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- Schemenner, R.W., Huber, J.C. and Cook, R.L. (1987), "Geographic Differences and the Location of New Manufacturing Facilities," Journal of Urban Economics, Vol. 21, No. 1, pp. 83-104.

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- Kumar S. (2011): "Customer Value: A Comparative Study of Rural and Urban Customers," Thesis, Kurukshetra University, Kurukshetra.

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A CRITICAL ASSESSMENT ON MEASURES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence is getting attention from both academic-press and popular-press in its challenges to previously-held normative theories. One developing paradigm is that of Emotional Intelligence-based Leadership that has become popular for identifying potentially effective leaders, and as a tool for developing effective leadership skills. Despite this popularity, there is only limited theoretical discussion and empirical study, and reports are dichotomized between popular-press and academic-press. This paper integrates both the popular and scholarly theories and empirical research of Emotional Intelligence-based Leadership into a comprehensive review.

KEYWORDS
Emotional Intelligence, Measures of EI, Competency, Human behavior and Perceptions.

INTRODUCTION

aniel Goleman challenged the fundamentals of the pervading dominant theories of organisational leadership by proposing that "IQ and technical skills are important, but emotional intelligence is the sine qua non1 of leadership" (Goleman, 1998a, p. 93). Extending the reaches of his top selling book *Emotional Intelligence* (Goleman, 1996) into management theory and its fields of leadership and human capital development, Goleman brought the limelight of the corporate world onto a relatively undeveloped field of psychology, developing it's paradigmatic structure (Goleman, 2001b; Kuhn, 1996). This paper seeks to explore (1) the concepts of emotional intelligence (EI) and the models that encapsulate them; (2) the need for leaders to use emotional intelligence; (3) the model of EI-based leadership; and (4) the empirical support for EI-based leadership.

WHAT IS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

Emotional intelligence is "the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002, p. 56). Essentially, EI refers to one's ability to recognize and regulate emotions in oneself and others (Goleman, 2001a). George (2000) defines the term 'emotion' by distinguishing the difference between emotion and mood as intensity. Moods are more pervasive and generalized feeling states that are relatively independent of the events or circumstances that may have caused the mood in the first place and are low intensity feelings that do not interrupt activities (George, 2000). Conversely, emotions are high intensity feelings that are triggered by either internal or external stimuli, demand attention, and interrupt cognitive processes and behaviours. While, this intensity causes them to be more fleeting than moods, they are generally the underlying causal factor of moods. Once the emotional intensity has subsided because the individual has cognitively or behaviourally dealt with the cause, the emotion can linger on in a less intense feeling or mood (George, 2000). While the sampling provided here is brief and indicative of a wider theory, it can be concluded that, feelings and emotions are intimately connected to the human experience and are intricately bound up in the ways that people think, behave, and make decisions (George, 2000)2. The abilities to manage these emotions are categorised into emotional abilities and competencies by two dominant models of EI, Salovey and Mayer's (1990) Ability model and Goleman's (1996) Competency (Mixed) model and their refined versions.

SALOVEY & MAYER'S ABILITY MODEL OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The Ability model of EI was first constructed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and begins with the idea that emotions contain information about relationships and whether these relationships are actual, remembered, or imagined, they coexist with emotions - the felt signals of the relationship's status (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001). Salovey & Mayer's four branch Ability model of EI facilitates an ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and employ them to enhance cognitive activities (Mayer et al., 2001). The Ability model divides EI into four branches: (1) perceiving emotions, (2) using emotions to facilitate thought, (3) understanding emotions, and (4) managing emotions in a manner that enhances personal growth and social relations (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Mayer et al., 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The model has undergone continual improvement since its construction and the most recent version is offered by Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (Caruso et al., 2002), represented in Table 1.

The *Perceiving* branch addresses the perceptual skills of self-identification of emotions in thoughts, identifying emotions in other people, accurate expression of emotions, and the ability to differentiate and discriminate between accurate/real and inaccurate/phoney emotions (Caruso et al., 2002). The second branch, *Using Emotions*, advocates their use in prioritising thinking by directing attention to important events/factors, to generate emotions that assist judgement and facilitate decision making, to utilise self-mood swings to change perspective, and to use different emotional states to promote different means to problem solving (Caruso et al., 2002).

The third branch, *Understanding Emotions*, is based on the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional 'chains', the transition of emotions through stages, the ability to understand relationships among emotions, and interpret the meanings emotions convey (Caruso et al., 2002). The fourth branch, *Managing Emotions*, encompasses the ability to reflectively monitor emotions and stay open to them, and the ability to engage or detach from emotions. The branch also advocates the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical, and the ability to solve emotion-based problems without necessarily suppressing the negative emotions (Caruso et al., 2002).

Table 1 The Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence (Caruso et al., 2002, p. 57)

Ability	Skills
Perceiving	Identify emotions in thoughts Identify emotions in other people Express emotions accurately Discriminate between accurate and inaccurate feelings
Using	Prioritise thinking by directing attention Generate emotions to assist judgement Mood swings change perspective Emotional states encourage problem solving
Understanding	Label and recognise relations among emotions Interpret meanings emotions convey Understanding complex feelings Recognise emotional transitions
Managing	Stay open to feelings Engage/detach from an emotion Reflectively monitor emotions

GOLEMAN'S EMOTIONAL COMPETENCIES MODEL

In Goleman's (1998b) book, *Working With Emotional Intelligence*, he builds on his first book
(Goleman, 1996) and provides the first concrete and authoritative fusion of emotional intelligence and the organisation. Where psychological theorisation has defined EI in terms of individual traits, emotions, values, and behaviour (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000), Goleman (1998b) aligns psychological and organisational management theory by using Boyatzis' (1982) concept of competency: an underlying personal characteristic such as motive, trait, skill, self-image, or knowledge, that one uses for performance. Goleman (1998b) defines *emotional competence* as a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding work performance. Goleman's (1998b) competency theory of EI includes 25 competencies that were grouped into five categories similar to his earlier work: (1) *Self-Awareness*: emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, selfconfidence; (2) *Self-Regulation*: self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation; (3) *Motivation*: achievement, commitment, initiative, optimism; (4) *Empathy*: understanding others, developing others, service orientation, leveraging diversity, [socio-] political awareness; and (5) *Social Skills*: influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, team capabilities. The theory postulates that the more competencies one has, the more emotionally intelligent they are.

In Goleman's latest publications, *The New Leaders* (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002) and *An EI-Based Theory of Performance* (Goleman, 2001a), he presents a new version of his original model that is more organisationally aligned to provide a means of EI-based performance, and specifically for leaders, as demonstrated in Table 2. The change reflects statistical analyses (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002) that supported collapsing the twenty-five competencies into twenty competencies and the five domain groupings into four domains (Goleman, 2001b). These four domains are further categorized into *Personal Competence* and *Social Competence* (Goleman et al., 2002). Personal Competence capabilities determine how we manage ourselves and is categorized by two domains and their associated competencies: (1) *Self-Awareness*: emotional selfawareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence; and (2) *Self-Management*: emotional self-control, transparency: honesty/integrity/trustworthiness, adaptability/flexibility, achievement/drive for performance, initiative, optimism (Goleman et al., 2002). Social Competence capabilities determine how we manage relationships and is contained
within two domains: (1) *Social Awareness*: empathy towards others, awareness of organisational-level currents, decision networks and politics; service to others; and (2) *Relationship Management*: inspirational leadership, influence tactics, developing others, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration/cooperation (Goleman et al., 2002)

Table 2 The Competency Model of Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 2001a, p. 28)

	Self Personal Competence	Other Social Competence
Recognition	Self-Awareness Emotional self-awareness Accurate self-assessment Self-confidence	Social Awareness Empathy Service orientation Organisational awareness
Regulation	Self-Management Self-control Trustworthiness Conscientiousness Adaptability Achievement drive Initiative	Relationship Management Developing others Influence Communication Conflict management Leadership Change catalyst Building bonds Teamwork & collaboration

EVALUATION OF THE EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

Both models have been empirically validated and have been empirically tested with regard to leadership, which will be examined later in this review. The Ability model is narrower in scope than the Competency model and, as presented academically, it does not postulate as a complete theory of workplace management. It is a model of a type of intelligence, and is purported to coexist with, supplement, and clarify existing models of intelligence, and especially, leadership (Caruso et al., 2002). Comparatively, the Competency model is described as mixed as it includes a multitude of traits, is wide in scope, covers most of the current theory on effectiveness, and is an amalgamation of many of the standard competency models in use by Human Resource practitioners (Caruso et al., 2002). While Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002) are purportedly biased in their comparative review of both models and temptingly dichotomous in their comparison towards their Ability model, it is evident that the Competency model is equally as dominant in the academic theorisation. The majority of the empirical testing of emotional intelligence's effect on leadership use both Goleman's (1998b) competency model4 and Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model as the basis for their studies. To provide a more-encompassing model of EI for testing some studies have combined the models as they are not so seemingly dichotomous, but with further testing, perhaps complementary. However, their proponents attribute both models to effective leadership. For this review, the notion of complementarity is strongly concurred with and is demonstrated through the use of the separation of the models to explain two different but complementary questions: (1) Why do leaders need emotional intelligence? (2) How do leaders use emotional intelligence?

WHY DO LEADERS NEED EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

The Ability model of EI provides a suitable medium for examining why leaders need emotional intelligence through asking why leaders need to be able to (1) identify, (2) use, (3) understand, and (4) manage emotions. Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002) report that studies have found that the ability for a leader to identify emotions and feelings within themselves also allows them to accurately identify the emotions of peers and groups, to express emotions accurately, and to differentiate between honest and phoney emotional expressions. Empathy, the ability to understand and experience another person's feelings or emotions, is an important component of EI and facilitates a leader's social support and positive inter-personal relationships (George, 2000). In their study comparing emotional and cognitive competencies as a basis of subordinate perceived effective leadership, Kellet, Humphrey and Sleeth (2002) report that empathy (a substantial EI component) bore the strongest correlation with perceived effective leadership. This suggests that perceiving others' feeling and empathising with them may establish an affective bond that is beneficial for leadership. Leaders use of emotions can enhance cognitive processes and decision making (George, 2000), and allows leaders to understand and motivate others by making emotions available, engaging in multiple perspectives that facilitate more flexible planning, and more creative, open-minded, and broader thinking and perspectives (Caruso et al., 2002; George, 2000). George (2000) reports research findings that when people are in positive moods they tend to be more optimistic and have more positive perceptions and perspectives, compared with negative moods, that result in the converse of pessimism and negativism.

Understanding EI provides functional insights into human behaviour and perceptions. This understanding includes the ability to recognise relationships between emotions, determine emotions' underlying meaning, comprehend complex feelings and recognise and accept emotional fluctuation (Caruso et al., 2002). Identification, use and understanding of emotions facilitates effective management of emotions. In a longitudinal study of 382 team members comprising 48 self-managing teams, Wolff, Pescosolido, and Druskat (2002), found that empathy is the foundation for the cognitions and behaviours that support the emergence of leadership. Overall, they conclude their results suggest that emotional intelligence, particularly empathic competency, is a dominant factor of the leadership emergence in self-managed teams.

Managing emotions allows leaders to dissipate and alleviate the effects of negative events and provide redirection and focus towards more positive events and moods (Caruso et al., 2002; George, 2000), termed by Mayer and Salovey (1997, cited in George, 2000) as meta-regulation of mood. Lewis (2000) reports that her laboratory study found that the emotional tone of a CEO level leader has a significant effect on follower affect and perception of leader effectiveness. Indeed EI leadership prescribes not just the ability to manage self-feelings and moods, but ability to manage moods and emotions of others (George, 2000). In a field study on the emotional dynamics of 20 self-managed groups, Pescosolido (2002) reports that emergent leaders within groups adopt the role of managing the group's emotional state. They use their emotionally intelligent behaviour, (empathy, emotional perception of self and others, emotional management of self and others, emotional expression, emotional communication, inspirational leadership, role modelling) to communicate messages to group members regarding group performance and contextual events. Resultantly, group members read their leader's behaviour and crafted emotional interpretations of the situation, which then guided their own behaviour. This empirical evidence has demonstrated the strong relationships between emotional intelligence and performance, the existence of a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style, and the need to combine emotional intelligence abilities and competencies with leadership skill. Goleman et al. (2002) provide this linkage with the EIbased model of leadership.

HOW DO LEADERS USE EI? - THE EI-BASED MODEL OF LEADERSHIP

EI-based leadership is based around the concept of emotional contagion (see Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994; Neumann & Strack, 2000; Wild, Erb, & Bartels, 2001), which refers to the 'contagiousness' of emotions where moods and emotions of one individual are transferred to nearby individuals (Caruso et al., 2002; Goleman et al., 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001). Through relatively automatic and unconscious mimicking and synchronisation of facial expressions, vocalisations, postures, and movements with those of another person (Kelly & Barsade, 2001), emotional synchronization (Goleman et al., 2002) occurs. Newcombe and Ashkanasy's (2002) study of subordinates' perceptions of leaders found that a leader's positively expressed emotion led to higher member ratings of the leader, and that members' perceptions of leaders are associated with the level of congruency between the leader's verbal message and their nonverbally expressed emotion. Subordinates' level of positive affect was highly influenced by leaders' emotional and affect expression (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Based on this concept of emotional contagion, Goleman et al. (2002) propose that due to a leader's authoritative position, they become the role model from which subordinates synchronise and attune their behaviour because they look to their leader for stimulus. The positivity or negativity of the leader's affect, moods, and emotions is detrimental to the moods of their subordinates, and consequently, their performance. However, they do acknowledge that because not all leaders are emotionally intelligent, the role of emotional leader may fall to a de-facto leader who provides the emotional support for a group (Goleman et al., 2002). Taking this notion of synchronisation and attunement, Goleman et al. (2002) extends it into the concept of resonant and dissonant leadership. The term *resonance* is defined in the *Oxford English Dictionary* as "the reinforcement or prolongation of sound by reflection or by synchronous vibration". In simple terms, *resonance* is used in EI-based Leadership to describe when synchronous vibrations of emotions occur – that is they are on the same wavelength emotionally; what can be described as *in synch*, e.g. we both share the same goals and values and are together happy in working towards them (Goleman et al., 2002). A group would be described as resonant when they are a reflection of their leader's enthusiasm and dedication to the task. When a group of people are resonant, there are less negative emotions and ill feelings, which result in greater cohesiveness (sticking together) and better results. The resonant group will share ideas, energy levels, enthusiasm, dedication, values, norms, motivation and a mutual comfort level (Goleman et al., 2002) Conversely, the word *dissonance* is a musical term for an unpleasant, harsh sound – a lack of harmony. Dissonant leadership produces groups that are emotionally discordant; that is, they share no bond, togetherness or cohesion. Therefore they share unproductive goals, values and norms, low motivation, dedication, and satisfaction, and produce poor results (Goleman et al., 2002). A dissonant leader is critical, negative, rude, uninspiring, arrogant, selfish etc. etc. – the list is endless. Basically, a dissonant leader utilises *position* as their dominant *power base* (see Yukl, 1994) and ignores the other power bases for gaining respect and leading. The effect of this is a disharmonious team. There is no unity, motivation, happiness, pride, self-development, hard work etc. The group atmosphere is very negative and unenjoyable, and consequently resultant lower or poor performance (Goleman et al., 2002).

Continuing the musical analogical interpretation, I propose the metaphor of the orchestra to demonstrate the effective ideal of EI-based leadership. Atik (1994) provides an empirical and functional study of leadership within an orchestra, but doesn't explicate the true potential of this forum for leadership theory. An orchestra is a micro-example of an organisation as it consists of differentiated but interdependent sections of specialised instrumentalists that use different tools, skills, and means of production (e.g. bow on strings versus blowing brass or woodwind), and have sectionalised leadership. Each section plays different

notes in different melodies and rhythms but with the objective of contributing their differentiated sectionalized parts together in a totally synchronised and interdependent fashion that results in resonance and idealistically, harmony.

Each part is interdependent, for with a part missing, there is a harmonical gap in the sound. At the core of this orchestration is the conductor. Underlying the whole concept of music is the expression of emotion. The conductor literally leads the orchestra in an emotionally contagious fashion so that the various sections become emotionally synchronised and feed off each other's emotional output – the quality and emotionality of their playing. The result is a glorious nirvana of resonant harmonious sound that is both literally and figuratively in synch. Without an effective leader/conductor, the differentiated sections will play their notes and rhythms in accordance with the notated music, but struggle to keep in tune or in synch –in effect, they become dissonant. Hence, why orchestras have conductors. To be an effective, competent and resonant leader and promote harmony and resonance over dissonance, EI-based leadership promotes the understanding and development of emotional competencies (Goleman et al., 2002) that are reflected in a repertoire of leadership styles. Research drawing on data from a Hay/McBer study of 3,781 executives (Goleman, 2000) leads Goleman (2000; 2001a; Goleman et al., 2002) to categorise the role of EI competencies in leadership effectiveness into a typology of six distinct styles of EIbased leadership outlined in Table 3. The visionary, affiliative, democratic, and the coaching styles, generally drive organisational climate in a positive direction. Conversely, the coercive and pacesetting styles tend to negatively effect organisational climate, however, in the appropriate situation, they can reap positive benefits (Goleman, 2001a). Visionary leaders possess the emotional competencies of self-confidence, empathy, change catalyst, and visionary leadership. The affiliative leader is empathic and competent in building relationships and conflict management. The democratic leader is a strong communicator and listener, and encourages teamwork and collaboration. And the coaching leader is empathic and emotionally self-aware, and competent in developing others' potential into skill (Goleman, 2000, 2001a; Goleman et al., 2002). The commanding leader relies on a position power base (see Yukl, 1994) where autocracy dictates conformance to their commands. The commanding leader may be strong in achievement drive, initiative, and emotional self-control, these are countered by a lack of empathy. The pacesetting leader's objective is performance and exemplification to an exceptionally high standard. While the pacesetting leader may be highly conscientious, achievement-oriented and highly initiative, they are generally highly critical and tend to micromanage or take over from subordinates instead of helping them to reach the high standard (Goleman, 2000, 2001a; Goleman et al., 2002). The most effective leaders integrate four or more of the six styles regularly, switching to one that is most appropriate for the situation (Goleman, 2001a). This presents the question of how do these leadership styles fit within the current leadership theory?

EI-BASED LEADERSHIP'S FIT WITHIN CURRENT LEADERSHIP THEORY

Neither Goleman et al., (2002) nor Caruso et al. (2002) specifically align their EI-based leadership models within the commonly accepted leadership models such as those presented by Yukl (1994), Burns (1978), and Bass (1990). Caruso et al. (2002) consider EI as an underlying component of leadership functions that facilitates effective leadership practice. George (2000) proposes that from an ability model position, EI-based leadership is based on no specific leadership theory, but instead has its roots in a variety of theoretical traditions. However, Goleman et al.'s (2002) model of EI-based leadership draws the strongest explications towards particular leadership theories, specifically, the transformational/transactional leadership model. The complementary transformational/transactional leadership model (Bass, 1990) is the general framework used for examining the empirical relationships between emotional intelligence and effective leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Burns (1978) distinguishes the transformational leader as one who raises the needs and motivations of followers and promotes change/development in individuals, groups and organisations, and the transactional leader as one who meets subordinates' current needs by focus on extrinsically motivated based exchanges (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Bass (1990) defines the transformational leader as "one who arouses awareness and interest in the group or organisation, increases the confidence of the individuals or groups, and attempts to move the concerns of subordinates to achievement and growth rather than existence" (Gardner & Stough, 2002, p. 68). Bass's (1990) concept of transformational leadership is fundamentally driven by a leader's emotional intelligence as each factor represents the emotional competencies of Goleman's (1998b) models, and the abilities of Caruso et al.'s (2002) model. Bass (1990) proposes that transformational leadership is characterised by four factors termed the "four I's": (1) idealized influence; (2) inspirational motivation; (3) intellectual stimulation; and (4) individualized consideration (Bass, 1990; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002). Applying the transformational leadership model to Goleman et al.'s (2002) typology of effective EI-based leadership styles, it is evident that the visionary, affiliative, democratic, and coaching styles are the most complicit within transformational theory. Contrastingly, transactional leadership theory (see Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Yukl, 1994) which proposes a leader-member exchange relationship of need fulfilment for performance, is most strongly complicit with the commanding and pace-setting styles of Goleman et al.'s (2002) leadership typology. Empirical research supports the current hypotheses surrounding the superiority of transformational versus transactional models and Bass (2002) reports that extensive empirical evidence finds significant correlations between 'transformational' leadership theory and the 'traits' of emotional intelligence. McKoll-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found that employee perceptions of a highly transformational leadership style are positively correlated to directly increasing a subordinate's optimism, and consequentially, indirectly increasing their performance. Comparatively, subordinate's perceptions of a low level of transformational leadership are related to high levels of frustration and negative influence on the workers' performance. Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann and Hirst (2002) report from their study of leadership influence on affective events, team climate and performance, that transformational leadership through effective management of the teams' affective climate (based on EI skills) is positively correlated to positive team performance. They conclude that leaders need to focus on developing emotion management skills, demonstrating emotional awareness, regulation, and intelligence, and in doing so, may exact superior performance from their teams. While empirical evidence supports Gardner and Stough's (2002) proposition that transformational leadership style is considered to be more effective than transactional style. Goleman et al.'s (2002) final proposition that the emotionally intelligent leader integrates four or more of the leadership styles and operates them based on the situation, is largely reflective of the transformational/transactional paradigm's extension to the situational approach to leadership (see Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978; Yukl, 1994). Fundamentally, based on this premise, Goleman et al.'s (2002) theory is that the emotionally intelligent leader's ability to effectively perceive, use, manage, and understand their own and their followers emotions, consequentially facilitates their reading of the situational factors and subsequent leadership style adjustment from one of the six types, will determine the effectiveness, or resonance, of their leadership. Effectively, they have the ability to use the positive factors of both transformational and transactional styles.

EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE AND SUPPORT

A growing body of empirical support is building for the case of emotional intelligence and its positive relationship with leadership. In a study on competence models drawn from 121 organisations worldwide by Goleman (1998b), it was found that 67 percent of the abilities regarded as essential for effective performance were emotional competencies. In a similar study, Chen, Jacobs and Spencer (1998, cited in Fatt, 2002) found that emotional competencies were 53 percent more frequent in organisational 'star performers' than other competencies, such as cognitive competencies, which only rated 27 percent. Cavallo & Brienza (2000) conducted a study on 358 managers across the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group globally to distinguish leadership competencies of successful performers from low performers. 1400 employees were also surveyed to measure perceived successful leadership competencies, particularly those of emotional intelligence. A strong relationship was found between superior performing leaders and emotional competence, which suggests that emotional intelligence is a distinguishing factor in effective leadership (Cavallo & Brienza, 2000). Recent empirical studies (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002) have all demonstrated that EI-based leadership is most strongly related to effective transformational leadership style and that emotional intelligence is a fundamental causal-factor of effective transformational leadership.

Table 3 EI-Based Leadership Typology. Adapted from Goleman (2001a) and Goleman et al. (2002)

	Leadership Style					
	Visionary	Coaching	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Commanding
How It Builds Resonance	Moves people toward shared dreams	Connects what a person wants with the organisation's goals	Creates harmony by connecting people to each other	Values people's input and gets commitment through participation	Meets challenging and exciting goals	Soothes fears by giving clear direction in an emergency
Impact On Climate	Most strongly positive	Highly positive	Positive	Positive	Often Highly Negative (Because frequently misused)	Highly Negative (Because frequently misused)
When Appropriate	When changes require a new vision, or when a clear direction is needed	To help an employee improve performance by building long-term capabilities	To heal rifts in a team, motivate during stressful times, or strengthen connections	To build buy-in or consensus, or to get valuable employee input	To get high-quality results from a motivated and competent team	In a crisis, to kick-start a turnaround, or with problem employees
EI Competencies	Self-confidence; empathy; change catalyst; visionary leadership	Developing others; empathy; emotional self-awareness	Empathy; building bonds; conflict management	Collaboration; team leadership; communication	Conscientious-Ness; drive to achieve; initiative	Drive to achieve; initiative; emotional self-control

Barling et al. (2000) and Palmer et al. (2001) suggest that the higher the level of emotional intelligence a leader has, predisposes them to use transformational behaviours. Based on the concept of idealised influence from Bass (1990), these authors suggest that because leaders act as role models for their followers, the leaders ability to understand and manage their emotions and display self-control strongly effects the followers' trust and respect. Barling et al. (2000) and Palmer et al. (2001) also propose that leaders who are competent at understanding emotions are more likely to have better perceptions of followers' expectations, and thus more effective at using inspirational motivation (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Thirdly, an emotionally intelligent leader's ability to manage emotions and relationships results in greater individualised consideration as they are more able to understand and react to followers' needs (Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001). In their study of 49 managers, Barling et al. (2000) found that emotional intelligence is positively related to three components of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) and one component of transactional leadership, contingent reward. Further supporting the case for emotional intelligence's relationship with transformational leadership, they also found that EI is not a component of *laissez-faire* leadership (see Yukl, 1994) or the two other components of transactional leadership: management-by-exception active and management-by-exception passive (Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002). Emotional intelligence and inspirational motivation were the most strongly correlated and suggests the importance of the EI dimension in understanding emotions for effective leadership (Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002). Palmer et al.'s (2001) study of 43 managers found that the leaders' ability to both manage and monitor their own and others emotions were both significantly correlated with the inspirational motivation and individualised consideration components of transformational leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001). Significant correlation was also found between the ability to monitor own and others' emotions with the transformational leadership components of idealised attributes and idealised behaviours, which when combined reflect charisma (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001). Extending Palmer et al's (2001) methodology and studying 110 senior level managers, Gardner and Stough (2002) found that EI correlated highly with all components of transformational leadership and the strongest correlation was found between individual consideration and understanding emotions external (Gardner & Stough, 2002). A positive relationship between contingent rewards and emotional intelligence was found, but no correlations were found between other components of transactional leadership and emotional intelligence (Gardner & Stough, 2002). They conclude that leaders with the ability to manage positive and negative self, and others' emotions are more able to articulate a strategic vision, talk optimistically, provide encouragement and meaning, stimulate in others new ways of doing things, encourage expression of new ideas and resolve problems constructively (Gardner & Stough, 2002). In sum, a leader's emotional intelligence is important in enabling them to take advantage of and use their positive emotions to facilitate and induce organisational performance (Gardner & Stough, 2002). A major criticism of these three studies is that they all used self-reported data as the basis of their studies. Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) address this issue by using self-other reporting where subordinates and superiors rated leadership behaviours and effectiveness and emotional intelligence was rated by the leaders themselves. Supporting their hypotheses, Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) found that leaders reporting greater emotional intelligence were perceived by the subordinates as displaying greater transformational behaviours, and additionally, as more effective. These findings replicate Barling et al.'s (2000) and Palmer et al.'s (2001) findings and supports Goleman's (1996; 1998b) propositions (Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002).

CONCLUSION

The emotional intelligence paradigm is relatively new and its transposition into management theory provides some exciting areas for future study, especially within the realms of human capital development, and specifically, leadership development. Leading on from this paper, this author considers two areas of study for future consideration: a thorough review of the concept of emotional contagion and its normative implications for management theory, and a comprehensive literature survey examining the fit of EI-leadership competencies within those already held as fundamental within current leadership theory. It must be noted that the empirical support for EI-based leadership is still only minor and further rigorous and wider study is required before it can be fully considered a dominant model of leadership. However, the empirical evidence offered in this review does provide support for the contention that EI-based leadership is proving to be more effective than other models of leadership and is resulting in better performance. This paper has brought the EI-based leadership model within the bounds of current leadership theory by demonstrating the empirical relational linkage of its traits/competencies/abilities with the practices of transformational versus transactional and laissez faire leaders. Both the Ability model and the Competency model provide thorough and rigorous models for examining EI and its empirical effects, relationships and consequences. By possessing or gaining the emotional intelligence abilities and competencies, and using them as the basis of organizational leadership, it is proposed that these leaders will be more effective.

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