INVESTIGATING THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION OF WORK OVERLOAD AND MULTITASKING WITH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES OF WORKING WOMEN

BY

Syeda Mahnoor

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

ISLAMABAD

August, 2022

INVESTIGATING THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION OF WORK OVERLOAD AND MULTITASKING WITH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES OF WORKING WOMEN

By

Syeda Mahnoor

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

In **Psychology**

To

DEPARTMENT OF APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

ISLAMABAD

INVESTIGATING THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION OF WORK OVERLOAD AND MULTITASKING WITH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES OF WORKING WOMEN

By

Syeda Mahnoor

Approved By

_____

Dr. Zafar Ahmad

(Supervisor)

_____

Dr. Shakira Huma Siddiqui

(HOD Department of Applied Psychology

_____

(External Examiner)

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the M-Phil Research Report On "Investigating the Role of Emotional Intelligence In Relation of Work Overload And Multitasking With Conflict Management Styles Of Working Women" prepared by Syeda Mahnoor has been approved for submission to the National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad.

_____

Dr. Zafar Ahmad

(Supervisor)

CONTENTS

List of Tables

1

List of Figures

3

Acknowledgement

In the name of Allah, the most Merciful and the most Beneficent

Foremost, I would like to thank Almighty Allah, the Blesser, the glorious, and the Majestic, and on whom we ultimately depend for guidance and sustenance, for His blessings in the form of health, courage, patience, and guidance to complete this research successfully

Secondly, this thesis owes its existence to the help, support and inspiration of several people. I would like to express my sincere appreciation and gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Zafar Ahmad, for his support and guidance for my research. I would like to express my extreme gratitude to my husband, mother, and father for their unconditional support, guidance and encouragement as it has been a pull for me to get through my work. Without them and their support this work would not have been possible.

I'm also grateful to my in-laws, and my khala, and my brother for their unflagging love and tremendous support throughout this period and for providing with all the comfort and all the resources to help me get through this time. Last but not the least I would like to thank my lovely baby Minha as it is her who made me want to complete this so one day, she can be proud of her mom.

Abstract

The present study aimed to examine the relationships between Work Overload, Multitasking and the Conflict Management Styles of Working Women. It further aimed to examine the effect of Emotional Intelligence on these relationships as a moderator. Moreover, it aimed to see the role of demographic variables such as age, family system, marital status, number if children, and years of experience on the study variables. Sample comprised of 225 working women with the age ranged from 21-60 years. The conflict management styles were measured with the Rahim's Organizational Conflict Inventory, Work Overload was measured using the Reilly's Role Overload Scale, multitasking was measured using The Multitasking Preference Inventory and emotional intelligence was measured using Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale. Results were analyzed using SPSS (20.0 for windows). All scales had good reliabilities. Implications and limitations of the study and suggestions for future researches have also been discussed.

INVESTIGATING THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN RELATION OF WORK OVERLOAD AND MULTITASKING WITH CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STYLES OF WORKING WOMEN

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The primary duties of housekeeping, childcare, eldercare, and care of the in-laws are carried out by women. The emotional toll of caring is greater on women than on men. When it comes to advancing their careers, women face significant obstacles due to the unequal distribution of childcare and other household duties (Cross and Linehan, 2006). Opportunities for staggered working parent shifts have increased due to technological advancement and the expansion of the 24-hour economy, which may offer another way to address the requirement of women to be available at work and home at a time (Presser, 1988). Most women prefer part-time jobs so they have more time for family obligations (Daly and Lewis, 2000). Working mothers who had trouble finding child care suffered from severe depression, according to Ross and Mirowsky's research from 1988. According to research by Jaffrey and Karen (1991), compared to child care, the caretaking of elders at home, encompasses more unpredictable circumstances, which are harder to manage and result in higher levels of stress for the caregiver. Married women frequently devote a lot of time and effort to caring for their in-laws, particularly the mother-in-law and father-in-law, as research by Greenberger et al. (1989) demonstrated. In conclusion, women are the primary caregivers and act in these capacities as wives, daughters, and daughters-in-law. Additionally, compared to men, women become more accustomed to providing care because they provide primary care for their children as well as the elderly (Blair and Litcher 1991). Eldercare can have a negative impact on employees personally, professionally, emotionally, and financially, similar to how child care can. Due to their caregiving responsibilities, caregivers report experiencing depressive, isolating, lonely,

and stressful feelings. They can cause marital issues, the dissolution of personal and professional relationships, low workplace productivity, and an overall decline in work performance (Kossek and Lambart, 2004).

As their paid work hours increase, women spend less time on household duties (Ross, 1987). Role overload is a major factor in work-related stress because women often have to juggle multiple responsibilities in the home and at work. It can be challenging for women to fulfill all of their responsibilities with the same level of dedication, which can result in fatigue, stress, and dissatisfaction. The conflict that is based on time is steady and constant with the extensive time required at work, schedule issues, and Pleck et al. (1980) and Kahn et al's (1964) dimensions of role overload. The research also revealed that a person's performance improves to some extent when over-worked, as a certain amount of stress is nice for work execution, but discontent also arises with it. Overworked employees demonstrate poor efficiency and poor performance (Mittal & Bhakar, 2018). The parameters of work conflict are all negatively correlated with having a supportive supervisor and flexible scheduling, though. Colleagues' support though help manage workload, but it has no visible effect on managing time clash, work overload and mental distress. That is why colleagues' support is highly negatively linked with managing workload and working hours and highly positively linked with a bad supervisor's role during challenging time (Shakil Ahmad et al.).

One of the most extensively studied symptoms of work overload is stress. Worldwide, a wide range of programs, trainings, and sessions are available to help reduce the stress brought on by work overload. Reorganization and job definition are additional considerations. There are also roles that need to be clearly defined. When we are overworked, we experience stress,

anxiety, and depression, which in turn causes dissatisfaction, which causes ill health and poor performance. This leads to lower job satisfaction. Due to the increase in workload, lengthening of workdays, and pressure from managers to be successful, profitable, and competitive, work overload has received a lot of attention. Several studies have been carried out to lessen the effects of stress and depression brought on by work overload (Altaf & Awan, 2011).

Longer workdays and more fatigued and stressed feelings are likely to follow from heavy workloads. People who are overworked frequently have unreasonable workloads, lengthy workdays, strenuous schedules, a sense of obligation to work additional hours, little to no downtime, and infrequent days off. Work overload is a major study factor of stress (DeFrank & Ivancevich 1998).

Hardworking staff who put in more hours and multitask are more stressed, have worse health, and file more health-related grievances than staff who are not under overload, according to Taylor, Repetti, and Seeman (1997). Michie and Williams' 2003 study found a link between work overload and psychological illness. Iverson and Maguire (2000) found that among public sector managers, work overload significantly lowers job satisfaction and employee perceptions of an innovative organizational culture (Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978). The amount of voluntary turnover is significantly increased by overwork (Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994). DeFrank and Ivancevich stress how crucial it is to eliminate pointless sources of work overload (1998). A significant source of stress for many employees and a factor in health problems was balancing the growing demands of both their personal and professional lives.

It is believed that women are more likely to experience stress related to finding a work-life balance (Burley, 1994). Long hours and heavy workloads cause stress and anxiety in

workers, which negatively affects their ability to do their jobs, their relationships with their families, and their physical health (Altaf & Awan, 2011). A high level of work/family conflict, poor life and marital adjustment, and reports of physical symptoms have all been linked in other studies. These studies include Hodapp, Newer, and Weyer (1988), as well as Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder (1987). (1988). (1989; Innes & Kitto). Overall job performance, organizational skills, and some workers' effort levels are all impacted by job dissatisfaction (Adams, 1965).

Conflict Management Styles

Conflict management style refers to the way an individual limit the undesirable perspectives of conflict while increasing desirable perspectives of conflict It includes the decrease, removal or end of all kinds and types of conflict (Masood & Javed, 2016).

A description of conflict which is completely acknowledged by all academics is challenging to present. Given that different scholars have different perspectives on conflict, it is possible to assign various subjective interpretations to the singular phenomenon of conflict. While some see it as an indication of intergroup animosity, others see it as an interpersonal conflict brought on by contrasting opinions or choices (Barki & Hartwick, 2001). Prior research concentrated on developing a universal or common definition which encompasses the complete phenomenon and its procedures, containing background situations, sentiments, views, and behavior (Pondy, 1969). According to Corwin (1969), conflict can take the form of personal or social clash/pressure or can take the form of behaviors (such as disagreements and information distortions) that go against the organization's norms for cooperation.

Thomas (1992) made a similar point when he stated that conflict is a procedure that starts when one of the counterparts observe that he is either distressed or is about to be distressed due to the other. definitions all share the idea of identifying the factors that start and spread conflict. Conflict is not necessarily due to disagreements in how people view the end goal. It can also happen when there is agreement on the goals but disagreement on the means. From the viewpoint of the outcome, the theoretical foundation relating to conflict and its basis have drawn a lot of attention. This may not always be the case, according to Jehn (1997), as conflict is often brought on by disagreements over how to manage the work. However, other causes of conflict must also be taken into account.

Ambiguity about expectations or guidelines, miscommunication, imprecise use of power, personality clashes, clashes in interest, and changes in organizations are all common reasons of conflict. Conflict-causing behaviors can include intimidation, poor communication, withholding crucial information, and vocal or corporal violence. The most shared reasons of conflict by employees, are personality clashes, tension, overwork, poor control by the management, a lack of trustworthiness and sincerity and ambiguity of roles (Overton & Lowry, 2013).

For any organization, conflict is an unavoidable reality. To establish strong relationships with their subordinates, leaders must comprehend and use a variety of styles for conflict management styles and different approaches to resolve the raised conflict. Conflict that isn't resolved can harm an organization's ability to succeed. Therefore, leaders essentially need to learn how to deal with conflict keeping the context/ situation and the people involved in view (Janss et al., 2012).

Simply put, when people think of conflict, they imagine it as when serious issues and anger are brought up during the communication process. One's words or values are misunderstood when there is conflict. The parties experience inappropriate information that is poorly communicated, as well as information that is transmitted through the wrong channel. Some would contend that while conflict can be advantageous in some circumstances, it can also have unfavorable effects in others. Conflict is said to enhance task comprehension, team development, and the caliber of group decision-making. The opposing school of thought contends that conflict wastes resources on its resolution while diverting attention from the urgent tasks at hand. Whether or not it is occasionally beneficial, it is obvious that many conflicts are harmful (Janss et al., 2012).

Conflict cannot be prevented, but it can be controlled. The ability to appropriately handle a challenging conversation or interaction is crucial because conflict will always exist on an individual and organizational level. Experts concur that it is possible to learn the necessary skills and that conflict competence can be defined and learned. One definition of conflict management by Overton & Lowry, (2013) states that it is the capacity to acquire and apply cognitive, emotional, and behavioral skills that improve fruitful conflict resolution while minimizing the risk of harm or escalation.

The five Conflict Management Styles

Five conflict management styles (collaborating, accommodating, competing, avoiding, and compromising) make up the multidimensional concept of conflict management style (CMS) (Rahim 1983). These styles are intricate, and although a person may favor one over another, the choice of style is determined by the circumstances and the people involved (Rahim

6

1983, Friedman et al. 2000). Rahim's seminal work from 1983 states that collaborating entails sharing information, examining differences to find solutions, and seeking alternatives to find a solution that is agreeable to all parties. Accommodating entails making an effort to minimize differences and highlight shared traits in order to allay the worries of the other parties. One party satisfies their own needs or concerns while disregarding those of the other in the competing style. In contrast, there is frequently no effort made to address the needs and concerns of any of the parties when conflict is avoided. In order to reach a decision that is acceptable to both parties, compromising requires that both parties give up something (Rahim 1983).

However, the existence of a conflict management "style" has been the subject of ongoing discussion. Blake and Mouton (1964), Thomas (1976), and Rahim (1992) all sought to quantify the typical strategies people use to resolve conflicts. In this method, conflict management styles were viewed as distinct character traits that remained constant over time and across contexts. Others have argued that approaches to conflict are not stable traits but rather tactics (Knapp, Putnam, & Davis, 1988; Pruitt, 1983; Thomas, 1979) or intentions (Thomas, 1979) selected to fit the situation or the relationship.

For instance, a person who uses a competing style when dealing with subordinates is unlikely to use the same style when dealing with a boss. It is assumed that when dealing with those who have more power, equal power, or less power, different behaviors will be displayed. However, the assumption that a person's style will be consistent in a particular circumstance (such as disagreements with a boss) still stands (Friedman et al., 2000).

According to Rubin, Pruitt, and Kim's (1994) Dual Concern Theory, there are two

scenarios that could result in a style of conflict management. Either there is a high or low concern for one's own self, or there is a high or low concern for the other party involved.

A high level of concern for oneself and others results in a problem-solving style, known as the collaborating style of conflict management. This approach involves teamwork and tends to concur in a way that is as beneficial to one's own dreams and ambitions as possible as well as those of others. De Dreu and others (2001).

A high concern for others and a low concern for oneself results in a yielding style, known as the accommodating style of conflict management. This approach entails making significant compromises and accepting disagreements in the form of partial concessions, unqualified promises, and financial contributions.

Low concern for others and high concern for oneself result in a forcing style, known as the competing style of conflict management. This approach involves a competitive mentality that includes positional commitments, intimidation and bluffs, and persuasive arguments.

Low concern for both the parties, others, and one's own self, means that avoidance will be the resulting style which is the avoiding style of conflict management. This approach seeks to stifle discussion of the problems by downplaying the importance of the complaints.

Lastly, a compromise is reached when there is a moderate amount of concern for both parties, making it a compromising conflict management style. This approach seeks to maintain some assertiveness and cooperation while locating a swift, amicable resolution that partially appeases both parties to the conflict.

The dual-concerns model, which is based on the conceptual framework offered in the

Managerial Grid by Blake and Mouton's (1964), contends that an individual's behavior in managing conflicts can be characterized as the synthesis of two underlying dimensions or concerns, variously referred to as "efforts to please ones personal concern" and "urge to satisfy other's concern." Combining these concerns, four conflict resolution strategies are described: integrating (higher concern for one's own self, higher concern for the other party), dominating (higher concern for one's own self, lower concern for the other party), avoiding (lower concern for one's own self, lower concern for the other party), and obliging (low concern for one's own self, higher concern for the other party). Compromise is frequently included as a particular approach signifying an intermediate level of all the issues. Although it may not be a particular style, theoretical (Pruitt & Rubin, 1986) and empirical (Van de Vliert & Hordijk, 1989) evidence suggests that it may be a weak form of the integrating, also known as collaborating style.

People who care deeply about themselves have better internal resources and are better able to protect their interests when there are pressing demands made of them, which results in lower levels of work stress in these people. Competing or collaborating conflict management styles are more common in these people. In contrast, people who don't care much about themselves lack the internal resources to advocate for themselves and become passive recipients of other people's actions have increased workplace stress levels. These people are typically obligors or avoiders (Friedman et al., 2000).

Employees today hold fervent beliefs. According to Pygmalion's Theory, the attitude, expectations, and treatment of supervisors toward their staff members have a significant impact on their performance. When there is a conflict between a supervisor and a subordinate and the

9

subordinate believes that the supervisor has low expectations of them, the employee will be committed and may use absenteeism as a means of avoiding the conflict (avoiding style).

When dealing with various subordinates, team members, and employees, managers, supervisors, employers, and leaders should employ various conflict management techniques. It might not function as expected if a manager (employer or leader) handles all workplace conflicts using only one type of conflict management style. A supervisor's conflict resolution actions not only have an impact on the relationship between the supervisor and the subordinate, but they also have an impact on the subordinate's loyalty and sense of trust in the supervisor as an organization representative. Despite this, a conflict can be started by a number of different things.

Supervisors can employ effective conflict resolution methods by understanding the different types of conflict. Unresolved conflicts may have detrimental effects if they are not resolved. The internet is a popular communication tool in the age of globalization we are in today. Organizations' productivity and efficiency have increased thanks to internet communication, but it has also given rise to new kinds of conflicts. Online disputes have increased in frequency (Lim et al., 2012).

Work Overload

Work overload is referred to as the theoretical relationship between a group or a single person and the demands of the job. The feeling among the staff that they have more work than they can complete in the allotted time (Spector & Jex, 1998). It is the circumstance in which a person must meet the high demands of roles, obligations, or tasks that must be fulfilled within

a certain amount of time and are beyond their capacity to perform (Rizzo et al., 1970; Cooper et al.,1999). Work overload was defined by Bacharach et al. (1990) as the organizational requirement to finish a large amount of work in a short amount of time. As a result, the employees' perception is whether or not they can complete tasks successfully in that amount of time.

Work overload refers to routine tasks that are so demanding that completing them requires a lot of effort. Workload overload occurs when employees don't have enough time to finish the tasks they've been given, or when demands outweigh the resources available (Goya, & Babel, 2015). A different view of work overload describes it as an incompatibility between the requirements, time constraints, and resources associated with the work provided to satisfy these requirements (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

An expanding body of research demonstrates that workers are feeling more stressed at work (Taylor et al., 1997). Overwhelmed employees are a serious issue that affects almost every organizational sector. It has become a crucial area of focus as a result of the expansion of working hours, changes in duty schedules, and pressure from managers to be competitive and achieve goals. There are some circumstances that lead to work overload, including difficult working hours, fewer holidays or breaks, pressure to work past the call of duty, unreasonable work overload, and increased expectations for tasks to be completed in a certain amount of time and with a certain number of resources (Altaf and Atif Awan, 2011).

Overwork is a problem on both a physical and mental level. There could be internal or external forces at play. Internal forces happen when someone tends to take on more work than they can handle because they lack the ability to say "No." Work overload is forced upon

11

employees by supervisors as an external force; however, refusing this may lead to poor performance reviews, job insecurity, and strained relationships with the supervisors. When a person exhibits fatigue, a headache, nausea, insomnia, or stress, which is the most significant symptom, they are experiencing work overload. Kahn (1980) asserts that work overload can be qualitative, or the ease or difficulty of achieving the given goal, or quantitative, or the amount of work to be completed at a given time. The amount of work that employees must do is growing along with the market's and the competition's need to survive.

Work itself is never a problem or a cause for concern; rather, work overload on an employee or job demands that are too demanding for a human being to handle are always a cause for concern on the part of both the employee and the employer. Usually, the outcomes brought on by such factors are the primary cause of the problem. For instance, the risk that the company faces from having one of its employees experience physical or mental issues. The psychological stability of employees must be prioritized along with other concerns like adhering to health and safety regulations. Job overload difficulties pose a risk to an employee, the company, the employee's family, and his friends when one takes into account the following issues. Consequently, work overload has grown to be a significant social problem. Employees observe a daily decline in their free time as their workload and work hours increase. Thus, their health in general eventually deteriorates. Stress has been one of the most thoroughly researched signs of work overload. To lessen the stress caused by work overload, numerous programs, trainings, and sessions have been made available globally. Job definition and reorganization are additional factors. Roles that must be clearly defined are also included. Overwhelmed by work, we become stressed, anxious, and depressed, which leads to dissatisfaction, which leads

to ill health, subpar work performance, and declining profits. Decreased job satisfaction follows from this. Work overload has drawn a lot of attention due to the rise in workload, length of workdays, and pressure from managers to be profitable, competitive, and successful. To lessen the effects of stress and depression brought on by work overload, several studies have been conducted (Altaf & Awan, 2011).

Work-life conflict is probably affected in two different ways by workload (Frone, Yardley, and Markel, 1997). High workloads are likely to result in longer workdays and more fatigued and stressed feelings. People who are overworked typically have unreasonable workloads, long workdays, demanding routines, a sense of pressure to work overtime, little to no downtime, and few days off. In studies of stress, work overload is a key factor (DeFrank & Ivancevich 1998; Sparks & Cooper, 1999; Taylor, Repetti, & Seeman, 1997, p. 434). According to Taylor, Repetti, and Seeman (1997 hardworking personnel who work for longer hours, do multi-tasking are more stressed, have poor health conditions and more health-related grievances than employees who are not experiencing overload. Work overload is linked to psychological illness, according to Michie and Williams' 2003 study. Work overload has been shown to significantly reduce employee perceptions of an innovative organizational culture and job commitment among public sector managers (Iverson & Maguire, 2000), as well as job satisfaction (Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978). (Chandler, Keller, & Lyon, 2000). Amount of overwork significantly increases the voluntary turnover (Mueller, Boyer, Price, & Iverson, 1994). The importance of removing pointless sources of work overload is noted by DeFrank and Ivancevich (1998). For many workers, juggling increasing demands from both their personal and professional lives was a major source of stress, which even contributed to health

issues.

Stress related to the work-family balance is thought to be more prevalent in women (Burley, 1994). Employees who have long hours and heavy workloads experience stress and anxiety, which has a negative impact on their work performance, relationships with their families, and their physical health (Altaf & Awan, 2011). Other studies have found links between high work/family conflict, low life and marital adjustment, and reports of physical symptoms. These studies include Hodapp, Newer, and Weyer (1988), Greenhaus, Bedeian, and Mossholder (1987), as well as Hodapp, Newer, and Weyer (1988). (Innes & Kitto, 1989). Job dissatisfaction affects overall job performance, organizational abilities, and causes some workers to exert less effort (Adams, 1965).

Numerous studies have found an association between higher perceived work stress and lower job satisfaction. For instance, Landsbergis (1988) discovered that among a sample of hospital employees, the presence of work stress was an initial sign of job dissatisfaction. Other researchers have reported similar outcomes (e.g., Cummins, 1990). Poor mental health has also been linked to high perceived work stress levels. For instance, Caplan and his associates (Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison, & Pinneau, 1975) discovered evidence linking high levels of anxiety and depression and work stress.

A person's workplace may experience stress from a variety of different factors, according to research. Quantitative work overload is a stress-causing factor at the office. Numerous researches have proven that workers views of overwork have an adverse effect on measures of job satisfaction and overall well-being (e.g., Caplan et al., 1975; Parkes, 1991).

Overloading at work is the main source of stress (Huang, Lee, Lin, Hsu & Yang, 2017).

Working couples do occasionally experience work overload, which causes stress in their personal lives, but studies show that the issue is more complicated for women. Neal and Hammer (2017) claim that for working couples, factors like career demands for large commitments, long work hours, requirements for higher study, and many others all significantly contribute to work overload. Particularly, when working women care for their children while also working, they are actually carrying out dual responsibilities in comparison to their partner, which causes them to feel more frustrated (Zaheer, Islam & Darakhshan, 2016). In a similar vein, Ross and Vasantha (2014) asserted that female managers experience more stress and family issues than their male counterparts.

Multitasking

One of those terms that can be challenging to define is "multitasking." Multitasking refers to the execution of at least two tasks simultaneously. This applies to a variety of situations, including the performance of two or more tasks at the same time (for example, driving while talking on the phone; this is also known as dual-tasking), as well as the frequent switching between tasks even when only one task is being carried out at a given time (for example, continuously switching between writing emails and returning phone calls; this is also known as task switching) (Szameitat et al., 2015). A participant would have to carry out two tasks concurrently in the traditional cognitive psychology laboratory study of "multitasking." Each task would have a distinct objective that is clearly stated and separate from the others (Pashler, Johnston, & Ruthruff, 2001).

Due to the demands of modern work, it is common for people to start or continue tasks while others are still in progress or are waiting to be finished. This behavior, known as

multitasking behavior, is a coping mechanism for the multitasking demands that are one of the biggest stressors in contemporary workplaces (Peifer & Zipp, 2019). Multitasking involves interrupting one task to complete another, as opposed to completing one task at a time. This breaks the task performance's fluidity (Baethge & Rigotti, 2013; Brixey et al., 2007).

Every task change causes the mind to become distracted from the main task. These switches cost more in terms of mental lag time, extended activity time, decreased quality, and workload. The duration, cognitive demand, and timing of the interruption all affect how long it takes to resume the original task (Altmann & Trafton, 2002).

Generally speaking, multitasking behavior can be viewed as a coping mechanism for (work-related) stressors. Independence between the various tasks (each task can stand alone) and temporal overlap in their execution are characteristics that characterize multitasking behavior (BenbunanFich, Adler, & Mavlanova, 2011). The Brixey Model of Interruption bases performance declines on the assumption that interruptions cause task performance to be discontinuous (Brixey et al., 2007). This theoretical premise states that multitasking should result in decreased performance. In a study where participants had to talk on the phone while operating a vehicle, researchers discovered noticeably higher error rates in the multitasking condition compared to the control condition (Strayer & Johnston, 2001).

Poolton, Wilson, Malhotra, Ngo, and Masters (2011) established that multitasking adversely affected the performance of medical students in mock surgical task. Participants in a Mark and colleagues' (2008) replication of a workplace setting had to write an email while being disturbed to complete other tasks. Though, participants used significantly short emails when they had to multitask, they felt more strained, exasperated, and tired. In this study, writers

16

did not find any effect of induced multitasking on the number of errors in that email. In their high-multitasking situation, Adler and Benbunan-Fich (2012) established that the rate of performance as indicated by output was declined.

Laboratory research findings and the Brixey Model of Interruption, which uses this loss of fluency (or continuity) of task performance as a theoretical explanation for performance declines after interruptions as, for example, during multitasking, support the idea that multitasking has a negative impact on performance. (Brixey et al., 2007).

Emotional Intelligence

In order to successfully respond to environmental demands and pressures, thinking and behavior are guided by a person's ability to generate, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate their own emotions as well as those of others. This skill set is known as emotional intelligence (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

Meanwhile, Salovey and Mayer enhanced and expanded the understanding of EI as a cognitive emotion used to enhance cognitive activities and the capacity to overcome challenges by applying knowledge (Gong et al., 2019).

In an effort to address the question of why some individuals are more adept at preserving psychological wellbeing than others, the concept of emotional intelligence has emerged. Due to its potential as a set of skills that can be taught to improve coping mechanisms and foster wellbeing, emotional intelligence (EI) has attracted attention as a focus of research and intervention (Fabio & Kenny, 2016).

There is a lot of evidence that backs the predictive validity of EI. Moreover, it predicts

a ramification of effects, together with process performance, organizational citizenship behavior, place of job deviance, leadership, life gratification, anxiety, trust, group system effectiveness, and conflict in work-circle and family (Miao et al., 2016).

In comparison to someone who is uninformed of how his actions influence others, someone who is self-aware is better equipped to handle constructive criticism and deal with negative comments. Self-motivation, which enhances learning, self-assurance, hopefulness, ingenuity, flexibility, contentment, and success, is an attribute of emotional intelligence (Arora, 2017).

Separating EI from other intelligence measures that emphasis is generally on cognitive Emotional intelligence and work perspectives, emotional intelligence implies variety in how much individuals can tackle a bunch of emotional troubles. Emotional intelligence, or EI, is a type of general intelligence. EI is different from other measures of intelligence, socioemotional characteristics, and personality components in that it has distinct content and frequently has incremental validity in predicting outcomes (Cote, 2014; Mayer et al., 2008).

Employers who provide their staff with stress management and emotional intelligence training provide them the chance to develop the skills they need to handle the demands of their jobs more skillfully (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

It is not sufficient to simply have a high IQ in a time when interpersonal ties between people and organizations are becoming increasingly complex. Although having high intelligence has many advantages, many managers, supervisors, and other employees, especially those who work in industries where interpersonal relationships are crucial, are acutely aware that their ability to use the priceless personality trait of emotional intelligence

may be the difference between their success at work and failure. Thus, IQ (Intellect Quotient), which has often been the traditional measure of intelligence, overlooks crucial behavioral and character factors that are necessary for success (Arora, 2017).

The acronym EQ stands for emotional intelligence, a relatively novel idea (Emotional Intelligence Quotient). Daniel Goleman's book helped to make the concept more well-known. The capacity to comprehend one's emotions, empathize with others, and communicate those emotions constructively are all examples of having emotional intelligence. It's possible that EQ has just as much, if not more, power than IQ. Instead of being in opposition to one another, they are two separate abilities. Emotional intelligence (EQ) is the capacity to control emotions and apply them to regular tasks. A leader should ideally have a high EQ, according to some. It comprises abilities like being able to restrain impulses, limit impatience, properly regulate mood and prevent irritability, inhibit the capacity for thought, and have empathy and hope. The aptitude to identify, measure, and cope one's own emotions as well as those of others is considered as emotional intelligence. While some academics contend that this skill can be learned and cultivated, other authorities contend that emotional intelligence is a quality that one must be born with. Employees with strong emotional intelligence may be better equipped to work with others and cope with stress at work. Success is greatly impacted by character traits including tenacity, restraint, and interpersonal rapport. Relationships are better managed by leaders with high emotional intelligence, which will ultimately increase organizational efficiency. Representatives who work for an organization that is emotionally aware are effective, motivated, and useful. They are likewise happy, confident, and charming. Colleagues who can team up most successfully produce extraordinary results for the whole association.

It's vital to foster EQ with the goal that one can figure out how to get a grip on their feelings along with those of others. (Arora, 2017).

Low levels of distress and stress-related feelings are experienced by those with higher levels of emotional intelligence since they are more mindful of their feelings and better ready to control them. The subjective well-being of working women may be enhanced by raising emotional intelligence. It is crucial to support women in managing their emotions because this could have a big impact on their total emotional quotient (M.K & Gupta, 2021).

Research on emotional intelligence, affect, and attitudes was conducted in 1997 by Mayer and Salovey. The research's results indicated that, along with certain noteworthy exemptions, individuals are commonly headed to search out positive emotions and avoid negative ones. The capacity to control one's emotions can assist individuals in fostering positive affect, preventing negative affect from taking over, and coping with stress. By helping people in perceiving and deciphering signals that guide self-administrative activity, other emotional capabilities, like emotion insight and understanding, additionally work on the type of one's personal emotional encounters. Emotional intelligence should therefore support positive feelings and attitudes at the office (M.K & Gupta, 2021).

Utilizing emotion and being conscious of one's own emotions can help one manage stress and perform better at work (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). An essential component of the work experience is work impact. According to the Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), employees' attitudes toward their jobs are shaped by a combination of their personality and their accumulated affective experiences in the workplace (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008).

Relationship of study variables

Up til now, we can conclude that Work Overload and Multitasking are two significant challenges individuals face in the workplace. Work Overload can lead to stress, dissatisfaction, and burnout, among other negative impacts, while Multitasking can reduce productivity and quality of work. Both these factors can ultimately lead to conflicts in the workplace. However, emotional intelligence has been identified as a vital factor that can help individuals to manage their emotions and those of others, making it easier to handle conflicts.

Various theoretical and empirical evidence shows the relationship between these factors. Jones and Bodtjer (2001) revealed that cognitive and behavioral emotions significantly impact conflicts. Further, Shafiq and Rana (2016) highlight that employees' high emotional intelligence substantially impacts the workplace. In addition, Vashisht et al. (2018) stated that conflict-handling styles require careful consideration of one's emotional regulation. Al-Hamdan et al. (2018) highlight that emotional intelligence can better resolve conflicts at work.

The literature suggests that Multitasking can be detrimental to productivity and quality of work. However, Multitasking reduced participants' productivity and accuracy, requiring the brain to switch focus constantly, leading to cognitive overload. In addition, work overload and Multitasking can lead to conflicts in the workplace, and emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in managing these conflicts. Organizations can benefit from training employees in emotional intelligence to help them manage their workload effectively and minimize conflicts (Weintraub et al., 2018).

Many researchers have cited EI as a way to lessen the effects of occupational stress.

(Wu, 2011; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; El-Sayed et al., 2014; Cha et al., 2009).

Individuals with higher levels of EI are more capable of understanding and handling stressful situations. Such individuals tend to be more adept at identifying when they feel overwhelmed by stress (Min, 2014). This awareness allows them to look into the factors leading to their stress, thus enabling them to develop strategies to cope and manage their emotional reaction to such stressors. Managers with emotional intelligence can better resolve conflicts at work (Al-Hamdan, Adnan Al-Ta'amneh, Rayan, & Bawadi, 2018).

In addition to social desirability, alexithymia, and the five-factor model of personality, EI had incremental validity in predicting stress (work overload) reactivity (conflict management style) (Mikolajczak, Roy, Luminet, Fillée, & de Timary, 2007). It can help effectively deal with work overload (Thory, 2013).

Moderating role of Emotional Intelligence

Various past studies (Andrei et al., 2014; Lea, 2020; Warrier et al., 2021) investigated emotional intelligence as a moderating variable in a different setting.

This current research supports the work of Lea (2020), who examined the degree to which EI moderates various ER processes under stress as identified from Gross' ER framework (1998a; 1998b). In addition to moderating the stress response directly, these include effects such as coping style) (e.g., psychological and physiological reactivity). By examining how EI moderates a variety of stress regulation processes, the study aimed to test the value of EI as a "stress buffer" in young people.

Lea (2020) 's findings imply that EI, especially TEI, on the other hand, seems to be

22

more malleable and open to environmental influences and training initiatives, making it a target for intervention. EI may directly buffer (i.e., moderate) the stress response, and EI may indirectly lessen the negative effects of stress (i.e., by promoting effective ER during stressful situations, which subsequently reduces the impact of the stress) (Lea, 2020).

When the demands of a situation outweigh an individual's other resources, EI may serve to indirectly moderate positive outcomes by "compensating" for deficits in other abilities (such as cognitive ability) (Andrei, Mancini, Baldaro, Trombini, & Agnoli, 2014). Therefore, Lea (2020) 's findings suggested that TEI may lessen the adverse effects of stress by promoting "healthy" attentional processing.

Research contextualized within a resilience framework. Has started to look at EI as a protective marker that functions in stress regulation pathways to improve young people's quality of life (e.g., Ciarrochi et al., 2002; Davis & Humphrey, 2012a; 2014; Mikolajczak et al., 2006)

The study hypotheses were formulated based on the above literature and the following theoretical underpinnings.

Theoretical Underpinning

Conservation of Resources Theory

Conservation of Resource Theory was initially proposed by Hobfoll (1998). This theory offers a comprehensive framework to understand the influence of the assessment on emotions and performance by focusing on individual and group resources. However, various studies by Chen and Jiang (2022) depicted the knowledge of this theory by investigating the

relationship between employees' energy resources and excessive workload. The findings suggest that net resources loss harms interpersonal interaction and positively impacts team member conflicts over tasks and relationships.

The theoretical foundations of this study are based on this theory for various reasons. First, this theory illuminates the causes of the pressure situation and can measure the individual response. Second, workload and multitasking affect the performance of the employees. However, it can be intercepted by the individual's emotional intelligence and affects the conflict management style, which can be considered as the resource of the individual or group. So, this theory provides the most suitable way to understand the relationship between the selected variables.

Affective Events Theory

Affective Events Theory (AET) is a theoretical framework developed by psychology researchers Howard M. Weiss and Russell Cropanzano in 1996 to explain how workplace events can impact an individual's emotions, job satisfaction, and performance. The theory suggests that events in the workplace can elicit emotional reactions in employees, which can affect their job satisfaction, motivation, and performance. This theory is selected due to various reasons. First, this theory refers to the individual perception that interprets the workplace event and its impact on them. Second, this theory guides the researcher in measuring behavioral and attitudinal outcomes. This refers to the impact of the emotional reaction on the individual's job satisfaction, motivation, and performance.

Overall, AET suggests that events in the workplace can impact employees' emotions and job-related outcomes and that managers can create a positive work environment by

minimizing adverse events and increasing positive events that elicit positive emotions in employees.

Mayer and Salovey

The Mayer and Salovey theory of emotional intelligence, also known as the ability model of emotional intelligence, is a theoretical framework developed by Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer in 1990. The theory suggests that emotional intelligence involves perceiving, understanding, and managing emotions in oneself and others. According to this theory, emotional intelligence consists of four key components or abilities:

Perceiving emotions: This involves recognizing and identifying emotions in oneself and others based on facial expressions, tone of voice, and body language.

Using emotions: This involves the ability to harness emotions to facilitate thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making.

Understanding emotions: This involves the ability to comprehend complex emotions and their causes, as well as the ability to understand how emotions evolve.

Managing emotions: This involves the ability to regulate emotions of one's self, as well as the emotions of others, in adaptive and healthy ways.

Overall, the Mayer and Salovey theory suggests that emotional intelligence is a set of abilities that can be developed and improved over time. People with high emotional intelligence can handle challenging social situations and change with their surroundings.

Pakistan's Perspective

The relationship between workload, multitasking, and conflict management styles in Pakistan can be complex and is often influenced by cultural and social factors. Pakistani organizations have a high workload and multitasking demands, contributing to employee stress and conflict. This can be particularly challenging in collectivist cultures like Pakistan, where maintaining social harmony is highly valued. To manage these demands, employees may use a variety of conflict management styles, including avoidance, competition, collaboration, and compromise. Research suggests collaborative conflict management styles are more effective in promoting positive outcomes and relationship building in Pakistan (Fatima et al., 2021).

An employee's emotional intelligence can influence the effectiveness of different conflict management styles. Individuals with higher emotional intelligence can better manage their workloads and multitasking demands using collaborative conflict management styles. In contrast, people with lower emotional intelligence tend to use more competitive and avoidance-based conflict management styles, which can be less effective in resolving conflicts. The relationship between workload, multitasking, and conflict management styles in Pakistan is influenced by cultural and social factors. An individual's emotional intelligence can moderate the effectiveness of different conflict management styles. Developing emotional intelligence and practical conflict management skills can be essential for promoting a positive work environment and maintaining social harmony in Pakistani organizations (Naru, 2020)

Various studies in the past have been conducted in this area in Pakistan. Zaheer et al. (2016) investigated the relationship between work overload and stress. The study revealed that work overload is the primary cause of employees' stress in their personal lives. Furthermore,

26

Zia and Syed (2013) highlight that the distribution of tasks and workload significantly contributed to workplace conflict among teachers. Similarly, Fatima and Sahibzada (2012) found that work overload leads to stress.

According to Fatima and Sahibzada's (2012) research, women experience negative influences on work-life balance because they are responsible for caring for children and the elders, along with lesser partner support. This leads to stress and work overload in women. According to Batool and Khalid (2012), the number of children had a robust negative correlation with marital adjustment. This inverse relationship may be caused by factors like a high child population, which places a financial burden on parents, limits the amount of time spouses can spend together sharing love and affection, and a crowded living space. These factors may all contribute to issues with child-rearing, marital conflicts, and dissatisfaction with married life. EI, in their study, predicted 56% of the variance in married partners' conflict resolution. Fatima, Nisar, Liaqat, Jahangir, & Ghafoor (2021) found that nowadays, many employees are familiar with workplace stress and conflict. The investigation also found that the degree of education, length of employment, and units or departments of the nurses affected these methodologies.

Moreover, working couples occasionally experience work overload, which causes stress in their personal lives, but studies show that the issue is more complicated for women. Particularly, when working women care for their children while working, they carry out dual responsibilities compared to their partner, which causes them to feel more frustrated (Zaheer, Islam & Darakhshan, 2016).

Rationale

Pakistan has a growing number of working women as a result of the country's economic difficulties. They now have to manage the house in addition to their employment obligations, which adds to their workload. Nowadays, it is more common than ever for households to have two-income earners. The admission of women, particularly mothers, into the professional sphere is what led to this new tendency (Repetti, Matthews, & Waldron, 1989).

Additionally, studies have examined the global entrepreneurial activities of women (Wolters, 2003). The same pattern is visible in developing nations as well. These new patterns are influenced by a number of variables, such as economic pressure, women's higher educational attainment, and the tendency of improving their lifestyle (Malik, 2011).

Conflict management in Pakistani organizations can be complex due to cultural and social factors that influence communication and relationship dynamics within the workplace. However, there has been growing recognition of the importance of effective conflict management in promoting a healthy and productive work environment. Overall, conflict management in Pakistani organizations is evolving to meet the changing needs of a modern workplace. Effective conflict resolution strategies are essential for promoting a healthy and productive work environment.

Despite the growing body of research on emotional intelligence, work overload, multitasking, and conflict management styles, there is limited research on the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles of working women in Pakistan. Little is known about how emotional intelligence can help working women in Pakistan manage

conflict in the workplace. Given the high levels of work overload and multitasking in the region, understanding the relationship between EI and conflict management styles is critical. This study aims to fill this gap by examining the relationship between EI and conflict management styles, in the context of work overload and multitasking, among working women in Pakistan.

This study will help to provide insights into how working women in Pakistan can better manage conflicts in the workplace. By examining the association between work overload, multitasking, and conflict resolution among working women, the current study takes a first step toward examining this social issue in Pakistan.

Looking at qualities that can help women enjoy and cherish this path toward equality is necessary as Pakistan moves to embrace women in all aspects of life. Working women in this nation suffer a variety of particular difficulties in addition to the typical difficulties associated with the workplace, such as work overload, multitasking and arising conflicts.

Observations made within organizations prompted the need for this research to be done. Due to the presumed requirement for early study in the professional environment and the seeming rarity of projects that are similar to the one being addressed, personal experiences of working in the circumstance have led to this conclusion. The seminal studies pertaining to these phenomena are referenced throughout, but the discussion of multitasking has not yet been addressed in relation to work overload and conflict management styles.

Despite technological advancements, the existence of a legal framework, and changes in educational practices, improving the subjective well-

being of working women is significantly hampered by the issues mentioned in the study's intr

oduction. The demands of society and the demands of the family on working women can be difficult to balance. Social pressure may cause working women to experience mental distress and difficulties.

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been identified as a key factor in successful workplace performance and conflict management. EI is the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions, as well as the emotions of others. Women tend to have higher emotional intelligence than men, making it an important factor to study in the context of working women.

There is literature on the relationship between multitasking ability and emotional intelligence, but Pakistan needs more research on its population. The impact of work overload will also be included in this study. Conflict management and job overload have never been examined relative to multitasking and emotional intelligence. This study will demonstrate how women handle problems at work utilizing their various conflict management styles.

Theoretically and empirically still there is a need to clear the moderating role of emotional intelligence between workload, multitasking and conflict management styles in Pakistan as still there are several challenges and problems related to workload, multitasking, conflict management styles, and emotional intelligence in Pakistan. One of the significant challenges in the Pakistani context is a need for more awareness about the importance of emotional intelligence and practical conflict management skills. Many people may need to realize the negative impact of stress, workload and multitasking on their emotional well-being. They may need to gain the skills to manage their emotions effectively. Another challenge is that cultural norms in Pakistan often emphasize social harmony over direct communication and confrontation. This can make it challenging to address conflicts directly and assertively.

Many organizations in Pakistan may need more resources to invest in employee training and development programs, including conflict resolution and emotional intelligence training. This can make it challenging to develop the necessary skills to manage stress, workload, and multitasking effectively. This study will help the organizations in Pakistan by raising awareness about the importance of emotional intelligence and conflict management skills, investing in training and development programs, and promoting open communication and collaboration. Due to this, Pakistani organizations' can create a more positive and productive work environment for their employees.

If working women's emotional intelligence is raised, they might be better able to manage this important quality. Emotionally intelligent working women perform better because it facilitates effective communication and effective people management, which fosters positive relationships in both their professional and personal lives (Gupta, 2021).

The ability of emotionally intelligent leaders and coaches to know their strengths and to seek better qualities to improve their own, according to Naqvi et al. (2016), is one of the fundamental factors influencing their success. Working women can help the general development of their team members, just like men, by identifying their strengths and using them to get around obstacles.

By investigating the role of emotional intelligence in relation to work overload and multitasking with conflict management styles of working women, this study will contribute to the existing literature on emotional intelligence and conflict management, as well as provide insights for organizations to improve the well-being and productivity of working women.

This will greatly assist women in gaining respect and acceptance, which will ultimatel

y improve their own subjective well-being.

Literature Review

Relationship between Work Overload and Conflict Management Styles

The conflict between people is a natural occurrence, according to a study conducted in Pakistan on secondary school teachers. Even though there is not a clear definition of conflict yet, there is broad agreement on the concepts underpinning it. Conflict arises inside an organizational setting when people become somewhat upset by the actions of their superiors or coworkers (Zia & Syed, 2013).

Work overload describes routine tasks so taxing that it takes much effort to complete them. Workload overload occurs when employees need more time to complete their assignments or when demands exceed the capacity of the available resources (Goya & Babel, 2015). According to one perspective, there is work overload when requirements, time constraints, and resources for the work provided to satisfy these requirements are incompatible (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

Workload and conflict management styles have a complicated relationship. The level of work overload can be directly influenced depending on the task at hand or the relationships between peers and supervisors, according to empirical findings, which also suggest that the style used by a person to manage the conflict may directly be shaped by these factors (Rahim, 1983; Friedman et al., 2000; Johansen & Cadmus, 2016). Research suggests that work environments that are positive and supportive and conflict management styles are related to workload (Friedman et al., 2000).

Data analysis revealed that one of the primary sources of conflict in a competitive environment is the distribution of tasks and workload. According to research by Zia & Syed (2013) and Johansen & Cadmus (2016), employees with a heavier workload will work harder to satisfy their employers while producing high-quality work. Conflict may result from their frequent preference to forgo any additional responsibilities. The extensive time commitment required at work, scheduling conflicts, and the dimensions of work overload identified by Pleck et al. (1980) and Kahn et al. (1964) all contribute to the current, ongoing conflict based on time. Additionally, Pierce et al. (1993) discovered that people who use active Conflict Management styles (collaborating and competing) react to role pressures less negatively. The lack of engagement in the workplace is also evident in passive CM styles. Employees with a heavier workload will frequently prefer to avoid additional responsibilities, leading to conflict with their colleagues who are carrying out additional responsibilities. This also frequently occurs with those who have worked at the organization the longest and believe they should receive special treatment by not being required to undertake additional duties.

Effects of Conflict in the Workplace and the Importance of Conflict Management

Different conflict management styles lead to different exposure to workplace conflict, a known stressor, which can increase or decrease the expectations put on an individual. Additionally, we anticipate that various conflict management styles will result in varying degrees of stress. As a result of exposure to conflict—stress is influenced by one's style of managing conflict both directly (as a resource for coping with the demands of conflict) and indirectly (through exposure to multiple stressors). By altering their conflict management style,

34

workers in high-conflict environments may be able to influence that environment (Friedman et al., 2000).

Prior studies focused on creating a universal or standard description that covers the entire phenomena and its processes, including the background circumstances, attitudes, views, and actions (Pondy, 1969). Corwin (1969) asserts that conflict might manifest as interpersonal or societal pressure or as actions (such as arguments and misinformation) inconsistent with the organization's cooperative principles. Many distinct subjective interpretations can be applied to the one-of-a-kind occurrence of conflict because different experts have varied perspectives on it. Some believe it to be a sign of intergroup hostility, while others believe it to be a disagreement between people over different choices or beliefs (Barki & Hartwick, 2001).

Some work on this subject also showed that being overworked can lead to some improvements in performance because, while some stress is good for job execution, it can also lead to dissatisfaction. Overworked employees exhibit poor productivity and performance (Mittal & Bhakar, 2018).

Similar reasoning can be found in Thomas' (1992) assertion that conflict begins when one counterpart notices that the other is distressed or about to become distressed due to the other. From the standpoint of the result, a great deal of attention has been paid to the theoretical underpinnings of conflict and its foundation. Jehn (1997) asserts this may only sometimes be the case because conflicts frequently result from disagreements over managing the work. Other sources of conflict must also be considered, however. Personality conflicts, tension, excessive workload, poor management control, a lack of trustworthiness and sincerity, and role ambiguity are the most frequently cited causes of conflict by employees (Overton & Lowry,

2013).

The level of agreement reached during discussions and other conflict management situations has been linked to conflict management styles (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993). In any case, one does not have to deny the existence of personality factors and tendencies to accept that the situation affects how people approach conflict. The subjects' perceptions of the most appropriate conflict styles varied depending on the type of conflict. However, there was also a sizable degree of consistency in the subjects' conflict management preferences. Whom the conflict was with impacted the conflict style choice (e.g., roommate, sibling, romantic partner). As a result, data supports both situational and dispositional factors that influence conflict management behavior. Long-term visibility should go to the dispositional factors, whereas specific, extreme circumstances should favor the situational factors (Friedman et al., 2000).

However, having a helpful supervisor and flexible scheduling are all negatively correlated with the variables of a work conflict. Although coworkers' support can help with workload management, it has no discernible impact on handling time conflicts, work overload, or mental stress. Because of this, coworkers' support is strongly correlated with managing workload and working hours and strongly correlated with a lousy supervisor's performance during difficult times (Shakil Ahmad et al.).

A moderately positive relationship between avoidant conflict management style and workload was found in a study by Johansen & Cadmus (2016). This finding suggests that employees who had lighter workloads tended to avoid conflict. Collaborating and competing conflict management styles were not directly related to workload, suggesting that people who used these behavioral strategies to manage conflict may have had less work. The study's

findings support the idea that individuals who use the accommodating conflict management style encounter unique challenges when trying to limit workload by considering the interests of others.

According to several studies, actively addressing role pressures can lessen their detrimental effects. Because of their higher levels of adaptability, high-ability individuals handled the conflict better. According to recent research, people actively involved in their work environments react less negatively to workload. They are more likely to express their personal needs and concerns to those who are the source of their role conflict and work demands, therefore managing the conflict (Friedman & Tidd, 2002). As a result, it is more likely that the role senders' expectations will be altered to reduce conflict and stress. Although this behavior may or may not affect the underlying causes of conflict, it offers the chance to manage it effectively or, at the very least, make clear its immediate repercussions (Friedman & Tidd, 2002).

Passive conflict management styles reflect similar levels of disengagement in the workplace. When faced with a higher workload and a conflict, those who engage in passive conflict styles—avoiding and accommodating—do not voice their concerns. As a result, supervisors cannot alter their expectations due to a lack of information and communication, and the workload is unlikely to be addressed. Due to their uncertainty about how to perform well or what their performance results will be, these people's failure to disclose the existence of a problem to others is, therefore, likely to make the underlying issue worse (Friedman & Tidd, 2002).

People who place more emphasis on passive conflict styles experience very different

outcomes. According to earlier studies, people who passively react to their environment, particularly to conflict, are more vulnerable to its adverse impacts. According to Pierce et al. (1993), people who have low self-esteem are more likely to react passively to their environment and are less likely to handle stress actively (Friedman & Tidd, 2002).

Conflict management techniques can significantly affect work life in institutions by affecting how much an employee undergoes ongoing conflict. Individual employees' stress levels influence the amount of conflict in the workplace (Friedman et al., 2000).

On an organizational and individual level, differences in conflict style and the resulting variations in actual conflict may affect how stressful work is. This is crucial because workplace stress has been associated with employee annoyance, depression, disengagement, absenteeism, and many physiological parameters such as energy levels, hypertension, and high cholesterol, all of which have been associated with disease and mortality rates (Friedman et al., 2000).

Conflict manifestation can be seen as minor disputes and arguments between those who perform extra duties and those who do not. The conflicting party prefers to work in the capacity that best suits them rather than agreeing to the assigned duties and responsibilities. Here, the avoiding style of conflict management is used, which is greatly influenced by intermediary interventions (who happen to be other staff members). The conflict can be resolved in one of two ways: The colleague who wants to avoid taking on additional responsibilities is excused by colleagues who have the same number of years of service or are close friends. Following that, additional employees share the workload; alternatively, if they refuse to take on additional responsibilities, fellow employees may coerce them into doing so.

It should be noted that how well colleagues get along with one another significantly

impacts how healthy conflicts like these get handled. The avoidance strategy used by the intermediaries to resolve this conflict has only minimal influence because there needs to be more understanding of managing conflict effectively. Conflict is quelled, and for the time being, attention is directed toward more crucial issues. Conflict still exists and can flare up anytime (Zia & Syed, 2013).

Effect of Work Overload and Multitasking on Performance

In the past ten years, research has concentrated mainly on examining the nature of task switching and interruptions and their numerous effects on behavior and performance. The performance of primary tasks is consistently affected by task interruptions, most notably in terms of a lag in the continuation of the task, which measures the extra time required to resume the primary task after interruption (Trafton et al., 2003). Another robust finding is that the timing of interruptions can impact performance: interruptions that happen when the mental workload is higher are more disruptive and cause longer resumption lags than interruptions that happen when the work overload is lower (Bailey & Iqbal, 2008).

Modern work demands frequently require people to start or continue tasks while others are ongoing or waiting to be finished. As a coping strategy for the multitasking demands that are one of the most significant stressors in modern workplaces, this behavior is known as multitasking behavior (Peifer & Zipp, 2019). Instead of finishing one task at a time, multitasking involves interrupting one task to finish another. This disrupts the smoothness of the task performance (Baethge & Rigotti, 2013; Brixey et al., 2007).

According to the results of a study exploring predictors of the extent of multitasking

behavior at work, the preference to multitask was the most significant predictor. However, work overload was also an effective predictor (König et al., 2010).

Multitasking is a stress-reduction technique for (work-related) stressors. Multitasking behavior is characterized by independence between the various tasks (each task can be completed independently) and temporal overlap in their execution (BenbunanFich, Adler, & Mavlanova, 2011). According to the Brixey Model of Interruption, interruptions lead to interrupted task performance, and the basis for performance declines (Brixey et al., 2007). According to this theoretical premise, multitasking should impair performance. Researchers found noticeably higher error rates in the multitasking condition compared to the control condition in a study where participants had to talk on the phone and drive (Strayer & Johnston, 2001).

Another study suggests that polychronic people may be less negatively affected by interruptions and much mental work than monochronic people. Overworked employees may multitask. However, those who prefer to multitask even when not under pressure might feel the effects of work overload less than those who do not (Hecht & Allen, 2003).

A growing body of research shows that employees are experiencing more stress at work (Taylor et al., 1997). Employee overload is a serious problem that touches almost every corporate sector. Due to the lengthening of working hours, modifications to duty assignments, and pressure from managers to be productive and meet objectives, it has become a crucial area of focus. Work overload can result from a variety of factors, such as long work hours, fewer holidays or breaks, pressure to work beyond the call of duty, excessive workload, and increased expectations for tasks to be finished quickly and with a sufficient amount of resources (Altaf

40

& Atif Awan, 2011).

Multitasking harmed medical students' performance in a mock surgical task, according to research by Poolton, Wilson, Malhotra, Ngo, and Masters in 2011. Participants had to compose an email while being interrupted to finish other tasks in a workplace setting, which was replicated by Mark and colleagues (2008). Even though participants sent emails that were noticeably shorter when they had to multitask, they still experienced increased strain, irritability, and fatigue. Writers in this study did not discover any impact of induced multitasking on the number of errors in that email. Adler and Benbunan-Fich (2012) found that the performance rate, as indicated by output, had decreased in their high-multitasking environment.

Relationship between Multitasking and Conflict Management

Multitaskers delay processing interruptions until their workload is lighter when they receive them at times when their workload is heavier. They might tend to avoid conflict, which may add to their workload. If the conflict cannot be avoided, they are likely to passively accept the demands of the other party in order to reduce conflict and tension. Neglecting conflict may be a successful tactic, but it depends on the circumstances (Salvucci & Bogunovich, 2010).

Mohammed et al. (2008) sought to test that groups with members who are more poly chronically inclined will experience task conflict less frequently. However, the findings revealed that groups whose members were multitasking experienced more task conflict.

Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been linked to job performance, with researchers

contending that it encompasses both the capacity to understand one's feelings and those of others in the workplace (Mayer et al., 2004). Managers start paying attention to the connection between EI and work performance in hiring and training so that staff can adapt to new work environments more quickly and produce better job performance (Gong et al., 2019).

According to study findings, there is a positive correlation between organizational commitment, occupational stress, and emotional intelligence. Stress is a dynamic state brought on by various physical, social, and psychological demands that people perceive as threatening or going beyond their available coping resources. (Chhabra & Chhabra, 2013). Occupational stress is a psychological and physiological reaction to perceived unsafe or threatening working conditions.

Researchers have identified numerous occupational stressors in the past. Workplace relationships (relationships with coworkers, superiors, and subordinates), effective communication, and factors inherent to the job, such as work overload, are all categorized as occupational stressors by Cooper and Marshall (1978).

According to Rothman's (2008) theory, factors like work overload and unreasonable demands can be the root of occupational stressors. Additionally, prior research has linked stress to sociodemographic factors like age, gender, education, employment history, position held, and marital status (Shukla & Srivastava, 2016; Elahi & Apoorva, 2012).

Occupational stressors can affect the individual and the workplace in various ways. Occupational stress can make it harder for someone to control and manage physical and psychological strain, and it can also change how people behave. People's capacity to control their emotions and those of others can improve how well they can handle psychological and

42

physical strains. Failure to effectively manage stress can negatively affect an individual's ability to perform at work (Wu, 2011), job satisfaction (Jick & Payne, 1980), attendance (Jick & Payne, 1980), self-efficacy (El-Sayed et al., 2014), their quality of life (Min, 2014), and even their health so emotional intelligence has been viewed as a stress-reduction factor. (Landa et al., 2008).

Employees with high emotional intelligence (EI) scored higher on the organization's commitment to the employee and the employee to the organization. They scored lower on the components that assessed stressors. The connection between EI and organizational commitment supports the former's significance in organizational settings. This might account for employees with EI feeling more valued at work and less stressed, which elevates feelings of commitment to and loyalty to their employer (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

Those with higher levels of emotional intelligence experience lower levels of distress and stress-related feelings because they are more aware of and better manage their emotions. By improving emotional intelligence, working women's subjective well-being may be improved. Because this could significantly impact women's overall emotional quotient, it is imperative to assist women in managing their emotions (MK & Gupta, 2021).

There may be much potential for stress management once EI has been identified as a moderator in the stress response when the study's results are viewed from a practical standpoint. In Western nations, EI training is well-established and frequently used, primarily as a component of executive development programs. However, its use in a structured stress management program may benefit all employees, not just executives, in maintaining and improving work-life balance (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002).

In order to foster positive affect, prevent negative affect from taking over, and cope with stress, people can benefit from having emotional control. Other emotional abilities, such as emotional insight and understanding, additionally work on the nature of one's private emotional encounters by assisting individuals in detecting and understanding the signals that direct self-administrative activity. Therefore, emotional intelligence should encourage favorable thoughts and behaviors at work (MK & Gupta, 2021).

Utilizing emotion and awareness of one's emotions can improve work performance and stress management (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Work impact is a crucial aspect of the work experience. Employees' attitudes toward their jobs are influenced by a combination of their personalities and cumulative affective experiences at work, according to the Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) (Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008).

Literature indicates that EI may influence how employees feel about their job regarding their psychological effects (Bardzil & Slaski, 2003). However, the connection between these terms of workplace behavior and psychological outcomes may involve personal resources like EI. It has been demonstrated that work overload, or having too many demands and insufficient resources, interacts with emotional and affective intelligence (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001). Additionally, it has been proposed that job demands and job resources influence differences in results for workers in terms of burnout and job involvement.

According to the relationship between emotional intelligence and occupational stress, research proves that raising emotional intelligence at an organizational center can lower employee occupational stress and enhance their performance (Darvish & Nasrollahi, 2011).

From the perspective of the COR theory, emotional intelligence (EI), which is defined

as "the capacity for accurate reasoning about emotions and the capacity for using emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought," can be seen as an individual resource characteristic variable that can reflect individual variations in self-regulatory resources (Koubova & Buchko, 2013). This is because emotional intelligence (EI), first and foremost, is a person's mental capacity to recognize and assess one's own and other people's emotional states as well as to use and express emotions (Wong & Law, 2002), is the essential tool for assisting people in learning how to control their behavior under pressure. In other words, EI is a type of resource for self-regulation (Li et al., 2020).

Second, EI can assist people in gaining more role resources through effective role-playing and more contextual resources through interpersonal interaction. EI can, therefore, accurately reflect individual variations in self-regulatory capacity. In other words, having a high level of emotional intelligence can lessen the effects of stress on a person's ability to regulate their behavior (Li et al., 2020). In particular, Li et al. (2020) suggest that when supervisors have higher levels of EI, the relationship between challenge-hindrance stressors and ego depletion is weaker.

Role of Emotional Intelligence in Conflict Management

The cognitive and behavioral components of emotions influence conflict. (Jones & Bodtker, 2001). Conflict causes emotional activation. Without emotions or behavioral responses to emotions, human conflict does not exist. (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001). More effective behavior results from the capacity to access those emotions in an adaptive way (Henderson, 2006). But one must first recognize and group one's emotions before making a behavioral response, as proposed by Mayer and Salovey (1997).

People with higher EI better perform cognitive tasks, and they are also better able to handle the frustration of a challenging task. (Schutte, Schuettpelz & Malouff, 2000/2001). People with higher levels of EI are better at handling and resolving conflict situations. (Bodtker & Jameson, 2001; Jones & Bodtker, 2001).

People who are stressed out might be unable to process important effective information. (Gohm, 2003) But emotionally intelligent people are adept at various interpersonal skills, including motivating others through their leadership, handling conflict, and working as a team. (Gardner, 1983; Rozell, Pettijohn & Parker, 2002).

High emotional intelligence employees can maintain composure under pressure or when dealing with difficult emotions, cultivate positive working relationships, and control their emotions without losing their cool. Therefore, employees with high emotional intelligence are more dedicated to their employers and work lace (Shafiq & Rana, 2016). Selecting from various conflict-handling styles requires careful consideration of one's emotional regulation (Vashisht, Singh, & Sharma, 2018).

A study on W-F conflict and emotional intelligence revealed that, in contrast to prior research, those with higher EI were less affected by the W-F conflict (Gao, Shi, Niu, and Wang, 2012). Although the connection between workload and emotional intelligence has not been thoroughly studied, we can infer some conclusions from research on EI and occupational stress.

Thinking and behavior are influenced by a person's capacity to produce, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate both their own and other people's emotions to respond successfully to environmental demands and pressures. This set of abilities is called emotional intelligence (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). The idea of emotional intelligence has emerged

46

as a way of explaining why some people are better than others at maintaining psychological well-being. Emotional intelligence (EI) has gained interest as a topic of research and intervention due to its potential as a set of skills that can be taught to enhance coping mechanisms and promote well-being (Fabio & Kenny, 2016).

According to research, improving emotional intelligence within an organization can help employees feel less stressed at work and produce better work. An effective stress management strategy may be found in identifying EI as a moderator in the stress process. Stressor scores were lower for employees with high EI. The fact that EI employees feel more appreciated at work and are less distressed, which raises feelings of commitment to and loyalty toward their employer (Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002), may attribute to it. Self-awareness is better equipped to handle constructive criticism and deal with negative comments than someone unaware of how his actions affect others. An aspect of emotional intelligence is self-motivation, which promotes learning, confidence, optimism, inventiveness, adaptability, contentment, and success (Arora, 2017).

According to studies, managers or workers who exhibit high emotional intelligence will better repress newly developed conflicts, team and organizational weaknesses, communication ambiguity, and anonymity in interpersonal communication. According to Goleman (1998), employees with high levels of emotional intelligence are also better at negotiating and solving problems. People with high emotional intelligence could comprehend conflict effectively, recognize it more quickly, and direct it with empathy and confidence, leading to a workplace where employees' mental health is better. People who feel appreciated, acknowledged, fully endorsed, and relied upon in this environment are likelier to have healthy

47

relationships. This promotes their productivity, growth, and mental well-being. In such a setting, functional conflict manifests in real life.

Putting EI apart from other intelligence tests where the focus is typically on cognitive, Emotional intelligence, and career perspectives. Emotional intelligence refers to a person's versatility in how they can approach a variety of emotional issues. A subset of general intelligence is emotional intelligence or EI. EI differs from other tests of intelligence, socioemotional traits, and personality traits in that it has a unique focus and frequently demonstrates incremental validity in outcome prediction (Cote, 2014; Mayer et al., 2008). Srinivasan (2005) discovered a beneficial relationship between management experience and emotional intelligence in his field study. Susan (2006) found that participants tended to use collaborating rather than compromising when confronted with a conflict with their boss. Furthermore, it has been claimed that emotional intelligence can accurately predict collaborating style and that collaborating and compromising conflict management styles positively correlate with emotional intelligence.

Yu et al. (2006) studied the relationship between subordinates' conflict management style and managers' emotional intelligence, and their compromising and collaborating styles were found to be positively correlated. According to Fahim's (2007) research, emotional intelligence is negatively correlated with the competing style and positively correlated with the accommodating style, but it is unrelated to collaborating style. In their study, Vatankhah (2008) found no link between managers' emotional intelligence and compromising or competing styles, but that emotional intelligence is negatively correlated with collaborating style in conflict management. According to research by Keramati and Roshan (2005) on emotional

intelligence and conflict management styles, emotional intelligence is positively correlated with collaborating style. This finding shows that, in contrast to control and bargaining styles, the potential to use the accommodating style increases along with a rise in emotional intelligence (Pooya, Barfoei, Kargozar, & Maleki, 2013).

The results of a study examining the link between emotional intelligence and the conflict resolution techniques used by subordinates revealed that emotional intelligence had a detrimental impact on these techniques. However, there is no clear connection between competing strategy and emotional intelligence (Pooya et al., 2013). The findings of this study, which are consistent with Rahim et al. (2008), Vatankhah (2008), and Feizi et al. (2011), show that emotional intelligence and collaborating style are negatively correlated, meaning that supervisors with greater emotional intelligence are less likely to utilize the accommodating style. High emotional quotient people have positive social interactions, empathy, and tolerance for criticism and advice. These traits make it difficult for managers to collaborate to resolve conflicts. In particular, the results supported the notion that emotional intelligence and collaborating style of conflict management are negatively correlated, in contrast to the findings of Rahim et al. (2008) and Feizi et al. (2011). Furthermore, contrary to the findings of the research by Rahim et al. (2008), the results of this study indicate no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and competing style, even though they are consistent with those of Vatankhah (2008), who found that supervisors who choose a competing style for handling conflicts do so because they have a strong self-interest behave against the wishes of the other party even if doing so might result in opposition. In this manner, supervisors pressure staff members and force their preferences upon them (Goleman, 1998).

According to a study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles, emotional intelligence was found to have an impact on conflict management styles. Employees must foster emotional intelligence in order to use effective conflict management styles. The avoiding style was most used in this study. This finding could indicate that the employees tried to avoid conflict by attempting to move away from it physically or psychologically. Training programs on conflict management and emotional intelligence are required to improve effective conflict management.

On the other hand, the nurses employed the collaborating strategy, which is thought to be the most successful strategy, at a mild level while employing the avoiding, competing, and accommodating strategies at a moderate level. This implies that they lacked the skills necessary for effective conflict management and that their professional strategy for handling conflicts was ineffective. The collaborating strategy, regarded as the most successful tactic for the conflicting parties and for amicably resolving conflicts, positively correlated with emotional intelligence, though not as strong as expected. It was through a predictable outcome that as emotional intelligence increased, the strategy of avoiding conflict, which has been deemed unsuitable for good outcomes and good conflict management, was used less frequently (Başoul & Ozgür, 2016).

A higher emotional intelligence paired with a collaborating style had a favorable link in research by Morrison (2008), whereas higher emotional intelligence with the avoiding style had a negative relationship. According to one study (Jordan & Troth, 2002), a higher emotional intelligence collaborating conflict management style relate positively. According to another study, high emotional intelligence is also associated with employing the collaborating and

50

compromising styles in conflict situations (Yu et al., 2006).

In Başoul & Ozgür's (2016) study, a weak but significant relationship is present between the emotional intelligence scores and the individuals' collaborating, accommodating, competing, and compromising conflict management styles. The avoiding style, on the other hand, had a weak, negative, significant correlation with emotional intelligence scores. The emotional intelligence levels must be raised, given how conflict management styles es are influenced by emotional intelligence.

Problem-solving, interpersonal communication, and stress management require high emotional intelligence and are crucial for effective conflict management. Training programs to improve conflict management and emotional intelligence are required to manage conflicts that institutions cannot avoid (Başoul & Ozgür, 2016).

The use of the collaborating style of handling conflict with supervisors by subordinates is positively correlated with the emotional intelligence of managers, according to a study by Ain, Ahmed, Akhtar, Rahman, and Imran (2017), which investigated the connection between supervisors' emotional intelligence and the conflict-handling philosophies reported by their employees. Subordinates' collaborating styles of handling Additionally, Arbuto and Ye (2006) found that Another of the five emotional intelligence domains, intrinsic process motivation, was positively correlated with collaborating. Empathy was one of the emotional intelligence skills that could incorrectly predict the dominant style. As with empathy, the negative relationship demonstrates that employees' use of competing conflict resolution styles declines as supervisors' social skills improve. Schutte et al.'s (2001) finding that individuals with higher emotional intelligence also had higher social skills lends credence to this conclusion. There

would be no need for subordinates to be domineering if they could effectively interact and communicate with others, feeling accepted and at ease when agreeing with their superiors. The emotional intelligence of the supervisors significantly predicted conflicts with the supervisors. According to this, the more emotionally intelligent a supervisor was, the more frequently they used collaborating styles. Weider-Hatfield and Hatfield's (1995) research findings that higher collaborating style subordinates experience fewer intra - personal, intra-group, and inter-group conflicts than lower collaborating style subordinates also support this.

The emotional intelligence of supervisors did not significantly correlate with the subordinates' competing and accommodating conflict management styles. Appropriate when the other party has more power and not when both parties have equal power; both accommodating and competing styles have advantages and disadvantages in the workplace (McShane & Glinow, 2021). As a result, subordinates may adopt these styles when they feel compelled to speak up or obey their superiors. However, in the meantime, they know that they must agree or disagree over a specific issue to reach a successful conclusion.

How subordinates handle conflict with their superiors will negatively affect their emotional intelligence. People with relatively high values and cultures, such as workers in Saudi Arabia and China (Morris et al., 1998), frequently use the avoiding style (Elsayed & Buda, 1996). Most Malaysian employees still choose not to voice their opinions and thoughts, even though doing so is now encouraged to make wise and effective decisions. Therefore, there isn't any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and avoiding style.

Using a compromising style of handling conflict with superiors by subordinates will be positively correlated with the internal intelligence of the superior. A significant positive

relationship and a compromising style of handling conflicts were both predicted by emotional intelligence. In his theoretical analysis of the compromising style, Kabanoff (1989) discovered that less competitive people tended to view it favorably because they saw it as a sign of strength. These results are comparable to those of Yu, Sardessai, Zhao, and Lu (2006), who found that emotional intelligence best predicts collaborating and compromising conflict management styles. However, Yu et al. (2006) also found that supervisors' emotional intelligence can positively predict subordinates' competing styles.

Valente & Lourenço (2020) and Aliasgari & Farzadnia (2012) found EI and collaborating strategy to have a favorable and statistically significant relationship. When an employee uses this tactic, the main goal is to develop satisfactory solutions for themselves and the supervisor. As a result, when there is a disagreement, the employee suggests alternatives, utilizes clear lines of communication, makes statements about qualifications, candidates, or the supervisor, accepts responsibility, emphasizes similarities, and downplays existing differences. As a result, the collaborating strategy and problem-solving are related. This approach, which is best for handling complex issues, involves being open and exchanging information. The results also support a positive and statistically significant relationship between the employee's EI and compromising strategy. This conclusion is supported by earlier research conducted in other professional settings (Shih & Susanto, 2010; Heris & Heris, 2011). Using this conflict management technique, the employee aims to come to decisions that are agreeable to both the supervisor and themselves while maintaining some concern for their interests. This suggests making a compromise in pursuing a reasonable middle ground that would satisfy all parties involved in the conflict (Jaca & Díaz, 2005). As a result, the findings showed that employees

with higher EI employ more collaborating and compromising conflict management strategies. Both approaches have the potential to produce more creative and beneficial outcomes, more responsible solutions, increased learning, and improved satisfaction with the decisions made by those involved in a conflict.

Studies in other work contexts have also suggested that employees with higher levels of EI use fewer accommodating, competing, and avoiding strategies for conflict management, according to the results of this study (Godse & Thingujam, 2010). The results also support a statistically significant negative relationship between the avoidance strategy and emotional intelligence. This implies that employees with higher EI use this conflict management technique less. This tactic allows for escaping a perceived unpleasant situation in some circumstances. At the same time, in other cases, it might be a strategy for delaying the resolution of a dispute until a later time. By employing this tactic, the employee hopes to keep any disagreements with the supervisor to a minimum. As a result, its strategies include denial of the conflict, abandoning it physically and psychologically, theme change, and making vague statements.

The social changes put the workers in difficult situations for which they were not trained (Extremera, Rey, & Pena, 2016), so those with low EI are expected to use more accommodating, competing, and avoiding strategies. Additionally, those with higher levels of EI use fewer conflict management techniques because they possess the emotional intelligence to handle conflicts constructively by employing more collaborating and compromising techniques. This ratio may be since Compared to workers with lower emotional intelligence, those with higher levels of emotional intelligence can recognize their emotions better and

manage them appropriately, which allows them to adopt a reflexive attitude towards the conflict they are faced with. According to some authors, people with high EI are more capable of handling their emotions, more flexible, creative, and self-assured, and have better problem-solving and conflict-resolution abilities (Maamari & Majdalani, 2019).

A study by Masa'deh, Tarhini, Aqqad, and Obeidat (2019) positively correlated EI and conflict management styles. In order to manage a conflict effectively, parties involved must have the knowledge and aptitude to make wise judgment calls. In order to conceptualize a conflict and make the decisions necessary to manage it effectively, emotions are therefore crucial (Hopkins & Yonker, 2015). Some theories contend that those with higher emotional intelligence (EI) are likelier to employ cooperative conflict resolution methods. In contrast, people with lower levels of EI are more likely to use competing and avoiding techniques. This might be because conflict situations call for reasonable compromises resulting from the capacity to recognize and control emotions. Higher levels of EI may therefore encourage cooperative behavior in which emotions are generated and managed to produce solutions that meet the needs of the parties involved (Schlaerth, Ansari, & Christian, 2013). The inability to control one's emotions may obstruct the information processing necessary for constructively managing conflict (Baron, 1991). EI is also thought to be crucial for resolving conflicts because it enhances a person's capacity for fruitful interactions and positive relationships with others (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004), for developing group goals with others (George, 2000), and for recognizing the emotional climate in organizations (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Barry (1999) also emphasized the significance of emotions in conflict management, saying that even high levels of effectiveness, originality, and productivity would be detrimental to conflict resolution

if emotions weren't controlled. This conclusion backs up the study's findings, which showed that emotional regulation had the greatest ability to predict CMS. This could be explained by the emotional character of human beings and the fact that is negotiating calls on the capacity to accurately gauge emotions and use them to your advantage (Lee, 2009).

Regulating and controlling emotions is thus a key component of conflict management because Relying on the emotions, sentiments, and states of mind of the parties involved plays a significant role in determining the kind of conflict resolution approach that should be used to arrive at an agreement or solution that is acceptable to all. Therefore, experts have concluded that those with higher emotional levels are more self-assured, upbeat, creative, flexible, and happier than those with lower emotional levels. Even in highly stressful situations, these people are better able to choose problem-solving approaches that are flexible and innovative, which lowers the likelihood of conflicts at work (Bankovskaya, 2012). Basogul and Ozgur (2016) found that EI impacted CM tactics; therefore, training in emotional intelligence and conflict resolution isis necessary to promote successful conflict management. A whole other finding by Aneja and Gupta (2005) is that effective cognition is promoted as one learns and self-trains to control one's emotions. This condition raises self-awareness and switching control, increasing the likelihood of effective cognition. An emotionally balanced EQ can be attained as one grows in that learned capability. A well-balanced level of emotional competence in each dimension is the key to having a high emotional intelligence quotient. This is accomplished through good self-control as well (Goleman, 1998). These studies gave rise to the idea of examining the relationship between multitasking abilities, taking into account attention, working memory, and emotional intelligence.

This study has demonstrated a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Multitasking in the context of nurses after simultaneously evaluating the interaction effects of the components of Emotional Intelligence to Multitasking (Gutierrez, Ang, Miguel, & Umali, 2016).

Researchers have discovered several stress and burnout triggers that differ from person to person and job. Role ambiguity, role overload, self-role distance, role isolation, personal inadequacy, and resource inadequacy are some of the other factors that can cause distance between roles were some of the organizational role stress factors that researchers identified (Griffith, Steptoe, & Cropley, 1999).

Research Methodology

Research Design

A cross-sectional design is used to study the relationship between work overload and multitasking with conflict Management and the effect of Emotional Intelligence on both these relationships.

Research Objectives

Following will be the objectives of the current study:

To investigate the relationship between work overload, multitasking, and conflict management.

To explore the role of Emotional Intelligence as a moderator between work overload and conflict management styles; and between multitasking and conflict management styles.

To explore the differences in demographic variables (i.e., age, marital status, experience, and designation) on the variables.

Research Hypotheses

Following will be the hypotheses of the current study:

H1: There is a negative relationship between work overload and collaborating, competing conflict management styles.

H2: There is a positive relationship between work overload and avoiding and accommodating conflict management styles.

H3: A positive relationship exists between multitasking and avoiding and accommodating conflict management styles.

H4: Emotional Intelligence will moderate the impact of multitasking on conflict management styles.

H5: Emotional Intelligence will moderate the impact of work overload on conflict management styles.

Research Instruments

The scales used for this research are:

Reilly's Role Overload Scale

To assess role overload, Reilly created a 13-item scale in 1982. It has an alpha reliability of .88. Although most studies did not evaluate the scale's uni-dimensionality, it has been widely used. The current study reports a confirmatory factor analysis of the 13-item scale in two samples because of the significance of uni-dimensionality in scale development. A 6-item unidimensional scale is advised based on the findings. Scores on this scale correlate with role overload-related external criterion variables as expected.

ROCI-II questionnaire form A

The five conflict management styles Rahim identified—collaborating, avoiding, competing, accommodating, and compromising—are measured by the Rahim Organizational

Conflict Inventory-II (ROCI-II). It has an alpha reliability of .81. It consists of 28 statements on a five-point Likert scale that measure five distinct aspects of how people handle interpersonal conflict: seven statements for collaborating (IN), six for accommodating (OB), five for competing (DO), six for avoiding (AV), and four for compromising (CO). The subscales have sufficient validity and reliability. They use a conflict style more frequently, resulting in a higher score.

Multitasking Preference Inventory

The 14-item MPI was created by Poposki and Oswald (2010). It has an alpha reliability of .91. Prior to calculating the scale score, seven of the 14 items are reverse coded. All the items are scored on a five-point Likert scale. Higher scores indicate more multitasking preference.

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

To provide a concise assessment of emotional intelligence (EI) appropriate for workplace research, the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLIES; Wong & Law, 2002) was created. A pool of 36 initial items was created, 9 of which corresponded to each of the four EI dimensions. These items were given an exploratory factor analysis, and only the four items from each of the first four factors with the most considerable factor loadings were chosen to represent the four EI dimensions to enhance the scale's psychometric properties. A distinct four-factor structure was discovered with just these 16 items used in the second-factor analysis. The four factors (each with four items) had internal consistency reliability ranging from—83 to.90.

Conceptual Framework
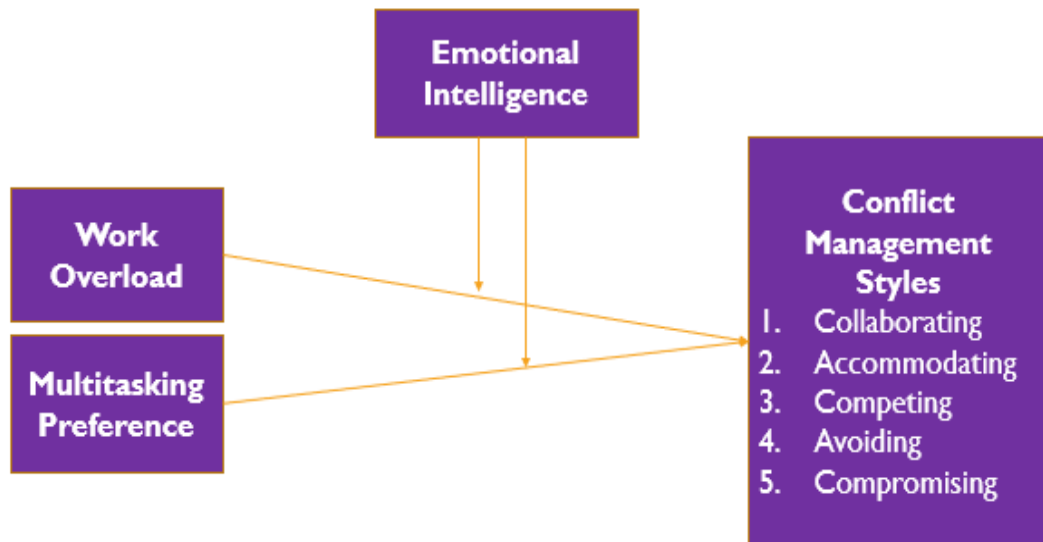
Figure 1. The figure shows the relationship between Work Overload and Multitasking with Conflict Management Styles, along with the role of Emotional Intelligence in those relationships.

Operational Definitions

Emotional Intelligence

In order to appropriately respond to external demands and pressures, a person's ability to produce, recognize, express, analyze, and assess their own emotions, as well as those of others, guides their thinking and conduct. This set of abilities is called emotional intelligence.

(Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004).

Emotional Intelligence is operationally defined as the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale score. A high score on the scale depicts high emotional intelligence, and low scores will depict low emotional intelligence of the individual.

Work Overload

Work overload refers to demanding routine tasks that require much effort. Workload overload occurs when employees do not have enough time to finish the tasks they have been given or when demands outweigh the resources available (Goya & Babel, 2015)

Work Overload is operationally defined as scores on Reilly's Role Overload Scale. A high score on the scale depicts a high workload, and low scores depict a lesser workload.

Multitasking

Multitasking refers to the execution of at least two tasks simultaneously. This applies to a variety of situations, including the performance of two or more tasks at the same time (driving while talking on the phone), as well as the frequent switching between tasks even when only one task is being carried out at a given time (continuously switching between writing emails and returning phone calls) (Szameitat et al., 2015).

Multitasking is operationally defined as scores on the Multitasking Preference Inventory. A high score on the scale depicts more multitasking, and a lower score depicts lesser multitasking the individual.

Conflict Management Style

The term "conflict management style" refers to a person's approach to limiting the worst parts of conflict while enhancing its good aspects. It entails a decrease in, a cessation of, or an end to all kinds and sorts of conflict (Masood & Javed, 2016). Five conflict management approaches exist (collaborating, avoiding, competing, accommodating, and compromising). Operationally, these are the results of The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory-(ROCI-II) II's subscales. High scores on a subscale show that a specific conflict management style is being used.

Sample and Data Collection

The study focuses on working women, so the sample included only currently employed females. The age range varied from 20 years to 60 years. The sample included women who have been working for at least one year. All were considered as this study was investigating married and unmarried women with no children or children.

The sample included women who have encountered conflicts at work, and their preferred conflict resolution styles will be investigated.

The questionnaire was self-administered, and a cover letter was included to encourage respondents to express their opinions concerning the factors being examined thoughtfully. Through the convenient sampling method, the research's target population primarily consisted of working women from Pakistan's private and public sectors.

The research includes 225 responses. The study excluded the questionnaires that needed to provide more data for analysis, such as incomplete questionnaires and biased responses.

Data Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 has been used to analyze the collected data statistically. The frequencies and descriptive analysis were used to summarize the demographic information, check the scales' reliabilities, and see the data's distribution. T-tests and Way Analysis of Variance was run to check the relationships of the demographic variables with the study variables. Correlation, Regression, and Moderation Analysis were conducted to test the hypotheses.

Research Ethics

In order to comply with the ethics of research, the participants were informed regarding the purpose of the research and its use. They were not asked for their identities, and no participant information was shared with any individual, group, or organization. The participants were informed about their freedom to participate in and leave the questionnaire if and whenever they wanted to.

Results

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics

Variable	*f (%)*	Mean (SD)
Gender		
Female	225 (100.0)	
Age		38.98
21 to 25 Years	8 (3.6)	
26 to 30 Years	37 (16.4)	
31 to 35 Years	36 (16.0)	
36 to 40 Years	44 (19.6)	
41 to 45 Years	50 (22.2)	
46 to 50 Years	35 (15.6)	
51 to 55 Years	11 (4.9)	
56 to 60 Years	4 (1.8)	
Experience		9.07

1 to 3 Years	34 (15.1)	
4 to 6 Years	47 (20.9)	
7 to 9 Years	69 (30.7)	
10 to 12	33 (14.7)	
13 to 15 Years	15 (6.7)	
16 to 18 Years	5 (2.2)	
19 to 21 Years	9 (4.0)	
22 to 24 Years	3 (1.3)	
25 to 27 Years	10 (4.4)	

Variable	*f (%)*	Mean (SD)
Number of Children		1.33
0 Children	79 (35.1)	
1 Child	53 (23.6)	
2 Children	44 (19.6)	
3 Children	38 (16.9)	
4 Children	10 (4.4)	

5 Children	1 (.4)	
Family System		
Nuclear	114 (50.7)	
Joint	111 (49.3)	
Marital Status		
Married	180 (80.0)	
Unmarried	45 (20.0)	
Working Hours per day		7.29
1 to 4 Hours	2 (.9)	
5 to 8 Hours	193 (85.8)	
9 to 12 Hours	30 (13.3)	

f = Frequency, %= percentage

Table 1 shows the summarized demographics of the participants of the study. There were 225 females ranging from 21 to 60 years of age. Respondents have experience working from 1 year to 30 years, ranging from 1 hour to 12 hours. The table also shows the frequency and percentage of marital status, family system, and the number of children the participants had.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Reliability Coefficient of the Study Variables (N=225)

Variables	No. of Items	α	M	D	Range Actual	Range Potential	Skewness	Kurtosis
Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory	28	.621	98.22	9.55	84-125	28-140	.72	-.024
Collaborating Style	7	.831	27.72	4.99	18-35	7-35	-.395	-.852
Accommodating Style	6	.848	21.13	4.95	11-29	6-30	-.467	-.803
Competing Style	5	.840	13.31	5.26	5-24	5-25	.202	-.636
Compromising Style	4	.653	13.52	3.03	9-20	4-20	.344	-.670
Avoiding Style	6	.804	22.52	5.06	13-30	6-30	-.262	-1.082
Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale	16	.908	85.04	14.42	52-112	16-112	-.447	-.002
The multitasking Preference Inventory	14	.926	45.30	5.93	37-61	14-70	1.12	.487
Reilly's Role Overload Scale	6	.897	29.27	8.73	12-42	6-42	-.60	-.784

Table 2 illustrates the descriptive statistics, alpha coefficient, range, kurtosis, and skewness of the scales and subscales of the study. The reliability analysis indicates that the scales and subscales used are reliable. The reliability of the compromising style, which is a subscale of the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, is .653. This might be because of the lesser number of items as the alpha coefficient decreases if the number of items is decreased (George & Mallery, 2003; Iacobucci & Duhacheck, 2003). The value of the mean shows the average score a participant can achieve, and the standard deviation refers to how much the data differed from the mean. The skewness and kurtosis values lie between -2 and 2, indicating a normal distribution of the data.

Table 3

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables (N=225)

No.	Scales	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
I.	Multitasking Preference	-							
II.	Emotional Intelligence	.146*	-						
III.	Work Overload	.304**	-.035	-					
IV.	Collaborating Style	.008	.389**	-.455**	-				
V.	Accommodating Style	.210**	.061	.384**	.068	-			
VI.	Competing Style	.095	.088	-.241**	.098	-.513**	-		
VII.	Avoiding Style	.110	-.365**	.511**	-.591**	.249**	-.046	-	
VIII.	Compromising Style	.221**	.507**	-.207**	.687**	.006	.213**	-.340**	-

$**p<.01, *p<.05$

Table 3 displays the correlation among all the scales and subscales of the study variables.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Collaborating Style from Multitasking Preference, Work Overload and Emotional Intelligence (N = 225)

			Collaborating Style			
					95% CI	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	21.29	2.48		.000	16.39	26.19
Multitasking Preference	.08	.05	.10	.08	-.01	.17
Work Overload	-.27	.03	-.47	.000	-.33	-.20
Emotional Intelligence	.12	.02	.36	.000	.08	.16

Note. Adj.R^2 = .35; F = 40.51

Table 4 illustrates multiple regression analyses predicting collaborating style from multitasking preference, work overload and emotional intelligence. In the model, it shows that work overload and emotional intelligence predicts collaborating style causing an overall 35% of the variance in the regression model. While multitasking preferences does not predict collaborating style.

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Accommodating Style from Multitasking Preference, Work Overload and Emotional Intelligence (N = 225)

			Accommodating Style			
					95% CI	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	9.93	2.81		.001	4.39	15.48
Multitasking Preference	.07	.05	.09	.15	-.03	.18
Work Overload	.20	.03	.36	.000	.13	.27
Emotional Intelligence	.02	.02	.06	.34	-.02	.06

Note. Adj.R^{2} = .15; F = 14.08

Table 5 illustrates multiple regression analyses predicting accommodating style from multitasking preference, work overload and emotional intelligence. In the model, it shows that work overload predicts accommodating style causing an overall 15% of the variance in the regression model. While multitasking preferences and emotional intelligence does not predict accommodating style.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Competing Style from Multitasking Preference, Work Overload and Emotional Intelligence (N = 225)

			Competing Style			
					95% CI	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	9.76	3.10		.002	3.63	15.88
Multitasking Preference	.16	.06	.17	.01	.04	.27
Work Overload	-.17	.04	-.29	.000	-.26	-.09
Emotional Intelligence	.01	.02	.05	.42	-.03	.06

Note. Adj.$R^2 =$ .08; F = 7.49

Table 6 illustrates multiple regression analyses predicting competing style from multitasking preferences, work overload and emotional intelligence. In the model, it shows that multitasking preference and work overload predicts competing style causing an overall 8% of the variance in the regression model. While emotional intelligence does not predict competing style.

Table 7

Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Compromising Style from Multitasking Preference, Work Overload and Emotional Intelligence (N = 225)

			Compromising Style			
					95% CI	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	2.48	1.52		.01	-.52	-5.49
Multitasking Preference	.11	.03	.23	.000	.06	.17
Work Overload	-.09	.02	-.26	.000	-.13	-.05
Emotional Intelligence	.09	.01	.46	.000	.07	.12

Note. Adj.R^2 = .33; F = 38.13

Table 7 illustrates multiple regression analyses predicting compromising style from multitasking preferences, work overload and emotional intelligence. In the model, it shows that multitasking preference, work overload and emotional intelligence predicts compromising style causing an overall 33% of the variance in the regression model.

Table 8

Multiple Regression Analysis predicting Avoiding Style from Multitasking Preference, Work Overload and Emotional Intelligence (N = 225)

			Avoiding Style			
					95% CI	
Predictors	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*p*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	24.15	2.46		.000	19.29	29.02
Multitasking Preference	.01	.04	.01	.85	-.08	.10
Work Overload	.28	.03	.49	.000	.22	.35
Emotional Intelligence	-.12	.01	-.35	.000	-.16	-.08

Note. Adj.R^{2} = .37; F = 45.47

Table 8 illustrates multiple regression analyses predicting avoiding style from multitasking preferences, work overload and emotional intelligence. In the model, it shows that work overload and emotional intelligence predicts avoiding style causing an overall 37% of the variance in the regression model. While multitasking preference does not predict avoiding style.

Table 9

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Multitasking Preference in Predicting Collaborating Style (N = 225)

		Collaborating Style		
		95% *CI*		
Predictors	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	27.65***	87.45	27.03	28.27
MP	-.08	-1.35	-.19	.03
EI	.13***	8.25	.10	.16
MP × EI	.006	1.72	-.008	.01
R²	.16			
F	24.74***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***$p < .001$.

Table 9 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking preference in predicting collaborating style. It shows the non- significant interaction of (β = .006; $p > .05$) multitasking preference with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence does not moderate in the relationship between multitasking preference and

collaborating style. Model shows 16% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
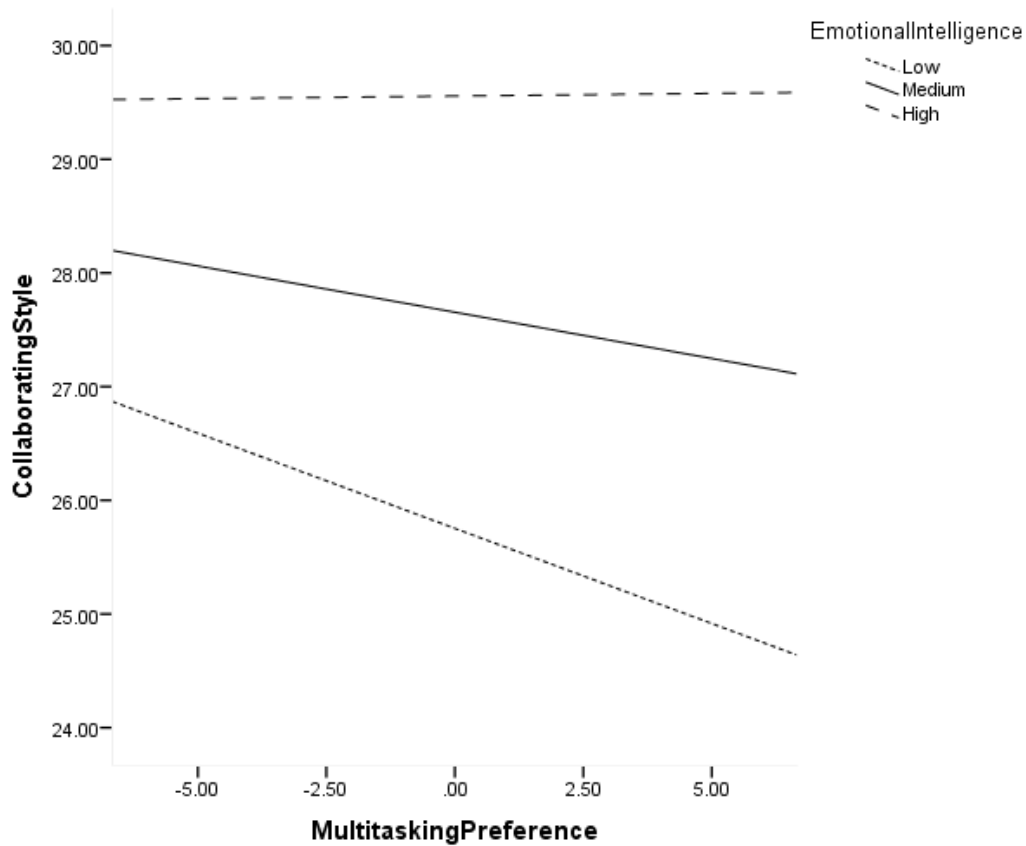
Figure 2. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking in predicting collaborating style.

Graph shows non- significant interaction of multitasking preference and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. Graph shows a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have collaborating styles. However, this association is

more pronounced among those who have high emotional intelligence as compared to those who have low and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, in moderation analysis the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more collaborating styles.

Table 10

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Multitasking Preference in Predicting Accommodating Style (N = 225)

		Accommodating Style		
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	21.14***	64.96	20.50	21.79
MP	.17	3.64	.08	.06
EI	.01***	.45	-.03	.27
MP × EI	-.001	-.34	-.006	.004
R^2	.04			
F	11.39***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence. MP=Multitasking Preference

***$p < .001$.

Table 10 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking preference in predicting accommodating style. It shows the non- significant interaction of ($β =$ -.001; $p > .05$) multitasking preference with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence does not moderate in the relationship between multitasking preference and accommodating style. Moderator shows 4% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
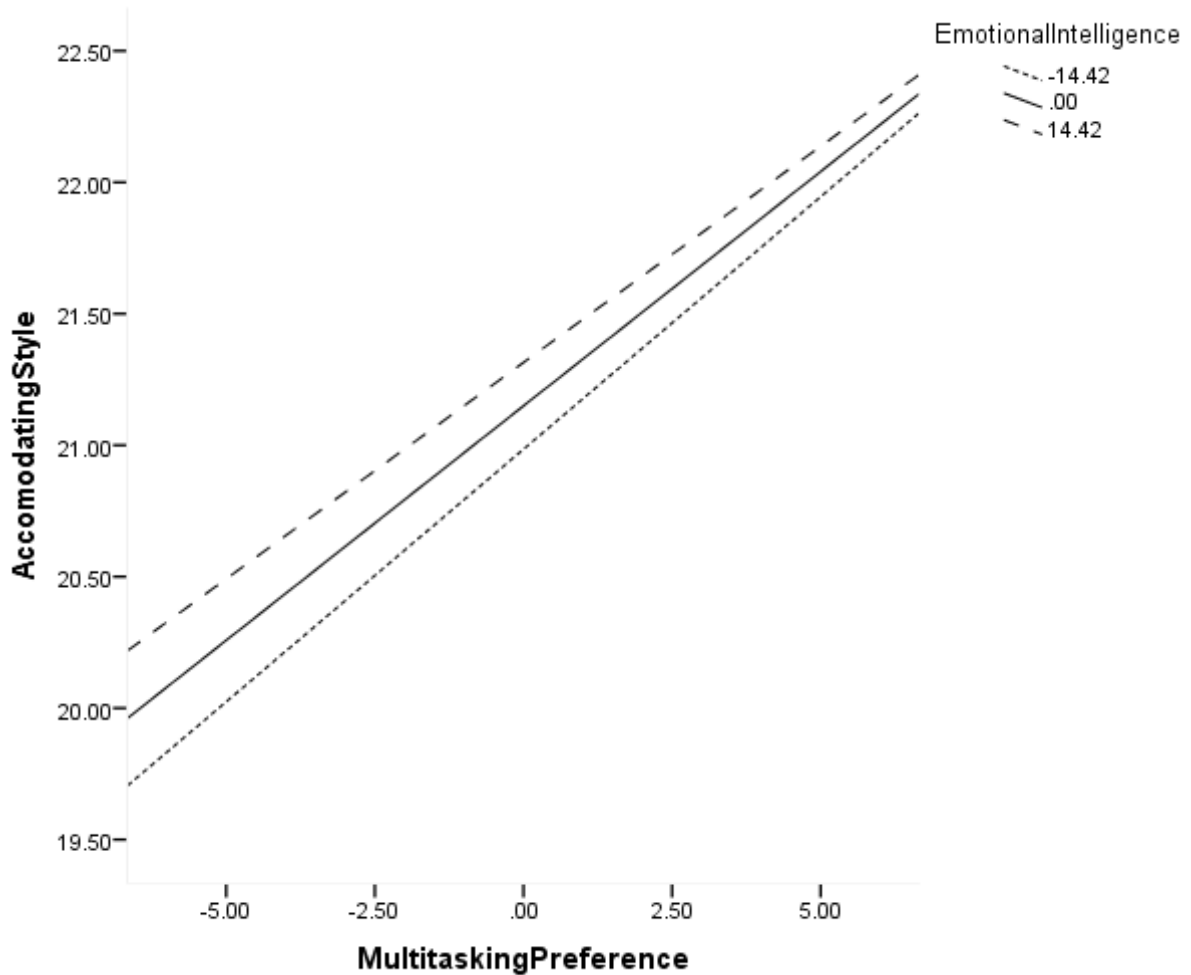
Figure 3. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking in predicting accommodating style.

Graph shows non- significant interaction of multitasking preference and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. There is a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have accommodating styles. However, this association is more pronounced among those who have high emotional intelligence as

80

compared to those who have low and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more accommodating styles.

Table 11

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Multitasking Preference in Predicting Competing style (N = 225)

	Competing Style			
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	13.17***	37.69	12.48	13.85
MP	-.001	-.00	-.16	.16
EI	.02	.56	-.04	.07
MP × EI	.01*	2.30	.00	.02
R²	.05			
F	12.74***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence. MP=Multitasking Preference

***p<.001.

Table 11 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking preference in predicting competing style. It shows the significant interaction of (β = .01; $p <$ .05) multitasking preference with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between multitasking preference and competing style. Moderator shows 5% of variance in outcome through interaction term.

Figure 4. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking in predicting competing style.

Graph shows significant interaction of multitasking preference and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. A slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence is shown, which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have competing styles. However, this association is more pronounced among those who have high emotional intelligence as compared to those who have

83

low and medium emotional intelligence. The interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more competing styles.

Table 12

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Multitasking Preference in Predicting Compromising style (N = 225)

	Compromising Style			
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	β	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	13.49***	75.21	13.14	13.85
MP	.06	1.82	-.05	.13
EI	.10***	10.52	.08	.11
MP × EI	.001	.84	-.02	.06
R^2	.28			
F	46.40***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence. MP=Multitasking Preference

***$p < .001$.

Table 12 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking preference in predicting compromising style. It shows the non-significant interaction of (β = .001; $p < .001$) multitasking preference with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence does not moderate in the relationship between multitasking preference and compromising style. Model shows 28% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
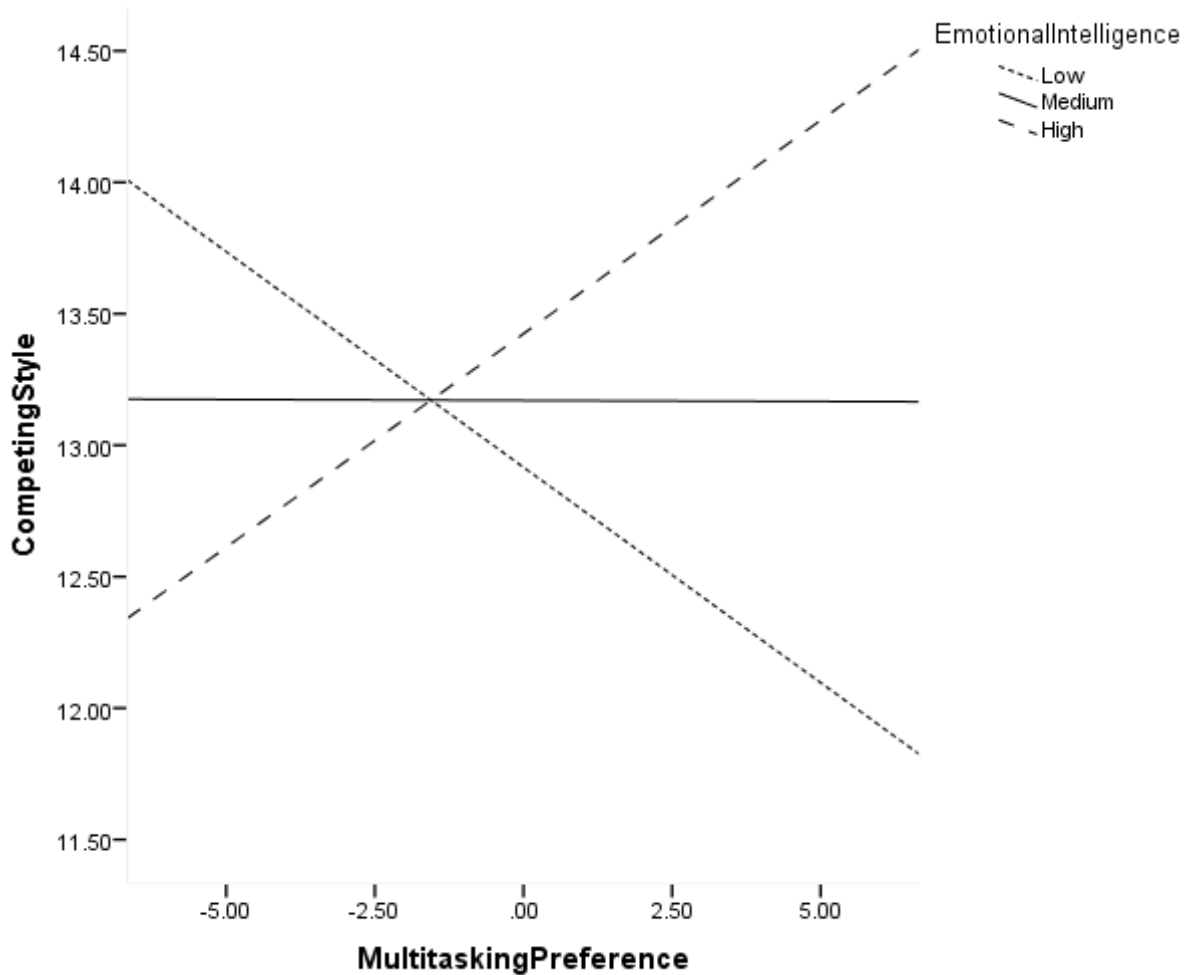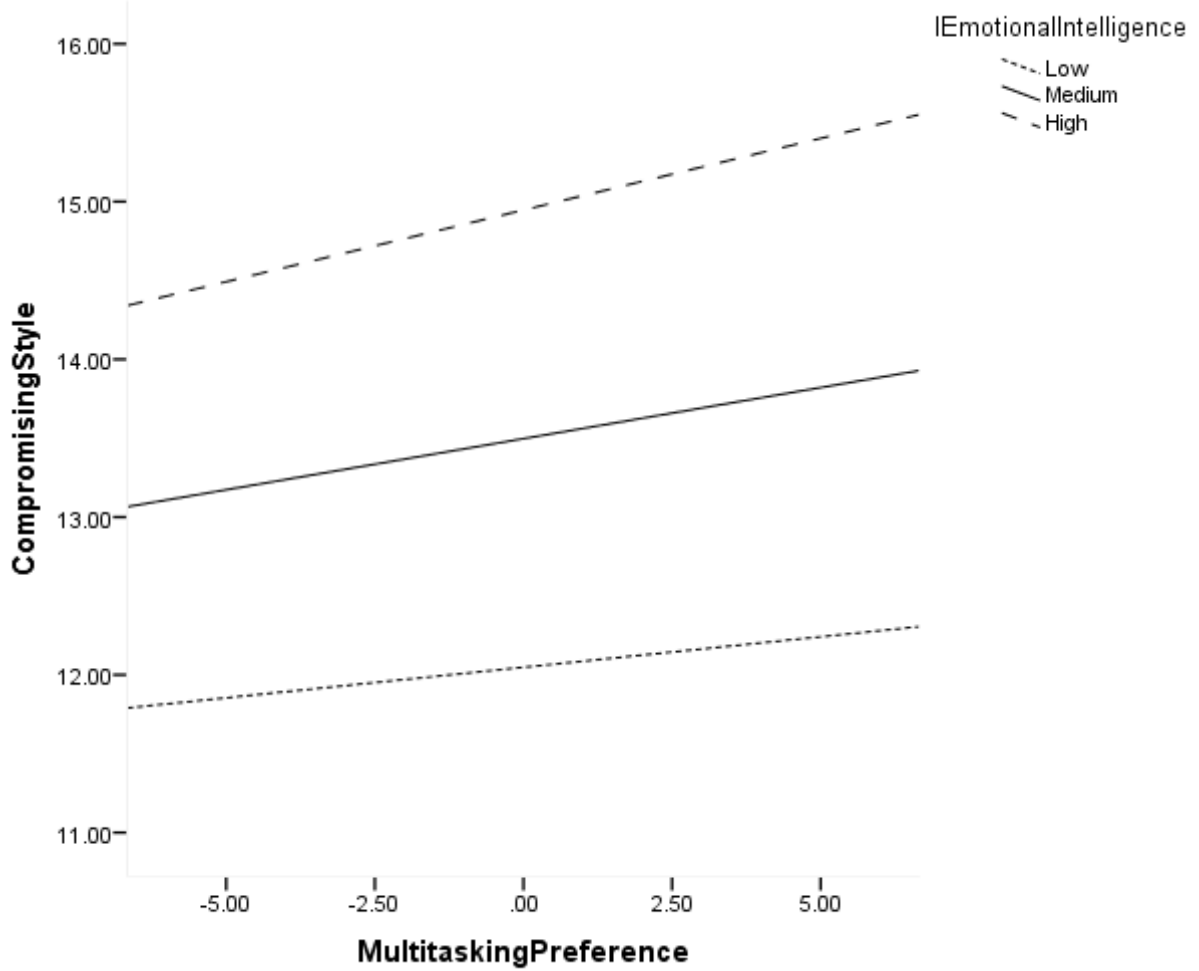
Figure 5. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking in predicting compromising style.

Graph shows non- significant interaction of multitasking preference and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence.

It shows a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have compromising styles. However, this association is more pronounced among those who have high emotional intelligence as compared to those who have low and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more compromising styles.

Table 13

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Multitasking Preference in Predicting Avoiding style (N = 225)

Predictors	β	t	LL	UL
			Avoiding Style	
			95% *CI*	
Constant	22.44***	70.34	21.80	23.06
MP	.09	1.84	-.00	.19
EI	-.14***	-7.39	-.18	-.10
MP × EI	.007**	2.62	.00	.01
R^2	.18			
F	18.26***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence. MP=Multitasking Preference

***p<.001.

Table 13 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking preference in predicting avoiding style. It shows the significant interaction of (β = .007; p < .001) multitasking preference with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between multitasking preference and avoiding style. Moderator shows 18% of variance in outcome through interaction term.

Figure 6. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for multitasking in predicting avoiding style.

Graph shows significant interaction of multitasking preference and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. It shows a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have avoiding styles, particularly those who have low emotional intelligence as compared to those who have high and medium emotional

intelligence. In moderation analysis the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have low emotional intelligence tend to show more avoiding styles.

Table 14

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Work Overload in Predicting Collaborating Style (N = 225)

	Collaborating Style			
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	27.76***	104.60	27.23	28.28
Work Overload	-.25***	-9.41	-.30	-.19
EI	.10***	5.88	.06	.13
Work overload × EI	.007***	3.69	.00	.01
R²	.37			
F	50.94***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***p<.001

Table 14 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload preference in predicting collaborating style. It shows the significant interaction of ($β = .007; p < .001$) work overload with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between work overload and collaborating style. Moderator shows 37% of variance in outcome through interaction term.

Figure 7. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload in predicting collaborating style.

Graph shows significant interaction of work overload and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. Graph shows a

negative slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have collaborating styles. However, this association is less pronounced among those who have low emotional intelligence as compared to those who have high and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have low emotional intelligence tend to show fewer collaborating styles.

Table 15

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Work Overload in Predicting Accommodating Style (N = 225)

Predictors	β	t	95% CI	
			LL	UL
Constant	21.09***	71.37	20.51	21.67
Work Overload	.21***	7.52	.16	.27
EI	.06**	3.01	.02	.10
Work overload × EI	-.009***	-4.29	-.01	-.00
R^2	.20			
F	49.00***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; LL = Lower Limit; UL = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***p<.001

Table 15 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload preference in predicting accommodating style. It shows the significant interaction of (β = -.009; $p < .001$) work overload with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between work overload and accommodating style. Moderator shows 20% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
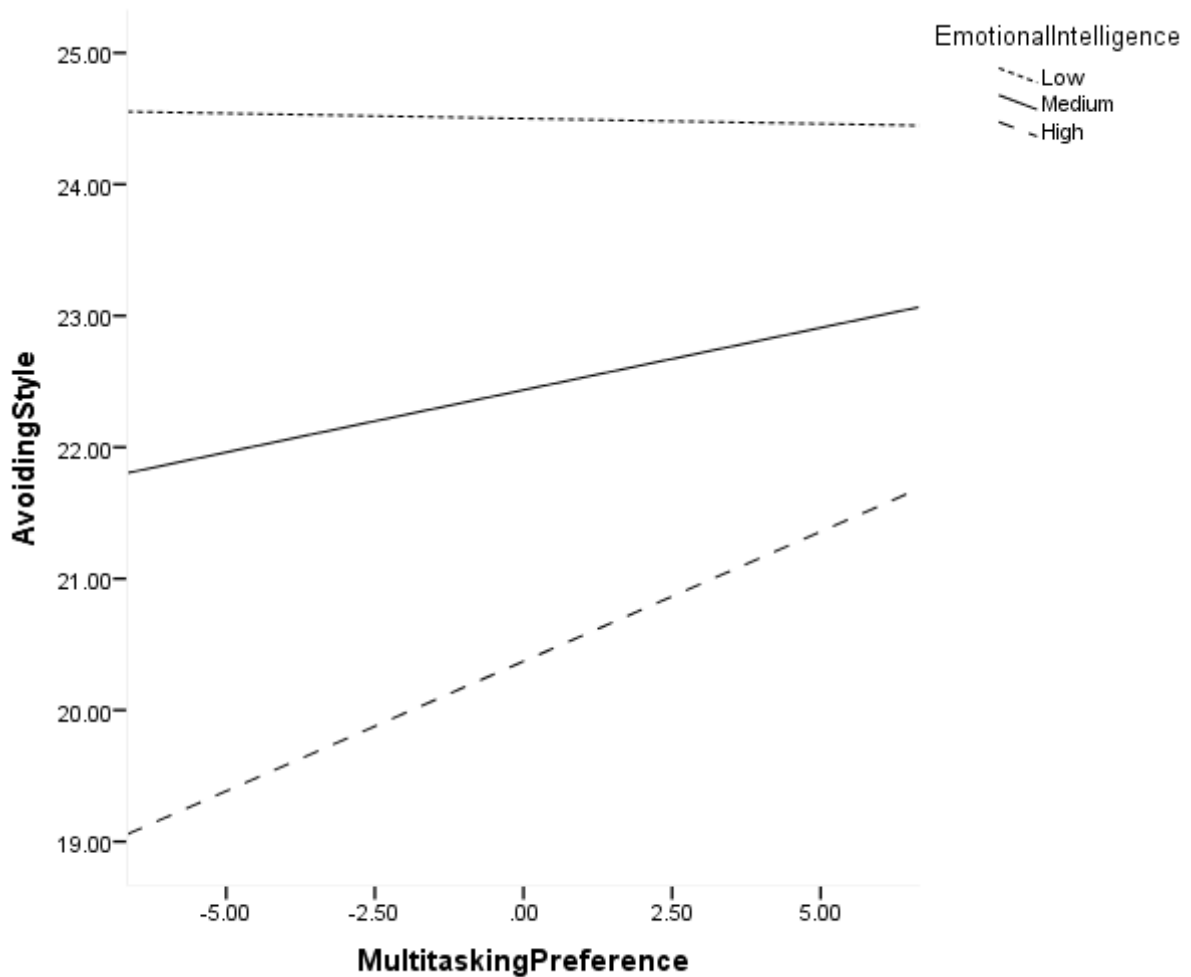
Figure 8. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload in predicting accommodating style.

Graph shows significant interaction of work overload and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. Graph shows a

positive slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have accommodating styles. However, this association is more pronounced among those who have low emotional intelligence as compared to those who have high and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have low emotional intelligence tend to show more accommodating styles.

Table 16

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Work Overload in Predicting Competing Style

(N = 225)

	Competing Style			
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	13.42***	47.29	12.86	13.98
Work Overload	-.14***	-4.68	-.20	-.08
EI	-.06**	-3.60	-.10	-.03
Work overload × EI	.02***	13.39	-.02	.02
R²	.36			
F	63.64***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***p<.001

     Table 16 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload preference in predicting competing style. It shows the significant interaction of ($β$ = .02; $p <$ .01) work overload with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between work overload and competing style. Moderator shows 36% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
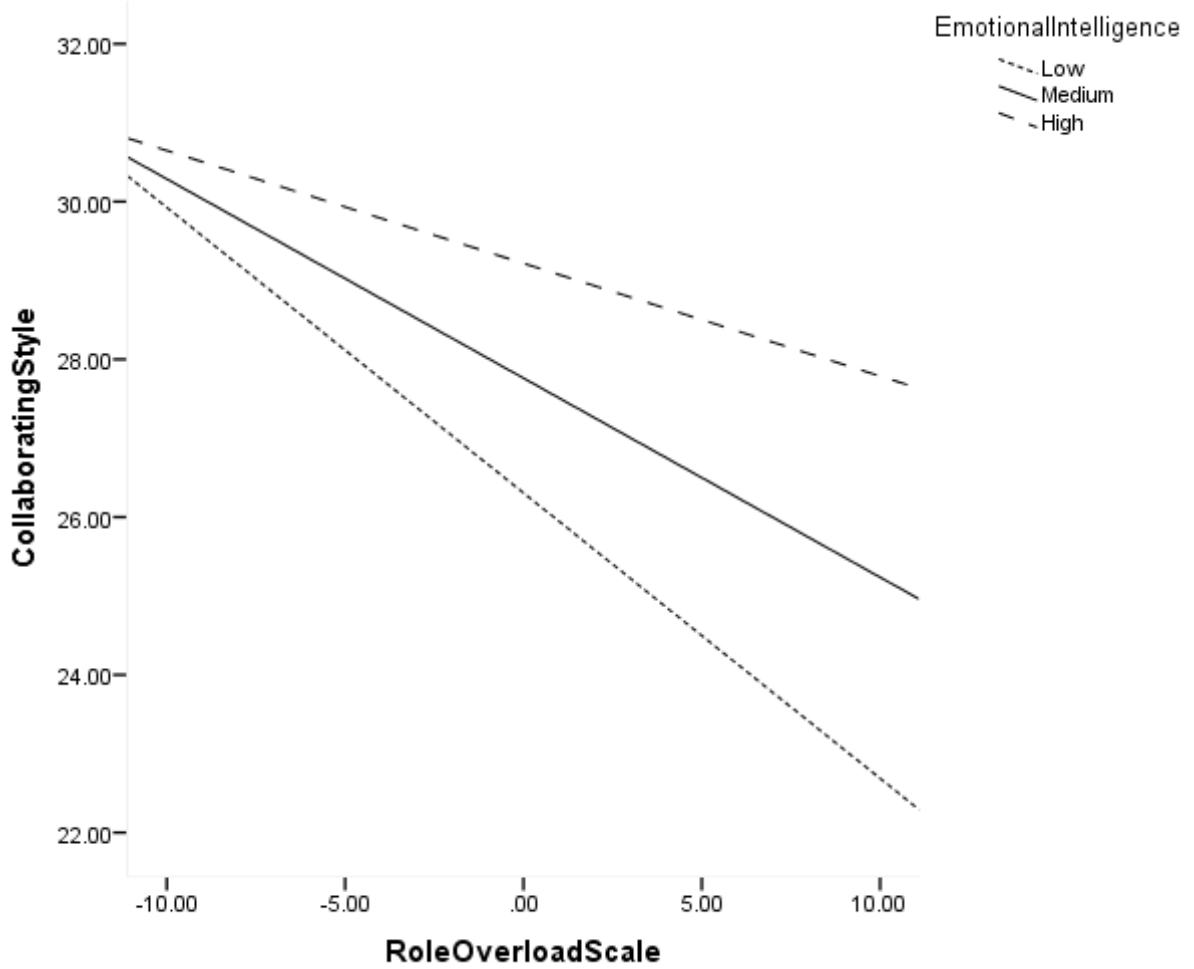
Figure 9. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload in predicting competing style.

Graph shows significant interaction of work overload and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. Graph shows a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have competing styles. However, this association is more pronounced

among those who have high emotional intelligence as compared to those who have low and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, in moderation analysis the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more competing styles.

Table 17

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Work Overload in Predicting Compromising Style (N = 225)

Predictors	β	t	LL	UL
	Compromising Style			
			95% *CI*	
Constant	13.54***	80.41	13.20	13.87
Work Overload	-.06***	-3.86	-.09	-.03
EI	.09***	7.85	.06	.10
Work overload × EI	.004***	3.76	.002	.007
R²	.32			
F	63.87***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***p<.001

　　　　Table 17 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload preference in predicting compromising style. It shows the significant interaction of (*β* = .004; *p* < .001) work overload with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between work overload and compromising style. Moderator shows 32% of variance in outcome through interaction term.
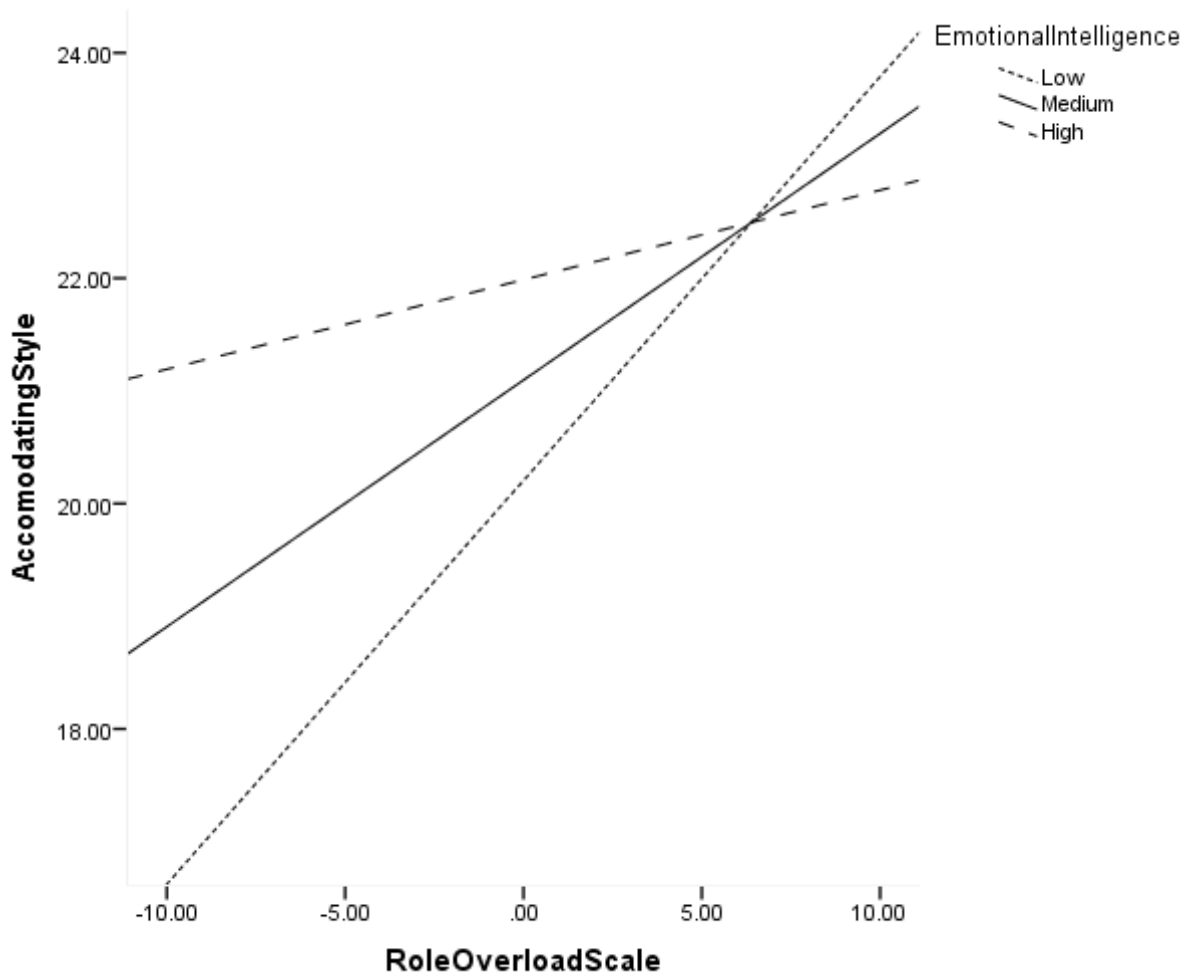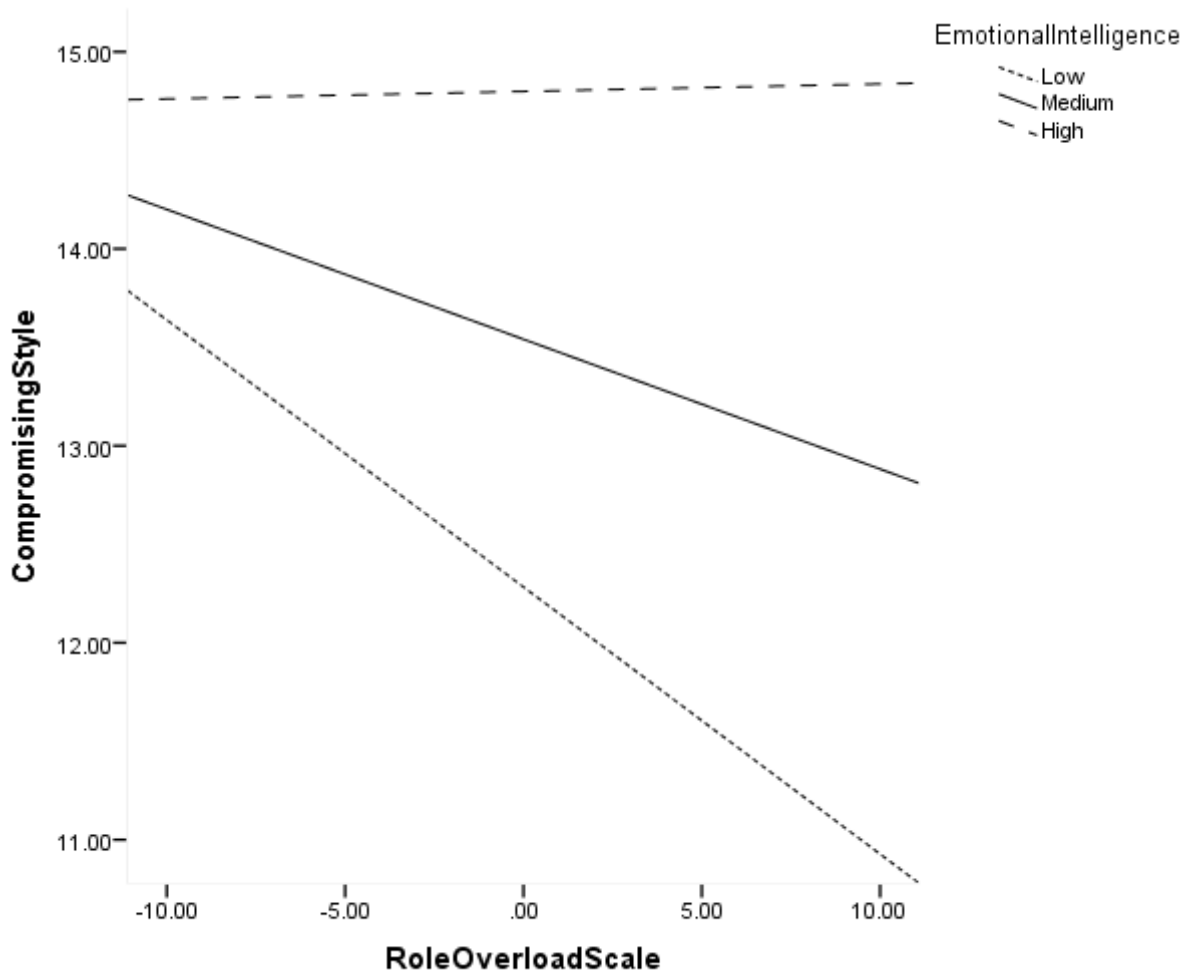
Figure 10. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload in predicting compromising style.

Graph shows significant interaction of work overload and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. Graph shows a

slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing emotional intelligence have compromising styles. However, this association is more pronounced among those who have high emotional intelligence as compared to those who have low and medium emotional intelligence. Therefore, in moderation analysis the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have high emotional intelligence tend to show more compromising styles.

Table 18

Moderating Effect of Emotional Intelligence for Work Overload in Predicting Avoiding Style
(N = 225)

			Avoiding Style	
			95% *CI*	
Predictors	*β*	*t*	*LL*	*UL*
Constant	22.53***	83.45	22.00	23.07
Work Overload	.28***	8.63	.22	.35
EI	-.13***	-7.16	-.17	-.09
Work overload × EI	.003*	1.28	-.001	-.008
R²	.39			
F	83.39***			

Note. CI = Confidence Interval; *LL* = Lower Limit; *UL* = Upper Limit; EI = Emotional Intelligence.

***p<.001

   Table 18 illustrates the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload preference in predicting avoiding style. It shows the significant interaction of ($β$ = .003; $p <$ .05) work overload with emotional intelligence. Thus, emotional intelligence significantly moderate in the relationship between work overload and avoiding style. Model shows 39% of variance in outcome through interaction term
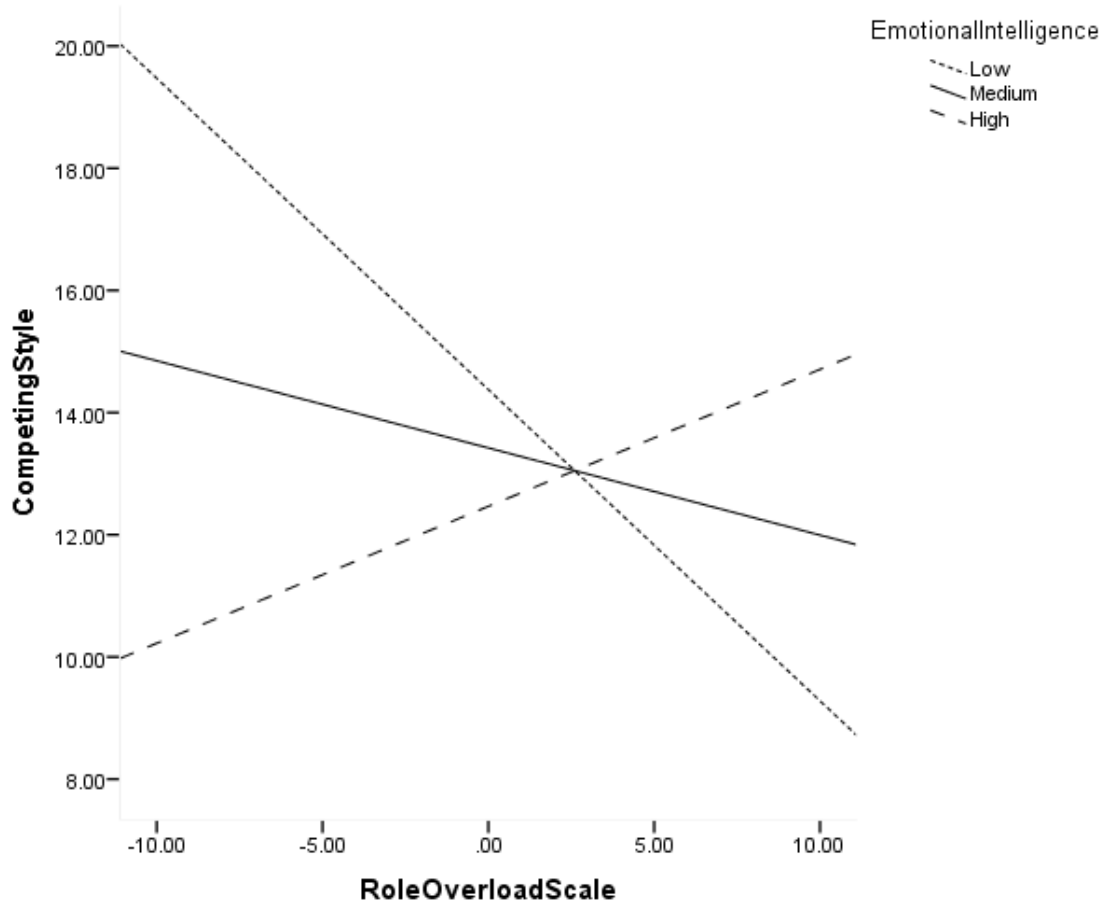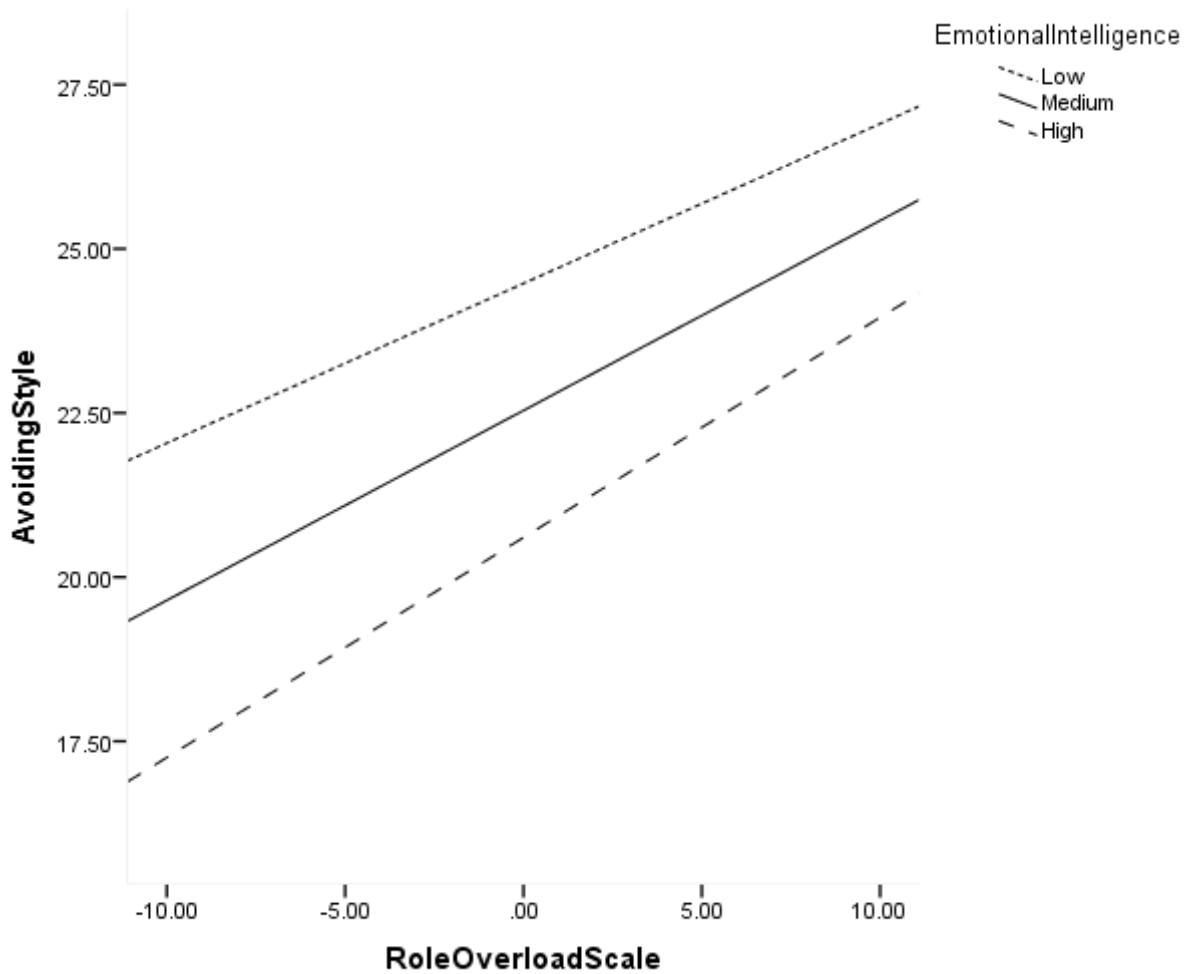
Figure 11. Graph showing the moderating effect of emotional intelligence for work overload in predicting avoiding style.

Graph shows non-significant interaction of work overload and emotional intelligence. The three lines show the low, medium and high levels of emotional intelligence. It shows a slope for all three levels of emotional intelligence which means that individuals experiencing

emotional intelligence have avoiding styles. This association is more pronounced among those with low emotional intelligence as compared to those with high and medium emotional intelligence. In moderation analysis the interaction term suggests that for the same values of low emotional intelligence, those who have low emotional intelligence tend to show more avoiding styles.

Table 19

Correlation Matrix of Study Variables with Demographic Variables (N=225)

No.	Scales	Age	Experience	Working Hours	Children	Marital Status	Family System
I.	Multitasking Preference	-.301**	-.247**	-.083	-.159*	.138*	.085
II.	Total Emotional Intelligence	.086	.241**	-.036	-.007	-.012	-.156*
III.	Role Overload Scale	.055	.108	-.157*	.103	-.037	.143*
IV.	Collaborating Style	-.249**	-.022	.069	-.104	.141	-.114
V.	Accommodating Style	-.023	.088	-.072	-.051	.053	.048
VI.	Competing Style	-.004	-.115	.032	-.134*	-.025	.151*
VII.	Avoiding Style	.107	-.042	-.089	.013	.045	.248**
VIII.	Compromising Style	-.125	.069	.070	-.005	.076	-.052

**p<.01

*p<.05

Table 19 shows the correlation between the scales, subscales, and the demographics of the study. It shows that Multitasking is significantly negatively related to age, experience, and number of children and significantly positively related to marital status. Emotional Intelligence is significantly positively related to experience and significantly negatively related to the family system. Work Overload is significantly negatively related to working hours and significantly positively related to the family system. Regarding the Conflict Management Styles, the table shows that the Collaborating style is significantly negatively related to age, Competing Style is significantly negatively related to the number of children and significantly positively related to the family system. Avoiding Style is significantly positively related to the family system. The rest of the relationships are not significant.

Table 20

Mean, standard deviations and t-values for married and unmarried females (N=225)

Variables	Married n=180		Unmarried n=45				95% C1		Cohen's d
	M	*S.D*	*M*	*S.D*	*t*	*P*	*LL*	*UL*	
Multitasking Preference	44.89	5.83	46.93	6.14	-2.075	.03	-3.97	-.10	0.34
Total Emotional Intelligence	85.13	14.10	84.68	15.7	.185	.85	-4.30	5.19	0.03
Role Overload Scale	29.43	8.54	28.62	9.54	.560	.57	-2.05	3.69	0.08
Conflict Management Styles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Collaborating Style	27.37	5.02	29.13	4.67	-2.124	.03	-3.38	-.12	0.36
Accommodating Style	21.00	4.95	21.66	4.98	-.799	.42	-2.29	.96	0.13
Competing Style	13.37	5.40	13.04	4.71	.379	.70	-1.39	2.06	0.06
Avoiding Style	22.41	5.16	22.97	4.67	-.670	.50	-2.23	1.09	0.11
Compromising Style	13.40	3.03	13.97	3.02	-1.131	.25	-1.56	.42	0.18

Table 20 shows the t test results for the scales and subscales of the study and marital status. The table shows significant results for only Multitasking Preference and the Collaborating Style of Conflict Management.

Table 21

Mean, standard deviations and t-values for Joint and Nuclear family system (N=225)

Variables	Nuclear n=114		Joint n=111				95% C1		Cohen's d
	M	S.D	M	S.D	t	p	LL	UL	
Multitasking Preference	44.80	5.15	45.81	6.63	-1.26	.20	-2.56	.55	0.17
Total Emotional Intelligence	87.26	12.79	82.76	15.65	2.36	.01	.74	8.24	0.31
Role Overload Scale	28.04	8.60	30.54	8.72	-2.16	.03	-4.77	-.21	0.28
Conflict Management Styles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Collaborating Style	28.28	5.38	27.15	4.51	1.71	.08	-.17	2.44	0.22
Accommodating	20.90	5.07	21.37	4.85	-.71	.47	-1.77	.82	0.09
Competing Style	12.52	4.59	14.11	5.78	-2.28	.02	-2.96	-.22	0.30
Avoiding Style	21.28	5.29	23.79	4.49	-3.81	.00	-3.79	-1.21	0.51
Compromising Style	13.67	3.04	13.36	3.03	.77	.43	-.48	1.11	0.10

Note: CI=Confidence Interval, UL=Upper Limit, LL= Lower limit

Table 20 shows the t test results for the scales and subscales of the study and marital status. The table shows significant results for Emotional Intelligence, Work Overload, and Collaborating, Competing and Avoiding Style of Conflict Management.

Table 22

One-way analysis of variance is done to explore the difference among age groups on the variables *((N= 225)*

Variables	21 to 25 (n=8)		26 to 30 (n=37)		31 to 35 (n=36)		36 to 40 (n=44)		F	p	ηp^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Multitasking Preference	45.25	3.65	47.21	6.20	51.83	7.35	43.43	5.24	14.03	.000	.31
Total Emotional Intelligence	87.62	11.26	80.21	10.52	80.69	22.76	91.93	11.35	4.97	.000	.14
Role Overload Scale	25.62	7.04	23.78	10.67	36.33	3.89	32.68	6.62	11.69	.000	.27
Conflict Management Scale	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Collaborating Style	31.12	3.09	30.81	3.35	26.89	4.96	28.31	4.29	6.40	.000	.17
Accommodating Style	22.50	3.70	19.75	5.37	23.41	3.59	22.09	3.94	6.21	.000	.17
Competing Style	14.25	6.31	15.13	2.81	11.80	5.27	10.79	3.37	7.17	.000	.19
Avoiding Style	23.50	2.26	19.67	4.25	25.63	3.89	20.88	5.60	7.90	.000	.20
Compromising Style	12.37	1.99	15.45	1.81	13.86	3.93	12.65	1.97	6.56	.000	.17

Variables	41 to 45 (n=50)		46 to 50 (n=35)		51 to 55 (n=11)		56 to 60 (n=4)		F	p	ηp^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Multitasking Preference	42.62	3.86	44.51	2.00	40.90	1.13	42.00	1.15	14.03	.000	.31
Total Emotional Intelligence	80.36	9.40	90.00	12.69	86.54	12.50	99.00	8.08	4.97	.000	.14
Role Overload Scale	26.28	8.51	27.80	6.91	35.00	5.19	21.00	5.77	11.69	.000	.27
Conflict Management Scale	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Collaborating Style	24.90	5.11	27.02	5.29	29.72	3.90	29.50	6.35	6.40	.000	.17
Accommodating Style	18.04	5.80	22.77	4.08	21.36	2.11	24.00	4.61	6.21	.000	.17
Competing Style	16.60	7.00	11.60	3.43	13.00	3.52	10.50	5.19	7.17	.000	.19
Avoiding Style	24.88	4.87	21.91	4.63	20.09	3.30	19.50	1.73	7.90	.000	.20
Compromising Style	11.94	1.86	14.08	4.08	15.36	3.04	14.00	2.30	6.56	.000	.17

df =7, 217

Note: ηp^2 =Partial eta squared values are suggestive of significant effect size. Cohen (1969) classified effect of 0.2 as small, 0.5 as medium, and 0.8 or higher as large.

Table 22 indicates the results of one-way analysis of variance among the study variables and age of the participants. All results are significant.

Table 23

One-way analysis of variance is done to explore the difference among years of experience on the variables ((N= 225)

	1 to 3 (n=34)		4 to 6 (n=47)		7 to 9 (n=69)		10 to 12 (n=33)		13 to 15 (n=15)				
Variables	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	p	ηp^2
Multitasking Preference	47.41	5.48	46.62	7.17	44.94	5.91	44.76	6.22	44.27	4.70	1.91	.060	.07
Emotional Intelligence	80.14	12.78	83.26	15.97	81.70	13.63	89.27	16.99	97.53	9.55	3.72	.000	.12
Work Overload	26.79	9.33	27.65	10.54	31.10	8.61	29.58	7.15	28.47	7.79	1.19	.305	.04
Conflict Management	-	-	-	-	-	-			-	-	-
Collab.	30.14	3.08	28.89	5.41	25.43	5.60	27.06	3.83	28.00	3.90	3.96	.000	.13
Accomm.	21.15	4.51	21.93	5.24	19.38	5.92	22.45	3.41	21.53	3.18	2.34	.020	.08
Compet.	15.02	4.70	12.06	5.28	14.20	6.38	13.15	4.99	12.13	3.25	1.44	.183	.05
Avoid.	21.26	4.02	22.32	5.56	24.28	5.16	21.82	5.06	21.13	4.61	2.18	.030	.07
Compro.	13.82	2.69	14.19	3.07	12.40	2.87	13.42	3.00	13.53	1.85	2.53	.012	.09

Variables	16 to 18 (n=5)		19 to 21 (n=9)		22 to 24 (n=3)		25 to 27 (n=10)		F	p	ηp^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Multitasking Preference	42.40	2.30	44.00	2.65	43.33	2.52	41.00	1.15	1.91	.060	.07
Emotional Intelligence	92.00	10.00	89.33	4.80	87.67	3.51	92.40	2.72	3.72	.000	.12
Work Overload	29.60	8.08	29.00	6.75	35.33	5.03	31.20	4.54	1.19	.305	.04
Conflict Management	-		-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-
Collab.	30.80	2.95	28.89	5.01	29.33	3.79	28.60	3.98	3.96	.000	.13
Accomm.	20.00	3.74	24.33	3.67	24.67	2.31	21.20	2.53	2.34	.020	.08
Compet.	11.60	2.88	11.22	2.86	12.67	3.06	12.40	2.27	1.44	.183	.05
Avoid.	21.60	5.59	23.22	5.21	24.33	3.05	19.40	2.95	2.18	.030	.07
Compro.	15.40	2.88	14.00	4.56	14.67	4.16	15.60	3.10	2.53	.012	.09

df =8, 216

Note: ηp^2 =Partial eta squared values are suggestive of significant effect size. Cohen (1969) classified effect of 0.2 as small, 0.5 as

medium, and 0.8 or higher as large.

Table 23 indicates the results of one-way analysis of variance among the study variables and the years of experience of the

participants. Significant results can only be seen for Emotional Intelligence, and the Collaborating style of Conflict Management.

Discussion

The study measures the relationship between multitasking preference, work overload, emotional intelligence, and conflict management styles. The researcher has looked at how multitasking preferences and work overload correlated with and predicted the use of conflict management styles. It has investigated how conflict management styles and emotional intelligence interact. This research has also explored the role of emotional intelligence as a moderator in the relationships between work overload, multitasking preference, and conflict management styles. The role of various demographic variables was also examined, including age, experience, working hours, marital status, and family system.

In the present study, Multitasking Preference Inventory was used to measure the multitasking preference of working women. Reilly's Role Overload Scale was found to be best used for measuring the work overload experienced by working women. Wong and Law's Emotional Intelligence Scale measured the sample's Emotional Intelligence. Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory–II was used to measure conflict management styles. The research comprised a sample of (N = 225) working women. The demographic variables of the sample's frequencies and percentages were examined to understand their characteristics better. Descriptive analysis results showed that the alpha coefficients of all the scales and subscales lay in the acceptable range. The skewness and kurtosis also lie in the acceptable range, showing well-distributed data.

The study's objectives involved investigating the relationships among all the

studied variables. The relationship among various study variables was analyzed by computing bivariate correlation. The results show that Work Overload has significant relationships with all the Conflict Management Styles, opposing the Collaborating and Competing (accepting hypothesis number 1) and positive with the Accommodating and Avoiding Style (accepting hypothesis number 2). It is also significantly positively related to the Compromising Style. The relationship between Collaborating Style and the avoiding Style of Conflict Management is significant and negative, while the Avoiding Style is significantly and positively related to the Compromising Style. The Accommodating Style has a negative relationship with the Competing Style; however, it shows a significant positive relationship with the Avoiding Style. The Compromising and Avoiding Conflict Management Styles are significantly negatively related. Multitasking is positively related to Emotional Intelligence, Work Overload, and a Compromising Style of Conflict Management. Multitasking is also positively related to the Avoiding Style and significantly positively related to the Accommodating Style (accepting hypothesis number 3). Emotional Intelligence is also significantly positively related to the Collaborating and Compromising Style of Conflict Management and significantly negatively related to the Avoiding Style.s

These results align with the existing literature by Johansen and Cadmus (2015) and Salvucci & Bogunovich (2010). Apart from that, according to Friedman et al. (2000), our results also show that people with higher emotional Intelligence tend to use more of the collaborating Style to manage conflict with less work stress.

Emotional Intelligence plays an essential role in how working women manage conflicts

in the workplace. The results show that work overload is significantly related to all conflict management styles but in varying degrees.

The findings suggest that working women who experience a high level of work overload tend to adopt the Accommodating and Avoiding conflict management styles more frequently. This may indicate that they are avoiding or giving in to conflicts to reduce their workload rather than actively trying to resolve them. On the other hand, the Collaborating and Competing conflict management styles were negatively related to work overload, suggesting that working women who can manage their workload effectively are more likely to engage in productive conflict resolution strategies. Additionally, it can be seen that multitasking has a significant relationship with emotional Intelligence, work overload, and conflict management styles in working women, suggesting that multitasking is significantly positively related to emotional Intelligence, which may indicate that individuals who can multitask effectively are better able to regulate their emotions and manage conflicting demands in the workplace. In addition, multitasking was significantly positively related to the Compromising Style of Conflict Management. This may indicate that individuals who multitask effectively can better reach mutually beneficial solutions in conflict situations.

However, the findings also suggest that multitasking is positively related to the Avoiding Style of Conflict Management, indicating that constantly multitasking individuals may avoid conflicts rather than attempting to resolve them. The Accommodating Style was also found to be positively related to multitasking, which may suggest that individuals who are constantly multitasking may be more willing to accommodate the needs of others in order to

complete multiple tasks simultaneously. The relationships between the Compromising and Avoiding Conflict Management Styles are also significant and negatively related. This may suggest that people prone to making conflict concessions are less likely to steer clear of them altogether.

These findings can be linked to previous research investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management. For instance, earlier research has demonstrated that people with high emotional IQ are better able to handle and resolve conflicts in the workplace. This is because they are better equipped to understand their emotions and those of others and can communicate effectively to reach mutually beneficial solutions.

These findings align with the existing literature by Johansen and Cadmus (2015) and Salvucci & Bogunovich (2010). They can be linked to previous research investigating the relationship between work overload, multitasking, Emotional Intelligence, and conflict management. For example, previous studies have shown that individuals who can multitask effectively are also better able to manage their emotions and resolve conflicts in the workplace.

Furthermore, Emotional Intelligence has a significant relationship with conflict management styles, with Collaborating and Compromising styles showing a significant positive relationship and the Avoiding Style showing a significant negative relationship.

These findings are consistent with existing literature on emotional Intelligence and conflict management and support the notion that individuals with higher emotional Intelligence are better able to manage conflicts in the workplace. The Collaborating and Compromising styles of conflict management are considered more productive and effective in resolving

conflicts, as they are based on open communication and understanding of different perspectives. On the other hand, the Avoiding Style is often used to avoid conflicts altogether, which may not be the most effective strategy in the long term.

Additionally, the findings of this study are consistent with previous research by Johansen and Cadmus (2015) and Salvucci and Bogunovich (2010), who have also discovered an association between emotional intelligence and the conflict resolution styles of collaboration and compromise and a positive relationship between emotional Intelligence and Collaborating and Compromising styles of conflict management. These findings offer additional confirmation for Friedman et al.'s (2000) findings, which have shown that individuals with higher emotional Intelligence tend to use more of the Collaborating Style in managing conflicts.

Regression analysis results suggest that multitasking and work overload have different relationships with conflict management styles than emotional Intelligence.

The results indicate that multitasking preference predicts Competing and Compromising conflict management styles. This may suggest that individuals who prefer to multitask may be more likely to use these conflict management styles to complete multiple tasks simultaneously. This may be because these styles are more assertive and task-oriented, qualities that may be prioritized when multitasking.

The results also show that work overload predicts all conflict management styles,

including Collaborating, Accommodating, Competing, Compromising, and Avoiding styles. This suggests that work overload may be a significant factor in how individuals manage conflicts in the workplace and may affect their ability to engage in productive and effective conflict-resolution strategies.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles is more complex. The results suggest that emotional Intelligence predicts Competing, Compromising, and Avoiding styles but not Collaborating and Accommodating styles. This may indicate that individuals with higher emotional Intelligence are better equipped to manage conflicts involving competition, compromise, and avoidance but may be less effective regarding collaboration and accommodation.

These findings provide valuable insights into the relationships between multitasking, work overload, emotional Intelligence, and conflict management styles. They highlight the need for organizations to consider these factors when developing conflict management strategies and training employees to manage conflicts effectively. as found by previous studies (Jordan & Troth, 2002).

Hypothesis no. 4 of the study was 'Emotional intelligence will moderate the impact of multitasking on the conflict management styles.' which was also partially approved by the results. Emotional intelligence plays a role in how working women manage conflicts when multitasking. Emotional Intelligence attenuates the negative impact of multitasking on conflict management styles, particularly in the case of competing and avoiding styles. It would be helpful to elaborate on how emotional Intelligence may influence the way working women

123

navigate conflicts in the context of multitasking.

Results are consistent with the existing literature. The findings from Gao et al. (2012) suggest that multitasking and work-family conflict can negatively affect job satisfaction. However, high emotional intelligence levels can minimize or eliminate this negative relationship. This highlights the importance of developing emotional intelligence skills among working women, as it can protect against the adverse effects of multitasking and work-family conflict on job satisfaction.

Based on these findings, it is safe to say that emotional Intelligence moderates the impact of multitasking on conflict management styles among working women. Additionally, research has suggested that improving emotional Intelligence can reduce occupational stress and improve employee performance (Darvish & Nasrollahi, 2011). This implies that interventions to enhance emotional intelligence skills among working women can improve their conflict management styles and overall job performance.

Possessing emotional Intelligence can lead to a reduction in task conflict. This suggests that interventions aimed at developing emotional intelligence skills among working women can improve their ability to manage conflicts in the workplace. Additionally, previous research has found a positive relationship between management experience and emotional Intelligence (Srivasan, 2005), which may have implications for how emotional Intelligence is developed and applied in the workplace. These results suggest that participants tend to use a collaborating style when confronted with conflict with their boss, as opposed to a compromising style (Susan, 2006). This highlights the importance of considering individual and contextual factors

when examining conflict management styles.

The results suggest that emotional intelligence is essential in predicting the use of collaborating Style in conflict management. Additionally, there appears to be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and compromising and collaborating styles of conflict management. This implies that developing emotional intelligence skills among working women can improve their ability to use these conflict management styles effectively. Furthermore, these results are consistent with previous research by Yu et al. (2006), which found a positive relationship between managers' emotional Intelligence and compromising and integrating conflict management styles. This highlights the broader applicability of emotional intelligence skills in managing conflicts within and outside the workplace.

The findings of Fahim's (2007) study are intriguing, which investigated the relationship between conflict management and emotional Intelligence among operational and instructing managers. The study found a negative correlation between emotional Intelligence and the competing Style of conflict management, while the accommodating Style correlated positively with emotional Intelligence. Interestingly, collaborating Style did not show any significant relationship with emotional Intelligence. These results are consistent with your findings that emotional Intelligence moderates the impact of multitasking on conflict management styles. Developing emotional intelligence skills among working women may enable them to shift away from the more competitive Style of conflict management and towards a more accommodating style, potentially leading to better outcomes for all parties involved.

Hypothesis no. 5 of the study was that Emotional Intelligence would moderate the

125

impact of work overload on conflict management styles. The literature indicates that emotional Intelligence may impact employees' psychological well-being (Bardzil & Slaski, 2003). Emotional Intelligence may affect how employees perceive and cope with work-related stressors, such as work overload. Research has shown that work overload, characterized by having too many demands and insufficient resources, interacts with emotional Intelligence to influence the level of negative affect experienced by employees (Schaufeli & Greenglass, 2001). This highlights the importance of considering how emotional Intelligence may interact with other work-related factors to impact employees' psychological well-being. Interventions to develop emotional intelligence skills may improve employees' coping strategies and reduce adverse outcomes associated with work-related stressors.

Our findings suggest that emotional Intelligence may play a protective role for employees in the face of job demands and job resources, potentially reducing adverse outcomes such as burnout and low job involvement. While the specific relationship between workload and Emotional Intelligence has not been extensively studied, research on emotional Intelligence and occupational stress suggests that developing emotional intelligence skills may help individuals cope with work-related stressors such as workload and conflict. This highlights the importance of considering emotional Intelligence as a potential factor in promoting employee well-being and job satisfaction. Interventions aimed at enhancing emotional intelligence skills may improve employees' ability to manage work-related stressors and ultimately improve their experience at work.

Such research findings suggest that increasing emotional Intelligence within an

126

organization can positively impact employee well-being and work performance. A vital aspect of this may be the identification of emotional Intelligence as a potential moderator in the stress process, highlighting the importance of emotional intelligence in reducing the negative impacts of work-related stressors. Specifically, research has shown that employees with high levels of emotional intelligence tend to experience lower levels of stress and higher levels of job satisfaction. This may be because emotionally intelligent employees tend to feel more appreciated at work and are better able to manage work-related stressors, which can lead to increased feelings of commitment and loyalty toward their employer (Nikola, 2018). Overall, these findings highlight the importance of considering emotional Intelligence as a critical factor in promoting employee well-being and improving work performance.

The studies by Andrei et al. (2014), Lea (2020), and Warrier et al. (2021) on the role of emotional Intelligence as a moderating variable in different settings suggest that emotional Intelligence may play a key role in improving outcomes related to conflict management, leadership, and job performance. For example, Andrei et al. (2014) found that emotional Intelligence moderated the relationship between personality traits and leadership effectiveness, while Lea (2020) found that emotional Intelligence moderated the relationship between job demands and job resources on work outcomes. Similarly, Warrier et al. (2021) found that emotional Intelligence moderated the relationship between work stress and job performance in healthcare workers. These findings suggest that emotional Intelligence may be a critical factor in improving various outcomes in different settings, highlighting the importance of developing emotional intelligence skills in various contexts.

127

Our findings resonate with the work of Lea (2020), who investigated the degree to which emotional Intelligence moderates various emotion regulation processes under stress, as identified from Gross' emotion regulation framework (1998a, 1998b). This includes the direct moderating effect of emotional Intelligence on the stress response and its impact on coping styles and psychological and physiological reactivity. By examining how emotional Intelligence moderates a variety of stress regulation processes, the study aimed to test the value of emotional Intelligence as a "stress buffer" in young people. This study's findings could impact the design of interventions meant to enhance emotional intelligence abilities and support stress resilience and well-being. These findings suggest that emotional Intelligence may play a key role in regulating stress and improving outcomes related to stress management.

So, emotional Intelligence moderated between multitasking and conflict management styles. The ability to regulate one's emotions, understand the emotions of others, and communicate effectively are all critical components of emotional Intelligence and are also crucial for effective conflict resolution. By moderating the relationship between work overload and conflict management styles, emotional Intelligence may help individuals engage in more productive and effective conflict resolution strategies, ultimately leading to better outcomes and more positive workplace experiences.

The t-test conducted to compare individuals from nuclear and joint family systems on study variables provides insights into the potential impact of family systems on individual differences in emotional Intelligence, workload, and conflict management styles.

The results suggest significant differences between nuclear and joint family

participants on several study variables. Specifically, participants from nuclear families showed better emotional intelligence scores and experienced lesser workloads than those from joint family systems. This in-lines with earlier research that indicated that the well-being and quality of family relationships could significantly impact emotional intelligence development.

However, the t-test did not show significant differences in multitasking preference, accommodating Style, and compromising Style of conflict management between participants from nuclear and joint family systems. This suggests that family systems may not significantly impact these aspects of conflict management styles.

These findings suggest that family systems shape individual differences in emotional Intelligence and workload but may not significantly impact all aspects of conflict management styles. By understanding the potential impact of family systems on individual differences in these variables, interventions aimed at improving emotional Intelligence, reducing workload, and promoting effective conflict resolution can be designed to better meet the needs of individuals from different family backgrounds.

The findings suggest that married individuals may differ from unmarried individuals regarding their multitasking preferences and conflict management styles.

Specifically, the t-test results showed that only multitasking preference and collaborating Style of conflict management showed significant differences between married and unmarried individuals. Unmarried participants scored higher on both variables. This results from different factors, like the different demands and responsibilities associated with being married versus unmarried or differences in social support and resources available to married

versus unmarried individuals.

The finding that married individuals tend to use a more collaborating Style and lesser avoiding and competing Style of conflict management is exciting and suggests that marriage may promote more collaborative approaches to conflict resolution. This could be due to the need to work together and compromise in a long-term committed relationship or other factors related to the dynamics of married life.

Overall, these findings provide valuable insights into the potential impact of marital status on individual differences in multitasking preferences and conflict management styles. By understanding the factors that influence these variables, interventions to improve conflict resolution and promote well-being can be tailored to better meet the needs of individuals from different marital backgrounds.

The results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for age and years of experience provide insights into the potential impact of these variables on the study variables.

The finding of significant differences in the study variables based on age suggests that age may play an essential role in shaping individual differences in emotional Intelligence, workload, and conflict management styles. This is consistent with previous research showing that emotional Intelligence and other cognitive abilities tend to develop over the lifespan. Some research suggests that emotional Intelligence continues to develop into middle adulthood.

However, the non-significant differences in the study variables based on years of experience suggest that work experience may not be as influential in shaping individual differences in emotional Intelligence, workload, and conflict management styles as age. This

exciting finding suggests that factors other than years of experience, such as age or other individual differences, may be more influential in shaping these variables in the workplace.

Overall, these findings provide valuable insights into the potential impact of age and years of experience on individual differences in emotional Intelligence, workload, and conflict management styles. Future research can further explore these differences in detail to better understand the factors that influence these variables in the workplace and to design interventions to improve conflict resolution and promote employee well-being.

Conclusion

In conclusion, our study's findings indicate that emotional intelligence plays an essential role in how working women manage conflicts in the workplace, and multitasking has a significant relationship with emotional intelligence, work overload, and conflict management styles in working women. The results provide valuable insights into the relationship between work overload, emotional intelligence, and conflict management styles. They can be of use to organizations in developing strategies to support their employees in managing conflicts effectively. The results can be used to effectively develop strategies to support employees in managing multiple demands and conflicts.

These findings can be helpful to organizations in developing training programs to enhance their employees' emotional intelligence and conflict management skills.

This study highlights the importance of emotional intelligence in reducing adverse outcomes associated with work-related stressors. Research has shown that developing

131

emotional intelligence skills can help individuals cope with work-related stressors such as workload and conflict, potentially reducing the negative consequences of burnout and low job involvement.

Furthermore, studies by Andrei et al. (2014), Lea (2020), and Warrier et al. (2021) suggest that emotional intelligence may play a moderating role in various settings, potentially improving outcomes related to conflict management, leadership, and job performance. Lea's study, in particular, investigated the degree to which emotional intelligence moderates various emotion regulation processes under stress, as identified from Gross' emotion regulation framework (1998a, 1998b). By examining how emotional intelligence moderates a variety of stress regulation processes, the study aimed to test the value of emotional intelligence as a "stress buffer" in young people.

Lea's findings suggest that emotional intelligence, especially trait emotional intelligence, might be more malleable and receptive to environmental influences and training interventions, making it a promising target for interventions to promote stress resilience and reduce adverse outcomes associated with stress. The study provides evidence that emotional intelligence may directly moderate the stress response and indirectly mitigate the adverse effects of stress by promoting effective emotion regulation during stressful situations, such as healthy attentional processing.

Overall, these findings highlight the importance of considering emotional intelligence as a critical factor in promoting stress resilience and reducing adverse outcomes associated with stress. Interventions to develop emotional intelligence skills may improve attentional and

cognitive processes related to stress regulation and overall well-being and performance.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the results and findings of this study indicate that emotional intelligence plays an essential role in how working women manage conflicts in the workplace, and multitasking has a significant relationship with emotional intelligence, work overload, and conflict management styles in working women. The results provide valuable insights into the relationship between work overload, emotional intelligence, and conflict management styles. They can be of use to organizations in developing strategies to support their employees in managing conflicts effectively. The results can be used to effectively develop strategies to support employees in managing multiple demands and conflicts.

These findings can be helpful to organizations in developing training programs to enhance their employees' emotional intelligence and conflict management skills.

This study highlights the importance of emotional intelligence in reducing adverse outcomes associated with work-related stressors. Research has shown that developing emotional intelligence skills can help individuals cope with work-related stressors such as workload and conflict, potentially reducing the negative consequences of burnout and low job involvement.

Furthermore, studies by Andrei et al. (2014), Lea (2020), and Warrier et al. (2021) suggest that emotional intelligence may play a moderating role in various settings, potentially improving outcomes related to conflict management, leadership, and job performance. Lea's

study, in particular, investigated the degree to which emotional intelligence moderates various emotion regulation processes under stress, as identified from Gross' emotion regulation framework (1998a, 1998b). By examining how emotional intelligence moderates a variety of stress regulation processes, the study aimed to test the value of emotional intelligence as a "stress buffer" in young people.

Lea's findings suggest that emotional intelligence, especially trait emotional intelligence, may be more malleable and receptive to environmental influences and training interventions, making it a promising target for interventions to promote stress resilience and reduce unfavorable outcomes associated with stress. The study provides evidence that emotional intelligence may directly moderate the stress response and indirectly mitigate the adverse effects of stress by promoting effective emotion regulation during stressful situations, such as healthy attentional processing.

Overall, these findings highlight the importance of considering emotional intelligence as a critical factor in promoting stress resilience and reducing negative outcomes associated with stress. Interventions aimed at developing emotional intelligence skills may improve attentional and cognitive processes related to stress regulation and overall well-being and performance.

Implications

Conflict is a fact of life for any organization. Leaders must understand and use a variety of conflict management styles and different approaches to resolving the raised conflict if they are to build strong relationships with their subordinates. Unresolved conflict can make it more

134

difficult for an organization to succeed. As a result, leaders must learn how to handle conflict while considering the context, situation, and parties involved (Janss et al., 2012).

Instead of viewing workplace conflict negatively, it is essential to maintain a healthy level of conflict in order to encourage creativity and innovation. Therefore, the biggest challenge for modern organizations is to develop a group of workers who can keep conflict at a minimum and manage it effectively. Conflict is thought to improve group decision-making, team development, and task comprehension. The opposing school of thought maintains that conflict diverts attention from the pressing issues while wasting resources on its resolution. Many conflicts are harmful, whether or not they are occasionally beneficial (Janss et al., 2012).

Work overload on an employee or demands on the job that are too demanding for a human being to handle should always raise red flags for both the employee and the employer. Typically, the effects produced by these factors are what lead to the issue. As an illustration, consider the risk that the business runs of one of its employees developing physical or mental problems. Along with other considerations like following health and safety regulations, it is vital to prioritize employees' psychological stability (Altaf & Awan, 2011). When one considers the following issues, work overload challenges pose a risk to an employee, the company, the employee's family, and friends. As a result, work overload has become a serious social issue. Employees' free time each day is decreasing as their workload and working hours increase. As a result, eventually, their general health declines. These issues need to be addressed by employers and organizations.

According to research, a person's workplace may experience stress due to various

factors. Overloading quantitative work is a source of stress in the workplace. Numerous studies have demonstrated that employees' perceptions of excessive work harm indicators of job satisfaction and general well-being (e.g., Caplan et al., 1975; Parkes, 1991).

Issues with workplace diversity exist in this context, but they can be partially resolved by providing managers with specific programs for cultural sensitization. More importantly, businesses should make it a point to hire people with a history of adapting to new situations and handling conflict in productive ways. They should carefully evaluate candidates' personality traits and emotional intelligence to do this. Numerous studies in therapy, training courses, and executive education (Eldrirdge, Kerry, & Tolgerson, 2009) have shown that individuals can increase their social and emotional competence with time and effort in the context of a well-structured program. Furthermore, recent research in the young field of affective neuroscience has shown that the emotional brain circuitry still shows some plasticity in adults (Davidson, Jackson, & Kalin, 2000). It has been discovered that EI can be developed, unlike IQ. Recent studies on "mindfulness" training, an approach to emotional self-regulation, have also demonstrated that training can change the brain regions that control positive and negative emotions. In their research, (Boyatzis, Cowan, & Kolb, 1995) reaffirm that an intensive, individualized competence-building plan can help develop EI competencies. One can develop EI competencies on a personal level by evaluating oneself, reflecting on oneself, and controlling one's positive and negative emotions. By receiving well-designed, effective emotional competence training, managers' and subordinates' emotional intelligence can be improved. In order to create an enabling environment, organizations may offer suitable reinforcements for learning, enhancing, and improving these competencies, along with

136

efficient communication and structural reforms.

The practical effect of this study is that the education of employees should adequately cover EI management and that human resource management practices should make available employees with appropriate levels of EI. Having employees with an adequate level of EI is feasible through recruitment, selection, and training processes. Researchers (such as Dolev & Leshem, 2016; Glar-Corbi, Pozo-Rico, T. Sanchez, & Castejon, 2019) have documented the efficacy and methods of training that enhance emotional intelligence.

While conflict cannot be avoided, it can be managed. Conflict will always exist on an individual and organizational level, making managing difficult conversations or interactions essential. Understanding the various types of conflict will help supervisors use effective conflict resolution techniques. Conflicts that go unresolved could have negative consequences. In the current era of globalization, the Internet is a well-liked communication tool. Internet communication has improved organizational productivity and efficiency but has also given rise to new conflicts. Online arguments are occurring more frequently (Lim et al., 2012).

Experts agree that conflict competence can be defined and learned and that it is possible to learn the necessary skills. One definition of conflict management, according to Overton & Lowry (2013), is the capacity to acquire and apply cognitive, emotional, and behavioral skills that promote fruitful conflict resolution while lowering the risk of harm or escalation.

Limitation and Suggestion

This study has various limitations. First, the study used self-report measures for all the

137

scales, filled in by the employed participants, which may cause biases and/or social desirability while answering the items despite the assurance of privacy. The results only rely on the participants' perception of work overload and their multitasking preference. Secondly, the study only included working women from a few organizations, which incorporate only a small portion of the population. This makes the results not suitable to be generalized to the population. Third, the time constraint is also a limitation of the study. Lastly, the variables can also be affected by other factors not considered in this study. Future studies can incorporate a larger and more versatile sample and the supervisor's data. A longitudinal study based on a more extended period will be appropriate. Lastly, finding a causal relationship between these variables would be much better.

References

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 2(1), 267–299. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0065-2601(08)60108-2

Adler, R. F., & Benbunan-Fich, R. (2012). Juggling in a high wire: Multitasking effects on performance. International Journal of Human-computer Studies, 70, 156–168.

Adler, R. F., & Benbunan-Fich, R. (2013). Self-interruptions in discretionary multitasking. Computers in Human Behavior, 29, 1441–1449

Ain, N. ul, Ahmad, J., Akhtar, H. M. W., Rahman, H. ur, & Imran, R. M. (2017). Effect of diversified model of organizational politics on diversified emotional intelligence. Journal of Basic & Applied Sciences, 13, 375–385.

Al Ali, O.E., Garner, I. and Magadley, W. (2012). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance in police organizations', Journal of Police Crime Psychology, 27(1), 1–8.

Al-Hamdan, Z., Adnan Al-Ta'amneh, I., Rayan, A., & Bawadi, H. (2018). The impact of emotional intelligence on conflict management styles used by jordanian nurse managers. Journal of Nursing Management, 27(3).

Aliasgari, M., and Farzadnia, F. (2012). The relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management styles among teachers. Interdiscip. J. Contemp. Res. Bus. 4, 555–562.

Altaf, A., & Awan, M. A. (2011). Moderating affect of workplace spirituality on the relationship of job overload and job satisfaction. Journal of Business Ethics, 104(1), 93–99. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-011-0891-0

Altmann, E. M., & Trafton, J. G. (2002). Memory for goals: an activation-based model. Cognitive Science, 26(1), 39–83. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0364-0213(01)00058-1

Andrei, F., Mancini, G., Baldaro, B., Trombini, E., & Agnoli, S. (2014). A systematic review on the predictive utility of the trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue). Applied Psychology Bulletin, 271(62), 2–29.

Aneja, S., & Gupta, M. (2005). Sleep and childhood epilepsy. The Indian Journal of Pediatrics, 72(8), 687–690. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf02724078

Arora, B. (2017). Importance of emotional intelligence in the workplace. International Journal of Engineering and Applied Sciences, 4(4), 257492.

Ashkanasy, N.M. and Daus, C.S. (2002). Emotion in the workplace: The new challenge for managers. Academy of Management Executive, 16(1), 76–86.

Bacharach, S. B., Bamberger, P., & Conley, S. C. (1990). Work processes, role conflict, and role overload. Work and Occupations, 17(2), 199–228. https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888490017002004

Baethge, A., & Rigotti, T. (2013). Interruptions to workflow: Their relationship with irritation and satisfaction with performance, and the mediating roles of time pressure and mental demands. Work & Stress, 27, 43–63.

Bailey, B. P., & Iqbal, S. T. (2008). Understanding changes in mental workload during

execution of goal-directed tasks and its application for interruption management. ACM Transactions on Computer-Human Interaction, 14(4), 1–28. https://doi.org/10.1145/1314683.1314689

Bankovskaya, V. (2012). Development of conflict management strategies to increase the organizational effectiveness in nordic companies, unpublished Masters thesis. Reykjavik University [online] http://hdl.handle.net/1946/12716

Barbuto, J., & Ye, X. (2006). Sources of motivation, interpersonal conflict management styles and leadership effectiveness: A structural model. Psychological Reports, 98(1), 3-20.

Bardzil, P., & Slaski, M. (2003). Emotional intelligence: Fundamental competencies for enhanced service provision. An International Journal, 13(2), 97–104. https://doi.org/10.1108/09604520310466789

Barki, H., & Hartwick, J. (2001). Interpersonal conflict and its management in information system development. MIS Quarterly, 25(2), 195. https://doi.org/10.2307/3250929

Baron, R.A. (1991). Positive effects of conflict: A cognitive perspective. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 4(1), 25–36.

Barry, B., (1999). The tactical use of emotion in negotiation. Research in Negotiation in Organization, 7, pp.93–121.

Başoğul, C., & Özgür, G. (2016). Role of emotional intelligence in conflict management strategies of nurses. Asian Nursing Research, 10(3), 228–233. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anr.2016.07.002

Batool, S. S., & Khalid, R. (2012). Emotional intelligence: A predictor of marital quality in

Pakistani couples - proquest. Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 27(1).

Benbunan-Fich, R., Adler, R. F., & Mavlanova, T. (2011). Measuring multi-tasking behavior with activity-based metrics. ACM Transactions on Computer-Human Interaction, 18, 1–22.

Blair, S. L., & Lichter, D. T. (1991). Measuring the division of household labor. Journal of Family Issues, 12(1), 91–113. https://doi.org/10.1177/019251391012001007

Bodtker, A.M., & Jameson, J. K. (2001). Emotion in conflict formation and its transformation: Application to organizational conflict management. International Journal of Conflict Management, 12, 259-277.

Boyatzis, R. E., Cowen, S. S., & Kolb, D. A. (1995). Innovation in professional education: Steps on a journey from teaching to learning: The story of change and invention at the Weatherland school of management | Titel. Library.wur.nl.

Brixey, J. J., Robinson, D. J., Johnson, C. W., Johnson, T. R., Turley, J. P., & Zhang, J. (2007). A concept analysis of the phenomenon interruption. ANS. Advances in Nursing Science, 30, E26–42.

Burley, K. A. (1994). Gender differences and similarities in coping responses to anticipated work-family conflict. Psychological Reports, 74(1), 115–123. https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1994.74.1.115

Buser, T., & Peter, N. (2012). Multitasking. Experimental Economics, 15, 641–655.

Caplan, R. D. (1975). Job demands and worker health: main effects and occupational differences. In Google Books. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare,

Public Health Service, Center for Disease Control, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health.

Cha, J., Cichy, F. R., & Kim, H. S. (2009). The contribution of emotional intelligence to social skills and stress management skills among automated foodservice industry executives. Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism, 8(1), 15–31. doi:10.1080/15332840802274411

Chandler, G. N., Keller, C., & Lyon, D. W. (2000). Unravelling the determinants and consequences of an innovation-supportive organizational culture. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 25(1), 59–76. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225870002500106

Chen, C., & Jiang, J. (2022). How workload influences conflict with team members: the perspective of conservation of resources theory. Frontiers in Business, Economics and Management, 5(3).

Chhabraa, M., & Chhabra, B. (2013). Emotional intelligence and occupational stress: A study of Indian border security force personnel. Police Practice and Research, 14(5), 355-370. doi:10.1080/15614263.2012.722782

Chughati, F., & Perveen, U. (2013). A study of teachers' workload and job satisfaction in public and private schools at secondary level in Lahore city Pakistan. Asian Journal Of Social Sciences & Humanities 2(1), 1-22

Ciarrochi, J., Deane, F.P., & Anderson, S. (2002). Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between stress and health. Personality and Individual Differences, 32(2), 197-209. doi: 10.1016/S0191-8869(01)00012-5

143

Cooper, C. L., & Marshall, J. (1978). Understanding executive stress, London: Macmillan.

Cooper, C. L., Lu, L., & Tseng, H. (1999), Managerial stress, job satisfaction, and health in Taiwan, Stress Medicine, 15(1), 53-64.

Corwin, R. G. (1969). Patterns of organizational conflict. Administrative Science Quarterly, 14(4), 507. https://doi.org/10.2307/2391588

Cross, C., & Linehan, M. (2006). Barriers to advancing female careers in the high-tech sector: empirical evidence from Ireland. Women in Management Review, 21(1), 28. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1108/09649420610643394

Cummins, R. C. (1990). Job stress and the buffering effect of supervisory support. Group & Organization Studies, 15(1), 92–104. https://doi.org/10.1177/105960119001500107

Daly, M., & Lewis, J. (2000). The concept of social care and the analysis of contemporary welfare states. The British Journal of Sociology, 51(2), 281–298. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-4446.2000.00281.x

Darvish, H., & Nasrollahi, A. (2011). Studying the relations between emotional intelligence and occupational stress : A case study at payame. Economic Sciences Series, 63(2).

Davis, S. K., & Humphrey, N. (2012a). The influence of emotional intelligence (EI) on coping and mental health in adolescence: Divergent roles for trait and ability EI. Journal of Adolescence, 35(5), 1369–1379.

DeFrank, R. S., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1998). Stress on the job: An executive update. Academy of Management Perspectives, 12(3), 55–66. https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1998.1109050

Di Fabio, A., & Kenny, M. E. (2016). Promoting well-being: the contribution of emotional intelligence. Frontiers in Psychology, 7. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01182

Dolev, N., & Leshem, S. (2016). Teachers' emotional intelligence: The impact of training, the international journal of emotional education. Science and Education, 8(1), 75–94.

Dwyer, J. W., & Seccombe, K. (1991). Elder care as family labor. Journal of Family Issues, 12(2), 229–247. https://doi.org/10.1177/019251391012002006

Elahi, Y.A., & Apoorva, M. (2012). A detail study on length of service and role stress of banking sector in Lucknow region. Research Journal of Management Sciences,1(5), 15-18.

Eldridge, S., Kerry, S., & Torgerson, D. J. (2009). Bias in identifying and recruiting participants in cluster randomised trials: What can be done? BMJ, 339(b4006). https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.b4006

El-Sayed, H. S., El. Zeiny, A. H. H., & Adeyemo, A. D. (2014). Relationship between occupational stress, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy among faculty members in faculty of nursing Zagazig University, Egypt. Journal of Nursing Education and Practice, 4(4), 183-194. doi:10.5430/jnep.v4n4p183

Elsayed-Ekhouly, S. M., & Buda, R. (1996). Organizational conflict: A comparative analysis of conflict styles across cultures. The International Journal of Conflict Management, 7(1), 71-81.

Extremera, P. N., Rey, P. L., & Pena, G. M. (2016). Educadores de corazón. Inteligencia emocional como elemento clave en la labor docente. Padres Y Maestros / Journal of

Parents and Teachers, 0(368), 65. https://doi.org/10.14422/pym.i368.y2016.011

Fahim, M. (2007). On the role of emotional, psychometric, and verbal intelligences in the academic achievement of university students majoring in English language. Iranian EFL Journal, 4(9).

Fatima, Dr. Q., Nisar, S., Liaqat, M., Jahangir, N., & Ghafoor, I. (2021). Role of emotional intelligence in conflict management styles among nurses. Journal of Contemporary Issues in Business and Government, 27(5).

Fatima, N., & Sahibzada, D. S. A. (2012). An empirical analysis of factors affecting work life balance among university teachers: The case of Pakistan. Journal of International Academic Research, 12(1).

Feizi T., Shahbahrami E., Azhande A., (2011). The relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies among managers of medical sciences universities, Journal of Modiriat-e-Salamat, 14(44), 55-60 (In Persian)

Field, A. (2009). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS. 3rd Edition, sage publications ltd., London. Scientific research publishing. Open Journal of Nursing, 6(9).

Fletcher, B. (C). (1994). The epidemiology of occupational stress. In C. L. Cooper & R. Payne (Eds.), Causes, coping and consequences of stress at work (pp. 3–50). John Wiley & Sons.

Friedman, R. A., Tidd, S. T., Currall, S. C., & Tsai, J. C. (2000). What goes around comes around: The impact of personal conflict style on work conflict and stress. International Journal of Conflict Management, 11(1), 32–55. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022834

Friedman, R.A. & Tidd, S.T. (2002). Conflict style and coping with role conflict: An extension of the uncertainty model of work stress. International Journal of Conflict Management, 13 (3), 236-257. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb022875

Frone, M. R., Yardley, J. K., & Markel, K. S. (1997). Developing and testing an integrative model of the work–family interface. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50(2), 145–167. https://doi.org/10.1006/jvbe.1996.1577

Ganster, D.C.. Fusilier, M.R.. & Mayy B.T. (1986). Role of social support in the experience of stress at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, 102-110.

Gao, Y., Shi, J., Niu, Q., & Wang, L. (2012). Work-family conflict and job satisfaction: emotional intelligence as a moderator. Stress and Health, 29(3), 222–228. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2451

Gardner, H. (1983). Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences. New York: Basic Books.

George, J.M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of human intelligence. Human Relation, 53(8),1027–1055.

Gilar-Corbi, R., Pozo-Rico, T., Sánchez, B., & Castejón, J.-L. (2019). Can emotional intelligence be improved? A randomized experimental study of a business-oriented EI training program for senior managers. PLOS ONE, 14(10), e0224254. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0224254

Godse, A. S., and Thingujam, N. S. (2010). Perceived emotional intelligence and conflict resolution styles among information technology professionals: Testing the mediating

role of personality. Singapore Manag. Rev. 32, 69–83.

Goh, Z., Ilies, R., & Wilson, K. S. (2015). Supportive supervisors improve employees' daily lives: The role supervisors play in the impact of daily workload on life satisfaction via work–family conflict. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 89, 65-73.

Gohm, C. L. (2003). Mood regulation and emotional intelligence: Individual differences. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84, 594-607.

Gohm, C. L. (2003). Mood regulation and emotional intelligence: Individual differences. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 84, 594-607.

Goleman, D. (1998). The emotionally competent leader. The Healthcare Forum Journal, 41(2), 36, 38, 76. https://europepmc.org/article/med/10177113

Goleman, D., & Boyatzis, R. (2017). Emotional intelligence has 12 elements. Which do you need to work on? Harvard Business Review.

Gong, Z., Chen, Y., & Wang, Y. (2019). The influence of emotional intelligence on job burnout and job performance: mediating effect of psychological capital. Frontiers in Psychology, 10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.02707

Goyal, Dr. K. A., & Babel, A. A. (2015). Issues and challenges of work life balance in banking industry of India. Pacific Business Review International, 8(5).

Greenberger, E., Goldberg, W. A., Hamill, S., O'Neil, R., & Payne, C. K. (1989). Contributions of a supportive work environment to parents' well-being and orientation to work. American Journal of Community Psychology, 17(6), 755–783. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00922737

148

Greenhaus, J. H., Bedeian, A. G., & Mossholder, K. W. (1987). Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family well-being. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 31(2), 200–215. https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90057-1

Greenhaus, J.H., Bedeian, AG., & Mossholder, KW. (1987). Work experiences, job performance, and feelings of personal and family well-being. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 31,200-215.

Griffith, J., Steptoe, A., & Cropley, M. (1999). An investigation of coping strategies associated with job stress in teachers. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 69(4), 517–531. https://doi.org/10.1348/000709999157879

Gross, J. J. (1998a). The emerging field of emotion regulation: an integrative review. Review of General Psychology, 2(3), 271-99.

Gross, J. J. (1998b). Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation divergent consequences for experience, expression, and physiology. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74(1), 224-37.

Gupta, R. (2021). Emotional intelligence and subjective well-being among working women. Journal of International Women's Studies, 22(6).

Gutierrez, A. M. J., Ang, E. K. S., Carlos, P. M. A., & Umali, J. C. (2016). A multi-dimensional study on the relationship of emotional intelligence to the multitasking ability of nursing students: A structural equation modelling approach. DLSU Research Congress, 4, 2449–3309.

Hecht, T. D., & Allen, N. J. (2003). Person-job fit on the dimension of polychronicity:

Examining links with well-being and performance. Academy of Management Proceedings, 2003(1), F1–F6. https://doi.org/10.5465/ambpp.2003.13792510

Henderson, L. N. (2006). Emotional intelligence and conflict management style. UNF Graduate Theses and Dissertations, 361.

Heris, S. P., and Heris, M. B. (2011). Relationship between emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies in physical education experts of Tehran university. World Appl. Sci. J. 15, 1619–1622.

Hodapp, V., Neuser, K. W., & Weyer, G. (1988). Job stress, emotion, and work environment: Toward a causal model. Personality and Individual Differences, 9(5), 851–859. https://doi.org/10.1016/0191-8869(88)90003-7

Hopkins, M.M. and Yonker, R.D. (2015). Managing conflict with emotional intelligence: abilities that make a difference. Journal of Management Development, 34(2), 226–244.

Huang, Y. C., Lee, W. T., Lin, T., Hsu, Y., & Yang, C. C. (2017). Work stress and insomnia: Work-life balance as a mediator. Sleep, 40.

Innes, J.M., & Kitto, S. (1989). Neuroticism, self-consciousness and coping strategies, and occupational stress in high school students. Personality and lndividual Differences, 10,303-312.

Isen, A.M., Johnson, M.M., Mertz, E., & Robinson, G.F. (1985). The influence of positive affect on the unusualness of word associations. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48, 1413–1426.

Iverson, R. D., & Maguire, C. (2000). The relationship between job and life satisfaction:

Evidence from a remote mining community. Human Relations, 53(6), 807–839. https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726700536003

Jaca, L. M., & Díaz, F. J. M. (2005). Conflict management, negotiation and mediation. In dialnet.unirioja.es. Pyramid. https://dialnet.unirioja.es/servlet/libro?codigo=6101

Janss, R., Rispens, S., Segers, M., & Jehn, K. A. (2012). What is happening under the surface? Power, conflict and the performance of medical teams. Medical Education, 46(9), 838–849. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2923.2012.04322.x

Jehn, K. A. (1997). A qualitative analysis of conflict types and dimensions in organizational groups. Administrative Science Quarterly, 42(3), 530–557. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393737

Jick, T. D., & Payne, R. (1980). Stress at work. Exchange, 3, 50–56.

Johansen, M. L., & Cadmus, E. (2016). Conflict management style, supportive work environments and the experience of work stress in emergency nurses. Journal of Nursing Management, 24(2), 211–218. https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12302

Jones, T. & Bodtker, A. (2001). Mediating with heart in mind: Addressing emotion in mediation practice. Negotiation Journal, 17, 217-245.

Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2002). Emotional intelligence and conflict resolution: Implications for human resource development. Advances in Developing Human Resources, 4(1), 62–79. https://doi.org/10.1177/1523422302004001005

Kabanoff, B. (1989). Conflict management styles: Why is compromise so favourably viewed? Australian Journal of Management, 14 (1), 29-48. doi: 10.1177/031289628901400102

Kafetsios, K., & Zampetakis, L. A. (2008). Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction: Testing the mediatory role of positive and negative affect at work. Personality and Individual Differences, 44(3), 712–722.

Kahn, R. (1980). Conflict, ambiguity, and overload: Three elements in job stress. In D. Katz, R. Kahn, & J. Adams (Eds.), The study of organizations (pp. 418–428).

Keramati M. and Roshan M. (2005). Relationship of school administrator self-awareness with conflict management strategies. Journal of New Thoughts on Education, 1(4), 35-48, (in Persian)

Knapp, M. L., Putnam, L. L., & Davis, L. J. (1988). Measuring interpersonal conflict in organizations. Management Communication Quarterly, 1(3), 414–429. https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318988001003008

König, C. J., Oberacher, L., & Kleinmann, M. (2010). Personal and situational determinants of multitasking at work. Journal of Personnel Psychology, 9(2), 99–103. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000008

Korabik, K., Rhijn, T. van, Ayman, R., Lero, D. S., & Hammer, L. B. (2016). Gender, polychronicity, and the work–family interface: Is a preference for multitasking beneficial? Community, Work & Family, 20(3), 307–326. https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2016.1178103

Kossek, E. E., & Lambert, S. J. (2005). Work and life integration organizational, cultural, and individual perspectives. Mahwah London Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Koubova, V., & Buchko, A. A. (2013). Life-work balance: Emotional intelligence as a crucial

component of achieving both personal life and work performance. Management Research Review, 36(7).

Landa, A. M. J., López-Zafra, E., Martos, B. P. M., & Aguilar-Luzón, C. D. M (2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence, occupational stress and health in nurses: A questionnaire survey. International Journal of Nursing Studies, 45(6), 888- 901.

Landsbergis, P. A. (1988). Occupational stress among health care workers: A test of the job demands-control model. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9(3), 217–239. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030090303

Law, K.S., Wong, C.S. and Song, L.J. (2004). The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies. Journal of Applied Psychology, 89(3), 483–496.

Lee, C.O. (2009). Conflict management styles and emotional intelligence of staff in the property management industry, unpublished Master's thesis. The University of Hong Kong [online] http://hub.hku.hk/bitstream/10722/128618/3/FullText.pdf?accept=1.

Li, Blandford, A., Cairns, P., & Young, R. M. (2008). The effect of interruptions on post completion and other procedural errors: An account based on the activation-based goal memory model. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Applied, 14(4), 314–328.

Li, Z., He, B., Sun, X., & Zhang, Y. (2020). Demonstrating the psychological aspects of stressors and abusive supervision behaviour: Attainment of sustainability under the rubric of resources theory. Frontiers in Psychology, 11(293). https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00293

Lim, J. H., & Rashad, Y. (2012). The difference of conflict management styles and conflict resolution in workplace. Business & Entrepreneurship Journal, 1(1), 2241–2312 (print version).

M.K, R., & Gupta, R. (2021). Emotional intelligence and subjective well-being among working women. Journal of International Women's Studies, 22(6), 55–65.

Maamari, B. E., and Majdalani, J. F. (2019). The effect of highly emotionally intelligent teachers on their students' satisfaction. Int. J. Educ. Manag. 33, 179–193. doi: 10.1108/IJEM-11-2017-0338

Malik, M. I. (2011). A study of work environment and employees' performance in Pakistan. AFRICAN JOURNAL of BUSINESS MANAGEMENT, 5(34). https://doi.org/10.5897/ajbm11.1502

Mark, G., Gudith, D., & Klocke, U. (2008). The cost of interrupted work. Proceeding of the Twenty-Sixth Annual CHI Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems - CHI '08. https://doi.org/10.1145/1357054.1357072

Masa'deh, R., Tarhini, A., Aqqad, N., & Obeidat, A. (2019). The relationship among emotional intelligence, conflict management styles, and job performance in Jordanian banks. International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management, 19(3), 250. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijhrdm.2019.10021720

Masood, M. T., & Javed, S. (2016). Impact of conflict management styles on affective and cognitive trust: Moderating role of transformational leadership. Pakistan Business Review, 17(4). https://doi.org/DOI:10.22555/pbr.v17i4.553

154

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Findings, and Implications. Psychological Inquiry, 15(3), 197–215

McShane, S., & Glinow, M. V. (2021). M: Organizational Behavior. In www.mheducation.com. New York: McGraw - Hill. https://www.mheducation.com/highered/product/m-organizational-behavior-mcshane-von-glinow/M9781260261561.html

Meyer, Susan. (2004). Organizational response to conflict: Future conflict and work outcomes. Social Work Research. 28. 183-190. doi 10.1093/swr/28.3.183.

Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2016). A meta-analysis of emotional intelligence and work attitudes. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 90(2), 177–202. https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12167

Michie, S. (2003). Reducing work related psychological ill health and sickness absence: A systematic literature review. Occupational and Environmental Medicine, 60(1), 3–9. https://doi.org/10.1136/oem.60.1.3

Michinov, E. (2022). When emotional intelligence predicts team performance: Further validation of the short version of the workgroup emotional intelligence profile. Current Psychology, 41(12). https://doi.org/DOI:10.1007/s12144-020-00659-7

Mikolajczak, M., Luminet, O., & Menil, C. (2006). Predicting resistance to stress: Incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence over alexithymia and optimism. Psicothema, 18, 79–88.

Mikolajczak, M., Roy, E., Luminet, O., Fillée, C., & de Timary, P. (2007). The moderating

impact of emotional intelligence on free cortisol responses to stress. Psychoneuroendocrinology, 32(8-10), 1000–1012.

Min, J. (2014). The relationships between emotional intelligence, job stress, and quality of life among tour guides. Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research,19(10).

Mittal, M., & Bhakar, S. S. (2018). Examining the impact of role overload on job stress, job satisfaction and job performance-A study among married working women in banking sector. International Journal of Management Studies, V 2(7), 01. https://doi.org/10.18843/ijms/v5i2(7)/01

Mohammed, S., Rizzuto, T., Hiller, N. J., Newman, D. A., & Chen, T. (2008). Individual differences and group negotiation: The role of polychronicity, dominance, and decision rule. Negotiation and Conflict Management Research, 1(3), 282–307. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-4716.2008.00017.x

Monsell, S. (2003). Task-switching. Trends in Cognitive Science, 7, 134–140.

Morris, M. W., Williams, K. Y., Leung, K., Larrick, R., Mendoza, M. T., Bhatnagar, D., Li, J., Kondo, M., & Hu, Jun-Chen (1998). Conflict management styles: accounting for cross-national differences. Journal of International Business Studies, 29(4), 729-747.

Morrison, J. (2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and preferred conflict-handling styles. Journal of Nursing Management, 16(8), 974–983. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2834.2008.00876.x

Mueller, C. W., Boyer, E. M., Price, J. L., & Iverson, R. D. (1994). Employee attachment and noncoercive conditions of work. Work and Occupations, 21(2), 179–212.

156

https://doi.org/10.1177/0730888494021002002

Naqvi, I.H., Iqbal, M., Akhtar, S.N. (2016). The relationship between emotional intelligence and performance of secondary school teachers. Bulletin of Education and Research, 38(1), 209-224.

Naru, A. S. (2020). Impact of job security and work overload on employee performance with the mediating role of employee stress: A case of Pakistan's fast-food industry. International Journal of Human Resource Studies, 10(1).

Neal, M. B., & Hammer, L. B. (2017). Working couples caring for children and aging parents: Effects on work and well-being. Psychology Press.

Nikolaou, I., & Tsaousis, I. (2002). Emotional Intelligence In The Workplace: Exploring Its Effects On Occupational Stress And Organizational Commitment. The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 10(4), 327–342. https://doi.org/10.1108/eb028956

Orpen, C.. & King, G. (1986). Relationship between perceived job stress and physical and psychological strain among university administrators. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 63, 1137-1138.

Overton, A., & Lowry, A. (2013). Conflict management: Difficult conversations with difficult people. Clinics in Colon and Rectal Surgery, 26(04), 259–264. NCBI. https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0033-1356728

Parkes, K. R. (1991). Locus of control as moderator: An explanation for additive versus interactive findings in the demand-discretion model of work stress? British Journal of Psychology, 82(3), 291–312. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8295.1991.tb02401.x

157

Pashler, H., Johnston, J. C., & Ruthruff, E. (2001). Attention and performance. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 629–651.

Peifer, C., & Zipp, G. (2019). All at once? The effects of multitasking behaviour on flow and subjective performance. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 28(5), 682–690

Pierce, J. L., Gardner, D. G., Dunham, R. B., & Cummings, L. L. (1993). Moderating effects of organization-based self-esteem on role condition-employee response relationships. The Academy of Management Journal. 36. 271-288. 10.2307/256523

Pleck, J. H., Staines, G. L., & Lang, L. (1980). Conflicts between work and family life. Monthly Labor Review, 103(3), 29.

Pondy, L. R. (1969). Varieties of organizational conflict. Administrative Science Quarterly, 14(4), 499. https://doi.org/10.2307/2391586

Poolton, J. M., Wilson, M. R., Malhotra, N., Ngo, K., & Masters, R. S. W. (2011). A comparison of evaluation, time pressure, and multitasking as stressors of psychomotor operative performance. Surgery, 146, 776–782.

Pooya, A., Barfoei, H. R., Kargozar, N., & Maleki, F. (2013). Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Conflict Management Strategies. Research Journal of Recent Sciences, 2(7), 37–42.

Presser, H. B. (1988). Shift work and child care among young dual-earner American parents. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 50(1), 133–148. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.2307/352434

Pruitt, D. G. (1983). Strategic choice in negotiation. American Behavioural Scientist, 27(2), 167–194. https://doi.org/10.1177/000276483027002005

Rahim M.A., Zhao J.H., Yu C.S., Chan K.W., Kwok W.Y., Alves M.G., Lee C.W., Rahman M.S., Ferdausy S. and Rene V.W., A, (2002). Model of emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies: A study in seven countries. The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 10(4), 302-326

Rahim, M. A., Buntzman, G. F., & White, D. (1999). An empirical study of the stages of moral development and conflict management styles. The International Journal of Conflict Management, 10(2), 154-171.

Rahim, M. A., Garrett, J. E., & Buntzman, G. F. (1992). Ethics of managing interpersonal conflict in organizations. Journal of Business Ethics, 11(5-6), 423–432. https://doi.org/10.1007/bf00870554

Rahim, M. A. (1983). A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict. Academy of Management Journal, 26(2), 368–376. https://doi.org/10.5465/255985

Repetti, R. L., Matthews, K. A. and Waldron, I. (1989). Employment and women's health: Effects of paid employment on women's mental and physical health. American Psychologist, 44 (11), pp. 1394-1401

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 15(2), 150–163.

Ross, C. E. (1987). The division of labor at home. Social Forces, 65(3), 816–833. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1093/sf/65.3.816

Ross, C. E., & Mirowsky, J. (1988). Child care and emotional adjustment to wives' employment. Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 29(2), 127–138.

Ross, D. S., & Vasantha, S. (2014). A conceptual study on impact of stress on work-life balance. Sai Om Journal of Commerce & Management: A Peer Reviewed National Journal, 1(2).

Rothman, S. (2008). Job satisfaction, occupational stress, burnout and work engagement as components of work-related wellbeing. SA Journal of Industrial Psychology, 34(3), 11-16. doi:10.4102/sajip.v34i3.424

Rozell, E. J., Pettijohn, C. E., & Parker, R. S. (2002). An empirical evaluation of emotional intelligence: The impact on management development. The Journal of Management Development, 21, 272-300.

Rubinstein, J. S., Meyer, D. E., & Evans, J. E. (2001). Executive control of cognitive processes in task switching. Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 27, 763–797.

Salovey, P. E., & Sluyter, D. J. (1997). Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications. Basic Books.

Salovey, P., & Grewal, D. (2005). The science of emotional intelligence. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 14(6), 281–285.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9(3), 185–211. https://doi.org/10.2190/dugg-p24e-52wk-6cdg

Salvucci, D. D., & Bogunovich, P. (2010). Multitasking and monotasking. Proceedings of the

28th International Conference on Human Factors in Computing Systems - CHI '10. https://doi.org/10.1145/1753326.1753340

Schaufeli, W. B., & Greenglass, E. R. (2001). Introduction to special issue on burnout and health. Psychology & Health, 16(5), 501–510.

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

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Bibik, C., Coston, T. D., Greeson, C., Jedlicka, C., Wendorf, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. The Journal of Social Psychology, 141(4), 423-536.

Schutte, N. S., Schuettpelz, E., & Malouff, J. M. (2000/2001). Emotional intelligence and task performance. Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 20(4), 347-354.

Shafiq, M., & Rana, R. A. (2016). Relationship of emotional intelligence to organizational commitment of college teachers in Pakistan. Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 62, 1-14. doi:10.14689/ ejer.2016.62.1

Shakil Ahmad, M., Fakhr, Z., & Ahmed, J. (2011). Working women work-life conflict. Business Strategy Series, 12(6).

Shih, H., and Susanto, E. (2010). Conflict management styles, emotional intelligence, and job performance in public organizations. Int. J. Confl. Manag. 21, 147–168. doi: 10.1108/10444061011037387

Shukla, A., & Srivastava, R. (2016). Examining the effect of emotional intelligence on socio-

demographic variable and job stress among retail employees. Cogent Business & Management, 3(1), 1-18. doi:10.1080/23311975.2016.1201905

Smith, P. R. (2004). Elder care, gender, and work: The work–family issue of the 21st century. Berkeley Journal of Employment and Labor Law, 25(2), 351–399. https://www.jstor.org/stable/24052201

Sparks, K., & Cooper, C. L. (1999). Occupational differences in the work-strain relationship: Towards the use of situation-specific models. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 72(2), 219–229.

Spector, P. E., & Jex, S. M. (1998). Development of four self-report measures of job stressors and strain: Interpersonal conflict at work scale, organizational constraints scale, quantitative workload inventory, and physical symptoms inventory. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 3(4), 356–367. https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.3.4.356

Srivasan P.T. (2005). Emotional intelligence and conflict management styles among management teachers and students' uac funded field study. Department of Management Studies, University of Madras.

Srna, S., Schrift, R. Y., & Zauberman, G. (2018). The illusion of multitasking and its positive effect on performance. Psychological Science, 29, 1942–1955.

Stevens, J. M., Beyer, J. M., & Trice, H. M. (1978). Assessing personal, role, and organizational predictors of managerial commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 21(3), 380–396. https://doi.org/10.5465/255721

Strayer, D. L., & Johnston, W. A. (2001). Driven to distraction: Dual-task studies of simulated driving and conversing on cellular telephone. Psychological Science, 12, 462–466.

Sultana, R. (2018). Emotional intelligence and multitasking ability predictors of marital adjustment of working married individuals. FWU Journal of Social Sciences, 12(2).

Susan M. (2006). Organizational response to conflict: Future conflict and work outcomes. Social work research, 28, 25-32

Szameitat, A. J., Hamaida, Y., Tulley, R. S., Saylik, R., & Otermans, P. C. J. (2015). "Women are better than men"–Public beliefs on gender differences and other aspects in multitasking. PLOS ONE, 10(10).

Taylor, S. E., Repetti, R. L., & Seeman, T. (1997). Health psychology: What is an unhealthy environment and how does it get under the skin? Annu. Rev. Psycol., 48(4), 11–47.

Thomas, K. W. (1992). Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 13(3), 265–274.

Thory, K. (2013). Teaching managers to regulate their emotions better: insights from emotional intelligence training and work-based application. Human Resource Development International, 16(1), 4–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2012.738473

Trafton, J. Gregory., Altmann, E. M., Brock, D. P., & Mintz, F. E. (2003). Preparing to resume an interrupted task: effects of prospective goal encoding and retrospective rehearsal. International Journal of Human-Computer Studies, 58(5), 583–603. https://doi.org/10.1016/s1071-5819(03)00023-5

Valente, S., & Lourenço, A. A. (2020). Conflict in the classroom: How teachers' emotional

intelligence influences conflict management. Frontiers in Education, 5. https://doi.org/10.3389/feduc.2020.00005

Van Rooy, D. L., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 65(1), 71–95. https://doi.org/10.1016/s0001-8791(03)00076-9

Vashisht, R., Singh, K., & Sharma, S. (2018). Emotional intelligence and its relationship with conflict management and occupational stress: A meta-analysis. Pacific Business Review International, 11(4).

Vatankhah S., Raeesi P., Kalhor. (2008) Relation between emotional intelligence with conflict management strategies in Qazvin hospitals administrators. Health management Journal, 32(11), 41- 46 (in Persian)

Warrier, U., Shankar, A., & Belal, H. M. (2021). Examining the role of emotional intelligence as a moderator for virtual communication and decision-making effectiveness during the COVID-19 crisis: Revisiting task technology fit theory. Annals of Operations Research. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10479-021-04216-8

Weider-Hatfiled, D., & Hatfield, J. D. (1995). Relationships among conflict management styles, levels of conflict, and reactions to work. The Journal of Social Psychology, 135(6), 687-698.

Weigl, M., Müller, A., Sevdalis, N., & Angerer, P. (2012). Relationships of Multitasking, Physicians' Strain, and Performance. Journal of Patient Safety, 9(1), 1. https://doi.org/10.1097/pts.0b013e31826b7b87

Weintraub, J., Pattusamy, M., & Dust, S. B. (2018). Mindful multitasking: Disentangling the

    effect of polychronicity on work–home conflict and life satisfaction. The Journal of

    Social Psychology, 159(4), 497–502. https://doi.org/10.1080/00224545.2018.1523783

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of

    the structure, Causes and Consequences of Affective Experiences at Work. Research

    in Organizational Behavior, 18, 1–74.

Wolters, C. A. (2003). Understanding procrastination from a self-regulated learning

    perspective. Journal of Educational Psychology, 95, 179-187.

Wong, C.-S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence

    on performance and attitude. The Leadership Quarterly, 13(3), 243–274.

Wu, Y. (2011). Job stress and job performance among employees in the Taiwanese finance

    sector: The role of emotional intelligence. Social Behavior and Personality, 39(1), 21-

    32. doi:10.2224/sbp.2011.39.1.21

Yu, C.-S., Sardessai, R. M., Lu, J., & Zhao, J.-H. (2006). Relationship of emotional intelligence

    with conflict management styles: an empirical study in China. International Journal of

    Management and Enterprise Development, 3(1/2), 19–29.

Zaheer, A., Islam, J. U., & Darakhshan, N. (2016). Occupational Stress and Work-Life

    Balance: A Study of Female Faculties of Central Universities in Delhi, India. Journal

    of Human Resource Management, 4(1), 1-5.

Zia, Dr. Y. A., & Syed, P. H. (2013). An exploratory study into the causes of conflict and the

    effect of conflict management style on outcome in a competitive workplace. Journal of

Managerial Sciences, 7(2).

APPENDICES

Consent Form

This research aims to find **"The impact of emotional intelligence on the work overload, multitasking and conflict management of working women"**. The findings may help to improve the working environment of organizations, therefore you are requested to cooperate and fill the form with full honesty. This is highly confidential and your identity is not required. The data will only be used for the purpose of this specific research and it will not be shared with any organization what so ever.

I'll be thankful for your cooperation.

Demographic Information (required)

Age: _____   **No. of children:** _____

Years of experience: _____   **Family system: Joint / Nuclear**

Working hours per day: _____

Marital Status: married / unmarried

For all the forms ahead, read the statements carefully and mark the level of agreement in front.

Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory–II

Please check the appropriate box after each statement, to indicate *how you handle your disagreement or conflict with your supervisor***. Try to recall as many recent conflict situations as possible in ranking these statements.**

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1	I try to investigate an issue with my supervisor to find a solution acceptable to us					
2	I generally try to satisfy the needs of my supervisor					
3	I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" and try to keep my conflict with my supervisor to myself					
4	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my supervisor to come up with a decision jointly					
5	I try to work with my supervisor to find solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations					
6	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my supervisor					
7	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse (a situation in which no progress is possible, especially because of disagreement)					
8	I use my influence to get my ideas accepted					

9	I use my authority to make a decision in my favor					
10	I usually accommodate the wishes of my supervisor.					
11	I give in to the wishes of my supervisor					
12	I exchange accurate information with my supervisor to solve a problem together					
13	I usually allow concessions to my supervisor					
14	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks					
15	I negotiate with my supervisor so that a compromise can be reached					
16	I try to stay away from disagreement with my supervisor					
17	I avoid an encounter with my supervisor					
18	I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor					
19	I often go along with the suggestions of my supervisor					

20	I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made					
21	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue					
22	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way					
23	I collaborate with my supervisor to come up with decisions acceptable to us					
24	I try to satisfy the expectations of my supervisor					
25	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation					
26	I try to keep my disagreement with my supervisor to myself in order to avoid hard feelings					
27	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my supervisor					
28	I try to work with my supervisor for a proper understanding of a problem					

The multitasking Preference Inventory

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I prefer to work on several projects in a day, rather than completing one project and then switching to another					
2	I would like to work in a job where I was constantly shifting from one task to another, like a receptionist or an air traffic controller					

3	I lose interest in what I am doing if I have to focus on the same task for long periods of time, without thinking about or doing something else					
4	When doing a number of assignments, I like to switch back and forth between them rather than do one at a time					
5	I like to finish one task completely before focusing on anything else					
6	It makes me uncomfortable when I am not able to finish one task completely before focusing on another task.					
7	I am much more engaged in what I am doing if I am able to switch between several different tasks					
8	I do not like having to shift my attention between multiple tasks.					
9	I would rather switch back and forth between several projects than concentrate my efforts on just one					
10	I would prefer to work in an environment where I can finish one task					

	before starting the next.					
11	I don't like when I have to stop in the middle of a task to work on something else.					
12	When I have a task to complete, I like to break it up by switching to other tasks intermittently.					
13	I have a "one-track" mind.					
14	I prefer not to be interrupted when working on a task					

Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I have a good sense of why I feel certain feelings most of the time.							
2	I have a good understanding of my own emotions							
3	I really understand what I feel							

4	I always know whether I am happy or not							
5	I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior							
6	I am a good observer of others' emotions							
7	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others							
8	I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me							
9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them							
10	I always tell myself I am a competent person							
11	I am a self-motivating person							
12	I would always encourage myself to try my							

	best						
13	I am able to control my temper so that I can handle difficulties rationally						
14	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions						
15	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry						
16	I have good control of my emotions						

Reilly's Role Overload Scale

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I have to do things that I do not really have the time and energy for							
2	I need more hours in the day to do all the things that are expected of me							
3	I cannot ever seem to catch up							
4	I do not ever seem to have any time for myself							
5	There are times when I cannot meet everyone's expectations							

6	I seem to have more commitments to overcome than other colleagues I know						