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41 Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership
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Introduction

> If those who are now called leaders do not acquire authentic and adequate philosophical education and . . . if both political power and philosophical mind do not characterize the same individual . . . then there will be no end of misfortunes for the cities. (Plato, *Republic* E, 473–4)

Over recent decades effective leadership perceptions and study results have shifted interest towards interpersonal skills (Palmer *et al*., 2001) and the leader's ability to motivate subordinates, create and maintain a sense of contribution to the organization as a whole, contrary to the previous perceptions of inspecting, controlling and planning leaders. Current research focuses on identifying traits and/or aspects of behaviour that constitute the fundamental elements for contemporary effective leadership roles, as much in order to enhance the development of effective leaders as to identify and recruit them success-fully (Pratch and Jacobowitz, 1998). Emotional intelligence is a relatively new concept, which is receiving a lot of attention, with vast applicability in many organizational areas, including job satisfaction, commitment and performance (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Wright and Staw, 1999).

Recently in-depth study of leadership within organizations has addressed the concept of effective leadership. Furthermore however certain research groups claim that the notion of emotional intelligence applies to the largest proportion of effectiveness in leader behaviour (Hay Group, 2000). There are various leadership models that aim to create the conceptual basis of leader behaviour and the interaction between the leader–member dyad, with the transactional leadership model as one of the most influential. However, during the last decade, transformational leadership has been well established as the most effective leadership behaviour as it is primarily related to and based upon emotions and emotion-based interaction (Palmer *et al*., 2001). This chapter aims to establish that trans-formational leadership behaviours constitute an emotion-based approach, which is directed towards broadening and elevating subordinate interests beyond the self. This approach is concerned with the accomplishment of group tasks and the common mission, generating subordinates' acceptance and awareness (Yammering and Bass, 1990; Hartog *et al*., 1997).

Emotions and emotional intelligence

Emotions constitute the highest form of the sensory relationship between humans and the objects and facts of reality; this relationship is characterized by relative stability, generality and correlation between needs and values which have been developed throughout an indi-vidual's personal development. Emotions are distinguished from psychic circumstantial

excitation and are directed towards phenomena which are of constant importance and which, moreover, are responsible for the direction of the individual's activity. They appear as a specific and subjective form of human existence, emphasizing those elements which are important for the individual and which drive his/her actions towards the satisfaction of their needs (Karpenko *et al.*, 1998).

The formation of stable emotional relationships is the most important presupposition of personality development. It constitutes the main aim and ultimate result of the individual's learning ability. The conscious knowledge of motives, models and behavioural stipulations alone is not enough to guide the individual's existence within society. On the contrary, only when the individual becomes possessed of stable emotions is this knowledge shaped and formed into behaviour. During the process of personality formation, emotions are organized into a hierarchical system in which some of those emotions maintain their original position in less dynamic levels of self-actualization, while others move on to a more powerful position. (Viliounas and Gippenreiter, 1984).

Every aspect of human activity is accompanied by a variety of emotions. The importance of emotional management has led to the designation and study of emotional intelligence and its abilities, especially in organizational settings. The intense and competitive challenges of the international economy are accompanied by changes in managing and organizing modern organizations and individual organizational behaviour and their adaptation to the ever-growing demands of the workplace. The increased competition favours individuals who possess personal motives, show initiative, have the inner tendency to surpass themselves and their personal limits, and are optimistic enough to use constructively any obstacle they meet on the way.

Psychological assessment has proved to be of great value and significance, since organizational performance and effectiveness directly depend on placing the right person in the right position. Work-related demands presuppose appropriate abilities and capabilities, which result from the careful analysis of profession and position requirements. The appropriate and valid analysis of demands relative to an organizational position depends on the correct choice of psychometric tools. Research indicates that there is a close relationship between organizational productivity and the choice of the appropriate psychometric tool for candidate recruitment (Anastasi, 1982).

Research conducted during recent decades in order to identify the factors related to eminent occupational performance has widely questioned the fact that occupational success is related to intellectual intelligence. At the very dawn of psychological theorizing and research on intellectual intelligence (IQ), psychologists focused on the cognitive aspects of intelligence such as memory and problem solving. Quite early, though, they recognized aspects in intelligence that were non-cognitive and equally important, such as social and affective factors. Wechsler (1943) suggested that there are some 'non-intellective' factors (p. 103), which determine intelligence, while Thorndike (1920), suggested there must be multiple intelligences and that measuring intra- and interpersonal intelligence is as important as measuring intellectual intelligence with the IQ test.

The notion of emotional intelligence was built on the long tradition of theory and research on the non-cognitive factors which are related to people's success as much in life as in the workplace, and is a term coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who described emotional intelligence as 'a form of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor

one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action'.

Emotional intelligence (EQ) is the term which refers to those other non-intellective factors that lead to healthy relationships and success in life and career (McMullen, 2003). It is also the ability to manage emotions, linked and not opposed to intellectual intelligence (McMullen, 2002).

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to know when and how to express emotion as well as being able to control it. Barsade (1998) conducted an experiment at Yale University which included volunteers instructed to play the role of managers, allocating bonuses to their subordinates. Among them, a trained actor was instructed always to talk first; he was enthusiastic and cheerful within some groups, hostile and depressed in others. The results of the experiment were twofold: on the one hand, the actor proved to be capable of 'infecting' group feelings and emotions. On the other, positive emotions resulted in improved inner group cooperation and fairness in distributing the bonuses to their 'subordinates'.

Another important element of emotional intelligence in the workplace is the ability to manage stress. This emotional competence is linked to success. In a retail store chain, the most successful store managers were those who were able to manage stressful situations, while their success was based on sales per employee, sales per square foot and net profits (Luscha and Serpkeuci, 1990). This aspect of EQ is closely connected to Seligman's (1990) notion of 'learned optimism'.

This construct refers to the causal attributions made by individuals when confronted with failure: pessimists tend to attribute internally, globally and permanently, while, on the contrary, optimists tend to attribute externally, specifically and temporarily (Cherniss, 2000); optimism leads to increased productivity. New salesmen at Met Life, who scored high on the 'learned optimism' scale, sold 37 per cent more life insurance policies than those who scored high on 'pessimism' in their two first years in the organization (Seligman, 1990).

As research studies reveal, IQ has not proved to be a very good predictor of organizational performance (Poon Teng Fatt, 2002). The results of a study of 80 PhD science candidates who, when they were students at Berkeley University in the 1950s, undertook a series of personality tests, IQ tests and interviews, showed that, 40 years later, when monitored on their success by experts in their own field and based on their résumés, emotional and social abilities were four times more important in determining professional success than their IQ scores (Cherniss, 2000).

Although cognitive ability has been demonstrated to play a less important and/or a more limited role in determining professional success, there are a number of studies which stress the fact that cognitive and non-cognitive abilities are interlinked, suggesting mutual cooperation between the IQ and the EQ (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). The most famous example is the 'marshmallow' experiment which was conducted during the 1960s at a nursery school, on the Stanford University campus (Shoda *et al.*, 1990). Psychologists interviewed four-year-old children individually and offered them the following choice: they would either be given one marshmallow or, if they waited for 15–20 minutes until the experimenter came back into the room, they would be given two. Some children found ways to distract themselves and wait until the experimenter came back, while other children

impulsively grabbed the marshmallow as soon as the experimenter had left the room. When, 14 years later, those same children were tracked down and interviewed, those who had waited were more motivated and capable of coping with life's frustrations, while their ability to delay gratification contributed to their intellectual potential (Goleman, 1996).

Approaches to emotional intelligence

Emotions are becoming recognized as an important element of organizational life and good conduct. Emotional intelligence theorists (Gardner, 1983; Bar-On, 1988, 2000; Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 2001; Rozell *et al.*, 2002) have proposed many ideas, drawing on psychoanalytic, behavioural and brain research, which illustrate that emotional intelligence can become a loyal organizational servant (Gabriel and Griffiths, 2002). The most significant of these ideas is that the majority of modern organizations depend on emotional skills such as empathy, self-awareness and sensitivity.

Furthermore, unlike intellectual intelligence, emotional intelligence is capable of developing and improving through types of training. According to Bar-On (1997), IQ reaches its highest peak at about 21 years of age, while emotional intelligence develops from an individual's childhood experiences to his late adulthood. Dulewicz and Higgs (1999) suggest that emotional intelligence consists of seven components. These fall into two categories: (a) learned and developed skills of emotional intelligence, such as coaching, and (b) skills and aspects which are related to the individuals' personality. There are many approaches that attempt to explain the value of emotion throughout various aspects of human life; three of the most important are briefly discussed below.

Social constructionist approach to emotional intelligence

One of the most interesting approaches to emotional intelligence is the social constructionist approach. According to this approach, emotions are social phenomena which help to make sense of social situations and enable individuals to respond and function effectively in them (Fineman, 1993, 1997; Mangham, 1998). The quality of each emotion – pleasant or disturbing – depends on the individual's interpretation of each situation, which is tested through the individual's relationship with others. Emotions are shaped by culture; culture provides the background and the unwritten rules which refer the appropriateness of each emotion to a given situation and audience: emotions are situation-specific. Moreover, according to social constructionists, emotions preserve individual values and signal the individual's needs for change (Lazarus, 1991).

Applied in the workplace, the individual's adopted emotional responses are not a simple expression of emotional intelligence, but a form of compliance with higher-status individuals within the organization (Ackroyd and Thompson, 1999). This form of compliance, according to this approach, occasionally leads to the individual feeling alienated, and is capable of causing burnout. Fineman and Gabriel (2000) have put forward the following ideas, which are the most significant in the social constructionist approaches to emotion:

- emotions constitute social phenomena,
- emotions are situation-specific,
- emotions have practical use,

● emotions are described through the use of language and are enacted in the presence of an audience,
● emotions reconcile social aspects of emotions with personal feelings.

Psychoanalytic approach to emotional intelligence
Like the social constructionist approach, psychoanalysis places emotion at the centre of human affairs, dismissing the view that emotions can be deployed according to self-interest and quantified within one category, such as emotional intelligence. Psychoanalysis can be a useful tool for unravelling an organization's emotional life. According to psychoanalysis, emotions belong to pre-social, pre-linguistic and primitive levels of human existence (Craib, 1998). The unconscious is viewed as the arena, which is both a source of emotions and ideas threatening mental functioning and a territory of defensive mechanisms protecting the individual's equilibrium from painful and dangerous thoughts. Organizations are viewed as much as a source of creativity and excitement for the individual as a source of discontent and illusion (Gabriel and Carr, 2002).

Emotions are seen as a coping mechanism which enables the individual to adapt to different circumstances every time. Emotions and rationality are viewed as conflicting principles which drive our motivation (Antonacopoulou and Gabriel, 2001). Psychoanalysis recognizes the complexity of our motivations. Human motivation is driven by the unconscious and, even though there are often conscious explanations for certain actions or thoughts, psychoanalysis will examine the chance of unconscious factors affecting that particular human action.

Therefore, while for some people work is a mere necessity, for others it constitutes an arena in which to enhance their super-ego and/or build their self-esteem (Smelser, 1998; Obholzer, 1999). Psychoanalysis has been widely criticized but, no matter how problematic, it can offer valuable insights on organizational life and conduct.

Philosophical approach to emotional intelligence
Boyatzis *et al*. (2000) suggested that, since an individual's operating philosophy surpasses any social environment, the missing link between values and behaviour is philosophy; philosophy would therefore seem important in explaining individual behaviour, as it is related to the individual's values and beliefs. Conceptually values are individual beliefs about one or multiple theories; they are conditional and/or instrumental (Rokeach, 1973) and expressive (Hetcher, 1993). According to Rokeach (1973), values are combined into systems, while they are organizations of beliefs and a continuum of relevant importance for the individual, which concerns 'end states' or the individual's preferred conduct (p. 5).

Boyatzis *et al*. (2000) argue that, in order to find the link between individuals' values and behaviour, a close and thorough examination of an individual's operating philosophy may prove to be the key. Work preferences and interests are closely related to the values and value system of every individual. The authors based their study upon three major operating philosophies which appear to influence the beliefs and thoughts of individuals in different ways: the pragmatic, intellectual and human operating philosophy.

1. Based on major philosophies such as pragmatism (Pierce, 1931; Rorty, 1991), instrumentalism (Dewey, 1917), consequentialism (Pettit, 1993) and utilitarianism (Mill,

1991), this operating philosophy stresses the importance of worth. The individual acts and behaves in ways that promote and maximize benefit. According to the moral personality which is shaped by rational enquiry and the community in which the individuals live (Singer, 1995), individuals acting on pragmatic operating philosophy value money because it applies to all aspects of human conduct, and not because money is the ultimate end of their lives.

2. Based on rationalism (Descartes, 1955; Spinoza, 1985) and philosophical structuralism (Levi-Strauss, 1967) as well as postmodernism (Nietzsche, 1968), individuals acting according to intellectual operating philosophy assess their actions and activities in terms of their consistency with particular sets of rules or guidelines. In a way closely related to the social constructionist approach, the individual constructs an image of the world and how it works. This construction provides emotional security for the individual. Truth is based on what is known and what is known is based on reason; what is known is a social construction and, therefore, contextually relative.

3. Finally, the individual with human operating philosophy, based on humanism (Sellars, 1933), collectivism (Chamberlin, 1937) and hermeneutics (Gadamer, 1977), views personal bonds in people and relationships as the ultimate meaning of life. Faithfulness to human values and loyalty are the basic traits of these individuals, while they believe that the value of an activity is based on its impact on the people to whom they relate.

Compared to earlier constructs (Kluckhohn, 1951; Allport *et al*., 1960; Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961; Holland, 1985, 1996; Schwartz, 1992; Kahle, 1996), the conceptual approach to operating philosophies provides a more fundamental personality structure (Boyatzis *et al*., 1999). According to the authors, a person's operating philosophy does not easily change over any period time, if ever.

Emotional intelligence frameworks
H. Gardner (1983), a Harvard psychologist and one of the most influential theorists of Intelligence, introduced a widely acknowledged model of 'multiple intelligences'; he is now recognized as the pioneer in distinguishing between intellectual and emotional capacities. Gardner stressed the importance of culture and brain structure in relation to seven proposed intelligences: parallel to cognitive, verbal and mathematical abilities, he recognized two types of 'personal intelligences', which referred to knowing oneself and one's social relationships.

Less than a decade later, Bar-On's (1988) work was considered to be the first attempt to evaluate and measure emotional intelligence. Based on a 19-year research, the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory is designed to measure constructs which are related to EQ as a better predictor of occupational success than the traditional measures of intellectual intelligence (IQ) (Boyatzis and Van Oosten, 2002; Cavallo and Brienza, 2003).

The Mayer and Salovey framework of emotional intelligence
A complete framework of emotional intelligence was suggested by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who defined EQ as an individual's ability to control and appraise his/her emotions and the emotions of others, the ability to distinguish between emotions and to use them

in such ways that they direct the individual's thought and actions. The authors put great emphasis on the cognitive dimension of EQ, in which ability is based on complex and interactive psychological processes between emotion and cognition (Mayer and Salovey, 1997). Their framework is divided into four components:

1. *Perception, appraisal and expression of emotions*: the individual's ability to identify emotions and their content, to express their emotional needs and to be able to distinguish false emotions through careful inner evaluation.
2. *Emotion's facilitation of thinking*: this component involves the individual's ability to recognize different emotions and differentiate between them accordingly. From birth, emotions indicate environmental and personal changes which can be generated on demand so that they are better understood.
3. *Understanding and analysing emotions; employing emotional knowledge*: the individual's understanding of emotions and the ability to use them. This understanding will also enable the individual to recognize contradictory emotions and their combination.
4. *Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth*: this component involves the individual's ability to elaborate on effective strategies which may be used as an aid to achieving goals. This component promotes the individual's intellectual and emotional growth.

Goleman's framework of emotional competencies
Model no. 1 (Goleman, 1998b)   Drawing on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model on EQ, Goleman (1998b) developed his emotional competency framework which can be applied to organizational settings. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence is related to motivation: the ability to manage emotions in relationships, motivating oneself and recognizing personal and others' feelings and emotions; this element was not included in the Mayer and Salovey framework. Goleman's model includes five basic components and 25 emotional and social abilities (Table 41.1):

1. *Self-awareness*: the individual's ability to acknowledge his/her emotions at any given moment and to be able to use them as a guide to decision making, realistically evaluating his/her abilities and values.
2. *Self-regulation*: the individual's ability to handle emotions in such a way as not to interfere with given tasks (Mischel *et al.*, 1990).
3. *Motivation*: the individual's emotional tendency that leads him/her towards the achievement of goals.
4. *Empathy*: the individual's ability to 'read' the non-verbal expression of others' needs, to be aware of their feelings and to be able to consider others' perspectives.
5. *Social skills*: this component involves the individual's accurate reading of social situations and the effective handling of relationships. This person will be better able to interact and lead in teamwork and generally in organizations.

Model no. 2 (Goleman, 2000)   Following a number of studies carried out in order to test the best way of adapting this model to the new statistical data, Goleman (2000) corrected

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Table 41.1   Goleman's framework of emotional competencies

a (1998)	b (2000)
Self-awareness	**Self-awareness**
emotional awareness	emotional awareness
accurate Self-assessment	accurate self-assessment
self-confidence	self-confidence
Self-regulation	**Self-management**
self-control	self-control
trustworthiness	trustworthiness
conscientiousness	conscientiousness
adaptability	adaptability
innovativeness	achievement orientation
Self-motivation	initiative
achievement	**Social-awareness**
commitment	insight
initiative	service orientation
optimism	organizational awareness
Empathy	**Relationship management**
empathy	influence
service orientation	communication
developing others	leadership
leveraging diversity	change catalyst
political awareness	conflict management
Social skills	building bonds
influence	collaboration and cooperation
communication	team capabilities
leadership	
change catalyst	
conflict management	
building bonds	
collaboration and cooperation	
team capabilities	

his model of emotional competency by reducing it to four components and 20 emotional and social abilities (Table 41.1):

1. *Self-awareness*: the individual's ability to acknowledge his/her inner psychic state, preferences and personal resources.
2. *Self-management*: the individual's ability to manage his/her emotions and impulses.
3. *Social-awareness*: the individual's ability to acknowledge his/her social environment. As with 'social skills', the individual who possesses this ability is able to interact better with others around him/her and lead teams and organizations in general.
4. *Relationship management*: the individual's ability to manage relationships and effectively read the social situations in which he/she is an active member.

Table 41.2   Measures of emotional intelligence

1. Work Profile Questionnaire – emotional intelligence version (WPQ EI)
2. Emotional Competence Inventory 360° (ECI 360°) (Boyatzis *et al*., 1999)
3. Multifactoral Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS™) (Mayer and Salovey, 1997)
4. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On EQ-I) (Bar-On, 1997)

Based on these frameworks, especially designed psychometric tools have been constructed to measure the dimensions of emotional intelligence, which vary according to the model on which they are based and collaborated form (Table 41.2). Each questionnaire bases its validity directly on the definition and dimensions defined by its authors. More research is needed in order for future conclusions to be based on more objective results and in order to avoid simple description of personality characteristics when referring to dimensions of emotional intelligence, which may not actually refer to the subject studied.

Emotional intelligence and leadership
In modern organizations, which are more service-oriented (Perrella, 1999) the old inspecting, controlling and plan-oriented image of leaders has evolved into leadership roles which are more inspiring and motivation-oriented, aiming to give a sense of importance and individual contribution to the employees of the organization (Hogan *et al*., 1994). Authors argue that the effective management of organizations is facing continual challenges: organization downsizing, a plethora of information available, and so on (Luthans, 1998).

Leadership skills, which have become the most important asset of effective managers (Messmer, 1999), are based on interpersonal skills and need to be appropriate and decisive according to the situation (Cacioppe, 1997). Studies indicate that there are six specific traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders: the ambition and desire to lead, task-relevant knowledge and self-confidence, intelligence, integrity, honesty and high levels of energy (Kilpatrick and Locke, 1991).

But what are the characteristics of a leader? This question still generates a lot of debate but, nevertheless, theorists argue that there are specific traits shared by all leaders (Bennis, 1994) (Table 41.3):

1. Leaders have a vision; a clear idea about their pursuits, regardless of setbacks and obstacles.
2. Leaders have passion; they are able to inspire, motivate and communicate their passion to others.
3. Leaders are characterized by integrity, honesty, maturity and self-knowledge.
4. Leaders have passion for learning and exploring new horizons.
5. Leaders are daring and willing to take risks.

The major themes that emerge in the literature relative to leadership theory, which is power-oriented (McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982), are transformational and transactional leadership (Robbins *et al*., 1994; Hartog *et al*., 1997). Bennis' (1994) description applies to transformational leadership qualities. Leaders have emotional intelligence and their

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Table 41.3   Bennis' list of differences between a manager and a leader (Bennis, 1994)

a Manager	a Leader
Administers	Innovates
Is a copy	Is an original
Maintains	Develops
Focuses on systems and structure	Focuses on people
Relies on control	Inspires trust
Has a short–range view	Has a long–range
Asks how and when	Asks what and why
Has his eye on the bottom line	Has his eye on the horizon
Imitates	Originates
Accepts the status quo	Challenges it
Is the classic good soldier	Is his own person
Does things right	Does the right thing

responsibility is to implement an organization at all levels, by creating a work environment where individuals are responsible for their performance, where individual competencies are developed, where individuals are challenged to learn new things and where ownership is transferred from work itself to those who do the work (Belasco and Stayer, 1993). Although this chapter will focus on transformational leadership and its relation to emotional intelligence, contrasting it to the transactional model – both continually emerge in research – it will analyse the relationship of this particular type of leadership and EQ.

Transactional versus transformational leadership
Transactional leadership is largely based on the exchange between the leader and the subordinates. The major goal of the transactional leader is to motivate and guide followers in the direction of the desired goal. Originally the transactional leadership theory was based on two distinct behaviours: contingent rewards and passive management (Yukl, 1998). The transactional leader uses rewards in order to influence followers' motivation and punishments in response to deviation from the standards set by him/her, relative to acceptable performance.

On revision of the theory, Bass and Avolio (1990) added two more categories to the transactional leadership model: active management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. The former describes the leader as correcting the subordinates' actions in order to achieve the desired result, while the latter, laissez-faire leadership, refers to the leader's passive indifference, not only to the task at hand but also to the individual follower.

According to Bass (1998), the transactional relationship between the leader and the follower entails an exchange between the two: the follower acts accordingly in response to or in anticipation of rewards and support from the leader. When the organizational environment or even the very nature of the job has failed to provide the subordinate with the necessary motivation and satisfaction, the leader will compensate for this deficiency

through his/her action and behaviour (Hartog *et al.*, 1997). Examples of the transactional leadership approach are the situational leadership theory (Cacioppe, 1997), the vertical dyad theory (Graen and Scandura, 1987) and the path–goal theory (House and Mitchell, 1974; Indvink, 1986). A variety of transactional theories have been tested and some of them in particular have received considerable support.

Transformational leaders have the ability to lead their followers' actions in favour of the organization, often by stressing their followers' individual importance to the organization and the independence of their individual effort (Yukl and Fleet, 1992), inspiring them to do more than expected. Research indicates that transformational leaders motivate their followers and encourage them to go beyond their personal interests and act in favour of the group, generating acceptance for the mission of the group (Yammering and Bass, 1990).

Transformational leaders stimulate their followers' intellect, paying attention to individual differences and creating a realistic vision of the future. The original theory on transformational leadership included three types of behaviour (Bass, 1985) descriptive of the transformational leader: individual consideration (providing support and encouragement), charisma (arousing followers' emotions and providing the fertile ground for identification with the leader) and intellectual stimulation (inspiring followers to view situations and problems from new perspectives).

The revision of the theory (Bass and Avolio, 1990) added a fourth category, inspirational motivation, which referred to the leader's ability to communicate a vision to followers and to model appropriate behaviours according to the circumstances. The ability to promote integrity between people and systems within the organization, so that it is directed towards a vision, is another aspect of effective transformational leadership (Hughes *et al.*, 1994).

Finally, transformational leaders are able to inspire followers to pursue high values and, even though they might leave the organizational environment, followers will continue their efforts to achieve the original vision (Pitcher, 1999). Another dimension should be added at this point: the dimension of pseudo-transformational leaders (Bass, 1998). Pseudo-transformational leaders act like transformational leaders but in fact are not concerned with sacrificing their own self-interests either for the organization or for the common goal or good (Avolio, 1999) (Table 41.4).

A number of studies have been conducted with the aim of establishing whether subordinates can differentiate between transactional and transformational leadership behaviours, giving diverse results: some studies indicate that subordinates seem to be able to differentiate between the two leadership behaviours (Atwater and Yammering, 1993; Yammering and Dubinsky, 1994), while other studies (Scandura and Schriesheim, 1994) indicate that even though the two leadership behaviours seem to be distinct from each other subordinates may not be able to differentiate between them (Fields and Herold, 1997).

And, while the two theories of leadership may be distinct (Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999) (Table 41.5), authors argue (Burns, 1978; Hater and Bass, 1988) that this does not imply that they are not related, but rather that they are the two opposite ends of the same continuum. This suggestion could indicate that a leader could be both transactional and transformational at the same time (Bryman, 1992) since both are active leadership styles

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Table 41.4 Examples of pseudo-transformational and transformational leaders (Avolio, 1999) (extracts)

Pseudo-transformational leaders	Transformational leaders
Idi Amin	Andrew Carnegie
Nicolae Ceausescu	Mahatma Gandhi
Adolf Hitler	Marshal Tito
Joseph Goebbels	Bishop Desmond Tutu

Distinguishing characteristics

Pseudo-transformational leaders	Transformational leaders
self-aggrandizing	envisions a more desirable future
dominating	seeks consensus and is sympathetic
exploitative of others	respects differences and develops independent followers
manipulative	unites through internalization of mission and values
unites through fear/compliance	is self-sacrificing and trustworthy

and behaviours. Thite (1999), who examined the leadership styles of technical project teams, found that successful team leaders were those who were more transformational but also those who were rated as active transactional leaders.

Nevertheless laissez-faire leadership, which applies to the transactional leadership model, contrasts with transformational leadership since it constitutes a passive and inactive type of leadership behaviour (Yammering *et al.*, 1993); its passive and inactive element could, justifiably, indicate the absence of leadership. But, as Hartog *et al.* (1997) argue, this more passive leader behaviour may empower subordinates, making it a useful component of the transformational style of leadership.

Many research efforts have been made to determine whether leadership and subordinates' evaluation of leaders are related to gender differences and gender stereotypes. Eagly and Johnston (1990), in their meta-analytic review, found that male leaders were more task-oriented, autocratic and directive than female leaders who were more interpersonally oriented, democratic (Carless, 1998), showed more collaboration and shared decision making with others within the group (Eagly *et al.*, 1991; Kakabadse and Kakabadse, 1999).

Studies also suggest that female leaders are more transformational than male leaders in organizational settings (Bass and Avolio, 1992), but also in more non-organizational and more non-traditional settings (Druskat, 1994). Since the literature indicates that women use more transformational leadership styles and, therefore, may actually be more effective and accepted by subordinates (Maher, 1997), why is it that, throughout history, the greatest leaders were male?

Table 41.5   Distinguishing transformational from transactional leadership (Karabadse and Karabadse, 1999)

Attributes	Transformational leader	Transactional leader
Approach	innovate (creates opportunity, imagines new areas to explore)	balance of operations
Interaction	personal in their orientation to group members	role-bounded
Focus	focus on vision, values, expectations and context	focus on control, production and results
Influence	within and outside the construct of structure and their immediate jurisdiction	within the designated group
Motivates through	volitional activity (emotion, offering, suggestions)	formal-authority mechanisms
Use	influence (power)	control
Values	cooperation, unity, equality, justice and fairness in addition to efficiency and effectiveness	coordination, efficiency and effectiveness
Communicate	indirectly and directly, gives overlapping and ambiguous assignment	directly, giving clear directions, solitary assignment
Represents	direction in history	process
Oriented towards	ends	means
Is	philosopher	technologist
Has	transforming impact	transactional impact
Role	discretionary	prescribed
Main tasks	defines and communicates goals, motivates	implements goals, referees, coaches
Thinking time frame	futuristic (tomorrow and the day after)	current (yesterday's output, today's problem)
Thinking context	global	local
Main direction	renewal	maintenance

Gender stereotypes and the perceptions that surround these stereotypes is the answer. The study of gender stereotypes in leader effectiveness is especially important, given the fact that it is directly related to subsequent subordinate behaviour (Darley and Fazio, 1980; Lord and Maher, 1990). Deaux and Major (1987) suggested that, when gender stereotypes in leadership are activated, subordinates' actions are consistent with those stereotypes. Women do not fit well traditional leader stereotypes, while men are expected to be efficient leaders. Eagly *et al*. (1992) found that subordinate biases towards leader gender were the main reason for gender differences relative to leadership.

Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership
Recently scholars have begun to give emphasis to leaders' emotional intelligence when considering organizational improvement (Hesselbein *et al.*, 1996; Cooper, 1997; Harrison, 1997), which is closely related to transformational leadership, as established earlier in this chapter. Transformational leadership has been identified as a significant factor of effectiveness in a variety of organizational contexts (Patterson *et al.*, 1995; Barling *et al.*, 1996; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Geyer and Steyrer, 1998).

Emotional intelligence, as a milestone of effective transformational leadership, has been shown to enhance leader commitment to the organization (Abraham, 2000), positive emotions towards organizational commitment (George, 2000) and good organizational performance (Watkin, 2000). The effectiveness of transformational leadership has raised questions of how it is developed (Zacharatos *et al.*, 2000) and which factors may predispose individuals to use this particular leadership behaviour (Turner and Barling, 2000).

According to Goleman (1998b), emotional intelligence is a significant element in leader effectiveness. Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) argue that emotional intelligent individuals are more likely to exhibit transformational leadership behaviour, for a number of reasons. On the one hand, transformational leaders have the capability (individualized consideration) to understand their followers' needs, empathize and, therefore, interact more effectively and, as a result, manage relationships in a positive manner. The empathy element of transformational leaders seems to be a pre-requisite to the developing and mentoring of others (Bass, 1998). On the other hand, being able to delay gratification and the ability to manage their own emotions can enhance followers' trust and respect. This will promote positive follower impact and capacity for self-knowledge (Greenspan, 1989).

Butler *et al.* (1999), examined the relationship of transformational leadership to greater trust and job satisfaction of 78 members of self-directed work teams. The authors found that both job satisfaction and greater trust are related to transformational leadership behaviour. Transformational leadership was, moreover, associated with subordinate and leaders' job satisfaction, while it was proved to promote trust between leaders and subordinates, with positive correlation to job satisfaction. These findings are consistent with previous ones of Podsakoff *et al.* (1990), who identified six leadership behaviours which may influence employee job satisfaction and citizenship behaviour:

1. *Articulating a vision*: demonstrating competency, consistency and integrity.
2. *Providing model behaviour*: serving as a role model; a fundamental condition for trust.
3. *Fostering the acceptance of group goals*: showing that everyone, including leaders, is moving in the same direction in order to achieve a goal.
4. *High performance expectations*: anticipating the best possible performance, stressing the leader's expectations of subordinates, showing consistency between values and behaviour.
5. *Individual support*: reassuring subordinates of the leader's loyalty to every individual member while providing support (closely related to trust).
6. *Intellectual stimulation*: providing fertile ground for exploring new horizons.

Gardner and Stough (2002) examined the relationship between leadership style and emotional intelligence in 110 senior level managers. They found that transformational

leadership was strongly related to emotional intelligence, in contrast to transactional leadership. Consistent with other research findings, the authors demonstrated that transformational leaders were able to motivate and shift subordinate organizational emphasis from self to collective organizational interests.

Leaders who used more transformational than transactional behaviours reported being more effective in controlling and managing their emotions, were more understanding of others' emotions and were able to use their emotional knowledge in solving problems. Again recognizing previous research (Barling, Moutinho and Kelloway, 2000; Palmer *et al.*, 2001), found that contingent rewards, even though a transactional leadership component, were positively related to emotional intelligence, clarity of leader expectations and rewards for subordinate performance.

A similar study (Barling, Slater and Kelloway, 2000) investigating the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership concluded that there is an association between three aspects of transformational leadership – inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and idealized influence – with a transactional leadership component: contingent rewards and emotional intelligence. The authors argued that confirmatory factor analysis (Carless, 1998) showed that contingent rewards fit more with transformational rather with transactional leadership. Furthermore they established that laissez-faire leadership is not related to emotional intelligence, as it is a non-active and non-leadership form of behaviour.

Transformational leadership, apart from being related to subordinate motivation and productivity, is also related to the leader's ability to empower norms, which are associated with common assumptions and basic values that give emphasis to the individual subordinate's role and his/her feelings about power and autonomy (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Nanus, 1992). Masi and Cooke (2000) examined the effects of transformational leadership on subordinate motivation, empowering norms and organizational productivity. Empowering norms were closely related to the self-image of the leader. Transferring from organizational settings to leadership politics, Glad and Blanton (1997) examined the leadership behaviours and personal characteristics of Nelson Mandela and F.W. de Klerk, in South Africa. The authors found that charisma is the element that determines the effectiveness of a leader.

Farranda (1999) suggests that leading an organization through major changes is a mission and business practice. The author says that a transformational leader is the person who has the ability to relieve subordinates of their fears of the unknown, who makes subordinates feel responsible for their work, achieving common goals and overcoming obstacles, and, finally, is exceptional in using analytic thinking combined with emotionality in order to bring out the best in people.

Transformational leaders have the emotional background to face up to dilemmas and critical decisions, while acknowledging the fact that common values and beliefs are of great importance for an organization, being able to identify individuals who do not share the values of the organization and make the appropriate changes accordingly (Grubbs, 1999).

Transformational leadership is distinguished from effective managerial practices (Table 41.3) (Bennis, 1994; Tracey and Hinkin, 1998). Tracey and Hinkin (1998) found that, unlike managers, transformational leaders are more prone to critical analysis, evaluation,

problem solving and decision making, factors that are consistent with the element of intellectual stimulation. Furthermore the two additional elements of transformational leadership, idealized influence and individual consideration, were found to emphasize facilitation for performance improvement and self-development. This study is consistent with Cavallo and Brienza's (2003) findings in examining emotional competence and leadership excellence at Johnson and Johnson. The author found that, in 358 managers across the Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group (JJC & PC Group), high performance managers were more significantly correlated with emotional intelligence aspects, self-management, self-awareness and social skills, than average performance managers.

Emotional management and self-awareness have been established as significant elements of effective leadership. In their book *Primal Leadership*, Goleman *et al*. (2002) propose that a leader's emotional duty, to him/herself and to subordinates, is genuine and primal; in other words, the leader's emotional duty is essential and the most important characteristic of effective/resonant leadership. Ekman (2003) found that negative emotions cannot be hidden and are reflected and communicated through facial muscles.

Leading subordinates' emotions in a positive direction is termed by the authors 'coordination and harmony', while leading subordinates' emotions in a negative direction is termed 'dis-coordination and disharmony'. Effective leaders in the 11th September crisis at the World Trade Centre were calming and visible, being constantly able to communicate what was known as much as what was not known, giving hope and optimism through being realistic (American Psychological Association, 2003; Boyatzis, 2003).

Goleman *et al*. (2002), suggested the theoretical framework of primal leadership, which is the hormonal and neural basis of explaining the positive effects and outcomes of transformational leadership, while establishing that the leadership style is linked to brain function, and hormones and competencies linked to emotional intelligence. The development of the model is based upon neurological brain functions which lead to effective leadership. The key element of this model is that it is based on emotions, as regards both the leader's emotions towards subordinates and the respect for others' emotions which are the guiding power of individuals' everyday conduct.

Primal emotions such as fear or anger are filtered in the human brain, as it is designed to 'survive' emergency situations, through the prefrontal brain area, securing more effective reactions by keeping emotions under control and promoting balance between emotions and cognition. The authors argue that elevated cognitive and emotional abilities characterize primal leadership. The neuronic system is responsible for cognitive abilities and emotions, which are separate within the brain but still maintain a close connection.

The connection and collaboration between cognition and emotions is the basis of emotional intelligence and the neural basis of primal leadership. The authors maintain that emotional competencies are not inherent but are the result of learning processes; therefore, they can be taught. Each emotional competency can contribute uniquely to effective and harmonic leadership. Based on the theory of productivity, which brings forward the connection between the neurological bases of emotional intelligence and emotional competencies, the primary argument is that primal leadership has the best results possible through emotional intelligent leaders. On the basis of previous work about emotional competencies, Goleman *et al*. suggest that the most effective leaders so far have

exhibited only two of the four competencies established and that there is no specific way towards primal leadership, since it largely depends upon different personal styles.

Concluding remarks on emotional intelligence and transformational leadership

When considering leadership effectiveness, transformational leadership behaviours and emotional intelligence are emphasized (Sosik and Megerian, 1999). It has been well established through the literature (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Avolio, 1999) that transformational leadership is related to positive organizational outcomes, job satisfaction of both leaders and subordinates (Hater and Bass, 1988; Koh *et al.*, 1995), active organizational commitment (Bycio *et al.*, 1995; Barling *et al.*, 1996) and reduced stress levels (Sosik and Godshalk, 2000) both in field experiments (Howell and Avolio, 1993) and in laboratory studies (Kilpatrick and Locke, 1996).

Goleman *et al.* (2002), using their hormonal and neural theory to explain the effectiveness of emotional intelligence, maintain that transformational leaders are effective because they create a sense of direction beyond day-to-day task completion, create vision for the future and possess the art of good managing relationships through authenticity and honesty. The authors suggest that the most effective leadership training programmes are those that are associated with culture and competencies and are directed towards learning and its maintenance. These programmes include the following elements:

1. direct connection with the organizational culture, or its change;
2. seminars which are directed towards the theory and practice of personal change;
3. learning skills, which are based equally on emotional intelligence competencies and the development of organizational skills;
4. dynamic and creative learning experiences, which are accompanied by clear objectives;
5. the creation of such relationships, which promote learning: counselling and learning groups.

The extensive research in this field has suggested, on the one hand, that we know little about training effective transformational leaders (Gordon, 1985) and, on the other hand, that, in training attempts, there has rarely been any evaluation against organizational criteria (Burke and Day, 1986) (also keeping in mind that 'leadership' is a term which is poorly defined (Barker, 1997)). In addition, it has been suggested that, although learning skills can contribute to the development of emotional intelligence, this is impossible to achieve in one course only.

What organizations need is to focus on broader aspects of organizational behaviour and organizational change and, on the other hand, to provide continuing support and a compelling reason for individuals to change. Recent studies suggest that organizations can either train transformational leaders or recruit them according to the particular competencies determined and set by the organization (Bamberger and Meshoulam, 2000).

Following, and subsequently extending, the study by Kelloway *et al.* (2000) assessing leader effectiveness through training, Kelloway and Barling (2000) assessed leadership training interventions by using two types of measures: interventions would be perceived as successful when, on the one hand, subordinates could identify transformational leadership

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behaviours and, on the other hand, leadership behaviours could be related to positive organizational outcomes. Using these two measures of leadership effectiveness, the authors concluded that small changes and their maintenance have beneficial effects on subordinate behavioural outcomes, because they affect leaders' integrity, build respect and enhance the element of idealized influence. Inspirational motivation enhances subordinate self-efficiency and inspires individuals to put more effort into accomplishing a common task in pursuit of a common vision.

Finally, individualized consideration helps consider and assess every individual through subordinates' needs while, through intellectual stimulation, subordinates are inspired to use new ways of thinking. Even though the findings and suggestions of the literature and research findings are essential and important, future research should focus on investigating the relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence as regards trust and job satisfaction, and also on the process by which transformational leaders exert their power and influence over subordinates.

Acknowledgments

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