Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

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Abstract

As an umbrella concept covering multiple domains, emotional intelligence has been gaining attention for its contribution to productive teams and effective leadership. We examine the role of emotion perception, expression, and management in professional and personal development, as well as discuss multiple models of emotional intelligence and their corresponding measurement instruments as applied to organizational settings. Recent empirical studies highlight the function of emotional intelligence in effective leadership within the fields of healthcare, finance and banking, project supervision, information technology, and change management.

Introduction and Background

As scholars continue their search to delineate relevant aspects of leadership styles and effectiveness (Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011), all agree on the significance of the core intrapersonal and interpersonal aptitudes: espousing a wide range of ideas; acknowledging others' viewpoints; evaluating contradictory information and working with uncertainty; thriving in cross-cultural teams; and developing as emotionally resilient, open to ideas, self-reliant, and affectively attuned (Gregory & Levy, 2011; Walter, Cole, van der Vegt, Rubin, & Bommer, 2012). Identifying commonalities in the GLOBE studies (Dorfman, Hanges, & Brodbeck, 2004), which

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included 17,000 participants from 62 countries, resulted in a portrait of a universally desirable leader: a person of unwavering integrity, remarkably charismatic, with stellar communication skills. Ultimately, high-functioning global leaders exhibit excellence in multiple intelligences, including cultural, moral, and emotional (Dunn, Lafferty, & Alford, 2012).

With growing recognition of the importance of multiple intelligences required for successful leadership (in addition to rational and logic-based verbal, as well as quantitative competencies), emotional intelligence is one of the most recent additions to the list. Indeed, in order to thrive in any activity that includes interaction with other human beings, one must not only be aware of his or her own emotions and be able to manage them—one also has to understand and manage the emotions of others (Lindebaum & Fielden, 2011; Rajah et al., 2011). Hence, interest in the role of emotion in professional and personal life has been blossoming, with many authors continuing to emphasize the significance of managing emotions for both organizational and personal success (Chervil, 2014; Codier, 2014; Metcalf & Benn, 2013).

Emotions: An Overview

Understanding the interplay of emotional intelligence and leadership first requires an examination of emotions, including why they developed and their role in communication. While the first explicit description of emotions (virtue and vice) has been attributed to Aristotle, the systematic study of emotions began in earnest with Darwin, who proposed that emotions developed from adaptive behaviors that helped the survival of the species. Those who espouse this perspective view the functions of emotions in the context of evolution by natural selection (Darwin, 1872). In this sense, emotions have adaptive functions. For example, disgust was originally associated with the act of spitting out unpleasant or poisonous foods. As such, the facial expression of disgust developed as a reflection of those actions, with an open mouth and projecting tongue. Similarly, sadness produces tears, which helps to cleanse the eyes of potential pollutants. Over time, such behaviors became "serviceable habits" in which the beneficial action remained, even after its original function disappeared. In this way, human emotions are a remnant of our shared evolutionary heritage. They are, in fact, vestiges of actions that at one time served fundamental survival purposes.

Intrapersonal Versus Interpersonal

Emotions also play an essential role in communication, a key leadership component, both intrapersonally and interpersonally. In early theory development, emotions were considered as primarily intrapersonal phenomena, which directly serve to benefit the survival of the species. The intrapersonal effects of emotions are

generally depicted as the influence of one's emotions on his or her own behavior and corresponding outcomes, while the interpersonal effects of emotions are viewed as the influence of one's emotions on another's behavior.

Previous research on the effects of emotions has yielded a variety of findings concerning emotional influence on the individual's, as well as on other's thoughts and behaviors. For example, happiness tends to increase one's creativity, activate top-down processing, and speed decision-making times through elimination by aspects (Isen & Means, 1983; Tversky, 1972). Anger tends to activate more punitive heuristics in the individual, make people less likely to trust others, and increase the possibility of risk-seeking choices (Lerner & Tiedens, 2006). More recently, the study of emotion shifted toward a more interpersonal perspective. For instance, anger expressed at another signals a need for group members to address their attention toward that person (Frijda, 1988).

Extending beyond the individual, there is an implied benefit to the social functions of emotions. The social-functionalist approach focuses on the role that emotions play in conveying intentionality and future behavior toward others (Keltner, Haidt, & Shiota, 2006; Morris & Keltner, 2000). This approach to role of emotions in communication hypothesizes that emotions coordinate the interactions that are associated with the configuration and maintenance of social relations (Keltner & Kring, 1998). Facial expressions, tone of the voice, and posture communicate how individuals are feeling about others and can move us toward or keep us away from other people (Levenson, 1994).

Overall, both scholars and practitioners argue that emotions can direct, as well as interrupt, behaviors, feelings, and actions, and that it is up to the individual to interpret a particular event and his or her own subsequent behaviors. Often, people react differently to similar situations, as more than one emotion can be experienced simultaneously. Despite their perplexing nature, the topics of emotions and performance continue to rouse researchers across multiple disciplines as they are recognized as essential to practices in the workplace. Rather than simply ignored, emotions should be studied extensively in conjunction with leadership because modern leaders are expected to possess extraordinary abilities to impact the feelings of their constituents, especially in the context of transformational leadership.

Emotional Intelligence

Humans have clearly benefited from the development of emotions, and presumably, from being attuned to the emotions of those surrounding them. Like general cognitive ability ("*g*") assessed by the intelligence quotient (IQ), which encompasses one's capacity to learn and use information, it was surmised that identifying, understanding, and managing emotions might also form a competence. As with other aptitudes, emotional intelligence was viewed not just as a single capability but rather as a collection of related skills.

Three Prevailing Models of Emotional Intelligence

With proliferating research into emotional intelligence over the past decades, a variety of instruments now exist to explore this field. Researchers, however, have divergent views as to exactly what these instruments should measure and how they should be administered. The literature points in several directions in terms of emotional intelligence definitions, and observations from differently designed instruments vary in the levels of their reliability and predicted outcomes, including social behaviors, stress management, and academic performance, to name a few. Two of the most important focal points include what emotional intelligence predicts and what encompasses the highly emotionally intelligent person (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002).

Some researchers equate emotional intelligence to good character, social skills, or motivational drives (Goleman, 1995). There are also general personality scales to measure attributes of self-esteem, social dominance, empathy, and self-actualization (Bar-On, 1997). While it is not always directly evident which kinds of evaluations are best suited to help assess the sets of subjects' aptitudes and serve as starting points in helping them through their professional, social, and academic careers to higher levels of achievement and self-fulfillment, there are over 60 emotional intelligence inventories and assessments listed in Schutte and Malouff's (1999) book, *Measuring Emotional Intelligence and Related Constructs*. Three of these stand out as useful business tools: (a) *Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* (MSCEIT), (b) *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-i), and (c) *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI).

Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test

Developed by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso, the originators of the term emotional intelligence, the MSCEIT measures four branches of emotional intelligence: (1) identifying emotions (i.e., the ability to recognize how one's self and others are feeling); (2) facilitating thought (i.e., the ability to generate an emotion and reason with this emotion); (3) understanding emotions (i.e., the ability to understand complex emotions and how they transition from one stage to another); and (4) managing emotions (i.e., the ability to regulate emotions in self and others). In this model, emotional intelligence is viewed as consisting of four separate components. The order of the four branches (from perception through management) represents the degree to which that ability is integrated within the rest of an individual's major psychological subsystems (Mayer, 1998, 2001).

As the only pure "ability measure" of emotional intelligence, the MSCEIT involves scenarios that require takers to use their ability to "read" emotions in faces and to solve emotional problems. The MSCEIT is scored similarly to a standard intelligence test. As such, the test-taker's answers are compared to those of thousands of other people and to those from a body of experts. Subjects are then provided with a score range in order to help them interpret test results (e.g., "develop," "consider developing," "competent," "skilled," and "expert"). The overall score is an estimate of a person's actual ability (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

Bar-On's EQ-i

Based on 19 years of research and tested on over 48,000 individuals worldwide, the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory is designed to measure a number of constructs related to emotional intelligence. Bar-On uses EQ (emotional quotient) to describe his view of emotional intelligence as "an array of non-cognitive … skills" that are useful in predicting success in specific areas of life. The EQ-i is a self-report assessment, in which one's score is a reflection of one's own answers to the test questions. The assessment consists of 133 items, gives an overall EQ score, as well as scores for the following five composite scales and 15 subscales: Intrapersonal Scales (e.g., self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization), Interpersonal Scales (e.g., empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship), Adaptability Scales (e.g., reality testing, flexibility, and problem solving), Stress Management Scales (e.g., stress tolerance and impulse control), and General Mood Scales (e.g., optimism and happiness).

Goleman's Emotional Competency Inventory

Goleman defines emotional intelligence as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (Goleman, 1995, p. 317). He views emotional intelligence as a set of competencies that can be measured by his Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI). The assessment is a 360° feedback tool, in which the score is a reflection of feedback from one's supervisor(s), peers, and direct reports. The instrument is designed for use only as a development tool, not for hiring or compensation decisions. However, the current ECI model has since changed from the original model published in Goleman's (1985) book, *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. These changes include five clusters reduced to four and 25 competencies reduced to 20.

Goleman admits to having based his work on the original findings of Salovey and Mayer: "While they have continued to fine tune their theory, I have adapted their model into a version I find most useful for understanding how these talents matter in work life" (1998, p. 318). He agrees with Salovey and Mayer on the following points: emotions contain information; moods influence thought; every mood is useful; and being emotionally intelligent has financial benefits.

All three emotional intelligence tests and their developers have shown through research and practice that emotional intelligence can be measured as an ability (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004), a skill (Bar-On, 1997) or a competency (Goleman, 1985). A great deal of criticism in the emotional intelligence area, however, pertains to self-report scales (Church, 1997; Higgs, 2001; Zeidner, Mathews, & Roberts, 2001). Therefore, the advantages of the ability-based approach include the clarity of definition, the difficulty of faking the ability, and the unique contribution in prediction based on objective data not subject to response style biases (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000).

Emotional Intelligence Components and Leadership

Generally, the concept of emotional intelligence encompasses an "ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). While multiple theoretical models have emerged, as discussed earlier, emotional intelligence can be considered to be composed of aptitudes in the following five areas: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 2003; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Each of these areas plays a fundamental role in contributing to increased effective leadership.

Self-Awareness

One of the first elements in effective leadership is to "know oneself." This involves a wide range of self-knowledge, from being aware of one's own emotional state to knowing one's strengths and limitations. In fact, the starting point to change requires an awareness of what is working as a leader, as well as what isn't. A self-aware leader then has the opportunity to intervene and potentially impact other team members (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1992). In this way, "thinking" and "feeling" are combined in techniques that leverage both information sources to affect the outcome (George, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Self-Regulation

Emotion regulation is the ability to understand, accept, and regulate one's emotional experiences (Côté & Morgan, 2002; Gross, 1998a; Gross & Thompson, 2007; Hochschild, 1979). It describes the processes through which people shape the emotions they are currently experiencing, as well as the way in which those emotions are felt and communicated (Gross, 1998b). As children, we tend to experience and express our emotions with little regard for self-constraint. Our emotions can be overwhelming, but with time we learn to gain some element of control over them. As we grow older, we develop an ability to control both the emotions that we feel and the expression of those emotions toward others. Research has shown this as an advantage, such that young children who are able to control their emotions early in life by delaying gratification were more likely to become higher cognitively and socially competent adolescents which, in turn, resulted in better academic achievement (Mischel, Shoda, & Rodriguez, 1989). Emotion regulation is an essential part of the personality process and there are clear indications that having the capacity to effectively manage one's emotions can have an impact on one's leadership abilities.

In addition to the influence of emotion regulation on organizational leadership, it has also been noted to impact job satisfaction and performance (Cropanzano, Weiss, Suckow, & Grandey, 2000). For example, the process of emotion regulation has been demonstrated to be helpful in decision making (George, 2000), as well as in negotiations, in terms of decreasing the possibility of conflict (Allred, Mallozzi, Matsui, & Raia, 1997).

Motivation

The ability to motivate is directed both inwardly, as self-motivation, and outwardly, as inspiration to instill in others a desire to increase their commitment and level of participation toward the group task. Self-motivated individuals have been shown to have higher levels of confidence in their ability to manage and impact the events around them (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). These feelings derive from a sense of self-efficacy, or belief in oneself that success is possible. Of course, this confidence to achieve the group goals acts as "inspirational motivation" of others, which has been identified as a key element in transformation leadership (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001).

Empathy

Empathy, viewed as the sensitivity and attunement to others' emotions and interests, has been highlighted as an important aspect of effective leadership in the research literature for several decades. Originally portrayed as "leader empathy," this form of connection allows a leader to better listen to and understand his or her followers, thereby conveying an increased level of trust that group members are being heard (Bass, 1960). Furthermore, overall emotional sensitivity to group members has been hypothesized to be positively correlated with higher quality relationships between leaders and group members in forming stronger connections (Riggio & Reichard, 2008).

Social Skills

As emotions are fundamental motivators of behavior, knowing the emotions of those around us has advantages. Just as with the capacity to regulate one's emotions, the ability to recognize emotions in other people can be equally advantageous. There is now little contention that "emotions guide specific judgments and perceptions to respond to significant problems or opportunities" (Barrett & Campos, 1987; Schwarz, 1990). From an evolutionary perspective, sensing when the individuals surrounding us are themselves fearful can provide a key survival advantage by providing advance warning of impending danger (Darwin, 1872). From an interpersonal viewpoint, detecting the anger of another might signal the need to adjust one's behavior. Increased emotion perception can provide for increased group cohesion, as well as for improved group and organizational communication and efficacy. All of these elements contribute to more effective leadership outcomes.

Both expressing and accurately perceiving others' emotions are important in a leadership position. The social skills involved in reacting to others' emotional states can directly influence their subsequent behavior. For instance, even simple expressions, such as smiling, tend to lead to increased compliance levels and pro-social behaviors, resulting in higher customer satisfaction and restaurant tips (Brown & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1994; Tidd & Lockard, 1978). Other studies have revealed that people who present with higher levels of emotion expressivity are more likely to elicit cooperative behavior in a negotiation (Schuga, Matsumoto, Horita, Yamagishi, & Bonnet, 2010). All combined, these social skills can to be powerful contributors in leading others.

Emotional Intelligence at Work

The economic value of emotional intelligence has been mentioned extensively in recent organizational behavior research. In general, emotionally intelligent individuals and organizations stand out: they are more productive and promote productivity in others. As work teams become more specialized in the information age, emotional intelligence is emerging as an essential competence, alongside technical capabilities, in effectively communicating and collaborating with others. Within leadership and organizational behavior, research literature suggests that those lower in an organization hierarchy are more likely to appreciate emotional intelligence in their supervisors (Adams, 2013; Bartock, 2013). A positive relationship has also been found between subordinates' commitment to their organization and their supervisors' emotional intelligence (Harms & Crede, 2010). Accordingly, contemporary global organizations are challenged with the task of improving the emotional intelligence in their leaders. Through enhancing their own emotional intelligence, business leaders are able to have positive interactions with their followers and create a safe, caring, and rewarding environment, thereby helping the staff achieve greater levels of professional and personal success.

Since leadership can be defined as an emotional relationship of trust (Northouse, 2013; Rehfeld, 2002), emotional intelligence is clearly a factor in leadership effectiveness. Recently, leadership effectiveness has been examined extensively in connection with emotional intelligence as a critical factor for organizational success, with strong positive correlations found between managers' emotional management skills and employee motivation and productivity (Bartock, 2013; Drager, 2014; Park, 2013). Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence successfully manage complex challenges through building trust, self-confidence and courage, understanding the needs of others, communicating openly and directly, showing genuine concern for others, and collaborating (Russell, 2014). Not surprisingly, such outcomes cite leaders' emotional intelligence as a predictor of team performance (Love, 2014). Consequently, the link between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence has been become an increasingly focal point for scholars and practitioners in the field of management (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Harms & Crede, 2010).

While emotional intelligence has been described as the "*sine qua non* of leadership" (Goleman, 2003, p. 229), it is important to keep in mind that it is only one aspect in a complex array of interrelated thoughts and behaviors. Several studies have revealed that general cognitive ability ("*g*"), as well as specific "big five" personality factors are also highly correlated with leadership emergence and ability (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986). Moreover, other situational determinants, not addressed in current emotional intelligence models, may influence leadership effectiveness, including cultural, hierarchical, and gender differences (Antonakis, 2003).

In addition to recognizing the potential boundary conditions for emotional intelligence in predicting leadership competency, it has been even argued that certain elements of emotional intelligence may be unneeded or even

counterproductive in a leadership capacity. For example, in some industrial settings being overly attuned or sensitive to another's reactions could result in a leader second-guessing him or herself, thereby decreasing leadership effectiveness (Elfenbein & Ambady, 2002). In these circumstances, a group may actually benefit more from their leader remaining unaware or "immune" to potential negative or misinterpreted information (Antonakis, 2003). As research progresses, it may be revealed that particular elements of emotional intelligence are more applicable in certain situations than others.

Recent Directions in Leadership and Emotional Intelligence Research

As research into leadership effectiveness acquires more of a transdisciplinary nature, we discuss the most recent investigations into the connections between leadership and emotional intelligence within the fields of healthcare, finance and banking, project supervision, information technology, and change management with specific focus on recent empirical studies in 2012–2015.

Finance and Banking

Within the sphere of accounting, professionals are now required to provide additional functions, such as information facilitation, along with the traditional tasks of auditing, financial analysis, and tax preparation, thus creating greater emphasis on emotional intelligence skills (Gayle, 2013). Hewertson (2012) argues that financial leaders, in order to be effective, must be able to understand self-management and self-awareness, as well as social awareness and relationship management, be capable of empathy, and demonstrate optimism. Iuscu, Neagu, and Neagu (2012) point out that emotional intelligence is important for both personal, as well as organizational, development as it provides a path toward assessing people's behaviors, abilities, and potential leadership styles.

Recalling the collapse of Lehman Brothers, Stein (2013) draws on concepts within psychoanalysis to explain how narcissistic leaders can become reactive, versus constructive, in the face of environmental downturn. Haig (2013), on the other hand, discusses characteristics of positive leadership, such as social power, emotional intelligence, and intellect, within the auditing domain. Within the Pakistani banking service, for example, Irshad and Hashmi (2014) argue that managers' emotional intelligence, leadership styles, and organizational citizenship behavior are essential factors in organizational success. Ljungholm (2014) concurs that emotions play an essential role in organizational settings, with emotional intelligence positively impacting leadership capability, which in turn, enhances work outcomes. Inclusive leadership and emotional intelligence, according to Teniente-Matson (2013), ensure equity and respect as components of effective performance of chief business officers within the context of higher education institutions.

Project Management and Information Technology

Project managers, who need both technical and social skills, have multifaceted responsibilities that can significantly affect project success. Emotional intelligence, in the form of interpersonal influence, has been shown to have a positive relationship with projects being completed on time (Sunindijo, 2015). Furthermore, project costs were affected by the appearance of managers' sincerity, as well as budgeting skills, and quality outcomes were shown to be positively related to project managers' transformational leadership aspects, including visioning and interpersonal influence.

Applying social capital theory to investigate the role of emotional, cognitive, and social intelligences within information technology service teams revealed that emotional intelligence competencies of project managers directly affect project performance (Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013). In analyzing the relationship between emotional intelligence, shared team leadership style, and team effectiveness within virtual teams that use technology to enhance interaction and communication, results confirmed that emotional intelligence scores are significantly correlated with the collective transformational leadership styles of the team members (Robinson, 2013). Another study of *Enterprise Resource Planning* (ERP) implementations within the retail industry found empirical evidence that appropriate levels of emotional intelligence, combined with the correct combination of leadership skills and information technology, support organizational success, especially in the early stages of system development (Hernandez, 2014).

Healthcare

As the healthcare industry witnesses unprecedented recent changes involving systems innovation, it is not surprising that the topics of organizational change, and the leadership aptitudes essential to drive it, have been gaining scholars' attention. To prevent high levels of turnover and job instability within nursing, the "ability model" of emotional intelligence has been investigated within the context of organizational change for its potential impact on leadership skills, which the heavily burdened health-related industry can ill afford (Codier, 2014). A scholarly investigation of leadership attributes and skills completed by senior healthcare administrators (Thankachan, 2014), without specifically quoting emotional intelligence, concludes that trustworthiness, empowerment, and leadership agility are essential requisites for future healthcare administrators in leadership roles. Meanwhile, other studies clearly identify emotional intelligence as a key factor in leadership outcomes within the healthcare arena, specifically in the context of change (Mukhuty, 2013). Nurses who were led by emotionally aware leaders adept at self-regulation and motivation reported greater job satisfaction, increased teamwork, and greater quality of patient care.

Retail and Sales

It is widely recognized that being able to connect and empathize with others is a necessity for success in marketing and sales. A recent empirical study by Brown (2014) confirms correlations between increased emotional intelligence and sales performance. Beyond general intelligence and personality, high levels of emotional and social intelligence also significantly predict sales performance, with adaptability and influence mentioned as the most prominent factors (Boyatzis, Good, & Massa, 2012).

Communication, Change Management, and Employee Engagement

The responsibilities of high-ranking managers include problem solving, conflict resolution, and teamwork building: all areas where communication skills between them and their subordinates cannot be underestimated. Within the realm of organizational development, the leaders' level of emotional intelligence may be a defining success factor. Indeed, the ability to use one's emotions in relationships with others in a constructive way has been frequently mentioned as an essential requirement for effective decision-making and leading organizational change (Yadav, 2014). Intuition, as a form of emotional intelligence in leadership, is considered an important tool for effective decision making, especially in ambiguous but critical circumstances (Bacon, 2013). Emotional intelligence is quoted as having played an important part in helping the New York University (NYU) Medical Center undergo a major transition within just one year (Foltin & Keller, 2012).

As innovation energizes organizational change, connections between employee creative output and leaders' emotional intelligence are highlighted (Castro, Gomes, & de Sousa, 2012). Chervil (2014) emphasizes the importance of social, and especially emotional intelligence skills in the context of leadership core competencies, as a prerequisite for compassionate and caring way to resolve conflicts. Leaders' emotional intelligence has been cited as a predictor of employee engagement and the organization's successful performance (Adams, 2013; Robertson-Schule, 2014). Moreover, managers' ability to understand and use emotions in reasoning was found to be strongly correlated with workgroup engagement levels. Specifically where respect and trust were concerned, leaders' emotional intelligence and the quality of their relationships with their employees were shown to be significantly correlated (Johnson, 2013).

Transformational and Servant Leadership

Much has been written in recent years on the relationship of emotional intelligence to transformational and servant leadership—overwhelmingly in support of such connections (Hallaq, 2015; Irshad & Hashmi, 2014; Mukhuty, 2013; Zacher, Pearce,

Rooney, & McKenna, 2014). More explicitly, empathy has been linked to transformational leadership style (Brown, 2014). Significant relationships between emotional intelligence and all five measures of transformational leadership have been identified (Morse, 2014). The same study also revealed a negative relationship between emotional intelligence and *laissez-faire* leadership style. Based on empirical evidence, Mukhuty (2013) arrives at similar conclusions, confirming a strong positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, suggesting emotional intelligence as a predictor of transformational leadership style, particularly effective within the context of organizational change.

Case 7.1: There Is Something About Betty

As a promising manager with a reputation for turning around "problem" areas at *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., a manufacturing facility with approximately 2,000 employees, Frank reluctantly accepted his new challenge—the training department. From the previous manager, who failed to unify the team and move it in the right direction, Frank would be inheriting a paradox of low morale and productivity among five highly qualified and experienced group of professionals.

At first scan, the "problem" seems to be centered on Betty, one of the longest standing and most experienced employees in the department. Through her long tenure at *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., Betty is intimately familiar with all the processes and individuals at the company, where she has netted a reputation of a highly organized and conscientious trainer. She has earned "employee of the year" award twice in the past five years. In her early 50s and the breadwinner in her family supporting two teen-aged children, she is undoubtedly committed to her job. Perhaps it is her sense of security with her position at *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., that is making her seemingly oblivious to the recent rapid changes within the company in the way major processes are handled.

Betty appears to be refusing to accept that "business as usual" no longer works in the rapidly digitized environment at *Pieces & Parts, Inc*.—including *all* processes—not just production, but also vital support functions, such as customer service and employee development, where the training department plays a key role. As Frank takes the reins of the department, her attitude of "this is how we have always done it" intensified. She seems to "forget" to follow agreed-upon directions; she makes "mistakes," and when called upon them, cries and promises to improve. Even though he has written her up twice, Frank understands that firing Betty is not an option. He realizes that Betty is mostly the reason he has been assigned to the department, and that his future with *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., depends on how he handles the challenge.

At 30 years old, Frank is one of the youngest in the department, with technologically savvy Ethan, the most recent addition to the team, who is just three years younger. Ethan was hired 10 months ago and is creative and enthusiastic. Angela is in her late 30s and has been with the department for a year and a half. She is skilled and experienced, clearly enjoys her responsibilities, and gets

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along with everyone. Cathy is in her early 60s and has been with *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., for almost 10 years. She is the more mature version of Angela—efficient, happy, and diplomatic. Then, there is Diana, 35, extremely talented and ambitious. She started with *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., at the same time as Frank, except that while Frank was moved around the company, Diana's tenure has been with the same department for the past eight years. She has a bit of a chip on her shoulder, feeling *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., at least should have given her a chance at the job that went to Frank, but as a true professional, she does not let the feelings interfere with her performance, which has always been stellar.

With Betty's difficult attitude affecting the morale of the department, as well as his own prospects for advancement at *Pieces & Parts, Inc*., Frank is resolved to find a constructive outcome to the situation. He has asked you, an organization development coach/consultant, to advise him on how to find a dynamic approach to moving the department out of this impasse. To diagnose the situation, you have suggested that the team take the MSCEIT and MBTI (*Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*) assessments to gain some insights into their individual strengths and weaknesses, as well as potential areas of conflict.

The MSCEIT assesses emotional intelligence among four skills groups: (1) perceiving emotion accurately, (2) using emotion to facilitate thought, (3) understanding emotion, and (4) managing emotion (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). It uses an array of tests to measure one's ability to identify the emotions in oneself and others, using pictures, faces, and scenarios. When combined, these tests yield an overall emotional intelligence score.

The MBTI assesses one's preferred approach along four dimensions: (1) where people focus their attention and derive their energy, internally or externally [Extraversion versus Introversion]; (2) how people process information, from detail oriented top-down perspective or a pattern seeking bottom-up perspective [Sensing versus Intuition]; (3) how people make and implement decisions, with more concern for relationships versus facts [Feeling versus Thinking]; and (4) how people organize their time and tasks, with more or less structure [Judging versus Perceiving]. Taken together, these elements combine to create a brief personality profile of each employee. The summaries of the reports are below.

As you analyze this case, you should consider the following questions:

- What approach would you recommend to Frank based on the data?
- What are some potential areas of conflict between employees?
- What role and responsibility changes would you advise for this team?
- What individualized advice and suggestions would you have for Betty?
- How might your specific recommendations impact individual and team functioning?

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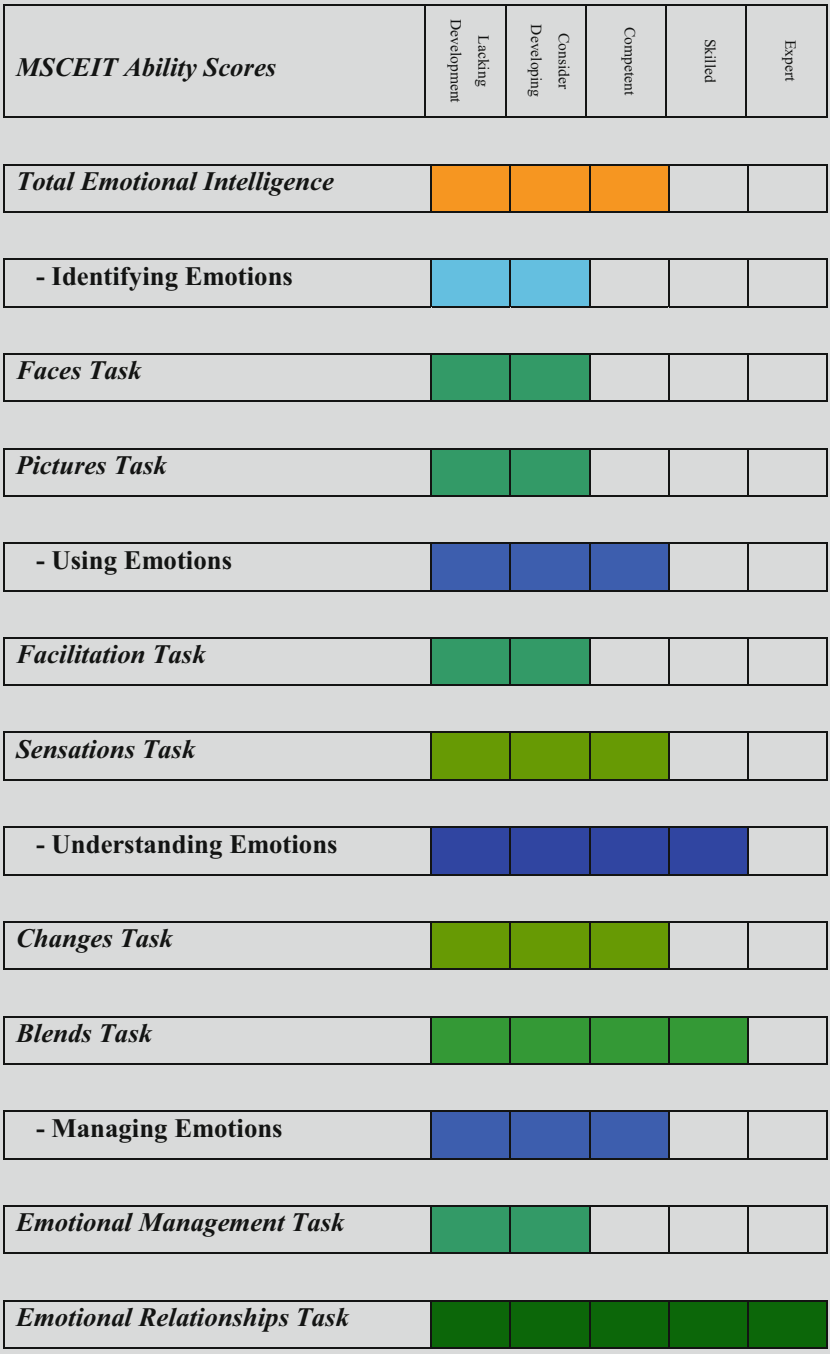
Employee: FRANK



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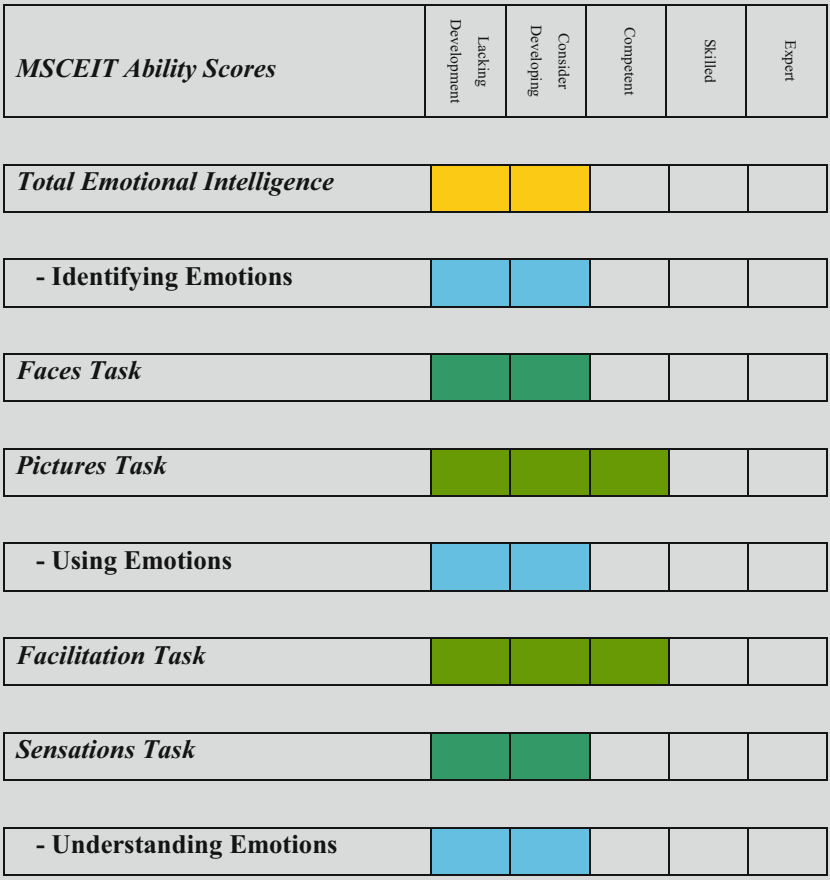
MBTI Profile
ISTJ: Introversion [21]; Sensing [14]; Thinking [17]; Judging [10]

- Dependable, practical, sensible, and realistic
- Responsible and loyal to organizations, family, and relationships
- Likely to absorb, remember, and use facts carefully and accurately
- Likely to value procedures, structure, and schedules
- Most comfortable when roles and responsibilities are clearly defined
- Objective and logical when making decisions; look for solutions to current problems in past experiences
- Usually seen by others as calm, serious, orderly, and traditional

Employee: BETTY



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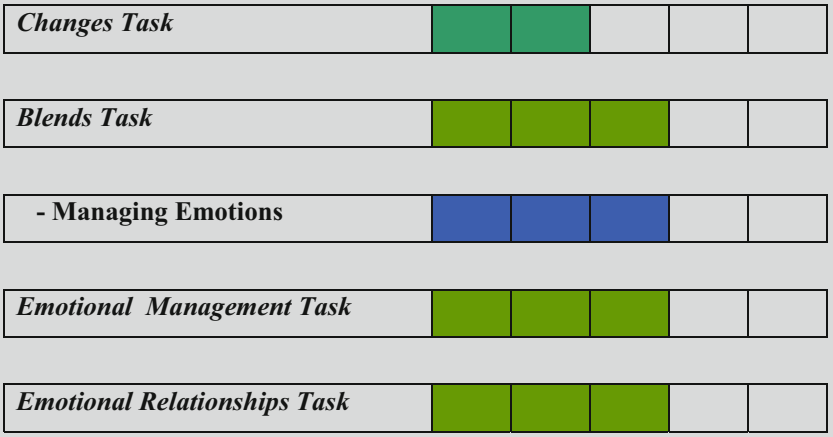

MBTI Profile
ESTJ: Extraversion [6]; Sensing [4]; Thinking [3]; Judging [17]

- Decisive, clear, and assertive
- Logical, analytical, and objectively critical
- Adept at organizing projects, procedures, and people
- Likely to value competence, efficiency, and results
- Likely to prefer proven systems and procedures
- Focused on the present, applying relevant past experience to deal with problems
- Usually seen by others as conscientious, dependable, decisive, outspoken, and self-confident

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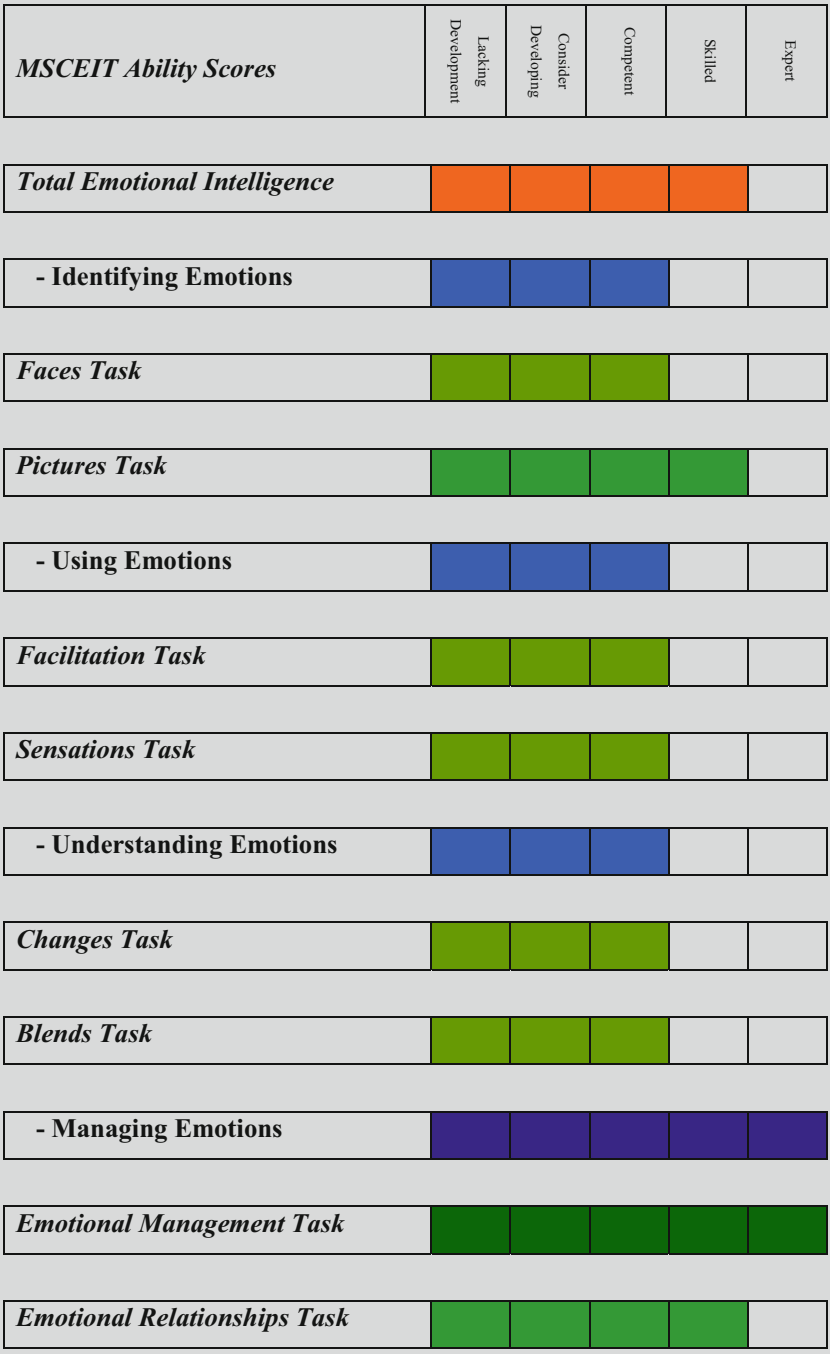
Employee: ETHAN



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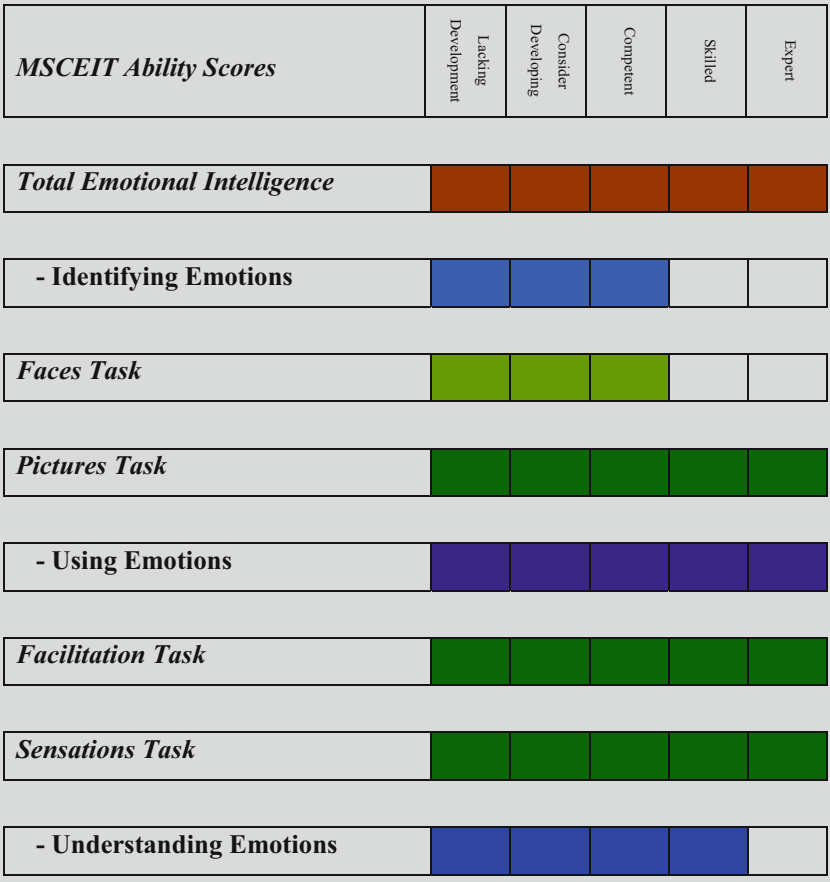
MBTI Profile
INTP: Introversion [19]; Intuition [24]; Thinking [8]; Perceiving [1]

- Logical, analytical, and objectively critical
- Quick, insightful, and ingenious; intensely curious about ideas and theories
- Adept at providing a detached, concise analysis of an idea or a situation
- Likely to approach situations with skepticism and form independent opinions and standards
- Likely to value intelligence and competence
- Flexible and tolerant of a wide range of behaviors
- Usually seen by others as quiet, contained, and independent

Employee: ANGELA



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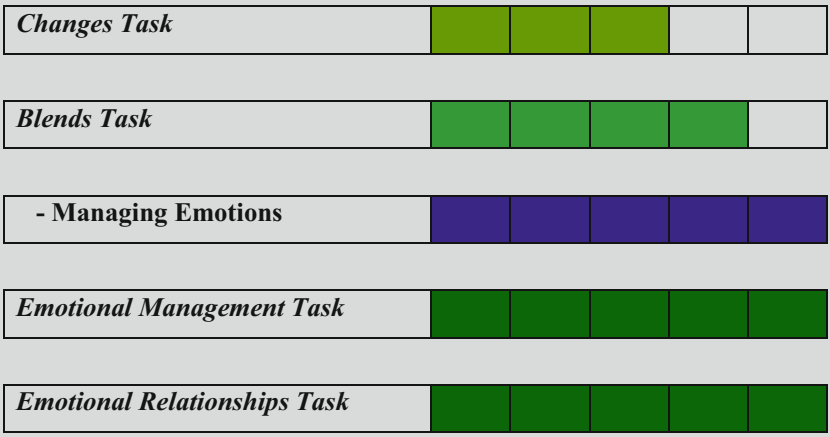

MBTI Profile
ENFJ: Extraversion [21]; Intuition [10]; Feeling [6]; Judging [20]

- Warm, compassionate, and supportive; loyal and trustworthy
- Highly attuned to others; their empathy enables them to quickly understand emotional needs, motivations, and concerns
- Guided by personal values in decision making
- Likely to value harmony and cooperation; tend to look for the best in others
- Curious about new ideas and stimulated by possibilities for contributing to the good of humanity
- Usually seen by others as sociable, personable, gracious, expressive, responsive, and persuasive

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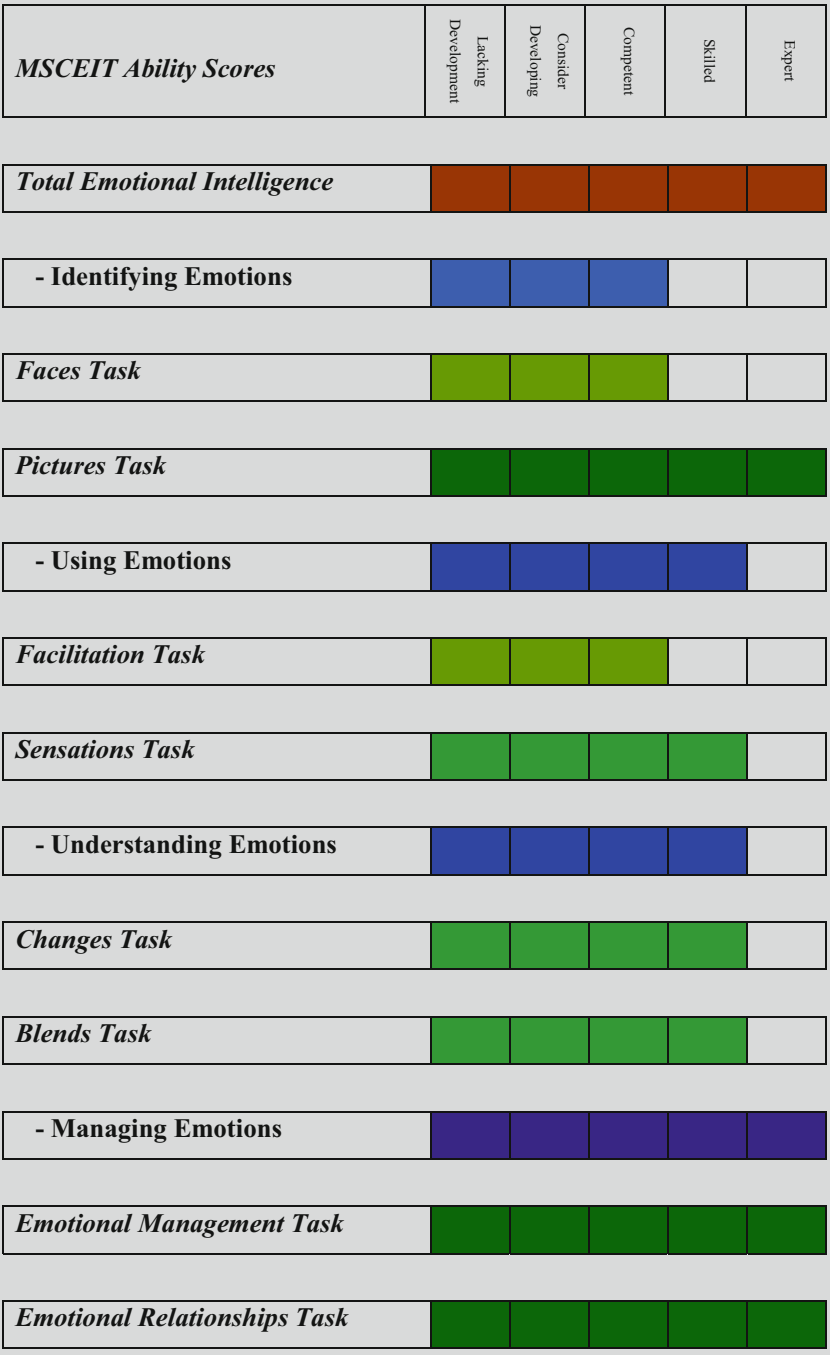
Employee: CATHY



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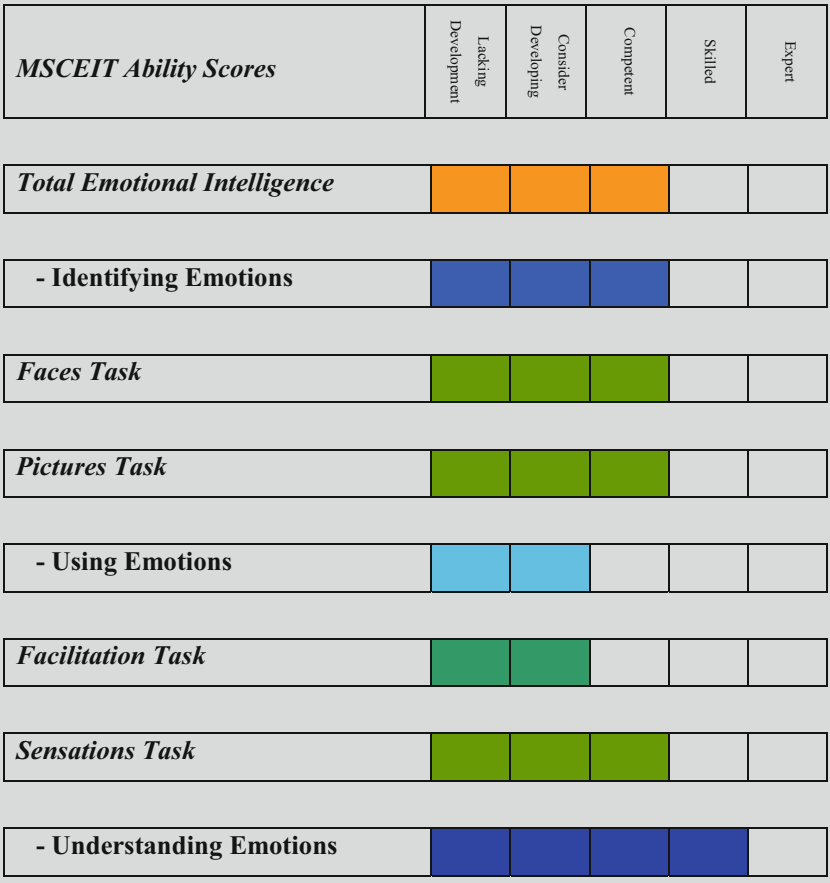
MBTI Profile
ENFJ: Extraversion [16]; Intuition [24]; Feeling [19]; Judging [1]

- Warm, compassionate, and supportive
- Loyal and trustworthy
- Highly attuned to others; their empathy enables them to quickly understand emotional needs, motivations, and concerns
- Guided by personal values in decision making
- Likely to value harmony and cooperation; tend to look for the best in others
- Curious about new ideas and stimulated by possibilities for contributing to the good of humanity
- Usually seen by others as sociable, personable, gracious, expressive, responsive, and persuasive

Employee: DIANA



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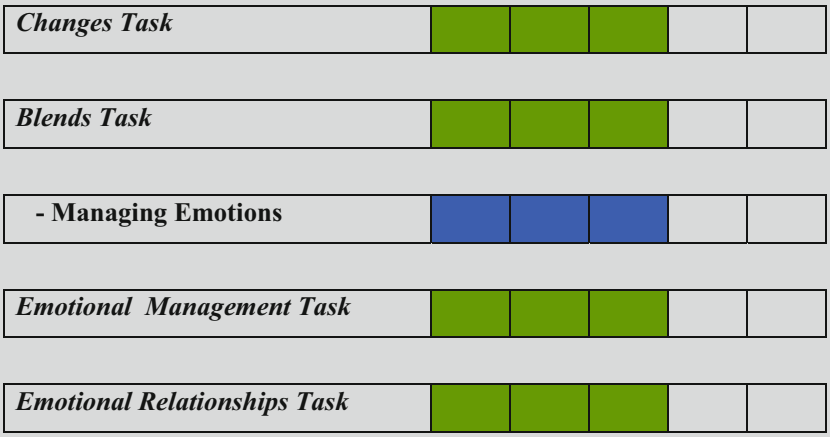

MBTI Profile
ENFP: Extraversion [23]; Intuition [7]; Feeling [1]; Perceiving [10]

- Curious, creative, and imaginative
- Energetic, enthusiastic, and spontaneous
- Keenly perceptive of people and of the world around them
- Appreciative of affirmation from others; readily express appreciation and give support to others
- Likely to value harmony and goodwill
- Likely to make decisions based on personal values and empathy with others
- Usually seen by others as personable, perceptive, persuasive, and versatile

Discussion Questions

1. How can we learn to use our emotions more effectively in communicating and facilitating better relationships with others?
2. What are some advantages and disadvantages of using emotions strategically to control our affective states?
3. Which abilities, skills, and competencies does emotional intelligence encompass?
4. What role do emotions play in effective leadership?
5. How might the suppression or mismanagement of one's emotions result in poor leadership outcomes?

Chapter Summary

- Emotions convey information both intrapersonally, to oneself, and interpersonally, to others.
- The social-functionalist theory focuses on the role that emotions play in conveying intentionality and future behavior toward others.
- Emotional intelligence is viewed not just as a single capability, but rather as a collection of related skills.
- Three models of emotional intelligence with corresponding measurements have emerged: (a) MSCEIT, (b) R. Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), and (c) Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI).
- All three emotional intelligence tests and their developers have shown through research and practice that emotional intelligence can be measured as an ability (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004), a skill (Bar-On, 1997), or a competency (Goleman, 1985).
- The link between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence has become an increasingly focal point for scholars and practitioners in the field of management.
- Since leadership can be defined as an emotional relationship of trust, emotional intelligence is clearly a factor in leadership effectiveness.
- Aptitude in each of the areas of emotional intelligence has been shown to contribute to effective leadership, including self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills.
- Leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence successfully manage complex challenges through building trust, self-confidence and courage, understanding the needs of others, communicating openly and directly, showing genuine concern for others, and collaborating.
- Recent empirical studies reveal the contributions of emotional intelligence to effective leadership within the fields of healthcare, finance and banking, project supervision, information technology, and change management.

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