognized as being unique and distinctive, that they stand out in some way, want to feel that they exist, want to feel they can include others in a way that retains their integrity and boundaries, want to feel they belong to some larger grouping. | People want to feel a sense of efficacy, meaning that when they do something it will have the desired effects or results; they want to feel a sense of control over their world as well as themselves so this means having a sense of self-control; they want to feel competent, admired, proud, successful, a winner and that they are seen as competent and successful by others, to feel coordinated, that they function well, and that they use themselves fully. | People want to feel that they are accepted when they relate to others, to feel real and genuine so they believe in themselves, to feel engaged with by others and their work, to feel they take care of themselves, that others care, to feel depth, commitment, purpose, to feel that they can engage with others without being rejected, to feel they can remain private when it suits them, to feel closeness, to feel they can discriminate between who to trust and who to distrust. |
| People want to avoid the corresponding feelings of being | | |
| ... excluded, ignored, that they are invisible or that they count only to perform, that they are noticed only when they do a good job but otherwise are barely acknowledged, feeling invaded and intruded on by others and feeling overly included | ... humiliated, ridiculed, shamed, incompetent, feeling out of control, that they are unable to cope, feeling that they are overly responsible, blamed when it is not their responsibility, burdened, feeling chaotic or uncoordinated. | ... unappreciated or rejected, unprofessional, feeling naïve, as if they have been taken for a ride or been too trusting, feeling used, feeling unlikable, feeling hollow and superficial, without purpose, depressed, betrayed, empty, uncaring. |

Source: Garden, 2000

It could be assumed that positive emotions primarily contribute to job performance in a positive way. Negative emotions like anger, fear and uncertainty have a great negative effect on organizational operations. The scope of negative emotions in an organization could be rather broad and difficult to determine. Bagshaw (2000) suggests that organizations cannot afford to: waste valuable energy in negative politicking and game playing; lose customers by exhibiting attitudes of indifference; lose significant working days through stress-related absence; have change programs fail because of low morale, resistance, cynicism and self-preservation at the cost of collaborative work. The presence of negative emotions at work cannot be eliminated, but should be considered and managed.

The present sub chapter has described how emotions are important at work, but this remains at the level of theoretical discussion. The present dissertation will test whether employees also consider this to be true and whether they really consider emotions at work important. The following is proposed for empirical testing:

Proposition 1.2.4.A: Emotions are considered to be important at work.

Emotions have a somewhat hidden influence on work performance, and organizational members do not usually recognize or realize what is behind good teamwork, high working motivation or cooperation problems and gossiping. Behind positive outcomes there are situations or interpretations of situations that have created positive feelings. Behind negative outcomes there are unsolved problems often taken too personally, unspoken truths or inadequate interpretations of the circumstances. The emotional arena at the workplace is pretty diverse, and if organizational members do not acknowledge the presence, influence and scope of emotions on different operational areas, the organization might end up in “emotional madness” where emotional self-regulation is not attended to and expression is not kept at an appropriate level. Ultimately, such organizations become difficult places to work because an overload of emotional clues causes stress and insecurity – each movement could start inadequate reactions in the receiver under unexpected circumstances.

In order to reduce the likelihood of “emotional madness” in the organization there are two general approaches. Firstly, it is possible to educate or train people to be more emotionally intelligent. The first option is costly and the desired effect might not be achieved, because it is too ambitious to expect people to change. The second option is to explain that to keep emotions down and suppress any overwhelming outbursts is part of the job (e.g. applying emotional labor), and also to create an environment where the rules governing emotional displays are evident. Emotions are obviously one component of EI because emotional intelligence is about handling emotions in effective way. It could be proposed that those employees who consider emotions to be important are able to identify them at the work-place, and manage and work with them. All the above indicate that emotions play an important role at work, and since EI

performs a considerable function in organizational life, the following proposition was set for empirical testing:

Proposition 1.2.4.B: Evaluations of EI competencies have a significant relationship to the importance of emotions at work.

The impact of OC on individual behavior has long been acknowledged, but EI research is only now helping to explain the link between changing cultural norms and how people feel about what is required of them in their jobs (Diggins, Kandola, 2004). Organizational members have the opportunity to develop themselves by understanding that the emotions could shape OC and behavior at every level of the organization (Langhorn, 2004). From another perspective, OC could provide guidance and reflect norms about the best way to handle ones own feelings and those of others in the workplace.

The proposition underlying much of the focus of EI, in relation to its organizational application, appears to be derived from a desire to explain a different achievement of success in an organizational setting (Dulewicz, Higgs, 2000). Research results show evidence that the EI of employees is an element of organizational success (Kernbach, Schutte, 2003). The Competing Values Model of OC is based on four closely related constructs of organizational effectiveness (Dastmalchian *et al*, 2000). Both concepts of EI and OC try to find certain determinants and aspects that make organizations and its members more successful, effective and drive them to higher performance. The potential relationships between types of OC and EI will be investigated later in this dissertation in order to set up propositions about such correlations.

There is an assumption that emotions play important role in work-life and interpreting organizational culture, and that interest in emotional intelligence is increasing in organizational studies. It has been accepted that emotions do have an impact on organizations, and thus EI plays a role in the work context. Organizational culture also tends to be an emotional phenomenon (Trice, Beyer, 1993). Thus, EI is about emotions, and OC has an emotional component. It is worth discovering how the concepts of EI and OC are interrelated. It is not clear how the relationships between EI and OC work. From one perspective, employees with high EI competencies could seek places to work where they can utilize their competencies. From another perspective, there could be organizations that support the application of EI in the workplace, or on the contrary, hinder the use of EI competencies at work. Organizations that consider EI competencies important would make an effort to develop the EI of their employees and try to recruit candidates with high EI (maybe even without testing it), or the preconditions for that. In this way organizations can attract employees with a considerable level of EI. However, there is no clear empirical evidence concerning the relationships between EI and OC, and so propositions about those are deducted as a result of the overview of different theoretical claims and evidence from empirical studies. However, it is quite challenging to

create a holistic overview and direct links because revelatory research on the connections between EI and OC is limited indeed. In table 10, it is possible to observe key ideas about types of OC on the basis of which relationships with EI can be explored, and those could be considered supportive features of culture that enable manifestations of EI. The keywords are chosen according to availability in the literature overview.

Table 10. Keywords about types of OC that relate to EI

| | |
|--|--|
| <p><i>Human Relations type of OC</i> loyalty, commitment, morality, justice, cooperation and teamwork, relationships, cohesive groups, traditions, leadership, personal development, empowerment, satisfaction of employees and customers</p> | <p><i>Open System type of OC</i> risk-taking, creativity and innovation, inventions, growth, change, entrepreneurship, initiative, encouragement, provision of solutions</p> |
| <p><i>Internal Processes type of OC</i> rules, procedure, standardization, control, formalization, stability, formality, hierarchy, planning, cost control</p> | <p><i>Rational Goal type of OC</i> achievement of goals, performance, competitiveness, efficiency, profitability, sales volumes, market share</p> |

Note: in bold are identified those keywords that are going to be reflected further on.

Sources: composed by author based on Quinn, Rahrbaugh, 1983; Parker, Bradley, 2000; Roots, 2002.

The basis for relationships will be explored further on by means of theoretical propositions and empirical evidence according to keywords for each type of OC presented in table 10. Then using the deduction method, relationships between EI and OC shall be derived.

EI and the Human Relations type of OC

Leadership. Leadership in general involves a leader-follower relationship that is characterized by a sense of mutual trust and emotional connectedness, and the emotional component of this relationship has an influence on moral behavior (Tourigny, Dougan, 2004). The research results show that emotionally intelligent senior managers display a higher level of altruistic behavior (Carmeli, 2003) that indicates higher ethical convictions. EI is considered to be one of the most important competences or abilities of leaders (e.g. Feldman, 1999; Goleman, Boyatzis, McGee, 2002; Caruso, Salovey, 2004). The research by Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) provides clear initial evidence of a linkage between EI and leadership. They found that CEO's and chairmen had higher levels of both EI and IQ than other directors, who in turn, had higher levels of EI than senior managers.

There is much empirical evidence that indicates the relationship between leadership and EI. According to research conducted by Sosik and Megerian (1999), where they study how transformational leadership is related to different EI scales for 63 managers and 192 subordinates in a US IT company. They found that leaders who were categorized as self-aware, these leader's subordinate ratings of transformational leadership behavior were positively related to the leader's purpose-in-life measure, personal efficacy, interpersonal control and social self-confidence. They claim that self-awareness may provide managers with greater perceived control over interpersonal events and in general results indicate that managers who maintain self-awareness are rated as more effective by both superiors and subordinates. Polychroniou (2009) found that supervisors' EI components such as social skills, motivation, and empathy are positively associated with transformational leadership, and Stough and Gardner (2002) found that EI is highly correlated with components of transformational leadership, with the components of understanding emotions and emotional management as the best predictors of this type of leadership style. Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Berry (2000) also found that EI correlated with several components of transactional leadership suggesting that it may be an important component of effective leadership. Dulevicz and Higgs (2003), relying on their research findings, state that the higher a leader rises within the organization, the more important EI becomes. Finally, Cavallo and Brienza (2004) conclude based on their research results that the highest performing managers have significantly more "emotional competence" than other managers. It could be deduced that a wide range of EI competencies are needed for high leadership performance: the identification of one's own emotions (self-awareness), managing emotions and empathy have been emphasized in the studies. It is also obvious that the EI competency of relating to others will contribute in creating effective leader-follower relationships, empowerment and involvement.

Cooperation, teamwork and cohesiveness. Prati, Douglas, Ferrisi, Ammeter and Buckley (2003) make theoretical propositions that the EI level of team members is positively related to team performance; the level of work-team cohesion is dependant upon the degree of EI in the team members. There is also empirical evidence that EI is a necessary part of teamwork and high team performance. Rapisarda (2002) found that EI competencies of influence and empathy are positively related to team cohesiveness, and empathy is positively related to team performance. EI subscales for managing one's own emotions and those of others is positively correlated to team performance (Feyerherm, Rice, 2002), and emotional self-awareness is a predictor of effectiveness in teams (Jordan, Ashkanasy, 2006). Again a wide range of EI competencies is considered to be useful in cooperation and team work. The EI competency of identifying one's own emotions helps understand one's own emotional states and empathy helps to realize the emotions of team members. The EI competency of managing one's own emotions will help regulate negative

emotions that are evoked during cooperation and enhance positive ones for effective teamwork. The EI competency of relating to others will contribute to influencing others and creating a friendly cooperative climate.

Satisfaction of employees and customers. The results of Carmeli's (2003) study show that EI is positively related to job satisfaction, which proves the point that those employees who have higher EI are more satisfied with their jobs. Rozell *et al* (2004) found in their research that the level of customer orientation is significantly related to EI. Scherl *et al* (2005) in their research indicate that according to the opinion of managers, EI is very important in CRM because the employees need specific interpersonal competencies to acquire new customers and to create intensive relationships with new and consisting customers. According to empirical investigations by Kernbach and Schutte (2003), employee EI influences customer satisfaction: the higher the EI of the service provider the greater reported satisfaction with the service transaction. So, there is evidence that shows a positive connection between the satisfaction of employees and customers and EI, meaning that the higher the EI of the employee the higher their job satisfaction and customer related tasks can be performed in more effective way to enhance customer satisfaction.

Relationships. Jordan and Troth (2002) found that individuals with a higher level of EI are more likely to or are more able to engage in collaborative conflict resolution; individuals with lower levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to engage in greater use of the conflict resolution strategies of forcefulness and avoidance. Research conducted by Lopes *et al* (2004) showed that the managing emotions subscale of the MSCEIT is associated with higher quality relationships with friends, as perceived by self and peers. Although they conducted the study on a sample of students, conclusions are applicable in organizational settings. They conclude that the ability to manage emotions is likely to contribute to warm, smooth social interactions to the extent that it enhances positive emotions, and preempts conflict and tension. They suggest that developing a better understanding of emotional management strategies may contribute to the quality of social interactions. In addition, the EI competency of empathy could contribute to a better understanding of others, and the competency of relating to others would help to retain effective relationships.

Personal development. Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003) found in their research that EI is positively related to career decision-making self-efficacy: individuals who indicated higher ability to perceive, access, and generate emotions to assist thought and to understand and regulate emotion reflectively were more likely to report greater confidence in their career decision-making tasks. Poon (2004) relying on study results indicates that career commitment predicted objective career success (i.e. salary level) only for employees with average to high emotional perception, but not for those with low emotional perception. EI facilitates the career decision-making process and leads to decisions that more fully satisfy career-related interests, values and aspirations (Emmerling, Cherniss, 2003). It seems that intrapersonal

competencies of EI are useful in career choices – a clear understanding of emotions (that could be evoked while considering different career opportunities) would help indicate suitable choices, and competency of managing one's own emotions would assist in resolving emotional reactions if the career path is not realized or changed.

EI and Open System type of OC

Change. By incorporating considerations of EI into the organization's change management philosophy, not only does the individual employee have an opportunity to improve, but the enterprise gains as well (Chrusciel, 2006). Huy (1999) proposes that the higher the level of emotional experience, the higher the level of receptivity to a proposed change. Research by Scherl *et al* (2005) revealed that German managers considered EI as important in change management. They claim that it supports employees in their handling of change processes such as restructuring. Cherniss (2001) note that coping with massive change involves, among other things, the ability to perceive and understand the emotional impact of change on ourselves and others. Nevertheless, Vakola, Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004) found in their research that the contribution of EI to attitudes to change was found to be significant. Still, there is evidence that proves that knowledge of EI is a useful competency in coping with rapid change and having suitable attitudes towards change. In particular, intrapersonal competencies of EI have an impact on understanding how events accompanying change influence emotional states, and the competency of managing one's own emotions supports emotional adaptation to the changed circumstances. The EI competency of empathy improves our understanding of what others feel during change, and the competency of relating to others facilitates positive relationships and emotional attitudes of others towards change activities.

Creativity and innovation. Emotional elements such as creativity, open communication, shared learning and so on, underlie the dynamics of many aspects of modern organizations (Bardzil, Slaski, 2003). Innovation activities are cognitive as well as emotional: the development and implementation of ideas need such emotional competences as self-confidence, initiative, consistency and persuasion (Goleman, 2001A). Prati *et al* (2003) state that theoretically EI in teams could offer an environment conducive to creative expression. Scherl *et al* (2005) studied managerial opinions and commented that emotionally intelligent employees understand innovation as a chance for improvement and are better able to deal with their insecurities and control their anxieties. Suliman and Al-Shaikh (2007) found in their research that employees with higher levels of EI have tended to report higher levels of readiness to create and innovate than those who reported lower levels of EI. Concerning creativity and innovation, the role of EI is twofold. Creativity as an individual feature and intrapersonal competencies of EI would be beneficial – the ability to identify one's own emotions would help create ideas, listen for the internal

clues about self-assessment of the creative solutions, and the competency of the management with their own emotions would help overcome failures in creating ideas. Innovation involves teamwork and the support of the organization, and interpersonal competencies could be helpful in persuading people to accept new ideas and solutions, convince teams to implement ideas and create positive attitudes towards innovations.

EI and the Rational Goal type of OC

Performance. A great deal of research has concentrated on finding out about the relationship between EI and individual job-related performance. For example, Bachman, Stein, Cambell and Sitarenios (2000) investigated the EI of accountants, and they found that higher EI leads to higher performance at work. Day and Carrol (2004) found that emotional perception was correlated with performance on a cognitive decision-making task. Watkin (2000) even claims, that EI is the most important factor for superior performance at every organizational level. Dann (2001) found by applying an EQ-i that EI is actually more important in predicting success in the workplace than cognitive intelligence, and EI accounted for 45% of success and the best performing recruits scored high on EI. Dulewicz, Higgs and Slaski (2003) found in their research that intrapersonal elements of EI appear to be relevant for explaining performance. With respect to personal job performance the intrapersonal EI competencies could be beneficial – identifying our own emotions helps to concentrate, focus on tasks and find disturbing factors. The EI competency of managing one's own emotions helps tune in on task performance and regulate inner states if the task character is not preferred or there are distractions.

Much research has explored how EI is related to and influences a manager's performance. For example, Slaski and Cartwright (2002) found that management performance (which consists of sixteen aspects such as setting objectives, planning and organizing, decision-making etc.) and EI have a significant positive relationship. Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) show in their investigation that aggregate managerial performance ratings and managers' ratings of advancement in their organization over a seven-year period are positively related to some scales of EI. According to Langhorn's (2004) results, emotional self-awareness, interpersonal relationships, social responsibility and optimism are related to the performance of general managers. Furthermore, Carmeli's (2003) investigation led to the result that higher EI in senior managers predicts work performance better than lower EI, and therefore it is concluded that EI may help an individual to be better at handling demanding managerial work. Managerial work is mainly about interacting with people. So, the interpersonal competencies of EI are most helpful. Empathy benefits from understanding what is happening with a subordinate, why the job outcome is not in accordance with expectations or why the person is distracted. The EI competency of managing one's own emotions would benefit in creating a positive working

climate, friendly relationships with subordinates as well as influencing emotional states in order to achieve commitment and high performance.

Achievement of goals. Fulmer and Barry (2004) elaborate that emotionally intelligent negotiators will gather more and richer information about their opponent's underlying interests and contextual constraints than less emotionally intelligent negotiators. Foo, Elfenbein, Tan and Aik (2005) found that individuals with high EI reported more positive negotiation experience. Negotiation is one of the areas where goals could be achieved. Not much evidence was found in order to explain the relationship between EI competencies and orientation to goals. Still the effect might be similar to personal job performance – intrapersonal EI competencies such as identifying and managing one's own emotions could help to tune in on goal achievement and deal with failures in a constructive manner.

EI and the Internal Process type of OC

Internal Process type of OC could be characterized by formalization and structure. Procedures guide people's actions, rules, instructions; work allocation, specialization and hierarchy are valued in the organization where the Internal Process type of OC prevails. (Roots, 2002) However, van Muijen and Koopman (1994) emphasize in light of environmental change that it is no longer sufficient to be only task oriented. They see a shift from the standardization of work processes toward more informal networks. Harrison (1995) notes that there seems to be increasing pressures from the members of modern industrial organizations to move toward relationship orientation. A great deal of research is directed to the investigation of organizations with modern operational modes, and this kind of OC is becoming of less interest, but there are plenty of industries where the Internal Process type of OC could be represented. No evidence was found from EI studies about how orientation towards internal processes could affect individuals in the context of emotional knowledge. While the internal process type of OC requires more procedures and standards then EI competencies do not play such an important role in handling this type of culture.

In the Rational Goal type of culture there is greater concern over the achievement of results, but interpersonal behaviors employed in arriving at goals are also necessary due to the fact that in modern organizations high performance and goal achievement is very frequently possible with tight cooperation and teamwork. In the Internal Process culture, relationships are not particularly first priority. In both of these cultures the environment will not be conducive to the development of abilities that lead to high EI. In flexibility cultures, the value placed on relationships is such that the behaviors associated with high emotional intelligence are likely to be endorsed and rewarded.

It is evident that there is a different emphasis on empirical and theoretical research into EI with relation to features of different types of OC. The most

empirical evidence could be found in the field of leadership. Many relationships remain on level of theoretical propositions that do not give explicit evidence on real relationships between EI in OC. Of course only some part of empirical studies has been reflected still there are a lot of topics waiting for picking those up in order to gain empirical evidence. Considering the topic of current Dissertation, no empirical studies has been conducted in finding relationships between EI and OC and thus bringing forward the importance of one possible area of human behavior in organization. Some of the presented activities do show some features elements of OC, but not directly.

It is assumed that there are relationships between EI and OC, but it is supposed that the strength of the relationship differs. For example, it is supposed that EI competencies of identifying one’s own emotions and managing emotions have a strong relationship with the Human Relations and Open System types of OC. EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others have a strong relationship with the Human Relations type of OC and a moderate relationship with the Rational Goal type of OC. Thus, the following propositions are made (please also look at figure 20):

Proposition 1.2.4.C: Evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying one’s own emotions and managing one’s own emotions have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC, a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC.

Proposition 1.2.4.D: Evaluations of the EI competency of empathizing with others and relating to others have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC; a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type; and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of Internal Process type of OC.

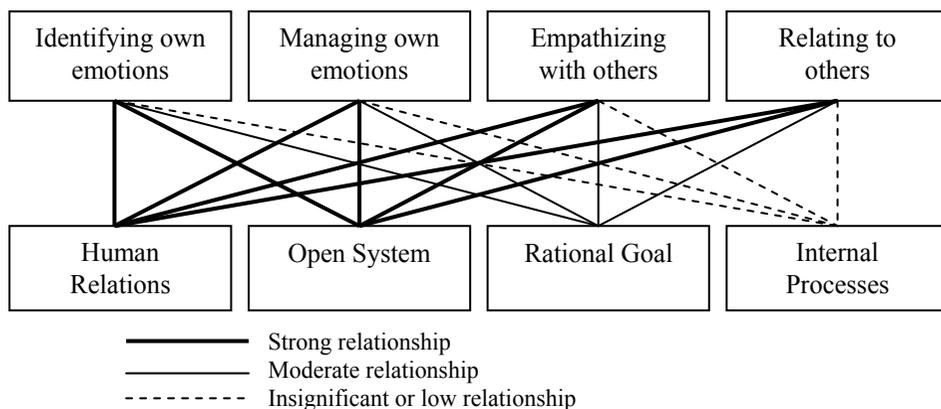


Figure 20. Proposed relationships between EI and OC (composed by the author)

The relationship between EI and OC has a deeper explanation. Figure 21 attempts to describe how the interaction between EI and OC is happening. The emotion-evoking event is the input for the process of interactions between EI and OC, which can be related to customers, the organization and/or employees. The next step in the process is the awareness of the event and the emotions this event elicits in the self and in others (customers or colleagues). In this step, EI has its own role, because the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions helps recognize the emotion and the event that elicits certain feelings. The EI competency of empathy helps identify the emotions in other people who are involved in the emotion-evoking event. The next step in the process is the interpretation of the event and the emotions it elicits, and these interpretations are supported by understanding OC. The perceptions of OC as having the features of certain type support interpreting the event as something suitable, appropriate, in accordance with values and manifestations through symbols and behavioral patterns of OC.

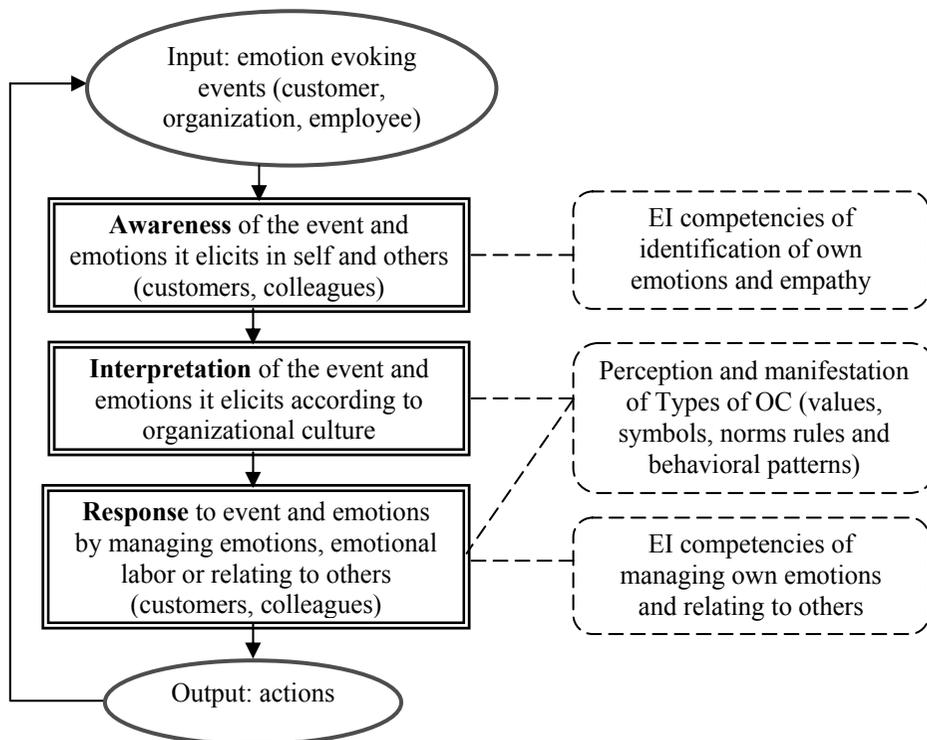


Figure 21. The interaction of EI and OC as a process (composed by the author; idea stems from Druskat, Wolff, 2001; Herkenhoff, 2004)

The last step in the process is the response to the event or emotion in a way that is in accordance with OC norms and rules for displaying emotions. If it is appropriate to feel the way another person feels then a suitable display of emotions as a response is taking a place. If it is not appropriate to feel in certain way then the management of emotions, emotional labor (deep or surface acting) or influencing others come into effect. In this step, the EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others would help to respond in a manner that is suitable in that organization and in those certain circumstances. The output of the process is the actions that employees perform as a response to an emotion-evoking event. These actions could again facilitate new events and the process repeats. Of course, this is a rather simplified attempt to reflect how EI and OC interact, because there might be many other factors that influence the process (e.g. the personality, attitudes, skills of the employee and other counterparts, individual and organizational characteristics, and the event itself).

The previous chapter has been looking at the topic of EI from different theoretical points of view – from the prism of service provision, in the context of the working environment and organization, in relation to organizational culture and with respect to individual differences. The next chapter of the dissertation aims to provide empirical evidence on the questions raised above.

2. STUDY OF THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE IN ESTONIAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

2.1. The context, procedure and methodology of the study

2.1.1. The development and overview of Estonian service sector organizations as the context of the study

The current part of the dissertation explores the importance of the service sector in the Estonian economy and behavioural changes in the service process during the transition period. The organizational culture of Estonian service organizations is explored from the point of view of types of OC based on secondary data, thus reflecting the dynamics and peculiarities of service provision and service employees' skills in the Estonian service sector. The analysis enables to set hypotheses for empirical study taking into consideration the particular character of the Estonian service sector.

Estonian service sector has played an important part in the formation of Gross Domestic Product (GDP). An overview of the service sector in Estonia as a percentage of GDP since 1995 is presented in table 11. The share of the service sector in GDP was over 60% and has been rather stable through this period. Before that period the share of services in GDP was significantly lower – for example in 1993 it was only 48% (Terterov, Reuvid, 2005). In 1996 competition in several services (banking, leasing, real estate, transportation) was very strong, and this supported the relatively quick accumulation of specific assets (e.g. professional skills, specialist know-how and customized services) needed in providing soft services (Svetličič, Rojec, 2003). The growth of the service sector was different in various areas and the rise of competency and innovation was heterogeneous. Still, the successful transition to a market economy has allowed the country to establish a strong position in a growing service sector (Terterov, Reuvid, 2005).

As understood from analyses in previous years, the Estonian service sector has potential for development. The Estonian Development Fund has gone further and initiated the analysis known as “Service Economy 2018” stating that the service sector is a building block for constructing Estonia’s growth strategy. Everywhere services account for an increasingly larger share of employment, value added and GDP. However, it has been noted that the dynamics of the services sector and opportunities for underpinning the competitiveness of the economy have scarcely been studied (Mürk, 2009). In particular, very

Table 11. The share of the service sector in Gross Domestic Product in Estonia from 1995 to 2008

| Year/ Service area in % of GDP | A: Whole- and retail sales-, repair of vehicles and domestic appliances | B: Hotels and restau- rants | C: Haulage, ware- housing and tele- commu- nication | D: Financial services | E: Real estate, rental and business activities | F: Public administ- ration and state defence; statutory social insurance | G: Edu- cation | H: Health services and social care | I: Other societal, social and personal service provision | GDP (in market prices, million EEK) | Percen- tage from GDP of the sum A-I |
|---|--|--------------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|---|---|-------------------|--|---|---|--|
| 1995 | 10,5 | 1,3 | 12,1 | 1,6 | 16,7 | 6,0 | 6,2 | 3,5 | 3,2 | 69744 | 61% |
| 1996 | 11,5 | 1,5 | 12,2 | 1,9 | 16,7 | 5,9 | 5,9 | 3,3 | 3,2 | 73712 | 62% |
| 1997 | 11,1 | 1,4 | 12,0 | 2,4 | 16,5 | 5,5 | 5,5 | 3,2 | 2,8 | 82365 | 60% |
| 1998 | 10,9 | 1,4 | 12,3 | 2,5 | 16,5 | 5,7 | 4,9 | 3,0 | 2,6 | 87903 | 60% |
| 1999 | 11,2 | 1,4 | 13,3 | 3,4 | 16,6 | 5,9 | 4,9 | 3,0 | 2,6 | 87639 | 62% |
| 2000 | 10,9 | 1,4 | 12,9 | 3,6 | 16,4 | 5,4 | 4,6 | 2,7 | 2,5 | 96380 | 60% |
| 2001 | 11,3 | 1,4 | 13,4 | 3,6 | 16,4 | 5,3 | 4,2 | 2,4 | 2,6 | 103624 | 61% |
| 2002 | 12,0 | 1,3 | 12,3 | 4,3 | 16,5 | 5,1 | 4,0 | 2,2 | 2,6 | 111852 | 60% |
| 2003 | 12,3 | 1,4 | 12,3 | 4,8 | 16,0 | 5,0 | 3,7 | 2,0 | 2,6 | 120307 | 60% |
| 2004 | 12,1 | 1,5 | 12,5 | 5,4 | 15,9 | 4,8 | 3,5 | 1,9 | 2,5 | 129004 | 60% |
| 2005 | 12,3 | 1,5 | 12,3 | 5,8 | 16,3 | 4,4 | 3,3 | 1,8 | 2,4 | 141170 | 60% |
| 2006 | 13,3 | 1,4 | 12,5 | 6,7 | 15,2 | 4,0 | 3,1 | 1,8 | 2,4 | 155225 | 60% |
| 2007 | 13,2 | 1,4 | 12,8 | 7,5 | 14,7 | 3,9 | 2,9 | 1,7 | 2,3 | 166406 | 60% |
| 2008 | 12,5 | 1,3 | 12,7 | 7,5 | 15,2 | 4,3 | 3,0 | 1,8 | 2,4 | 160455 | 61% |

Source: Statistics Estonia; 19.10.2009; author calculations

few studies have been conducted in the field of service provision and in the shift in the relationship between service provider and consumer. In the following overview, and in light of macroeconomic changes, the behavioural aspects of the service process will be analyzed.

The delivery of services and the perception of the service process have been transformed due to the transition from the Soviet-regime to a free market economy. During the Soviet time the service provider was considered to have the power to create over a reliance on the consumer because the scope and quality of services were provided according to individual relationships or positions in society. Basically, acquaintance with the service provider insures better service quality (e.g. in terms of positive emotional exposure, shorter time of service provision, politeness of communication etc.). As Vadi and Suuroja (2006) state, the direction and division of power relationships between retailers and customers in the selling process changed after the monetary reform in June 1992. They claim that this change in the situation led to a discrepancy between the perceptions of the role of the service provider and the expectations of the role of the customers. Service providers still thought of themselves as the “bosses”, but as competition increased, the customers had more opportunities to choose between service providers. The psychological linkage between consumer perceptions and pricing practices were of limited consequence during the Soviet period (McKenzie, 2006). At the beginning of the 1990s “the client” was a relatively new phenomenon for many enterprises and the meaning of the “clients’ needs” was not fully recognized and considered in the organizations’ culture either (Loogma, 2004). In terms of “western” common sense this was all expressed as an abnormality in the relationship between service provider and consumer.

It should be realized that assumptions about the nature of the relationship between the service provider and the consumer formed under Soviet economic conditions has not homogeneously changed over time compared to nowadays, because a large part of the Estonian population still have those “old” experiences. This is somehow proven by the results of the study by McKenzie (2006), where he found that there was an apparent expectation among Estonians that sales staff should be both experts as well as acting with authority. In addition, he found that an expectation of store staff deference to the customer in terms of overt acts of politeness and courtesy reflects differences in terms of segmentations of the Estonian population in terms of service expectations. Differences in these segments have been emphasized by Keller (2005) who explored the phenomenon of “shopping” in post-Soviet Estonia and found that there are three types of consumers: “uncritical and incompetent post-Soviet consumers who simply want to satisfy the hunger created by decades of little or no consumer choice”, those who “seriously ponder the appropriateness of certain material objects for their social position and personal identity and who’s life is aestheticized or stylized”, and finally “penniless pensioners in shopping malls”.

It could be assumed that requirements of service quality are different for each of these segments; for example, “penniless pensioners” probably would not expect top-class service provision. This kind of segmentation does not make the work of the service providers easier because they constantly need to evaluate the service situation and not be trapped into comfort behaviour leaving high service standards for other customers. Still, this kind of selective behaviour on the part of the service providers strongly relates to norms, standards, values and expectations created by the service organization. It might be the case that the provision of low quality service is the norm and the uncaring attitudes of the service provider towards the customer is the only way they have known. So, the culture of the service organization has a great impact on the character of the relationship between service provider and customer. In fact, commonly shared attitudes, values, beliefs and behavioural patterns form the organizational culture that is in several respects seen as an important aspect in the formation of a customer service orientation (Vadi, Suuroja, 2006). Further on, features of the culture of Estonian service organizations are analyzed in order to understand the preconditions of formation and the essence of the service provider’s competencies.

Organizational Culture in Estonian service organizations

Stemming from the theoretical part of the dissertation, Estonian service organizations will be investigated from the perspective of organizational culture described through the features of the four types of culture: Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal, Internal Processes. Based on research conducted in Estonian service organizations, assumptions about a common profile of organizational culture are derived.

Human Relations type of OC

The study by Jaakson, Vadi and Tamm (2009) explored the organizational culture of Estonian service organizations from task- and relationship orientation. Relationship orientation focuses on the relationships between the members of the organization by emphasizing cohesion, participation, and cooperation. They found that there were only four organizations out of 17, where relationship-orientation was not higher than task-orientation, thus referring to a high orientation towards human-related issues. Further on, the authors described that strong provider-provider relationships help service providers to develop more effective relationships with their customers, but the desired behaviour and attitude must also be modelled inside the organization.

The study by Ahonen and Kaseorg (2008) on learning organizations in the service sector shows that in terms of team-building, the respondents perceived that there is trust between colleagues and the acceptance of different opinions; and the vast majority of respondents admit that success is linked to cooperation. But for example, the study conducted by Kankaanranta-Jännäri (2006) among

Estonian service organizations showed that relationship orientation in the sample was relatively weak and that this could cause difficulty in the area of commitment and the spirit of togetherness.

Kuusik and Varblane (2009) implemented research in Estonia's largest telecommunication company and based on study results summarize that the overall satisfaction of customers and the importance of the relationship with the service provider built a foundation of loyalty, which is the key to repeat business. Research on quality assurance in health services in Estonia has shown that many healthcare providers have started systematic activities in the field of quality assurance by conducting patient satisfaction studies, and more and more of them also survey employee satisfaction (Kaarna *et al*, 2005). Satisfaction of employees and customers is one of the most important features of the Human Relations type of OC and should be one of the important issues in service organizations in order to retain sales. Based on the rather limited research results in Estonian service organizations on features of the Human Relations type of OC it could be proposed that there is evidence that good internal relationships lead to better relationships with customers.

Rational Goal type of OC

Kooskora (2008: 203) interviewed top-managers in Estonian companies and makes a rather general conclusion that "profit earning is still the primary goal of all enterprises". She sums up that the overall perception is that the company's main goal is to earn profit; the importance of other roles has been left in the background. While this study did not focus on the service sector, the results could still be applied to service organizations.

As referred to earlier in the study by Jaakson *et al* (2009), at least in their sample of Estonian service organizations, it is rather typical that relationships prevail over organizational tasks. Task-orientation, according to their research, shows the employees' desire to accept goals and tasks by focusing on achievement, rewards and competition. But they also found that relationship- and task-orientation are positively and significantly correlated. This makes sense, since good relationships among employees are extended to good relationships between service providers and customers – this eventually increases customer satisfaction and loyalty, which in turn has a direct economic consequence for the organization (Jaakson *et al*, 2009). Kankaanranta-Jännäri (2006) studied the relationship between individual values and OC among Estonian service organizations, and she concludes that Estonians tend toward task orientation. From these investigations of OC in Estonian organizations the following proposition is set:

Proposition 2.1.1.A: Employees of Estonian service organizations perceive organizational culture to have dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC.

Open System type of OC

The study of innovation in over four thousand Estonian enterprises indicated relatively advanced innovation patterns in the Estonian service sector (Elenurm, 2003A). New information and communication technology solutions has influenced the Estonian service sector – Estonia has been among the first countries to introduce mobile payment for parking and personal m-accounts that allow the use of mobile phones instead of bankcards; WLAN and GPRS wireless internet solutions have been available practically all over the territory of Estonia (Elenurm, 2003A). Elenurm (2003B) elaborates within the framework of a study conducted among managers of Estonian organizations (including service organizations) concerning international competitiveness and organizational change drivers that developing new knowledge-intensive products and services that could be internationally competitive in coming years assumes a strategically more advanced adaptation than the last decade of the twentieth century. The Estonian service sector has been advancing fast and powerfully, but the question is how such environment-driven progress has been manifested in organizational behaviour, and in organizational members' perceptions.

Going further to the micro-level, Ahonen and Kaseorg (2008) found in their study that failures as a way of learning from mistakes (being one of the features of the Open System type of culture) are regarded positively mostly by immediate workers in all fields of service provision. In general, the authors conclude from the study that the majority of the respondents believe that in the service organization where they work, approximately 60% of the characteristics of the learning organization model are revealed.

Internal Processes type of OC

In terms of research of the organizational features characterizing the Internal Processes type of OC in Estonian service organizations, an overview is almost absent. The implementation of different standards increases the focus on internal processes. In Estonia the main standards implemented are ISO 9001:2000 (process management) and ISO 9001:2008 (quality management system), and analyzing the share of Estonian organizations with a “service” focus, 16% have been issued ISO 9001:2000 certificates (103 out of 641 companies) and 54% have been issued ISO 9001:2008 (103 out of 191 companies) (from the homepage of the Estonian Association for Quality, 24.10.2009). Johnson, Grimm and Blome (2007) conducted research on customer service provision in Baltic countries and have evaluated, among other aspects influencing customer satisfaction, the quality of the service process. They found that the quality of the customer service process is positively related to customer satisfaction and is the most important contributor in explaining the variance in customer satisfaction.

The nature of the service transaction as a social process, the very dispersed character of many service organizations, the high ‘personality intensity’, and the intangibility of the service itself – all these reinforce the great need for rules and norms effectively internalized in individuals to guide day-to-day operational behaviour (Normann, 2000). Valuing customer relationships is a formal policy of most service organizations (Jaakson *et al*, 2009). It could be proposed that Estonian service organizations pay rather much attention to creating a service quality system and procedures and guidelines for customer service principles and how to behave in service encounters. Still there is not so much empirical evidence that a proposition could be set about the Open System and Internal Processes types of OC in Estonian service organizations.

The Human Relations and Rational Goal types of culture in service organizations seem to have rather complementary functions – from one perspective, it is crucial to have high performance (essential to the Rational Goal type of OC) and from the other it is important to gain customer satisfaction and good relationships what is easily done when the service providers are satisfied (essential to the Human Relations type of OC). The same was noticed by Jaakson *et al* (2009) for task and relationship orientations of OC in service organizations – these dimensions are not contradictory to each other, but rather they show OC strength and balance. Vadi and Alas (2006) analyzed the OC of service organizations and they found that entertainment organizations have quite low scores for both task and relationship orientation scales, whereas banks, sales and telecommunication organizations showed the opposite tendency, being highly task and relationship oriented. In more general settings, Kooskora (2008), on the basis of interviews conducted with top-managers in Estonian companies, states that the priority is still definitely profit, but the importance of softer values has increased. Figure 22 presents assumptions about the culture of Estonian service organizations based on previous research results.

| | |
|---|---|
| <p><i>Human Relations</i> Cohesion, participation, supportiveness of employees; teamwork and cooperation; employee and customer satisfaction; customer loyalty</p> | <p><i>Open System</i> Innovative solutions; organizational learning</p> |
| <p><i>Internal Processes</i> Service process quality; procedures about how to relate to customers</p> | <p><i>Rational Goal</i> Profit as prioritized goal; good relationship with customers, customer loyalty and satisfaction as a target and precondition for profit making</p> |

Figure 22. Assumptions about the culture of Estonian service organizations based on previous research results (composed by the author based on Jaakson *et al*, 2009; Kaarna *et al*, 2005; Elenurm, 2003A); arrow implies proposed relationship

In the case of service organizations, the Human Relations Type of OC is related to the Rational Goal type of OC and the high perception of the former is a precondition for high goal achievement. It could be concluded that while achievement of goals in terms of sales and profits is strongly presented, the fact that it is possible to gain higher economic outcomes through customer relations and high satisfaction has also been realized. Based on this consideration the following proposition is set:

Proposition 2.1.1.B: Perceived estimations of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are correlated in Estonian service organizations.

Service provision in Estonian service organizations

Loogma (2004) discusses the idea that the need for specialized skills and competence in Estonian organizations is influenced by “evolutionary” changes caused by the global transformation to the post-industrial/information era, which is driven by technological change, including the spread of integrated and computer-based technologies, service-orientation in production and widespread social and cultural changes. Estonian employment needs have shifted due to a reallocation of the labour force between sectors, mainly to service organizations. This has brought forward the necessity to develop service competencies and customer orientation.

There has been no consistent research on different aspects of service provision in Estonia. Still there are some systematic country-wide activities that aim to promote and evaluate service levels and quality in Estonian service organizations. One good example is the public web-portal Excellent Service Society (www.heateenindus.ee) with its countrywide activities in the field of service provision aimed at promoting quality service provision in Estonia. The Good Service Month, which has been held in March since 2003, is also well-known. Each March a public programme is held under the name “Praise service providers!”, which culminates in the selection of the best service provider according to sector, region etc. Promotional activities also include different competitions, information about service training, study materials for service providers, thematic articles etc.

The calculation of the Estonian Service Index has been another significant event, which has been carried out by private marketing research and consultation company TNS Emor since 2005. According to their results, the Estonian Service Index as an aggregate indicator was 3.23 in 2008, 3.11 in 2007 and 3.32 in 2006 (on a 4-point evaluation scale) (Eesti Teeninduse Indeks, 2008, Eesti Teeninduse Indeks, 2006). Through the years service providers’ service skills out-perform sales and occupational skills and differences in evaluations within the sector are rather significant. Service skills refer to all

activities that a service provider expresses in words, gestures and emotions (e.g. smiles, posture, voice, intensity of speech, use of words etc).

Tooman (2003) has mainly researched service culture in Estonia and has found that Estonian service culture fails to meet the needs of the service era in many cases, and mainly due to insufficient skills and knowledge of key personnel (service managers and attendants) for delivering the service, especially due to a faulty or non-service driven culture. She claims that service competencies, especially the service-oriented culture of thinking form the basis for creating a service culture, the existence of which is important to enhance the image and competitiveness of both organizations and the society as a whole. Service thus, is created not only via the competencies of the service providers, but the organizational context also plays an important role in building a service orientation in organizations.

In 2002, Estonian service was assessed using the SERVQUAL model, indicating 3 784 negative and 3 690 positive incidents. According to the survey results, the number of negative incidents outweighed the number of positive incidents in such scales as competency, politeness and the empathy of the service provider. The number of positive incidents was higher in the scales of helpfulness, accuracy of the service provider and the physical environment of the service provision. Lots of negative incidents were related to the service provider's emotional state and non-verbal communication. Service providers did not use polite expressions such as "please", "thank you" and "sorry". Positive incidents were related to the positive emotions of the service provider and a smile that sometimes improved the mood of the customer for the whole day. In terms of empathy, the participants in the survey indicated as a negative incident that they had no interest in or skills for listening to the customer, and the impatience of the service provider was also indicated. The survey concludes that in describing and evaluating the service encounter, the most significant factor is how the customer is served, which depends on the service culture of the organization and the service providers' attitudes towards its customers. (Elukvaliteeti saab tõsta ..., 2002) This indicates some service provision patterns in Estonian service organizations as follows: a) service is associated with rather negative customer experience; b) service providers could lack service relevant competencies; c) customer evaluation of service quality is related to emotions; and d) the customer perceives the service quality in the context of the organizational culture of the service organization.

The author of the dissertation has found some research papers (not published, but defended works at educational institutions) that provide some kind of reflection of the level of competencies among Estonian service providers. According to Seidla (2004) research based on only one company actually reflects the state of Estonian service provision rather well. She found that from the customer perspective the failings of the service provider are more in terms of placing sufficient importance on the readiness to be helpful than on occupational skills. Seidla's research results show that there is a disparity

between the service providers' self-assessment and evaluations by others – the service providers thought that they were more open to interacting, smiling and controlling their own emotions, but colleagues and customers gave lower evaluations for all of these elements. Paljasmaa (2008) conducted a study in Neste Eesti AS (fuel sales), and found that in general the service provided was polite, but cold and routine, and the conclusion was that the service provided was average, “like everywhere else”. Customers who participated in the study reported that they felt that the service was impersonal, there was a lack of “warmth” and it was missing “something special”. The main weakness of the company as highlighted by the author was the deficiency of the service standard and the need for it to be modified. Teearu (2008) conducted a study on service quality in two Estonian pubs and found that there were shortfalls in information sharing to the customer, and the customers did not feel sufficiently welcome. From the above, the following proposition is presented:

Proposition 2.1.1.C: Employees estimations of the EI competencies of empathy and relating to others are below average in Estonian service organizations.

One of the areas of interest is to identify the profiles of EI competencies among Estonian service employees according to occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age and perception of types of OC. As this dissertation proposes that the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are perceived as dominant in Estonian service organizations (proposition 2.1.1.A), meaning that there is a stronger perception of these types of OC by service employees, it also might be the case that the EI competencies of employees presume certain perceptions of types of OC where OC is considered a contextual feature. In addition, EI competencies might be dependent on the occupation, education, ethnicity, gender and age of the employee. In light of this the following proposition is set:

Proposition 2.1.1.D: There are certain predictors of occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age, and perception of Types of OC for EI competencies of Estonian service organizations employees.

Describing the context of Estonian service organizations and service provision was an important contribution to the current dissertation because in whatever scale the study is made it remains within the Estonian cultural context. Thus, it is not possible to apply all the results to general research settings, some peculiarities of the results will stem from the special characteristics of Estonian organizations.

2.1.2. Propositions, arrangement of the study and sample description

Propositions of the study

The propositions of the study are based on theoretical elaborations and analysis of previously conducted empirical research on EI, OC and the relationships between these two. The propositions are presented in the figure 23. There are three sets of propositions: 1. propositions about EI; 2. propositions about OC; and 3. propositions about the relationship between EI and OC. The propositions also relate to other features such as the individual characteristics of the respondents (age, gender, occupation, ethnic affiliation, education), emotion-evoking events presented by the respondents and evaluations of the importance of emotions at work. Individual characteristics have an impact on the set of propositions related to EI in two ways: through the self-assessment of EI competencies and differences between those competencies according to age, gender, occupation, ethnic affiliation and education. Individual characteristics also play role in the propositions about OC, because OC evaluations are given by individuals that reflect their perceptions of the features of OC. Finally, individual characteristics having an impact on the propositions about the relationship between EI and OC because perceptions of OC, age, gender, occupation, ethnic affiliation and the education of the respondents serve as a contextual variable in finding predictors of EI competencies.

Emotion-evoking events and the importance of emotions at work are related to two sets of propositions: those associated with EI and OC. The propositions are set in order to discover whether there are relationships between emotion-evoking events, and the importance of emotions at work with respect to EI and OC respectively. All sets of propositions and related features are related to each other. Understanding the peculiarities of EI and OC provides input in comprehending the relationships between EI and OC.

In addition, the propositions of the dissertation are presented in terms of two levels of contribution. There are propositions that represent the general framework of EI, OC and the relationships between them, and the results and conclusions contribute to general research settings. The second level provides input for the Estonian service provision context and the results and conclusions contribute to Estonian organizational research. The propositions are gathered from the previous sections of the dissertation (the number of the proposition refers to the chapter in which the proposition was set up) and are based on theoretical considerations and discussions. The propositions are presented in table 12.

Propositions for *general research settings* aim to find answers about the EI concept in organizations. There are propositions about emotion-evoking events (as the basis for emotional responses); the importance of emotions in organizational settings (emotions as part of organizational life); the relationship of EI and the importance of emotions in organizations (emotion as a notion

related to EI); the relationship between emotion-evoking events and EI (as the context of EI); the correlation of EI components (content of the EI concept); and EI differences according to various groups (as a manifestation of the EI concept). From the OC concept, the propositions focus on the importance of emotions in OC (emotions as a feature of OC); the relationship of OC to emotion-evoking events (as the peculiarities of service organizations); types of OC that dominate in service organizations and differences of types of OC within the service sector. The combination of EI and OC concepts are explored by propositions about the existence and content of the relationships between the two concepts.

Propositions for *Estonian organizational research settings* again consider concepts of EI and OC separately and then their combination. In the case of the EI concept, the propositions focus on evaluations of EI competencies of Estonian service providers. Propositions on the OC concept try to clarify OC peculiarities of Estonian service organizations. The combination of EI and OC aims to find predictors of Estonian service providers in the context of individual characteristics and perceptions of OC.

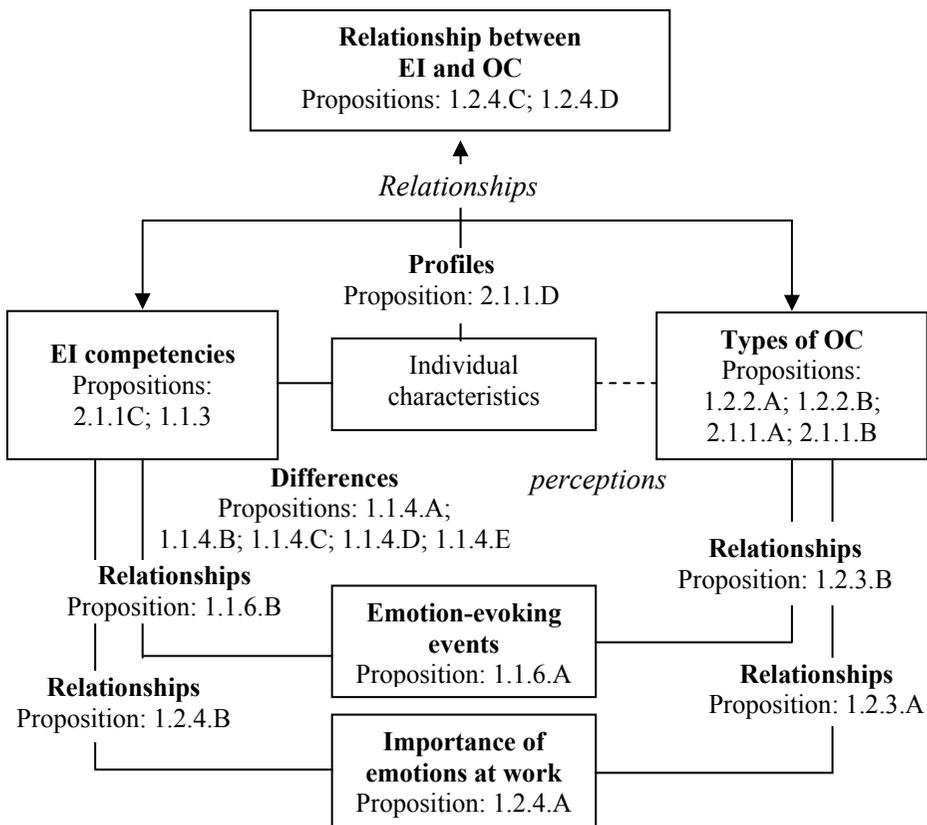


Figure 23. Connections between the study propositions (composed by author)

Table 12. Propositions of the study

| | |
|--|--|
| <i>Emotional Intelligence</i> | General (service) context |
| | Proposition 1.1.6.A: The customer, service organization and service employee him/herself are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events that are emotionally appraised as positive or negative. |
| | Proposition 1.1.6.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions in service organizations. |
| | Proposition 1.1.3: Estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are significantly correlated to each other. |
| | Proposition 1.1.4.A: Employees with different occupations evaluate their EI at a significantly different level. |
| | Proposition 1.1.4.B: The higher education of employees is not related to higher evaluations of the level of EI competencies. |
| | Proposition 1.1.4.C: Employees with a different ethnic affiliation evaluate their level of EI competencies at significantly different levels. |
| | Proposition 1.1.4.D: Women evaluate their level of EI competencies significantly higher than men. |
| | Proposition 1.1.4.E: Middle-aged employees evaluate their EI competencies significantly higher than younger or older employees. |
| | Proposition 1.2.4.A: Emotions are considered to be important at work. |
| Proposition 1.2.4.B: Evaluations of EI competencies have a significant relationship to the importance of emotions at work. | |
| | Estonian service context |
| | Proposition 2.1.1.C: Employees estimations of the EI competencies of empathy and relating to others are below average in Estonian service organizations. |
| <i>Organizational Culture</i> | General (service) context |
| | Proposition 1.2.2.A: In service organizations, features of the Human Relations types of OC are perceived as dominant. |
| | Proposition 1.2.2.B: There are significant differences in perceptions of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC among employees of service organizations. |
| | Proposition 1.2.3.A: The importance of emotions at work is significantly related to perceptions of OC types. |
| | Proposition 1.2.3.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to the perception of OC types. |
| | Estonian service context |
| | Proposition 2.1.1.A: Employees of Estonian service organizations perceive organizational culture to have dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC. |
| | Proposition 2.1.1.B: Perceived estimations of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are correlated in Estonian service organizations. |

Table 12. Continued

| | |
|---------------------------------|---|
| Relationships: OC and EI | General (service) context |
| | Proposition 1.2.4.C: Evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying one’s own emotions and managing one’s own emotions have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC, a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC. |
| | Proposition 1.2.4.D: Evaluations of the EI competency of empathizing with others and relating to others have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC; a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type; and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Process type of OC. |
| | Estonian service context |
| | Proposition 2.1.1.D: There are certain predictors of occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age, and perception of types of OC for EI competencies of Estonian service organizations employees. |

Source: composed by author

Arrangement of the study

The study of relationship between the EI of employees and OC took place during 2005–2008. The data was gathered over three years: 2005, 2006 and 2008. There was no specific direction in choosing the organizations in the study; rather agreement with the organizations was the grounds for composing the sample, especially in 2005. During 2006, the aim was to broaden the composition of the sample and production companies agreed to participate in the study. In the last year, 2008, a couple of service organizations were inserted into the sample so the number of respondents from service organizations was sufficient. In general, convenience sampling was used in all organizations.

Studies were carried out in cooperation with the organizations. Information about the study and its aims was sent out, and representatives of the organizations were responsible for distributing and collecting the completed questionnaires. The questionnaire was self-reported and was filled in using the paper-and-pencil method. The questionnaire contained an introduction (explaining the aims of the study, execution details and the benefits of the results for the organization), the main questions/items (on EI and OC; in one organization the OC questionnaire was not applied) and an additional part if requested by organization (i.e. section on job satisfaction). Altogether 13 organizations participated in the study and one sub sample was composed on different organizations (hotels). The data was then analyzed and the results were presented to the management and key employees in 12 out of the 13 separate organizations. Usually, a discussion was initiated in order to understand how the results reflect real organizational activities and what is behind the results.

A variety of methods were implemented in the data analysis. Quantitative methods were used, although the data concerning emotion-evoking events could be considered qualitative with open-ended answers that were coded for quantitative analysis. Table 13 presents the data analysis methods used in the current study.

Table 13. Data analysis methods used in the study on the relationship between EI and OC

| <i>No. of propos.</i> | <i>Short description*</i> | <i>Method of statistical analysis</i> |
|-----------------------|---|--|
| – | Creating EI measurement instrument | Factor analysis |
| 1.1.6.A | Sources of emotion-evoking events | Interrater reliability test (expert scoring) |
| 1.1.6.B | Relationship between emotion-evoking events and EI competencies | Correlation analysis |
| 1.1.3 | Correlation between EI competencies | Correlation analysis |
| 1.1.4.A | Differences in EI competencies according to occupations | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test |
| 1.1.4.B | Differences in EI competencies according to education | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test |
| 1.1.4.C | Differences in EI competencies according to ethnical affiliation | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test |
| 1.1.4.D | Differences in EI competencies according to gender | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test |
| 1.1.4.E | Differences in EI competencies according to age | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test |
| 1.2.4.A | Importance of emotions at work | Descriptives |
| 1.2.4.B | Relationship between EI competencies and importance of emotions at work | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test, correlation analysis |
| 2.1.1.C | Estimations of EI competencies | Descriptives, t-test |
| 1.2.2.A; 2.1.1.A | Estimations of Types of OC | Descriptives, t-test |
| 1.2.2.B | Differences in Types of OC according to service organizations | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis |
| 1.2.3.A | Relationship between Types of OC and importance of emotions at work | Correlation analysis |
| 1.2.3.B | Relationship between Types of OC and emotion-evoking events | Descriptives, ANOVA analysis LSD-test, correlation analysis |
| 2.1.1.B | Relationship between Types of OC | Correlation analysis |
| 1.2.4.C; 1.2.4.D | Relationship between EI competencies and Types of OC | Correlation analysis |
| 2.1.1.D | Predictors of EI competencies according to occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age, and Types of OC | Linear regression |

Note: * while referring to EI competencies the self-reported estimations are assumed; referring to OC types the self-assessed perception is assumed.

Factor analysis. For finding the factor structure of the EITO questionnaire (The Emotional Intelligence Test in Organizations, developed by author of the dissertation), a factor analysis was implemented. A factor analysis consists of a collection of the procedures for analyzing the relationships among a set of random variables observed or counted or measured for each individual of the group (Cureton, D'Agostino, 1993). A factor analysis makes it possible to reduce the number of items in a factor in a way that represents the content of the scale in the most representative way. As it is assumed that EITO scales are related to each other, the oblique rotation method was used. The main aim of rotation techniques is to rotate the factors so that the variables have high loadings on a small number of factors and very small loadings on the remaining factors; in oblique rotation the factors become correlated (Webb, 1999). Principal axis factoring is an appropriate model if the factors extracted need to have theoretical validity, or when the primary objective is to identify theoretically meaningful underlying dimensions (Ho, 2006). While the number extracted was chosen according to *a priori hypothesis* then principal axis factoring was a suitable model. Promax rotation is one of the oblique rotation methods and is suitable for correlated factors.

To find the number of factors to extract, an *a priori hypothesis* and scree test were used. According to the *a priori hypothesis*, the number of factors is chosen according to theoretical considerations (it is supposed that EITO is represented by four factors). The outcome of the scree test is a plot that shows the break between the steep slope of the initial factors and the gentle slope of the later factors – the factors to be retained are those which lie before the point at which the *eigenvalues* are greater than one (Cramer, Bryman, 2001). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure for sampling adequacy is calculated using correlations and partial correlations to test whether the variables in the sample are adequate to correlate – it calculates whether variables are so highly correlated that it is not possible to distinguish between them (multicollinearity). (Hinton, Brownlow, McMurrey, Cozens, 2004) Usually, a KMO over 0.80 is considered to be highly adequate for using a factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black, 1998). Barlett's test for sphericity makes it possible to find out whether there is a relationship between variables. If no relationship is found then there is no point in proceeding with the factor analysis. A p-value <0.05 indicates that it makes sense to continue with the factor analysis. (Hinton *et al*, 2004)

Factor loadings are the correlations of the variables with the factor, or the weighted combination of variables, which best explains the variance (Kline, 1994). As a rule of thumb, it is taken that the variable makes a significant contribution to the factor if the loading is 0.30 or greater (Hinton *et al*, 2004). The loading for items over 0.40 was selected in order to ensure sufficient value for representing each subscale. Cronbach's alpha is a very common measure of reliability, since it assesses the internal consistency reliability of several items; the alpha should be positive and usually greater than 0.70 in order to provide

good support for internal consistency reliability (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, Barrett, 2004).

Interrater reliability test. Expert scoring is used in order to classify the open-ended questions (about emotion-evoking events). If the construct is measured by having rater provided scores, it is of interest to know whether the scores obtained would generalize to scores provided by other raters (Schwab, 2005) and for that interrater reliabilities are calculated. Interrater reliability refers to the proportional consistency of variance among raters (Waserman, Bracken, 2003). Siegel and Castellan's (1988) fixed-marginal multirater *kappa* was calculated, because the rater was forced to assign a certain number of cases to each category. Values of *kappa* can range from -1.0 to 1.0 , with -1.0 indicating perfect disagreement below chance, 0.0 indicating agreement equal to chance, and 1.0 indicating perfect agreement above chance. A rule of thumb is that a *kappa* of $.70$ or above indicates adequate interrater agreement. (Randolph, 2005)

ANOVA analysis. In order to find the differences between the groups of respondents, an ANOVA analysis of variance was implemented. A one-way ANOVA compares the means of the samples or groups in order to make inferences about the population means (Morgan *et al*, 2004). In ANOVA implementation, an F variance ratio is calculated, which looks at the variability in scores between the conditions compared to the variability in the scores due to random factors or errors (Hinton *et al*, 2004). The null hypothesis says that all the populations being studied have the same mean value for the dependent variable. The distribution of F under the null hypothesis is an F distribution with $k-1$ and $N-k$ degrees of freedom. A very small F would occur if the group means are very similar and do not signify a difference between the groups. (Dalgaard, 2008) If F is very large and the *p*-value is less than 0.05 then the null hypothesis is false. In addition to determining that differences exist among the means, it is necessary to know which means differ – for that purpose a multiple comparison procedure of post hoc Fisher's LSD-test (least significant difference test) is implemented for more than two populations. The differences in the mean values are important at the significance level $p \leq 0.05$.

Paired samples t-test. A function called the pairwise t-test computes all possible two-group comparisons (Dalgaard, 2008). A paired samples t-test is undertaken when the samples are related, usually with the same participants in each sample. The t-test makes it possible to 'pool' the variances of the two samples to estimate (the equal) population variance. (Hinton *et al*, 2004) If the F test is statistically significant ($p \leq 0.05$) the assumption about equal variance of samples is violated (Morgan *et al*, 2004). The paired sample t-test makes it possible to compare scales of EITO in terms of significantly different variances of samples.

Correlation analysis. A correlation analysis makes it possible to find the relationship between two variables. A correlation analysis was used in order to find relationships between the aspects studied (e.g. between EI and OC, between EI scales, and types of OC etc). For most relationships, Pearson Correlation Coefficients (r) were calculated, but for relationships between EI competencies, types of OC and emotion-evoking events, the Spearman Correlation Coefficients (ρ) were calculated because emotion-evoking events were not presented as ordinal data. Correlations are considered important at the significance level $p \leq 0.05$. The strength of correlation coefficients are interpreted in the following way (De Vaus, 2002):

| | |
|-----------|---|
| 0.0 | no relationship |
| 0.01-0.09 | trivial, very small, insubstantial, tiny, practically zero relationship |
| 0.10-0.29 | small, low, minor relationship |
| 0.30-0.49 | moderate, medium relationship |
| 0.50-0.69 | large, high, major relationship |
| 0.70-0.89 | very strong, very large, very high, huge relationship |
| 0.90 + | near perfect relationship |

Linear regression. Linear regression is calculated in order to predict values of one variable using the values of another variable (Hinton *et al*, 2004). Linear regression was used in order to find the predictors of EI competencies (as dependant variable) in terms of estimations of types of OC and the age, gender, occupation, education and ethnic affiliation of the respondent. The linear regression was preferred over binominal, multinominal or logistic regression, because linear regression gives the most exact estimations of variables due to the fact that the data is not transferred (e.g. square root or logarithmic transformation of variables). Although in order to eliminate the possibility that there is non-linearity in the variables, the model was composed in such a way that all non-metric variables were represented in the model as a single base for hypotheses testing. In regression analysis the normal distribution of the data is expected, but according to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), real test scores based on the sum of items are rarely normally distributed, even if the number of items is large.

There are parameters and assumptions that should be considered while conducting and interpreting the results of linear regression, and these are going to be briefly explained. The R Square value shows the amount of variance in the dependant variable that can be explained by the independent variable (Hinton *et al*, 2004). Useful information includes the estimation of the statistical significance of the coefficients relating to the constant in the equation and to variables using the t value and the analysis of variance, which provides an F test for the equation. The p -values suggest that the coefficient itself achieves a high level of statistical significance (Cramer, Bryman, 2001). The Durbin-Watson statistic should be around 2 if the residuals are uncorrelated (Astahana,

Bhushan, 2007). Collinearity diagnostics indicate the absence of multicollinearity where intercorrelation between independent variables is small and is measured using VIF (variance inflation factor), which should be not greater than 10 (Hinton *et al*, 2004). Heteroscedasticity indicates nonlinear relationships between variables and is tested by means of the Glejser test.

Statistical analysis was implemented using SPSS 16.0. Inter-rater reliabilities were calculated using Kappa Online Calculator (Randolph, 2008).

Sample description

The study of the relationship between EI and OC took place in the period 2005–2008. Table 14 presents the sectors of activities of organizations, sample size and when the data was gathered. The sample could be divided into two sets of organizations: 1. service organizations (make up 70% of the entire sample); 2. organizations from different industries and fields of activities. Entire sample size is 1 415 respondents and this data is used for developing the EI measurement instrument. Organizations were chosen to participate in the study to provide a wide range of sectors, and therefore, presents the basis for diversity in order to create a reliable measurement instrument.

A factor analysis is implemented on the whole sample, but the results of the study are derived from the service organization sample with 991 respondents. In the theoretical part of the dissertation (subchapter 1.2.2), the service process matrix was presented according to which service organizations differ in terms of the extent or degree of interaction and customization and labour intensity. If to consider the present sample, then the service organizations studied cover the following service processes: *service factories* are hotels (HOTEL); *mass services* are retail trade companies (SHOP, STORE, STATION); *professional services* are insurance companies and legal protection organizations (INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2); *service shops* are entertainment facilities (ENTERT). This shows that the sample composition covers different service organizations in terms of interaction with the customer, need for customized services and labour requirements. It also implies that the set of values in the organizations studied are going to be different, which implies possible variability in OC. Table 15 describes samples of service organizations. The sample description according to the execution of the survey is presented in table 16.

Table 14. Organizations participating in the survey

| <i>Sector of activities</i> | <i>Description of activities</i> | <i>Service (yes/no)</i> | <i>No of resp.</i> | <i>Abbreviation</i> | <i>Time of the data gathering</i> |
|-----------------------------|--|-------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Energy | Building and maintenance of electricity distribution systems | No | 45 | – | February 2005 |
| Retail trade and service | Retail trade of household goods and food | Yes | 148 | SHOP | March 2005 |
| Energy | Distribution of electricity | No | 47 | – | March 2005 |
| Healthcare* | Public organization providing health care services | Yes | 197 | – | April 2005 |
| Legal protection | Public organization providing legal protection (chamber-type prison) | Yes | 128 | PRISON1 | June 2005 |
| Trade and service | Retail trade of fuel and other goods | Yes | 101 | STATION | September 2005 |
| Education | Public organization providing health care education | No | 47 | – | January 2006 |
| Legal protection | Public organization providing legal protection (camp-type prison) | Yes | 203 | PRISON2 | January 2006 |
| Production | Production of oil shale | No | 58 | – | February 2006 |
| Production | Production of polyurethane foam | No | 24 | – | March 2006 |
| Finance and service | Providing of insurance services | Yes | 66 | INSUR | April 2006 |
| Service | Providing entertainment services | Yes | 94 | ENTERT | October 2006 |
| Retail trade and service | Retail trade of household goods, clothes and food | Yes | 208 | STORE | March 2008 |
| Service | Providing accommodation services | Yes | 49 | HOTEL | May 2008 |

Note: * Healthcare organization is excluded from further analysis (but present in factor analysis), because OC estimations are not available.

Table 15. Description of all service organizations in the sample

| <i>Variable</i> | <i>No and % of respondents</i> |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Men | 277 (28.0%) |
| Women | 693 (69.9%) |
| Missing | 21 (2.1%) |
| Estonians | 795 (80.2%) |
| Russian-speakers ⁶ | 175 (17.7%) |
| Missing | 21 (2.1%) |
| Average age | 38.29 years (SD=11.68; n=835) |
| up to 20 years old | 42 (4.2%) |
| 21–30 years old | 212 (21.4%) |
| 31–40 years old | 225 (22.7%) |
| 41–50 years old | 209 (21.1%) |
| over 51 years old | 147 (14.8%) |
| Missing | 156 (15.7%) |
| Higher education | 213 (21.5%) |
| Vocational education | 360 (36.3%) |
| Secondary education | 356 (35.9%) |
| Primary education | 30 (3.0%) |
| Missing | 32 (3.2%) |
| Top-managers | 8 (0.8%) |
| Middle managers | 85 (8.6%) |
| Specialists | 151 (15.2%) |
| Service providers | 648 (65.4%) |
| Missing | 99 (10.0) |

⁶ Herein the term “Russian-speaking” is used, because since identities are in fact socially constructed and constantly changing, the Russophone population, whether they are from the Ukraine, Belarus, Russia, or some other CIS republic, are actually developing a new diaspora identity of a “Russian-speaking minority” (Linz, Stepan, 1996). In the current survey, Russian-speakers are those who filled the questionnaire in Russian and indicated their nationality as “Russian”.

Table 16. The description of samples of service organizations presented according to the time the survey was executed

| <i>Organization Variable</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | <i>PRISON1</i> | <i>STATION</i> | <i>PRISON2</i> | <i>INSUR</i> | <i>ENTERT</i> | <i>STORE</i> | <i>HOTEL</i> |
|-------------------------------------|--|--------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| <i>Field of activities</i> | Retail trade in household goods and food | Chamber-type prison | Retail trade in fuel and other goods | Camp-type prison | Providing insurance services | Providing entertainment services | Retail trade in household goods, clothes and food | Providing accommodation services |
| <i>Time of survey</i> | March 2005 | June 2005 | September 2005 | January 2006 | April 2006 | October 2006 | March 2008 | March 2008 |
| <i>No. of issued questionnaires</i> | 225 | 330 | 129 | 311 | 92 | 122 | N/i | Different organizations |
| <i>No. (%) of resp.</i> | 148 (66%) | 125 (38%) | 101 (78%) | 200 (64%) | 66 (72%) | 94 (77%) | 208 (N/i) | 49 (N/i) |
| <i>Gender</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Men | 7 (4.7%) | 50 (40.0%) | 18 (17.8%) | 118 (59.0%) | 26 (39.4%) | 18 (19.1%) | 21 (10.1%) | 19 (38.8%) |
| Women | 140 (94.6%) | 73 (58.4%) | 81 (80.2%) | 81 (40.5%) | 36 (54.5%) | 67 (71.3%) | 185 (88.9%) | 30 (61.2%) |
| Missing | 1 (0.7%) | 2 (1.6%) | 2 (2%) | 1 (0.5%) | 4 (6.1%) | 9 (9.6%) | 2 (1%) | – |
| <i>Ethnicity*</i> | | | | | | | | |
| Est | 142 (95.9%) | 114 (91.2%) | 92 (91.1%) | 119 (59.5%) | 63 (95.5%) | 37 (39.4%) | 183 (88.0%) | 45 (91.8%) |
| Rus | 4 (2.7%) | 11 (8.8) | 7 (6.9%) | 80 (40.0%) | – | 57 (60.6%) | 12 (5.8%) | 4 (8.2%) |
| Missing | 2 (1.4%) | – | 2 (2.0%) | 1 (0.5%) | 3 (4.5%) | – | 13 (6.3%) | – |
| <i>Age (years)</i> | | | | | | | | |
| | m=40 SD=10 n=140 | m=35 SD=9.42 n=110 | m=36 SD=12.07 n=87 | m=45 SD=10.10 n=176 | m=34 SD=7.51 n=32 | m=32 SD=9.03 n=69 | m=40 SD=12.96 n=176 | m=22 SD=4.68 n=49 |

Table 16. Continued

| <i>Organization Variable</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | <i>PRISON1</i> | <i>STATION</i> | <i>PRISON2</i> | <i>INSUR</i> | <i>ENTERT</i> | <i>STORE</i> | <i>HOTEL</i> |
|------------------------------|--|---------------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------------|---|----------------------------------|
| <i>Field of activities</i> | Retail trade in household goods and food | Chamber-type prison | Retail trade in fuel and other goods | Camp-type prison | Providing insurance services | Providing entertainment services | Retail trade in household goods, clothes and food | Providing accommodation services |
| <i>Age groups</i> | | | | | | | | |
| up to 20 | 2 (1.4%) | 1 (0.8%) | 3 (3.0%) | 3 (1.5%) | – | – | 11 (5.3%) 37 | 22 (44.9%) |
| 21–30 | 25 (16.9%) | 44 (35.2%) | 17 (16.8%) | 18 (9.0%) | 11 (16.7%) | 35 (37.2%) | (17.8%) 34 | 25 (51.0%) |
| 31–40 | 46 (31.1%) | 34 (27.2%) | 33 (32.7%) | 42 (21.0%) | 14 (21.2%) | 21 (22.3%) | (16.3%) | 1 (2.0%) |
| 41–50 | 42 (28.4%) | 25 (20.0%) | 21 (20.8%) | 61 (30.5%) | 7 (10.6%) | 9 (9.6%) | 43 (20.7%) | 1 (2.0%) |
| over 51 | 21 (16.2%) | 6 (4.8%) | 10 (9.9%) | 52 (26.0%) | – | 4 (4.3%) | 51 (24.5%) | – |
| missing | 9 (6.1%) | 15 (12%) | 17 (16.8%) | 24 (12.0%) | 34 (51.5%) | 25 (26.6%) | 32 (15.7%) | – |
| <i>Education</i> | | | | | | | | |
| higher | 11 (7.4%) | 42 (33.6%) | 12 (11.9%) | 54 (27.0%) | 30 (45.5%) | 11 (11.7%) | 48 (23.1%) | 5 (10.2%) |
| vocational | 59 (39.9%) | 51 (40.8%) | 37 (36.6%) | 75 (37.5%) | 21 (21.2%) | 30 (31.9%) | 84 (40.4%) | 10 (20.4%) |
| secondary | 70 (47.3%) | 28 (22.4%) | 49 (48.5%) | 60 (30.0%) | 18 (27.3%) | 38 (40.4%) | 64 (30.8%) | 29 (59.2%) |
| primary | 7 (4.7%) | 1 (0.8%) | 1 (5%) | 10 (5.0%) | 1 (1.5%) | 1 (1.1%) | 5 (2.4%) | 5 (10.2%) |
| missing | 1 (0.7%) | 3 (2.4%) | 2 (9.9%) | 1 (0.5%) | 3 (4.5%) | 14 (14.9%) | 7 (3.4%) | – |
| <i>Positions</i> | | | | | | | | |
| top-managers | 2 (1.4%) | – | 1 (1.0%) | 2 (1.0%) | 3 (4.5%) | – | – | – |
| middle managers | 29 (19.6%) | 9 (7.2%) | 8 (7.9%) | 9 (4.5%) | 6 (9.1%) | 6 (6.4%) | 16 (7.7%) | 2 (4.1%) |
| specialists | 16 (10.8%) | 21 (16.8%) | 8 (7.9%) | 32 (16.0%) | 27 (40.9%) | – | 47 (22.6%) | – |
| service providers | 96 (64.9%) | 86 (68.8%) | 79 (78.2%) | 135 (67.5%) | 13 (19.7%) | 78 (83.0%) | 114 (54.8%) | 47 (95.9%) |
| missing | 5 (3.4%) | 9 (7.2%) | 5 (5.0%) | 22 (11.0%) | 17 (25.8%) | 10 (10.6%) | 31 (14.9%) | – |

Note: * Est – Estonians, Rus – Russian-speaking; N/i – not identified

2.1.3. The creation of a methodology to measure emotional intelligence and an overview of the organizational culture measurement instrument

In order to measure EI in the organizational context, a questionnaire was developed in 2004. The Emotional Intelligence Test in Organizations (EITO) was developed in many stages (see table 17). First the literature on the topic was explored and analyzed, and different EI questionnaires were investigated. During the development of EITO many experts participated by giving comments and making recommendations for changes. As a result of many changes and corrections the final EITO was created both in Estonian and Russian languages.

Table 17. Description of the stages in developing EITO

| <i>Stage</i> | <i>Description</i> | <i>Process and result</i> |
|--------------|--|--|
| Stage 1 | Analysis of the literature on EI and exploration of available EI measurement instruments | Four scales of EI were exteriorized and items for the EITO were developed |
| Stage 2 | Composition of two preliminary and final versions of the EITO and comments from experts | Correction, improvement and reduction of the number of items and final EITO in Estonian language |
| Stage 3 | Translation of EITO into Russian language | Composition of preliminary questionnaire in Russian; backward translation, corrections and final EITO in Russian |
| Stage 4 | Extraction of reliable factors for EITO | Implementation of factor analysis in order to reduce the number of items in EITO scales and creation of reliable factors |

Stage 1: Analysis of the literature on EI and exploration of available EI measurement instruments

The analysis of the literature related to this topic focused on the main approaches in the field. The aim was to figure out what the main orientations within the notion of EI are in order to construct the scales of EI. Analysis of the EI orientations of different approaches showed that there are some major similarities that have been emphasized and included in the EITO design. The similarities show that all approaches to EI investigated have intra- and interpersonal orientations to EI while some of them are broader in their interpretation and content. A complete overview of approaches to EI is presented in subchapter 1.1.2 of the dissertation. The integrated approach in subchapter 1.1.3. represents the basis for the development of EITO.

The items for the EITO questionnaire were developed mainly by analyzing different EI definitions and approaches. As a result of the literature review, four EI components were extracted for further developing the questionnaire. These components of EI are: identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others. It was decided to remain strictly organization-focused and not develop an instrument for measuring EI in general research settings. Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2006) note that EI measures should be used in occupational contexts only if the instruments are specifically developed, normed and validated to that end, and demonstrate adequate occupational relevance. They add that in occupational contexts it is probably best to avoid using some of the more prevalent broad-brush omnibus EI measures (e.g. MEIS, EQ-i) originally designed for research and general assessment purposes, until such time as more validation studies using occupational criteria have been published. Thus, it was decided to create EITO to help measure an individual's EI competencies exclusively in the workplace. The decision to develop EITO came from the fact that it was rather difficult to find EI measures for research purposes (in 2004 these were either unavailable or only available for a fee) and most of the measures concentrate on general research settings not on how people behave in organizations. In addition to the four EI components, it was decided to include related items in one block with the questions that show how emotions influence work.

Stage 2: Composition of two preliminary versions and the final version of EITO and comments by experts

When the preliminary version of the questionnaire was compiled it had four scales – identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others each had 15 items, and relating to others had 17 items. Six questions were asked about how emotions influence work. The preliminary questionnaire with a brief explanation of the scales was sent to two experts: a professor and docent of management. Their comments and recommendations were mainly about the formulation of the items, congruence with the content of the scale, comprehensibility of the items and linguistic articulation. The items in the questionnaire were revised, expressions were clarified and the number of items was changed (15 for identifying one's own emotions, 16 for managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others, 17 for relating to others and 7 items about emotions at work). As a result of this stage the second version of the questionnaire was prepared with a changed introduction and revised items.

The second version of the questionnaire was compiled and sent to five other experts: one docent in management and three PhD students with master degrees in management and one practitioner active in management and with a BA in psychology. All comments, corrections and recommendations were analyzed and the final version of EITO was developed with 10 items representing each scale and 6 items representing how emotions influence work. These 6 items are related to the importance of emotions at work (from not important to important),

what kind of emotions are evoked at work (from negative to positive), how do emotions influence work performance and the performance of colleagues, how do the emotions of colleagues impact work performance, and while working with colleagues are their emotions considered.

The respondents were asked to evaluate the assertions on a 6-point scale in which '0' indicates a low estimate to the specific EI item and '6' a high estimate to the specific EI item. One question asks the respondent to connect 9 dots so it represents his/her prevailing mood at work, but the results of these creative tasks were not analyzed in this study. In the final version of the questionnaire all items were shuffled in random order so that the respondent could not track how the items had been divided into scales of EI. Three items were reversed.

For three organizations (STORE, ENTERT, HOTEL) two more questions were included about emotion-evoking events. *An emotion-evoking event* is a stimulus that causes certain emotions – positive or negative.

- *emotion-evoking events appraised as positive* were identified via the EITO question "Please indicate one situation at work that evokes or has evoked positive emotions in you".
- *emotion-evoking events appraised as negative* were identified via the EITO question "Please indicate one situation at work that evokes or has evoked negative emotions in you".

Answers to the questions were open and the emotion-evoking events were coded by two independent experts (the author of the dissertation and an expert with a PhD). Firstly, the author of the dissertation coded the open answers to the questions and according to the content of the answers created six categories for positive and six categories for negative events. Then the data and categories with descriptions were delivered to the expert who coded the answers according to the presented categories. After that, the author compared the expert's codes with her own and made corrections in her own data for those answer's that better fitted the category. The fixed-marginal multirater *kappa* for positive events (n=228; 6 categories and 2 raters) was 0.76 and for negative events (n=236; 6 categories and 2 raters) – 0.78, which is a sufficient level.

One more statement that reflects emotion-evoking events involves questions about what is going on at work evokes negative/positive emotions (on the scale from 0 meaning that what is going on at work evokes negative emotions to 6 meaning that what is going on at work evokes positive emotions). This item does not reflect the event itself, but in a general manner shows how positively or negatively activities at work are perceived.

Stage 3: Translation of EITO into Russian

EITO was first prepared in Estonian and then translated into Russian by two independent bilingual translators. The two Russian versions were compared and the preliminary Russian EITO was compiled. Two other independent bilingual translators translated the Russian version back into Estonian. The translations

were compared with the original Estonian version in order to remove any cultural ambiguities from the Russian version. Finally, the Russian EITO was competed.

Stage 4. Extracting reliable factors for EITO

In order to extract factors with items that represent EI scales in the best way, all respondents from the organizations presented in table 14 were involved in the factor analysis. Altogether 1 415 employees participated in the survey. This number breaks down as follows: 410 men (29%), 971 women (68.6%) and 34 (2.4%) participants who did not indicate their gender completed the questionnaire. According to ethnicity, there were 1 100 Estonians (77.7%) and 291 Russian-speakers (20.6%) in the sample; 24 (1.7%) respondents did not indicate their ethnic affiliation. The average age of participants was 40.34 years (n=1218, SD=11.99), the youngest respondent was 17 years old and the oldest was 74 years old. According to educational groups there were 409 (28.9%) respondents with a higher education, 515 (36.4%) with a vocational education, 409 (28.9%) with a secondary education, 36 (2.5%) with a primary education and 46 (3.3%) respondents did not indicate their education.

An oblique rotation method of principal axis factoring for items with promax rotation was performed for the EITO instruments. A factor analysis was a suitable method for finding the most representative items for each subscale (see Barlett's test for sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure for sampling adequacy in Table 18). A total variance explained for the factor solution is sufficient for the presented factor solutions. The number of factors extracted was chosen according to *a priori hypothesis*: it is assumed that four subscales represent EI. A Scree Plot (see figure 24) shows that four factors is a suitable number of factors, because at the *eigenvalue* of 1 the number of factors extracted is also four. A loading for items over 0.40 was selected in order to ensure sufficient value for representing each subscale. As a result of the factor analysis, four scales of EI (factor1 – identifying one's own emotions, factor 2 – managing one's own emotions, factor 3 – empathizing with others, factor 4 – relating to others) were formed. Table 19 shows the items and the factor loadings of the promax-rotated four factor solutions for a set of items across all respondents. The subscales of the EI measures are sufficiently reliable⁷ within the framework of the current research (see Cronbach Alphas in Table 18).

⁷ Usually 0.7 and above is acceptable (Hair *et al*, 1998).

Table 18. Conditions and parameters of the factor analysis for EITO

| <i>Conditions and parameters of the factor analysis</i> | <i>EITO</i> |
|--|--|
| Sample size ⁸ | 1415 |
| No of items | 46 |
| No of factors extracted | 4 |
| Barlett test of sphericity | p=0.000 |
| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy ⁹ | 0.90 |
| Total variance explained | 41.64 |
| No of items and cases in the factor | Factor 1: 5 items (n=1330) Factor 2: 5 items (n=1323) Factor 3: 6 items (n=1330) Factor 4: 5 items (n=1334) |
| Cronbach Alphas for extracted factors | Factor 1: 0.77 Factor 2: 0.78 Factor 3: 0.81 Factor 4: 0.68 |

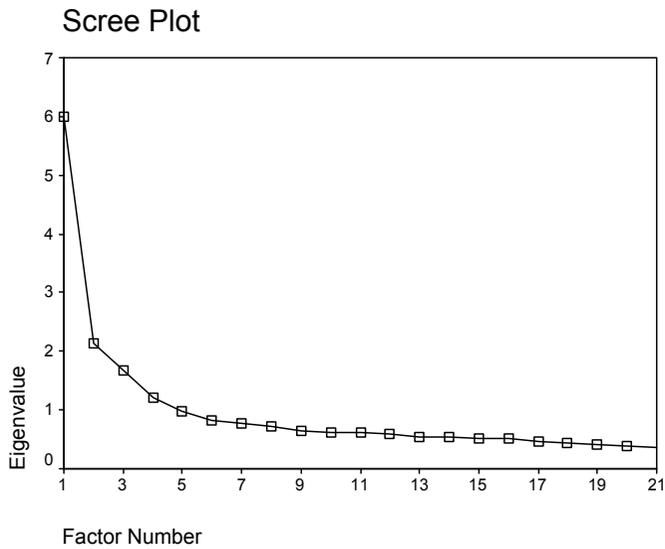


Figure 24. Scree Plot for the factors extracted for EITO

⁸ Factor analysis is executed for the larger samples within the framework of the broader research.

⁹ Usually, a KMO over 0.80 is considered to be very adequate for using a factor analysis (Hair *et al*, 1998).

Extracted factors represent four EI scales: factor 1 – identifying one’s own emotions; factor 2 – managing one’s own emotions; factor 3 – empathizing with others; and factor 4 – relating to others (see table 19).

Table 19. Items and loadings for EITO factors

| <i>Items*</i> | <i>Factor 1</i> | <i>Factor 2</i> | <i>Factor 3</i> | <i>Factor 4</i> |
|---|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| At work I understand the reasons behind evolvement of my emotions | 0.53 | -0.03 | 0.17 | 0.02 |
| I understand the circumstances that are base for my emotions at work | 0.49 | 0.03 | 0.18 | 0.03 |
| I understand how my emotions change during changes at work | 0.66 | -0.07 | 0.08 | 0.01 |
| At work I understand when my mood changes | 0.68 | 0.03 | -0.03 | -0.08 |
| At work I identify my emotions when those emerge | 0.56 | 0.05 | 0.02 | -0.02 |
| At work I can manage my feelings | 0.13 | 0.47 | 0.17 | -0.21 |
| A work I am able to cheer up myself | -0.09 | 0.66 | 0.13 | 0.06 |
| At work I am optimistically attuned | 0.03 | 0.69 | -0.14 | 0.08 |
| I retain positive attitude despite to work related failures | -0.06 | 0.64 | 0.04 | 0.00 |
| At work I am able to keep good mood | 0.04 | 0.74 | -0.07 | 0.04 |
| I can put myself to my colleague’s situation | 0.04 | 0.17 | 0.49 | -0.18 |
| I understand the reasons behind evolvement of my colleague’s emotions | 0.00 | 0.06 | 0.61 | -0.01 |
| I am able to feel what my colleague feels | -0.04 | -0.07 | 0.78 | 0.00 |
| I notice colleagues’ feelings | 0.18 | 0.00 | 0.53 | 0.10 |
| I notice real colleagues’ feelings | 0.12 | -0.02 | 0.58 | 0.14 |
| I am aware of unexpressed feelings of colleagues | 0.13 | -0.07 | 0.55 | 0.03 |
| At work I openly talk about my feelings | 0.00 | 0.10 | -0.07 | 0.66 |
| At work I create not formal relationships with colleagues | 0.05 | 0.02 | -0.07 | 0.47 |
| Colleagues know what I feel | -0.23 | 0.03 | 0.24 | 0.64 |
| At work I admit my feelings | 0.31 | -0.01 | -0.17 | 0.59 |
| My mood influences work performance of colleagues | -0.12 | -0.07 | 0.12 | 0.40 |

Note: * Items are approximately translated to English language

In the current study, two instruments were applied in order to measure the EI of employees and their perceptions of OC. In order to measure OC, the author used an *Organizational Values Questionnaire (OVQ)*, developed by Reino, (2009) consisting of 53 assertions. Four scales were designed to measure four types of OC – Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes. Respondents were asked to evaluate each assertion in the OVQ by responding with ‘1’ if they absolutely disagreed and ‘10’ if they absolutely agreed with the assertion. The OVQ was originally developed to map the OC of organizations on the basis of organizational values and the dominant type of OC. The OVQ permits to assess OC from the sum of elements involving people, processes, results and innovation. It is a many-faceted measure that allows the results to implicate theoretical as well as practical perspectives.

The factor analysis was implemented for the OVQ in order to reduce the number of items and find those statements that most represent four types of OC. Those statements that were loaded over $|0.40|$ were included in the factors and those with a reliability ranging from 0.78 to 0.80. (Reino, 2009) The statements included in the factors are shown in table 20. Reino (2009) claims that OVQ shares a common framework with the Competing Values Framework for analyzing OC, but the items and scales used in these measurement tools are different.

Table 20. OVQ statements and descriptions of types of OC

| <i>Statements representing Types of OC</i> | <i>Description of OC type</i> |
|---|---|
| Open System type | |
| Our organization is innovation minded | Organizations that score high on this type are innovation-minded, value employees that are creative and come up with innovative and fresh ideas. The core values of that kind of organization – adaptability, openness to change and innovativeness – could also be found in the management’s attitudes and organizational procedures. |
| Creative people with fresh ideas are highly valued in our organization | |
| Our organization’s compensation system takes into account the initiative and commitment of organizational members | |
| Committed organizational members are the most valuable asset of our organization | |
| The management of our organization has a positive attitude towards the initiatives of organizational members. | |
| Internal Processes type | |
| There are lots of written rules in our organization | In this type of organization performance is highly regulated by written rules, where detailed job descriptions have been worked out and a strict reporting system is applied. Management demands following rules. Stability and focus on internal matters sets the framework for this type of OC. |
| The organization insists that the employees should know and follow the rules | |
| In our organization job descriptions are detailed | |
| Our management is very demanding towards organizational members | |
| In our organization a strict reporting system is applied | |

Table 20. Continued

| <i>Statements representing Types of OC</i> | <i>Description of OC type</i> |
|---|--|
| Human Relations type | |
| The attitude that “to err is human” and nobody is protected from making mistakes exists in our organization | The organization believes that success could be gained through building trust and close relationships among people belonging to the organization. |
| Members of our organization take part in joint events with pleasure | |
| The management has trusting and confidential relationships with organizational members | |
| Our organization is like a big family | |
| The members of our organization talk with pleasure about private issues | |
| Rational Goal type | |
| The aim of our organization is to gain possibly a bigger market share | The organization focuses on external matters with the aim of gaining control over them. This type is more focused than others on the results defined through market share and profit maximization. |
| Our organization always tries to outpace its competitors | |
| The result is most important for management | |
| The aim of our organization is profit maximization | |

Source: Reino, 2009.

In the next chapter of the dissertation, the results of the study are presented. The results are related to the propositions set. Sub chapter 2.2.1. displays the estimations of EI, its relationship to the emotional context and its manifestations (differences among various groups of respondents). Sub chapter 2.2.2. submits the estimations of OC, its relationship to the emotional context and EI.

2.2. The results of the study of the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational culture in Estonian service organizations¹⁰

2.2.1. Results on emotional intelligence

The mean values of the self-assessments were computed for the EITO scales for all service organizations. The results are presented in table 21. The paired t-test shows that all mean estimations of EI scales significantly differ from one another – the t-statistic varies from |4.57| to |37.84|, p=0.000. So, it could be

¹⁰ All tables and figures in the present chapter have been calculated and composed by the author of the dissertation.

stated that the self-assessed mean value for the EI scale of identifying one's own emotions is higher than the self-assessed mean value for the EI scales of empathizing with others and relating to others, but lower than the self-assessed mean values for the EI scale of managing one's own emotions. The self-assessed mean value for the EI scale of managing one's own emotions is higher than the self-assessed mean values of all other EI scales. The self-assessed mean value of the EI scale of empathizing with others is lower than the self-assessed mean values of EI scales identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions, but higher than the mean value of the EI scale of relating to others. Finally, the self-assessed mean value for the EI scale relating to others is lower than the mean values of all other EI scales.

Table 21. Self-reported estimations of EI scales in service organizations

| <i>Scale of EITO</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>m</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--------------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Identifying one's own emotions | 928 | 4.38 | 0.93 |
| Managing one's own emotions | 932 | 4.63 | 0.90 |
| Empathizing with others | 937 | 4.26 | 0.95 |
| Relating to others | 948 | 2.91 | 1.19 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); n – sample size; m – mean value; SD – standard deviation

In order to assess how low or high the EI competencies are evaluated by respondents involved in service organizations, the estimations were divided into quartiles because estimations divided into quartiles reflect self-assessed estimations in a proper way. The self-reported levels of EI competencies were referred to as poor, moderate, average and excellent. Each quartile represents a certain level of self-assessed EI (see table 22). The further analysis of the results uses levels of EI stemming from the quartiles as a reference for testing the correspondence of the propositions. This means that if it is referred to as the “average” level of the EI competency level, it is based on the mean values that are calculated for the sample under study. Levels of EI competencies in this sense are based on the measurement instrument used in present study.

Table 22. Levels of self-reported EI competencies

| <i>Quartile</i> | <i>Level of EI</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|-----------------|--------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| | <i>n</i> | 928 | 932 | 937 | 948 |
| I | POOR | < 3.80 | < 4.00 | < 3.66 | < 2.16 |
| II | MODERATE | 3.81–4.40 | 4.01–4.70 | 3.67–4.33 | 2.17–3.00 |
| III | AVERAGE | 4.41–5.00 | 4.71–5.20 | 4.34–5.00 | 3.00–3.67 |
| IV | EXCELLENT | > 5.01 | > 5.21 | > 5.01 | > 3.68 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate).

In Estonian service organizations, respondents in general evaluate their EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others at a moderate level. Lower estimations are given for EI competencies of empathizing and relating to others. From the results presented above it is obvious that **proposition 2.1.1.C** is supported: **Employees estimations of the EI competencies of empathy and relating to others are below average in Estonian service organizations.**

Correlations between self-assessed EI scales were calculated in order to find relationships between EI competencies. Correlations between EI scales are all positive and significant though of different strengths. These are expressed in table 23.

Table 23. Correlations between EI scales

| <i>EI scales</i> | | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---------------------------------------|------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | r | 1.00 | | | |
| | Sig. | | | | |
| | n | 621 | | | |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | r | .45** | 1.00 | | |
| | Sig. | .00 | | | |
| | n | 607 | 631 | | |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | r | .66** | .47** | 1.00 | |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | | |
| | n | 62 | 619 | 632 | |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | r | .27** | .13** | .36** | 1.00 |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | |
| | n | 619 | 624 | 629 | 641 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n-sample size; EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

EI scales are significantly and positively correlated to each other meaning that change in one competency is concomitant with the change in another competency. High correlations are found between EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others: meaning that if a respondent will assess one of mentioned competencies higher it will increase the assessment level of the other competency to a great extent. Moderate correlations occur between EI competencies of managing one's own emotions, identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others – if a respondent will assess one of the mentioned competencies higher the assessment level for the other competencies will increase to a moderate extent. Low correlations are detected between EI competencies of relating to others, identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions – the change in assessments of one

competency will accompany a change in other competencies with low effect. Thus, the proposition 1.1.3. is supported: **Estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one’s own emotions, managing one’s own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are significantly correlated to each other.**

The EITO questionnaire asked whether “emotions are important at work”. The self-assessed mean value for this statement for the whole sample is 3.89 on a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate) (n=954; SD=1.78), meaning that the respondents consider emotions at work more likely to be important than not important. Still there are considerable variations within the sample according to organization (see table 24). The LSD-test revealed that:

- respondents from SHOP evaluated emotions significantly more important than respondents from STATION, INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2;
- respondents from INSUR evaluated emotions significantly less important than respondents from SHOP, STORE, ENTERT and HOTEL;
- respondents from STORE evaluated emotions significantly more important than respondents from INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2;
- respondents from ENTERT evaluated emotions significantly more important than respondents from INSUR and PRISON2.

Table 24. Self-assessed importance of emotions at work

| <i>Sample; m (SD)</i> | <i>Importance of emotions at work</i> |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| <i>SHOP</i> | 4.36 (1.75) |
| <i>STATION</i> | 3.81 (1.85) |
| <i>INSUR</i> | 3.29 (1.45) |
| <i>STORE</i> | 4.10 (1.64) |
| <i>ENTERT</i> | 4.10 (1.80) |
| <i>HOTEL</i> | 4.08 (1.54) |
| <i>PRISON1</i> | 3.60 (1.74) |
| <i>PRISON2</i> | 3.61 (1.95) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA analysis</i> | F(7,946)=4.38; p=0.000 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). m – mean values; SD – standard deviation.

It should be noted that two statements “emotions are important at work” and “what is going on at work evokes positive emotions” are not correlated with each other ($r=0.24$, $p=0.471$), meaning that the perception of the importance of emotions in the organization follows separate processes from the assessment of organizational activities as positive or negative. In general respondents think that emotions at work tend to be important. One outcome is the differences in evaluations between respondents of various service organizations. It seems that in some service organizations respondents consider emotions to be more

important (e.g. in STORE, SHOP, ENTERT) than in other organizations (e.g. INSUR, PRISON1, PRISON2). According to these results it could be concluded that proposition **1.2.4.A** stating that **emotions are considered to be important at work** is supported.

It was analyzed how the perception of emotions in the work context is related to the self-assessed level of EI. The statement “emotions are important at work” has been correlated to EI scales for the whole sample and in separate organizations (see table 25). All EI scales are significantly and positively related to the perception of the importance of emotions at work in the whole sample. This means that the higher the self-reported evaluations of EI competencies, the more respondents considered emotions at work as important.

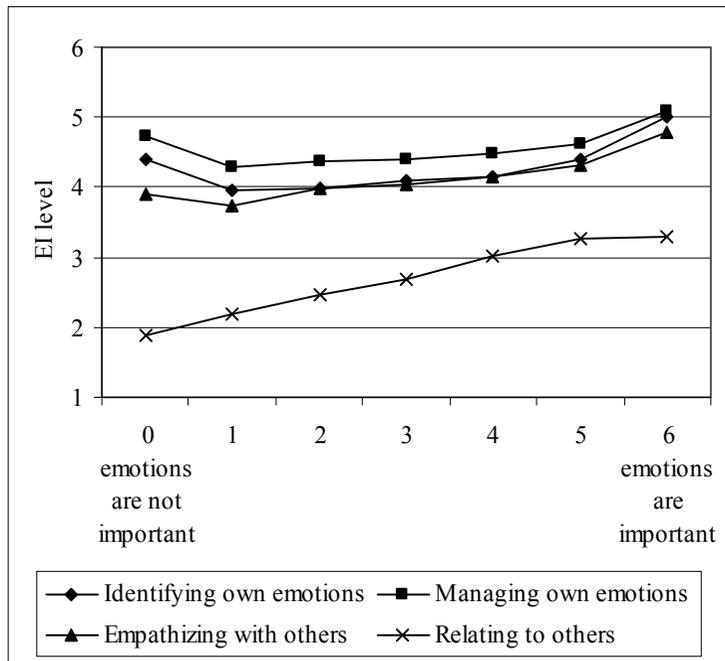
Table 25. Relationships between the importance of emotions at work and EI scales in the whole sample

| <i>Perception of importance of emotions at work/ EI scales</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|--|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| r | .29** | .21** | .31** | .35** |
| Sig. | .00 | .00 | .000 | .000 |
| n | 916 | 914 | 922 | 932 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); estimations are given in a scale from 0 (emotions are not important) to 6 (emotions are important); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

It was also necessary to find out how the self-assessed level of EI scales changes in accordance with the change in the perceptions of emotions at work from not important to important. In figure 25 it is possible to follow the general trend that the higher the self-reported level of EI competency, the more important emotions are considered to be.

Results show that self-reported EI scales were positively and significantly related to the importance of emotions at work, meaning that the greater EI the respondent thinks he/she has, the more important emotions at work are considered. There were differences in correlations among service organizations. From the analysis above it is possible to conclude that proposition **1.2.4.B** has been supported – **Evaluations of EI competencies have a significant relationship to the importance of emotions at work.**



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); estimations are given in a scale from 0 (not important) to 6 (important).

Figure 25. The importance of emotions at work and the level of EI scales

From the analysis of the open-ended questions about emotion-evoking events it was found that there are certain categories of events (see table 26 with categories and response numbers). Respondents from STORE, ENTERT and HOTEL participated in this analysis. Positive emotion-evoking events (n=228) result in three categories: service organization (work recognition, work relations, work environment), customer (customer satisfaction, customer characteristics), and service employee (work achievement). Negative emotion-evoking events (n=236) also result in three categories: customer (customer characteristics, customer dissatisfaction), service organization (managerial activities, work relations, work arrangement) and service employee. The results indicate that most of the events appraised as positive or negative are related to the customer. From this analysis it is possible to conclude that **proposition 1.1.6.A** stating that **the customer, service organization and service employee him/herself are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events that are emotionally appraised as positive or negative** was supported because the positive emotion-evoking events are indicated in all three categories.

Table 26. Classification of emotion-evoking events

| <i>Categories of emotion-evoking events</i> | <i>Description of the category</i> | <i>No. of responses</i> |
|---|---|-------------------------|
| Emotion-evoking events appraised as positive | | |
| Work recognition | Recognition being delivered by manager or colleagues; remuneration related recognition | 20 |
| Work achievement | work achievements; help provided; job well done; problems solved | 24 |
| Work relations | relationships between colleagues or with manager; cooperation | 25 |
| Work environment | working climate, atmosphere; overall work satisfaction; work goes smoothly; work is arranged | 34 |
| Customer satisfaction | customer is satisfied; behaviour of the service provider leads to customer satisfaction; customer recognition and feedback; gratitude of the customer | 90 |
| Customer characteristics | behaviour, attributes, characteristics and attitudes of the customer | 35 |
| Emotion-evoking events appraised as negative | | |
| Managerial activities | outcomes and activities performed by managers; managerial decisions; behaviour of managers | 28 |
| Work relations | relationships with colleagues; different sorts of behaviour in colleagues; relations that create a certain work climate | 55 |
| Work arrangement | issues that are related to the arrangement of work; working tools; all obstacles that prevent performing a job well; lack of cooperation | 33 |
| Customer characteristics | different sorts of behaviour in customers; attributes and attitudes of the customer | 91 |
| Customer dissatisfaction | dissatisfied state of the customer | 19 |
| Service employee's activities | insufficient competency or mistakes by service organization workers | 10 |

The next stage of the analysis was to find out how emotion-evoking events are related to EI competencies. The ANOVA and LSD-test show that those respondents who noted positive emotions evoked by recognition evaluated their EI competency of managing one's own emotions lower than those respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from the work environment and customer satisfaction (results are presented in table 27). There were no differences in the self-assessed estimations for EI competencies according to negative emotion-evoking events (see table 27).

Table 27. Self-reported estimations of EI scales and emotion-evoking events appraised as positive

| <i>Emotion-evoking events/ EI scales; m (n; SD)</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---|---|--|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>Emotion-evoking events appraised as positive</i> | | | | |
| <i>Work recognition</i> | 4.57 (20; 0.86) | 4.44 (20; 0.91) | 4.43 (20; 0.91) | 3.33 (20; 1.07) |
| <i>Work achievement</i> | 4.38 (24; 0.90) | 4.65 (24; 0.76) | 4.32 (23; 1.14) | 3.10 (24; 0.99) |
| <i>Work relations</i> | 4.43 (23; 0.83) | 4.71 (24; 0.87) | 4.36 (24; 0.83) | 3.05 (25; 1.23) |
| <i>Work environment</i> | 4.73 (33; 0.92) | 4.95 (34; 0.95) | 4.65 (34; 1.14) | 3.29 (234; 1.02) |
| <i>Customer satisfaction</i> | 4.48 (88; 0.86) | 4.91 (84; 0.71) | 4.37 (87; 0.82) | 3.41 (88; 1.08) |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | 4.50 (34; 0.00) | 4.78 (33; 0.81) | 4.49 (35; 0.92) | 3.40 (35; 1.13) |
| <i>Total</i> | 4.51 (222; 0.88) | 4.80 (219; 0.91) | 4.43 (223; 0.92) | 3.31 (226; 1.09) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA</i> | N/s | F(5,213)=1.56; p<0.05 | N/s | N/s |
| <i>Emotion-evoking events appraised as negative</i> | | | | |
| <i>Managerial activities</i> | 4.58 (27; 0.89) | 4.60 (28; 0.85) | 4.36 (28; 0.90) | 3.33 (28; 1.02) |
| <i>Work relations</i> | 4.44 (53; 0.83) | 4.85 (52; 0.79) | 4.58 (53; 0.88) | 3.10 (53; 1.11) |
| <i>Work arrangement</i> | 4.59 (33; 0.73) | 4.58 (33; 0.73) | 4.37 (33; 0.92) | 3.10 (33; 1.11) |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | 4.52 (89; 1.01) | 4.86 (86; 0.85) | 4.48 (87; 0.92) | 3.43 (89; 0.99) |
| <i>Customer dissatisfaction</i> | 4.55 (19; 0.71) | 4.72 (19; 0.80) | 4.23 (19; 0.87) | 3.64 (19; 1.07) |
| <i>Service employee's activities</i> | 4.38 (8; 0.54) | 4.83 (8; 0.74) | 3.98 (9; 0.76) | 3.10 (10; 1.36) |
| <i>Total</i> | 4.52 (229; 0.87) | 4.77 (226; 0.81) | 4.43 (229; 0.90) | 3.30 (232; 1.06) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA</i> | N/s | N/s | N/s | N/s |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). m – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/s – not significant differences.

Respondents were also asked whether what is going on at work evoked positive or negative emotions (estimations were given on a scale from 0 – negative emotions to 6 – positive emotions). The self-reported mean value for this statement was 3.15 (n=960; SD=1.68), which indicates that respondents think that emotions experienced at work are more likely to be negative. Still there are variations according to service organizations and those are presented as follows (results of LSD-test; see table 28):

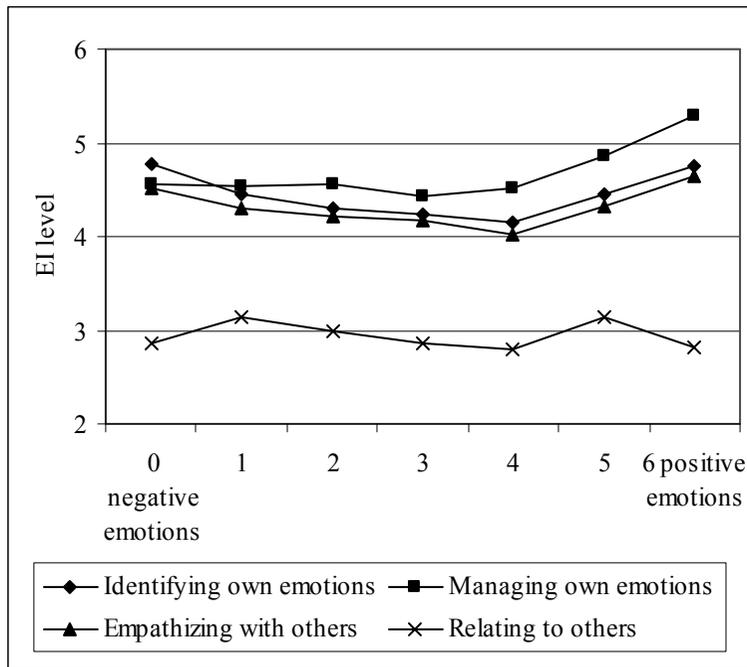
- respondents from HOTEL think that significantly more positive emotions are evoked at work than respondents from INSUR, STORE, ENTERT, PRISON1 and PRISON2;
- respondents from PRISON1 think that significantly more negative emotions are evoked at work than respondents from SHOP, STATION and HOTEL;
- respondents from PRISON2 think that significantly more negative emotions are evoked at work than respondents from SHOP, STATION, STORE and HOTEL.

Table 28. Self-reported estimations of negative/positive emotions evoked at work

| <i>Service organization; m (SD)</i> | <i>Going on at work evokes positive emotions</i> |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| <i>SHOP</i> | 3.40 (1.96) |
| <i>STATION</i> | 3.44 (1.49) |
| <i>INSUR</i> | 3.03 (1.51) |
| <i>STORE</i> | 3.20 (1.56) |
| <i>ENTERT</i> | 3.06 (1.70) |
| <i>HOTEL</i> | 3.86 (1.47) |
| <i>PRISON1</i> | 2.99 (1.60) |
| <i>PRISON2</i> | 2.74 (1.74) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA analysis</i> | F(7,952)=4.14; p=0.000 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (negative emotions) to 6 (positive emotions); m – mean values; SD – standard deviation.

How the self-reported level of EI changes in accordance with the change in perceptions of emotions at work from negative to positive was also discovered. On figure 26, it is possible to see that there is no certain trend indicating that, for example, the higher the self-reported level of EI competency, the more positive emotions are perceived at work. The only possible trend is that the self-reported level of the EI competency of managing one's own emotions is somewhat related to the perception of positive/negative emotions – the better the person thinks he/she can manage his/her emotions the more positive the perception of the work context is, and the more the respondent assumes that emotions at work are positive the higher his/her self-assessed level for managing his/her own emotions.



Note: Estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate).

Figure 26. The perceptions of emotions at work from negative to positive and the self-reported level of EI competencies

In addition, how the perception of emotions at work is related to the self-reported EI was also analyzed. The statement “what is going on at work evokes positive emotions” has been correlated to self-reported EI scales (see table 29). Only the EI scale of managing one’s own emotions is significantly and positively related to this statement. This means that the better the respondent thinks he/she can manage his/her emotions the more positive his/her perception of what is going on at work.

Thus, it was found that only emotion-evoking events appraised as positive have significant differences according to the self-reported EI competency of managing one’s own emotions, and no differences were found with respect to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative. There was no clear trend that could prove that higher self-reported EI competencies would lead to more positive attitudes towards emotions evoked at work. Some differences according to service organizations show that the context of activities play a role in perceiving activities at work as more negative or positive. For example, respondents in some organizations (e.g. PRISON1 and PRISON2) feel that organizational work evokes negative emotions implying that the character of the work in different service organizations is different and predominant events in

some service organizations could lead to negative emotions. In this case, the results are reasonable, because work in prisons has a negative nature.

Table 29. Relationships between negative/positive emotions evoked at work and self-reported EI

| <i>What is going on at work evokes positive emotions/ EI scales</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| r | -.00 | .19** | .02 | -.02 |
| Sig. | .91 | .00 | .56 | .55 |
| n | 923 | 922 | 931 | 942 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; emotion-evoking at work is estimated on the scale from 0 (going on at work evokes negative emotions) to 6 (going on at work evokes positive emotions); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

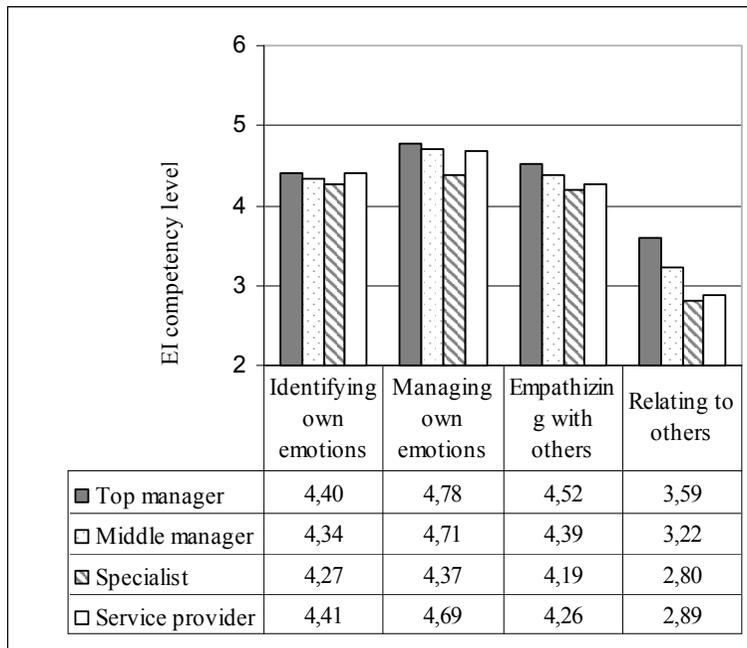
Thus, it was found that only emotion-evoking events appraised as positive have significant differences according to the self-reported EI competency of managing one's own emotions, and no differences were found with respect to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative. There was no clear trend that could prove that higher self-reported EI competencies would lead to more positive attitudes towards emotions evoked at work. Some differences according to service organizations show that the context of activities play a role in perceiving activities at work as more negative or positive. For example, respondents in some organizations (e.g. PRISON1 and PRISON2) feel that organizational work evokes negative emotions implying that the character of the work in different service organizations is different and predominant events in some service organizations could lead to negative emotions. In this case, the results are reasonable, because work in prisons has a negative nature.

Still, it was found that the self-assessed EI scale of managing one's own emotions is positively and significantly related to the perception of emotions as positive, meaning that the higher the respondent evaluated his/her level for this EI competency, the more positively emotions are perceived at work. Proposition **1.1.6.B that types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions in service organizations** is partly supported, because there were significant differences and relationships between positive emotion-evoking events and positive emotional attitudes towards what is going on at work with respect to the EI competency of managing one's own emotions, but no relationship to the EI scale of identifying one's own emotions.

In order to find differences according to the occupation, education, ethnic affiliation, gender, and age of respondents, an ANOVA-analysis was implemented. Initially, differences in self-assessed EI levels according to

occupation were analysed. Four occupations were extracted: top managers, middle managers, specialists and service providers. Figure 27 presents the self-assessed mean values of EI, and the results from the ANOVA-analysis and LSD-test can be followed in table 30.

It can be seen from the table 30 that there are more differences according to occupation within service organizations than in the whole sample across service organizations. In the whole sample differences occur in self-assessments of the EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others. Specialists rated the EI competency of managing their emotions lower than middle managers and service providers and middle managers assessed the EI competency of relating to others higher than specialists and service providers. Much more variation could be found within service organizations implying a similar trend that service providers' estimations of their EI level for the competencies of identifying and managing emotions are higher in ENTERT, STATION, STORE; and for the competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others service providers evaluated their EI lower in PRISON2.



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate)

Figure 27. Self-assessments for EI scales according to occupations

Table 30. Differences in self-reported EI scales according to respondent occupation

| <i>EI scales</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | N/S | In ENTERT service providers (m=4.76) gave higher estimates than middle managers (m=3.90) F(1,66)=6.38; p<0.05 |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | Specialists (m=4.37) gave lower estimations than middle managers (m=4.71) and service providers (m=4.69) F(3,839)=5.40; p=0.001 | In SHOP middle managers (m=5.02) gave higher estimates than specialists (m=4.39) F(3,135)=1.66; p<0.05 In STATION service providers (m=4.82) gave higher estimates than specialists (m=4.10) F(2,87)=2.35; p<0.05 In STORE service providers (m=4.83) gave higher estimates than specialists (m=4.39) F(2,165)=4.84; p<0.05 |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | N/S | In PRISON2 service providers (m=3.98) gave lower estimates than specialists (m=4.47) F(3,160)=2.30; p<0.05 |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | Middle managers (m=3.22) gave higher estimations than specialists (m=2.80) and service providers (m=2.89) F(3,854)=3.31; p=0.020 | In INSUR top-managers (m=3.83) gave higher estimates than specialists (m=2.76) and service providers (m=2.36) F(3,45)=3.18; p<0.05 In STORE specialists (m=2.58) gave lower estimates than middle managers (m=3.58) and service providers (m=3.31) F(2,171)=8.86; p<0.05 In PRISON2 service providers (m=2.50) gave lower estimates than specialists (m=3.39) F(3,162)=5.14; p=0.002 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). m – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – not significant difference.

In finding differences according to occupations it is necessary to investigate how respondents from different service organizations self-report their level of EI. Service organizations in the sample are different and there is a different character to the work of, for example, employees working in prisons or in retail shops. An ANOVA was implemented in order to find out what are the differences between service organizations for self-reported EI scales (see table 31). The LSD-test revealed the following differences between organizations:

- respondents from SHOP and ENTERT evaluated themselves considerably higher on the EI scale for *identifying one's own emotions* than respondents from STATION, INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2;

- respondents from PRISON1 evaluated themselves considerably lower on the EI scale for *identifying one's own emotions* than respondents from SHOP, ENTERT and HOTEL;
- respondents from PRISON2 gave considerably lower estimations of the EI scale for *identifying one's own emotions* than respondents from SHOP and ENTERT;
- respondents from INSUR and PRISON1 evaluated themselves considerably lower on the EI scale for *managing one's own emotions* than all other respondents;
- respondents from ENTERT and HOTEL evaluated themselves considerably higher on the EI scale for *managing one's own emotions* than respondents from INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2;
- respondents from SHOP, STORE and ENTERT evaluated themselves considerably higher on the EI scale for *empathizing with others* than respondents from STATION, INSUR and PRISON2;
- respondents from HOTEL evaluated themselves considerably higher on the EI scale for *relating to others* than all other respondents;
- respondents from STORE evaluated themselves considerably higher on the EI scale for *relating to others* than respondents from STATION, INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2;
- respondents from PRISON1 and PRISON2 evaluated themselves considerably lower on the EI scale for *relating to others* than respondents from SHOP, STORE, ENTERT and HOTEL.

Table 31. Self-reported estimations of EI scales in service organizations

| <i>Organizations/ EI scales; m (SD)</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---|---|--|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>SHOP</i> | 4.56 (0.95) | 4.76 (0.94) | 4.37 (0.92) | 3.07 (1.27) |
| <i>STATION</i> | 4.31 (0.88) | 4.71 (0.95) | 4.09 (0.95) | 2.77 (1.24) |
| <i>INSUR</i> | 4.20 (0.69) | 4.27 (0.79) | 4.03 (0.73) | 2.76 (0.88) |
| <i>STORE</i> | 4.39 (0.91) | 4.68 (0.87) | 4.39 (0.89) | 3.13 (1.14) |
| <i>ENTERT</i> | 4.60 (0.93) | 4.84 (0.89) | 4.49 (0.95) | 3.08 (1.15) |
| <i>HOTEL</i> | 4.54 (0.69) | 4.87 (0.65) | 4.28 (0.84) | 3.56 (0.97) |
| <i>PRISON1</i> | 4.23 (0.86) | 4.36 (0.88) | 4.25 (0.88) | 2.51 (1.17) |
| <i>PRISON2</i> | 4.30 (1.07) | 4.58 (0.95) | 4.11 (1.11) | 2.71 (1.21) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA</i> | F(7,920)=2.69; p=0.009 | F(7,924)=4.99; p=0.000 | F(7,929)=3.17; p=0.003 | F(7,940)=7.08; p=0.000 |

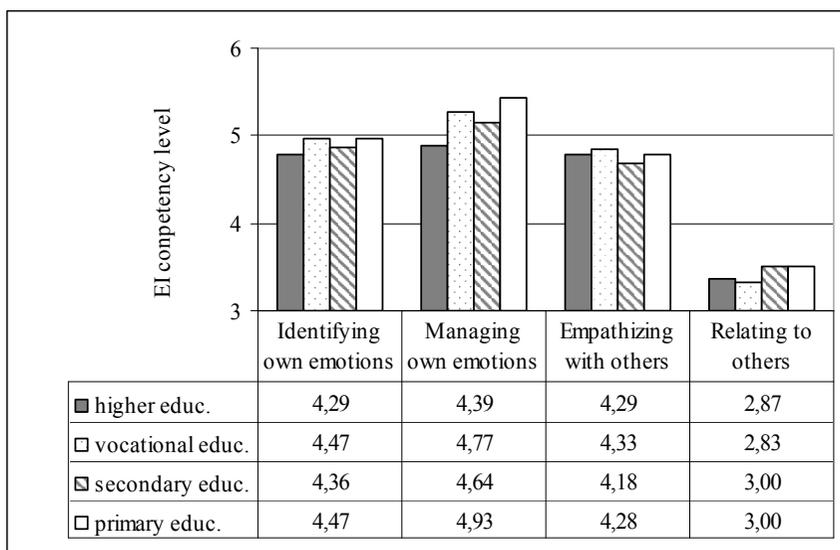
Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). m – mean values; SD – standard deviation.

Self-reported mean values of the EI scales differ according to organizations in the sample. Respondents from SHOP, STORE, HOTEL and ENTERT evaluated themselves higher on all EI scales; and respondents from INSUR, PRISON1 and PRISON2 evaluated themselves lower on all EI scales. From the presented supplementary analysis it could be concluded that there are differences in self-reported estimations of EI within service sector organizations with respect to EI competencies.

In the general sample, differences occur according to occupation in such self-reported EI competencies as managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others. In the whole sample specialists evaluated themselves lower for the EI scale of managing one's own emotions, and middle managers evaluated themselves higher for the EI scale of relating to others. The organization-specific analysis shows that variation within the companies is even greater. In self-reported EI scales of identifying and managing one's own emotions, respondents evaluated themselves lower. According to service organizations there are also differences: service employees involved in insurance and prisons evaluate their EI level significantly lower on all EI competencies. Respondents involved in retail business and entertainment evaluated their EI competencies significantly higher. It could be concluded that proposition **1.1.4.A** which states that **employees with different occupations evaluate their EI at a significantly different level** is supported.

The next characteristic by which differences are analyzed is the education of respondents. Four educational levels have been explored: higher, vocational, secondary and primary education. The self-reported levels of EI are represented in decreasing sequence starting from higher education and finishing with primary education. The self-assessed mean estimations of EI scales are presented in figure 28 and differences according to respondents with various educational backgrounds can be found in table 32.

The differences according to education occur in three competencies of EI: identifying and managing one's own emotions and empathy. Higher education is not a precondition for self-reported higher EI for respondents in service organizations: the general trend shows that employees with higher education evaluate themselves lower in EI than employees with lower education. Still there are some peculiarities stemming from the analysis of separate organizations – for example, in the EI scale of empathizing with others in public prisons, the employees with secondary education estimated themselves higher than respondents with vocational and higher education. The correlation analysis revealed that there is only one significant correlation: the self-reported EI competency of managing one's own emotions is positively related to education meaning that an increase in the level of education is accompanied by an increase in the self-reported EI level ($\rho=0.10$, $p=0.000$). In summary it could be concluded that proposition **1.1.4.B**, that **the higher education of employees is not related to higher evaluations of the level of EI competencies** is partly supported.



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate)

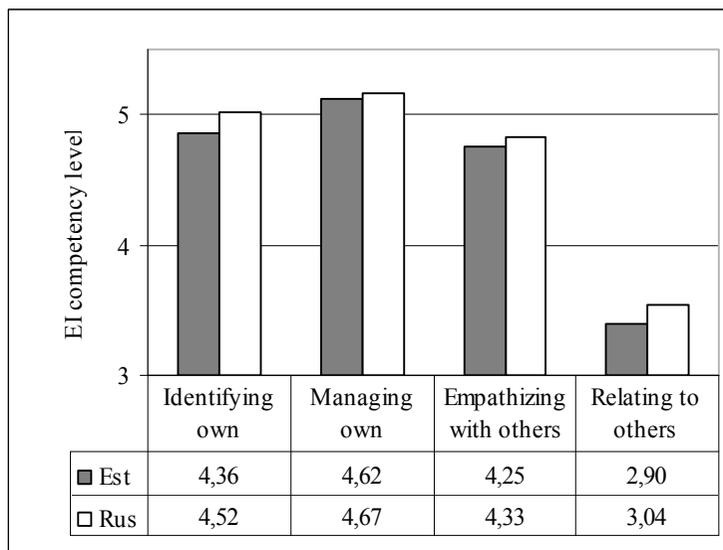
Figure 28. Self-assessed estimations for EI scales according to the education of the respondents

Table 32. Differences in self-reported EI scales according to respondents' education

| <i>EI subscales</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in the whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | Employees with higher education (m=4.29) gave lower estimations than employees with vocational education (m=4.47) F(3,899)=1.90; p<0.05 | INSUR employees with secondary (m=3.94) education gave lower estimations than employees with vocational (m=4.51) education F(2,57)=2.73; p<0.05 |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | Employees with higher education (m=4.39) gave lower estimations than employees with vocational (m=4.77), secondary (m=4.64) and primary (m=4.93) education F(3,903)=8.74; p=0.000 | STATION employees with vocational (m=5.02) education gave higher estimates than employees with higher (m=4.25) and secondary (m=4.58) education F(2,90)=3.91; p=0.024 PRISON2 employees with vocational (m=4.76) education gave higher estimates than employees with higher (m=4.38) education F(3,176)=1.78; p<0.05 |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | Employees with secondary education (m=4.18) gave lower estimations than employees with vocational (m=4.33) education F(3,908)=1.60; p<0.05 | PRISON2 employees with secondary (m=3.76) education gave lower estimates than employees with vocational (m=4.16) and higher (m=4.39) education F(3,180)=3.12; p=0.027 |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | N/S | N/S |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). M – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – not significant difference.

In order to find the differences in self-reported EI estimations according to ethnic affiliation, an ANOVA-analysis was implemented. There are two groups of respondents – the titular population of Estonians and minority population of Russian-speakers. The self-assessed mean estimations are shown in figure 29 and the results of the variance analysis can be followed in table 33.



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate)

Figure 29. Self-assessed estimations for EI scales according to ethnicity

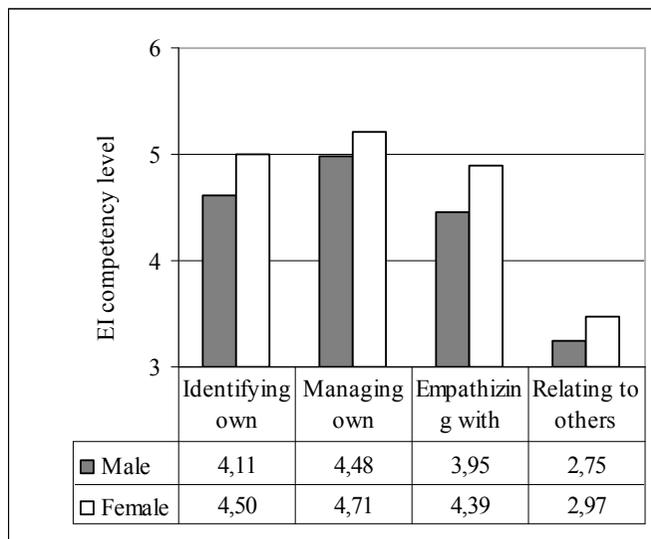
Table 33. Differences in self-reported EI scales according to the respondents' ethnicity

| <i>EI scales*</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|---------------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | Russian-speakers (m=4.52) estimations are higher than Estonians (m=4.36) F(1,909)=3.91; p=0.048 | In STORE estimations by Estonians (m=4.46) are higher than Russian-speakers (m=3.77) F(1,186)=7.36; p=0.007 In PRISON2 estimations by Estonians (m=4.16) are lower than Russian-speakers (m=4.51) F(1,189)=4.71; p=0.031 |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | N/S | N/S |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | N/S | In STORE estimations by Estonians (m=4.45) are higher than Russian-speakers (m=3.92) F(1,188)=4.41; p=0.037 |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | N/S | In ENTERT estimations by Russian-speakers (m=3.28) are higher than Estonians (m=2.74) F(1,78)=4.13; p=0.045 |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). M – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – not significant difference.

In general, ethnicity does not have an impact on the self-assessed EI competencies of managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others. There are significant differences according to ethnicity in the EI scale of identifying one's own emotions (Russian-speakers assessing higher), but still this could be caused by the influence of the self-reported estimations of respondents' from PRISON2. Still, ethnicity could explain some behavioural peculiarities of Estonians and Russian-speakers in certain service organizations, but not to a great extent. This also means that organization has a greater impact on EI self-assessments than ethnic affiliation. Thus, proposition **1.1.4.C** stating that **employees with different ethnic affiliation evaluate their level of EI competencies at significantly different levels** is partly supported.

The ANOVA-analysis has been implemented in order to find out what the differences are in the self-reported mean values given to EI scales by men and women. Mean estimations for self-assessments can be found in figure 30 and the results of the variance analysis, in table 34.



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate)

Figure 30. Estimations of self-assessment for EI scales according to gender

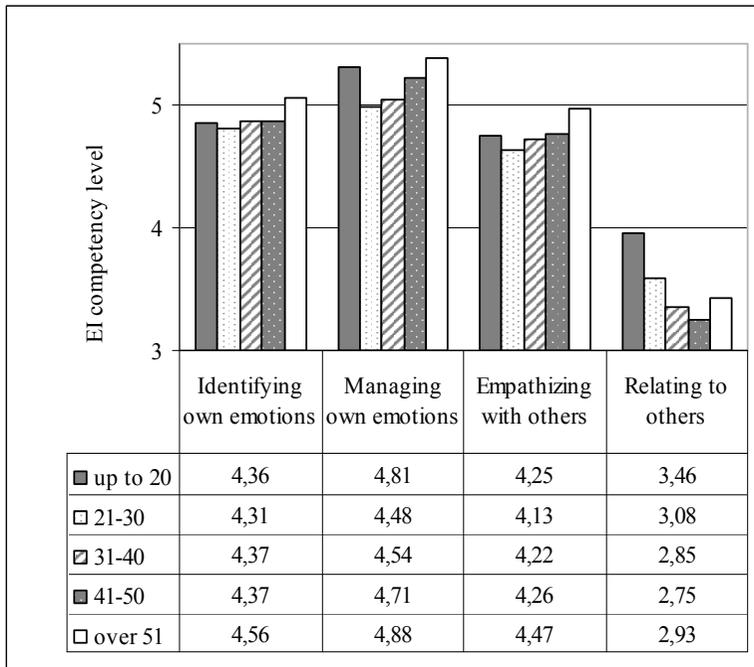
Table 34. Differences in self-reported EI scales according to the respondents' gender

| <i>EI subscales</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | Men's (m=4.11) estimations are lower than women's (m=4.50) F(1,911)=34.00; p=0.000 | In STATION estimations by men (m=3.84) are lower than women's (m=4.43) F(1,90)=6.93; p=0.01 In ENTERT estimations by men (m=4.01) are lower than women's (m=4.79) F(1,67)=9.66; p=0.003 In PRISON2 estimations by men (m=4.14) are lower than women's (m=4.53) F(1,186)=6.14; p=0.014 |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | Men's (m=4.48) estimations are lower than women's (m=4.71) F(1,914)=12.31; p=0.000 | N/S |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | Men's (m=3.95) estimations are lower than women's (m=4.39) F(1,920)=42.84; p=0.000 | In INSUR estimations by men (m=3.77) are lower than women's (m=4.19) F(1,59)=5.42; p=0.023 In ENTERT estimations by men (m=4.04) are lower than women's (m=4.67) F(1,68)=5.72; p=0.02 In PRISON1 estimations by men (m=4.04) are lower than women's (m=4.39) F(1,119)=4.59; p=0.034 In PRISON2 estimations by men (m=3.90) are lower than women's (m=4.42) F(1,182)=10.30; p=0.002 |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | Men's (m=2.75) estimations are lower than women's (m=2.97) F(1,930)=6.52; p=0.011 | N/S |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). M – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – not significant difference.

Gender has an impact on the self-assessed EI level of respondents because not all variations could be explained by the peculiarities of the service organizations, and differences in self-assessments for all four EI competencies occur in the entire service sample. It is possible to conclude that in the service sector (maybe in general settings as well) gender plays a significant role in self-reported emotional awareness, regulation, empathy and relations where men score significantly lower than women. Thus, proposition **1.1.4.D.** that **women evaluate their level of EI competencies significantly higher than men** is supported.

The last variance analysis was applied in order to find out the difference of self-reported estimations for EI scales given by employees of different ages. Five age groups was formed: respondents up to 20 years, 21–30 years, 31–40 years, 41–50 years and respondents aged over 51. The mean self-reported estimations for EI scales are seen in figure 31 and the results of the variance analysis in table 35.



Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate)

Figure 31. Estimations for self-assessed EI scales according to age

Table 35. Differences in self-reported EI scales according to the respondents' age

| <i>EI subscales</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---|--|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | Employees over 51 (m=4.56) gave higher estimations than employees aged 21–30 (m=4.31) $F(4,784)=1.58; p<0.05$ | In PRISON1 employees aged 21–30 (m=4.11) gave lower estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=4.56) $F(3,101)=1.52; p<0.05$ In PRISON2 employees aged 21–30 (m=3.73) gave lower estimates than employees aged over 51 (m=4.51) $F(4,161)=1.71; p<0.05$ |

Table 35. Continued

| <i>EI subscales</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in whole service sample</i> | <i>Results of ANOVA in separate service organizations</i> |
|------------------------------------|--|---|
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <p>Employees over 51 (m=4.88) gave higher estimations than employees aged 21–30 (m=4.48) and 31–40 (m=4.54)</p> <p>Employees aged 21–30 (m=4.48) gave lower estimations than employees aged under 20 (m=4.81), 41–50 (m=4.71) and over 51 (m=4.88)</p> <p>F(4,786)=5.45; p=0.000</p> | <p>In STATION employees aged 31–40 (m=4.44) gave lower estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=5.11)</p> <p>F(3,73)=2.50; p<0.05</p> <p>In STORE employees over 51 (m=4.91) gave higher estimates than employees aged 21–30 (m=4.43) and 31–40 (m=4.53).</p> <p>F(4,163)=2.34; p<0.05</p> <p>In PRISON2 employees aged 21–30 (m=3.91) gave lower estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=4.56) and over 51 (m=4.83); employees aged over 51 (m=4.83) gave higher estimates than employees aged 21–30 (m=3.91) and 31–40 (m=4.38)</p> <p>F(4,155)=3.27; p=0.013</p> |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <p>Employees over 51 (m=4.47) gave higher estimations than employees aged 21–30 (m=4.13), 31–40 (m=4.22) and 41–50 (m=4.26)</p> <p>F(4,792)=2.65; p=0.032</p> | <p>In SHOP employees aged over 51 (m=4.79) gave higher estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=4.19)</p> <p>F(3,129)=2.18; p<0.05</p> <p>In STORE employees over 51 (m=4.61) gave higher estimates than employees aged 31–40 (m=4.20)</p> <p>F(4,167)=1.30; p<0.05</p> <p>In PRISON1 employees aged 21–30 (m=4.07) and 31–40 (m=4.12) gave lower estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=4.61) and over 51 (m=5.06)</p> <p>F(3,103)=4.19; p=0.008</p> <p>In PRISON2 employees aged 21–30 (m=3.28) gave lower estimates than employees 31–40 (m=4.25), 41–50 (m=4.10) and over 51 (m=4.14)</p> <p>F(4,157)=2.66; p=0.035</p> |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | <p>Employees aged under 20 (m=3.46) gave higher estimations than employees aged 31–40 (m=2.85), 41–50 (m=2.75) and over 51 (m=2.93)</p> <p>Employees aged 21–30 (m=3.08) gave higher estimations than employees aged 31–40 (m=2.85) and 41–50 (m=2.75)</p> <p>F(4,803)=4.41; p=0.002</p> | <p>In SHOP employees aged 41–50 (m=2.69) gave lower estimates than employees aged 21–30 (m=3.42)</p> <p>F(3,129)=2.32; p<0.05</p> <p>In PRISON2 employees aged 31–40 (m=2.36) gave lower estimates than employees aged 41–50 (m=2.88)</p> <p>F(4,161)=1.27; p<0.05</p> |

Note: EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate). M – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – not significant difference.

Differences according to age could be found in all EI scales. Interestingly, the parabolic shape of the self-reported mean estimations is followed – younger and older respondents evaluate themselves higher on all EI scales. Concerning the entire sample for the EI scale of managing one’s own emotions respondents older than 51 evaluated themselves significantly higher, but there is a variation within the sample. For the EI scale of managing one’s own emotions in the whole sample employees older than 51 evaluated themselves higher and respondents aged 21–30 evaluated themselves lower. In the EI scale of empathizing with others a similar trend could be followed – respondents over 51 evaluated themselves higher and those aged 21–30 evaluated themselves lower. In the EI scale of relating to others employees under 20 and 21–30 evaluated themselves higher. For all EI scales a high variation in the self-assessments could be found within the sample. There is a U-shape to the self-reported results, which is absolutely the opposite of what was set up in the proposition. Thus proposition **1.1.4.E** which states that **middle-aged employees evaluate their EI competencies significantly higher than younger or older employees** is not supported.

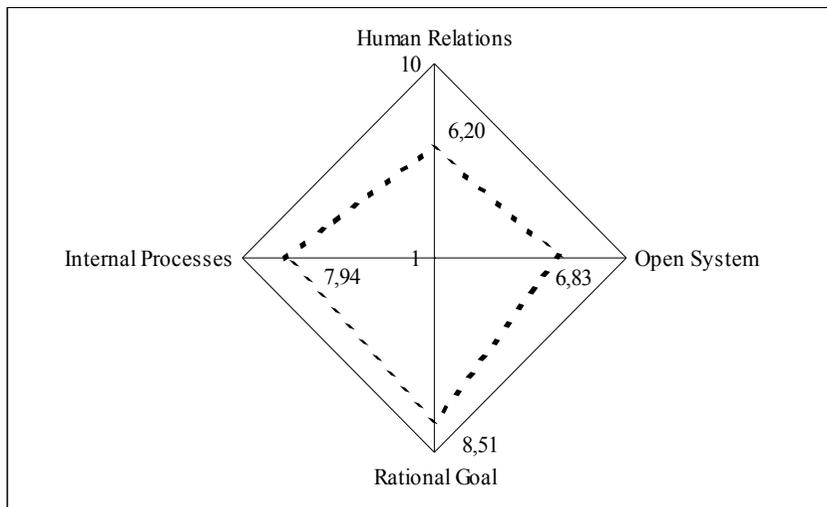
2.2.2. The results for organizational culture and its relationship with emotional intelligence

In order to find perceived OC profiles for Estonian service organizations, prisons (samples PRISON1 and PRISON2) are excluded from the analysis because these are public organizations with a different set-up and mission from private organizations. The activities in prison have a significantly different character, and the perceptions of OC by prison employees cannot be comparable with service organizations in the private sector. The analysis now only focuses on private businesses involved in service provision. The mean values were computed for the OVQ scales for all service organizations. The results are presented in table 36 and figure 32.

Table 36. The perceptions of types of OC in service organizations

| <i>Types of OC</i> | <i>n</i> | <i>m</i> | <i>SD</i> |
|--------------------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Human Relations | 593 | 6.20 | 1.72 |
| Rational Goal | 586 | 8.51 | 1.33 |
| Open System | 549 | 6.83 | 1.78 |
| Internal Processes | 576 | 7.94 | 1.55 |

Note: Sample HOTEL is excluded from analysis due to the lack of data concerning OC; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); m – mean values; SD – standard deviation.



Note: OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate)

Figure 32. Perceptions of OC in service organizations

Stemming from the descriptive analysis it could be stated that respondents perceived the most dominant type of OC in Estonian service organizations as the Rational Goal type, followed by the Internal Processes type of OC. Respondents perceived the less dominant types to be the Open System and Human Relations types of OC. In order to find out how the mean values of the OVQ scales differ from each other, a t-test was implemented. All types of OC significantly differ from one another (the t-statistic varies from $|8.48|$ to $|27.62|$, $p=0.000$). It could be concluded that proposition **2.1.1.A** stating that the **employees of Estonian service organizations perceive organizational culture to have dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC** is partly supported. Only the Rational Goal type of OC is perceived as predominant in Estonian service organizations and the Human Relations type is the least represented.

In table 37 correlations between estimations of types of OC are calculated. Estimations of all types of OC are positively and significantly correlated with each other; only the strength of the relationships is different. This means that higher assessments of one type of OC will accompany higher assessments of another type of OC. The strongest correlations could be found between estimations of the Open System and Internal Processes, Open System and Rational Goal, Open System and Human Relations and Rational Goal and Internal Processes types. Weaker correlations could be found between estimations of the Human Relations and Rational Goal, and Human Relations and Internal Processes. Thus, proposition **2.1.1.B** that the **perceived estimations of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are correlated in Estonian service organizations** is supported.

Table 37. Correlations between Types of OC

| <i>Types of OC</i> | | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---------------------------|------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Human Relations</i> | r | 1.00 | | | |
| | Sig. | | | | |
| | n | 898 | | | |
| <i>Open System</i> | r | .56** | 1.00 | | |
| | Sig. | .00 | | | |
| | n | 853 | 875 | | |
| <i>Rational Goal</i> | r | .35** | .47** | 1.00 | |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | | |
| | n | 867 | 857 | 888 | |
| <i>Internal Processes</i> | r | .24** | .37** | .24** | 1.00 |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | |
| | n | 855 | 834 | 846 | 875 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

An ANOVA was implemented in order to find out what the differences are between estimations of OC in service organizations (see table 38). The LSD-test revealed the following differences between service organizations:

- respondents from STORE and ENTERT evaluated the *Human Relations* type significantly higher than respondents from SHOP, INSUR and STATION;
- respondents from SHOP and STORE evaluated the *Rational Goal* type significantly higher than respondents from SHOP, INSUR and STATION;
- respondents from ENTERT and INSUR evaluated the *Open System* type significantly lower than respondents from SHOP, STATION and STORE;
- respondents from SHOP and STATION evaluated the *Internal Processes* type significantly higher than respondents from INSUR, ENTERT and STORE;
- respondents from ENTERT evaluated the *Internal Processes* type significantly lower compared to estimations of all other respondents;
- respondents from INSUR evaluated the *Internal Processes* type significantly lower compared to respondents from SHOP, STATION and STORE.

Table 38. Differences in OC in service organizations

| Types of OC | SHOP | | STATION | | INSUR | | ENTERT | | STORE | | Results of ANOVA |
|--------------------|------|------|---------|------|-------|------|--------|------|-------|------|----------------------------|
| | m | SD | m | SD | m | SD | m | SD | m | SD | |
| Human Relations | 5.83 | 1.90 | 5.68 | 1.67 | 5.66 | 1.32 | 6.70 | 1.66 | 6.66 | 1.57 | F(4,588)=11.74; p=0.000 |
| Rational Goal | 9.07 | 0.93 | 7.96 | 1.46 | 7.86 | 1.18 | 7.79 | 1.65 | 8.85 | 1.11 | F(4,581)=27.51; p=0.000 |
| Open System | 7.17 | 1.80 | 7.28 | 1.34 | 5.57 | 1.58 | 5.44 | 1.99 | 7.27 | 1.50 | F(4,574)=28.10; p=0.000 |
| Internal Processes | 8.42 | 1.45 | 8.42 | 1.11 | 7.39 | 1.43 | 6.69 | 1.77 | 8.03 | 1.44 | F(4,571)=23.48; p=0.000 |

Note: OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate). m – mean values; SD – standard deviation.

There are significant differences in estimations of all types of OC among various service organizations. The most differences appeared in the ENTERT organization, which scored higher in perception of Human Relations and lower on Open System and Internal Processes types of OC. From the results of the analysis it is seen that the perception of OC differs in various service organizations accounting for variability within service organizations, and thus, proposition **1.2.2.B** stating that **there are significant differences in evaluations of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC among employees of service organizations** is supported. Nevertheless, it could be found that the Human Relations type of OC is least the exposed perceived type of OC with no particular pattern in terms of differences. Thus proposition **1.2.2.A** that **features of the Human Relations type of OC are perceived as predominant in service organizations** is not supported.

Emotions are considered to be an important feature of OC. In order to prove this, how the perception of the importance of emotions at work is related to types of OC was analyzed. The statement “emotions are important at work” has been correlated to estimations of types of OC (see table 39) for the entire service sample. From the analysis above it can be seen that all correlations in the entire sample are significant, but the strength of those differs. The strongest relationship was found between the perception of the importance of emotions at work and estimations of the Rational Goal type of OC. The correlations mean that the more important emotions at work are perceived, the higher the assessment of types of OC. Based on these results it is possible to state that proposition **1.2.3.A** according to which **the importance of emotions at work is significantly related to perceptions of OC types** is supported.

Table 39. Correlations between the importance of emotions at work and OC in the entire sample

| <i>Perception of importance of emotions at work/ Types of OC</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|--|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| r | .16** | .17** | .19** | .15** |
| Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| n | 571 | 560 | 565 | 559 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); the importance of emotions is evaluated in a scale from 0 (not important) to 1 (important); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In order to find out how emotion-evoking events are related to OC perceptions, open questions from the EITO questionnaire were coded and analyzed. The LSD-test shows (see table 40) significant differences between evaluations of the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC according to emotion-evoking events. The results indicate that those respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from recognition evaluated the Human Relations type of OC significantly lower than those respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from customer characteristics and customer satisfaction. Respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from customer satisfaction evaluated the Internal Processes type of OC significantly higher than those who noted that positive emotions are evoked from recognition, work relations and environment.

Table 40. Types of OC and emotion-evoking events appraised as positive

| <i>Emotion-evoking events and Types of OC*; m (n; SD)</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Work recognition</i> | 5.91 (17; 1.68) | 6.41 (17; 1.08) | 8.33 (17; 1.42) | 6.81 (16; 2.11) |
| <i>Work achievement</i> | 6.77 (23; 1.33) | 7.36 (23; 1.42) | 8.55 (22; 1.09) | 7.55 (23; 1.62) |
| <i>Work relations</i> | 6.62 (21; 1.23) | 6.55 (19; 1.89) | 8.45 (20; 1.51) | 7.26 (21; 1.28) |
| <i>Work environment</i> | 6.46 (28; 2.29) | 6.39 (28; 2.23) | 8.46 (28; 1.61) | 7.33 (27; 1.93) |
| <i>Customer satisfaction</i> | 6.88 (64; 1.44) | 6.85 (62; 1.74) | 8.68 (64; 1.31) | 8.09 (62; 1.50) |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | 7.12 (30; 1.55) | 6.88 (31; 2.15) | 8.66 (31; 1.02) | 7.82 (27; 1.46) |
| <i>Total</i> | 6.72 (183; 1.62) | 6.78 (180; 1.83) | 8.57 (182; 1.31) | 7.65 (176; 1.65) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA</i> | F(5,177)=1.54; p<0.05 | N/s | N/s | F(5,170)=2.31; p<0.05 |

Note: * OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); m – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – no significant differences.

The results show that there are significant differences in the perceived three types of OC (Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes) according to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative (see table 41). Those respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from managerial activities perceived the Human Relations type of OC lower than those respondents who noted that work relations, customer characteristics and customer dissatisfaction evoked negative emotions. In the same manner, respondents who noted that work arrangement evoked negative emotions gave significantly lower estimates for the Human Relations type of OC than those respondents who noted that customer characteristics and customer dissatisfaction evoked negative emotions. Those respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from customer dissatisfaction gave higher estimates for the Open System type of OC than those who noted negative emotions being evoked from managerial activities and customer characteristics. Respondents who think that negative emotions are evoked from managerial activities estimated the Open System type of OC significantly lower than those who think that negative emotions are evoked from work relations and customer dissatisfaction. Those respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from customer dissatisfaction gave higher estimates for the Internal Processes type of OC than those who noted negative emotions being evoked from managerial activities, work arrangement and customer characteristics.

Table 41. Types of OC and emotion-evoking events appraised as negative

| <i>Emotion-evoking events and Types of OC*; m (n; SD)</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Managerial activities</i> | 5.64 (25; 1.67) | 6.18 (24; 1.94) | 8.72 (24; 1.18) | 7.05 (25; 1.84) |
| <i>Work relations</i> | 6.65 (49; 1.62) | 7.05 (48; 1.44) | 8.62 (48; 1.38) | 7.68 (49; 1.56) |
| <i>Work arrangement</i> | 6.28 (26; 1.33) | 6.82 (24; 1.44) | 8.47 (25; 1.40) | 7.34 (26; 1.90) |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | 7.02 (70; 1.56) | 6.52 (69; 2.06) | 8.52 (69; 1.28) | 7.55 (66; 1.68) |
| <i>Customer dissatisfaction</i> | 7.44 (15; 1.23) | 7.59 (15; 1.39) | 8.49 (15; 1.49) | 8.51 (15; 1.15) |
| <i>Service employee's activities</i> | 6.75 (4; 1.88) | 6.52 (5; 2.67) | 7.92 (5; 1.63) | 8.87 (3; 0.31) |
| <i>Total</i> | 6.67 (189; 1.61) | 6.73 (186; 1.81) | 8.55 (187; 1.33) | 7.59 (184; 1.68) |
| <i>Results of ANOVA</i> | F(5,183)=4.01; p<0.01 | F(5,180)=1.69; p<0.05 | N/s | F(5,178)=1.96; p<0.05 |

Note: * OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); m – mean values; SD – standard deviation; N/S – no significant differences.

Correlations were found between estimations of types of OC and emotion-evoking events (see table 42). The results of the correlation analysis show that in terms of emotion-evoking events appraised as positive, two significant correlations were revealed: those respondents who think that recognition evokes positive emotions give lower estimates to the Human Relations type; those respondents who think that positive emotions are evoked from customer satisfaction give higher estimations to the Internal Processes type of OC.

Table 42. Correlations between perceptions of OC and emotion-evoking events appraised as positive

| <i>Emotion-evoking events / Types of OC</i> | | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---|--------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Work recognition</i> | ρ | -.15* | -.12 | -.06 | -.12 |
| | Sig. | .04 | .12 | .39 | .10 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |
| <i>Work achievement</i> | ρ | .02 | .12 | -.04 | -.04 |
| | Sig. | .81 | .11 | .58 | .64 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |
| <i>Work relations</i> | ρ | -.03 | -.04 | -.01 | -.12 |
| | Sig. | .65 | .56 | .89 | .10 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |
| <i>Work environment</i> | ρ | -.06 | -.07 | .01 | -.07 |
| | Sig. | .42 | .32 | .88 | .37 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |
| <i>Customer satisfaction</i> | ρ | .06 | .03 | .08 | .21** |
| | Sig. | .45 | .67 | .25 | .01 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | ρ | .12 | .05 | -.02 | .03 |
| | Sig. | .12 | .49 | .73 | .68 |
| | n | 183 | 180 | 182 | 176 |

Note: ρ – Spearman correlation coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Concerning emotion-evoking events appraised as negative, three significant correlations were found (see table 43): those respondents who think that negative emotions are evoked from managerial activities give lower estimations for the Human Relations type of OC; respondents who think that negative emotions are evoked from customer characteristics give higher estimations for the Human Relations type of OC; respondents who think that negative emotions are evoked from customer dissatisfaction give higher estimations for the Internal Processes type of OC.

Table 43. Correlations between perceptions of OC and emotion-evoking events appraised as negative

| | | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|--------------------------------------|--------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Managerial activities</i> | ρ | -.23** | -.11 | .05 | -.13 |
| | Sig. | .00 | .13 | .53 | .07 |
| | n | 189 | 186 | 187 | 184 |
| <i>Work relations</i> | ρ | .00 | .08 | .05 | .02 |
| | Sig. | .94 | .25 | .53 | .79 |
| | n | 189 | 186 | 187 | 184 |
| <i>Work arrangement</i> | ρ | -.10 | -.01 | -.01 | -.04 |
| | Sig. | .16 | .86 | .93 | .61 |
| | n | 189 | 186 | 187 | 184 |
| <i>Customer characteristics</i> | ρ | .14* | -.07 | -.05 | -.02 |
| | Sig. | .05 | .37 | .49 | .83 |
| | n | 189 | 186 | 187 | 184 |
| <i>Customer dissatisfaction</i> | ρ | .14 | .13 | .01 | .16* |
| | Sig. | .06 | .07 | .88 | .03 |
| | n | 189 | 186 | 187 | 184 |
| <i>Service employee's activities</i> | ρ | .02 | .00 | -.08 | .11 |
| | Sig. | .75 | .95 | .30 | .13 |
| | n | 188 | 185 | 186 | 183 |

Note: ρ – Spearman correlation coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The statement “going on at work evokes positive emotions” has been correlated to types of OC (see table 44). The results of the analysis show that estimations of all types of OC significantly correlate with the positive/negative evaluations about work, meaning that the more positively the respondents think about what is going on at work, the higher he/she perceives all types of OC (or the higher the respondent evaluates types of OC, the more positively he/she thinks about what is going on at work).

Table 44. Correlations between OC perceptions and positive/negative emotion-evoking events at work

| <i>Emotion-evoking at work/Types of OC</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|--|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| r | .24** | .27** | .10* | .14** |
| Sig. | .00 | .00 | .02 | .00 |
| n | 575 | 565 | 570 | 564 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); emotion-evoking at work is estimated on the scale from 0 (going on at work evokes negative emotions) to 6 (going on at work evokes positive emotions); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From this analysis certain patterns can be followed. Respondents who think that emotions are evoked from internal issues such as recognition, management and collegial behaviour will perceive the Human Relations type of OC differently. Respondents who think that emotions are evoked from customer-related issues such as customer satisfaction and customer behaviour will perceive the Internal Processes type of OC differently. Correlation analysis revealed a significant correlation between emotion-evoking events and estimations of two types of OC: Human Relations and Internal Processes. There is a positive and significant relationship between general emotional attitudes towards what is going on at work and the perception of types of OC. It could be concluded that proposition **1.2.3.B** which states that **types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to the perception of OC types** is partly supported because differences and relationships did not occur for all types of OC.

The correlations between EI scales and types of OC were calculated. It is possible to see from table 45 that in most cases there are weak, but significant correlations between perceptions of two concepts. There are no correlations between the estimations of EI competency of relating to others and perception of the Internal Processes type of OC. Estimations of all other EI scales and types of OC are significantly correlated, but to a low degree. The strongest positive correlations could be found between the self-assessed EI scale of relating to others and the perception of the Human Relations type of OC. The correlations mean that the higher EI is evaluated by the respondent, the higher OC was perceived.

Table 45. Correlations between EI scales and types of OC

| <i>EI scales / Types of OC</i> | | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---------------------------------------|------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | r | .11** | .11** | .23** | .21** |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| | n | 852 | 836 | 849 | 835 |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | r | .24** | .24** | .21** | .19** |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| | n | 850 | 835 | 846 | 830 |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | r | .15** | .11** | .17** | .14** |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | .00 |
| | n | 860 | 845 | 857 | 841 |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | r | .29** | .15** | .16** | -.03 |
| | Sig. | .00 | .00 | .00 | .38 |
| | n | 870 | 851 | 864 | 850 |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; sig. – significance (2-tailed); n–sample size; EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The correlations between estimations of EI and OC in separate organizations were also calculated (see table 46). The patterns of relationships are rather diverse. There are two organizations (SHOP and STORE) where more significant correlations occur between self-assessed EI competencies and perceived types of OC. In all other organizations there are less correlations. The greatest relationship was revealed in the EI competency of managing one's own emotions (16 significant relationships), then in the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others (11 significant relationships), finishing with the EI competency of relating to others (3 significant relationships).

It is possible to conclude that proposition 1.2.4.C stating that **evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC, a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC** is partly supported because the relationships exist, but the part about the strength of the relationship does not hold for the correlations between estimations of EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions and perception of Human Relations, Open System and Rational Goal types of OC (all had low correlations). For the relationship between the estimations of EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions and perception of the Internal Processes type of OC the low correlation indicates that the proposition is supported. Still there are variations in the relationships between estimations of EI and OC between service organizations, meaning that in some organizations the relationships revealed to a greater extent and in some organizations to a lesser extent.

A similar result could be concluded for proposition 1.2.4.D according to which the **evaluations of the EI competency of empathizing with others and relating to others have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC; a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type; and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Process type of OC** showing that it is partly supported. There is a relationship between estimations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others, but the correlations are low. It was proposed that the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others have an insignificant or low correlation with perception of the Internal Processes type of OC and this part of the proposition was supported.

Table 46. Correlations between EI scales and types of OC according to organizations

| <i>EI scales / Types of OC</i> | | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---|----------------|----------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | r=0.22(**) (p=0.01) | r=0.29** (p=0.00) | r=0.41** (p=0.00) | r=0.28** (p=0.00) |
| | <i>STATION</i> | r=-0.15 (p=0.58) | r=-0.10 (p=0.36) | r=0.40** (p=0.00) | r=0.28** (p=0.01) |
| | <i>INSUR</i> | r=0.04 (p=0.74) | r=-0.07 (p=0.57) | r=-0.05 (p=0.72) | r=0.09 (p=0.47) |
| | <i>ENTERT</i> | r=0.14 (p=0.24) | r=0.03 (p=0.81) | r=0.17 (p=0.15) | r=0.31** (p=0.01) |
| | <i>STORE</i> | r=0.14* (p=0.04) | r=0.17* (p=0.02) | r=0.17* (p=0.02) | r=0.19** (p=0.01) |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | r=0.24** (p=0.01) | r=0.31** (p=0.00) | r=0.37** (p=0.00) | r=0.27** (p=0.00) |
| | <i>STATION</i> | r=0.14 (p=0.20) | r=0.36** (p=0.00) | r=0.23* (p=0.03) | r=0.32** (p=0.00) |
| | <i>INSUR</i> | r=0.16 (p=0.19) | r=0.10 (p=0.42) | r=0.13 (p=0.30) | r=0.26* (p=0.04) |
| | <i>ENTERT</i> | r=0.29** (p=0.01) | r=0.34** (p=0.00) | r=0.41** (p=0.00) | r=0.26* (p=0.03) |
| | <i>STORE</i> | r=0.41** (p=0.00) | r=0.39** (p=0.00) | r=0.21** (p=0.00) | r=0.32** (p=0.00) |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | r=0.17* (p=0.04) | r=0.21** (p=0.01) | r=0.27** (p=0.01) | r=0.17* (p=0.04) |
| | <i>STATION</i> | r=0.22* (p=0.04) | r=0.18 (p=0.08) | r=0.28** (p=0.01) | r=0.19 (p=0.08) |
| | <i>INSUR</i> | r=-0.21 (p=0.10) | r=-0.19 (p=0.14) | r=-0.04 (p=0.76) | r=0.03 (p=0.80) |
| | <i>ENTERT</i> | r=0.03 (p=0.76) | r=0.19 (p=0.12) | r=0.28* (p=0.02) | r=0.30** (p=0.01) |
| | <i>STORE</i> | r=0.28** (p=0.00) | r=0.17** (p=0.01) | r=0.03 (p=0.67) | r=0.19** (p=0.01) |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | <i>SHOP</i> | r=0.27** (p=0.00) | r=0.16 (p=0.07) | r=0.01 (p=0.88) | r=0.04 (p=0.68) |
| | <i>STATION</i> | r=0.34** (p=0.00) | r=0.19 (p=0.07) | r=0.19 (p=0.07) | r=-0.01 (p=0.97) |
| | <i>INSUR</i> | r=0.17 (p=0.18) | r=0.18 (p=0.14) | r=-0.12 (p=0.35) | r=-0.10 (p=0.47) |
| | <i>ENTERT</i> | r=0.03 (p=0.76) | r=-0.05 (p=0.70) | r=0.02 (p=0.84) | r=-0.01 (p=0.92) |
| | <i>STORE</i> | r=0.36** (p=0.00) | r=0.11 (p=0.11) | r=-0.04 (p=0.60) | r=0.06 (p=0.42) |

Note: r – Pearson Correlation Coefficient; EI estimations are given in a scale from 0 (the lowest rate) to 6 (the highest rate); OC estimations are given in a scale from 1 (the lowest rate) to 10 (the highest rate); ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

In order to identify the predictors of EI competencies for Estonian service organization employees, a linear regression was implemented. Four regression models were compiled with the four EI competencies (identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others, relating to others) as dependent variables. The following were chosen as independent variables: the four types of OC (Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal, Internal Processes), gender, ethnic affiliation, age, position and education. The exploration of the data revealed that estimations of EI competencies and types of OC are not normally distributed, but taking the square root of the data did not dramatically improve the normal distribution (see appendix 8 for a comparison of the normal distribution curves for the original data and the transformed data), thus it was decided to omit the original data. The linear regression is a suitable method for exploring the interconnections of the concepts under investigation because it enables to find the general impacts between the variables and obtain optimal use of the data. In order to eliminate the possibility that there is non-linearity in the variables, the model was composed so that all non-metric variables were represented in the model as a single base for hypothesis testing. The regression equation was compiled as follows:

$$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \beta_4 X_4 + \beta_5 D_1 + \beta_6 D_2 + \beta_7 D_3 + \beta_8 D_4 + \beta_9 D_5 + \beta_{10} D_6 + \beta_{11} D_7 + \beta_{12} D_8 + \beta_{13} D_9 + \beta_{14} D_{10} + \beta_{15} D_{11} + \beta_{16} D_{12} + \beta_{17} D_{13} + \beta_{18} D_{14} + \beta_{19} D_{15} + u_i$$

Y_i EI competency; $i=1$ EI competency of identifying one's own emotions; $i=2$ EI competency of managing one's own emotions; $i=3$ EI competency of empathizing with others; $i=4$ EI competency of relating to others

β_0 constant

β_{1-19} regression coefficient

X_1 Open System OC type

X_2 Human Relations OC type

X_3 Rational Goal OC type

X_4 Internal Processes OC type

D_1 ethnic affiliation (0=Estonian; 1=Russian-speaking)

D_2 age (0=all other age groups; 1= under 20)

D_3 age (0=all other age groups; 1=21–30)

D_4 age (0=all other age groups; 1=31–40)

D_5 age (0=all other age groups; 1=41–50)

D_6 age (0=all other age groups; 1=over 51)

D_7 gender (0=male; 1=female)

D_8 education (0=all other education; 1= primary education)

D_9 education (0=all other education; 1= secondary education)

D_{10} education (0=all other education; 1= vocational education)

D_{11} education (0=all other education; 1= higher education)

D_{12} position (0=all other positions; 1=top manager)

D_{13} position (0=all other positions; 1=middle manager)

D_{14} position (0=all other positions; 1=specialist)

D_{15} position (0=all other positions; 1=service providers)

u_i random variable

Model 1: The EI competency of identifying one's own emotions

The first model shows what the predictors are for the self-reported level of the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions. The variation (12.9%) in the EI scale is explained by the variables included in the model (R Square = 0.129; n=603). The significance value of the F statistic (F=5.44) is 0.000, which means that the variation explained by the model is not due to chance. The Durbin-Watson test indicates that there is no correlation of the residuals (Durbin-Watson=2.02). Collinearity diagnostics indicate that there is no multicollinearity in the sense that the intercorrelation between the independent variables is small ($1.1 < \text{VIF} < 2.1$). The Glejser test shows that no variable has a significant effect on the residual value, thereby the regression model is free from heteroscedasticity (model $\ln_{res} = -0.04 - 0.43 \ln_{pre}$ is not significant $p=0.53$). The variables in the model are presented in table 47.

Table 47. Variables in the model: the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>Standard error</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>Confidence interval lower</i> | <i>Confidence interval higher</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Constant | 2.45 | .257 | 9.759 | .000 | 2.007 | 3.018 |
| OC: Open System | -.030 | .027 | -1.098 | .273 | -.084 | .024 |
| OC: Human Relations | .002 | .026 | .082 | .935 | -.049 | .053 |
| OC: Rational Goal | .091** | .024 | 3.852 | .000 | .045 | .137 |
| OC: Internal Processes | .126** | .026 | 4.889 | .000 | .076 | .177 |
| Ethnic affiliation | .266** | .101 | 2.621 | .009 | .067 | .465 |
| Age: up to 20 | -.448 | .269 | -1.668 | .096 | -.976 | .079 |
| Age: 21-30 | -.020 | .099 | -.202 | .840 | -.215 | .174 |
| Age: 41-50 | -.045 | .096 | -.465 | .642 | -.233 | .144 |
| Age: over 51 | .192* | .111 | 1.734 | .083 | -.026 | .410 |
| Gender | .339 | .088 | 3.836 | .000 | .166 | .513 |
| Education: primary | .087 | .102 | .854 | .394 | -.113 | .287 |
| Education: secondary | .035 | .087 | .408 | .683 | -.135 | .206 |
| Education: higher | .002 | .232 | .008 | .993 | -.453 | .457 |
| Position: top manager | .175 | .346 | .506 | .613 | -.504 | .854 |
| Position: middle manager | -.084 | .121 | -.693 | .488 | -.320 | .153 |
| Position: specialist | -.107 | .096 | -1.111 | .267 | -.296 | .082 |

Note: Excluded variables: age 31-40; education vocational; position service provider.
 ** Relationship is significant at the 0.01 level; * Relationship is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the linear regression analysis show that:

- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of identifying one’s own emotions will increase by 0.09 points when the respondents estimations of the Rational Goal OC type increases by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of identifying one’s own emotions will increase by 0.13 points when the respondents estimations for the Internal Processes OC type increases by one point in the scale
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of identifying one’s own emotions will increase by 0.27 points if the respondent is a Russian-speaker;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of identifying one’s own emotions will increase by 0.34 points if the respondent is a woman.

Model 2: The EI competency of managing one’s own emotions

The second model shows what the predictors are of the self-reported level for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions. The variation (17.7%) in the OC is explained by the variables included in the model (R Square = 0.177; n=596). The significance value of the F statistic (F=7.78) is 0.000, which means that the variation explained by the model is not due to chance. The Durbin-Watson test indicates that there is no correlation of the residuals (Durbin-Watson=2.11). Collinearity diagnostics indicate that there is no multicollinearity in the sense that intercorrelation between independent variables is small ($1.1 < VIF < 2.0$). The Glejser test shows that no variable has a significant effect on the residual value, thereby the regression model is free from heteroscedasticity (model $lnres = -1.27 + 0.22lnpre$ is not significant $p = 0.76$). The variables in the model are presented in table 48.

Table 48. Variables in the model: the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>Standard error</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>Confidence interval lower</i> | <i>Confidence interval higher</i> |
|------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Constant | 3.166 | .245 | 12.907 | .000 | 2.685 | 3.648 |
| OC: Open System | .030 | .025 | 1.213 | .226 | -.019 | .079 |
| OC: Human Relations | .069** | .024 | 2.900 | .004 | .022 | .116 |
| OC: Rational Goal | .071** | .022 | 3.221 | .001 | .028 | .114 |
| OC: Internal Processes | .038 | .024 | 1.602 | .110 | -.009 | .086 |
| Ethnic affiliation | .127 | .096 | 1.325 | .186 | -.061 | .314 |
| Age: up to 20 | -.309 | .268 | -1.153 | .250 | -.835 | .218 |
| Age: 21–30 | -.084 | .092 | -.916 | .360 | -.264 | .096 |
| Age: 41–50 | .103 | .088 | 1.169 | .243 | -.070 | .277 |
| Age: over 51 | .274** | .102 | 2.673 | .008 | .073 | .475 |
| Gender | .069 | .082 | .840 | .401 | -.092 | .229 |

Table 48. Continued

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>Standard error</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>Confidence interval lower</i> | <i>Confidence interval higher</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Education: primary | -.218* | .093 | -2.338 | .020 | -.401 | -.035 |
| Education: vocational | -.136 | .081 | -1.690 | .092 | -.294 | .022 |
| Education: higher | .193 | .206 | .939 | .348 | -.211 | .598 |
| Position: top manager | .245 | .319 | .769 | .442 | -.381 | .871 |
| Position: middle manager | .084 | .111 | .760 | .447 | -.133 | .302 |
| Position: specialist | -.272* | .089 | -3.044 | .002 | -.448 | -.097 |

Note: Excluded variables: age 31–40; education secondary; position service provider.
 ** Relationship is significant at the 0.01 level; * Relationship is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the linear regression analysis show that:

- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions will increase by 0.07 points when the respondent’s estimations for the Human Relations OC type increase by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions will increase by 0.07 points when the respondent’s estimations for the Rational Goal OC type increase by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions will increase by 0.27 if the respondent is over 51 years old;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions will decrease by 0.22 points if the respondent has a primary education;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of managing one’s own emotions will decrease by 0.27 if the respondent is a specialist.

Model 3: The EI competency of empathizing with others

The third model shows what the predictors are for respondents for the self-reported level of the EI competency of empathy. The variation (11.7%) in OC is explained by the variables included in the model (R Square = 0.117; n=606). The significance value of the F statistic (F=4.90) is 0.000, which means that the variation explained by the model is not due to chance. The Durbin-Watson test indicates that there is no correlation of the residuals (Durbin-Watson=1.85). Collinearity diagnostics indicate that there is no multicollinearity in the sense that intercorrelation between independent variables is small (1.1<VIF<2.0). The Glejser test shows that no variable has a significant effect on residual value, thereby the regression model is free from heteroscedasticity (model $\lnres=0.38-0.80\lnpre$ is not significant $p=0.30$). The variables in the model are presented in table 49.

Table 49. Variables in the model: the EI competency of empathizing with others

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>Standard error</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>Confidence interval lower</i> | <i>Confidence interval higher</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Constant | 2.647 | .263 | 10.054 | .000 | 2.130 | 3.165 |
| OC: Open System | -.025 | .027 | -.911 | .362 | -.079 | .029 |
| OC: Human Relations | .035 | .026 | 1.327 | .185 | -.017 | .086 |
| OC: Rational Goal | .045 | .024 | 1.883 | .060 | -.002 | .093 |
| OC: Internal Processes | .088** | .026 | 3.352 | .001 | .036 | .140 |
| Ethnic affiliation | .267** | .104 | 2.564 | .011 | .063 | .472 |
| Age: up to 20 | -.226 | .275 | -.821 | .412 | -.765 | .314 |
| Age: 21–30 | -.082 | .101 | -.813 | .417 | -.280 | .116 |
| Age: 41–50 | .018 | .098 | .181 | .857 | -.175 | .211 |
| Age: over 51 | .285* | .113 | 2.517 | .012 | .063 | .507 |
| Gender | .439** | .090 | 4.868 | .000 | .262 | .615 |
| Education: primary | .221* | .104 | 2.119 | .035 | .016 | .426 |
| Education: secondary | .140 | .089 | 1.578 | .115 | -.034 | .314 |
| Education: higher | .074 | .230 | .322 | .748 | -.378 | .526 |
| Position: top manager | .447 | .354 | 1.263 | .207 | -.248 | 1.141 |
| Position: middle manager | .118 | .123 | .962 | .336 | -.123 | .360 |
| Position: specialist | -.071 | .098 | -.724 | .469 | -.264 | .122 |

Note: Excluded variables: age 31–40; education vocational; position specialist. ** Relationship is significant at the 0.01 level; * Relationship is significant at the 0.05 level (2–tailed).

The results of the linear regression analysis show that:

- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of empathizing with others will increase by 0.09 points when the respondent's estimations of Internal Processes OC type will increase by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of empathizing with others will increase by 0.27 points if the respondent is a Russian-speaker;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of empathizing with others will increase by 0.28 points if the respondent is over 51 years old;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of empathizing with others will increase by 0.44 points if the respondent is a woman;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of empathizing with others will increase by 0.22 points if the respondent has primary education.

Model 4: The EI competency of relating to others

The fourth model shows what the predictors are for respondents for the self-reported level of the EI competency of relating to others. The variation (12.5%) in OC is explained by the variables included in the model (R Square = 0.125; n=611). The significance value of the F statistic (F=5.32) is 0.000, which means that the variation explained by the model is not due to chance. The Durbin-Watson test indicates that there is no correlation of the residuals (Durbin-Watson=1.91). Collinearity diagnostics indicate that there is no multicollinearity in the sense that intercorrelation between independent variables is small ($1.1 < VIF < 2.0$). The Glejser test shows that no variable has a significant effect on residual value, thereby the regression model is free from heteroscedasticity (model $lnres = 0.22 - 0.81lnpre$ is not significant $p = 0.09$). The variables in the model are presented in table 50.

Table 50. Variables in the model: the EI competency of relating to others

| <i>Variables</i> | <i>Coefficient</i> | <i>Standard error</i> | <i>t</i> | <i>p</i> | <i>Confidence interval lower</i> | <i>Confidence interval higher</i> |
|--------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|----------|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Constant | 1.938 | .326 | 5.948 | .000 | 1.298 | 2.578 |
| OC: Open System | .010 | .034 | .279 | .780 | -.057 | .076 |
| OC: Human Relations | .165** | .032 | 5.065 | .000 | .101 | .228 |
| OC: Rational Goal | .048 | .030 | 1.614 | .107 | -.010 | .106 |
| OC: Internal Processes | -.080* | .032 | -2.463 | .014 | -.144 | -.016 |
| Ethnic affiliation | .246 | .128 | 1.920 | .055 | -.006 | .499 |
| Age: up to 20 | .150 | .340 | .442 | .659 | -.518 | .819 |
| Age: 21–30 | .108 | .125 | .859 | .391 | -.138 | .354 |
| Age: 41–50 | -.021 | .121 | -.171 | .864 | -.258 | .217 |
| Age: over 51 | .141 | .139 | 1.019 | .309 | -.131 | .414 |
| Gender | .208 | .111 | 1.868 | .062 | -.011 | .426 |
| Education: primary | -.057 | .129 | -.440 | .660 | -.311 | .197 |
| Education: secondary | -.159 | .109 | -1.459 | .145 | -.373 | .055 |
| Education: higher | .042 | .278 | .152 | .879 | -.503 | .588 |
| Position: top manager | .751 | .438 | 1.713 | .087 | -.110 | 1.612 |
| Position: middle manager | .367* | .151 | 2.426 | .016 | .070 | .665 |
| Position: specialist | -.021 | .121 | -.173 | .863 | -.259 | .217 |

Note: Excluded variables: age 31–40; education vocational; position specialist. ** Relationship is significant at the 0.01 level; * Relationship is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of the linear regression analysis show that:

- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of relating to others will increase by 0.16 points when the respondent's estimations for the Human Relations OC type increase by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of relating to others will decrease by 0.08 points when the respondent's estimations for the Internal Processes OC type increase by one point in the scale;
- self-assessed estimations for the EI competency of relating to others will increase by 0.37 points if the respondent is a middle manager.

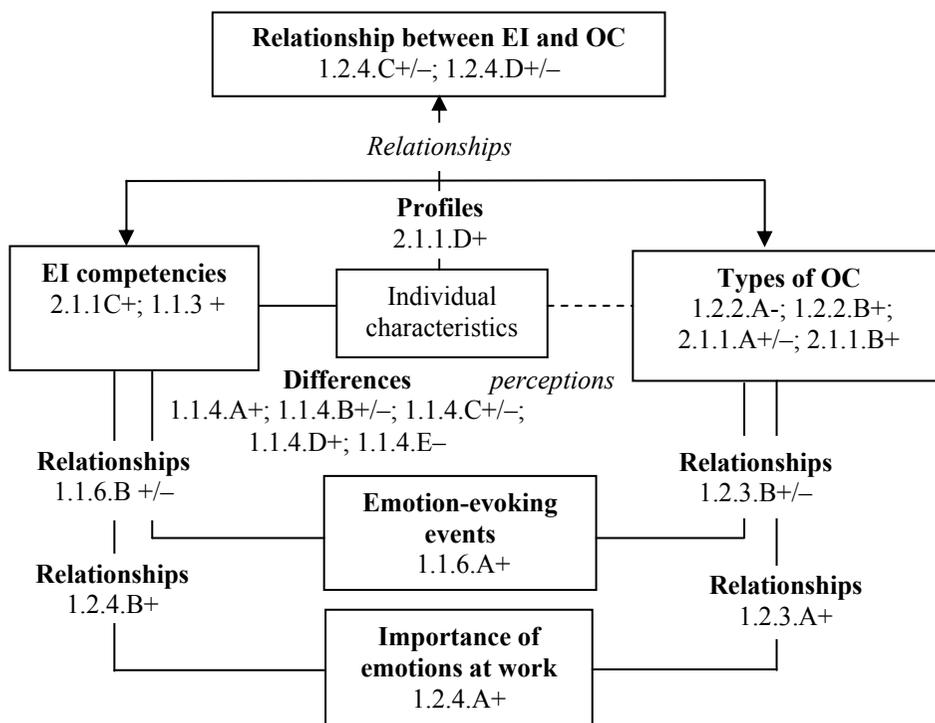
The regression analysis revealed certain patterns of predictors for employees' EI competencies. Predictors for the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions is being a Russian-speaking woman who values features of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC. Predictors for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions is being a woman, over 51 years old, having primary education, and being a specialist valuing features of the Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC. Predictors for the EI competency of empathizing with others is being a Russian-speaking, woman, over 51 years old, having primary education, and valuing features of the Internal Processes type of OC. Finally, predictors for the EI competency of relating to others is being a middle manager, valuing features of the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC. Thus, proposition **P 3.1.1.D** that **there are certain predictors of occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age and perceptions of types of OC for EI competencies for Estonian service organization employees** is supported.

In the next chapter of the dissertation, the results of the study are going to be discussed in light of the propositions. Managerial and developmental implications will help to realize how the results of the study could be applied in practice. The dissertation's contribution will be presented on two levels – in terms of general research and research within the context of Estonian services.

2.3. Discussion and implications of the study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture in Estonian service organizations

2.3.1. The correspondence of the propositions and discussion¹¹

There were three sets of propositions on two levels formulated for this study. The first set of propositions focused on EI, the second on OC and the third on the relationships between EI and OC. The first dimension of propositions (propositions starting with numbers 1 and 2) was about general research settings with the results contributing to the theory, and the second dimension of propositions (propositions starting with number 3) was about Estonian service organizations. In the present subchapter of the dissertation propositions' correspondence with results is checked and the results of the study are discussed. In figure 33, the propositions are presented in one framework with



Note: numbers indicate proposition's number (see subchapter 2.1.2); "+" means that proposition is supported, "+/-" – proposition is partly supported, "-" – proposition is not supported.

Figure 33. The correspondence of study propositions

¹¹ All tables and figures in the present sub chapter are composed by the author of the dissertation if not indicated as coming from other sources.

the signs that refer to whether the propositions were confirmed. Further on in the subchapter the results of the study are summarized and discussed.

Emotional Intelligence

Self-reported level of EI competencies

Emotional intelligence was considered in terms of a set of four competencies that play an important role in organizational settings. The four EI competencies are identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others. In general it was found that the highest self-assessment was given to the competency of managing one's own emotions, followed by identifying one's own emotions, empathizing with others and the lowest self-assessments were given to the competency of relating to others. The self-reported estimations for the EI competency of relating to others has the highest deviation, meaning that respondents' opinions varied the most. Thus, the proposition that service employees assess their EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others below average in Estonian companies is supported.

Research into the EI competencies of service organizations workers in Estonia is very limited. Herein some evidence has been gathered that will help to understand the current situation. While analyzing interviews taken from the best Estonian service providers (the awards are held by the Estonian Society of Excellent Service) there were interesting remarks about what it takes to be a successful service employee. The bank teller, K. Jasinski, who was elected the best Estonian service provider in 2009, explains that in order to be the best it is necessary to be self-aware, to have positive attitude, to desire to provide the best service for the customer, and to constantly develop competencies (Intervjuu Eesti parima..., 2010). He continues that in interactions with customers it is necessary to be natural, interested in the customer, focus on the customer's wishes and needs, and smile in order to change the customer's life for the better. The interview conducted with Estonian businessman, P. Fisk, reflects the opinion that a good service provider needs to be able to guess the customer's feelings and know what the customer wants – whether the customer is in the mood for joking and chatting or wants to get fast service (Intervjuu Genius Works'i..., 2010). The research company, Dive Estonia, found in their study that the weakest part of the service provision was related to the direct interactions with the customer at the end of the contact where the service providers lack the elementary skills of saying good-bye or just finished by turning away from the customer, starting to deal with another customer or continuing with his or her own things without saying a word (Uuringufirma Dive Eesti..., 2010). It seems that in Estonian service organizations it is understood that intra- and interpersonal competencies are important in service provision, but there is still a lack in terms of the ability to interact with a customer in the required way. Chrusciel (2006) claims that it is not enough only

to be able to evaluate one's own emotional state at the given time, but also to evaluate the emotional state of the customer and once this is accomplished, the objective is to strengthen and to exploit the emotions of the situation in order to have a quality exchange. In the present study the EI competencies of service organization employees have been evaluated, not towards customers, but it could be suggested that the EI competencies that are manifested at certain levels towards colleagues are also projected towards customer relations.

The relationships between self-reported EI competencies

In the theory about EI it was clearly obvious that EI competencies are related to each other. The results of the study show that there is a positive relationship ranging from weak to strong (see table 51). It is said that the better the person can identify his or her own emotions the better the precondition for all other EI competencies. The present results indicate that the better the person thinks he/she is at identifying his or her own emotions the higher the self-reported scores for managing one's own emotions, empathy and relating to others. Lopes *et al* (2004) found in their research that MSCEIT subscales were positively correlated (ranging from 0.20 to 0.41, $p < 0.05$) as they expected for an interrelated set of abilities, with one exception: the correlation between perceiving and managing one's own emotions. There are also theoretical arguments about EI competencies being related to each other (e.g. Morris, Casey, 2006; Sala, 2006; Hughes *et al*, 2005; Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002; Goleman, 2001B; Lane, 2000), which have found empirical evidence within the present study and the proposition about the relationships between EI competencies is supported.

Table 51. Correlations between EI competencies

| <i>EI competencies</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | – | – | – | – |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | moderate | – | – | – |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | high | moderate | – | – |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | low | low | moderate | – |

The perception of the importance of emotions at work

Emotional intelligence is an important competency for service organization workers, but there is a question about how important emotions are considered in the organization in general. Putnam and Mumby (1993) elaborate that emotion is a value-laden concept, which is often treated as 'inappropriate' for organizational life – emotional reactions are often seen as 'disruptive', 'biased' and 'weak'. Thus, for a long period, emotions have not been included in

organizational research because they are considered to be not as important as rational conditions. After all, the present study provided a trivial overview of what employees think about the importance of emotions at work. The results of the study indicate that respondents consider emotions rather important at work, but there was considerable variation in estimations according to the service organizations studied. In three organizations (retail shop, store and entertainment facility) the respondents thought that emotions were more important than did the members of other organizations. In the insurance company, the respondents considered emotions significantly less important than in other organizations. Despite the fact that emotions are considered to be rather important at work there is some variation among the service organizations studied, which refers to the fact that understanding about the importance of emotions at work is not plain and straightforward, but entails yet unrevealed peculiarities. Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) bring out three areas where emotions have applications in organizations: motivation, leadership and group dynamics. They explain that the process of fostering changes in an organization by building commitment largely depends on the evocation, framing, and mobilization of emotions, whereas leadership depends more upon the subordinates' cognitions. This indicates that emotions are rather applicable at work and there are certain areas where emotions could be explored in a deeper manner.

The relationship between self-reported EI competencies and perceptions of the importance of emotions at work

Connections were found between perceptions of the importance of emotions at work and EI competencies. There is a significant positive and moderate relationship between self-reported EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and evaluations of the importance of emotions at work. Results indicate that there is a significant positive, but weak relationship between the perceived importance of emotions at work and the self-reported EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions. These relationships mean that the more important emotions are considered at work the higher the self-assessment of EI competencies (and likewise – the higher the self-assessments of EI competencies the more important emotions are perceived). Additional analysis showed that the higher the self-reported score for EI competency, the more important emotions at work are perceived. These results indicate that the proposition about the relationships between EI competencies and the importance of emotions at work is supported. Results imply that our understanding of the role of emotions at work make a difference in opinions about competencies of dealing with our own emotions and those of others. Individuals who think that emotions are important pay more attention to their own ability to handle those emotions. Thus, it could even be proposed that understanding what the employee's attitudes towards emotions at work are could provides with clues about how individuals think about their own level of EI competencies.

Emotion-evoking events

Activities in organizations produce as well as reflect emotions (Fineman, 1993), and these activities could stipulate events serving as stimuli that cause certain emotions, positive or negative. Emotion-evoking events are related to Affective Events Theory (AET; introduced by Weiss and Cropanzano) according to which the accumulation of a succession of positive or negative affective events lead to positive or negative affective states in employees that, in turn, presage attitudinal states and behavioural responses (Ashkanasy, 2002). The service encounter triad consists of three interrelated elements: customer, service provider and service organization (Bateson, 1985). In the combination of ideas from AET and the service encounter triad, it was proposed that emotion-evoking events in service organizations appraised as negative or positive fall into three categories that are represented in the service encounter triad. After the analysis, it was found that emotion-evoking events appraised as negative fall into three categories: service organization (management, work relations, work arrangement), customer (customer behaviour and dissatisfaction) and service provider indicating insufficient competency and mistakes. Emotion-evoking events appraised as positive also fall into three categories: customer (customer behaviour, characteristics and attitudes, customer satisfaction), service organization (work recognition, relations and environment) and service provider indicating work achievements. Thus, it is possible to conclude that this proposition was supported. It is also necessary to notice that the results of the present study imply that most emotion-evoking events are related to the customer, which is rather logical in the context of service organizations. Ashkanasy (2002) claims that empirical research in AET is still under way with few publications. Within the framework of the present dissertation, a contribution is made by empirically testing which categories the emotion-evoking events fall, especially in service organizations.

The relationship between the perceptions of emotion-evoking events, emotions evoked at work and self-reported EI competencies

The next task was to find out how emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative are related to EI competencies. It was proposed that emotion-evoking events are related to intrapersonal competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions. The results indicate that there were significant differences only in one competency of EI with respect to emotion-evoking events appraised as positive, indicating that those who noted that positive emotions are evoked from recognition, evaluated their EI competency of managing one's own emotions lower. This result suggests that the person who needs more external evaluation at work is less confident in the competency of self-regulation. Respondents mostly evaluated their EI level as average; moderate self-reported levels of EI could be found for the EI competency of

managing one's own emotions for events that are related to the service organization and the service provider.

Emotion-evoking events are the stimuli that evoke certain emotions and the first step is to identify the event itself and the emotions it evokes. Here the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions is important, but empirical evidence did not support this elaboration. The explanation for this might be rooted in other factors that influence the appraisal of emotion-evoking events, for example, organizational culture. Herkenhoff (2004) claims that in the process of the awareness of an emotion-eliciting event, culture may then filter the interpretation of that awareness such that an emotion enters into the conscious awareness and culture also influences the selection of actions or behaviour as a response to the event. So, maybe it is more about the effect of culture on the process of dealing with emotion-evoking events than about EI competencies. Grönroos (2001) claims that emotions form either a filter mediating experiences of the service process, or are variables that influence the experience alongside cognitively perceived quality elements. This means that the EI competencies of the service provider might be a considerable variable in shaping the quality of the service, because it reflects the expectations of the customer concerning the service act.

The author also explored what kinds of emotions (positive vs. negative) are evoked by what is going on at work. It was found that in all organizations (except hotel where respondents felt that at work they feel significantly more positive emotions) the respondents felt that rather negative emotions are evoked at work, and in two prisons activities going on in the organization evoke significantly more negative emotions. The latter is logically explained by the sector of activities that prisons perform. In fact prisons are emotional places, and feelings of anxiety, fear, sadness, hopelessness, frustration, regret, anger, resentment and depression are commonplace (Crawley, 2004), and this makes the work for the prison staff emotionally demanding. According to the results of research by Rozell *et al* (2006), salespeople who have the traits positive and perceiving the "best" in situations, combined with being low in anger, negativity and so on, will obtain "the best performance level". But there is always the question of whether the perceptions of organizational activities stem from the "traits" of the respondents (tending to be more positive or negative), or whether there are actually activities that are more positively or negatively loaded. It seems that all this variance in results refers to the fact that there might be other contextual aspects that explain the results, and the reason might be in the character of the activities of the service organization (e.g. work in a prison is definitely more negatively loaded than work in a retail store).

The results of the correlation analysis also indicate that the higher the respondent's self-reported score on the EI competency of managing one's own emotions, the more positive the activities going on at work seem to them (low, but significant correlation). This indicates that the ability and skill to manage emotional states (by surface or deep acting) is beneficial in order to perceive

work activities in a more positive manner. Relying on the results of the study it is possible to partly confirm the proposition that EI competencies are significantly related to emotion-evoking events.

Interest here was primarily directed towards finding differences in EI estimations among respondents that differed in terms of occupation, education, ethnic affiliation, gender and age. The results are summarized in table 53 for the whole sample and separately in organizations. Matthews *et al* (2004) urges to be aware that in many instances, the interpretation of group differences, their magnitude, and likely causative factors generally remains a matter of ongoing debate. The present study is an attempt to make a considerable addition to research into group differences in EI, but as warned the interpretations should be considered cautiously.

The differences of self-reported EI competencies according to occupation

Results indicate that according to occupation specialists assessed themselves significantly lower for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions and middle managers higher for the EI competency of relating to others. Analysis in separate organizations shows that the variation possibly stems from the peculiarities of certain organizations, because the results do not duplicate those for the whole sample. Still, it seems that middle managers think that they are better at managing their emotions and relating to others, which are important competencies for managers and leaders.

It appeared that for the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions, service providers' self-reported estimations were considerably higher, and for the interpersonal orientation of EI (empathy and relating to others), significantly lower. Langhorn (2004) claims that the ability to project a happy and optimistic outlook seems to be beneficial in the development of customer satisfaction. This indicates the need to develop EI competencies (and especially the interpersonal ones).

The focus on the development of EI in occupational settings should be taken with consideration. Singh (2006) claims that having high or average levels of EI cannot simplistically be labelled as 'good' or 'bad' in a profession; it is necessary to have the right balance of various EI competencies that can help the person become a star performer, and not all professions require a high level of EI. Still, it is possible to assume that managerial professions and service employees need to have a high level of EI in order to have good working outcomes, because these positions involve interacting with other people and this influences their behaviour. Thus, it could be proposed that in Estonian service organizations, the EI of service providers and managers could be developed.

Nevertheless, the EI competency of managing one's own emotions is not easy. The theoretical part of the dissertation showed how the management of emotions is related to emotional labour. Fineman (1993) describes how a shop assistant's smile without warmth, or a waiter's glum or disdainful expression the instant he turns away from his customer, reminds that emotional

performance can be a fragile affair. This means that even though many occupations are paid for their skill in emotional management (Fineman, 1993), it remains a difficult skill to perform. From one perspective, as Grugulis (2002) notes, turning emotions into commodities changes them, and the conscious control of feelings in the workplace has negative as well as positive consequences for those who are controlled. This means that at some stage service providers could feel stresses from interacting with the customer and resist delivering such “emotional commodities”. From the other perspective, the organization, with its set of “emotional rules”, creates a context in which the service provider should constantly decide how and to what extent emotions should be managed.

The organizations were analyzed separately because it could be proposed that even in service organizations self-reported EI competency levels could vary (see table 52). As a result of the quartile composition, the levels for EI competencies were derived and those levels were different according to the studied organizations. None of the organizations would have the level of EI considered excellent or poor. There are two organizations (retail shop and entertainment facility) that scored an average level for all competencies. In three organizations the self-reported level of all EI competencies remained moderate: insurance company and two prisons.

Table 52. Comparison of self-reported EI competency levels in Estonian service organizations

| <i>Service organization/ EI scales</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|--|---------------------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>SHOP</i> | average ↑ | average | average ↑ | average |
| <i>STATION</i> | moderate | average | moderate | moderate |
| <i>INSUR</i> | moderate | moderate ↓ | moderate | moderate |
| <i>STORE</i> | moderate | moderate | average ↑ | average ↑ |
| <i>ENTERT</i> | average ↑ | average ↑ | average ↑ | average |
| <i>HOTEL</i> | average | average ↑ | moderate | average ↑ |
| <i>PRISON1</i> | moderate ↓ | moderate ↓ | moderate | moderate ↓ |
| <i>PRISON2</i> | moderate ↓ | moderate | moderate | moderate ↓ |

Note: self-reported estimations of EI competencies for quartile composition and levels are presented in subchapter 2.2.1; ↑ / ↓ arrows mean that there are significantly higher/lower estimations compared to some other groups of respondents.

Despite the fact that there are certain self-reported levels of EI competencies on the whole sample, variation does exist among the studied organizations. Bolton (2005) stresses that emotion workers are far from homogenous, with some occupations involved in the production of material goods or requiring complex technical knowledge, while others, such as front-line service employees,

investing the full capacity of their labour power in presenting the desired corporate image and creating customer satisfaction. This has been proven in the study. In the entertainment facility there were significantly higher estimations of three of the four EI competencies (see table 52), referring to the fact that employees think they know how to identify and manage their own emotions and be empathetic. In the retail store the interpersonal orientation of EI (empathizing with others and relating to others) respondents evaluated themselves higher. The respondents from the prisons self-reported lower estimations in both EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and relating to others. In addition to the fact that there are lower self-reported estimates of the interpersonal competencies of EI (empathizing with others and relating to others), variation remains among organizations. It could be concluded that there is a certain variation among service organizations in terms of the self-reported level of EI, indicating that service work could differ within one sector. So, there was no indication of a consistent level of self-assessed competencies among service organization employees that could lead to an uneven level of service quality in different organizations. Nevertheless, it could be concluded that the proposition about EI being assessed differently by various occupational groups is supported.

The differences of self-reported EI competencies according to education

There are interesting results concerning the differences according to education. For the whole sample respondents with high education scored lower for the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions, and respondents with secondary education scored lower for the EI competency of empathy. No differences occurred for the EI competency of relating to others in the whole sample and separate organizations, indicating that the skills and abilities of employees to create effective relationships do not depend on the education they have. The results in separate organizations do not contradict the results for the whole sample. The EI competency of managing one's own emotions is positively and significantly related to education, meaning that the higher the self-assessments for this competency the higher the respondents' education. It is possible to follow that higher education is a precondition for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions, but not a precondition for having high self-assessments in the other EI competencies. The level of education is reflected to some extent in the level of general intelligence. One of the sources of extensive debate about EI is the claim by Goleman (1995) that IQ does not matter more than EI in personal success. This elicited a flow of critical reviews that disapprove of or seriously question such a bold claim without empirical testing (see e.g. Locke, 2005; Fineman 2004; Zeidner, Roberts, Matthews, 2002). The present study also cannot give a clear answer to the question of whether, for example, higher education is a precondition for EI; still, for the competency of managing one's own emotions it held true. Thus, it could be concluded that the proposition about the relationships between educational level and self-reported EI is partly supported.

The differences of self-reported EI competencies according to ethnic affiliation

From previous research, differences according to ethnic affiliation show supportive and declining evidence. Differences in EI according to ethnic affiliation is probably one of the most unclear areas of EI research. There are studies that demonstrate differences in EI among respondents with different nationalities, and there are studies that do not find this connection. For example, the study conducted by Svyantek and Rahim (2002) shows a common factor structure for an EI measurement instrument across countries, but the authors do not elaborate on this result at depth. Matthews *et al* (2004), referring to their studies, found by using MEIS expert scoring that Whites outperformed minority groups on many of the sub-scales. The present research found some differences in two ethnic groups. For the whole sample it was found that for the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions, Russian-speakers scored higher. Analysis in separate organizations shows more variation. For the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions Estonians scored both higher and lower in different samples. For the EI competency of empathizing Estonians scored higher, and for relating to others Russian-speakers scored higher. This result did not show a clear pattern, but it might be suggested that there is a greater likelihood of finding variation in interpersonal EI competencies than intrapersonal. In the present study the proposition that self-assessed EI competencies differ according to ethnic affiliation found partial support.

The differences of self-reported EI competencies according to gender

There is a strong understanding that EI might differ according to gender. Some empirical evidence indicates that women score higher. For example, Singh (2006) indicates that women scored higher on all EI scales; Bar-On (2000) indicates that on the awareness of emotions, empathy and relationships women scored higher; Goleman (2004) refers to empathy where women are better off; Gowing *et al* (2006) indicate that women have higher estimations for interpersonal competencies. The results of this research show a rather clear conclusion – for the whole sample men scored significantly lower than women for all EI competencies. Analysis in separate organizations shows that men scored lower for the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions and empathy.

The differences of self-reported EI competencies according to age

It is claimed that EI develops during one's life span. There is different theoretical and empirical evidence about the links between EI and age. Some researchers have not found any evidence that EI could be significantly dependant on age (e.g. Singh, 2006), but some have found links (e.g. Bar-On, 2000; Stein, Book, 2001). The results from the current research were also not so clear. There are differences according to age, and for the whole sample those follow a U-shaped trend – younger and older respondents have higher EI

competencies. In separate organizations this trend was not found. The proposition that self-assessed EI levels differ according to age where middle-aged respondents have higher self-reported EI levels and younger and older respondents lower self-reported EI levels was not supported at all. The results showed an absolutely different trend: middle-aged respondents had lower self-reported EI and younger and older, higher. A deeper analysis of the sample composition might be helpful in finding an explanation. Nevertheless, the findings support Matthews *et al* (2004) who report that during childhood and late adulthood, abilities tend to cluster together more to define a general factor than through middle period of life when abilities diverge. This implies that there might be certain trends in EI estimations, but different studies refer to different directions.

Table 53. The differences of self-reported estimations of EI competencies according to the occupation, education, ethnic affiliation, gender and age of the respondents

| <i>EI competencies/ group of respondents</i> | | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|--|------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|---------------------------------|---|
| <i>Occupation</i> | Whole sample | No differences | Specialists ↓ | No differences | Middle managers ↑ |
| | Separate organizations | Service providers ↑ | Service providers ↑ Middle managers ↑ | Service providers ↓ | Middle managers ↑ Specialists ↓ Service providers ↓ |
| <i>Education</i> | Whole sample | High education ↓ | High education ↓ | Secondary education ↓ | No differences |
| | Separate organizations | Secondary education ↓ | Vocational education ↑ | Secondary education ↓ | No differences |
| <i>Ethnical affiliation</i> | Whole sample | Russian-speakers ↑ | No differences | No differences | No differences |
| | Separate organizations | Estonians ↑ and ↓ | No differences | Estonians ↑ | Russian-speakers ↑ |
| <i>Gender</i> | Whole sample | Men ↓ | Men ↓ | Men ↓ | Men ↓ |
| | Separate organizations | Men ↓ | No differences | Men ↓ | No differences |
| <i>Age</i> | Whole sample | Over 51 ↑ | Over 51 ↑ 21–30 ↓ | Over 51 ↑ | Under 20 ↑ 21–30 ↑ |
| | Separate organizations | 21–30 ↓ | 21–30 ↓ 31–40 ↓ Over 51 ↑ | Over 51 ↑ 21–30 ↓ 31–40 ↓ | 41–50 ↓ 31–40 ↓ |

Note: ↑ / ↓ arrows mean that there are significantly higher/lower estimations compared to some other groups of respondents.

The correspondence of the propositions related to EI and the research results are presented in table 54. From eleven propositions, seven propositions are supported, three are partly supported and one was not supported. The first proposition contributes to the context of Estonian service organizations, and all others contribute to general research settings for service organizations. In Estonian service organizations it is necessary for service organization employees to focus on developing the interpersonal EI competencies such as empathizing with others and relating to others. There is a concrete contribution to the theory that the EI competencies studied are related to each other – this has

Table 54. The correspondence of propositions related to EI and the results of the research

| Proposition | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|--|---|-----------------------|
| P 2.1.1.C: Employees estimations of the EI competencies of empathy and relating to others are below average in Estonian service organizations. | In Estonian service organizations, employees self-assessed their EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others significantly lower. | Supported |
| P 1.1.3: Estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are significantly correlated to each other. | There is positive relationship between all EI competencies ranging from weak to high. Self-assessed EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others have significant and high correlation; moderate significant correlations were found between EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others, empathizing with others and relating to others. A low, but significant correlation was revealed between EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and relating to others, managing one's own emotions and relating to others. | Supported |
| P 1.2.4.A: Emotions are considered to be important at work. | Emotions are considered to be rather important at work. Variation exists in estimations about the importance of emotions at work among the studied service organizations. | Supported |
| P 1.2.4.B: Evaluations of EI competencies have a significant relationship to the importance of emotions at work. | There is from low to moderate positive correlations between self-reported EI competencies and the importance of emotions at work indicating that the higher the self-reported score for EI competency the more important emotions are perceived at work. | Supported |

Table 54. Continued

| <i>Proposition</i> | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|---|--|-------------------------|
| <p>P 1.1.6.A: The customer, service organization and service employee him/herself are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events that are emotionally appraised as positive or negative.</p> | <p>Results show that customer (customer behaviour, characteristics and attitudes, customer satisfaction), service organization (work recognition, relations and environment) and service employee (work achievements) are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events being appraised as positive. Service organization (managerial activities, work relations, work arrangement), customer (customer behaviour and dissatisfaction) and service employee (insufficient competency and mistakes) are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events being appraised as negative.</p> | <p>Supported</p> |
| <p>P 1.1.6.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions in service organizations.</p> | <p>There are significant differences only in one competency of EI with respect to emotion-evoking events being appraised as positive, indicating that those who noted that positive emotions are evoked by recognition evaluated their EI competency of managing one's own emotions lower. What is going on at work evokes rather negative emotions and variations in estimations exist in the strength and sign of the emotions in separate service organizations. The higher the respondent's self-reported score for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions the more positively the activities that are going on at work seem to be viewed.</p> | <p>Partly supported</p> |
| <p>P 1.1.4.A: Employees with different occupations evaluate their EI at a significantly different level.</p> | <p>There are differences in the self-assessed EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others for the whole sample in various occupations, and differences in all EI competencies in separate organizations (some scoring significantly higher and some lower). There is variation among service organizations for the self-reported levels of EI indicating that service work could differ within one sector.</p> | <p>Supported</p> |
| <p>Proposition 1.1.4.B: The higher education of employees is not related to higher evaluations of the level of EI competencies.</p> | <p>There are differences in evaluations on EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others for both the whole sample and separate organizations. The estimations of EI competency of managing one's own emotions is positively and significantly related to education meaning that the higher the self-assessments in this competency, the higher the respondents' education.</p> | <p>Partly supported</p> |

Table 54. Continued

| <i>Proposition</i> | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|--|--|-----------------------|
| P 1.1.4.C: Employees with different ethnic affiliation evaluate their level of EI competencies at a significantly different level. | There are differences for the estimations of EI competency of identifying one's own emotions for the whole sample and separate organizations. For the estimations of EI competencies of empathizing with and relating to others differences are seen only in separate organizations. No differences were found for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions. | Partly supported |
| P 1.1.4.D: Women evaluate their level of EI competencies significantly higher than men. | There are significant differences for all self-assessed EI competencies where women's self-assessments were higher. The same trend is followed for separate organizations for the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathy. | Supported |
| P 1.1.4.E: Middle-aged employees evaluate their EI competencies significantly higher than younger or older employees. | For the whole sample and for the separate organizations EI estimations differ for all EI competencies, but middle-aged respondents had significantly higher self-reported evaluations for EI competencies than younger and older respondents. | Not supported |

been emphasized in many theories and there is clear evidence to support it. Finally, EI differs significantly according to occupation, gender and age and some significant differences also exist according to education and ethnic affiliation. Especially contradictory findings were previously found for the latter few – still, it is not sufficiently clear how EI changes during one's life span and whether any educational preconditions exist for high EI. Stemming from these results it is possible to present a picture of the service organization employee with high EI (taking into account that all other factors are not considered): this is a younger or older woman who has no higher education. Still, this is just a speculation what could be true, but certainly there are other characteristics that influence the level of EI. One of these factors could be the organizational culture of the service organizations and conclusions about that are presented after the table.

Organizational Culture

The second set of propositions were about the perceptions of OC of service organizations and the OC of Estonian service organizations with the first contributing to organizational studies in general and second to the Estonian setting. It was also analyzed how types of OC are related, how OC perceptions differ according to the service organizations studied. The relationships between

OC and the importance of emotions at work and emotion-evoking events open up the discussion on the role of emotions in OC.

The perceptions and relationships of types of OC in Estonian service organizations

It was found that the perceived most dominant type of OC in the service organizations studied is the Rational Goal, next is the Internal Processes and Open System, and least represented OC was the Human Relations type. Based on the review of secondary data it was proposed that Estonian service organizations have dominant features of Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC. This proposition is partly supported, because respondents perceived as the dominant OC was only the Rational Goal type of OC. Andrijevskaia and Vadi (2003) reviewed recent trends in OC studies in Estonia and their findings show some evidence to support the results of the present study. They found that there are several areas that relate to features of OC that elicit dissatisfaction among employees: lack of development opportunities, lack of communication, unclear remuneration system, lack of recognition and lack of partnership between employees and management. This refers to the fact that through the indirect deduction of the results in Estonian companies, the Human Relations type of OC is indeed less exposed. Some other interesting results were presented: they found in one study (conducted by Vaarik), who investigated service organizations via metaphors, that employees in retail sales perceive their organization to be like a “production line” (refers to Internal Processes and Rational Goal types of OC), and one other study (conducted by Haage) demonstrates that a result-oriented culture dominates in the organizations studied (*Ibid*). It is rather difficult to find profound evidence that would support the findings presented in the present dissertation, because OC studies in Estonia are limited, especially for service sector organizations. Still, the research in this area should be extensive because the service sector share in GDP during last ten years has been about 60%, which is considerable. But this also shows how important the contribution of the current research is – there is methodologically solid evidence about the OC of Estonian service organizations.

The next proposition was set about the relationship between estimations of Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC. Results indicate that on these types estimations of employees of Estonian service organizations are moderately related, but not only this. In table 55, it is possible to see that the correlations of estimations among all types of OC vary from low to high. A strong relationship was found between estimations of Human Relations and Open System types of OC being both on a flexibility axis. There is a moderate relationship between estimations of Open System and Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC, and a weak relationship between estimations of Internal Processes, Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC. It is possible to conclude that the proposition about Estonian service organizations where estimations of Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC are

correlated is supported (see table 55). Howard (1998), by testing the Competing Values Framework (which is the basis for OVQ), concludes that attitude duality exists according to which mutually exclusive value orientation may coexist. In the current study it was not assumed that there is a competing character to the types of OC, but on the contrary, the coexistence of some types might even provide a better outcome for the organization. For example, the proposed connection between Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC could provide desirable outcomes for service organizations where goal achievement is accompanied by valuing relationships between employees and with customers.

Table 55. Correlations between perceptions of types of OC

| <i>Types of OC</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Human Relations</i> | – | – | – | – |
| <i>Open System</i> | high | – | – | – |
| <i>Rational Goal</i> | moderate | moderate | – | – |
| <i>Internal Processes</i> | low | moderate | low | – |

The perception of OC in service organizations

For a theoretical overview of the culture of service organizations, it was proposed that in service organizations features of the Human Relations type of OC are perceived as predominant. This did not find support from the study – the perceived predominant features were found to be of the Rational Goal type of OC. It could be elaborated that performance and achievements in private organizations are something that are followed in the first place. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (1998) claim that the interaction between customer and contact personnel occurs within the context of an underlying culture. Gerson (1993) suggest the following reasons for poor service: negative attitudes of employees towards customers, no customer service philosophy within the company, employees are not empowered to provide good service, take responsibility and make decisions that will satisfy the customer, and poor treatment of employees as customers. These aspects refer to the lack of manifestation of features of the Human Relations type of OC. Thus, in order to have better performance as a service company it is necessary to focus on developing the Human Relations type of OC.

The differences in perceptions of OC according to service organizations

In addition, it was proposed that there are differences in OC estimations among the service organizations studied. It appeared that there is significant variance in OC estimations for all types of OC stemming from separate organizations. Employees of the entertainment facility and a retail store perceived the Human Relations type of OC higher. Employees of a retail shop and store perceived the

Rational Goal type of OC higher. Lower estimations were given by respondents from entertainment facility and insurance company for the Open System type of OC. Respondents from a retail shop and gas fuel station perceived the Internal Processes type of OC higher, and the respondents from the insurance company and entertainment facility perceived the same type as lower. These organizations have lower estimations for those types of OC that have an external focus. The differences according to service organizations follow a certain pattern – employees who perceive predominant features of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC work in organizations that have a high degree of labour intensity, and employees who perceive predominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC work in organizations with a low degree of labour intensity and a high level of interaction with customers.

Normann (2000) claims that the predominant source of OC is the general environment in which an organization functions – society at large, the traditions of a particular industry, the influence of a particular technology, the set of values and the beliefs associated with a specific professional group that is important to the company. The industry where organization operates plays an important role in strategy, structure, technology, values and even management style. Dastmalchian *et al* (2000) found in their research that there is OC variation within service sector organizations; for example, wholesale/retail companies are more likely to have strong result-oriented cultures, while health and social services organizations show least concern for results orientation. This provides evidence that OC within one sector could deviate and the character of work could be different. With respect to service organizations the variance could come from the degree of service interaction and customization, and degree of labour intensity (according to the model presented by Schmenner, 1986, cf. Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998 in sub chapter 1.2.2.). There is indeed a different understanding about how hotels, hospitals, banks and law consultancy firms should operate because hotels would regard flexibility towards market fluctuations, hospitals would pay high attention to maintaining service quality, banks would focus on developing operational standards and procedures and a law company would concentrate on hiring the right people of a highly professional level. Thus, the variation within the service sector in terms of perception of OC is evident and has been supported by the current study.

The relationship between the importance of emotions at work and Types of OC

Emotions are proposed to be important in perceptions of OC, and this was tested using the example of service organizations. Results of the research show that there are significant, but weak relationships between estimation on all types of OC and the perception of the importance of emotions at work, meaning that the higher the evaluations of the types of OC, the more important emotions are considered at work (and vice versa). Much has been discussed about the function of emotions in OC. Gabriel (1999) colourfully describes that OC drives and is driven more by irrational fantasies and emotions than by rational plans

and calculations. Turner and Stets (2005) claim that emotions make culture meaningful and give it the power to regulate behaviour. This implies that perceiving emotions as important through the interpretation process could give manifestations of OC and help to understand how culture regulates human behaviour in organizations. It is almost agreed that emotions play an important role in OC, but not much empirical evidence has been provided to show how the perception of emotions is related to the perception of culture. The present study contributes by adding one piece of empirical testing that shows that the proposition about relations between the importance of emotions at work and perceived OC has been supported. The results could suggest that there are no more or less “emotional” types of OC despite the fact that in the present study the perceptions of OC have been investigated.

The relationship between the perception of emotion-evoking events, emotions evoked at work and types of OC

There were three categories that represent a basis for emotion-evoking events appraised as positive and negative in the organization. Emotion-evoking events are related to the customer, service organization and service provider him/herself. The analysis revealed significant differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative in the Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes types of OC. The results of the study show that respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from management and work arrangements evaluated the Human Relations type of OC lower, meaning that in order to keep the importance of features of the Human Relations type of OC, it is necessary to focus on management issues and how the work is organized. It seems that those emotion-evoking events that stem from service organizations tend to lower estimations for the Human Relations type of OC. Respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from customer dissatisfaction estimated the Open System type of OC higher and those who noted that negative emotions are evoked from management estimated the Open System type of OC lower. This result is interesting especially concerning customer dissatisfaction. The reason for this might be that respondents perceive customer dissatisfaction as a challenge for improvement and for development, and thus, it does not decrease the perception of the Open System type of OC. Respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from customer dissatisfaction evaluated Internal Processes type of OC higher. This is again one result that does not sound logical, but the reason behind this could be that customer related issues are not the core value of the Internal Processes type of OC and the dissatisfaction of the customer (or reaction on this) is explained by rules and procedures. If the customer is not satisfied there is some sort of “formal” explanation why customer is not pleased and how it is necessary to react to this in order to be salient with the rules, standards and procedures. The customer dissatisfaction might stem from the fact that some rules cannot be abandoned by the service provider (if some issues are set up by

the law, for example in the entertainment facility they cannot sell alcohol to customers who are younger than 21), and thus, the customer is not happy that the service is not being customized.

Study results show that there are some differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as positive. Here differences are found in two types of OC: Human Relations and Internal Processes. Those respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from recognition estimated the Human Relations type of OC lower. This is a somewhat unexpected result because recognition is something that characterizes this type of OC. Still, it might be the case that recognition is expected to be a normal act and if the event was extracted it means that it is something extraordinary. Thus, those respondents who evaluate the Human Relations type of OC lower (thinking that features are not dominant in the organization) notice recognition as an event, which evokes positive emotions. Respondents who noted that positive emotions are evoked from customer satisfaction evaluated the Internal Processes type of OC higher. So, the results indicate that customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction serve as a source for higher estimations for the Internal Processes type of OC, meaning that those who are sensitive to customer reactions are apt to value features of the Internal Processes type of OC. Again, reactions to customer-related events could be rather regimented and prescribed, so employees seek to find an explanation for the customer satisfaction or dissatisfaction from the rules and standards.

Variance analysis was supported by the correlation analysis where correlations between emotion-evoking events and types of OC were found. Results indicate significant relationships with respect to two types of OC: Human Relations and Internal Processes. Results show that those respondents who think that positive emotions are evoked from recognition evaluate the Human Relations type of OC lower, indicating a negative significant correlation. Further on, those respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from management estimate the Human Relations type of OC lower. These results are coherent with the results of the variance analysis. One additional positive and significant correlation was revealed: those respondents who noted that negative emotions are evoked from collegial behaviour estimated the Human Relations type of OC higher. This could mean that employees care about the acts and behaviour of their colleagues even if those evoke in them negative emotions. Concerning the Internal Processes type of OC, it was found that positive emotions evoked from the customer and negative emotions evoked from customer behaviour both have a significant and positive correlation with the estimations of Internal Processes type of OC, meaning that customer-related events focus employee attention on procedures, rules and other formal issues.

Gabriel (1999) claims that OC infuses everyday events with meaning and directs individuals' emotional responses to the world around them that enables them to share those meanings and emotional responses with others, and this

binds individuals emotionally. Organizational culture causes emotion-evoking events from one perspective and helps find a suitable reaction mode in order to handle those events. For example, if the event is related to poor management where managers are treating employees unfairly then it is a consequence of a culture that has less visible features of the Human Relations type of OC. If the event is related to the customer being unsatisfied, then the dominant features of the type of culture would prescribe a way to react to customer dissatisfaction (suggest new solution – Open System type of OC; find justification based on written rules – Internal Processes type of OC; go extra mile to satisfy customer in order to have repeat purchase – Rational Goal type of OC; give customer a present and say how sorry you are – Human Relations type of OC). In addition to this the learning and sharing process accompanies this all the time. The desirable responses and reactions to emotion-evoking events are the basis for learning and sharing. Here the role of managers and leaders is crucial, because they need to notice and emphasize suitable behaviour that supports the type of OC chosen. But suitable resolutions to events are not always disseminated. If the culture of organizations is not “healthy”, then inappropriate reactions to events could be shared and further diminish the culture. As Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) state, leaders have a great challenge in walking the tightrope between expressing and encouraging healthy emotional expressions (as opposed to many corporate cultures that encourage burying or suppressing emotions) and letting emotions run rampant inappropriately.

Later, the results indicated that there is a positive, but weak relationship between positive/negative emotion-evoking events at work and perceptions of all types of OC, meaning that the more positively activities going on at work are perceived, the higher the estimations for all types of OC (and vice versa). Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) note that work events result in positive and negative emotions experienced at work that influence both work attitudes (e.g. job satisfaction, commitment and loyalty) and affect-driven behaviours such as impulsive actions or positive behaviour such as spontaneously helping others or transient extra effort. Still, the relationship is reciprocal – not only do positively or negatively appraised events influence the responses and actions of employees, but the culture of the organization is also responsible for events that evoke emotions at work because manifestations of OC as incidents serve as the basis for evaluating activities at work as positive or negative. It seems that employees who notice the emotional side of the work are more attentive to OC as well and positive emotional reactions lead to higher estimations of OC.

In general, it is possible to conclude that the proposition about the relationship between emotion-evoking events and perceptions of OC is partly supported because there are relationships between emotion-evoking events and some estimations of types of OC, but there is a relationship between perceived emotions evoked at work and estimations of all types of OC.

It is possible to conclude that from the six propositions about OC, three are supported, two are partly supported and one is not supported. For Estonian

service organizations, it was true that the Rational Goal type of OC is perceived as dominant, and that it is related to the perception of the Human Relations type of OC. It was not correct to assume that the perception of the Human Relations type of OC is dominant in service organizations – it is not correct for Estonian service organizations and thus cannot be applied for larger settings. It was proven that variations in perceptions of OC emerge not only between industries, but also within industries based on the example of the service sector. The idea that emotions are important in perceiving OC is also supported. The idea that emotion-evoking events are related to types of OC was partly supported. A summary of the correspondence of propositions is presented in table 56.

Table 56. The correspondence of propositions related to OC

| Proposition | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|---|--|-----------------------|
| P 2.1.1.A: Employees of Estonian service organizations perceive organizational culture to have dominate features of Rational Goal and Human Relations type of OC. | In Estonian service organizations the perceived predominant types of OC are Rational Goal and Internal Processes; the Human Relations type of OC in general is the least represented in the opinion of employees of service organizations. | Partly supported |
| P 2.1.1.B: Perceived estimations of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are correlated in Estonian service organizations. | In Estonian service organizations a significant moderate correlation between estimations of the Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC was found. Between all other types of OC a correlation of estimations ranging from low to high was also revealed. | Supported |
| P 1.2.2.A: In service organizations features of the Human Relations type of OC are perceived as dominant. | In the service organizations studied, features of the Rational Goal type of OC are perceived as dominant; the Human Relations type of OC is the least represented in the opinion of employees of service organizations. | Not supported |
| P 1.2.2.B: There are significant differences in perceptions of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC among employees of service organizations. | There are significant differences in OC estimations of all types of OC stemming from separate organizations. The differences according to service organizations follow a certain pattern – employees who perceive the dominant features of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC work in organizations that have a high degree of labour intensity; and employees who perceive dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC work in organizations with a low degree of labour intensity and a high level of interaction with customers. | Supported |

Table 56. Continued

| Proposition | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|---|---|-----------------------|
| P 1.2.3.A: The importance of emotions at work is significantly related to perceptions of OC types. | There are significant, but weak relationships between estimations of all types of OC and the perception of the importance of emotions at work. | Supported |
| P 1.2.3.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to the perception of OC types. | <p>Significant differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative occurred in the Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes types of OC.</p> <p>There are significant differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as positive in the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC.</p> <p>There are significant, but weak relationships between emotion-evoking events and the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC.</p> <p>There is a positive, but weak relationship between respondents' perception of positive/negative emotions evoked due to what is going on at work and estimations all types of OC.</p> | Partly supported |

Relationships between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Culture

The last set of propositions focuses on relationships between OC and EI. Again these propositions are related to the wider research setting and the Estonian context. One of the most important propositions is that EI is related to OC. In order to test that, a correlation analysis was implemented and the results are summarized in table 57. These results show that there are positive significant, but weak relationships between almost all self-reported EI competencies and estimations of types of OC. This means that the higher the self-assessed competencies of EI the higher the estimations for types of OC, and alternatively, that the more certain types of OC are perceived as dominant, the higher the EI competencies are assessed. This is rather a speculative interpretation because it is still not absolutely clear whether organizations with a particular OC attract people with a certain level of EI or whether people with a certain level of EI seek working places with a certain OC. Perhaps those are interrelated thoughts and actually people with similar of levels EI try to find organizations where they can expose and use their competencies in the best way, and organizations that have norms and a set up that considers EI to be important look for the people with a high level of EI.

Table 57. Relationship between EI and OC

| <i>EI competencies / Types of OC</i> | <i>Human Relations</i> | <i>Open System</i> | <i>Rational Goal</i> | <i>Internal Processes</i> |
|---------------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|---------------------------|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | low | low | low | low |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | low | low | low | low |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | low | low | low | low |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | low | low | low | no relationship |

The relationship between EI competencies and the Human Relations type of OC

The results of the study imply that there are low, but significant relationships between estimations of all EI competencies and the Human Relations type of OC. This is somewhat less than was proposed (the proposition referred to significant and strong relationships between estimations of this type of OC and all EI competencies). However, the result does show that those respondents who value such values as empowerment, teamwork, involvement, open communication, commitment, concern for employees and customers evaluate their EI competencies higher. It also could be interpreted that those respondents who evaluate their EI competencies higher value more those values that are represented by the Human Relations type of OC. This is a logical result because competencies of EI are especially applicable in organizations where the Human Relations type of OC is valued. Cameron and Quinn (1999) bring out that in this type of culture, critical managerial competencies include managing teams, managing interpersonal relationships and developing others. They explore interpersonal relationship competencies by saying that they are about facilitating effective relationships including supportive feedback, listening and the resolution of interpersonal problems. EI interpersonal competencies are useful in building the Human Relations type of OC because empathy helps to understand the needs and feelings of others and helps to make decisions that consider other's opinions, and as Turner and Stets (2005) claim, empathy connects people at an emotional level.

The EI competency of relating to others would be helpful in building friendly relationships, and facilitating positive communication and active listening. The EI competency of identifying emotions is also important for facilitating the Human Relations type of OC. Jordan and Ashkanasy (2006) suggest from their research that organizations should spend time building team member emotional self-awareness because it has the strongest link to team effectiveness and it is the cornerstone of EI. Elfenbein (2006) found from her research that teams with members with low rates of emotional recognition reported a lower level of psychological safety, a higher turnover of team

members and lower self-reported performance. The competency of identifying one's own emotions helps to tune in on own emotions during teamwork and cooperation, and find those reasons that evoke unfavourable emotional states. And as mentioned, this is the basis for all other EI competencies – managing one's own emotions could be useful in maintaining a good mood and motivating colleagues, as well as regulating negative emotions that occur from some relationships.

Sy and Côté (2004) conclude that emotionally intelligent individuals are more cooperative, foster better relationships and build richer networks. The EI competency of relating to others is essential in this type of OC, because the skill and ability to create friendly, informal relations, and enhance positive connections between people are the key elements in building cohesive teams, and empower and show concern about people.

The relationship between EI competencies and Open System type of OC

The results of the study show that there are positive, significant, but weak relationships between estimations of EI competencies and the Open System type of OC. This means that those respondents who value dynamics, entrepreneurship, creativity, innovation, risk taking, initiative and autonomy evaluate their level of EI competencies higher. Another interpretation could suggest the opposite – those respondents who evaluated their EI competencies higher appreciate those values that are perceived as dominant in the Open System type of OC. Cameron and Quinn (1999) promote such managerial competencies as managing innovation, creating future and managing continuous improvement as necessary in developing this type of OC. It has been argued that EI is useful in utilizing creativity. Fineman (1993) says that ideas are laden with feelings, and feelings contain ideas. In order to be creative and innovative, one may need to have good relationships with co-workers and supervisors and understand their feelings and emotions (i.e. higher levels of EI may be needed) (Suliman, Al-Shaikh, 2007). The EI competency of identifying emotions may be helpful to focus on one's own emotions while being creative and finding new solutions because emotions may give signals and the basis for evaluating ideas, solutions, suggestions etc. Only some creative ideas find their way to become new innovations, and failures are part of this process. The competency of identifying one's own emotions would help to indicate emotions that are evoked from failures. Also in risk-taking, the intuition based on understanding one's own emotions could lead to decision-making that accounts for both rational and emotional information.

The EI competency of managing one's own emotions would be helpful in handling emotions when success is not evident and when it is still necessary to focus on the creative process. Ciarrochi and Godsell (2006) found in their research that focusing on negative possibilities has a negative impact on problem solving. This indicates that managing one's own emotions and not letting negative emotions influence the performance of the task leads to a more

open mind in finding solutions and ideas. Entrepreneurship and the involvement of teams in innovation requires a developed competency of empathy, because persuading and convincing people to conduct new risky affairs requires understanding what other people think and feel about them. The EI competency of relating to others would help to commit to a team for innovation by enhancing friendly relationships and creating a positive climate and the open sharing of ideas.

The relationship between EI competencies and the Rational Goal type of OC

Results of the study indicate a positive, significant though weak relationships between estimations of all EI competencies and the Rational Goal type of OC. This means that those respondents who value the achievement of goals, success, competitiveness, task focus and long-term performance evaluate their EI competencies higher. The relationship implies the opposite as well – those who evaluate their EI competencies higher, perceive the Rational Goal type of OC to be more dominant. Cameron and Quinn (1999) claim that the managerial competencies that are needed to enhance this type of OC are managing competitiveness, energizing employees by motivating and inspiring individuals to be proactive, exerting extra effort, and managing customer focus by fostering an orientation towards serving customers and exceeding their expectations. The EI competency of identifying one's own emotions helps to focus on task performance by indicating what emotions different distracters may elicit. Ciarrochi and Godsell (2006) found in their research that EI behaviour predicts task performance by claiming that understanding that private experiences (e.g. nervousness, fear) do not have to stop from pursuing a valid direction. Thus, identifying especially negative emotions is the first step in dealing with those with the aim of performing continuously.

The EI competency of managing one's own emotions could benefit because it enables to adapt emotions to changed situations, avoid the harmful influence of negative emotions on task accomplishment and keep an optimistic attitudes toward goal achievement. The EI competency of empathy could benefit in this type of OC because it allows understand what is behind the underperformance of colleagues. The emotions of colleagues are considered in the cooperation effort in order to gain the desired outcomes. The EI competency of relating to others helps to create an environment that enhances high performance by cheering up pessimistically attuned colleagues and spreading optimistic attitudes towards goal achievement. Sy and Côté (2004) hypothesize that emotionally intelligent individuals are better able to align multiple goals through managing and reducing unproductive emotions that impede collaboration. Mount (2006) concludes from his research that EI competencies create an environment that enables the cognitive intelligence competencies and technical skills and knowledge to be used effectively, resulting in the organizational capability to achieve business success. Thus, EI impacts

performance in a positive way in order to enhance the manifestation of features of the Rational Goal type of OC.

The relationship between EI competencies and the Internal Processes type of OC

The results of the study demonstrate that there was a positive significant, but low correlations between the estimations of EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others, and perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC. No correlation was found between the estimations of EI competency of relating to others and this type of OC. The proposition was that self-assessed EI competencies have an insignificant or low correlation with estimations of the Internal Processes type of OC. This proposition was supported. It seems that EI competencies do not have a great impact on manifestations of the Internal Processes type of OC, but according to the study at least three competencies have the same strength of relationship as with other types of OC. The Internal Processes type of OC is characterized by formalization, structure, procedures, coordination, formal rules and policies, stability and smooth operations. Those respondents who value these features would have higher self-reported estimations for the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others. The relationship is also valid in the opposite direction – those respondents who assess themselves higher in those three EI competencies also value the Internal Processes type of OC more.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) suggest the following managerial competencies as being helpful in enhancing this type of OC: managing acculturation by helping individuals become clear about what is expected of them and how they can best fit into the work setting, managing control systems by ensuring that procedures, measurements and systems are in place for implementing control, and managing coordination. The EI competency of identifying one's own emotions might be helpful in concentrating on following rules and procedures while dealing with details. Rules and systems might be helpful in reducing work-related uncertainty and pressure because they describe how one should behave in certain situations. Emotional life consists of moments in which a good deal of emotional management necessarily takes place in order to maintain conformity with norms (Kemper 1993). The EI competency of managing one's own emotions could help in reasoning why certain procedures are necessary, and empathizing with others could help to understand what obstacles others experience in following policies and rules. Sy and Côté (2004) argue that emotionally intelligent employees understand their roles and responsibilities better, and help others accept the inherent ambiguities and tensions that are intended to maintain a balance between multiple tasks. Nevertheless the relationships are low, it is significant and thus the proposition is supported (see table 57) even despite the fact that no relationship was found between the EI competency of relating to others and the Internal Processes type of OC.

The results of the study indicate the variance of relationships between estimations of EI and OC according to service organizations. In sample composition it was explained that service organizations are located in all four areas of the service process matrix. It was possible to find relationships between estimations of EI and OC for five organizations due to data availability on OC, and the location of those are shown in figure 34. From the results of the study it is seen that the most relationships between EI and OC (numbers in parentheses indicate number of relationships) were revealed in organizations that are placed in the area of 'mass services'. This means that in these organizations the mutual association of EI and OC is manifests to a greater extent. It is interesting to notice that the degree of interaction and customization in this sector is low, and that refers to the increased need for organizations to institute systems and procedures for the standardization of service delivery. It is also necessary due to the high degree of labour intensity, so the goals are understood and systems help regulate the behaviour of a large number of employees.

The second area where relationships were revealed was in the entertainment facility that is located in the area of a 'service shop'. In this organization, interactions with customers are high, but labour intensity is low. The number of relationships between estimations of EI and OC is less than half of the number of all possible relationships, but still this indicates that the application of EI might influence the OC of the organization. Herein it should be noted organizations that are situated in 'mass services' and 'professional services' have perceived predominant features of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC, whereas organizations that are situated in the 'service shop' area have perceived predominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC. This enables to elaborate that in the entertainment facility, the perception of OC profile supports the application of EI and as mutual relationships are discussed here, the required high interaction with the customer probably necessitates the use of EI to a greater extent. In addition, in the entertainment facility, the self-reported level of EI competencies (except relating to others) was the highest among all organizations discussed.

Organizations that are located in the area of 'professional services' only have one relationship between estimations of EI and OC, although the interaction level and degree of labour intensity are high. This might be related to the fact that this organization (insurance company) was evaluated at the lowest level for the OC type of Human Relations, and in terms of EI, respondents also self-assessed their EI level at the lowest level in all competencies among the organizations presented in the figure. These could be the reasons why the association between estimations of EI and OC was not extensive in this organization.

| | | Degree of Interaction and Customization | |
|---------------------------|------|--|---|
| | | Low | High |
| Degree of Labor Intensity | Low | <i>Service factory:</i> N/i | <i>Service shop:</i> ENTERT (7) |
| | High | <i>Mass service:</i> SHOP (13) STORE (12) STATION (8) | <i>Professional services:</i> INSUAR (1) |

Note: N/i – no ‘service factory’ company was studied in terms of relationships between EI and OC; ENTERT – entertainment facility; SHOP and STORE – retail sales and services; STATION – fuel sales and services; INSUR – insurance services.

Figure 34. The number of relationships between EI and OC in the organizations studied (composed by author; based on ideas from Schmenner, 1986, cf. Fitzsimmons, Fitzsimmons, 1998)

According to the results and discussion above, service organizations should be aware that in ‘mass service’ organizations and in ‘service shops’ the interaction between EI and OC could be rather extensive. This means that how OC supports or hinders the application of EI by employees should be carefully considered. It also means that having employees who think they have a high level of EI would help to create a stronger culture (in terms of perceptions).

Predictors of employee EI competencies in Estonian service organizations according to occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age and perception of types of OC

The last proposition was made about the predictors of EI competencies in Estonian service organizations according to occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age and perception of types of OC. The results are summarized in table 58. The results are indeed interesting and indicate that the main predictors of higher self-reported EI competencies are ethnic affiliation (being a Russian-speaking), gender (being woman), age (being over 51 years old), education (having primary education) and a position (being specialist or middle manager). From the point of view of types of OC then for intrapersonal competencies of EI, such as identifying one’s own emotions and managing one’s own emotions, the predictors are the perceptions of Rational Goal, Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC. This means that those employees who value goal achievement, internal order and relationships in the organization are those

who think they have higher intrapersonal competencies of EI. There is a slight difference with interpersonal competencies of EI such as empathizing with others and relating to others. Employees who value the Internal Processes type of OC will evaluate a higher EI competency of empathy, but a lower EI competency of relating to others. Those employees who appreciate the Human Relations type of OC, think that they have a high competency of EI for relating to others. It is necessary to note that the Open System type of OC does not predict self-reported evaluations in Estonian organizations and the same applies for being a service provider.

Table 58. Predictors of EI competencies in Estonian service organizations

| <i>EI competencies/ EI predictors</i> | <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <i>Relating to others</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------|---|
| <i>Ethnic affiliation</i> | Russian-speaker | – | Russian-speaker | – |
| <i>Age</i> | – (excl: age 31–40) | Over 51 (excl: age 31–40) | Over 51 (excl: age 31–40) | – (excl: age 31–40) |
| <i>Gender</i> | Woman | – | Woman | – |
| <i>Education</i> | – (excl: vocational) | Primary (excl: secondary) | Primary (excl: vocational) | – (excl: vocational) |
| <i>Position</i> | – (excl. service provider) | Specialist (excl. service provider) | – (excl: specialist) | Middle manager (excl: specialist) |
| <i>OC type</i> | Rational Goal Internal Processes | Human Relations Rational Goal | Internal Processes | Human Relations (Internal Processes) |

Note: “–” means that no significant relationship appears; “excl.” means that variable is excluded from the model; variables in parentheses indicate on negative impact, otherwise filled cell indicates on positive impact on EI level (for example being a Russian-speaker is predictor of having higher EI competency of identifying one’s own emotions).

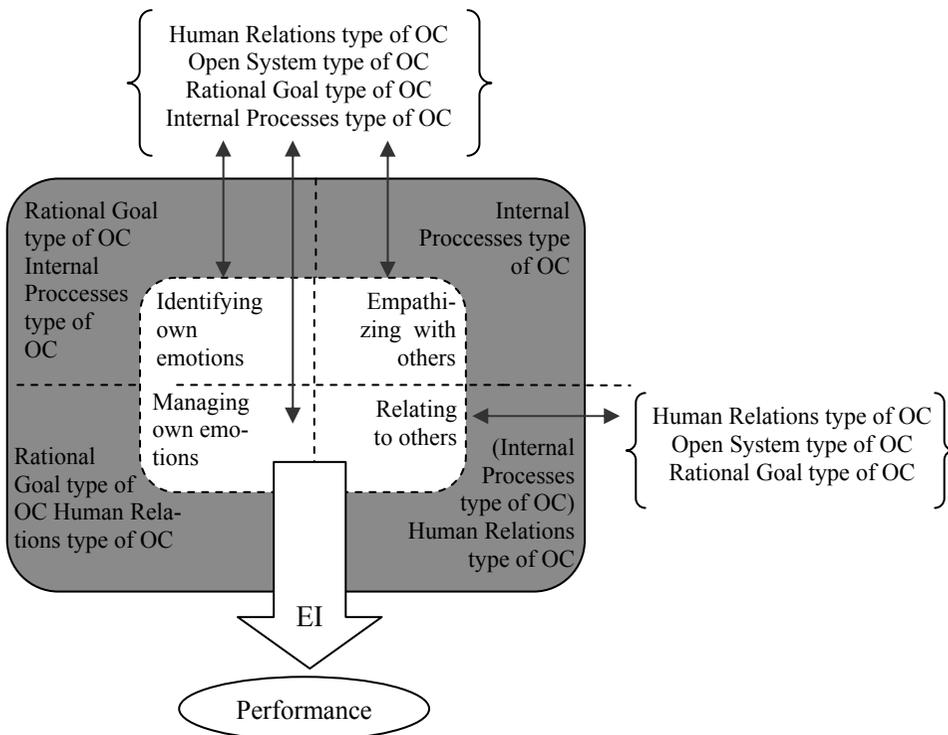
The results of the study indicate that some variables are excluded or do not appear to be significant, and therefore, do not predict the self-reported level of EI. For example, for all EI competencies, the respondent age from 31 to 40 is excluded from all models, meaning that being in that age does not impact self-reported EI at all. Therefore, EI competencies should be considered especially for those employees who are younger (than 31 years) and older (than 40 years). With respect to ethnic affiliation, being Estonian or a Russian-speaker does not appear to be a significant predictor of self-reported EI competencies of managing one’s own emotions and relating to others, meaning that ethnic affiliation is not anticipated in evaluations of EI to a great extent for the named

competencies. In a similar manner, gender does not significantly predict the self-reported EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others. With respect to education, vocational and secondary education in respondents have been excluded from the models, implying that being an employee with one of these levels of education does not have an impact on the level of self-reported EI competencies at all. Thus, employees with primary and higher education should be regarded as differentiating factors; still, primary education matters significantly more. One interesting result was that according to position, service providers have been excluded from the models that predict self-reported levels of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions. This means that being a service provider does not create any expectations about the level of those EI competencies. Actually, being a service provider does not appear to predict the two other EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others, implying that there are other factors that contribute as predictors of self-reported EI. Substantial variables that impact self-assessed EI competencies come from OC because none of the types of OC are excluded from the model, meaning that those impact EI competencies, but some types of OC do not do so significantly. This demonstrates clearly that the perception of OC is a significant variable in the self-reported level of EI competencies.

Langhorn (2004) suggests from research that a more intensive effort to consider the emotional make-up of the organization would help develop the culture and atmosphere in which service employees can give their best. Grönroos (2001) claims that the literature does not offer clear models on how the affective functions count in service quality management; however, managers should always bear in mind the potential effects of emotions on perceived service quality. The present study gives some insight into the emotional set up of the organization and those factors that influence the critical competency of EI in service organization employees that enable to elaborate about determinants of service quality and direct effort in creating attitudes and systems that ensure the best service experience for the customer. This is a notable contribution to the development of the field.

The results of regression analysis show that there is a relationship between estimations of EI and OC, where perception of OC serves as a supporting (or hindering) factor in manifestations of EI in service organizations. In figure 35 it is possible to see which types of perceived OC predict certain EI competencies. In general, this means that if one person is working today in one service organization and has a certain (self-reported) degree of EI (own knowledge, skills, abilities and experiences in how to handle emotionally loaded situations in an effective way), then by moving this person to another organization the same application of EI competencies should not be expected because the OC creates the precondition for the application of EI. For example features of the Rational Goal type of OC supports the use of the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions. If organizations have

the features represented by the Human Relations type of OC then this supports the exercise of the EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others. The Internal Processes type of OC contributes to applying the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others, but hinders the application of the EI competency of relating to others (due to the negative effect in the results of the regression analysis). These relationships are expressed in outcomes through the behaviour and actions of employees. Of course, the individual characteristics (age, education, occupation and ethnical affiliation) play an important role, but those represent peculiarities of Estonian service organizations more. In figure 35 it is also possible to see the results of the correlation analysis where EI competencies have a positive correlation with the indicated types of OC. This should all be acknowledged by service organizations when requiring a high level of EI from their employees – for example, if there are no predominant features of the Human Relations type of OC then there is no option for the employee to apply the EI competency of relating to others.



Note: variables in parentheses indicate on negative impact; Types of OC in gray area are predictors of EI competencies; arrows indicate on positive and significant correlations

Figure 35. Types of OC predicting self-assessed EI competencies using the example of Estonian service organizations (composed by author; idea stems from Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002)

The discussion above should be considered carefully because the study results imply the self-assessed level of EI competencies and OC perceptions, meaning that these elaborations are made in light of the opinions and beliefs of the individual about his or her abilities and skills concerning EI and about organization. Thus, the conclusions are not made about the phenomenon of EI and OC, but about what the employees think about their EI and OC. Thus, there is a certain sensitivity in interpreting the results and this limitation should be kept in mind.

It is possible to conclude that from the four propositions about the relationship between EI and OC, two were partly supported and one was supported (see table 59). There is a relationship between the variables studied that shows a possibility for certain causality. There is clear evidence that ethnicity, age, education, gender and position have an impact on the self-reported level of EI competencies. Also, aspects of what employees appreciate in an organization have an impact on EI competencies – if employees perceive important values that reflect a particular OC as having an impact on their self-reported EI level. These results particularly indicate the peculiarities of Estonian service organizations.

Table 59. The correspondence of propositions related to the relationship between OC and EI

| Proposition | Results | Correspondents |
|---|--|------------------|
| P 1.2.4.C: Evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC, a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC. | <p>There are low, but significant correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions and perceptions of the Human Relations type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive, significant, but low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions and perceptions of the Open System type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive significant though low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions and perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive significant, but low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions and perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC.</p> | Partly supported |

Table 59. Continued

| Proposition | <i>Results</i> | <i>Correspondents</i> |
|---|--|-------------------------|
| | <p>The relationships between estimations of EI and OC in separate service organizations vary to a great extent. Organizations that have low interaction and customization levels and high labour intensity have the greatest number of relationships (from 8 to 13 from 16 possible relationships). Next comes organizations with high interaction and low labour intensity (7 relationships).</p> | |
| <p>P 1.2.4.D: Evaluations of the EI competency of empathizing with others and relating to others have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of Human Relations and Open System types of OC; a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type; and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Process type of OC.</p> | <p>There are low, but significant correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and perceptions of the Human Relations type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive, significant, but low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and perceptions of the Open System type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive significant though low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC.</p> <p>There are positive significant low correlations between estimations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC.</p> <p>No correlation was found between estimations of the EI competency of relating to others and perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC.</p> | <p>Partly supported</p> |
| <p>P 2.1.1.D: There are certain predictors of occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age, and perception of types of OC for EI competencies in Estonian service organization employees.</p> | <p>The main predictors for EI competencies are ethnic affiliation (being a Russian-speaking), gender (being woman), age (being over 51 years old), education (having primary education) and position (working as a specialist or middle manager). The perceptions of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC predict the estimations of the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions; the perceptions of the Human Relations and Rational Goal types predict estimations of managing one's own emotions; the perceptions of Internal Processes type predicts estimations of empathy; and the perceptions of Human Relations and Internal Processes types predict estimations of relating to others.</p> | <p>Supported</p> |

The process of relationships between EI competencies and OC

The relationship between EI and OC has deeper explanations. Empirical evidence provided by this dissertation proves the positive and significant connections between self-assessed EI and perception of OC and now the author will attempt to explain profoundly how this interaction works. In the theoretical part of the dissertation the interaction between EI and OC has been explained through emotion-evoking events being interpreted within the framework of OC and resulting in certain emotional responses that need to be identified and managed. Fineman (1993) claims that interpretation refers to the way actors perceive their life in organizations, how they take into account the constraints of their physical and social environment, and what events mean to them. Cultural values create a commonality among members in how they interpret and subsequently respond to emotional issues (Herkenhoff, 2004). Daft and Weick (2001) while creating a model of organizational interpretation highlight that before the interpretation there is a scanning process during which data collection is done; then the interpretation process takes place in which members translate events and develop a shared understanding and conceptual schemes; after that the learning process occurs, which is characterized by taking actions which could provide new data for interpretation. This is a rather suitable concept for explaining the relationships between EI and OC because the data can be viewed as emotion-evoking events, then EI plays a dominant part in the awareness and interpretation process and responses lead to action that could be a source for of new emotion-evoking events. The process presented in subchapter 1.2.4. is valid – it has sufficient theoretical foundation, and what is most important, it has been empirically studied within the framework of the present dissertation.

If we look at the process more broadly and speculate about different options at each step of the process, then there are even more interesting elaborations. There are two main possibilities that could shake the process: a) an emotion-evoking event could be acknowledged, but the event itself could be new and a repetition of the reaction is inappropriate; b) an emotion-evoking event could be acknowledged, and there is an accepted practice for how to handle it, but the individual does not agree to respond in the “usual” way. In these cases the regulatory function of OC fails to play its role and uncertainty creates new ways of reacting. Emotions make culture meaningful and give it the power to regulate conduct (Turner, Stets, 2005). Thus, if there is no precise practice for how to deal with an event, then observing emotional states can provide a pretty good basis for choosing an appropriate response.

Trice and Beyer (1993) claim that when ideologies and cultural practices are questioned, organizational members react emotionally – they may be able to advance elaborate rationales for them, but the depth of the feelings they bring to their arguments indicates that more than rationality is at work. So, individuals require the competency of understanding their own emotions in order to detect that internal emotional states are indicating a contradiction towards common

practice, and usually that contradiction is accompanied by negative emotions. Turner and Stets (2005) claim that the arousal of negative emotions is a powerful force behind constructive cultural change. This means that through such contradictions it is possible to mediate a change in a culture, if the individual has enough power to do so. The interpretive framework shows how emotions both determine, and are determined by, organizational order (Fineman, 1993); thus, emotion-evoking events as a basis for emotions in the organization are the consequence of OC and serve as an input to OC.

The empirical evidence has mainly supported or partly supported the propositions. In the next subchapter the managerial and developmental implications are presented in order to show how it is possible to apply the results of the theoretical and empirical research in practice.

2.3.2. Managerial and developmental implications

The implications of the results from this study about EI, OC and the relationship between them for general service settings and for Estonian service organizations will now be introduced. The implications for each area are presented in accordance with general conclusions from the study and as a set of suggestions for development or management activities. Implications where the Estonian service context has not been mentioned can also be applied to Estonian organizations.

Implications of the results about emotional intelligence

The implications from the results about EI are presented in the form of suggestions for managers and service organization employees in accordance with the conclusions of the study (see table 60). They are related to the development and training of EI, recruitment and selection, recognition and assessment, discussion and involvement of employees in EI related topics and the study and creation of best practices.

Table 60. Summary of conclusions and implications about EI

| Conclusions | <i>Implications</i> |
|--|--|
| 1. Employees have below average self-reported levels of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others in Estonian service organizations. | 1.A. Develop the EI of Estonian service employees and especially the competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others. 1.B. Recruit service employees who are good at applying EI competencies and who have the right attitudes toward the customer. 1.C. Recognize employees who have high EI and those who have acted in a way that high EI has benefited the results. |
| 2. Self-reported EI competencies in service organization employees are positively related to each other. | 2. Train employees how to manage emotions, explain the role of emotions in the service encounter. |
| 3. Emotions are considered to be rather important in service organizations, still there are variations between service organizations. | 3. Regard emotions as an important part of organizational and working life, and study peculiarities of emotional manifestations in service organizations. |
| 4. Self-reported EI competencies are positively related to the perceived importance of emotions at work. | 4. Conduct a workshop on finding the impact of emotions on work performance, teamwork, cooperation etc. |
| 5. The customer, the service organization and its employees are the sources of emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative; | 5. Research what constitute emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative in a particular service organization and together with the staff find commonly accepted solutions for responses and actions. |
| 6. Emotion-evoking events are positively related to the self-reported EI competency of managing one's own emotions. | 6. Create and share practices of how EI helps people handle emotion-evoking events. |
| 7.A. The self-reported level of EI competencies differs according to occupation and service organization. 7.B. The self-reported level of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions differs according to education. 7.C. The self-reported level of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others differs according to ethnic affiliation. 7.D. The self-reported level of EI competencies differ according to gender and age. | 7. Take into account individual differences while requiring and developing the EI of employees. |

1.A. Develop the EI of Estonian service employees and especially the competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others.

The development of EI is not restricted to attending courses, but all types of development activities could be used in order to increase the level of EI. These could include self-development actions such as independent reading of related materials, completing exercises, listening for feedback, analyzing one's own behaviour, resolving practical cases etc. Training is probably one of the most extensive areas for implications. Fineman (2003) claims that there are two views on EI development: if we view EI as a skill or competency, it promises to be learnable, and considerably attractive to practitioners and training specialists; an alternative view is that EI is basically formed by adulthood and will be resistant to further change and thus, as EI rooted in early life experiences, significant changes in EI would not normally be expected. In this dissertation the author presumes that EI is possible to develop, but not dramatically. Stein and Singh (2006) believe that the emotional competence of the person is a learned capacity that leads to outstanding performance at work. Stein and Book (2001) claim that EI is a skill and it can be improved by means of training, coaching and experience. Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan and Adler (1998) present guidelines for developing emotional intelligence in organizations based on the best knowledge available on how to promote social and emotional learning (see appendix 9 "The optimal process for developing emotional intelligence in organizations").

Manna and Smith (2004) find in their study that sales representatives do agree that EI training should be introduced in sales training programs. The participants of the study implemented by Scherl *et al* (2005) believe that the development of emotional competencies is either very or quite important and aspects of EI were "trained" into the workforce (e.g. motivation, self-awareness, conflict management, social networking, team working and efficient communication). Service organizations could consider including EI as a key component in customer-contact employee training (Wong, 2004). Once employees gain support by learning in a group setting, they can practice what they have learned and apply EI to specific situations in a sales environment (Rozell *et al*, 2004). Including the EI topic in service-related training events could be beneficial.

In Estonian service organizations the self-assessed level of EI competencies were lower for the interpersonal competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others. These results should be acknowledged in Estonian service organizations and taken into account when developing training programs. There are different topics what could be covered during EI training for service providers. Some of those are presented in table 61 and could be included in service employee training programs. Still, training is not the only way to develop EI; there are also other methods of learning through self-education, case studies, coaching etc. This is more about support from the organization and showing that EI competencies matter in a service organization.

Table 61. Topics to include in development programs for service providers

| <i>EI scales</i> | <i>How to increase the level of EI competency.</i> |
|---------------------------------------|---|
| <i>Identifying one's own emotions</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain the essence of identifying one's own emotions; • Educate the frontline employees to be aware of customer expectations regarding emotional responses (Mattila, Enz, 2002); • Raise individual awareness of one's own emotions and the customer's (Rozell <i>et al</i>, 2004). |
| <i>Managing one's own emotions</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Teach ways to manage one's own emotions in the service encounter; • Train techniques for managing one's own emotions, handling difficult customers and managing a bad mood so you can still perform a service encounter; • Coach how to regulate emotions in response to aggressive and hostile customers (Grandey <i>et al</i>, 2004); • Implement attributional training to teach service providers to be optimistic (teach how to change the person's beliefs in difficult situations so that resulting negative motivational and affective consequences can be avoided) (Rozell <i>et al</i>, 2004); • Teach how to engage in deep acting (e.g. the perspective-taking technique which puts the employee in the customer's shoes and thereby increases their ability to adopt a customer's viewpoint) (Hennig-Thurau <i>et al</i>, 2006). |
| <i>Empathizing with others</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain empathy and how it is related to the skill of identifying one's own emotions; • Explain how it is possible to apply empathy in the service situation; • Show how empathy helps to build better relationships with customers; • Explain mimetic or complimentary responses to customer's emotional displays (Wong, 2004); • Teach how to read customer emotional displays and facial expressions, and how to change the "script" accordingly (Mattila, Enz, 2002); • Coach understanding the customer's needs (Rozell <i>et al</i>, 2004). |
| <i>Relating to others</i> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Explain how the emotions of the service provider and the customer influence communication; • Train skills of interpersonal relationships (Varca, 2004); • Teach how to manage customer relationships (Rozell <i>et al</i>, 2004). |

Source: compiled by the author; references as cited.

In reference to EI development, Stein and Book (2001) say that there is no such thing as a quick fix – building unfamiliar skills requires awareness, dedication and practice, and even when a higher level of EI is achieved, it is necessary to deal with each and every situation in the best possible way. But the new level of knowledge will enable people to chart new ways to behave in response to

conditions (*Ibid.*). This is about learning and sharing, because it needs extensive feedback from managers and employees in order to develop EI. This is not just a case of one employee who decides to develop his or her EI; the support of the organization is crucial – if there is no support from managers and colleagues the learning process would not give such extensive results because there is no consensus about the necessity for EI. Developing EI should involve a critical mass of employees if the aim is to increase the overall level of EI.

1.B. Recruit service employees who are good at applying EI competencies and who have the right attitudes towards the customer.

In order to have superior service, it is necessary to hire talented and qualified frontline employees (Hennig-Thurau *et al*, 2006). Organizations should adapt their selection practices to recruit and hire service providers who will exhibit emotionally intelligent behaviours (Rozell *et al*, 2004). Jacobs (2001) speculates that hiring (or selecting) is one of the quickest ways to increase EI in the organization; but unless the organization hires a critical mass (usually greater than 20 percent) of emotionally intelligent personnel, it may not see an impact.

Service organizations might include EI as a criterion in the employee selection process (Mattila, Enz, 2002). Varca (2004) claims that it is not possible to measure EI competencies with CV data and complex skill sets require sophisticated measurement tools. He suggests that behaviourally based interviews would be a minimum screening process; simulating customer contact is a good way to assess EI in service provision. The hiring process must include a method for identifying the EI competencies of candidates. After the EI competencies are mapped and modelled it is necessary to create algorithms that enable to sort outstanding and typical performers. Use of behavioural event interviews is a helpful method in selecting candidates with respect to EI. (Jacobs, 2001) Rozell *et al* (2006) found a positive relationship between EI and sales performance, and suggest that if adequately researched and validated, EI might be useful as both a selection and recruitment tool. There are a lot of different tests applied in the selection process (from IQ tests to situational tests), but EI is not usually measured during the selection process. Thus, the suggestion is to implement an EI measurement tool as one part of the recruitment and selection process for service employees. Nevertheless, whatever testing is chosen during recruitment should remain additional information about the applicant, it is equally important to hire an employee who has the ‘right’ attitudes towards customer service. Herein it is difficult to define what are those ‘right’ attitudes, because they largely depend on the culture of the service organization – what in one organization is considered to be an appropriate way to behave, for another organization could be unacceptable. Thus, attitudes should be assessed carefully.

1.C. Recognize employees who have high EI and those who have acted in a way that high EI has benefited the results.

The importance of EI should be communicated at all levels of the organization, and employees should receive feedback on their efforts to behave constructively in service situations (Rozell *et al*, 2004). Organizations that train for EI could incorporate these behaviours into their performance appraisals and reward structure. Emotionally intelligent behaviour that promotes increased sales and constructive responses to customers should be rewarded (*Ibid.*) Management should decide how much it is necessary to pay for quality service – jobs that require more skills also demand higher wages and the absence of competitive pay will reduce the recruiting pool, which will diminish the selection and training efforts (Varca, 2004). Emotional competencies can be integrated into the performance review process, which involves setting objectives or business goals, providing feedback on the attainment of these goals, and linking this to pay (Jacobs, 2001). It is definitely not easy to incorporate EI competency into a reward system because it depends heavily on the validity of the evaluation tool and the importance of the EI competency for the role or position. Singh (2006) thinks that simply having a high level of EI does not necessarily guarantee that the person will be professionally successful, but emotional competencies are vital for certain professions. Indeed it is possible to include EI competency in a performance appraisal or competency management system (as one of the required competencies), evaluate present levels of competencies, find development needs and link this to a reward system. The author of the dissertation does not believe that the evaluation of EI competency alone and rewards based on that is beneficial because this would not take into account other important competencies that are necessary for superior service work. EI competency should be considered as one (and not the only) element in the service employee competency pool.

2. Train employees how to manage emotions and explain the role of emotions in the service encounter.

EI is beneficial for building effective relationships with co-workers and with customers as well. For example, Wong (2004) believes that a pleasant experience can encourage customers to build a more lasting relationship with the service organization and seek to return. Still it is important to explain the essence of emotional labour and the peculiarities of deep and surface acting, because “forced” empathy and insincere relationships can be harmful. Hennig-Thurau *et al* (2006) claim that the authenticity of an emotional display by front line staff and the sincerity with which staff interact with customers may be much stronger drivers of service outcomes than policies that require people to smile at any cost. So, it is important to communicate EI in order to enhance relationships within the organization and with customers.

Especially in service organizations, employees need to be encouraged to develop the EI competency of managing their own emotions, because it enables them to react in ways that bring forward the best solution for the customer and for the organization. Managing one's own emotions could be done by means of deep or surface acting. It is definitely not always possible to manage one's emotions, but there should be an understanding that emotions in a service situation can be managed. This brings forward the topic of emotions in the service encounter. Customers often decide about the service act and service organizations in terms of their emotional reactions – the affective side of a service encounter should be considered and skilfully used.

3. Regard emotions as an important part of organizational and working life and study the peculiarities of emotional manifestations in service organizations.

Organizational activities are not just about rational thinking and decision-making. Emotions and intuition play as important a role and actually support rationality. It is crucial that the management of the organization understands that emotions impact human activities in the organization and already by acknowledging this, the behaviour of managers should reflect that. Managers and leaders are examples for employees; thus, how managers and leaders behave and what they consider to be important is replicated by organizational members. Considering emotions to be important in the organization does not mean overwhelming emotional displays, but actions which are performed in a way that EI competency is applied.

There are many situations in service organizations where emotions evolve and discussion about the ways emotions manifest in service organizations could be initiated with service organization employees in order to increase the employee's competency of identifying one's own emotions in acknowledgement of emotionally loaded situations. The work of service employees is specific, because of the immediate interaction with stakeholders (customers) and the way employees handle the relationships with them could be decisive for customers in terms of whether to consume the service in the particular organization or not.

4. Conduct a workshop on finding the impact of emotions on work performance, teamwork, cooperation etc.

Attitudes and perceptions of organizational members could be influenced not only by recruiting consultants or external training, but also by internal means of development. Often employees do not realize the impact of emotions on organizational activities such as performance, teamwork, cooperation etc. Conducting workshops or seminars are helpful methods for directing attention towards a certain topic. During the workshop the involvement of employees in finding out how emotions impact work activities is the main aim; finding solutions is not the most important, but involvement and initiating the

discussion is worth more than the practical outcome. Moreover, the prioritization of emotions at work would enable people to create an environment where the application of EI competencies is appreciated and understood.

5. Research what constitute emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative in a particular service organization and together with the staff find commonly accepted solutions for responses and actions.

As seen from the present study, it is possible to collect data about emotion-evoking events with two open ended questions that give qualitative data about the source of events that are appraised as positive or negative. By collecting and analyzing these it is possible to create case studies and involve service organization employees in resolving them. It should be noted that in this process not only should service providers be involved, but also managers, administrative staff and workers, because they also indirectly participate in the service act and what is more important, they shape and share the culture of the organization that creates a supportive or hindering environment for the use of EI competencies. By commonly resolving cases that evolve from the description of emotion-evoking events, staff creates a mutual understanding about how to respond and react to those events in a way that it is appropriate in the particular organization. This enables people to shape a customer-oriented culture in the desirable way and decrease uncertainty among service employees in handling emotionally demanding situations. This is a part of the learning process where best practices are discussed, created and shared.

6. Create and share practices of how EI helps people handle emotion-evoking events.

Emotion-evoking events in service organizations result from the customer, the service organization and the service employee. The EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathy are key to having an awareness of the event and the emotions it elicits in one's self and others. Explaining the principles and developing skills for identifying one's own emotions creates the basis for understanding when the event occurs, what emotions it evokes and what the other parties feel about that. The EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others are helpful in choosing appropriate responses to the event and the emotion. By developing these competencies it is possible to enhance the process of responding that leads to actions what are acceptable for the customer, the service organization and the service employee. There are emotion-evoking events that repeat and creating practices for how to handle such events in a beneficial way would help service employees to perform their job and achieve accepted outcomes. The practices should be in correspondence with the OC, which mediates the process of interpreting events and the emotions they elicit. Commonly agreed and accepted ways of handling

events would strengthen the OC through shared practices, behavioural patterns and norms.

7. Take into account individual differences while requiring and developing the EI of employees.

The complexity of human nature and individual differences cannot be underestimated while dealing with the development of EI in employees. Results of the study indicate that there are differences in individual characteristics with regard to self-reported EI that mean that employees regard their level of EI divergently, and it could be supposed that assessing the outcomes of EI development should also be approached with an awareness of those differences.

The aim of developing EI is to help develop social, emotional and behavioural skills, knowledge and understanding. Providing employees with EI development opportunities and training in the area of emotional learning is crucial for the following reasons (Morris, Casey, 2006): staff development opportunities help bring about a supportive, warm and encouraging environment; they support the ability of employees to ‘model’ emotionally intelligent behaviour; and they help develop staff confidence and competence in sharing knowledge about emotional intelligence. The EI of employees does not exist as a separate set of competencies, this is exactly like any other professional competency, it needs to have the opportunity to be applied. The next section will discuss the implications about OC in order to create an environment and culture where EI is a valued competency.

Implications of the results about organizational culture

The implications of the results about OC are presented as suggestions for managers and employees for creating a culture in the organization that could contribute to enhanced performance, and customer and employee satisfaction. The implications are presented in correspondence with the conclusions of the study (see table 62). The suggestions relate to developing the features of the Human Relations type of OC, studying OC and creating a desirable cultural profile, understanding and exploiting the peculiarities of a service-oriented culture, creating a positive environment for employees and customers, and dealing with emotion-evoking events in an effective way.

Table 62. Summary of conclusions and implications about OC

| Conclusions | <i>Implications</i> |
|--|---|
| <p>1.A. The perceived dominant types of OC in Estonian service organizations are the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types.</p> <p>1.B. In Estonian service organizations the perceptions of the Human Relations type of OC is related to the Rational Goal type of OC.</p> | <p>1. Enhance features of the Human Relations type of OC in Estonian service organizations.</p> |
| <p>2. In service organizations features of the Rational Goal type of OC are perceived as dominant, and features of the Human Relations type of OC are the least represented.</p> | <p>2. Research and map the OC of the service organization, create a desirable cultural profile and plan long-term cultural change initiatives for reaching the desirable state.</p> |
| <p>3. The perceived types of OC of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes differ according to service organizations.</p> | <p>3. Analyze peculiarities of the service organization culture, find mismatches between managerial actions and employees perceptions, and between declared and perceived values.</p> |
| <p>4. The perceived types of OC are positively related to the importance of emotions at work.</p> | <p>4. Create a positive working environment where positive emotions prevail.</p> |
| <p>5. Emotion-evoking events appraised as positive and negative are related to perceptions of Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes types of OC.</p> | <p>5. Create norms and shared practices for how to handle difficult emotion-evoking events in light of the service encounter and the organizational culture.</p> |

1. Enhance features of the Human Relations type of OC in Estonian service organizations.

EI competencies in the culture of service organizations play an important role. Consumer service employees must interact with the public, and therefore, require significant interpersonal skills. Haksever *et al* (2000) suggest that for service employees, pay is typically low and advancement is slow, and thus, managers must pay attention to motivating factors to maintain a sufficient level of job satisfaction or face poor service performance and high turnover. This indicates the need to enhance features of the Human Relations type of OC where relationships are important; these features serve as the basis for cooperation and teamwork, so managers should pay attention to motivating their subordinates, empowering them and offering opportunities for development in order to have high job satisfaction and loyalty. Hennig-Thurau *et al* (2006) discuss that simply hiring low-paid service employees with limited qualifications and motivation, and requiring them to smile at customers as part

of their job description may not deliver the desired results, whereas the display of authentic feelings by service employees is likely to be more effective for positively influencing customer satisfaction and related service outcomes. But this requires more than just training in EI; it requires an OC that supports people and encourages a high level of EI. As Hopson *et al* (1999) express that whether front-liners smile or not will be much more to do with how they are led and managed than with how they are trained, and the challenge is not to get staff to smile at the customer, but to get the customer to smile at the staff because he or she has enjoyed the service experience. By enhancing the Human Relations type of OC it is possible to create an environment where EI is a necessary competence and there is encouragement to use EI in practice.

This is also true for Estonian service organizations where the Human Relations type of OC is perceived as the less dominant culture. Estonian service organizations are indeed result-oriented, but in light of the high performance requirements, the fact that the relationships within the organization and with the public play a supportive role in achieving the goals is not given enough attention. Estonian service organizations need to pay more attention to the ‘soft’ side of activities because too much of a result-driven focus with people as just resources for achieving high performance could diminish the motivation of the employees to contribute. Cameron and Quinn (1999) present ‘hints’ for enhancing the Human Relations type of OC (see appendix 10) that involve activities related to assessment, leadership, career development, team-work, communication, empowerment and involvement, development, health and safety etc. These could be used when creating actions for cultural change. The Human Relations type of OC is about giving continuous feedback for the employees on their behaviour and performance that enables them to analyze their own actions and make corrections. Managers of Estonian service organizations should seriously consider enhancing the Human Relations type of OC in order to have more balanced performance.

2. Research and map the OC of the service organization, create a desirable cultural profile and plan long-term culture change initiatives for reaching the desired state.

In order to shape such a culture in an organization that supports service activities, it is necessary to research and map the OC from the outset. There are many opportunities for studying OC (e.g. Reino’s OVQ as an OC measurement tool has been validated for the Estonian context), and conducting a survey in the organization combined with some qualitative means (e.g. study emotion-evoking events, conduct in depth interviews or focus groups to validate the results of the survey) would enable the organization to draft a current picture of the prevailing OC. While analyzing the results, the employees of the service company should be involved in creating the preferred profile, plan actions for achieving this and implement them. Cultural change is a long-term process and a fast fix should not be expected because as OC is a perceived and collective

phenomenon, it is about changing employees mind-sets, norms and traditions, systems and procedures, and managerial and leadership practices. This all takes time and effort, but would result in a culture that enables the company to achieve higher performance, best practice in the industry, and create beneficial service experiences for customers, a good place for employees to work and competitive advantage.

3. Analyze the peculiarities of the culture of the service organization, find mismatches between managerial actions and employees perceptions, and between declared and perceived values.

The culture of service organizations tends to be customer-oriented – this is something that makes service organizations different from other organizations. The culture of service organizations should help customers feel understood, helped, served, respected, valued and important (Singh, 2006). The culture of service organizations is about valuing and understanding of customer emotions and about creating a positive emotional experience. It is necessary to analyze what those peculiarities of a service organization are in general and in the particular organization by answering a simple question: why does the customer choose specifically this organization? The answer to this question makes it possible to match the employee's opinions about the strength of the existing culture. The answers should be analyzed separately for employees and managers in order to find disparities in these perceptions. Often managerial activities are not so obvious to the employees and not all decisions are taken with the involvement of the employees, but a lack of explanations and information could create a disparity between the managerial activities and the employees' perceptions of them. These disparities should be considered by the management and allow discussion and behaviour change. The customers could also be asked why they chose specifically this organization and in combination with other results, development opportunities could be found and strengths could be enhanced.

Incongruence between the existing profile of OC and the declared values could be manifested in emotion-evoking events that are appraised as negative because employees notice the behaviour of organizational members that is not in accordance with the declared statements. This discrepancy could cause negative emotions and decrease motivation in the employees. Such incongruence between the declared values and existing practices should be seriously considered by the management because the consequences might be undesirable and could manifest in low motivation and loyalty of employees, low satisfaction of staff and customers, lack of understanding and empathy, low morale and a negative climate. Ultimately, the discrepancy should be studied, analyzed and dealt with.

4. Create a positive working environment where positive emotions prevail.

The customer may choose to shop at a particular store because he or she likes the environment there; subsequently, the customer may spend more money as a result of the positive mood induced by the atmosphere. This requires an understanding of the relationship between the organization's atmosphere and customer's emotional states (Wong, 2004). Bardzil and Slaski (2003) claim that organizations that are successful in today's dynamic business world are likely to be those that take a more proactive approach to the development of a positive service climate. The results of the study by Burns and Neisner (2006) show that since minimizing negative emotions is important in customer decision-making behaviour, the probability of repeat shopping occurring at the retailer is likely to be further damaged by the associated negative emotions. Hennig-Thurau *et al* (2006) also admit that service organizations may benefit from focusing their attention on increasing positive customer emotions. Managers who wish to improve the climate for services within the organization should aim to create and support more positive emotional experiences, and to reduce and minimize negative ones for staff and for customers (Bardzil, Slaski, 2003). A positive working environment of course is beneficial not only for customers, but also for employees. A positive climate makes employees feel appreciated, reduces stress levels and enables people to contribute in the best possible way.

There are two dimensions that need to be considered when creating a suitable environment: physical settings and climate. From one perspective, the physical settings should be created to suit the customers. Wong (2004) even suggests that the organizational environment should be adjusted (e.g. the temperature, lighting, or layout) in order to appeal to customers. From another perspective, there should be a climate and atmosphere that appeals to customers. A positive climate is created by employees and their behaviour; for example, Grandey *et al* (2004) claim that management is encouraged to enhance the sense of job autonomy for service providers so that negative episodes with customers are less stressful, meaning that it is necessary to create the feeling for service employees that they control their jobs; for example, as simple as telling the employees that they have the freedom to take a break if they need one after a rough customer, or that they can tell customer that they have crossed the line. Thus, creating a favourable environment for employees will be reflected in a positive light for the customers.

5. Create norms and shared practices for handling difficult emotion-evoking events in light of the service encounter and the organizational culture.

Emotion-evoking events are critical incidents that are appraised as positive or negative. There is a relationship between emotion-evoking events and OC, meaning that in some types of cultures certain events evolve more and are considered to be more important. Emotion-evoking events in service organizations result from the customer, the service organization (or features of

its OC) and the service organization employee himself/herself. For the customer, the service encounter incorporates how the service is provided by the service employee (competency, mistakes, smooth delivery), and how organizational practices and the environment support the delivery of the service. The decision about the service delivered is taken from the service provider to whole service organization. If the customer is not satisfied, he or she will not indicate the name of the service provider with whom the experience was gained, but the name of the service organizations is what will be repeated. That is why it is necessary to study what those emotion-evoking events are and how to handle them. There are constraints and enablers that allow to react to events in the certain way. For example, the features of the Internal Processes type of OC provides standards, procedures and rules as a basis that helps the service provider resolve events in a way that is appropriate for the organization. Still there is tension between the types of OC – from one perspective, the Internal Processes type of OC is useful for finding a solution to emotion-evoking events, but a lack of the features of the Human Relations type of OC in combination could create a ‘cold’ approach to the customer implying an emphasis on rules and not caring enough about relationships. The ideal situation does not exist anyway, but a balanced application that is suitable for the particular organization should be established.

Difficult emotion-evoking events are negatively appraised and how to handle them might not be established. There might be a lack of norms and practices about how to handle certain events to the benefit organization and the customer. One way is to analyze emotion-evoking events, compose case studies and resolve them (was proposed earlier), but another way of dealing with them is through shared practices and understandings. For example, if it is agreed that whatever the situation prescribes, the customer must leave with a positive (or at least neutral) experience, then the shared understanding that the customer is the most important value in the organization should serve as the basis for choosing appropriate behaviour by the service provider. So, there are particular norms and practices that enable people to find a suitable way to handle emotion-evoking events, but values also serve as a general guide.

Implications of the results about the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture

Implications of the results about the relationships between EI and OC are presented as general suggestions to help understand the results and utilize them. These implications conform to the conclusions of the study (see table 63).

Table 63. Summary of conclusions and implications about the relationships between EI and OC

| Conclusions | Implications |
|--|---|
| 1. The predictors for EI competencies in Estonian service organizations are related to ethnic affiliation, age, gender, education and occupation, and perception of the Human Relations, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC. | 1. Understand and deal with peculiarities of Estonian service organizations with regard to relationships between EI and OC. |
| 2. Self-reported EI competencies and perceived types of OC are related to each other. | 2. Utilize the knowledge about relationships between EI and OC in service organizations. |
| 3. There is variation in the relationships between estimations of EI and OC of employees of service organizations. | 3. Regard the service sector as heterogeneous and create competitive advantage in the service organization through enhancing service provision and culture. |

1. Understand and deal with the peculiarities of Estonian service organizations with regard to the relationships between EI and OC.

Estonian service organizations have their own special qualities that should be taken into account when requiring high qualifications from service providers. The results of the study conducted show that perceptions of some types of OC are a precondition or support the application of EI competencies. Manifestations of the features of the Rational Goal type of OC would enable service employee to apply such EI competencies as identifying and managing one's own emotions. Features of the Human Relations type of OC would create favourable conditions for revealing the EI competency of managing one's own emotions and relating to others. Attributes of the Internal Processes type of OC would enable people to implement the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, empathizing with others and would hinder the application of the EI competency of relating to others. It should be taken into account that if the organization requires, for example, high competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others, but has limited manifestations of the Human Relations type of OC then it is not possible to make such demands because there is no organizational support for delivering the desired EI competencies.

With regard to Estonian service organizations, the following aspects of development, training, assessment, selection should be considered:

- employees with a high perceived competency of identifying one's own emotions tend to be Russian-speaking, female and who regards goal achievement, performance, rules and regulations highly;

- employees with a high perceived competency of managing one's own emotions tend to be a specialist, over 51 years old, with a primary education and who considers relationships, team-work, cooperation and goal achievements to be important;
- employees with a high perceived competency of empathizing with others tend to be a Russian-speaking, female, over 51 years of age, with a primary education and who values rules, regulations and formality;
- employees with a high perceived competency of empathizing with others tend to be a middle manager and who appreciates relationships, team work and cares about people and customers and who does not value rules, regulations, formalization etc.

Organizational culture would make preconditions for EI from the perspective of importance and development activities, also norms and practices about emotional expressions and management. Chrusciel (2006) even claims that EI serves as a potential predictor with which to speculate upon a person's fit in an organization's culture. Singh (2006) notes that the development of EI could have positive outcomes for OC by creating an environment where employees feel safe, trusted, special, needed, included, important, cooperative, focused, productive, motivated, respected and valued. Higgs and Dulewicz (2002) rhetorically ask how can organizations encourage or develop the EI of their people? They think that this question is related to the extent to which the culture of the organization recognizes, nurtures and promotes individuals who display elements of EI. Thus, the EI competencies might be supported by the organization, or might not be and this should be acknowledged while analyzing certain service organizations.

2. Utilize the knowledge about the relationships between EI and OC in service organizations.

The results of the research prove that there is a relationship between EI and OC, and this knowledge should be utilized by managers and employees of service organizations. The application of EI in an organization is not a matter for the employee, but the organization with its culture has an impact on the opportunities for using EI competencies in the workplace. Service organizations differ from one another and it could not be assumed that the high performance of a person in one organization would ensure the suitability and person-organization fit of the same person in another organization. Employees enter work with their own understanding about their abilities and favourable preconditions for utilizing those abilities and competencies do not always exist. Thus, when choosing employees to work in a particular organization the attitudes and fit with the culture should be regarded as well, the required level of competencies alone will not necessarily ensure that the person will use those to the best extent in the organization.

Rozell *et al* (2004) found in their research that EI scores of sales personnel were significantly related to customer-orientation levels. Thus, the results of their research led to the conclusion that firms that are interested in building a service force consisting of individuals rating high in customer-orientation may have a viable tool for selecting individuals with high emotional intelligence or to train for EI. Customer-oriented organizations care not only about internally expressed emotions, but also what the customer feels. Understanding and adapting to the customers' emotional displays could be translated into a unique and differentiable value in order to create a significant competitive advantage (Wong, 2004). Accordingly, the competencies of EI should be considered as beneficial for creating the customer experience and a customer-oriented OC. In service organizations it is crucial that the customer is regarded as most important value, and encouraging employees to behave emotionally intelligently will benefit organizational results in the long run.

3. Regard the service sector as heterogeneous and create competitive advantage in the service organization through enhancing service provision and culture.

The industry where the organization operates is a source of OC (e.g. Dastmalchian *et al*, 2000; Chatman, Jehn 1994) and sets the requirements for the competencies needed from employees. The results of the present study indicate the variation of EI competencies, OC and their relationship within one sector. Therefore, the service sector cannot be considered homogeneous, and service organizations as unified entities. Customers perceive the service act differently because the cultures of service organizations are distinct. Also, EI competencies are applied differently because varieties of culture set the preconditions for the application of EI competencies by employees. Acknowledgement of the fact that manifestations of competencies (in this case EI competencies) is mediated by OC could serve as a basis for creating a unique process of service provision. A distinctive way of serving customers that considers customer expectations, satisfaction, the readiness of employees to deliver the service in the way that meets (or exceeds) those expectations and achieves customer satisfaction in combination with the enhancement of the features of OC that support those actions could be seen as a foundation for creating competitive advantage for the service organization. Service organization selections on the part of the customers is done by finding something special about the organization and this peculiarity could be created by enhancing such a culture of service organization that enables the manifestation of competencies that contribute in creating a service delivery process that meets customer expectations about service quality resulting in the outcomes and performance of the service organization.

The complexity of organizational activities and human behaviour as a response to those activities should not be underestimated. There are no clear patterns and established ways for dealing with people – there are many other contextual variables that could influence the behaviour of employees, what they

feel and how they manage emotionally demanding situations. Herein it is suggested that managers of organizations be aware of the complexity, think about processes in holistic way and utilize knowledge gained from similar research to that presented in this dissertation.

The managerial and developmental implications that have been presented above should be considered with common sense: not all of them are necessary to implement and not all of are reasonable to implement. There should be a balance between implementation costs and desired effect. The presented implications serve as a range of options to enhance thinking and creative approaches to challenges in service organizations, and thus picking out the most suitable, and modifying and applying others in the context of the particular organization could lead to the most effective results.

CONCLUSION

Emotions are attracting increased interest in organizational behaviour literature, and emotional intelligence is one phenomenon that explains the link between emotion and reason. Emotional intelligence refers to the set of competencies that help people explain, understand, use and handle their emotions, relate to other people and regard emotionally loaded situations constructively. Especially in the service sector, EI competencies are crucial due to the direct interactions with customers during which emotions are evoked and influence the service delivery process. The role of organizational culture is to provide a shared understanding about values, common use of norms, interpretation of symbols and guidance for behaviour. OC is an emotional phenomenon and EI competencies are helpful in understanding what emotions organizational activities evoke, how to manage emotions in an appropriate way according to shared norms and practices, what other people feel in the organization and how to relate to others in order to achieve effective interpersonal relationships. The connections between the two concepts have not been explored, and due to the lack of empirical evidence, the present dissertation explores novel aspects of human behaviour through investigating relationships between EI and OC.

The service sector in Estonia has only been investigated in a fragmented manner and no systematic research has been conducted. Nevertheless about 60% of Estonian gross domestic product is gained from the activities of service organizations. It is necessary to increase the volume and breadth of research within the service industry, and the contribution made by the present study aimed to provide secondary analysis of the culture of Estonian service organizations and the competencies of their employees, and set and test propositions concerning EI, OC and the relationships between these two concepts.

The motivation for the dissertation was to discover what the conceptual background of EI is and how it is manifested in organizations and examine the theoretical grounds for the relationships between EI and OC and close some gaps in the literature. This included the development of an EI measurement instrument that could be applied in organizational settings and conduct an empirical study among employees of Estonian service organizations.

The aim of the dissertation is to explore the manifestation of emotional intelligence in service organizations and its relationship to organizational culture based on the example of Estonian service organizations. In order to achieve the aim the origin and approaches of emotional intelligence and its manifestations in the work and service context as a basis for developing EI measurement methodology were explored and analyzed. The investigation of the role of EI in organizational culture and service provision made it possible to clarify the theoretical grounds for understanding the relationships between EI and OC. In order to create contextual input for the deduction of relationships between EI and OC, the peculiarities of organizational culture in service

organizations were sought, and this included an exploration of the Estonian service sector and service organizations. An examination of the theoretical grounds and extent empirical evidence about the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture provided information for the deduction and formulation of the research propositions throughout the dissertation. The development of the methodology for measuring EI in organizational settings made it possible to conduct the research among Estonian service organizations, analyze data and present results in light of the propositions. The discussion and interpretation of the research results served as a basis for shaping managerial and practical implications in the form of suggestions for service organizations in general and for Estonian organizations in particular.

The dissertation consists of two chapters. The first chapter consists of an exploration of approaches to EI, an investigation of EI differences according to individual characteristics and the deduction of relationships between EI and OC. In this chapter the function of EI in service provision and the role of EI in the OC of service organizations are investigated. The second chapter of the dissertation provides information about the Estonian service sector, the arrangement of the study, sample description and the development of the methodology for measuring EI. In this chapter the results of the study are presented, discussed and managerial and developmental implications are derived.

Theoretical background to the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational culture in service organizations

It is expected that the definition of EI represents an exact and close link between emotions and intelligence, which actually refers to the historical roots of EI in intelligence theories. The EI term was constructed at the beginning of the nineties and has been heavily popularized and this has increased the attention of scholars. There are many approaches to EI and those have different sets of components. Still it could be followed that most of the approaches have two orientations: intra- and interpersonal. EI is the set of competencies for identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others. EI is the competency that could vary according to individual characteristics (age, gender, education, occupation and ethnic affiliation).

Emotions are considered to be important in organizational life and especially in service organizations because the output of the organization is often created by means of immediate interactions with the customer. EI is considered to be a critical competence for service organization workers because self-awareness helps to identify emotions during the service act, managing emotions is beneficial in dealing with demanding customers, empathizing with others will

help staff understand what the customer is feeling during the service act and relating to others helps staff manage the relationship with the customer. Service employees are also required to perform emotional labour, which is related to the EI competency of managing one's own emotions. The service act is performed with three parties involved (service encounter triad): the customer, the service organization and the service employee. The peculiarities of the service encounter are manifested in emotion-evoking events that are critical stimuli causing emotions that are appraised as positive or negative. EI is beneficial in understanding when the event happens, what emotions it evoked in the service provider and the customer and how to respond to that event in order to keep the customer satisfied and goals of the organization achieved.

Organizational culture is considered to be an emotional phenomenon, but not much empirical evidence exists to prove that. It is theoretically elaborated that vision has an emotional message, values help to form emotional responses to work situations, and symbols are emotionally loaded. OC could be approached through typology and one suitable way to understand the peculiarities of culture is via the Competing Values Framework. Organizational culture helps explain human behaviour in the organization via shared values, norms, symbols and practices. Four types of OC – Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes – make it possible to investigate culture in a diverse way through dominant features and perceived values. The OC of service organizations differs in terms of the customer-orientation of the organization because the actions of employees and managers, systems and performance and actions aimed at customers create a certain environment where features of the Human Relations type of OC are mostly revealed. While service quality is created in a unique way, it is assumed that the cultures of service organizations differ from one another. One party in the service encounter is the service organization; thus, events that evoke emotions at work are interpreted with the help of OC and responses are chosen according to how it is appropriate to behave in that certain organization.

The literature provides a sufficient overview of the relationships between the different features of types of OC and EI, but no empirical research could be found on the actual topic of relationships between EI and OC. There is evidence that features of the Human Relations, Open System, and Rational Goal types of OC have a hypothetical relationship to all EI competencies. With respect to the Internal Processes type of OC much less evidence about links could be found. There are various theoretical elaborations about the associations between EI and OC. Some of those speculate that individual evaluations of situations and emotional reactions lead to perceptions of OC; other models suggest that OC causes emotional reactions in individuals. The relationships are twofold: OC supports or hinders the application of EI by employees, and employees with a certain level of EI seek organizations that value EI competence and when already involved in an organization they shape organizational practices by their emotionally intelligent behaviour and share those among organizational

members as examples through the learning process. The links between EI and OC are also revealed through the interpretation process, where the input is an emotion-evoking event, which needs the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathy to understand the event and the emotion it evokes. The next step in the process is the interpretation of the event and the emotion, where perceptions and manifestations of OC types provide information on how to respond in a way that is appropriate for that certain organization. The response also requires the EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others to reach actions that sustain shared practices and correspond with values.

The originality of the research stems from the unique combination of variables: emotional intelligence and organizational culture. Within the framework of the present research, the background to the relationships between EI and OC is analyzed, theoretical links are deducted, and an empirical study is conducted that allows to turn back to the theoretical argumentations and discuss the results as the basis for practical implications.

The data and research methodology

The study of the relationship between EI and OC took place during 2005–2008. The organizations in the sample were selected in order to have a high variety of industries. Altogether 14 organizations participated in the survey (1 415 respondents), 8 are service organizations (991 respondents, 70% of the entire sample). Data from all organizations was used in order to develop a measurement instrument for EI, and then further analysis focused on service organizations only. Service organizations were involved in retail trade and service (3 organizations), insurance services (1 organization), entertainment (1 organization), legal protection (2 organizations) and accommodation services (different hotels).

In order to measure the EI of the employees in organizational settings, a questionnaire was developed in 2004. The Emotional Intelligence Test in Organizations (EITO) was developed in four stages. The first stage involved analysing the literature on EI and exploring existing tests, which resulted in the creation of EITO items with four scales. The second stage included the composition of the preliminary and final versions of EITO with the participation of experts. The third stage involved the translation of the questionnaire to Russian. The fourth stage covered the implementation of a factor analysis in order to reduce the number of items in EITO and the creation of reliable factors.

A factor analysis (an oblique rotation method of principal axis factoring for items with promax rotation) was conducted in order to form scales for analyzing EITO. As a result of the factor analysis, four scales were extracted using *a priori hypotheses*. The scales in EITO represent the four EI competencies, which are described as follows:

1. The EI scale of *identifying one's own emotions* (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.77): employee notices, pays attention to and thinks about his/her feelings; admits emotions and understands what the reasons are behind emotion-evoking events; catches the emotion as it occurs and can distinguish between different feelings; at work the employee understands how feelings vary and evolve during work-related changes.
2. The EI scale of *managing one's own emotions* (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.78): employee can manage emotions at work and change them according to the situation; employee can cheer him or herself and maintain a good mood, avoid the harmful influence of negative feelings on work performance, control negative emotions that retard work activities; employee is optimistically disposed, can magnify positive emotions according to the situation and keep positive attitudes despite misfortune.
3. The EI scale of *empathizing with others* (6 items, Cronbach alpha 0.81): employee can place himself/herself on the place of a colleague, can feel what a colleague feels; employee notices real (also unexpressed) emotions of colleagues, the reasons behind those feelings, and understands when a colleague's behaviour is not congruent with his/her emotions; emotions of colleagues are considered to be important, colleagues' feelings are considered when involved in cooperating and problem-solving.
4. The EI scale of *relating to others* (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.68): employee can cheer up colleagues, enhance positive relationships between them; employee reacts to colleague's feelings, creates effective, friendly and informal relationships; employee knows how his/her emotions influence colleagues, can openly talk about emotions, show real feelings and colleagues know what he/she feels.

While completing the EITO questionnaire, the respondents were asked to evaluate the 46 items on a 6-point scale (from '0' indicating low estimates to '6' indicating high estimates). Two additional items that were not included in the factor composition were used in the analysis. The first one concerns the opinion of the respondents about the importance of emotions at work (from '0' not important to '6' important); and about what emotions evoke from what is going on at work (from '0' negative emotions to '6' positive emotions). There were two open-ended questions that represent the qualitative part of the study. The first asked respondents to describe situations at work that evoke or have evoked positive emotions in the respondent and the second, those that evoked negative emotions. The answers represent emotion-evoking events that were coded by two independent experts with an inter-rater reliability of 0.76 for positive events and 0.78 for negative events. The EITO questionnaire is a self-reported measure of EI that shows the respondents opinions about their level of EI competencies. Thus, the results of the analysis do not indicate anything about the phenomenon

itself, but what respondents think about their EI competencies. This should be taken into consideration when interpreting the results.

Organizational culture was measured by means of the Organizational Values Questionnaire (OVQ) developed by Reino (2009) consisting of 53 assertions. The Competing Values Framework (Cameron, Quinn, 1999) served as a theoretical basis for OVQ questionnaire composition. Four scales were designed to measure the four types of OC – Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes. The respondents were asked to evaluate assertions on the scale from ‘1’ indicating absolute disagreement to ‘10’ indicating absolute agreement with the assertion. A factor analysis for the OVQ was not implemented within the framework of this dissertation, but the necessary information was obtained from the author of the measurement tool. Four types of OC have been extracted as a result of the factor analysis as follows (Reino, 2009):

- *Human Relations* type of OC (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.78): organization believes that success could be gained through building trust and close relationships among people belonging to the organization.
- *Open System* type of OC (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.79): organizations that score high on this type are innovation-minded, they value employees being creative and coming up with innovative and fresh ideas; the core value of that kind of organization – adaptability, openness to change and innovativeness could also be found in the management’s attitudes and organizational procedures.
- *Rational Goal* type of OC (4 items, Cronbach alpha 0.79): organization focuses on external matters with the aim of gaining control over them; this type is more focused than others on the results defined through market share and profit maximization.
- *Internal Processes* type of OC (5 items, Cronbach alpha 0.80): organizational performance is highly regulated by written rules, where detailed job descriptions have been worked out and a strict reporting system is applied; the management demands a lot and primarily following the rules. Stability and focus on internal matters sets the framework for this type of OC.

In order to test the correspondence of the propositions, the following statistical methods have been implemented: descriptive statistics, ANOVA-analysis and LSD-test, paired sample test, correlation analysis and linear regression analysis.

Proposition’s correspondence

Based on the theoretical discussions and on the results of previous empirical research, propositions about EI, OC and the relationships between them were developed for general research settings and for Estonian service organizations.

The first set of propositions is about the self-reported level of EI of Estonian service organization employees; differences in EI assessments according to occupation, education, ethnic affiliation, age and gender; emotion-evoking events and their relationship to self-assessed EI competencies; relationships between EI and perceptions of the importance of emotions at work. The second set of propositions is related to OC: perceptions of predominant OC types in service organizations and particularly in Estonian service organizations; differences in perceptions of OC types according to service organizations; the relationship between estimations of OC types; and the relationships between the perception of OC types and emotion-evoking events. The third set of propositions concerns the relationships between EI and OC and are about predictors of EI competencies in Estonian service organizations in terms of age, gender, education, ethnic affiliation, occupation and perception of OC types; and the relationships between EI and OC in the whole sample and separately in service organizations. The propositions, the results of the study and the correspondence of the propositions will now be presented one at a time.

Propositions about Emotional Intelligence

Proposition 2.1.1.C: Employees estimations of the EI competencies of empathy and relating to others are below average in Estonian service organizations.

This proposition was *supported*, because results indicate that in Estonian service organizations employees self-assessed the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others significantly lower. These results are in accordance with secondary analysis on previously conducted empirical studies and surveys about Estonian service organizations employee competencies.

Proposition 1.1.3: Estimations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are significantly correlated to each other.

From the result of the analysis a positive relationship between all EI competencies ranging from weak to strong was found, thus the proposition was *supported*. It was found that the self-assessed EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathizing with others have a significant and high correlation; moderate significant correlations were found between the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions, managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others, empathizing with others and relating to others. Low, but significant correlations were revealed between the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and relating to others, managing one's own emotions and relating to others. The results of the study are congruent with the theoretical elaboration that EI competencies are linked to each other.

Proposition 1.2.4.A: Emotions are considered to be important at work.

This proposition was *supported* by the analysis – emotions are considered to be rather important at work according to the opinion of the respondents. Variation exists in estimations about the importance of emotions at work among the service organizations studied, indicating that in some organizations emotions are considered to be significantly more important or less important than in other organizations. The overview of the theory presented many claims about the importance of emotions in organizational life, but not much empirical evidence was found to prove that. This proposition provides empirical support to the theoretical elaborations.

Proposition 1.2.4.B: Evaluations of the EI competencies have a significant relationship to the importance of emotions at work.

This proposition was *supported*, because low to moderate positive correlations were found between self-reported EI competencies and the importance of emotions at work. There is a significant positive and moderate relationship between the self-reported EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and evaluations of the importance of emotions at work. There is a significant positive, but weak relationship between the perceived importance of emotions at work and the self-reported EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions. The results demonstrate that the higher the self-reported score for EI competencies, the more important emotions are perceived at work. The results could be interpreted from the opposite perspective – the higher the perceived importance of emotions at work, the higher the self-reported level of EI competencies.

Proposition 1.1.6.A: The customer, service organization and service employee him/herself are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events that are emotionally appraised as positive or negative.

Analysis indicates that this proposition was *supported*. The results show that the customer (customer behaviour, characteristics and attitudes, customer satisfaction), the service organization (work recognition, relations and environment) and the service employee (namely work achievements) are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events appraised as positive. The service organization (managerial activities, work relations, work arrangement), the customer (customer behaviour and customer dissatisfaction) and the service employee (insufficient competency and mistakes) are the stimuli resulting in emotion-evoking events appraised as negative. The theoretical section proposed a framework for stimuli for emotion-evoking events where the customer,

service organization and service provider result in emotion-evoking events that are appraised as positive or negative, and this proposition has been successfully tested within the framework of the study.

Proposition 1.1.6.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions in service organizations.

This proposition was *partly supported* because there are significant differences only in one competency of EI with respect to emotion-evoking events appraised as positive, indicating that those who noted that positive emotions are evoked by recognition evaluated their EI competency of managing one's own emotions lower. What is going on at work evokes rather negative emotions, and variation in the estimations exists in the sign of emotions for separate service organizations. The results also indicate that the higher the respondent's self-reported score for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions, the more positive activities that are going on at work seem to be.

Proposition 1.1.4.A: Employees with different occupations evaluate their EI at a significantly different level.

This proposition was *supported*. There are differences in the self-assessed EI competencies of managing one's own emotions and relating to others in the whole sample in various occupations, and differences in all EI competencies in separate organizations (e.g. middle managers scored significantly higher and specialists significantly lower). There is variation among service organizations on self-reported levels of EI, indicating that service work could differ within one sector. In the theoretical part it was elaborated that for some occupations EI competencies are more crucial than for other occupations and empirical evidence has been provided to support this.

Proposition 1.1.4.B: The higher education of employees is not related to higher evaluations of the level of EI competencies.

The results of the analysis show that this proposition was *partly supported*. There are differences in the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions and empathizing with others for both the whole sample and separate organizations according to education. Still only the EI competency of managing one's own emotions is positively and significantly related to education, meaning that the higher the respondent's education the higher the self-assessments for this competency. Discussions on the differences in EI according to education or academic achievements are controversial. This study

demonstrates that there might be some causal relationship between the self-reported level of EI and the educational level of respondent.

Proposition 1.1.4.C: Employees with a different ethnic affiliation evaluate their level of EI competencies at significantly different levels.

This proposition was *partly supported* because there are differences for the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions in the whole sample and in separate organizations. For the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others, differences are found only in separate organizations. No differences were found for the EI competency of managing one's own emotions. Again, the discussions on the topic of differences in EI according to ethnic affiliation are controversial – some empirical evidence indicates that there are links, but some do not find any differences. This study indicates that there might be some variation in self-assessed EI competencies according to ethnic affiliation.

Proposition 1.1.4.D: Women evaluate their level of EI competencies significantly higher than men.

Analysis shows that this proposition was *supported* – there are significant differences for all EI competencies where women's self-assessments were higher than men's in the whole sample. The same trend can be seen for separate organizations for the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and empathy.

Proposition 1.1.4.E: Middle-aged employees evaluate their EI competencies significantly higher than younger or older employees.

This proposition was *not supported*; actually, the results indicate absolutely the opposite. For the whole sample and for separate organizations EI estimations differ for all EI competencies, but middle-aged respondents had significantly lower self-reported evaluations for EI competencies than younger and older respondents.

Propositions about Organizational Culture

Proposition 2.1.1.A: Employees of Estonian service organizations perceive organizational culture to have dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC.

This proposition was *partly supported* because employees in Estonian service organizations perceive the Rational Goal and Internal Processes OC types to be

dominant. The Open System and Human Relations types of OC are perceived to be manifested to a lesser extent.

Proposition 2.1.1.B: Perceived estimations of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of organizational culture are correlated in Estonian service organizations.

Analysis demonstrates that this proposition was *supported*. The results show that in Estonian service organizations a significant moderate correlation was found between estimations of the Human Relations and Rational Goal types of OC. Between all other types of OC correlations of estimations ranging from low to high were also revealed. Secondary data about the associations between OC types indicate that estimations of the Human Relations type of OC is related to the Rational Goal type of OC and this study supports the results of previous research in Estonian organizations.

Proposition 1.2.2.A: In service organizations, features of Human Relations types of OC are perceived as dominant.

This proposition was *not supported* because in the service organizations studied features of the Rational Goal type of OC were perceived to be dominant; perception of the Human Relations type of OC in general were least represented in service organizations. There are extensive theoretical discussions about the importance of features of the Human Relations type of OC, but nevertheless service organizations remain performance driven and this has also been revealed in this study.

Proposition 1.2.2.B: There are significant differences in perceptions of Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC among employees of service organizations.

Analysis demonstrates that this proposition was *supported*. There are significant differences in estimations of all types of OC in separate organizations. The differences according to service organizations follow a certain pattern – employees in organizations that have a high degree of labour intensity perceive the dominant features of the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC and employees in organizations with a low degree of labour intensity and a high level of interaction with customers perceive the dominant features of the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC. These results prove the theoretical elaborations about the variation of OC within the industry.

Proposition 1.2.3.A: The importance of emotions at work is significantly related to perceptions of OC types.

This proposition was *supported* because there are significant, but weak relationships between perceptions of all OC types and the perception of the importance of emotions at work. This means that respondents who perceive OC types higher will also perceive the importance of emotions at work higher; and likewise, respondents who think that emotions are important at work will evaluate OC types higher.

Proposition 1.2.3.B: Types of emotion-evoking events are significantly related to the perception of OC types.

Analysis shows that this proposition was *partly supported*. Significant differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as negative occurred for the Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes types of OC. There are significant differences in OC estimations according to emotion-evoking events appraised as positive in the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC. There are significant, but weak relationships between emotion-evoking events and perceptions of the Human Relations and Internal Processes types of OC. So, it can be seen that not all emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative have a significant relationship to the perception of all OC types. Nevertheless, the positive, but weak relationship between the respondents' perceptions of positive/negative emotion-evoking events in terms of what is going on at work and all OC types.

Propositions about the relationships between Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Culture

Proposition 1.2.4.C: Evaluations of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of the Human Relations and Open System types of OC, a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type of OC and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Processes type of OC.

This proposition was *partly supported* due to the non-compliance of the results and proposed strength of the relationships. The results show that there are low, but significant correlations between EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions and the Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC. The positive relationship means that the higher the self-reported level of the EI competencies of identifying one's own emotions and managing one's own emotions, the higher the evaluations for all OC types. It could also be said that the higher the estimations of all OC types, the higher the self-assessments of the EI competencies.

Proposition 1.2.4.D: Evaluations of the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others have a significant and strong relationship to the perceptions of the Human Relations and Open System types of OC; a moderate relationship to the perceptions of the Rational Goal type; and an insignificant or weak relationship to the perceptions of the Internal Process type of OC.

Analysis revealed that this proposition was *partly supported* because of the disparity between the results and the proposed strength of the relationships and the absence of a relationship between the EI competency of relating to others and the Internal Processes type of OC. The results show that there are low, but significant correlations between the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others and the Human Relations, Open System and Rational Goal types of OC. There are positive significant low correlations between the EI competencies of empathizing with others and the Internal Processes type of OC. This means that the higher the self-assessed estimations for the EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others, the higher the estimations of the OC types where the correlations were found. It could also be said that the higher the estimations of the OC types, the higher the self-assessments for the EI competencies.

The relationships between EI and OC in separate service organizations vary to a great extent. Organizations that have a low degree of interaction and customization and a high degree of labour intensity have the greatest number of relationships (from 8 to 13 from 16 possible relationships) followed by organizations with high interaction and low labour intensity (7 relationships).

Proposition 2.1.1.D: There are certain predictors of occupation, education, ethnicity, gender, age, and perception of types of OC for EI competencies of Estonian service organization employees.

This proposition was *supported* by the linear regression analysis. The main predictors for EI competencies are being a Russian-speaking woman over 51 years old with primary education and in a specialist or middle manager position. The Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC predict the EI competency of identifying one's own emotions; the Human Relations and Rational Goal types – managing one's own emotions; the Internal Processes type – empathy; and the Human Relations and Internal Processes types – relating to others. The results indicate the relationship between EI and OC where the Human Relations, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC serve as predictors of higher self-reported EI competencies.

Contributions to theory and practice

The contribution of this dissertation is twofold: there are contributions for theory that are presented in the discussion section of the dissertation; and there are contributions for practice that show managerial and developmental implications and make it possible to present suggestions for managers and employees of service organizations. Contributions are also made on two levels: for general research settings of organizations and for Estonian service organizations. The general conclusions from the study about EI, OC and the relationships between EI and OC in service organizations are presented as follows.

Conclusions about EI:

1. Employees of Estonian service organizations evaluate their level of EI competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others lower than the EI competencies of identifying and managing own emotions.
2. Evaluations of service organization employees for the EI competencies of identifying and managing one's own emotions, empathizing with others and relating to others are positively related to each other.
3. Employees of different service organizations perceive the importance of emotions at work in a diverse way and evaluate emotions at work to be rather important.
4. Evaluations of service organization employees about their EI competencies are positively related to the perceived importance of emotions at work.
5. The customer, the service organization and its employees represent the sources of emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative.
6. The opinion of service organization employees about the level of their EI competency of managing one's own emotions is related to events that evoke positively appraised emotions at work.
7. Employees in different service organizations with different occupations, education, ethnic affiliation, gender and age evaluate their EI competencies in a diverse manner.

Conclusions about OC:

1. Employees of Estonian service organizations perceive that the Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC represent dominant features of culture, although the Rational Goal and Human Relations types of OC are positively related.
2. Employees of service organizations evaluate the Rational Goal type of OC as prevalent and the Human Relations type as the least exposed cultural type.

3. Employees of different service organizations perceive the Human Relations, Open System, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC in a distinct way.
4. The perception of all OC types is related to evaluations of the importance of emotions at work by the employees of service organizations.
5. Events that evoke emotions that are appraised as positive or negative are related to perceptions of the Human Relations, Open System and Internal Processes types of OC.

Conclusions about the relationships between EI and OC:

1. In Estonian service organizations predictors of employees' EI competencies are ethnic affiliation, age, gender, education, occupation and the perception of the Human Relations, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC.
2. In service organizations the perception of employees about OC types and evaluations of EI competencies are positively related.

Contributions to theory

The topic of the relationship between EI and OC has not been explored via empirical investigations. This dissertation is the first attempt to find relationships between the two phenomena by conducting relevant research. There are many theoretical elaborations and discussions about the separate associations between some features of different OC types and EI, but no straightforward research about the connection between EI and OC was found by the author of the dissertation. Thus, the main contribution to theory is the empirical investigation of relationships between EI and OC in the service industry.

In order to conduct the study, a questionnaire for measuring self-reported EI was developed and validated. EITO has been designed especially for the organizational context and is applicable for the self-assessment of employees of private and public organizations. Despite the fact that EITO is a self-reported measure, this does not diminish the value of the study because from the epistemological point of view what is believed to be possessed reflects broader knowledge about the phenomenon itself.

This study proved that there is a relationship between self-reported EI competencies that refer to EI as a set of interrelated components. It has been demonstrated that emotions are considered to be important at work and the importance of emotions in the work place is related to EI competencies. Valuing emotions and finding areas where those can be applied requires EI competencies to be performed. The research results indicate that in service organizations emotion-evoking events appraised as negative or positive result from the customer, the service organization and the service organization employee, and EI competencies are related to those, implying the possibility to

shape the service encounter and the perceived quality of the service. EI differs according to individual characteristics, meaning that EI is not a competency that could be acquired by everyone and performed in a similar way for the majority.

The OC of service organizations is proposed to have dominant features of the Human Relations type, but the study results indicate that the Rational Goal type of OC is perceived to be most and the Human Relations type the least manifested. There is a need to find a balance between features of OC in order to gain benefits for employee well-being and customer satisfaction. Nevertheless, service organizations differ from one another in terms of OC, and this demonstrates the necessity to shape a unique culture for each organization to create competitive advantage. It has been proven that the importance of emotions at work is related to OC, and this shows that through the interpretation process emotions give OC meaning and help people understand how culture regulates human behaviour in the organization. The components of the service encounter triad (customer, service organization and service employee) that result in emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative are related to OC types confirming the role of OC in the process of interpreting those events.

The results of the empirical analysis revealed relationships between EI and OC between almost all EI competencies and all OC types (except the EI competency of relating to others and the Internal Processes OC type). This implies reciprocal influence – employees who self-report higher EI competencies will also perceive OC types to be more evident, and those employees who perceive OC types as more evident also evaluate their EI competencies higher. The relationships between EI and OC vary across the organizations studied, meaning that in some organizations relationships are manifested more and thus employee behaviour is more influenced by culture and EI competencies. This is especially true for service organizations with a high degree of labour intensity and a low degree of interaction and customization. The regression analysis shows that there are relationships between EI and OC implying that the Human Relations, Rational Goal and Internal Processes types of OC serve as predictors for evaluating EI competencies higher. Thus, the culture mediates or creates the preconditions for the application of the EI competencies that influence performance.

There has not been much research done in the area of OC and the service provider's competencies in Estonian service organizations. This dissertation attempts to close this gap because the context of the Estonian service sector has been extensively explored, and propositions derived and tested. The dissertation presents valuable information about the predominant features of OC in Estonian organizations, service organization employees' self-reported level of EI and predictors of EI in terms of age, gender, education, occupation, ethnic affiliation and OC perceptions. The results of the research could serve as the basis for further research in such an important industry as the service industry is for Estonia, and for managerial and developmental implications for understanding the peculiarities of Estonian service organizations, developing service

employees and the cultures of service companies in order to create a sector marked by high performance.

Contributions for practice

This study made it possible to present managerial and developmental implications for practitioners in order to develop service organizations. The results have applications in general research settings, though some results are meant for application especially in Estonian service organizations. The suggestions are separated into three areas: those that are related to the results about EI, those that are derived from the results about OC, and those that stem from the results about the relationships between EI and OC.

Suggestions about EI:

- Develop EI competencies (especially interpersonal competencies of empathizing with others and relating to others) in Estonian service organization employees taking into account individual differences.
- Recruit and recognise service organization employees who are applying EI competencies, practicing EI competencies to gain better results and who have suitable attitudes towards customers.
- Train service organization employees in how to manage their emotions in the service encounter.
- Study the function of emotions in organizational life and in service provision, realizing the peculiarities of emotional manifestations in service organizations.
- Organize workshops, seminars and so on in order to discuss and discover with the personnel how emotions influence work performance, teamwork, cooperation, relationships etc.
- Investigate the emotion-evoking events appraised as positive or negative in service organizations and with the involvement of the staff with the aim of mapping mutually accepted solutions on how to respond to events.
- Create and share practices on how the application of EI competencies help manage and respond to emotion-evoking events.

Suggestions about OC:

- Develop features of the Human Relations type of OC in Estonian service organizations.
- Investigate and map the OC of service organizations, build a desirable cultural profile and prepare long-term cultural management actions in order to reach a desirable state.
- Explore the OC characteristics of service organizations; investigate the gaps between managerial actions and the employees' opinions of them and between the actual and perceived organizational values.

- Build a positive working environment, create norms and common practices about managing difficult emotion-evoking events that enhance OC and develop service provision.

Suggestions about the relationships between EI and OC:

- Acknowledge the peculiarities of Estonian service organizations with respect to the relationships between EI and OC that indicate variations in manifestations in the extent of the connections in different service organizations;
- Recognise and deal with the relationships between EI and OC in service organizations that demonstrate the effect of OC that could support or hinder the application of EI competencies among service organization employees.
- Understand the heterogeneity of the service sector and build the competitive advantage of the service organization by developing service provision and OC.

Managerial and developmental suggestions that have been presented above should be applied with care because these implications serve as a wide range of options to enhance thinking and creative approaches to challenges in service organizations. The most effective results could be achieved by choosing the most suitable approaches and modifying and applying others in the specific context of the particular organization.

Limitations and future research

There are several **limitations** to the study stemming from the theoretical and the empirical perspective. The limitations are related to the lack of literature on the topic, the composition of the sample, the methodology and the measurement tool.

Lack of literature

Although there are extensive overviews of EI and OC separately, not many theoretical statements were found that examine the connections between the two concepts at any depth. The author of the dissertation did not find any empirical study that focuses on the direct relationships between EI and OC. Thus, while this lack can be seen as a limitation, filling this gap can also be seen as the most important contribution of the study. This is knowingly the first attempt to investigate empirically the links between EI and OC.

Composition of the sample

The dissertation focused on investigating service organizations and the composition of the sample could be more extensive and include more

organizations from the public sector. Even in the service sector, a lot of variation could be found. This would make it possible to have more variety, which would further facilitate the interpretations.

Research methods

The results of the quantitative analysis have been reflected in the dissertation. This might be seen as a limitation because even though the measurement tool has been statistically validated, some results are difficult to interpret. As EI and OC have been studied within the framework of one study, a common method bias could be present.

EI self-reported measure

One serious limitation concerns the use of the self-reported EI measure, which is inherently subject to a potential bias. The self-reported measure is better understood as a measure of the self-perception of abilities rather than as a measure of the emotional intelligence abilities themselves (Barchard, Hakstian 2004). Thus, the self-reported measure could give biased results because people tend to over- or underestimate their abilities or competencies.

It should be noted that it is not possible to generalize the study results for all service organizations. In sum, despite the limitations noted, the results offer some preliminary insights into understanding manifestations of EI in organizations and the relationship between EI and OC.

Future research areas firstly relate to the limitations presented above. In addition, further contributions could be made by broadening the methodology, adding the customer (satisfaction or service quality) to the research setting, implementing experimental or longitudinal research and shifting the research focus to the service provision.

Triangulated research methodology

One area to explore is to extend the research methods and the measurement tool. For example, the use of triangulated research methodology (e.g. questionnaires, interviews and observations) would make it possible to interpret results at a deeper level. In order to overcome the problems of the self-reporting approach, evaluations of customers and colleagues could also be included.

Study EI in the service

The present study asked respondents to assess their EI in the work context, and towards colleagues. The author of the dissertation has also developed the EITS questionnaire (Emotional Intelligence Test for Service), which is a similar questionnaire to EITO, but focuses on service provision and requires assessing EI towards customers. Due to the lack of data, the results of EITS were not included in the current study, but it would be worth continuing these studies and

find what the self-assessed level for EITS are, and how the scales for EITS relate to the scales for EITO.

Add the customer to the research

It is also possible to add the customer dimension to the research. Even though Kernbach and Schutte (2005) in their research on the impact of service provider EI on customer satisfaction did not find a significant relationship between service provider's and customer's EI, and explain that in brief service encounters a match between the characteristics of the customer and service provider is not very important. Still, this has not been tested empirically very much and would be worth exploring again.

Experimental research would make it possible to enhance the scope of the research and go deeper into topic of the relationships between EI and OC in service provision. The experiments could provide an opportunity to simulate service encounters and evaluate the service provider's EI and reactions to the customer in different organizations so that the culture of those create the context of the study.

Longitudinal research would make it possible to understand what impact systematic EI training for customer satisfaction would have. It would be interesting indeed to measure the service provider's EI and OC perceptions prior to and after the training taking into account the customer's level of satisfaction.

In addition to all this, it would be interesting to explore the predominant aspects that influence the service process. One option would be to shift the focus to service quality as a dependant variable to find what factors influence service quality (including emotions, EI, OC, individual and organizational characteristics etc.).

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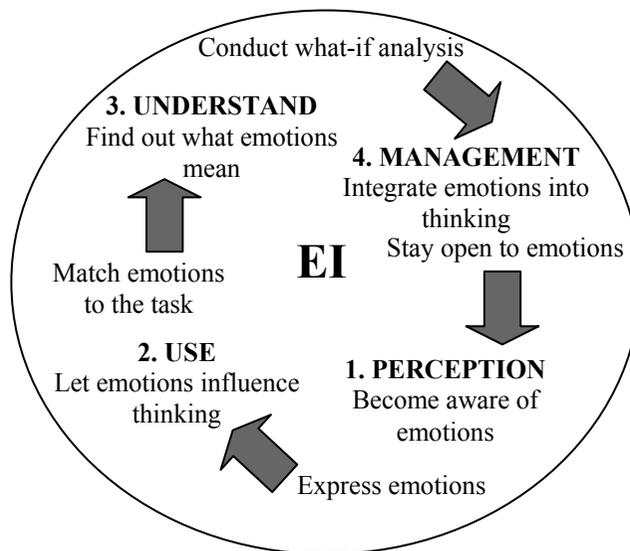
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APPENDICES

Appendix I. Mayer, Caruso, Salovey's ability based model of EI

1. *Identifying Emotions* includes a number of skills, such as the ability to identify feelings, express emotions accurately, and differentiate between real and phony emotional expressions.
2. *Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought* includes the ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple points of view, and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving (for instance, to use a happy mood to assist in generating creative, new ideas).
3. *Understanding Emotions* is the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional "chains," how emotions transition from one stage to another, the ability to recognize the causes of emotions, and the ability to understand relationships among emotions.
4. *Managing Emotions* includes the ability to stay aware of one's emotions, even those that are unpleasant, the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical, and the ability to solve emotion-laden problems without necessarily suppressing negative emotions.



Source: Caruso, Mayer, Salovey, 2002; Caruso, Salovey, 2004

Appendix 2. Singh's ability based model of EI

Emotional competency consists of following aspects:

- Tackling emotional upsets: includes tackling frustrations, conflicts, inferiority complexes etc. It also means avoiding emotional exhaustion such as stress, burnout and negativity emotions.
- High self-esteem: gives realistic confidence to perceive challenges as learning opportunities, resulting in constant growth and improvement.
- Tactful response to emotional stimuli: this mean being creative and practical towards emotional prompts elicited from the inner self and from the immediate environment.
- Handling egoism: egoism is based on the view that the fundamental motive behind all emotional conduct is self-interest. It means tackling ego problems without hurting one's self-esteem.

Emotional maturity constitutes:

- Self-awareness: the ability to recognize different feelings emanating from within and giving a name to them.
- Developing others: recognizing the value of contributions of others and encouraging their participation; anticipating others' points of view and involving them actively.
- Delaying gratification: this helps to gain time to judge the situation; having patience and not allowing emotions to get the upper hand.
- Adaptability and flexibility: knowing how and when to lead and when to follow; knowing when is time to confront, withdraw, speak or remain silent.

Emotional sensitivity is consisting of following skills:

- Understanding the threshold of emotional arousal: the ability to be aware of the relationship between feelings and actions.
- Empathy: the ability to sense how other people feel, ability to share and accept another person's feelings.
- Improving inter-personal relations: developing quality inter-relationships, believing in trust reliance and confidence.
- Communicability of emotions: the influence of emotions is contagious and is communicated from one person to another instantaneously and it means to learn how to communicate emotions through verbal and non-verbal medium.

Source: Singh, 2006

Appendix 3. Goleman's competency and personality based model of EI

- *Self-awareness*: knowing what we are feeling in the moment, and using those preferences to guide our decision-making; having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence.
- *Self-regulation*: handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress.
- *Motivation*: using our deepest preferences to move and guide us towards our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve, and to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustration.
- *Empathy*: sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective, and cultivating rapport and attunement with a broad diversity of people.
- *Social skills*: handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these skills to persuade and lead, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork.

| | Self (Personal Competence) | Other (Social Competence) |
|-------------|---|---|
| Recognition | <p>Self-Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence | <p>Social Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Service orientation • Organizational awareness |
| Regulation | <p>Self-Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative | <p>Relationship Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Visionary leadership • Catalyzing change • Building bonds • Teamwork and collaboration |

Source: Goleman, 1998, Goleman, 2001B

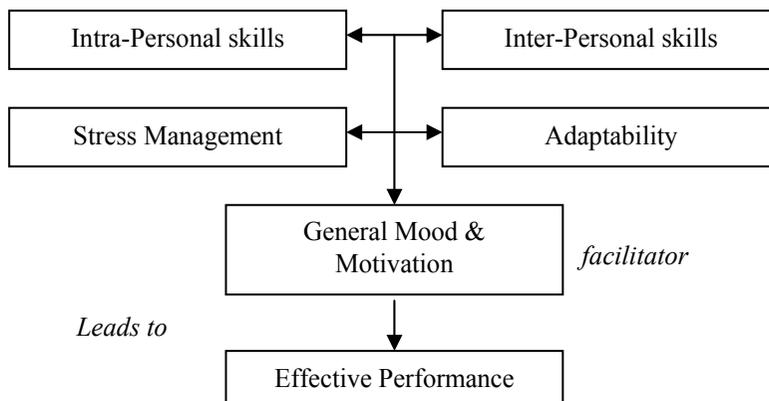
Appendix 4. Dulewicz and Higgs's competency and personality based model of EI

1. *Self-awareness*: the awareness of one's feelings and the capability to recognize and manage these feelings in a way which one feels that one can control. This factor includes a degree of self-belief in one's capability to manage one's emotions and to control their impact in a work environment;
2. *Emotional resilience*: the capability to perform consistently in a range of situations under pressure and to adapt behavior appropriately. The capability to balance the needs of the situation and task with the needs and concerns of the individuals involved. The capability to retain focus on a course of action or need for result in the face of personal challenge or criticism;
3. *Motivation*: the drive and energy to achieve clear results and make an impact and, also, to balance both short- and long-term goals with a capability to pursue demanding goals in the face of rejection or questioning;
4. *Interpersonal sensitivity*: the ability to be aware of, and take account of, the needs and perceptions of others when arriving at decisions and proposing solutions to problems and challenges. The capability to build from this awareness and achieve the commitment of others to decisions and action ideas. The willingness to keep open one's thoughts on possible solutions to problems and to actively listen to, and reflect on, the reactions and inputs from others;
5. *Influence*: the capability to persuade others to change a viewpoint based on the understanding of their position and the recognition of the need to listen to this perspective and provide a rationale for change;
6. *Intuitiveness*: the capability to arrive at clear decisions and drive their implementation when presented with incomplete or ambiguous information using both rational and 'emotional' or intuitive perceptions of key issues and implications;
7. *Conscientiousness*: the capability to display clear commitment to a course of action in the face of challenge and to make 'words and deeds' in encouraging others to support the chosen direction. The personal commitment to pursuing an ethical solution to a difficult business issue or problem.

Source: Dulewicz, Higgs, 1999; Higgs, Dulewicz, 2003; Higgs, Dulewicz, 2002

Appendix 5. Bar-On's mixed model of EI

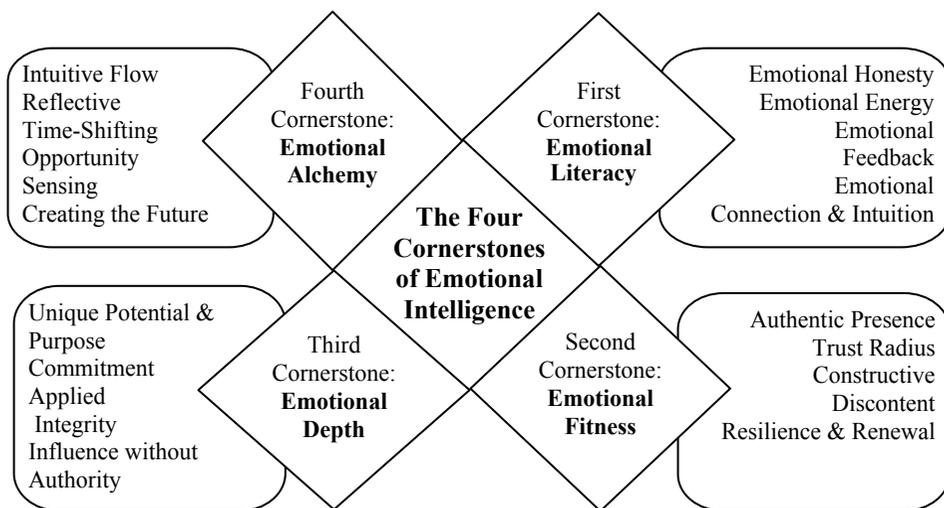
- *Intrapersonal intelligence*: self-regard (ability to be aware of, understand, accept, and respect oneself), assertiveness (ability to express feelings, beliefs, and thoughts, and to defend one's rights in a nondestructive manner), self-awareness (ability to recognize and understand one's emotions), self-actualization (ability to realize one's potential and to do what one wants to do, enjoys doing, and can do), independence (ability to be self-directed and self-controlled in one's thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency);
- *Interpersonal intelligence*: empathy (ability to be aware of, understand, and appreciate the feelings of others), interpersonal relationship (ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional closeness, intimacy, and by giving and receiving affection), social responsibility (ability to demonstrate oneself as a cooperative, contributing, and constructive member of one's social group);
- *Stress management*: stress tolerance (ability to withstand adverse events, stressful situations, and strong emotions without "falling apart" by actively and positively coping with stress), impulse control (ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive, or temptation to act and to control one's emotions);
- *Adaptability*: problem solving (ability to identify and define personal and social problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions), reality testing (ability to assess the correspondence between what is internally and subjectively experienced and what externally and objectively exists), flexibility (ability to adjust one's feelings, thoughts and behavior to changing situations and conditions);
- *General mood*: happiness (ability to feel satisfied with one's life, enjoy oneself and others, to have fun and express positive emotions), optimism (ability "to look at the brightest side of life" and to maintain a positive attitude, even in the face of adversity).



Source: Bar-On, 2000; Dann, 2001

Appendix 6. Cooper's mixed model of EI

1. *Emotional literacy* which builds a locus of self-confidence through emotional honesty, energy, emotional feedback, intuition, responsibility, and connection.
2. *Emotional fitness* which strengthens authenticity, believability, and resilience, expanding circle of trust and capacity for listening, managing conflict, and making the most of constructive discontent.
3. *Emotional depth* helps to explore ways how to align life and work with unique potential and purpose, and to back this with integrity, commitment, and accountability, which in turn increase influence without authority.
4. *Emotional alchemy* though which creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures are extended and helps to compete for the future by building capacity to sense and assess more readily the widest range of hidden solutions and untapped opportunities.



Cooper's EQ Map scales

Part 1: Current Environment

Scale 1: Life Pressure

Scale 2: Life Satisfaction

Part 2: Emotional Awareness

Scale 3: Emotional Self-Awareness

Scale 4: Emotional Expression

Scale 5: Emotional Awareness of Others

Part 3: EQ Competencies

Scale 6: Intentionality

Scale 7: Creativity

Scale 8: Resilience

Scale 9: Interpersonal Connections

Scale 10: Constructive Discontent

Part 4: EQ Values and Attitudes

- Scale 11: Outlook
- Scale 12: Compassion
- Scale 13: Intuition
- Scale 14: Trust Radius
- Scale 15: Personal Power
- Scale 16: Integrated Self

Part 5: Outcomes

- Scale 17: General Health
- Scale 18: Quality of Life
- Scale 19: Relationship Quotient
- Scale 20: Optimal Performance

Source: Cooper, Sawaf, 2000; Hughes, Patterson, Terrell, 2005

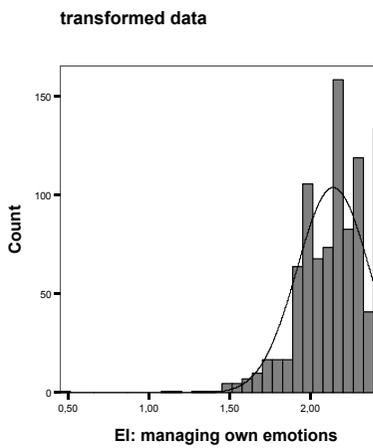
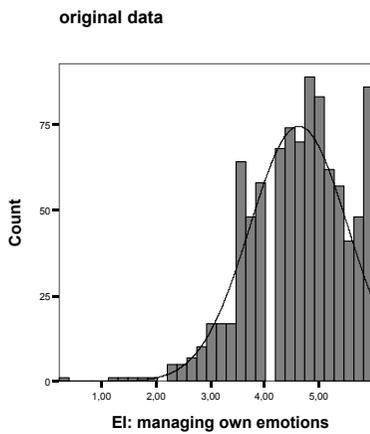
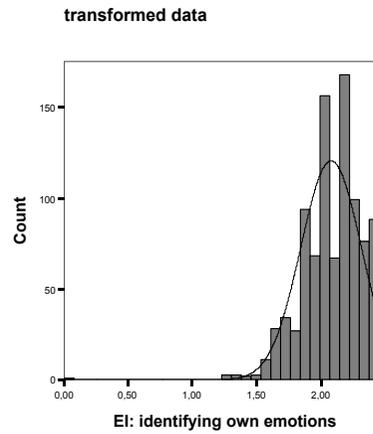
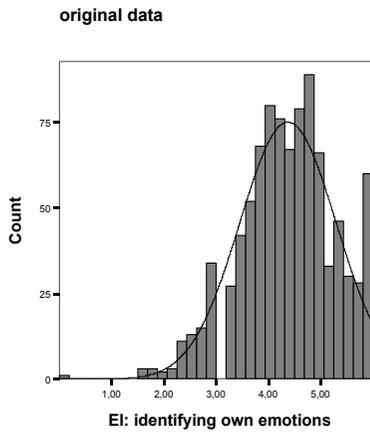
Appendix 7. Level of EI required for various jobs

| | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. Biochemist (lowest) | 16. Librarian | 31. Optician |
| 2. Chef | 17. Consultant | 32. Loan officer |
| 3. Billing clerk | 18. Broker | 33. Insurance agent |
| 4. Forester | 19. Radiological technician | 34. Editor |
| 5. System analyst | 20. Fireman | 35. Sales representative |
| 6. Electrical engineer | 21. Writer | 36. Trainer |
| 7. Mechanical engineer | 22. Dentist | 37. Adult education teacher |
| 8. Auditor | 23. Police officer | 38. PR professional |
| 9. Underwriter | 24. Nurse aide | 39. HR Manager |
| 10. Accountant | 25. Waiter | 40. Teacher |
| 11. Geophysicist | 26. Medical assistant | 41. Physical therapist |
| 12. Geneticist | 27. Dental laboratory | 42. Special education teacher |
| 13. Software engineer | 28. Travel agent | 43. Social worker |
| 14. Chemical engineer | 29. Controller | 44. Human service worker |
| 15. Civil engineer | 30. Secretary | 45. Psychiatry (highest) |

Note: jobs are presented from lowest required EI level to highest.

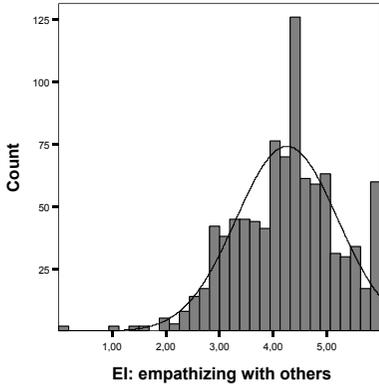
Source: Singh 2006

Appendix 8. The normal distribution of original and transformed (square root) data for EI scales and OC types

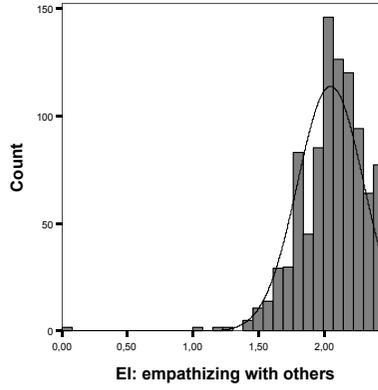


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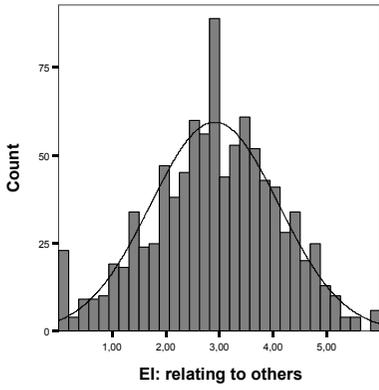
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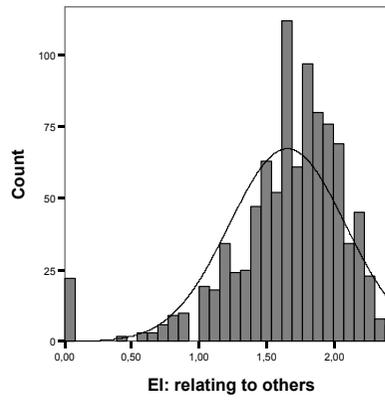
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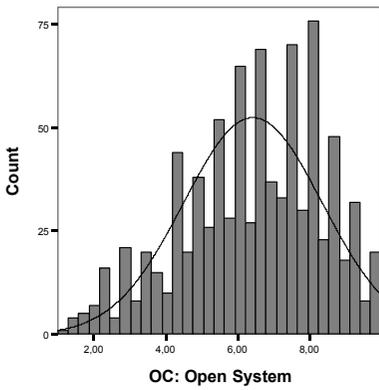
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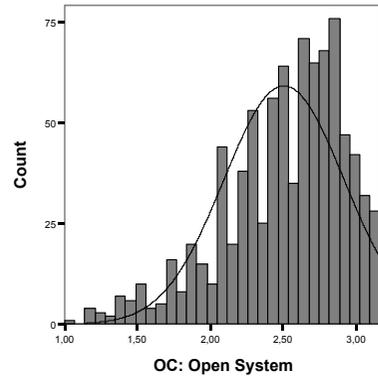
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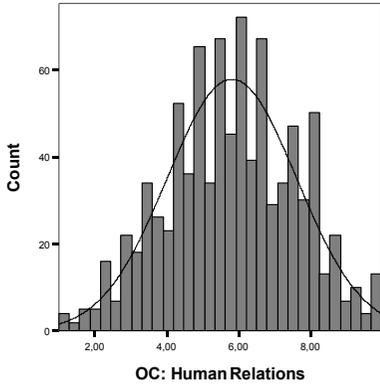


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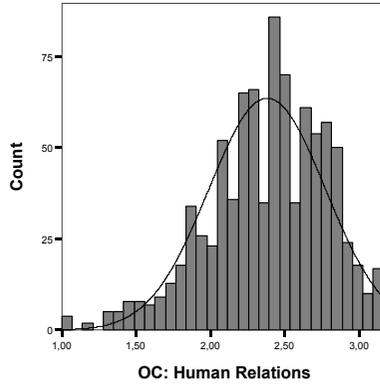


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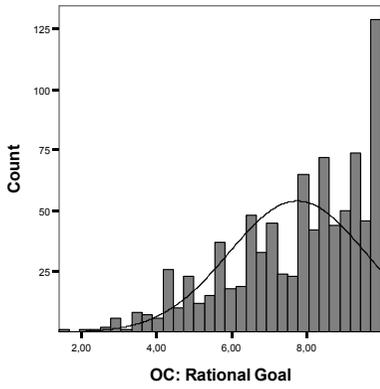
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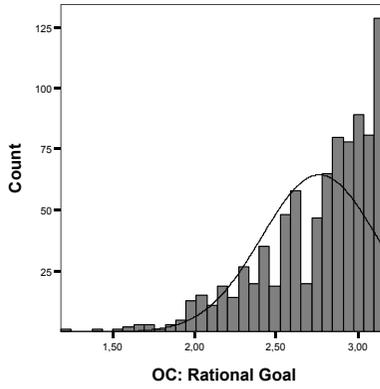
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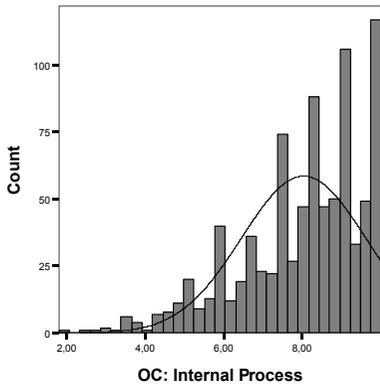
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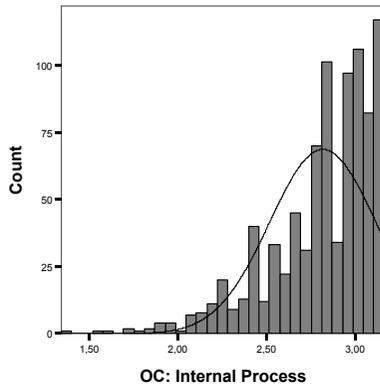
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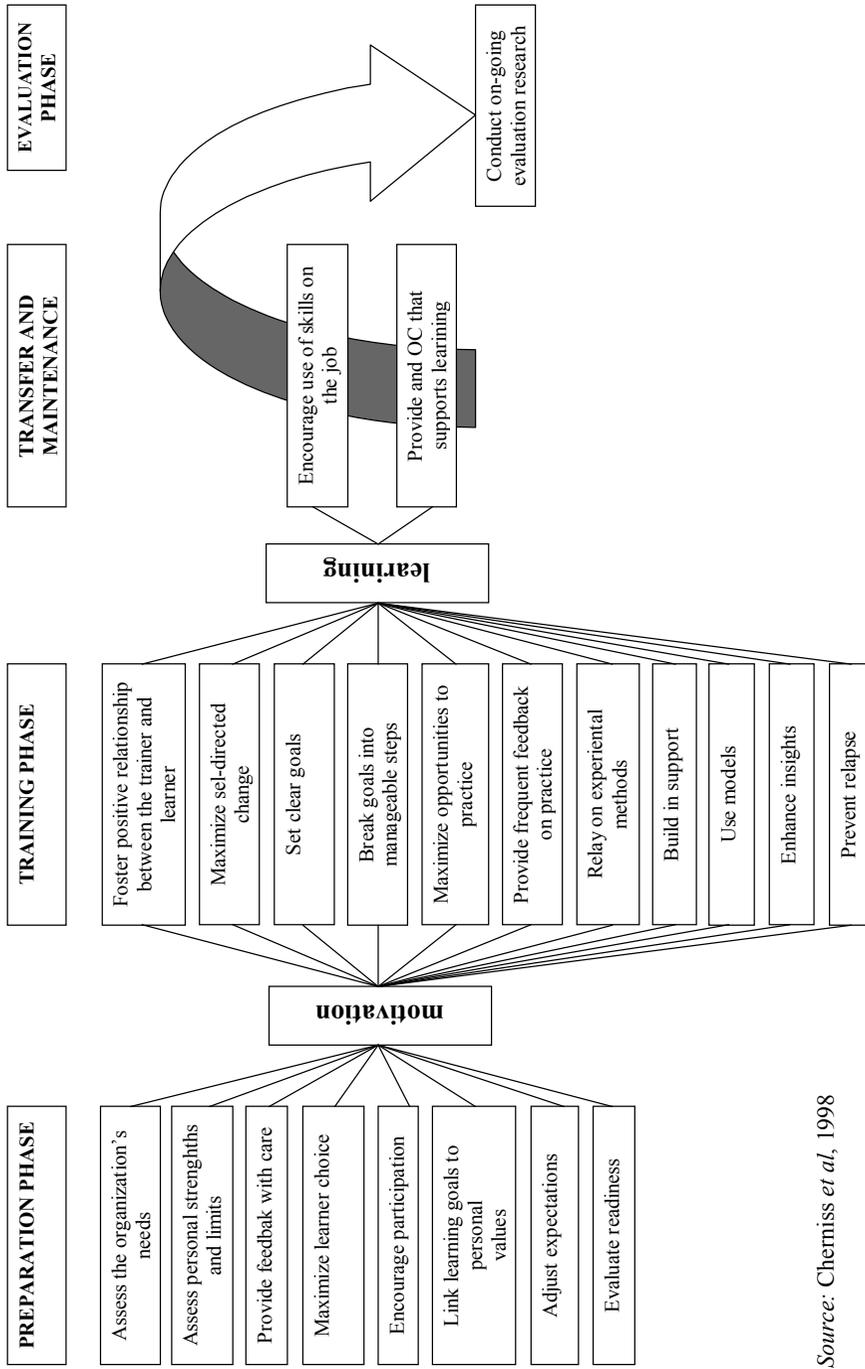


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Source: Composed by author

Appendix 9. The optimal process for developing emotional intelligence in organizations



Source: Cherniss *et al.*, 1998

Appendix 10. Suggestions to enhance Human Relations type of OC

- establish 360-degree evaluation system to assess the leadership practices, analyze the data and make sure that top managers are getting the message and make a plans for better performance;
- design the career development programs that emphasize mobility and advancement, make a effective succession plan;
- institute an employee survey programs that will allow for systematic monitoring employees satisfaction, attitudes and ideas;
- involve employees in all phases of strategic planning;
- develop programs to increase the facilitation and team-building skills;
- assess and improve the processes associated with employee diversity;
- examine the behavior of middle managers in order to increase their ability to empower and innovate;
- energize the employee recognition system and empower managers to use resources to reward the extra effort;
- create an internal 'academy', overall educational function that have systematic training strategy for educational needs;
- make a assessment of training needs and programs to meet this needs;
- encourage the internal knowledge sharing by conducting trainings and seminars held by own employees;
- build cross-functional teamwork, discuss cooperation obstacles;
- increase the capacity for information flow through the system and institute an internal communication program that informs people of events, activities, and programs;
- institute health and safety audit, develop a system to assess and improve health and safety;
- give more autonomy to employees by moving centralized functions that can be performed by individuals or teams;
- use process improvement audits, compare the results with industry standards, analyze the best practices;
- develop a real-time audit team to work on the biggest projects;
- involve employees in cost-saving programs;
- review the impact of every corporate policy and procedure and if needed plan a reduction of those.

Source: Cameron, Quinn (1999)

SUMMARY IN ESTONIAN

Emotsionaalne intelligentsus, organisatsioonikultuur ja nendevahelised seosed Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide näitel

Töö eesmärk, uurimisülesanded ja ülesehitus

Organisatsioonikäitumise alases kirjanduses on hakatud viimastel aastatel üha enam huvi tundma emotsioonide vastu. Emotsionaalne intelligentsus (edaspidi EI) on üks fenomen, mis selgitab seoseid emotsioonide ja mõtlemise vahel. Selle all mõistetakse kompetentside kogumit, mis aitab mõista, selgitada ja rakendada emotsioone, nendega toime tulla, luua suhteid teiste inimestega ning käsitleda emotsionaalseid situatsioone konstruktiivselt. EI on kriitilise tähtsusega teenindussektoris, kus vahetu kontakti tõttu klientidega tekkivad emotsioonid mõjutavad oluliselt teenindusprotsessi. Organisatsioonikultuur (edaspidi OK) on emotsionaalne nähtus ning selle roll on kujundada jagatud arusaamad väärtustest, normide rakendamisest, sümbolite interpreteerimisest ja käitumisjuhustest. EI kompetentsid aitavad mõista, millised emotsioonid töö käigus tekivad, kuidas juhtida emotsioone nii, et see oleks kooskõlas jagatud normide ja väärtustega, mida teised organisatsiooniliikmed tunnevad ning kuidas suhelda teistega, et saavutada efektiivseid suhteid. EI ja OK kontseptsioonide vahelisi seoseid on nii teoreetiliselt kui ka empiirilisel viisil uuritud ning käesolev doktoritöö avab uued inimeste käitumise aspektid organisatsioonides EI, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kaudu.

Eesti teenindussektorit on seni uuritud üsna killustatult. Samas ligi 60 protsenti sisemajanduse koguproduktist kujuneb teenindusorganisatsioonide tegevusest, mis viitab vajadusele laiendada teenindussektori uurimise ulatust. Käesoleva doktoritöö panus on Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide kultuuri ja teenindajate kompetentsuse analüüs – selleks püstitatakse EI, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kohta teesid ning kontrollitakse nende kehtivust. Doktoritöö ajendiks on avada EI kontseptuaalne tagapõhi, analüüsida selle avaldumist organisatsioonides, sh eelkõige teenindusorganisatsioonides ning uurida EI ja OK seoste teoreetilisi käsitlusi, panustades valdkonna arengusse ka selles osas. Ajendiks on ka EI mõõtmismetoodika välja töötamine ning selle abil empiirilise uuringu läbi viimine Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonides.

Doktoritöö **eesmärk** on uurida EI avaldumist teenindusorganisatsioonides ja selle seost organisatsioonikultuuriga Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide näitel. Eesmärgi saavutamiseks olid püstitatud alljärgnevad **uurimisülesanded**:

- uurida ja analüüsida EI lähenemisi ja avaldumist tööl eeskätt teeninduse kontekstis, mis võimaldab luua aluse EI mõõtmismeetodile;
- uurida EI rolli OK-s ja teeninduses, et avada teoreetiline tagapõhi EI ja OK vaheliste seoste leidmiseks;
- selgitada välja OK eripärad, mis võimaldab avada EI ja OK vaheliste seoste konteksti, sh Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide eripäradest lähtuvalt;

- analüüsida teoreetilisi käsitlusi ja varasemate uuringute tulemusi, et tuua esile EI ja OK vahelisi seoseid;
- töötada välja teesid EI ja OK avaldumise ning nendevaheliste seoste kohta üldises ja Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide kontekstis;
- töötada välja EI mõõtmise metodoloogia organisatsioonis;
- teha uuring Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonides, analüüsida andmeid ja esitada uurimistulemused lähtuvalt püstitatud teesidest.

Doktoritöö koosneb kahest peatükist. **Esimeses peatükis** uuritakse EI teoreetilisi seisukohti, mõiste sisu, rolli teenindamises, avaldumist organisatsioonis ja seost OK-ga. Uuritakse, milline on EI kujunemise ajalugu, analüüsitakse EI definitsioone ja võrreldakse omavahel EI eri käsitlusi. Töö autor esitab enda arusaama EI-st ja see on kontseptuaalne alus empiirilisele uurimisele. Teoreetiliste seisukohtade ja empiiriliste uuringute valguses analüüsitakse EI erinevusi olenevalt ametist ja indiviidist. Teeninduse olemuse avamine võimaldas selgitada EI rolli teenindusprotsessis. Selleks et analüüsida EI rolli ja olulisust OK-s, esitatakse OK tüpologia ja analüüsitakse teenindusorganisatsioonide OK eripärasid. EI olulisuse väljaselgitamine organisatsiooni kontekstis võimaldab luua üldise raamistiku EI ja OK vaheliste seoste formuleerimisele. Esimeses peatükis püstitatakse enamik uurimisteesse.

Teine peatükk käsitleb peamiselt EI avaldumist organisatsioonis ning EI ja OK vahelisi seoseid Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide näitel. Selles peatükis kirjeldatakse Eesti teenindussektorit ja -organisatsioone ning püstitatakse täiendavad teesid. Need esitatakse uuritud mõistete raamistikus, samuti kirjeldatakse uuringu korraldust ja valimit. Peatükis seletatakse lahti EI mõõtmise meetodika ja kirjeldatakse OK mõõtmisinstrumenti. Järgnevalt keskendutakse uurimistulemuste esitamisele Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide näitel kahes osas: esiteks tulemused EI avaldumise kohta organisatsioonis ja teiseks analüüsitulemused teenindusettevõtete OK tajumise ning EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta. Seejärel võetakse tulemused kokku ja järgneb arutelu, mille käigus kontrollitakse püstitatud teeside kehtivust. Lõpetuseks esitatakse juhtimis- ja arendusettepanekud, selle kohta, kuidas uurimistulemusi praktikas rakendada.

Töö teoreetiline tagapõhi

EI definitsioon kajastab täpset ja tihedat seost emotsioonide ja intelligentsuse vahel. See viib mõiste kujunemise ajalooliste juurteni, sh eeskätt intelligentsuse teooriasse. EI mõiste pärineb 1990-ndate algusest ja seda populariseeriti, mis omakorda suurendas teadlaste huvi teema vastu. EI käsitlusi on mitmeid ja need koosnevad erinevatest komponentidest. Analüüsides eri käsitlusi, võib esile tuua EI intra- ja interpersonaalse orientatsiooni. EI on kogum oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja juhtimise ning empaatia ja suhete juhtimise kompetentse. EI

on kompetents, mille avaldumine ja rakendamine sõltub indiviidi karakteristikutest (amet, vanus, sugu, haridus, etniline kuuluvus).

Emotsioone peetakse organisatsioonis tähtsaks sh eeskätt teeninduses, kuna organisatsiooni töö tulemuslikkus kujuneb otseses interaktsioonis kliendiga. EI-d peetakse teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja oluliseks kompetentsiks, kuna oma emotsioonide teadvustamine võimaldab paremini identifitseerida teeninduse käigus tekkivaid emotsioone. Oma emotsioonide juhtimine aitab toime tulla keerulise kliendiga, empaatia aitab mõista klientide tundeid ja vajadusi teenindusprotsessis ning suhete juhtimine võimaldab luua efektiivseid sidemeid kliendiga. Teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja peaks oskama töötada emotsioonidega, mis on seotud oma emotsioonide juhtimise kompetentsiga. Teenindusprotsessis on kolm osapoolt: klient, teenindusorganisatsioon ja teenindustöötaja. Teenindamise triadi osad põhjustavad positiivseid või negatiivseid emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi. EI kompetentsid aitavad mõista, millal ja miks sündmus aset leidis, milliseid emotsioone see kliendis ja teenindajas esile kutsus ning kuidas sündmusele reageerida, et tagada kliendi rahulolu ja saavutada organisatsiooni eesmäärke.

OK peetakse samuti emotsionaalseks fenomeniks, kuid selle tõestuseks on tehtud vähe empiirilisi uuringuid. Teoreetiliselt on arutletud selle üle, et visioon kannab endas emotsionaalset sõnumit, väärtused kujundavad emotsionaalseid reaktsioone töö toimuva kohta, ja sümbolid on emotsionaalselt laetud. OK-d võib uurida tüpoloogias kaudu ning üks sobilik raamistik, et mõista OK eripärasid, on konkureerivate väärtuste käsitlus. OK selgitab inimkäitumist organisatsioonis läbi tajutud ja jagatud väärtuste, normide, sümbolite ja praktikate. Neli OK tüüpi – inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside tüüp – võimaldavad analüüsida OK avaldumist domineerivatena tajutud tunnuste kaudu. Teenindusorganisatsiooni OK erineb kliendile orienteerituse tõttu, kuna juhtkonna ja töötajate tegevused, süsteemid, töö tulemuslikkus ja kliendile suunatud tegevused loovad kindla keskkonna, kus inimsuhete OK tüübi tunnused avalduvad suurimal määral. Kuna teeninduse kvaliteet kujuneb unikaalsel viisil, siis eeldatakse, et teenindusorganisatsioonide OK-d on erinevad. Teenindamise triadi üks osapool on teenindusorganisatsioon ja seega teeninduse käigus ja töö esiletulevad sündmused interpreteeritakse OK abil ning neile reageerimise viis valitakse vastavalt konkreetsetes organisatsioonides väljakujunenud käitumistavadele.

Kirjandus annab üldise ülevaate OK tunnuste seotusest EI kompetentsidega, kuid empiirilisi uurimusi EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta töö autor ei leidnud. Teoorias on tõestusi, et inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi ja tulemustele suunatud OK tüübid on hüpoteetiliselt seotud kõikide EI kompetentsidega. Sisemiste protsesside OK tüübi ja EI vaheliste seoste kohta materjali napib. Teoreetilisi arutelusid EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta on mitmeid. Mõned autorid spekulatsioonid, et töötajate hinnangud situatsioonidele ja emotsionaalsed reaktsioonid viivad OK tajudeni, teised mudelid pakuvad, et OK tekitab töötajates emotsionaalseid reaktsioone. Võib eeldada vastastikust mõju: OK kas soodustab või

takistab EI kompetentside rakendamist ning teatud EI tasemega töötajad liituvad organisatsioonidega, kus EI kui kompetentsi väärtustatakse. Organisatsiooni liikmena, mõjutavad nad praktikate väljakujunemist, jagades neid teistega koostevuses. EI ja OK vahelised seoseid saab samuti selgitada interpreteerimisprotsessi kaudu, kus sisend on emotsioone esilekutsuv sündmus, mille mõistmiseks on tarvis oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja empaatia kompetentse. Protsessi järgmine samm on sündmuse ja emotsioonide tõlgendamine, kus OK avaldumine ja tajumine annab informatsiooni selle kohta, kuidas reageerida sündmusele viisil, mis oleks konkreetses organisatsioonis sobilik. Reageerimisel on tarvis oma emotsioonide ja suhete juhtimise kompetentse, mis võimaldab tegutseda vastavalt aktsepteeritud praktikatele ja jagatud väärtustele.

Andmed ja uurimismetoodika

Uuring EI avaldumise, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kohta tehti aastatel 2005–2008. Valimisse kuuluvad organisatsioonid olid valitud nii, et need esindaksid erinevaid tegevusvaldkondi. Kokku osales uuringus 14 organisatsiooni (1415 vastajaga), 8 nendest olid teenindusorganisatsioonid (991 osalejat, 70% kogu vastajaskonnast). Kõiki kogutud andmeid kasutati EI mõõtmisvahendi väljatöötamisel ja järgnev analüüs keskendus üksnes teenindusorganisatsioonidele. Valimisse kuulus kolm jaekaubandus- ja teenindusettevõtet, üks kindlustusteenust pakkuv ja üks meelelahutusettevõte, kaks õiguskaitseorganisatsiooni ning hotellid (kogum erinevatest organisatsioonidest).

EI mõõtmiseks organisatsioonis koostati 2004. aastal “Emotsionaalse intelligentsuse test organisatsioonis” (EITO). Küsimustik töötati välja neljas etapis. Esimene etapp hõlmas EI alase kirjanduse läbitöötamist ja olemasolevate EI mõõtmisinstrumentide väljaselgitamist. Seejärel sõnastati EITO nelja skaalat kirjeldavad väited. Teises etapis töötati koostöös ekspertidega välja EITO lõplik versioon. Kolmandas etapis tõlgiti küsimustik vene keelde. Neljandas etapis viidi läbi küsitlus ning tehti faktoranalüüs, et vähendada väidete arvu EITO skaalades ja luua usaldusväärsed faktorid.

Faktoranalüüsi eesmärk oli selgitada välja need EITO väited, mis kõige enam iseloomustavad teooria põhjal eeldatud skaalasisid. EITO skaalad kajastavad nelja EI kompetentsi.

1. *Oma emotsioonide teadvustamise* EI skaala (viis väidet, Cronbachi alfa = 0,77): töötaja märkab oma emotsioone, paneb neid tähele ja mõtleb neile; töötaja tunnistab emotsioonide olemasolu ning mõistab emotsioonide ja neid tekitavate sündmuste põhjuseid; töötaja tabab emotsiooni selle tekkemomendil ja suudab emotsioone eristada; töötaja mõistab, kuidas emotsioonid vahelduvad tööalaste muudatuste käigus.
2. *Oma emotsioonide juhtimise* EI skaala (viis väidet, Cronbachi alfa = 0,78): töötaja oskab juhtida oma emotsioone tööl ja muuta oma emotsionaalseid seisundeid vastavalt olukordadele; töötaja suudab hoida head tuju, vältida negatiivsete emotsioonide mõju töö tulemuslikkusele, juhtida

tööd takistavaid negatiivseid emotsioone; töötaja on optimistlikult meelestatud, oskab võimendada positiivseid emotsioone vastavalt olukorrale ja säilitada positiivset hoiakut vaatamata ebaõnnestumistele.

3. *Empaatia* EI skaala (kuus väidet, Cronbachi alfa = 0,81): töötaja oskab end asetada kolleegi olukorda, suudab tajuda kolleegi emotsioone; ta märkab kolleegi tõeseid (sh selgelt väljendamata) emotsioone, mõistab nende tekkepõhjuseid ning saab aru, kui kolleegi käitumine ei ole vastavuses tema sõnade ja meeoluga; töötaja peab kolleegide emotsioone oluliseks ning koostegvuses ja probleeme lahendades arvestab kolleegide tunnetega.
4. *Suhete juhtimise* EI skaala (viis väidet, Cronbachi alfa = 0,68): töötaja oskab kolleegide tuju tõsta ja julgustada nendevahelisi positiivseid suhteid; töötaja reageerib kolleegide emotsioonidele, loob efektiivseid, sõbralikke ja mitteformaalseid suhteid; töötaja teab, kuidas tema emotsioonid mõjutavad kolleegi, suudab avatult oma tunnetest rääkida, näitab välja tõelisi emotsioone ja kolleegid teavad, mida ta tunneb.

EITO küsimustikus paluti uuringus osalejatel hinnata 46 esitatud väidet 6-palliskaalal ("0" tähendas kõige madalamat ja "6" kõige kõrgemat hinnangut). Paluti vastata ka kahele lisaküsimusele, mis ei kuulunud faktorite struktuuri. Esimene neist puudutas emotsioonide olulisust organisatsioonis ("0" – pole olulised, "6" – olulised). Teine küsimus seisnes tööle tekkivate emotsioonide hindamises ("0" tähendas, et tööle toimuv tekitab negatiivseid emotsioone ja "6", et tööle toimuv tekitab positiivseid emotsioone). Uuringu kvalitatiivset osa esindasid kaks avatud vastusega küsimust. Osalejatel paluti kirjeldada töösituatsioone, mis tekitavad või on tekitanud neis positiivseid ja negatiivseid emotsioone. Vastused kajastavad emotsioone tekitavaid sündmusi, sündmusi kodeerisid kaks eksperti (sõltumatute hinnangute kooskõlalikus oli positiivseid emotsioone tekitavate sündmuste puhul 0,76 ning negatiivseid emotsioone tekitavate sündmuste puhul 0,78). EITO on enesehindamise küsimustik, mille vastused näitavad vastaja arvamust tema EI kompetentside taseme kohta. Seega, analüüsi tulemused ei kajasta mitte EI nähtust ennast, vaid vastajate hinnanguid oma EI kohta. Seda asjaolu tuleb tulemuste interpreteerimisel arvestada.

OK mõõdeti Reino (2009) välja töötatud "Organisatsiooni väärtuste küsimustikuga" (OVK), mis koosneb 53 väitest. OVK koostamise teoreetiline alus oli konkureerivate väärtuste käsitlus (Quinn, Cameron, 1999). Loodi neli skaalat, et mõõta inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi, tulemusele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpi tajumist. Vastajatel paluti hinnata väiteid 10-palli-skaalal, kus "1" viitas täielikule mittedõustumisele ja "10" täielikule nõustumisele väitega. Käesolevas doktoritöös tugineti Reino poolt valideeritud ankeedile. Neli faktoranalüüsiga eristatud OK tüüpi (Reino, 2009):

1. *Avatud süsteemi tüüp*, mida peetakse kõige sobilikumaks kiiresti muutuvas keskkonnas, kuna see tüüp väärtustab kohanemisvõimet, paind-

- likkust, uuenduslikke ideid, initsiatiivi ja kliendile orienteeritust. Rõhutatatakse kiiret kasvu ja ressursside omandamist väliskeskkonnast.
2. *Inimsuhete tüüpi* iseloomustavad paindlikkus ja sissepoole suunatus. Selle tüübi puhul väärtustatakse inimressursi arengut, mida püütakse saavutada kohesiivsuse, ühtekuuluvustunde, usalduse ja moraali abil.
 3. *Tulemustele suunatud tüüp* väärtustab planeerimist, eesmärkide püstitamist selleks, et saavutada organisatsiooni tõhusus. Selle OK tüübi põhiolemus on püüed kontrollida väliskeskkonda, organisatsiooni edukust määratletakse turuosa ja konkurentsivõime kaudu. Keskendutakse kasumi maksimeerimisele ja tulemuste saavutamisele.
 4. *Sisemiste protsesside tüüp* keskendub organisatsioonisisestele protsessidele, väärtustatakse stabiilsust ja kontrolli. Selle tüübi tunnusjooned on tsentraliseeritus, struktureeritus ja formaliseeritus, mis peavad tagama kogu organisatsiooni stabiilsuse.

Selleks et katsetada teeside paikapidavust, rakendati järgmisi statistilise analüüsi meetodeid: kirjeldav statistika, ANOVA-analüüs ja LSD-test, paaris t-test, korrelatsioon- ja lineaarne regressioonanalüüs.

Uurimistulemused ja teeside kehtivus

Töötades läbi teoreetilised ülevaated ja varasemalt teostatud uurimused kujundati teesid EI avaldumise, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kohta, sh Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide kohta. Esimene kogum teese on suunatud EI avaldumisele organisatsioonis (EI hinnangute erinevustele vastavalt ametile, haridusele, etnilisele kuuluvusele, vanusele ja soole), emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste seostele töötajate hinnatud EI-ga ning töötajate arvamusele emotsioonide olulisuse kohta töö. Teine kogum teese on seotud OK-ga: töötajate tajutud domineerivad OK tüübid teenindusorganisatsioonides, seosed tajutud OK tüüpide vahel ning seos emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste ja tajutud OK tüüpide vahel. Kolmas teeside kogum käsitleb EI ja OK vaheliste seoste välja selgitamist kogu valimis ja eraldi teenindusorganisatsioonides ning enda EI kompetentside hinnangute ennustavate tegurite leidmist olenevalt vastaja ametist, haridusest, etnilisest kuuluvusest, vanusest, soost ja OK tajudest. Järgnevalt esitatakse teesid, uurimistulemused ja teeside paikapidavus.

Teesid EI avaldumise kohta organisatsioonis

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| Tees 3.1.1.A: Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate hinnangud enda empaatialle ja suhete juhtimisele kui EI kompetentsidele on alla keskmise. |
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Tees leidis *kinnitust*, kuna uurimistulemused Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonides viitavad sellele, et enesehinnatud EI empaatia ja suhete juhtimise kompetentsid olid oluliselt madalamad keskmisest. See tulemus kinnitab varem Eesti

teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate kompetentside kohta tehtud uuringu tulemusi.

Tees 1.1.3. Hinnangud oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele, oma emotsioonide juhtimisele, empaatialle ja suhete juhtimisele kui EI kompetentsidele on omavahel olulisel määral seotud.

Uurimistulemused näitavad madalast kuni kõrgele positiivse seose olemasolu kõikide EI kompetentside vahel, seega püstitatud tees leidis *kinnitust*. Analüüsi tulemusena selgus, et oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele ja empaatialle antud hinnangute vahel on oluline tugev positiivne korrelatsioon; oluline keskmine positiivne korrelatsioon on oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja oma emotsioonide juhtimise kompetentside vahel, oma emotsioonide juhtimise ja empaatia kompetentside vahel ning empaatia ja suhete juhtimise kompetentside vahel. Madal, kuid oluline positiivne korrelatsioon leiti oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja suhete juhtimise kompetentside vahel ning oma emotsioonide juhtimise ja suhete juhtimise kompetentside vahel. Uurimistulemused on kooskõlas teoreetiliste seisukohtadega EI kompetentside omavahelise seoste kohta.

Tees 1.2.4.A: Emotsioone tööl peetakse oluliseks.

Tees leidis *kinnitust* – vastanute arvamuse kohaselt peetakse emotsioone tööl pigem oluliseks. Hinnangud emotsioonide olulisusele töös varieerusid vastavalt uuritud organisatsioonidele, mis viitab sellele, et mõningates teenindusorganisatsioonides peetakse emotsioone olulisemaks või vähem oluliseks kui teistes. Teoreetilises osas oli esitatud hulganisti väiteid selle kohta, et emotsioonid etendavad suurt rolli organisatsiooni tegevuses, kuid üsna vähe on tehtud empiirilisi uurimusi, mis seda väidet kinnitaksid. Selle teesi tõestamine annab empiirilise kinnituse teoreetilistele aruteludele.

Tees 1.2.4.B: Hinnangud EI kompetentsidele on olulisel määral seotud emotsioonide olulisusega tööl.

Tees leidis *kinnitust*. Analüüsi käigus leiti enesehinnatud EI kompetentside ja emotsioonide olulisuse vahel positiivsed korrelatsioonid. Uurimistulemused näitavad keskmist ja olulist positiivset korrelatsiooni empaatia ja suhete juhtimise ja tajutud emotsioonide olulisuse vahel tööl. Leiti oluline positiivne, kuid madal korrelatsioon oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja oma emotsioonide juhtimise hinnangute ja tajutud emotsioonide olulisuse vahel tööl. Tulemused näitavad, et mida kõrgemini vastanud oma EI kompetentside taset hindavad, seda olulisemaks nad emotsioone tööl peavad. Tulemusi võib interpreteerida ka vastupidi – mida olulisemana emotsioone tööl tajutakse, seda kõrgemaid hinnanguid oma EI-le antakse.

Tees 1.1.6.A: Klient, teenindusorganisatsioon ja teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja põhjustavad positiivseid või negatiivseid emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi.

Uurimistulemused näitavad, et tees leidis *kinnitust*. Klient (kliendi käitumine, tema omadused, hoiakud ja rahulolu), teenindusorganisatsioon (tunnustamine, suhted ja keskkond) ja teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja (töosaavutused) põhjustavad positiivseteks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi. Teenindusorganisatsioon (juhtimine, suhted, töökorraldus), klient (kliendi käitumine ja rahulolematuse) ning teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja (ebapiisav kompetents ja vead) põhjustavad negatiivseteks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi. Teoreetilises ülevaates oli emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste põhjustajate kohta pakutud, et just klient, teenindusorganisatsioon ja teenindusorganisatsiooni töötaja põhjustavad emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi ning see leidis ka empiirilist kinnitust.

Tees 1.1.6.B: Emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste tüübid on teenindusorganisatsioonis olulisel määral seotud töötajate poolt oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja oma emotsioonide juhtimise kui EI kompetentside hinnangutega.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna märkimisväärsed erinevused emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste tüüpide hulgast leiti vaid ühe EI kompetentsi puhul. Nimelt, need vastajad, kes tõid esile positiivselt hinnatud tunnustamisega seotud emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi, hindasid oma emotsioonide juhtimist, madalamalt. Uurimistulemused näitavad, et tööol toimuv tekitab vastajates pigem negatiivseid tundeid ja hinnanguid, mis erinevad teenindusorganisatsioonist. Tulemused näitavad ka, et mida kõrgem on vastanute hinnang oma emotsioonide juhtimisele, seda positiivsemalt tajutakse tööol toimuvat.

Tees 1.1.4.A: Erinevate ametite töötajad hindavad oma EI kompetentse oluliselt erinevalt.

Tees leidis *kinnitust*, kuna kogu valimis leiti märkimisväärsed erinevusi oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja emotsioonide juhtimise hinnangutes olenevalt ametist ning samuti leiti erinevusi kõikide EI kompetentside puhul erinevates teenindusorganisatsioonides. Tulemused näitavad ka EI-le antud hinnangute erinevusi olenevalt organisatsioonist, mis viitab teenindusvaldkondade erisustele. Teoreetilises osas arutleti selle üle, et mõne ameti puhul on EI kompetentsid tähtsamad ning see leidis kinnitust ka siinses uurimuses.

Tees 1.1.4.B: Kõrgema haridustasemega töötajad ei anna oma EI kompetentsidele kõrgemaid hinnanguid.

Uurimistulemused näitavad, et tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*. Olenevalt haridustasemest eksisteerivad märkimisväärsed erinevused töötajate hinnangutes EI kompetentsidele, seda terves valimis ja eraldi organisatsioonides. Siiski vaid oma emotsioonide juhtimise puhul hindasid kõrgema haridustasemega vastajad oma EI-d kõrgemalt – mida kõrgem oli vastaja haridustase, seda kõrgem oli sellele kompetentsile antud hinnang. Teoreetilised arutelud hariduse või akadeemilise edukuse ja EI seotuse kohta on vastuolulised – mingil määral võivad haridustase ja EI seotud olla.

Tees 1.1.4.C: Erineva etnilise kuuluvusega töötajad hindavad oma EI kompetentse oluliselt erinevalt.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna leiti märkimisväärsed erinevusi oma emotsioonide teadvustamise puhul kogu valimis ja eraldi organisatsioonides. Suuri erinevusi ei leitud oma emotsioonide juhtimise hinnangutes. Empaatia ja suhete juhtimise hinnangute puhul tulid lahknevused esile üksnes siis, kui organisatsioone vaadeldi eraldi. Teoreetilised arutelud etnilise kuuluvuse ja EI seotuse teemal on vastuolulised – mõned varasemad uurimused on leidnud seoseid, kuid mõned viitavad nende puudumisele. Siinne uurimus näitab, et oma EI-le antud hinnangutes võivad vastavalt etnilisele kuuluvusele leiduda teatud erinevused.

Tees 1.1.4.D: Naised hindavad oma EI kompetentse oluliselt kõrgemalt kui mehed.

Uurimistulemused näitavad, et tees leidis *kinnitust* – kogu valimis hindasid naised kõikide EI kompetentside puhul oma EI kompetentside taset oluliselt kõrgemalt kui mehed. Sama tendents ilmnes oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja empaatia kompetentside puhul, kui vaadeldi organisatsioone eraldi.

Tees 1.1.4.E: Keskealised töötajad hindavad oma EI kompetentse oluliselt kõrgemalt kui nooremad ja vanemad töötajad.

Tees *ei leidnud kinnitust*, tulemused viitavad hoopis vastupidisele. Kogu valimi ja eraldi organisatsioonide puhul erinevad hinnangud kõikide kompetentside puhul, kuid keskealised töötajad hindasid kõiki oma EI kompetentse oluliselt madalamalt kui nooremad ja vanemad töötajad.

Teesid tajutud OK kohta

Tees 2.1.1.A: Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad tajuvad tulemustele suunatud ja inimsuhete OK tüüpide tunnuseid domineerivatena.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad tajuvad tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide tunnuseid domineerivatena. Avatud süsteemi ja inimsuhete OK tüüpe tajutakse vähem avalduvana.

Tees 2.1.1.B: Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate tajutud hinnangud tulemustele suunatud ja inimsuhete OK tüübile on korrelatsioonis.

Tees leidis *kinnitust*, kuna analüüsi tulemusena leiti, et tulemustele suunatud ja inimsuhete OK tüüpide hinnangute vahel on oluline ja positiivne seos. Kõikide teiste OK tüüpide hinnangute vahel leiti samuti korrelatsioon madalast kõrgeni. Varasemad uurimused OK tüüpide vaheliste seoste kohta Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonides viitasid tulemustele suunatud ja inimsuhete OK tüüpide omavahelisele seosele ning see leidis kinnitust ka siinses uurimuses.

Tees 1.2.2.A: Teenindusorganisatsioonides tajutakse inimsuhete OK tüübi tunnuseid domineerivatena.

Tees *ei leidnud kinnitust*, kuna uuritud teenindusorganisatsioonides tajutakse domineerivana tulemustele suunatud OK tüübi tunnuseid. Inimsuhete OK tüübile andsid vastajad kõige madamad tajutud hinnangud. Teoorias arutletakse selle üle, et inimsuhete OK tüübi tunnused peaksid teenindusorganisatsioonides olema märkimisväärselt avaldunud, kuid sellegipoolest jääb äriorganisatsioonides esikohale tulemuslikkus ja eesmärkide saavutamine.

Tees 1.2.2.B: Töötajate tajutud hinnangud inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpidele on olenevalt teenindusorganisatsioonist oluliselt erinevad.

Tees leidis *kinnitust*. Leiti olulised erinevused kõikide OK tüüpide hinnangutes olenevalt teenindusorganisatsioonist ning erinevused järgisid teatud trendi – kõrge tööjõu intensiivsuse tasemega organisatsioonides tajutakse tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpe domineerivatena ning madala tööjõu intensiivsuse ja kõrge kliendisuhtluse tasemega organisatsioonides tajutakse tulemustele suunatud ja inimsuhete OK tüüpe domineerivatena. Tulemused kinnitavad teoreetilist arutelu, et OK võib ühes ja samas sektoris erineda.

Tees 1.2.3.A: Emotsioonide olulisus tööol on oluliselt seotud OK tüüpide tajudega.

Tees leidis *kinnitust*, kuna tulemused viitavad olulisele, kuid vähesele seosele selle vahel, milliseid hinnanguid anti kõikidele tajutud OK tüüpidele ja emotsioonide olulisusele tööol. See tähendab, et need töötajad, kes tajuvad OK tüüpe kõrgemalt, arvavad, et emotsioonid on tööol olulisemad ning vastupidi – mida olulisemaks emotsioone tööol peetakse, seda kõrgemaid tajutud hinnanguid OK tüüpidele antakse.

Tees 1.2.3.B: Emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste tüübid on oluliselt seotud OK tüüpide tajuga.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna uurimistulemuste kohaselt leiti olulised erinevused tajutud OK hinnangutes vastavalt negatiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste ning inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide vahel. Leiti olulisi erinevusi tajutud inimsuhete ja sisemiste protsesside OK hinnangute ning positiivselt hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste vahel. Eksisteerib oluline, kuid madal korrelatsioon emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmuste ja tajutud inimsuhete ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide vahel. Seega, kõik positiivseks või negatiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvad sündmuste tüübid ei ole seotud kõikide OK tüüpide tajudega. Leiti positiivne, kuigi madal korrelatsioon kõikide tajutud OK tüüpide ja arvamuse vahel, kuivõrd positiivseid/negatiivseid emotsioone tööol toimuv tekitab.

Teesid EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta

Tees 1.2.4.C: Hinnangud oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele ja oma emotsioonide juhtimisele kui EI kompetentsidele on oluliselt ja tugevalt seotud OK inimsuhete ja avatud süsteemi tüüpide tajutud hinnangutega, keskmiselt seotud OK tulemustele suunatud tüübi tajutud hinnangutega ning vähe või ebaoluliselt seotud OK sisemiste protsesside tüübi tajutud hinnangutega.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna pakutud seoste tugevus ei olnud piisavalt kooskõlas uurimistulemustega. Tulemused näitavad, et hinnangud oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele ja oma emotsioonide juhtimisele on oluline positiivne, kuigi madal korrelatsioon inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi ja tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpidele antud hinnangutega. Positiivne korrelatsioon viitab sellele, et mida kõrgemad on vastanute hinnangud eespool toodud EI kompetentsidele, seda kõrgemaid hinnanguid antakse OK tüüpidele. Tulemusi võib interpreteerida ka vastupidiselt – mida kõrgemad on OK tüüpide tajutud hinnangud, seda kõrgemalt hinnatakse oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja oma emotsioonide juhtimise kompetentse.

Tees 1.2.4.D: Hinnangud empaatia ja suhete juhtimise kompetentsidele on oluliselt ja tugevalt seotud inimsuhete ja avatud süsteemi OK tüüpe tajutud hinnangutega, keskmiselt seotud tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpi tajutud hinnangutega ning vähe või ebaoluliselt seotud sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpi tajutud hinnangutega.

Tees leidis *osalist kinnitust*, kuna pakutud seoste tugevus ei olnud kookõlas tulemustega. Uurimistulemused näitavad, et empaatia ja suhete juhtimise ning inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi ja tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpe hinnangute vahel on positiivne, madal ja oluline korrelatsioon. Empaatia ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpe hinnangute vahel on samuti positiivne madal ja oluline korrelatsioon, kuid suhete juhtimise ja nimetatud OK tüüpi hinnangute vaheline seos oli ebaoluline. Seose olemasolu viitab sellele, et mida kõrgemad on hinnangud oma empaatialle ja suhete juhtimisele, seda kõrgemalt hinnatakse ülalnimetatud OK tüüpe; seost võib interpreteerida ka vastupidiselt.

EI kompetentside ja OK tüüpe hinnangute vahelised seosed varieeruvad organisatsiooniti. Teenindusorganisatsioonidel, kus on kõrge tööjõu intensiivsus ja madal kliendisuhtluse tase, esines kõige enam seoseid (8–13 seost 16-st võimalikust). Järgmisena seoste arvult (7 seost) oli teenindusorganisatsioon, millel on kõrge ja madal tööjõu intensiivsuse tase.

Tees 3.1.1.D: Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate amet, haridus, etniline kuuluvus, vanus, sugu ja OK tajutud hinnangud ennustavad oma EI kompetentsidele antud hinnanguid.

Tees leidis *kinnitust* lineaarse regressioonanalüüsi tulemuste järgi. EI kompetentside hinnanguid ennustavad vanus (üle 51), etniline kuuluvus (vene keele kõnelejad), haridus (keskharidus) ja amet (spetsialist või keskastmejuht). Tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpi tajutud hinnangud ennustavad oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele antud hinnanguid; inimsuhete OK tüübile antud hinnangud ennustavad oma emotsioonide juhtimisele antud hinnanguid; sisemiste protsesside OK tüüp – empaatia; inimsuhete ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüp – suhete juhtimine. Tulemused viitavad EI ja OK vahelistele seostele, kus inimsuhete, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpe tajutud hinnangud ennustavad kõrgemaid oma EI kompetentsidele antud hinnanguid.

Panus teooriasse ja praktikasse

Käesoleva doktoritöö panust võib näha kahest aspektist: esiteks panus teooriasse, mis on jälgitav selle töö teoreetilises ja diskussiooni osas, ning teiseks panus praktikasse, mille käigus töötati teenindusorganisatsioonide juhtidele ja töötajatele välja ettepanekud juhtimis- ja arendustegevuste kohta. Panust võib kahel tasandil eristada ka teisiti: üldisel ja Eesti teenindus-

organisatsioonide kontekstis. Järgnevalt on esitatud peamised järeldused EI, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kohta.

Järeldused oma EI hinnangute kohta

1. Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad hindavad oma empaatiat ja suhete juhtimist kui EI kompetentse madalamalt kui oma emotsioonide teadvustamise ja emotsioonide juhtimise kompetentse.
2. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate hinnangud oma emotsioonide teadvustamisele, emotsioonide juhtimisele, empaatialle ja suhete juhtimisele kui EI kompetentsidele on omavahel positiivselt seotud.
3. Erinevate teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad tajuvad emotsioonide olulisust tööl erinevalt ja peavad emotsioone tööl pigem oluliseks.
4. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate hinnangud oma EI kompetentsidele on positiivselt seotud emotsioonide olulisuse tajuga tööl.
5. Klient, teenindusorganisatsioon ja selle töötajad põhjustavad positiivseks või negatiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi.
6. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate arvamused oma emotsioonide juhtimise kui EI kompetentsi taseme kohta on seotud positiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvate sündmustega tööl.
7. Olenevalt ametist, haridusest, etnilisest kuuluvusest, vanusest ja soost hindavad teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad oma EI kompetentside taset erinevalt.

Järeldused OK tajumise kohta

1. Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad tajuvad tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide tunnusooni domineerivana.
2. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad hindavad tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpi kõige enam esindatuna ning inimsuhete OK tüüpi kõige vähem esindatuna, kuid hinnangud inimsuhete ja tulemustele suunatud OK tüüpide vahel on positiivselt seotud.
3. Erinevate teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajad tajuvad inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpe erineval moel.
4. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate hinnangud OK tüüpidele on positiivselt seotud emotsioonide olulisuse tajuga tööl.
5. Positiivseks või negatiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvad sündmuste tüübid on seotud inimsuhete, avatud süsteemi ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpidele antud hinnangutega.

Järeldused EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta

1. Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate EI kompetentside hinnanguid ennustavad töötajate amet, haridus, vanus, etniline kuuluvus, sugu ning inimsuhete, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide tajumine.

2. Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate hinnangud oma EI kompetentsidele on positiivselt seotud OK tüüpide hinnanguga.

Panus teoriasse

EI ja OK vahelisi seoseid on empiirilisel vähe uuritud. Käesolev doktoritöö on autori andmetel esimene katse leida kahe nähtuse vahelisi seoseid empiirilise uurimise käigus. On palju teoreetilisi arutelusid OK tunnuste ja EI seoste vahel, kuid puudub neid nähtusi käsitlev empiiriline uurimus. Käesolev uuring võimaldab anda olulise panuse ka teoriasse, sest empiirilise uuringu raames selgitati välja EI ja OK vahelised seosed teenindussektoris.

Uuringu jaoks oli välja töötatud ja valideeritud küsimustik, et mõõta EI-d töökontekstis. EITO (“Emotsionaalse intelligentsuse test organisatsioonis”) loodi spetsiaalselt organisatsiooni tarbeks ja seda saab rakendada enesehindamismeetodina era- ja avaliku sektori organisatsioonides. Vaatamata sellele, et EITO on enesemõõtmise instrument, ei vähenda see tehtud uurimistöö väärtust, kuna epistemoloogilisest vaatenurgast peegeldavad taju ja uskumus nähtuse kohta ka nähtust ennast.

Tehtud uuring tõestab, et EI kompetentside vahel eksisteerivad seosed, mis viitab EI-le kui terviknähtusele. Uurimuses on näidatud, et emotsioone peetakse tööl oluliseks. Emotsioonide olulisuse mõistmine ja selliste valdkondade leidmine, kus emotsioonid avalduvad, nõuab EI kompetentside rakendamist. Uurimistulemused näitavad, et teenindusorganisatsioonides positiivseks või negatiivseks hinnatud emotsioone esilekustuvad sündmused tulenevad kliendist, teenindusorganisatsioonist või töötajast enesest ning EI kompetentsid on nende sündmustega seotud – see võimaldab kujundada teenindusprotsessi ja teeninduskvaliteeti. Hinnangud EI kompetentsidele erinevad sõltuvad indiviidikarakteristikutest, mis tähendab, et ei saa eeldada, nagu avalduksid EI kompetentsid ühtmoodi.

Teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate poolt tajutud OK puhul eeldati, et selle tunnused on inimsuhete tüübile omased, kuid uurimistulemused viitavad, et äriktoris tegutsevates teenindus-organisatsioonides tajutakse tulemustele suunatud OK tüübi tunnuseid domineerivana ning inimsuhete OK tüübile anti kõige madalamad hinnangud. See viitab vajadusele leida tasakaal erinevate OK tüüpide tunnuste avaldumisel, et saavutada töötajate heaolu ja klientide rahulolu. Sellegipoolest erinevad teenindusorganisatsioonid üksteisest OK tüüpide tajumise osas, mis näitab, et tuleb pöörata tähelepanu unikaalse kultuuri kui konkurentsieelise loomisele. Uurimistulemustest nähtub, et emotsioonide olulisus on seotud OK tajumisega, seega interpreteerimisprotsessi kaudu annavad emotsioonid OK-le tähenduse ja aitavad mõista, kuidas kultuur reguleerib inimkäitumist organisatsioonis. Teenindustriaadi osalised (klient, organisatsioon ja töötaja) põhjustavad emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi – need sündmused on seotud OK tüüpidega, mis viitab OK rollile sündmuste tõlgendamise protsessis.

Empiirilise uurimise tulemused tõid esile vastastikused seosed EI ja OK vahel – mida kõrgemad on hinnangud oma EI kompetentsidele, seda kõrgemalt hinnatakse OK tüüpe (ja vastupidi). Seosed EI ja OK vahel varieeruvad teenindusorganisatsiooniti, mis tähendab, et mõnes organisatsioonis avalduvad seosed suuremal määral kui teistes ning töötajate käitumist mõjutavad enam OK tüübid ja EI kompetentsid. Eriti peab see paika nende teenindusorganisatsioonide puhul, millel on kõrge tööjõu intensiivsuse ja madal kliendisuhtluse tase. Regressioonanalüüsi tulemuste kohaselt on EI ja OK vahel seos, kus inimsuhete, tulemustele suunatud ja sisemiste protsesside OK tüüpide hinnangud ennustavad iseenda EI kompetentsidele antud hinnangute taset. Seega kultuur vahendab organisatsioonis EI avaldumist või loob selleks eeldusi, mis omakorda avaldab mõju töö tulemuslikkusele.

Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide kohta tehtud uurimusi ei ole kuigi palju. Selles doktoritöös on olulisel määral kaetud Eesti teenindussektori perspektiiv, kuna tehti sektori metaanalüüs, püstitati teesid ja uuriti nende paikapidavust. Uurimistulemused annavad teavet selle kohta, kuidas Eesti teenindusorganisatsiooni töötajad oma EI kompetentse hindavad, kuidas nad tajuvad OK-d ning millised tunnused ennustavad EI-le antavaid hinnanguid. Uurimistulemused võivad olla aluseks järgnevatele töödele Eesti jaoks olulises teenindussektoris. Samuti annavad tulemused teenindusorganisatsioonide juhtidele ja töötajatele mõtteid Eesti teenindusettevõtete toimimise eripärade ning töötajate ja OK arendamise kohta, et saavutada parimaid tulemusi.

Panus praktikasse

Uurimus võimaldab esitada ettepanekud teenindusettevõtete juhtimise ja arendamise valdkonnas. Tulemusi saab rakendada ka üldises uurimiskontekstis, kuigi osa ettepanekuid on suunatud üksnes Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonidele. Panus praktikasse on esitatud ettepanekutena kolmes osas: ettepanekud EI, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste kohta.

Ettepanekud EI kohta

- Arendada Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate EI kompetentse (eriti empaatia ja suhete juhtimine), võttes arvesse individuaalseid erinevusi.
- Värvata ja tunnustada kõrge EI-ga töötajaid (sh kelle hoiakud on orienteeritud kliendile), kes rakendavad oma EI kompetentse, et saavutada paremaid töötulemusi.
- Arendada teenindusorganisatsioonide töötajate emotsioonide juhtimist teenindamisel.
- Analüüsida emotsioonide rolli organisatsiooni tegevuses ja teeninduses, mõista emotsioonide avaldumise eripärasid teenindusorganisatsioonides.

- Korraldada töötuba, seminar vms, et koos töötajatega arutada ja leida, kuidas emotsioonid mõjutavad töö tulemuslikkust, meeskonnatööd, koostööd, suhteid jms.
- Analüüsida positiivseteks või negatiivseteks hinnatud emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi teenindusorganisatsioonis ning töötajaid kaasates töötada välja aktsepteeritud ja jagatud nimetatud sündmustele reageerimise viisid.
- Luua ja jagada praktilisi õpetusi, kuidas EI kompetentside rakendamine võimaldab emotsioone esilekutsuvaid sündmusi juhtida ja neile reageerida.

Ettepanekud OK kohta

- Arendada inimsuhete OK tüübi tunnuseid Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonides.
- Selgitada välja teenindusorganisatsiooni OK, luua soovitud kultuuri-profiil ja valmistada ette pikaajaline OK suunamise plaan koos tegevustega.
- Analüüsida teenindusorganisatsiooni OK eripärasid, selgitada välja ebakõlad juhtkonna tegevuses ja töötajate arvamuses juhtkonna tööst ning deklareeritud ja tajutud väärtuste vahel.
- Luua positiivne töökeskkond, normid ja jagatud praktikad selle kohta, kuidas juhtida emotsioone esilekutsuvaid keerulisi sündmusi, mille tulemusena arendatakse OK-d ja teenindusprotsessi.

Ettepanekud EI ja OK vaheliste seoste kohta

- Teadvustada juhtidele ja töötajatele Eesti teenindusorganisatsioonide eripärad, mis tulenevad EI ja OK vahelistest seostest ja mis omakorda viitavad seoste avaldumise erinevustele teenindusorganisatsioonides.
- Teadvustada juhtidele ja töötajatele EI ja OK vahelised seosed teenindusorganisatsioonis ja arvestada organisatsiooni juhtimisel nendega. Nime- taud seosed näitavad, kuidas OK tajumine töötajate poolt võib toetada või takistada töötajate EI kompetentside avaldumist.
- Mõista teenindussektori heterogeensust ning luua teenindusorganisatsiooni konkurentsieelis OK ja teenindusprotsessi arendamise kaudu.

Juhtimis- ja arendusettepanekuid tuleb rakendada sihipäraselt, kuna esitatud ettepanekud on kogum võimalustest, mis võiksid ergutada mõtlemist ja loovat lähenemist teenindusorganisatsioonides tekkivate probleemidega toimetulekul. Sobivate ettepanekute valik ning nende modifitseerimine ja rakendamine konkreetses organisatsioonis aitab saavutada kõrgeid töötulemusi.

Uurimistöö piirangud ja edasiarendamise võimalused

Doktoritöös esinevad teatud **piirangud** nii teoreetilisest kui ka empiirilisest vaatenurgast. Uurimistöö piirangud tulenevad teemakohase kirjanduse vähesusest, valimi kompositsioonist, metodoloogias ja mõõtmisvahendist.

Kirjanduse vähesus. Piisavalt kirjandust leidub eraldi EI ja OK teemade kohta, kuid süvateoreetilist materjali nende vaheliste seoste kohta on vähe. Doktoritöö autor ei leidnud ühtegi empiirilist uurimust, mis käsitleks otseselt EI ja OK vahelisi seoseid. Samas on käesolev uurimus selle piirangu tõttu oluline panus valdkonna arengusse.

Valimi kompositsioon. Doktoritöös keskenduti teenindusorganisatsioonide uurimisele ning nende valik valimis oleks võinud olla laiem ja sisaldada enam avaliku sektori organisatsioone. See oleks võimaldanud tulemuste sisukamaid ja huvitavamaid interpreteeringuid.

Uurimismetoodika. Doktoritöös rakendati peamiselt kvantitatiivset uuringut, mis võib jääda kitsaks ja piirata tulemuste interpreteerimisvõimalusi. Samuti võib piiranguks pidada ühe uurimismetoodika kasutust, mis võib häirida uuritud nähtuste kohta objektiivse pildi kujundamist.

EI mõõtmisvahend. Üks siinse doktoritöö piirang on enesehinnangute rakendamine EI kompetentside mõõtmisel. Oma kompetentside hindamine annab küll informatsiooni selle kohta, mida vastajad arvavad enda kompetentsitaseme kohta, kuid piiratuks jääb arusaam nähtusest enesest. Seega võivad tulemused olla nihkes, kuna inimesed kipuvad end ala- või ülehindama.

Samuti tuleb arvestada sellega, et uurimistulemusi ei saa üldistada kõikide teenindusorganisatsioonide puhul kehtivaiks, pigem on võimalik leida seaduspärasusi. Vaatamata piirangutele on saadud tulemused ülevaatliku ja loovad aluse edaspidistele uuringutele.

Töö **edasiarendamise võimalused** on suuresti seotud kirjeldatud piirangutega. Töösse saab panustada, mitmekesistades uurimismetodoloogiat, uurides EI avaldumist teenindusprotsessis, lisades uurimisse kliendiperspektiivi ning tehes eksperimentaal- või longituuduurimust.

Uurimismetodoloogia triangulatsioon. Üks töö edasiarendamise võimalus on laiendada uurimismetodoloogiat ja mõõtmisvahendeid. Triangulatsiooni rakendamine uurimismetodoloogias (rakendades näiteks küsitlust, intervjuusid ja vaatlusi) võimaldab kujundada objektiivsema pildi uuritavatest nähtustest, valideerida kvantitatiivselt uuritud aspekte ja sügavamalt interpreteerida

uurimistulemusi. Selleks et elimineerida enesehindamise piirangut, võib uurida ka kolleegide ja/või klientide hinnanguid.

Uurida EI-d teeninduses. Siinses uurimistöös paluti vastajatel hinnata oma EI kompetentse töö kontekstis seoses kolleegidega. Kuigi doktoritöö autor on arendanud välja EITS-i (*Emotional Intelligence Test in Service* – “Emotsionaalse intelligentsuse test teenindamises”), mis on sarnane EITO-ga ning keskendub teenindaja ja kliendi vahelisele interaktsioonile, ei olnud võimalust laiemat uurimistööd teha ega uurimistulemusi siinses töös esitada. Samas võimaldaks teenindusele keskendumine EI mõõtmisel luua sügavama arusaama teenindusprotsessist.

Lisada uuringusse klient. Üks võimalus on lisada uuringusse kliendi dimensioon. Võib paluda kliendil hinnata teenindaja EI kompetentse ning võrrelda tulemusi teenindaja enesehinnangutega, või siis paluda hinnata kliendil enda EI-d, võrrelda seda teenindaja EI-ga ja analüüsida hinnangute seost tajutud teeninduskvaliteediga.

Eksperimentaaluurimise võimaldaks laiendada uurimusulatust ning minna EI, OK ja nendevaheliste seoste analüüsis sügavamale. Eksperimentide käigus võib simuleerida teenindusprotsessi ja hinnata teenindaja EI-d ning hinnata eri organisatsioonides klientide reaktsioone teenindusprotsessis, see kujundaks uuringu konteksti OK kujul.

Longituuduuring võimaldaks välja selgitada, kuidas muutub EI tase, kui seda töötajates arendada, kuidas avaldab muutus pikas perspektiivis mõju OK tajule ja klientide rahulolule.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name: Elina Kallas (maiden name Tolmats)
Date and place of birth: Tartu, 03.10.1977
Nationality: Estonian
Present position: Manager, Human Resources, Enics Estonia Ltd.
E-mail: elina.tolmats@ut.ee; elina.kallas@enics.com

Education:
2004–to date PhD student, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Estonia
2002–2004 MA in economics, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Estonia
2002 exchange student, Danish International Study Program, Copenhagen, Denmark
1997–2002 BA in management, marketing, finance, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, University of Tartu, Estonia
1994–1997 Diploma in banking, Fontes Business School, Tartu, Estonia
1984–1994 Tartu 13. Secondary School, Estonia

Foreign languages: Russian, English

Employment:
2008–to date Manager, Human Resources, Enics Estonia Ltd.
2005–2008 Research Fellow, Doctoral School of Economics
2005–2008 Specialist, University of Tartu
2002–2008 Executor of educational assignments, University of Tartu, Open University of University of Tartu, Narva College of University of Tartu
2001–2008 Tutor-consultant; Sinekuur Ltd.
2000 Trainer, Rapla County Government
1998 Accountant, Eesti Pliiats Ltd.
1997 Secretary, ICI Trust Ltd.
1996–1997 Specialist, North-Estonian Bank, Tartu Branch, Correspondence Accounting Department.

Main research interests:
Emotional intelligence, organizational culture, human resource management, creativity

Academic work:

1) Projects

- 2007–to date Member of the research project “Service Organizations from the Perspective of Organizational Behaviour: Some Influencing Factors and Trends”, Estonian Science Foundation, grant No. 7018.
- 2007–2008 Participation in the project “Entrepreneurship education” (ENTEDU), Estonian Science Foundation, project No. 1.0101-06-0466.
- 2006–2007 Participation in the project “Innovation Education” (INNOEDU), Estonian Science Foundation, measure 1.1.
- 2006 Member of organizing committee of the 10th International Conference Work Values and Behavior of International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values (ISSWOV), 25.06–29.06.2006, Tallinn.
- 2005–2006 Member of research project “Assurance system for quality, effectiveness and sustainability of doctoral studies in Estonian universities”, Estonian Science Foundation, 1.1 EDS-2 project.
- 2004 Member of the project management team of Business Consultancy Project between University of Tartu and Ohio Business School.
- 2003–2006 Member of the research project “Organizational Culture in Estonia: National and International Aspects”, Estonian Science Foundation, grant No. 5527.

2) Editing and reviewing

- 2004 Editor of the conference book and chair of section: Vadi, M., Aidla, A., Tolmats, E. (Eds) (2004). “*Management Theory and Practice: Synergy in Organizations*”, II international conference, Tartu: Tartu University Press, 242 p.
- 2004 Reviewer of articles of International conference “*Culture of Work and Cooperation at School*”, 27. October, Pärnu, Estonia
- 2003 Reviewer of articles of compendium “*National and international aspects of organizational culture*”, Vadi, M. (Ed.). Tartu: Tartu University Press.
- 2003 Reviewer of articles of compendium “*Organisational Culture in Estonia: Manifestations and Consequences*”, Vadi, M (Ed.). Tartu: Tartu University Press.

3) Teaching

- 2002–2008 Composing and conducting courses, lectures and seminars on the topics: Management and Work with Personnel, Emotional Intelligence in Organization, Management of Knowledge Processes in Organization, National Culture Influence on

Organizational Performance, Human Resource Management, Creativity in Organization, Organizational Behaviour, Management Basics.

Composing and conducting web-based course: Leadership and Emotional Intelligence.

Supervising and co-supervising bachelor (9 successfully defended) and MBA (1 successfully defended) thesis.

Participation in research papers defence commissions in Department of Management.

Training, consulting and research experiences:

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| Topic: | Company's area of activity and participants: |
| Emotional intelligence, organizational culture and work satisfaction | Two companies from energetic sector; middle level managers Fuel retail sale; middle level managers Education; lecturers, teachers Production; managers and administrative staff Insurance; managers and administrative staff Entertainment; managers and administrative staff |
| Leadership skills | Energetic sector; managers |
| Team work and communication skills | Energetic sector; managers, specialists and workers |
| Effective cooperation on the assumption of cultural diversity | Town-twinning program; entrepreneurs and public sector specialists |
| Basics of servicing | Entertainment; service workers |
| Motivation, self-management, leadership, creativity and cooperation | Oil-shale production; middle managers |
| Creativity | Entrepreneurship program; Entrepreneurs |

CURRICULUM VITAE IN ESTONIAN

Nimi: Elina Kallas (neiupõlvenimi Tolmats)
Sünnikoht ja-aeg: Tartu, 03.10.1977
Kodakondsus: Eesti
Amet: Personalijuht, Enics Eesti AS
E-post: elina.tolmats@ut.ee; elina.kallas@enics.com

Education:

2004– doktorant, Majandusteaduskond, Tartu Ülikool, Eesti
2002–2004 MA majandusteaduses, Majandusteaduskond, Tartu Ülikool, Eesti
2002 vahetusüliõpilane, *Danish International Study Program*, Kopenhaagen, Taani
1997–2002 BA juhtimises, turunduses ja majandusarvestuses, Majandusteaduskond, Tartu Ülikool, Eesti
1994–1997 Diplom panganduses, Fontese Ärikool, Tartu, Estonia
1984–1994 Tartu 13. Keskkool, Eesti

Võõrkeeled: inglise keel, vene keel

Teenistuskäik:

2008– Personalijuht, Enics Eesti AS
2005–2008 Erakorraline teadur, Majandusalane doktorikool
2005–2008 spetsialist, Tartu Ülikool
2002–2008 õppeülesannete täitja, Tartu Ülikool, Tartu Ülikooli Avatud Ülikool, Tartu Ülikooli Narva Kolledž
2001–2008 Koolitaja-konsultant, Sinekuur OÜ
2000 Koolitaja, Rapla Maavalitsus
1998 Raamatupidaja, Eesti Pliiats AS
1997 Sekretär, ICI Trust AS
1996–1997 Välisarvelduste spetsialist, Põhja-Eesti Pank AS

Peamised uurimisvaldkonnad:

Emotsionaalne intelligentsus, organisatsioonikultuur, personalijuhtimine, loovus

Akadeemiline tegevus:

1) Projektid

2007– Uurimisprojekti “Teenindusorganisatsioonid organisatsioonikäitumise vaatenurgast: mõned tegurid ja arengusuunad” liige Eesti Teadusfondi grandid nr. 7018 raames
2007–2008 Osalemine projektis “Ettevõtluspedagoogika õppearendus” (ENTEDU), Eesti Teadusfond, projekt nr. 1.0101-06-0466.

- 2006–2007 Osalemine projektis “Innovatsiooniõppe arendus” (INNOEDU), Eesti Teadusfond, meede 1.1.
- 2006 X rahvusvahelise konverentsi “10th International Conference Work Values and Behavior of International Society for the Study of Work and Organizational Values” (ISSWOV) korralduskomitee liige, 25.06–29.06.2006, Tallinn
- 2005–2006 Osalemine projektis “Eesti doktoriõppe kvaliteedi, tulemuslikkuse ja jätkusuutlikkuse tagamise süsteem”, Eesti Teadusfond, 1.1 EDS-2 projekt.
- 2004 Ärikonsultatsiooni projektimeeskonna liige Tartu Ülikooli ja Ohio Business School vahel
- 2003–2006 Uurimisprojekti “Organisatsioonikultuur Eestis: rahvuslikud ja rahvusvahelised aspektid” liige, Eesti Teadusfond, grand nr. 5527 raames

2) Toimetamine ja retsenseerimine

- 2004 Konverentsi kogumiku toimetaja ja sektsiooni juht: Vadi, M., Aidla, A., Tolmats, E. (Eds) (2004). “*Management Theory and Practice: Synergy in Organizations*”, II rahvusvaheline konverents, Tartu: Tartu Ülikooli Kirjastus, 242 lk.
- 2004 Rahvusvahelise konverentsil “Töö- ja koostöökultuur koolis” artiklite retsensent, 27. oktoober, Pärnu, Eesti
- 2003 Artiklite kogumiku retsensent: “*National and international aspects of organizational culture*”, Vadi, M. (Ed.). Tartu: Ülikooli Kirjastus.
- 2003 Artiklite kogumiku retsensent: “*Organisational Culture in Estonia: Manifestations and Consequences*”, Vadi, M (Ed.). Tartu: Ülikooli Kirjastus.

3) Õppetöö

- 2002–2008 Kursuste, loengute ja seminaride ettevalmistamine ja läbi viimine teemadel: juhtimise alused, personalijuhtimine, emotsionaalne intelligentsus organisatsioonis, teadmusprotsesside juhtimine organisatsioonis, rahvuskultuuri mõju organisatsioonile, loovus organisatsioonis, organisatsioonikäitumine. Veebi-põhise kursuse koostamine ja läbiviimine teemal: Eestvedamine ja emotsionaalne intelligentsus.
- Juhendamine ja kaasjuhendamine (9 kaitstud bakalaureusetööd ja üks MBA töö).
- Osalemine uurimustööde katmiskomisjonides Tartu Ülikooli, majandusteaduskonna juhtimise õppetoolis.

Koolitus-, konsultatsiooni ja uurimustegevus:

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| Teema: | Organisatsiooni tegevusvaldkond ja osalejad: |
| Emotsionaalne intelligentsus, organisatsioonikultuur ja tööga rahulolu | Kaks ettevõtet energia sektoriga; keskastmejuhid Kütuse jaemüük; keskastmejuhid Haridus; lektorid, õpetajad Tootmine; juhid, spetsialistid Kindlustus; juhid, spetsialistid Meelelahutus; juhid, spetsialistid |
| Eestvedamisoskused | Energeetika sektor; juhid |
| Meeskonnatöö ja suhtlemisoskused | Energeetika sektor; juhid, spetsialistid, töölised |
| Efektne koostöö rahvuskultuurilise mitmekesisuse kontekstis | <i>Town-twinning</i> programm; ettevõtjad, avaliku sektori teenistujad |
| Teenindamise alused | Meelelahutus; teenindajad |
| Motivatsioon, enesejuhtimine, eestvedamine, loovus ja koostöö | Põlevkivi tootmine; keskastmejuhid |
| Loovus | Ettevõtlusprogramm; ettevõtjad |

DISSERTATIONES RERUM OECONOMICARUM UNIVERSITATIS TARTUENSIS

1. **Олев Раю.** Экономическая ответственность и ее использование в хозяйственном механизме. Tartu, 1994. Kaitstud 20.05.1991.
2. **Janno Reiljan.** Majanduslike otsuste analüütiline alus (teooria, metodoloogia, meetodika ja meetodid). Tartu, 1994. Kaitstud 18.06.1991.
3. **Robert W. McGee.** The theory and practice of public finance: some lessons from the USA experience with advice for former socialist countries. Tartu, 1994. Kaitstud 21.06.1994.
4. **Maaja Vadi.** Organisatsioonikultuur ja väärtused ning nende vahelised seosed (Eesti näitel). Tartu, 2000. Kaitstud 08.06.2000.
5. **Raul Eamets.** Reallocation of labour during transition disequilibrium and policy issues: The case of Estonia. Tartu, 2001. Kaitstud 27.06.2001.
6. **Kaia Philips.** The changes in valuation of human capital during the transition process in Estonia. Tartu, 2001. Kaitstud 10.01.2002.
7. **Tõnu Roolaht.** The internationalization of Estonian companies: an exploratory study of relationship aspects. Tartu, 2002. Kaitstud 18.11.2002.
8. **Tiia Vissak.** The internationalization of foreign-owned enterprises in Estonia: An extended network perspective. Tartu, 2003. Kaitstud 18.06.2003.
9. **Anneli Kaasa.** Sissetulekute ebavõrdsuse mõjurite analüüs struktuurse modelleerimise meetodil. Tartu, 2004. Kaitstud 15.09.2004.
10. **Ruth Alas.** Organisational changes during the transition in Estonia: Major influencing behavioural factors. Tartu, 2004. Kaitstud 22.12.2004.
11. **Ele Reiljan.** Reasons for de-internationalization: An analysis of Estonian manufacturing companies. Tartu, 2004. Kaitstud 25.01.2005.
12. **Janek Uiboupin.** Foreign banks in Central and Eastern European markets: their entry and influence on the banking sector, Tartu, 2005. Kaitstud 29.06.2005.
13. **Jaan Masso.** Labour Reallocation in Transition Countries: Efficiency, Restructuring and Institutions, Tartu, 2005. Kaitstud 7.11.2005.
14. **Katrin Männik.** The Impact of the Autonomy on the Performance in a Multinational Corporation's Subsidiary in Transition Countries, Tartu, 2006. Kaitstud 29.03.2006.
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