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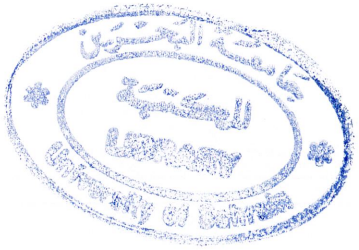
Leadership and Emotional Intelligence: A Study of Managers in Bahraini Organisations

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Dedication

To my father, who is the source of my inspiration, my mother, who was always there for me, to my children, for being so patient and to my friends, for their support.

ABSTRACT

The concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence (EI) are recognised to be vital elements in organisations today. These concepts include vision creation, goals accomplishments, ambition, self-awareness, character and skills in tuning into others' emotions, through the ability to establish relationships and bonds. The literature provides an insight into the topic but it focuses on research conducted in the West and particularly in the United States. Little material is available on EI and leadership in the Gulf area. This thesis examines the relationship between these two concepts, within the context of national and organisational culture in Bahrain.

The research covered five major organisations in Bahrain: petrochemicals, petroleum, telecommunications, shipbuilding and repair, and banking. It examined the relationship between six leadership styles (Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliation, Democratic, Pacesetting and Coaching), and components of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills) identified by Goleman (2000). The research adopted a deductive approach using a combination of questionnaires (Emotional Competency Inventory and Managerial Style Inventory) and interviews with 103 executives and managers. The research found a relationship between the six leadership styles and emotional intelligence. the six leadership styles were used by the executives who showed moderate levels of emotional intelligence. National and corporate culture influenced the relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence. The standardised tests used need to be adjusted to suit the culture in Bahrain. The findings of this research therefore add a new dimension (namely, national and corporate culture in the Gulf Region) to the concept of emotional intelligence.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter highlights what the thesis is about, and why the topic was chosen. It covers the aim, scope, and significance of this research within the Bahrain context. Research questions are also identified along with the hypothesis. The last part of the chapter outlines the organisation of the research.

This chapter focuses on understanding the concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence which have been a focal point and debate among many scholars and practitioners (such as Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2001; Fineman, 2003; George, 2000; Goleman, 2004). What leaders ought to and should do and what leaders can in practice do, to get the performance and results for which they aim, eludes many experts (AlHashemi, 1987). These experts are constantly searching for an answer to the question 'what kind of leadership approach or behaviour would transform an organisation's performance?' Leadership is proving to be even more vital nowadays, with the change in the nature of the workplace, changes in the business environment, organisations eliminating layers of hierarchy towards achieving flatter structures, changes in societies as well as changes in the markets (Hay Group, 1999). Leaders are therefore required to clarify their values, develop new strategies, learn new ways of operating businesses, focusing on corporate social responsibility, managing people and being emotionally intelligent (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001). Perhaps the greatest challenge facing leaders is mobilising

people to do adaptive or challenging work (Hesselbein, 1996; 2000). Some authors believe that leadership is "something you are born with," (Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999 p.85; Hock, 2000 p.6).

Sullivan (2000) stresses leadership as being the most important element for organisations. Different authors define leadership in different ways but they appear to share common ideas or key words like: creating a vision, accomplishing goals, taking charge, developing others and having a character (Bennis, 1999; Cummings & Worley, Goleman, 1998; 1993; Kotter, 1998; Pagonis, 2000). Each writer concentrates on a specific aspect of leadership Champy (2000) for instance emphasizes leaders as having ambition; Leider (1996) stresses self-leadership as being essential for managing change and others towards success; Pagonis (2001) views leadership as an emotionally laden process. Smith (1996) views leadership as 'the following part of a leader;' entailing leaders to learn how to follow their vision, and encouraging all the people to fulfil the organisation's vision. Such leaders are also responsible for their own development. Research goes further by pointing out those leaders with the best results do not rely on only one leadership style but a combination depending on the situation (Goleman, 2000). Other writers emphasize emotional intelligence along with leadership as key elements in organisational success (Goleman, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001; Merlevede,Bridoux & Vandamme, 2001; Orme, 2001; Orme & Cannon, 2000).

It is important at this stage to clarify what exactly is meant by emotional intelligence. Orme (2000 p.7) refers to it as an "advanced common sense;" some people have a great deal of common sense without realising that it is emotional intelligence, they just seem to know what to do at the right moment and situation. It has been stated by many authors that emotional intelligence is about tuning into our emotions, understanding them and being aware of our emotions, managing them or taking appropriate action (Goleman, 1998;

Goleman, 1996; Orme, 2001; Mayer, Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999; Mayer & Salovey, 1999; Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenious, 2001). In support of Goleman's argument regarding leaders being emotionally intelligent, Hay McBer (1999 p.2) state how "today's leaders must be able to leverage a broad range of styles given the complexity of organisations and their people." The argument is for leaders to attempt to be highly flexible; adapting and improving given changing strategies, shifting cultures and handling new technologies and not forgetting whom they are leading (Goleman, 2000).

Having knowledge of emotional intelligence can help make people realize how to establish strong relationships and bonds, increase self–awareness, improve social skills, and simply be happy (Hein, 1996). It has been argued that understanding emotional intelligence helps understanding its contribution to success (Goleman, 1996; 1998; Higgs & Dulewicz, 1999) at work and in life. According to a study by the Hay Group (1999), successful organisations assess the motives and styles of their leaders in terms of: determining their impact on climate and performance, expanding their emotional intelligence, being committed to development and coaching of leaders, as well as rewarding leadership development. Such issues are essential to organisations all over the world, with some pertaining to each organisation within its national culture. The majority of research into emotional intelligence has been located in the Western economy. Research into its applicability in different context is limited. In this study, these concepts are applied to a 'Bahrain context'. Bahrain is a country which plays a major role in the Gulf Region in maintaining political stability, and in the Gulf cooperation council, and is considered as a major financial centre serving the region and internationally. Bahrain is also considered as one of the Gulf's most advanced economies and most progressive political systems (www.heritage.org)(31.01.2007).

1.1 BAHRAIN AS THE STUDY'S CONTEXT

It is assumed that Bahraini executives or managers live and work in a society whose social structure, with all its diversity, has some distinctive features that have considerable impact on them (Alhashemi, 1987). Hofstede (1991) describes a national culture as a reflection of the overall general culture; a mere extension of the general culture with no visible tension between the two. Bahrain's culture is characterised by Islamic beliefs, traditions, and norms of behaviour. It is a culture in which traditions and the extended family are powerful enough to reflect themselves both in its institutions and the interpersonal relationships of its members not just in Bahrain but throughout the Gulf States. It is not the least unusual in the Gulf to find the same family names in Saudi Arabia, Qatar, Bahrain, Oman & United Arab Emirates. The influence of both the nuclear and extended family is based on a strong patriarchal system, ensuring that the father is always a towering figure (as explained by the Follow-up Bureau for GCC Ministers of Labour and Social Affairs Council, 1994). This implies that an average manager relies heavily on personalised and informal methods and styles in the management of his organisation.

It can be argued that an executive or a manager in the Gulf area is viewed as a person who is at the helm of his organisation, which is perceived as an open social system embedded in the larger system of community and society (Muna, 2003). Viewed from this perspective, one may regard the manager as being both a target and an agent of social influence and change (Muna, 2003). According to AlHashemi (1987), social pressures as well as business pressures impinge on the attitudes and behaviour of a typical manager. The term social pressure refers here to the expectations, constraints or demands which society places on individuals. These pressures originate from, and are shaped by socio-cultural values, norms and mores that seem to have their roots in a long

history of traditions, religion, and popular belief systems. The fact that the social cohesion in the Gulf area has proven its resilience despite the many tests to which it has been put does not – and should not – cloud the fact that it is coming increasingly under pressure and challenges ranging from the pressures of modern living having their toll on family ties, to materialistic and individualistic values propagated through the following: Consumerism; exposure to international media; widening the gap between old and young; the increasingly demographic imbalance created mainly by having about two third of the population below the age of 30, not to mention the demographic strains created by having to host sizeable expatriate contingents (AlHashemi, 1996). With such challenges, it is argued that leadership and emotional intelligence are one of the most elusive keys to organisational success (Goleman, 2000), especially under circumstances where the rate of change in economies, market and industries is outgrowing the ability of the conventional corporate structure to cope with. The researcher believes that Goleman's (2000) research could contribute towards investigating the relevance and applicability of his findings to the Bahrain's context. The Western concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence may not be applicable to an Islamic culture setting. Therefore, this study aims to explore EI and leadership within Bahrain study and bringing out both national and corporate issues.

1.2 AIM OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study is to examine: the relationship between the six leadership styles (Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliation, Democratic, Pacesetting, and Coaching), and the different components of emotional intelligence (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills) identified by Goleman (2000); the different leadership styles used by Bahraini managers and their level of emotional intelligence; cultural factors

(corporate and national) that influence emotional intelligence and leadership styles.

1.3 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Having read the literature on the topic, followed by discussions with some of the colleagues in the field of management and key managers of the organisations under study, the research approach, strategy and philosophy was decided. The strategy was to have a research design including a pilot study, data collection, data analysis and interpretation. Due to the nature of the topic, a multi-case research design was adopted with five major organisations in Bahrain covering the following sectors: manufacturing, telecommunications, banking, ship repair and petrochemicals. They were chosen because of their major contribution towards the economy of Bahrain, and being well-known successful companies. In addition the research had access to information in these organisations. The research approach followed was a deductive one using a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methodologies, taking into consideration answers to research questions and testing of a hypothesis (discussed in section 1.4). The questionnaires adopted included: Managerial Style Inventory (MSI) and Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI). Other data collection was in the form of company reports, performance evaluation and interviews at the top, middle and supervisory levels of management with a sample size of 103 out of a total population of 250.

1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Considerable literature on the concept of leadership and emotional intelligence has originated from the West based on research carried out in the context of advanced industrial economies. Very limited research has been conducted in the field in the Arabian Gulf countries and consequently hardly any literature is available on the subject of leadership and emotional intelligence. This study is an attempt to extend the knowledge base and to fill in some of the gaps in this subject. It is expected that the findings can also provide a foundation for further research in the Gulf area in the field of leadership and its relationship to emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the study will help in revealing cultural issues in using standardised American tests. Hofstede (1980) indicates that theories developed in the West in particular United States do not address cultural differences and are difficult to apply in every culture. This study will explore this issue in relation to the concepts of leadership style and emotional intelligence.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESIS

The research identified five specific questions as follows:

1) Is there a relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence?
2) Do managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination of styles?
3) What levels of Emotional Intelligence do leaders in Bahrain show?
4) What cultural factors in Bahrain influence the applicability of emotional intelligence and leadership styles?
5) What are the implications of conducting such research in Bahrain?

The above questions led to the hypothesis that is:

> There is a relationship between the six leadership styles (identified by Goleman, 2000) and emotional intelligence in organisations in Bahrain, within the Islamic cultural setting.

According to Goleman (2000), emotional intelligence has an impact on leadership styles. There is also an argument that leadership styles may have an impact on some of the emotional intelligence competencies. In addition, this research explores the influence of corporate and national culture on the concepts of leadership and EI.

1.6 ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of seven main chapters. The present chapter begins by introducing the topic of leadership and emotional intelligence, providing some definitions, discussing their significance. The chapter cites various authors, their viewpoints, arguments and claims on the concept of leadership and emotional intelligence. As an introductory chapter it sets out the objectives of the research, its scope, and significance for undertaking a study of this nature. The chapter highlights the research questions and hypothesis and briefly outlines the case organisations used in this research.

Chapter Two presents a review of related literature, covering topics relevant to the aim of the study and the hypothesis presented in the first chapter. It explains the topics of emotional intelligence and leadership. The chapter begins with defining emotions and feelings, discussing in detail the meaning of emotional intelligence, and various definitions from the viewpoints of many authors and practitioners. The chapter also presents an overview of the various approaches

and tests of emotional intelligence along with critiques from both the researcher's point of view as well as other authors.

Chapter Three addresses the topic of leadership, highlighting briefly its meaning and historical background. The six leadership styles are addressed, discussing their benefits and drawbacks, linking it to the concept of emotional intelligence. The six styles of leadership are investigated and followed by a discussion on the challenges facing leaders of the future. Organisational culture is considered to be one of the elements that have an impact on organisations, its employees, and leaders. Therefore the chapter outlines the role of national culture and emotional intelligence that shape leadership. The last part of the chapter highlights various aspects of organisational culture that are relevant to this study.

Chapter Four explores the methodological approach, the tools and instruments utilised in conducting the research. It covers both secondary and primary research data collection techniques. The chapter presents the research questions, hypotheses, population and sample size along with sources of data used. The chapter also elucidates on how the questionnaires were developed, the interviews conducted and the methods of data analysis used. The last part presents an outline of the research process as well as the limitations of the study.

Chapter Five contains background information on the country and the five organisations under study. It consists of two major parts: the first half of the chapter outlines a background overview about Bahrain: historical aspects from the 1900s till today; major events during the history of Bahrain, economical statistics, the country's major achievements that strengthened the country's position not only within the Gulf Region but throughout the world, future outlook, and prospects for further development.

Chapter Six tackles the empirical side of the research, analysing the collected data using statistical software packages. It begins with a graphical presentation outline of the sample. The chapter focuses on the outcome of the use of Managerial Style Inventory (MSI) and Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) with detailed findings from the questionnaires and interviews, supported by tables, figures and charts. It also discusses an overview of the findings on the questionnaires, their relevancy to the national and corporate culture.

Chapter Seven, which is the final chapter, offers concluding remarks on the research findings, suggesting theoretical and practical recommendations that could be applied to the five major organisations under study and thereon to benefit other organisations in Bahrain. Such recommendations could be applied in other states in the Gulf Region. The fact that this field has not been fully investigated in the Gulf Region, the conclusions and recommendations of this study will be contributing to knowledge on the concept of leadership and emotional intelligence. The chapter identifies some of the limitations of using Western concepts (especially American) when applied to other countries with. The chapter also highlights the main contribution to knowledge of the thesis, looking into the findings about such concepts as applied to the selected Bahraini organisations. It also suggests how the concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence can be adapted to fit non-Western countries.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter covered background information on the objectives of the research, its scope within the Bahrain context, as well as its significance. This chapter focuses on the key literature. It defines what is meant by emotional intelligence; highlighting the historical development of the concept, its components, the importance and role of emotional intelligence in organisations (a domain related to the topic of leadership) its relationship and influence, which is one of the main concerns of this thesis. Two approaches to measuring emotional intelligence are analysed. This is followed by a discussion on the critique of Goleman's work. The chapter also presents a brief description of the construction of emotional intelligence tests and how they have been used, as well as reported results on their application. The last part of the chapter covers critiques of the tests.

2.1 WHAT IS MEANT BY EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE?

Emotional intelligence touches on peoples' feelings, an aspect which is important in today's stressful work environment. This, coupled with flexibility in the leader's style, could lead to a more successful working environment in addition to meeting business challenges (Goleman, 2000). It has become a

concept for identifying and developing effective leadership skills that focus on getting others to do things without using power, authority or force (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). This means that staff could be doing their jobs and carrying out their responsibilities willingly, without fear of management's threat and without feeling stressed to carry out undesirable tasks. This does not imply that leaders should not use force or control at all, as it depends on the situation, level of support from followers as well as the work environment. As such, the performance of an organisation and its employees depends on the quality of emotionally intelligent leadership. Organisations would not be able to achieve success without effective leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Success is determined by the relationship of an organisation towards its employees, customers and business environment and whether it has accomplished its goals and mission (Goleman, 2000).

Emotions are one of the key ingredients that make up emotional intelligence and are considered as a major contributor to effective leadership. Emotional intelligence is about being more aware of one's emotions, using them intelligently to improve performance at work through helping people to be perhaps happier (Hein, 1996), satisfied with their responsibilities and assigned work, better motivated and strive for greater achievement (Goleman, 1999). To understand emotional intelligence it is important to highlight what is meant by emotions, the differences between emotions and feelings, compassion, emotional quotient, and what is meant by authentic emotions, as the following section illustrates.

2.1.1 Emotions and Feelings

Many authors and researchers have stressed the importance of emotions at work (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Frost, Dutton, Worline & Wilson, 2000;

Goleman 1998a; Goleman, 1996; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001; Harlos & Pinder, 2000; Martin, Knopoff & Bechman, 2000; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 2000; Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999; Meyerson, 2000; Pratt & Doucet, 2000; Sandelands & Boudens, 2000; Wheatley, 1999). According to Mayer *et al* (1999 p.1), emotions are "internal events that coordinate many psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions and conscious awareness." Mayer & Salovey (1990) view emotions as being adaptive, transforming personal and social interaction into a valuable experience. For instance, one can learn from interacting with others how to display certain emotions, and when to use them at work. This can become a learning process and an experience that would be seen as valuable to that individual and to others. Understanding emotions can help individuals in making better decisions and judgements regarding various issues at work (George, 2000), as well as creating stronger bonds and relationships (Barbalet, 2002; Goleman, 1999).

Emotions can also be felt and picked up by others through the principle of resonance (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b), that is to say when leaders drive emotions positively at work, this can create positive and strong relationships with employees. This in itself entails regular meetings, participation, sharing ideas, establishing committees, and providing various facilities for employees, allowing them to socialise and interact. Such a positive environment is said to be contagious and easily spread (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Fineman, 2003; MacKay, Hughes & Carver, 1990). Therefore, if the manager is able to regulate his/her emotions and attempts to understand how his/her feelings may affect others, then the manager is said to spread positive signals (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Fineman, 2003; Goleman *et al*, 2001; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002a). This would ultimately lead to a healthier working environment to a certain extent, given the availability of other factors such as leadership style, flexibility

of the working environment, nature of work, and the organisation's policies (Goleman, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b). Nevertheless followers may become cynical about a leader who manipulates emotions in order to get things done and reach the organisation's goals. Such false emotions would be detected and felt over time and would eventually lead to dissatisfaction and discomfort (Fineman, 2003).

The leader's mood and its attendant behaviours could be considered as setting off a chain reaction in driving the moods and behaviours of everyone else in the organisation. This, according to Goleman *et al* (2002a), has a great impact on performance. Accordingly, it is seen as essential that leaders somehow look at the impact of their moods and behaviours before moving onto other responsibilities. For example, when someone in a bad mood approaches you, you may pick up the feelings, but when someone is excited or happy, you'll feel a positive emotional state. This would most probably be true for those people who are perhaps more empathetic. Emotions typically arise in response to a person's changing relationships (Orme, 2000) and at the same time they are considered as a resource for constructing work relationships (Fineman, 2003) and can be summarized in the following equation (Waldron, 2000 p.65):

Emotion = reaction to relational circumstances

+

Resource

Allowing relationships to be defined, maintained and abused

People need emotions to survive, because certain emotions are said to signal difficulty in relationships or environment. Goleman (1996) presents the evidence of an attorney who had his brain tumour removed. This apparently led to multiple problems in his life due to lack of feelings, leaving him unable to make decisions. Sometimes organisations cause emotional pain to

employees, leaving them upset and unable to work productively. This is referred to as 'toxic emotions' at work or 'toxicity' (Frost, 2003). These are elements that can poison people or organisations, spreading in various degrees, often undetected such as an abusive manager or the organisation's policy. According to Frost (2003), toxicity or emotional pain is considered to be a normal by-product of organisational life. Yet organisations that wish to maintain a healthy working environment would need to learn to handle toxicity effectively.

If emotions prevent the mind from looking at reality as it is and obscuring the mind in affecting one's judgment and ability in making correct assessment of the nature of things, then this, according to Goleman (2003), is referred to as 'destructive emotions.' He believes that with destructive emotions there will be gaps between the way things appear to people and the way things actually are in reality. Examples of destructive emotions from the Western point of view include: low self-esteem, over confidence, harbouring negative emotions, lack of compassion, and inability to have close interpersonal relations. Such emotions according to Goleman (2003) arise depending on the circumstances as well as the various habits and tendencies that express themselves from the outer core of consciousness.

By contrast, constructive emotions arise when a person appreciates the nature of what one perceives. They include: self-respect; self-esteem (if deserved); feelings of integrity; compassion; benevolence; generosity (seeing the true, the good and the right); love; and friendship (Goleman, 2003). For instance, an emotion such as happiness is very beneficial and significant at work, signalling that things are all right (Hein, 1996). A feeling of contentment at work signals a job well done whereas worry or fear means that something is wrong. Emotions are perhaps needed to convey important information, express feelings towards each other, as well as performing one's job effectively. Emotions may

help managers in identifying and understanding people's needs, giving managers the opportunity to further explore what should be done in order to get things and people in the right place. However, it is the lack of compassion and not being able to empathise with others that hinder relationships and blocks people's satisfaction and performing effectively (Frost *et al*, 2000). This could be attributed to the lack of feelings and communication between individuals, ineffective problem solving channels and insufficient motivation.

People learn about their behaviour and emotions in the workplace through interacting with others, getting feedback on their behaviour and perhaps receiving advice on how to behave in certain situations, especially the new comers. According to Fineman (2003), organisations regulate our feelings in terms of what we are able to express or display. As such, it is thought that displaying the right emotions keeps an organisation on track. The question raised here is whether regulating our emotions is healthy or not? Perhaps the nature of one's job and the organisational culture sometimes dictates how one should display certain emotions and avoid using other emotions (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). For instance nurses are expected to be nurturing and tolerant not so much by their employers, but by professional standards and customer (i.e. patient) expectations (Henderson, 2001). On the other hand, organisations in the hospitality industry require employees to display certain types of emotions such as friendliness, cheerfulness, warmth, enthusiasm or confidence (Fineman, 2003).

Whether positive or negative, emotions are believed to play a role in people's lives in the work place, allowing employees to express their own concerns and perhaps try to understand how their managers feel towards their performance. According to Caruso, Mayer & Salovey (2001), leaders need to understand emotions, recognising relationships between emotions, determining meanings as well as understanding complex feelings (being able to recognize the

transformation of feelings from one state to another). Consequently, leaders are better able to understand, motivate and direct others through encouraging open-minded decision-making, planning, enthusiasm and idea generation. This is said to necessitate following certain guidelines such as: codes of behaviour that are acceptable in the organisation, work etiquette and the nature of relationships. Ekman (as cited by Goleman, 2003) points out that the expression of emotions is universal regardless of the culture. What perhaps alters emotions is what the organisational culture may dictate on people's expression of emotions. It can be seen that emotions can have a positive and negative impact in the workplace (Frost, 2003; Goleman, 1999).

It has been argued that managers, who have high self-awareness and are therefore empathetic, become more sensitive to the feelings of others (Turknett Leadership Group, 2002). Such managers are more aware of their feelings and are attuned to their deeper inner feelings and therefore realise how their feelings affect others and how others are feeling towards them, which is in line with the author's views. According to Goleman (2003), the general belief in the West is that emotions vary from one culture to another, like language and values, reflecting the culture. Ekman (as cited by Goleman, 2003) found and strongly believes that expressive emotions are the same wherever you go; if a person is happy then you would see a smile on his/her face whether they are bushmen in Africa or anywhere else in the world. Ekman also believes that "there are universals not only in the expressions of emotion but also in some of the events that bring forth the emotion," (Goleman, 2003 p.128). Gray & Watson (2001) express how emotions and feelings are crucial in interpersonal relationships at work. They further explain how emotions provide important information to others about our current state through facial expression for instance.

Solomon (1993 pp.96-97) defines emotions as being "feelings of a special kind,

typically conjoined with certain specific and readily identifiable sensations." He also elaborates how emotions are not considered as feelings yet our feelings are associated with our emotions. A feeling is said to be descriptive (Merlevede, Bridoux &Vandamme, 2001) but is not regarded as a component of emotions (Solomon, 1993). Emotions are also perceived as evaluative (Merlvede *et al*, 2001), concerning a particular situation (Solomon, 1993). For instance, a person is never just angry, he or she is angry with someone for something and a person is not just afraid but afraid of an object even if it is unknown. A person would usually be angry at an object, but once the object is removed then there is no more emotion.

Feelings tend to influence judgments people make (George, 2000), whereas an emotion is considered as a basic judgment of ourselves, and the projection of the values and ideas to which we live (Solomon, 1993). Therefore, a change in our beliefs would change our emotions. A person cannot be angry if he/she does not believe that someone has done something wrong to them, where anger here is considered as a set of judgments. It is thought that people can learn to respond differently and to control their behaviour, but it is difficult to change people's feelings. A study conducted by Lester Luborsky at the University of Pennsylvania, in successful psychotherapy found that what changed was the action people took, not their feelings – they still had the same fear or anger after psychotherapy, although it was weaker. They were able to change the method of responding even though they felt the same emotional impulse (Goleman, 2003).

It is a general belief that our inner self generates emotions for a reason, such as communicating with others and expressing passion. Merleved *et al* (2001) however, describe an emotion as being a feeling plus a label. They explain how people can experience feelings very differently, depending on the label they place on the emotion. To illustrate this further, the authors explain how

one person's stage fright can be another's anxiety and another's excitement. Physiologically, they will feel the same but will label it differently depending on the type of formative experience where the feeling was first experienced. The authors further elaborate the importance of distinguishing feeling from label as one of the main steps towards emotional intelligence. For instance, a group of people may be sharing the same feeling - which might be happiness towards their work - but each person has a different label to that happiness depending on how and why they view their work as being happy. This enables people to recode and re-label experiences on the basis of what they want to get out of such experiences.

Both positive and negative feelings are important at work (Spector & Goh, 2001). It is thought that negative feelings may direct leaders to realise certain issues, despite being negative. For instance, if a manager was informed of a break down in a group of machines, he could become angry, thus engaging him in 'destructive emotions.' Nevertheless, this anger might direct him to improve equipment and machines and avoiding future breakdowns by taking certain measures. A final note here is that people's past experience (childhood experiences along with relationships mould people's experiences) in emotion is believed to affect their behaviours at work, moulding their personalities and emotional sensitivities (Fineman, 2003).

Feelings are therefore said to be important in prioritising, sorting, and filtering possibilities (Lutz, 1998), helping to distinguish between good and bad, right and wrong. People often talk about how they have a 'feeling' towards going ahead with a certain project or how they may feel uneasy with a certain investment. People may sometimes not rely on following models without having their own input from their experience or their feelings towards solving a certain problem for instance (Cooper & Sawaf, 1996). The need for feelings is evident in Western cultures (Sandelands & Boudens, 2000; Waldron, 2000) as

well as in China where emotional processes intersect with spiritual and bodily processes (Krone & Morgan, 2000). The Dalai Lama commented on how the "basic human nature is compassionate," (Goleman, 2003 p.155). As for the Gulf Region, emotions are considered as part of everyday life and interactions. In Buddhism for instance, emotions are honoured greatly and respected (Goleman, 2003). According to Goleman (2003), emotions are described as an inner source of energy, influence, and information that are neither good nor bad. What is equally important is to understand whether such emotions are a true reflection of inner feelings or are they faked, as the following paragraphs explain.

2.1.2 Authenticity and Emotions

Ashforth & Tomuik (2000) believe that authenticity reflects true and genuine feelings of the person, and being able to immerse one's self in a valued self-conception. It is worth noting here that emotions displayed are more effective when they are perhaps genuine, coming from the heart. The authors indicate how genuine feelings tend to remain stable, last longer, and reflect on a person's behaviour. This is said to lead to being more open-minded for continuous learning, creativity, respect and self-esteem. False emotions, on the other hand, would eventually fall apart upon the slightest changes in the situation or circumstances. Bennis (1999) along with Ryback (1998) emphasize the importance of authenticity in expressing feelings, which in turn is supposed to generate creative thinking, and possibly avoiding misunderstanding and communication problems. The author believes that every individual has different emotional needs, and different jobs require various levels of emotional intelligence. Therefore, people may not always display true feelings and are sometimes forced to display false emotions to comply with the job description and the organisation's culture, known as

'emotional labour.' Fineman (2003) states how emotional labour is often determined by who can display what emotions to whom. So for instance, a company director can get angry with peers who challenge his/her professionalism, while his/her junior staff would most likely have to swallow their pride when he criticises them.

Pratt & Doucet (2000) along with Ashforth & Tomuik (2000) refer to emotional labor as emotions that people display but do not reflect one's actual emotions or feelings. Such norms imply people express certain emotions that they may not be comfortable with or may not be coming from the heart. This is perhaps evident mostly in sales jobs or customer services, where smiling and appearance may influence the customer, making him/her feel happy, so that they would repeat their visits. Here, displaying the right emotions is considered to be crucial in sustaining the success of the business. For instance, employees working in an airline or customer services sometimes have to put on a false smile to please customers. Understanding such differences may help people to identify with themselves and their jobs, realising the significance of what is required from each person and why. This can lead to increasing people's awareness of each other, enabling each person to carry out his/her job effectively, according to the company's policy and requirements (companies that have set such policies). A significant issue to note here is the role of corporate culture in influencing how people feel, think and behave towards others (Schein, 1992). This is somewhat necessary to maintain and to reinforce a culture that is conducive to better relations between employees and management, and clients.

One can understand from the above discussions that emotional labour does not always have positive outcomes, there are however consequences which can sometimes 'break the mask.' Some people find it very difficult to act differently from how they feel, working hard within themselves and striving to

feel the company's mission. This would often result in exhaustion, stress and confusion. Organisations should also bear in mind cultural issues and clashes (Hochschild, 1983). For instance, looking at the impact of culture in China such as in greeting customers and interacting with them, where the Chinese do not seem to support the issue of smiling with customers, it is not part of the cultural issues and would therefore be wrongly understood (Krone & Morgan, 2000).

In the Gulf area, it is expected that attention is given to customers especially if they are acquaintances (Mona, 2003). Cultural clashes and resistance among employees are perhaps another consequence of emotional labour, where employees may not accept to carry on feeling and appearing what the company wants (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). This could, to some extent, lead to boredom among some employees having to repeat the same act everyday. Expressing a wider range of emotions would enable people to relate better to each other (Fineman, 2003). The researcher also believes that by expressing different emotions, it encourages greater connection and understanding between individuals and clarifies misunderstandings and conflict.

2.1.3 Bounded Emotionality and Compassion

Martin, Knopoff & Bechman (2000) point to '*bounded emotionality*,' which encourages people to express a wider range of emotions that is usually not expressed in traditional organisations, at the same time maintaining interpersonal boundaries between what is felt and what is expressed. The characteristics of this concept are: its inter-subjective limitations; tolerance of ambiguity; respect for individual value differences; authentic self-expression (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000; Martin *et al*, 2000); community building; as well as spontaneously emergent work feelings. The author believes that such

characteristics may be seen as leading to a healthier working environment. Bounded emotionality requires individuals to constrain emotional expression in order to function effectively in interpersonal relationships in ways that are sensitive to other people's emotional needs and competencies. Meyerson (2000) emphasises further the importance of attempting to honour emotions, indicating how people should perhaps try to regularly attend to as well as engage with others' feelings. This would enable people to clarify hidden feelings and to engage with others more fully and honestly (Meyerson, 2000). In reality this may not always be respected and applied. It may however work in ideal situations, where people tend to show respect to each other's feelings as much as possible and whenever necessary. Yet, it may not prove effective when people ignore each other's feelings, as this would indicate lack of compassion and consideration towards each other (Frost *et al*, 2000).

Many authors (Dutton, Frost, Worline, Lilius & Kanov, 2002; Frost, 2003; Frost *et al*, 2000; Harlos & Pinder, 2000; Martin *et al*, 2000;) stress the importance of compassion in restoring a sense of humanity and connection to the experiences that people have at work. Again, this may be partially applicable in reality, depending on the type of organisation, its culture, the situation and the people who work within that setting. It is also believed that compassionate organisations promote a culture and a set of policies that generate positive responses through all the levels in an organisation, unifying its various parts and working in harmony (Goleman, 2003). Compassion is said to centre on the connection between people, through supporting each other, being empathetic (Frost, 2003; Frost *et al*, 2000) and responding to the emotions of others, as well as being free from suffering and the causes of it (Matthieu Riccard as cited by Goleman, 2003). Being empathetic, according to Cooper & Sawaf (1997), is the root of compassion and is linked closely to personal responsibilities and kindness. These are seen as among the great ethical codes that most religions are based on. Referring to Christianity and

Islam as an example; emphasis is placed on the importance of mankind in being helpful towards each other, being honest in their relationships and considerate, respecting each other regardless of their origin and religion (AlHashemi, 1987).

It has been argued that empathy and compassion connect us with others through the shared language of feelings and experience (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman *et al*, 2002a). In accordance with the literature, this seems to be universal: the need for emotions and its role in building relationships at work, and the capacity to show compassion (although there may be slight variations from one culture to another). There are certain aspects of emotions that an individual may not fully understand unless he/she experiences it. From the author's experience, she found that people who have very basic and simple jobs with basic educational background may not consider emotions and compassion to be an essential part in their relationships. Therefore, when people are overloaded with work, they do not have time to stop and think about their own emotions or they may not respond compassionately to others (Frost *et al* 2000).

According to Goleman (1995;1999), 'Compassionate acts' often display a form of emotional intelligence where a person is aware of his/her emotions and empathises with others, displaying feelings of kindness and warmth. Additionally, compassion according to Dutton *et al* (2002, enables employees to recover from future setbacks more quickly and effectively. This in turn strengthens employees' relationships towards their organisation. However, in some instances, it is not possible to be compassionate and express true feelings if a person fears that it may jeopardise his/her work, or when a person expresses wrong feelings to his/her employer or other people that may result in a negative way. However, an understanding of emotional intelligence would help a person to distinguish what feelings to display at work and what feelings to suppress.

2.1.4 Emotional Intelligence

A lot of interest in the idea of emotional intelligence has appeared during the last few years. Several writers (for example George, 2000; Goleman, 1999; Goleman, 2000; Hein, 1996) emphasize the importance of emotional intelligence for leaders, describing leadership as an emotion-laden process, from the perspective of a leader and a follower. Many practitioners and writers (Goleman, 1996; Goleman, 1998; Goleman *et al*, 2002a; HayMcBer, 1999; Merlevede, 2001; Orme, 2001; Orme, 2000) regard emotional intelligence as a key success factor for any business. It can be said that emotional intelligence defines how and what people learn, allowing them to set priorities and determine the majority of our daily actions. But what is meant by emotional intelligence? Some authors such as Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee (1999), define the concept in terms of 'focusing attention on the human talent.' Although the phrase may sound simple, it underlines the complexity of a person's capability and competencies. It is thought that being emotionally intelligent may differentiate people from abnormal situations where they would act without thinking about their own emotions and other people's feelings. Mayer *et al* (1999) define emotional intelligence in terms of ability in recognising the meanings of emotions, their relationships and the ability of people to reason and solve problems on the basis of emotions.

The argument put forward here is that there is no single common definition of emotional intelligence. Weisinger (1998 p.xvi) for instance puts forward the idea of emotional intelligence as the intelligent use of emotions, "you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results." Again, using emotions here depends on what people understand by 'using.' For instance, what might seem appropriate for one person might be unsuitable or unacceptable to another. Orme (2001 p.6) defines emotional intelligence as

"tuning into emotions, understanding them and taking appropriate action." Cooper's (1996) definition is in line with Orme's thoughts, stating that emotional intelligence is about being able to understand and apply the power of emotions, using it as a source of human energy, information, connecting to and influencing people in the process. The issue raised here concerns the use of emotions and how different people would use emotions in different ways that may be seen as manipulative and harmful to others. This is also called toxic emotions as put forward by Frost (2003), which may affect people's emotions and feelings. According to Frost, the leader's role would be to attempt to handle such toxins by perhaps displaying true feelings as a first step.

Boyatzis *et al* (1999) state how emotional intelligence consists of the competencies that constitute: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Such a definition may seem objective, yet it still contains subjective aspects. For instance, referring to 'being aware of one's self,' each person has a different view of what is suitable and what seems right to do and what is wrong or inappropriate to express.

Self-awareness is the capacity to understand one's emotions, strengths, and weaknesses (Goleman, 2000), tuning into one's feelings (Hein, 2000b; Orme, 2001) and knowing what one is capable of (Sadler, 1992).

Self-management is the capacity for effectively managing one's motives and regulating one's behaviour.

Social-awareness implies understanding what others are saying and feeling and why they feel and act as they do.

Relationship Management (previously known as social skills) according to Goleman (2000) and Cherniss & Goleman (2001) requires acting in such a way

that one is able to get desired results from others and at the same time reach personal goals.

2.1.5 Emotional Quotient

Some writers (such as Hein, 1996; Goleman, 1998) use the term EQ or Emotional Quotient - that borrows from the term 'Intelligence Quotient'- interchangeably with emotional Intelligence. Just as IQ has certain elements and characteristics, it is also argued that EQ consists of certain characteristics that distinguish people who are emotionally intelligent. The EQ (Emotional Quotient) model comprises of three main parts as illustrated in **Table 2.1**: Knowing yourself, Choosing yourself and Giving yourself (www.6seconds.org)(13.02.2002). The model presents an insight into the parts of emotional quotient and how it leads to being more aware of one's emotional patterns (**Appendix B** contains detailed information about the EQ model). The first part, 'Know yourself,' discusses ways of building emotional literacy, through identifying and being able to sort out core feelings (fear, joy, acceptance, anger, sorrow, disgust, surprise and expectation), along with understanding their causes and effects. This is viewed to be valuable in helping people to better understand how emotions function in our brains and bodies (Goleman, 1998). The second dimension under 'know yourself' is recognising behavioural patterns; becoming conscious of the patterns we exhibit, allowing us to better understand ourselves. This could help people at work to be more aware of how and why they feel certain feelings towards others at work, enabling them to perhaps adjust and change accordingly (Gowing, 2001).

Table 2.1 Emotional Quotient Model

Know Yourself	Choose Yourself	Give Yourself
Build Emotional Literacy	**Apply Consequential Thinking**	**Create Empathy**
Recognise Patterns	**Engage Intrinsic Motivation** **Choose Optimism**	**Commit To Noble Goals**

Source: (www.6seconds.org)(13.02.2002)

The second part of the EQ model, 'Choose yourself,' includes managing feelings and recognising that you can make a difference by holding yourself to high standards and doing what is right. Here people would realise the importance of being aware of the affects of their feelings and how to contain negative feelings towards others by managing their emotions to achieve high standards of performance, being in line with the organisation's ethical codes of what should be followed and avoided at work (Gowing, 2001).

The last part of the EQ model, 'Give yourself,' entails recognising your place in the larger community, being aware of the decision-making in addition to using empathy. It is anticipated that understanding the EQ model would allow people to better understand the importance of one's emotions as well as emotional intelligence, for oneself and towards others. Additionally, the EQ model presents a guideline for people illustrating the basic elements in establishing and maintaining stronger relationships at work, whether at the

managerial level or employee or both. It could also help managers to somehow contain toxic emotions and search for ways to reduce it and create a better, perhaps more relaxed working environment, as it has an impact on our thinking (Gowing, 2001).

There are some parts of the brain that are affected by the emotional environment in which we are raised and also by experience (Goleman, 2003). "The impact of environment on brain development has been traced down to the level of actual gene expression. If you are raised in a nurturing environment, there are actually demonstrable, objective changes in gene expression...those who are brought up in a nurturing environment have a greater degree of ability to regulate their emotions," (Goleman, 2003 p.189). There are however, people who do not seem to learn from experience, whether positive or negative. This may be attributed to having 'emotional tone deafness,' or being emotional illiterate; where the individual does not realise what they are doing is wrong or does not have feelings or inner gut instinct regarding a situation or people around them. According to Goleman (1998), people with alexithymia (people with a confused awareness of their own feelings) do not have the ability to use their gut sense to guide their thinking and action. Therefore this would not enable them to learn from experience if they lack the ability to feel and sense what is right and what is wrong and how to learn from their mistakes as they go along. Nevertheless, an emotionally intelligent leader should be able to detect this and attempt to empathise and help out such people.

Another issue to be taken into consideration is that emotional intelligence should not be thought of as a replacement or substitute for ability, knowledge or job skills. Likewise, IQ (Intelligence Quotient), according to Cherniss (2000), by itself is not a very good predictor of job performance. He refers to a study conducted in the 1950s on eighty PhD students graduated from Science, who underwent several personality and IQ tests along with interviews. The

same group of people were tracked down forty years later when they were in their early seventies to look at their success. From the follow up, it became apparent that the social and emotional abilities were four times more important than IQ. This, of course, does not rule out the use of IQ, as Higgs & Dulewicz (1999) argue for incorporating it along with emotional intelligence. Their argument is supported by a seven-year follow-up study of 100 general managers, where a combination of IQ, EI and managerial competencies (labelled as MQ) accounted for over seventy per cent of variations in individual success. They concluded that IQ should not be the main criteria for selecting managers, and that managerial quotient (MQ) should be given more weight.

Several writers argue that emotional intelligence enhances one's success, but does not guarantee it in the absence of suitable skills (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 1998; Ryback, 1998), such as the set of competencies and abilities (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) discussed earlier on. Cherniss (2000) elaborates further on the competencies, indicating the ability to recognize what another person is feeling helps in developing competencies such as influence. For instance, it has been a focal point of debate that emotional intelligence helps managers in motivating employees, influencing their thoughts, encouraging them to work towards the vision and goals (Caruso *et al*, 2000). In similar ways, people who have the ability to regulate their emotions find it conceivably easier to develop initiative, due to their clear thinking and high self-awareness (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). This may be influenced by the degree of being true (authentic) about one's feelings and emotions. To further understand emotional intelligence, it would be useful to have an overview of its historical development.

2.2 HISTORICAL ROOTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is not really a new topic and has a long history of research with its importance for effective performance at work and in life (Cherniss, 2000; Fineman, 2003; Orme, 2001). One of the earliest psychologists to explore the concept of 'social intelligence' was Thorndike (in the 1920s and 1930s), who offered the idea of emotional intelligence as a single concept. Beginning with the 1930s, an Australian psychologist named Edgar Doll devised a scale to assess social competence, which had a social quotient score that indicated the level of social maturity of an individual. Those were early investigations in the field of emotional and social competence (Refer to **Table 1 in Appendix I** for a summary of the historical development of the concept of emotional intelligence which identifies key writers on the topic along with a brief description of their contribution towards the field.)

The history of the concept of emotional intelligence can be traced back through many decades to one of the renegades of the psychoanalytic school, Otto Rank, who departed from the theoretical teaching of his mentor Sigmund Freud. Carl Rogers challenged the Freudian thought of American psychotherapy in the 1940s, took the ideas from Otto Rank and applied them to solving the problems of GI's returning from World War II (Ryback, 1998). When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem solving. However, there were researchers who recognised early on that the non-cognitive aspects were also important. David Wechsler emerged in the 1940s referring to 'non-intellective' as well as 'intellective' elements (by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors). Furthermore Wechsler proposed that the non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life (Cherniss, 2000). Wechsler was not the only researcher who stressed the importance of non-cognitive aspects of intelligence for adaptation and success. Robert Thorndike

along with Gardner put forward similar ideas (Cherniss, 2000; Orme, 2001). Within the same period of time, Leeper appeared making an important contribution to Weschsler's early work by proposing that emotions - as part of and - contributes to logical thought and intelligence.

In the 1960s Fleishman & Harris suggested that leaders who are able to establish mutual trust, respect, warmth and rapport with members of their group are more effective (Orme, 2001). This thought may be attributed to the 1960s, characterised by 'cognitive revolution,' concentrating on psychological science (Goleman, 1996). Another famous researcher, McClelland, was among a growing group of researchers who were becoming concerned with the role of emotional intelligence in determining success in life (McClelland, Atkinson & Russel, 1976). The issue of trust that Fleishman & Harris referred to in the 1960s seems to be changing nowadays due to the complexity of the business environment, modification in the core values and beliefs of people working in various organisations. This change took place gradually as psychologists, according to Goleman (1996), began to realize the essential role of feelings in thinking.

Gardner (1983; 1998) conceptualised social intelligence as consisting of intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. Mayer & Salovey, emerged in the 1990s introducing the term emotional intelligence, and initiated a research programme intended to develop valid measures of emotional intelligence to explore its significance. More recent psychologists such as Goleman (1998) along with Saarni (1998) appreciated the complexity of social intelligence, describing it in terms of multiple capabilities; having a combination of various interpersonal, social and cognitive skills. Recent names in the field of emotional intelligence include: Feist & Barron (1996), Lusch & Serpkenci, (1990) and Sternberg (1996), adding further dimensions to the field, bringing more evidence and support for emotional intelligence research. But why did it

receive so much attention? Hein (1996) and Goleman (1998) explain that more and more new studies are showing clear relationships between emotions, brain chemistry, happiness, good health and general success in life.

From the historical background one can draw concluding remarks on the significant aspects that lead to the rise and expansion of emotional intelligence. The role and contribution of the various researches prior to the 1990s (such as Wechsler, Gardner along with Sternberg) paved the way for further research into the field of emotional intelligence. The researchers who pulled together all the previous research and coined the term emotional intelligence were Mayer and Salovey (1990). Their work gave way for further research into the field, giving rise to many specialists and professionals to investigate and validate the various measurements, creating new insights into the field of EI.

2.3 INTEREST IN AND IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTLELIGENCE

It is evident that current business interest in the field of emotional intelligence started with Goleman's 1995 book (Emotional Intelligence), which generated enormous publicity about the term (Bar-On, 2000; Benson, 2003; Cherniss, 2000; Mayer & Salovey, 2000; Schwartz, 2000; Thackray, 1998). Research into the field increased and the term became even more popular with his 1995 book. Goleman gave a lot of lectures, research work and consultation in the field of emotional intelligence and competencies that leaders need to become successful and for employees to become 'star performers.' The concept became more widespread when Goleman joined the Hay Group in 1998, which took over the design and marketing of Goleman's emotional intelligence training programme (Schwartz, 2000). With the publishing of his third book 'Working with emotional intelligence,' (Goleman, 1999) aimed specifically at

corporate audiences, more companies started to use and apply emotional intelligence.

Perhaps the most interesting article was that of 2000 in the Harvard Business Review when Goleman (2000) talked about a break through in leadership. In addition, many writers appeared and articles were written and books published towards the end of the 90s on emotions and emotional intelligence at work. Companies have started applying emotional intelligence training programmes towards the end of the 90s and continue to do so. Examples of such companies are: Amex (American Express), which noticed significant improvement for those who received the training (Schwartz, 2000) in addition to Johnson & Johnson (Cavallo, 2001). The results in Johnson & Johnson for instance showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more 'emotional competence' than other mangers (Cavallo, 2001).

Since the beginning of the new millennium, hundreds of websites on emotional intelligence have emerged (such as the Q-Metrics, Hay Group, EI consortium, 6-Seconds) and many companies established in training and providing counselling in emotional intelligence (such as HayMcBer, EI UK, Corporate Consulting Group, Multi Health Sytems). Many authors seem to emphasize and stress the importance of emotional intelligence (Bliss, 2000; Caruso, 1999; Caruso *et al*, 2001; Goleman, 1999; Goleman, 2000; Weisinger, 1998), especially its impact on happiness (Hein, 1996), and its role in the leadership process (George, 2000). Emotional intelligence allows people to work productively with each other (Orme, 2000). Bliss (2000) refers to a study that shows a high emotional intelligent executive of one of the companies described as a visionary, whose qualities helped in being open-minded, thereby contributing to the development of the company and retaining different kinds of people, working in harmony with each other. This CEO, according to Bliss (2000), turned the company into a success, both at home and other parts of the

world. His colleagues admired his warmth, generosity, imaginative and 'people orientated' skills. This may be attributed to his personality, style of leadership and the possibility of a supportive working environment (Bliss, 2000).

According to Goleman (2001), feelings are seen as getting in the way of rationality and effective decision-making, where some organisations do not seem to encourage the involvement of emotions and feelings in the work place. Some organisations tend to believe that people should not bring their feelings to work, thereby ignoring the role and impact of emotions in the decision making process. It can be said however that leaders' moods have an impact on the emotions of the people around them. This is attributed to what scientists call the open-loop nature of the brain's limbic system - being our emotional center - (Goleman 1996). In other words, we rely on connections with other people within the organisation, especially people we work close with, to determine our moods. Additionally, it is thought that leaders become more creative when they are in a positive mood and conduct major improvements in their organisation's functioning, becoming optimistic in the process, sincere and realistic (Goleman *et al*, 2001; George, 2000).

Orme (2000) describes emotions as being like internal radar that adjusts our needs, particularly when they are not met. This is perhaps more evident with the rapid changes in the business and economical environment along with the speed of work in organisations today. She puts forward her views regarding the reasons why organisations are interested in developing emotional intelligence: **First,** to maintain work-life balance by focusing on the emotional intelligence of both managers and employees; **Second,** to use emotional intelligence to develop the team (whether new comers or existing staff); **Third,** to improve customer-facing staff, where high staff turnover is reviewed and planning changes to recruitment and induction program; **Fourth,** to develop ales teams, where competencies that make someone successful in selling are

reviewed, presenting them as models for other members.

Emotional intelligence is being used in various areas including: recruiting staff with high emotional intelligence, career development, preparing key people for the future, maximising productivity, identifying current levels of emotional intelligence together with future improvements, boosting sales by tracking the emotional intelligence of those in front-line and working to increase it, improving the organisational culture and morale as well as creating positive working environment (Orme, 2000). According to Orme (2000), there are some sectors in the United Kingdom that have made a commitment to emotional intelligence assessment and training including:

- The retail sector, which made efforts to develop staff members' capabilities in influencing others;
- The financial services sector attempted to work with senior teams towards improving their operations;
- Local government targeted at developing the capabilities of a new team with a challenging remit;
- The engineering sector identified star performers at team leader and management levels as a possible tool for training needs analysis;
- The manufacturing sector introduced the concept of emotional intelligence at a broad level;
- The education as well as business sectors used the concept to identify the current culture or state of teams working within groups, as well as improving classroom atmosphere.

The School of Emotional Literacy in Gloucestershire for instance is based on the idea of emotional intelligence that is considered throughout its curriculum (www.schoolofemotional-literacy.com)(11.10.2004). Emotional intelligence was introduced in the police force in Scotland to improve relations with the

public and reduce officers' stress level (Smith, 2002). The argument put forward for the application of emotional intelligence is based on the fact that low levels of emotional intelligence seem to create climates of fear and anxiety, where employees feel uneasy and demoralised due to the lack of a harmonious and friendly environment (Goleman, 1996; Goleman, 1998a).

The author believes that tense or frightened employees may become productive in the short-term, but in the long-run people would not be as productive, and the manager may develop a negative reputation. This is because fear or being under pressure from a strict manager would make employees feel uncomfortable and uneasy, and over a long period of time people would start to reject it through various behaviours, affecting the quality of their work as well as their morals. This would lead to what Frost (2003) refers to as 'emotional toxicity,' where people would feel the emotional pain due to a harsh manager or rigid company policies, but would not receive any comfort to reduce such pain. This is said to cause dissatisfaction and feeling upset among employees.

2.4 APPROACHES TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There are basically two main approaches to emotional intelligence: the ability approach and the mixed approach. The following table (**Table 2.2**) presents a summary of these approaches.

Table 2.2 Approaches to Emotional Intelligence

MODEL	CHARACTERISTICS
ABILITY MODELS: **Mayer & Salovey (1999)** (refer to **Fig. 2.1**)	**Four branches:** - Identifying emotions - Using emotions - Understanding emotions - Managing emotions
MIXED MODELS: **Goleman (1995)**	**Five Categories:** - Managing emotions - Knowing your emotions - Motivating yourself - Recognising emotions - Managing relationships
Bar-On (1997)	**Five Categories:** - Intrapersonal skills - Interpersonal skills - Adaptability - Stress management - General mood
Goleman (1998) (refer to **Fig 2.2** for a detailed description)	**Five Categories:** - Self awareness - Self regulation - Empathy - Motivation - Social skills
Goleman's (2000) EI Model (refer to **Table 2.3** for a detailed description)	**Four Domains:** - Self-awareness - Self-management - Social awareness - Relationship management

2.4.1 The Ability Approach

The ability approach is one method of evaluating emotional intelligence in terms of measuring people's abilities (Gowing, 2001). This approach, as put forward by Mayer & Salovey (1997), views emotional intelligence as a set of cognitive abilities (where a person's actual mental ability is believed to be directly related to standard definitions of intelligence), as well as emotional aspects. The authors believe that those two aspects could determine the level of emotional intelligence of an individual. Their model of emotional intelligence argues that emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence and can be seen as a set of skills or abilities, where such abilities are considered to be like other abilities and can therefore be measured (look at **Fig. 2.1** below).

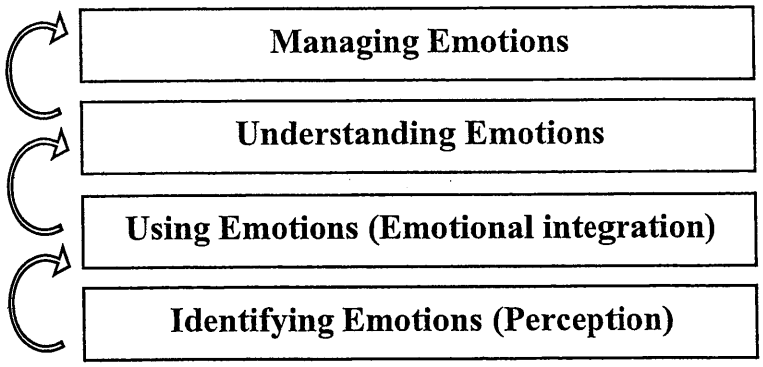


Fig. 2.1 The Mayer-Salovey Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

Mayer & Salovey's analysis of emotion-related abilities led them to divide emotional intelligence into four areas of skills (Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarcnios, 2001; Salovey & Caruso, 2000a), which they call 'branches': Emotional perception, emotional integration, emotional understanding, and emotional management. According to Mayer, Caruso & Salovey (2000b), the ability model is proposed to operate in a unified fashion; each factor leads to another in the form of a hierarchy, and at the end would lead to one outcome and that is being more aware of one's emotional intelligence. What is also meant by unity, as put forward by Averill (2000), is that each aspect shares features with the other, i.e. cognitive abilities with emotional abilities share certain features with each other.

Mayer *et al* (2000a) stress how the model should begin with the first branch, the ability to perceive and express feelings. The reason being, that if a person turned away from a feeling, he may not learn much about feelings. This in turn is believed to help in understanding one's emotions and others that may somewhat limit one's ability to reason with and manage emotions. The second branch involves using one's emotions to improve the cognitive process and enhance reasoning. The second and third branches, emotional facilitation of thought and emotional understanding, involve the further processing of emotional information by using perhaps problem solving. The authors further explain how the third branch entails cognitive processing of emotion. They remark that this hierarchy is in terms of personality and not specifically in terms of underlying affective and cognitive processes. Gowing (2001) elaborates on this point further by indicating that Mayer & Salovey's model was essentially built on the foundation of personality theory. The authors view the third level in the branch as the most cognitively saturated, requiring thinking and analysis from the individual, and a balance among many factors such as: motivational, emotional, and cognitive. This would enable individuals to better manage and cope with their emotions (Mayer *et al*, 2000b).

It is perhaps important to point out here that such division in the model makes understanding of the whole process easier to grasp, but at the end they are intertwined, and related to each other, leading to one result, which is measuring and improving emotional intelligence.

Identifying or perceiving emotions, entails the ability to correctly identify how people are feeling. This necessitates paying attention to, and accurately decoding, emotional signals in facial expressions, as well as listening to the tone of voice and looking for artistic expressions. This is coupled with being aware of one's own feelings and emotions to avoid being blinded by one's emotions. Mayer *et al* (2002a) emphasise the importance of starting with this branch. They argue that if an individual has good emotional perception to begin with (by perhaps sensing others' behaviour towards oneself and making use of mood changes), then one would be able to get feedback from others to better understand emotions. With such understanding, a person may have the knowledge that would enable the individual to possibly better manage and cope with feelings. This first step would enable the individual to smoothly move on to the next phase, which is using emotions.

Using emotions (emotional facilitation of thought), according to Mayer *et al* (2000a), calls for the ability to create emotions, integrating feelings into how we think by being creative as well as having feelings and empathy towards others. They indicate how the emotional facilitation of thought focuses on emotions entering the cognitive system, altering cognition to assist thought, enabling a person to employ his/her feelings in order to enhance the cognitive system. This process, from Caruso *et al*'s (2001) point of view, would help an individual at work to be more effective and seemingly capable in problem solving, decision-making and creativity. Such is possible due to the nature of the process itself, where cognitive thinking is involved in labelling emotions. This is said to hold given the individual is normal; in a sense that he/she is not

suffering from any psychological disorders that may alter his/her thinking and henceforth emotions. To further illustrate this, Averill (2000) stresses how emotions can either facilitate or hinder creativity and how emotions and creativity interact with each other. However, he indicates that creativity requires an individual to engage in novel behaviour, be affective and authentic.

Understanding and reasoning with emotions implies an understanding of the causes of emotions, knowing to a certain extent, what motivates others, attempting to understand their points of view and handling team interactions. Understanding what leads to various emotions is thought to be a critical component of emotional intelligence (Mayer *et al*, 2000a). This is presumed to lead to managing one's own emotions. The process is considered to be a gradual link from one state (understanding) to another (managing). People would be more knowledgeable here, which may ultimately help them in better understanding of how to balance their emotions. Such people, according to Mayer *et al* (2000a), are said to posses the capacity to understand basic truths of human nature and their relationships. Combining the three stages together would enable the individual to better understand how to manage emotions.

Managing emotions necessitates figuring out effective strategies that use one's emotions to help in achieving intended goals and solving problems, rather than being used by one's emotions. Managing emotions also means that a person would remain open to emotional information that would perhaps assist an individual in better managing and coping with his/her emotions. Mayer *et al* (2000a) show how they hope that the outcome of this branch leads to enabling people to somehow get rid of troublesome emotions in human relations.

To sum up, the entire process is considered to be one unified process and the outcome is a better individual in terms of being able to identify their feelings, handling their emotions more effectively and being aware of their emotions

relative to others as well as the impact of such emotions. A final note to consider here is that the ability model approach according to Caruso *et al* (2001), is not used by itself, rather, it is used as an additional tool along with other emotional intelligence measurements, such as the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), for leaders to further understand emotional intelligence. Despite some of the drawbacks of the ability model (focuses only on teaching emotional reasoning) the authors believe it is beneficial for leaders and managers in understanding in depth their employees' feelings towards their jobs and peers, their emotional needs and requirements as well as their problems and concerns (Cobb & Mayer, 2000). Another approach to measuring emotional intelligence is the mixed method which is based on the ability model but added to it are a broad range of personality traits (Caruso *et al*, 2001).

2.4.2 The Mixed Approach

Another approach to measuring and evaluating emotional intelligence is the mixed approach, which considers emotional intelligence as a set of competencies (Gowing, 2001). Goleman is one of the leading authors in this field, developing models in 1995, 1998 and 2000. He refers to his model as a set of emotional competencies which he defines as "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work," (Goleman, 1999 p.24). Goleman's 1995 model covers five categories: managing emotions, knowing your emotions, motivating yourself, recognizing emotions and managing relationships. Goleman (1999) puts forward a set of competencies – which refers to the personal and social skills that lead to superior performance at work – as being part of emotional intelligence (Refer to **Fig. 2.2** for a detailed outline of the competencies).

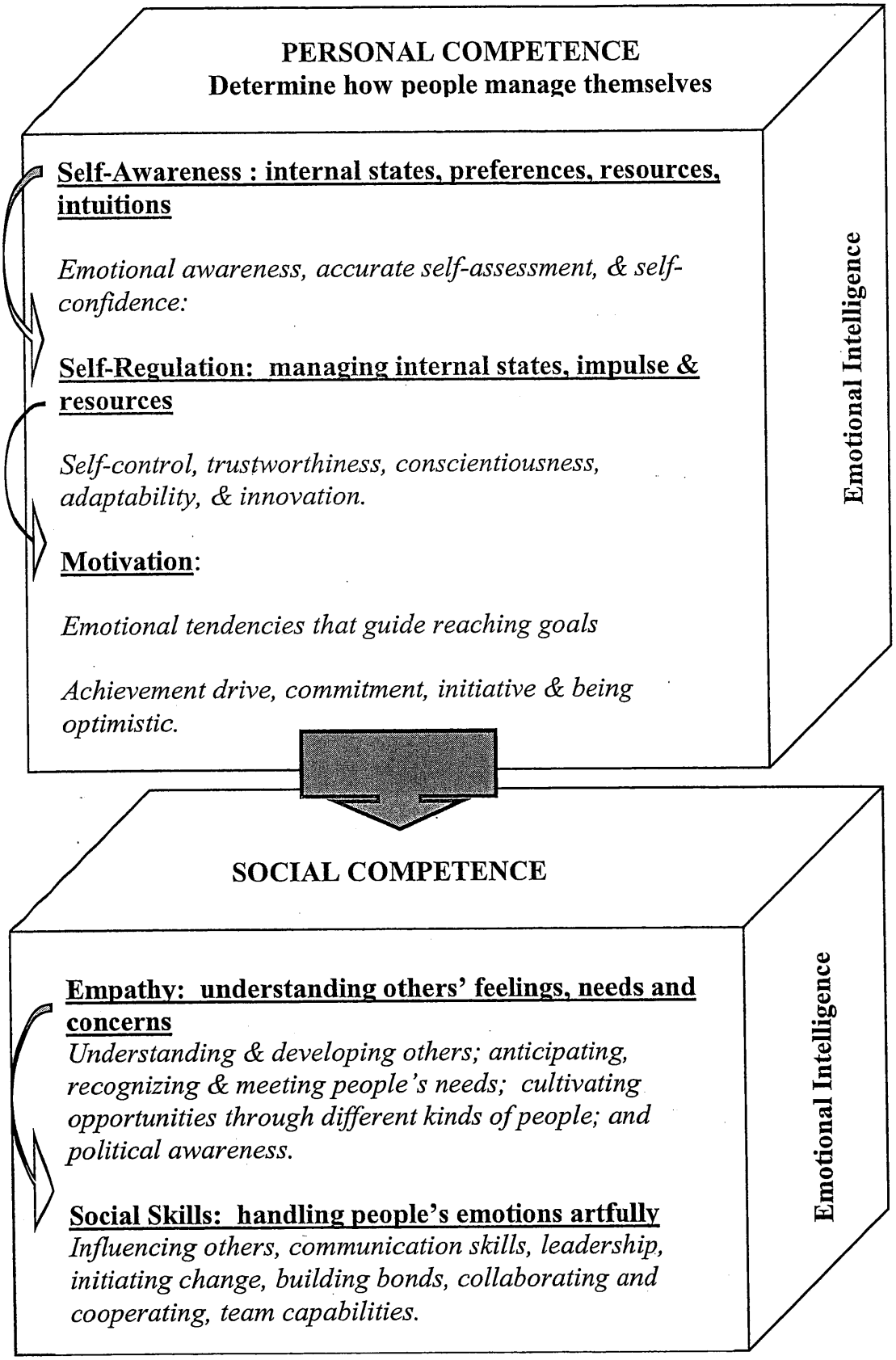


Fig. 2.2 Goleman's (1999) Emotional Competence Framework (Goleman, 1999 pp.26-27)

Goleman (1999) identifies five clusters that are grouped under two main headings: Personal Competence and Social Competence. He points out that the competencies are independent, where each cluster has a unique contribution to job performance. The competencies are also interdependent, in that there is some kind of interaction between the clusters. Another characteristic of the competencies is how they are hierarchical; they build upon one another. Personal Competence covers all the competencies related to an individual: Self-Awareness, Self-Regulation and Motivation.

Social Competence, on the other hand, determines how people handle relationships in terms of having Empathy and Social Skills. Empathy refers to being aware of other people's feelings, needs and concerns. The social skills explain the skills that people require to interact with each other at work using various interpersonal and leadership skills. Goleman (1999) also argues that the emotional competencies are based on a common underlying emotional intelligence capacity, which is seen as important for people to learn the competencies that may contribute towards being successful at work. Goleman's 2000 EI competencies were slightly modified from his previous models, giving it a different up-to-date framework (**Appendix C** provides details of the old model). The model, as identified by Goleman *et al* (2002b) along with Boyatzis *et al* (1999), describes four main domains with two main headings: Personal competence and Social Competence, as illustrated in **Table 2.3.**

Personal Competence encompasses self-awareness and self-management:

Self-Awareness is the ability to read and understand your own emotions in terms of strengths and limitations as well as values and motives, being confident about one's self-worth and having intuition. Self-awareness is considered as the most essential element of the emotional intelligence competencies.

Table 2.3 Goleman's (2000) Emotional Intelligence Competencies

PERSONAL COMPETENCE
Self-awareness cluster: ❑ Emotional self-awareness: recognizing our emotions and their effects. ❑ Accurate self-assessment: knowing one's strengths and limits. ❑ Self-confidence: a strong sense of one's self worth and capabilities.
Self-management cluster: ❑ Adaptability: flexibility in dealing with changing situations or obstacles. ❑ Emotional self-control: inhibiting emotions in service of group or organizational norms. ❑ Initiative: proactive, bias toward action. ❑ Achievement orientation: striving to do better. ❑ Trustworthiness: integrity or consistency with one's values, emotions, and behaviour. ❑ Optimism: a positive view of the life and the future.
SOCIAL COMPETENCE
Social Awareness cluster: ❑ Empathy: understanding others and taking active interest in their concern. ❑ Service orientation: recognizing and meeting customer's needs. ❑ Organizational awareness: perceives political relationships within the organization.
Relationship Management cluster: ❑ Inspirational leadership: inspiring and guiding groups and people. ❑ Developing others: helping others improves performance. ❑ Change catalyst: initiating or managing change. ❑ Conflict management: resolving disagreements. ❑ Influence: getting others to agree with you. ❑ Teamwork and collaboration: building relationships by creating a shared vision and synergy.

Source: Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002 p.39)

The reason, as put forward by Boyatzis *et al* (1999), is that at this stage people start to reflect upon themselves. This is considered as a prerequisite for being aware of one's strengths and weaknesses. This would in turn help the person in identifying any emotional problems. Conducting self-examinations is vital for building and sustaining leadership by looking into one's strengths and expertise, spotting weaknesses and ways of improving. Once a person does this assessment, he/she would be able to draw a plan that would build on their existing skills and knowledge, taking necessary steps to strengthen certain talents and ways of developing weaknesses in other skills. This would ultimately help in better understanding how to communicate and interact with people (Goleman, 1998). The more one knows about one's self, the better the individual would perhaps be able to understand others and how they feel towards them or towards a certain situation. If an individual can understand for example more about his/her behaviour or anger in certain situations, he/she would be more aware of the outcome of such feelings, its impact on the people around and would therefore attempt to manage such feelings based on self-awareness. The key point here is tuning into feelings, senses, actions, intensions and behaviours. This would in turn lead to building healthier relationships at work, as well as a better working environment. Self- awareness necessitates receiving feedback. However, accurate feedback may be very difficult in many areas of life, since people try to avoid giving negative feedback. Therefore, individuals would not get the chance to regularly check on their feedback. In some cases, feedback is sometimes unclear or not given at all, especially in Arabic cultures where people are not very open to each other and tend to give compliments instead of honest feedback. This may become misleading, where an individual is complimented on performing work or a report that is not productive.

Resonant leaders (leaders that realise the impact of their moods on performance and being in tune with those around them) for instance use self-awareness to

gauge their own moods accurately, realising intuitively how they are affecting others. Bliss (2000) refers to a study conducted by Sosika Megerian in 1999, showing that managers who maintained accurate self-awareness had more attributes of emotional intelligence and appeared to be more effective to their superiors and subordinates.

Self-management is the ability to control your emotions, acting as much as possible with honesty and integrity in reliable and adaptable ways. It allows leaders to think clearly, providing them with concentrated energy, removing any disruptive emotions from getting in the way of such clear thinking. Resonant leaders for instance do not let their occasional bad moods seize the day. Instead, they tend to use self-management to leave their bad moods outside the office or to explain its source to people in a reasonable manner, knowing where it is coming from and estimating how long it might last. The author believes that this might be a natural skill, where some people by nature have the ability to manage their negative moods. It could also be effectively learned through training according to Goleman (2003) and Goleman *et al* (2002b). With this in mind, it is important to note here that there are social factors (competencies) that may influence people's emotional awareness.

Social Competence comprises two competencies: social awareness and relationship management, explained in detail in the paragraphs to follow.

The issue raised here is the significance of social competence at work. According to Topping, Bremner & Helmes (2000 p.36) "Social competence is one of the transferable skills constantly in high demand by employers, who are not as interested in what a person knows, but in what a person can do and be quickly trained to do, and the doing will almost always be in a social environment." The authors believe that those who are socially competent are more likely to withstand the stresses of life and perhaps create an emotional

balance, enabling them to strengthen their social competency.

Social awareness, according to Goleman (1998), entails having capabilities such as empathy and organisational intuition. It is apparent that socially aware executives tend to show they care and are experts at reading the currents of office politics. Thus, interacting with people entails using empathy. This allows leaders to tune into various emotions of people, and in turn fine tune their message to keep it synchronised with the feelings of their employees. This in reality may be interpreted as manipulating others.

Perhaps one may argue that manipulation might come into the picture here when the manager reflects his/her feelings whether true or false, and changes the feelings and thoughts of the employees towards his/her own objectives. This may not be authentic feelings and the manager in this case displays what is known as 'emotional labour' (Ashforth & Tomuik, 2000). The implication here is that managers may compromise on the employees objectives and can lead - if not immediately - to employee dissatisfaction. This does not mean of course that leaders should adopt other people's emotions as their own and attempt to please everyone. Research on emotional labour in management has emphasised its sociological and psychological impact on organisations and their members regardless of the degree of manipulation; whether it is surface acting, deep acting and genuine acting (Hochschild, 1983). Such acting mechanisms identified by Hochschild (1983) vary in nature, requiring different degrees of manipulation of one's inner feelings or outward behaviour.

Social awareness also requires empathy, which means being considerate about employees' feelings and then making intelligent decisions that would perhaps work those feelings into response. What is meant by intelligent decisions here is that leaders try to make the best decisions according to the situation and the information they have available, so as to satisfy the individual (s) and situation

at hand (Goleman, 1999). Goleman *et al* (2002a) state that resonant leaders often try to understand how their words and actions make others feel, being sensitive enough to change them when that impact is negative. To illustrate this point further, take the example of Pagonis (2000), a Lieutenant General in the US Army, stressing the importance of empathy in his experience in the army - with special reference to the second Gulf War in 1991. He argues how empathy played a vital role in the context of the Gulf War. Pagonis (2000) states clearly how they had to constantly ask themselves regarding the needs and demands of the people in their team, as well as looking into the ways of providing the team members with such needs. This created strong bonds between the team members that used the 'relationship management' competence.

Relationship management calls for communicating clearly and convincingly, disarming conflict, and building strong personal bonds. The art of handling relationships well should perhaps begin with authenticity. Some people would somehow recognise when a person is genuine about his/her emotions and feelings, which may generate better relationships than feelings which are false and would eventually fall apart. Some people also have the ability to sense when managers mean what they say, which may influence the level of trust and association with such managers. It could be argued here that once leaders have attuned to their own vision and values, got into the positive emotional range, tuned into the emotions of the group, and then relationship management skills would allow them to interact in ways as to catalyse resonance (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). Hence, leaders who understand how their moods affect others would perhaps have stronger bonds with their employees than leaders who let their negative moods and emotions get to the employees without taking a moment to think of the adverse effect (Goleman, 2000; Weisinger, 1998).

Handling relationships, however, is not as simple as it sounds. It can be argued that it is not just about being friendly and nice, but also combining it with the

purpose of moving people in the right direction. As such, resonant leaders use these skills in addition to the leadership skills to spread their enthusiasm and somewhat solve disagreements with some humour and kindness (Goleman *et al*, 2002b; Weisinger, 1998). This should perhaps be applied in moderation, as extremes of both may somehow bear negative responses, leading to some degree of discomfort among employees. What should be considered here is how humour and kindness may not always work; certain situations may call for leaders to be rather tough or moderately strict, such as when productivity falls or when the quality of work is declining and profits are effected greatly.

To sum up on the competencies, an emotionally intelligent leader has the ability to carefully monitor his/her moods through self-awareness, change them accordingly through self-management, understand their impact through empathy, and act in ways that boost others' moods through relationship management (Goleman *et al*, 2001).

Another model in the mixed approach is Reuvon Bar-On, who became interested in non-cognitive competencies since the mid 1980s and developed a test that measures people's self-report called the EQ-i, in 1997 (Bar-On, 2000; Gowing, 2001). The model investigates the following five factors:

1) Intrapersonal EQ includes: self-regard (accurate self-appraisal), emotional self-awareness (the ability to be aware of and understand one's emotions), assertiveness (expressing one's emotions and oneself), independence, and self-actualisation;
2) Interpersonal EQ covers: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationship;
3) Stress management EQ comprises of: stress tolerance and impulse control (the ability to manage emotions);
4) Adaptability EQ refers to: reality testing (the ability to validate one's

thinking and feelings), flexibility and problem solving;

5) General mood EQ consists of: optimism along with happiness.

Whether managers adopt the ability model or the mixed models in evaluating emotional intelligence, it would be perhaps useful to look into the assessment of the approaches to gain more understanding of their strengths and weaknesses.

2.5 EVALUATION OF THE APPROACHES TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

One of the features of the ability model is its focus on how emotions can facilitate thinking as well as adaptive behaviour; it has to do with how people think, decide, plan and create. The model is skill-based, where emotional intelligence is considered a special class of mental attributes. Caruso *et al* (2001) specify clearly that the ability model does not focus upon personality traits or dispositions. Thus, it is not considered as a complete theory of workplace management, rather, it supplements and clarifies existing models of leadership and not replaces them. One of the limitations of the ability model is possibly the insufficient empirical data to support its predictive validity, due to its recent addition to the emotional intelligence field. However, with more research into the field, the approach would gain sufficient evidence to strengthen its position further and give more insight into the various competencies in the model. Additional research in this area will inevitably help proper utilization of the ability model (Cherniss, 2000). Despite the limitations of the ability model, Caruso *et al* (2001) confirm that ability models offer something new, a means to understand how leaders manage their own emotions and that of others in order to get intended results. The authors also emphasise the role of the model in providing Human Resources professionals

and managers with a comprehensive tool that would enable them to possibly define and measure emotional skills as well as developing such skills.

Mixed models on the other hand, offer a different perspective and insight into measuring emotional intelligence. The strengths of the mixed models lie perhaps in the multitude of traits that are seen as being broad in scope (Mayer, 1999). The list of traits in the mixed model seems to resonate with leaders as well as professionals, covering most of the present-day thinking regarding effectiveness (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). However, these models have limitations and difficulties according to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2000), such as being unclear in their grouping of competencies to include other traits like personality and social skills.

Developing emotional intelligence is perhaps pre-eminently done through understanding the various measurements available and what best fits the organisation. It is important that organisations should perhaps bear in mind the need to have well trained people to evaluate and develop emotional quotient programmes. Such programmes would somehow need to be regularly evaluated in order to have up-to-date techniques and measurements, especially when it deals with feelings and emotions and how these issues are subject to change (Orme, 2000).

2.6 CRITIQUE OF GOLEMAN'S WORK

Before preceding the discussion on the critique of Goleman's work, it would perhaps be interesting to draw attention to some background information on Goleman and his link to consultancy companies.

2.6.1 Background Information

Dr. Daniel Goleman received his M.A. and Ph.D. in clinical psychology and personality development. Perhaps his background and experience in the field of psychology and behavioural science has helped him tremendously in researching in the field of emotional intelligence. He was a co-founder of the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional learning at the Yale University Child Studies Centre (now at the University of Illinois at Chicago), with the mission to help schools introduce emotional literacy courses. Dr. Goleman is co-chairman of The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organisations, based in the Graduate School of Applied and Professional Psychology at Rutgers University. He is also a member of the Mind & Life Institute. His lectures to business audiences, professional groups and on college campuses as well as his consultancy work and research have helped him in gaining more insight into the field of emotional intelligence. Most of Dr. Goleman's work is based on the Hay Group's research, as indicated by the company. The Hay Group (HayMcBer) has extensive experience in working with organisations to develop competency models as well as emotional intelligence. Since the 1970s, HayMcBer has been involved in devising competencies for work performance in addition to identifying personal characteristics that would result in effective superior performance in a job (Dulewicz & Herbert, 1992; Spencer, 1983).

2.6.2 Critique

Several authors (Hein, 2000a; Mayer *et al*, 2000b) regard Goleman's definition of emotional intelligence as misleading the public. They indicate how Goleman has included other traits such as personality and behaviour under the EI umbrella. Goleman (2001) justifies that his formulation of EI in his 1998 book

seemed to meet Mayer *et al*'s criteria for a pure model. He further indicates that his EI formulation is competency based and comprises of a set of abilities, integrating both affective and cognitive skills. He points out that his model of EI is at the same time distinct from abilities that are measured by using traditional IQ tests. Goleman (2001) incorporates optimism as part of a personality trait. This may refer to specific behaviours contributing to the EI competencies. His justification of including optimism lies in its ability to predict success. Nevertheless, it is assumed that a person may be optimistic because this is the way he/she views life, but it does not imply that he/she is emotionally intelligent (Hein, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 2000). Although optimism is considered as a personality trait, it may however be a reflection of a specific set of EI competencies (Goleman, 2001).

According to Mayer (1999), EI is independent of emotional state. As such a person can be depressed and yet have a high emotional intelligence, because people have feelings whether they have high EQ or low EQ. Mayer *et al* (2000a) are seeking here to establish the drawbacks of including certain elements that are not seen as major in emotional intelligence and should therefore not be included. The reason for this according to the authors is to avoid confusion associated with the presence of so many factors. Goleman in his 2001 book states how he agrees with Mayer & Salovey regarding this issue.

Another point of debate is how Goleman's model includes personality factors as well as social elements. Mayer *et al* (2000a) refer to those factors such as being warm and friendly as not being part of the EI competencies. Goleman (2001) agrees with the authors on this point and adds that such a factor, although seen as a personality trait, it may however reflect a specific set of EI competencies, mainly those involving the ability to relate positively to others. It is nonetheless seen that personality elements would best fit under multiple intelligence domains (Mayer & Geher, 1996; Mayer & Salovey, 1999).

According to these authors, personality traits are strongly influenced by genes, and cannot be therefore easily learned. It is perhaps noteworthy here to shed some light on personality. Gardner (1998a) explains personality as having two sides: temperament, which is a set of inclinations we are born with; and the other is character, which is a set of habits we acquire as we grow. He refers to Goleman's ideas as based on his (Gardner's) multiple intelligence theory. It is however seen as rather confusing to include all the competencies under emotional intelligence. This is so that it does not move away from the main concentration, namely emotional intelligence. Mayer *et al* (2000b) point out to the list of competencies Goleman presents as being long, with some of the elements being rather unclear, which may become misleading. It may also be somewhat confusing for people who are considering undertaking research work within the field of emotional intelligence, in that they may get conflicting results (Hein, 2000a).

Goleman (2000) places the four competencies (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management), in a hierarchy; so self-awareness is important for self-regulation which is in turn is important for motivating self as well as others(refer back to **Fig. 2.2**). This, in turn is considered to be essential for empathy that may probably help in building social skills But in real life, there are so many people who by pass or break the chain of this link. Goleman seems to refer to his own model as formulating EI in terms of theory of performance that directly applies to the domain of work and organisational effectiveness, especially in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds. Goleman's main focus is on EI and how it accounts for 80% of success in life, disregarding IQ as an equally important element. He made such claims based on research, where outcomes of coefficients were noted and compared. In terms of whether EI is a stronger predictor in success than IQ, is viewed in two-fold according to Goleman (2001): in one sense, this issue is seen as purely academic and how cognitive abilities along with EI always

interplay in life; and in another sense it seems to have some practical implications for significant workplace decisions. This point is under debate by some writers such as Hein (2001) and Mayer (1999), who tend to disagree, indicating that both IQ and EQ are of equal importance and tend to carry somewhat equal shares.

In his 2001 book, Goleman clarified this issue explicitly, indicating that his statements were somehow misrepresented, and what he actually was trying to say was that IQ would be a more powerful predictor than EI of individuals' career success in studies of large populations over the career course. He justified how this would somewhat sort people before they embark on a career, determining which field or professions they would be able to enter. For instance, people who are emotionally intelligent would be perhaps better off with jobs related to customer services, whereas those with high IQ may be more suitable in jobs requiring mental thinking and very little interaction with people. On the other hand, when studies attempt to look within a job or profession in order to gain an insight into the rising of certain individuals to the top or failing to, emotional intelligence becomes visible to prove a more powerful predictor of success than IQ (Goleman, 2001).

Nevertheless, it can be acknowledged that Goleman's research and findings opened the doors for further research and interest in the field of emotional intelligence, exploring in-depth the various dimensions of EI. The author believes that people could be successful with the right combination of a mixture of skills, but having intelligence (IQ) is understood to be equally important but not a basis on its own. Additionally, it is evident that cognitive processes do not function in isolation, as pointed out by Derryberry & Rothbart (1984); instead they take shape within physiological contexts established by people's moods and emotional states. The authors further add that research from psychology and neuroscience put forward how emotion and cognition

seem to interact, with each domain overlapping with the other and contributing to each other.

Hein (2000a) along with Mayer *et al* (2001b) point out to a statement by Goleman: "emotional intelligence is twice as important or more than" is not a scientific way of providing evidence. However, Mayer (1999) also agrees with Goleman in using mixed or popular models of EI, which could predict important life outcomes. Mayer (1999) argues that these models contain variables beyond what is meant by the term emotions or intelligence. Therefore, he suggests that researchers should perhaps be cautious in conducting research using the mixed models, due to the mixture of elements included in such models, which may in some way affect the results. Mayer (1999) put forward a suggestion to carry out in-depth investigation on the relationship between the various components of emotional intelligence, to establish the factors that are not directly related to emotional intelligence.

Hein (2000a) believes that Goleman takes the Freudian view of human nature, concentrating on 'controlling feelings' and the need to be restrained. Here, people may not perhaps express their feelings freely and may have to restrain certain emotions, especially when the organisation's culture dictates which emotions individuals should display and which emotions may be seen as not acceptable within that culture. Since emotional intelligence is about managing one's emotion, then perhaps a more suitable word here would be 'managing one's emotions' rather than 'controlling emotions.'

2.7 GENERAL MEASUREMENT ISSUES IN SELECTING TESTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Before moving on to discuss the various tests of emotional intelligence, an overview would be helpful to the reader of how the emotional intelligence tests are constructed, their main characteristics and what they actually measure.

2.7.1 Construction of Emotional Intelligence Tests

With reference to Mayer *et al* (2001), emotional information relates to the human world and the relationship between people in terms of: culture, ideas, artefacts, and socio-emotional contracts including rules of behaviour. Such tests help in understanding an individual's reactions to other people, and their emotional response to a given situation. Mayer *et al* (2001 p.4) further elaborate "such knowledge helps define the general meaning of emotions in regard to relationships: for example, that happiness arises in harmonious environments, fear in response to threat... and so on." Emotional intelligence tests are considered under the umbrella of psychological tests.

Toplis, Dulewicz & Fletcher (1997) present a brief summary on the development of psychological tests. They indicate that it has been over 100 years since Sir Francis Galton, a cousin of Charles Darwin, published 'Inquiries into Human Faculty and its Development.' Some eighty years ago, Binet, a Frenchman, constructed the first intelligence test, a forerunner of today's ability tests. Personality questionnaires have been around almost as long. The first such instrument used as a selection tool was Woodworth's Personal Data Sheet, a rough screening device for identifying men who would be unfit for the American Army during the First and Second World Wars. Such tests and questionnaires were used to place men in posts most apt to their abilities, and as

part of the procedure in selecting officers (Toplis *et al*, 1997).

2.7.2 Characteristics Of Emotional Intelligence Tests

The following is a brief summary of some of the properties of the psychological tests, which the EI tests are very similar to, as presented by Toplis *et al* (1997 pp.13-17): they tend to be objective (with few exceptions), standardised measures requiring a highly controllable, uniform procedure for administration and scoring; they are usually scored objectively and the administrator has a key containing the right answers for the test, or the value to be given to a specific answer on a multiple-choice questionnaire and the scorer's judgment does not lead to variations in the scores; the number of items correct on an ability test, or the sum of values for responses on a questionnaire scale, constitutes a raw score which is significant when compared to the range of scores obtained from a large representative sample of people for whom the test was designed; its validity has been assessed objectively.

2.7.3 Determining Validity, Reliability and Correctness of the Emotional Intelligence Tests

The psychometric instruments should have manuals that contain scientific, objective data to demonstrate how good the test is, to what extent it does what it is supposed to do. Two critical concepts are the test's reliability and validity. In the 'test-retest' method of assessing reliability, a large group of people are tested and then retested, using the same test, several weeks later. The initial experience of doing the test is likely to improve the group performance on the second occasion; however, if the relative positions of individual scores are found to be very different on the two occasions, then there would be a doubt on

the reliability of the test. A good test manual will contain empirical evidence of the test-retest reliability, showing the degree of similarity between the results obtained from the first and second administration of the tests to the same sample. During the design stage of a reputable psychometric instrument, great care is taken to ensure that only the items that are measuring the same broad ability are retained for a specific scale. Attention needs to be paid to the way in which the questions are presented.

There are three types of validity that should be taken into consideration when looking into the various tests, as pointed out by Kumar (1999): predictive, face and content. Predictive validity measures the worth of a test. There are often a number of practical reasons, especially time pressure, why it is not possible to do a predictive validation study, and so a concurrent study (in which the test and performance measures are taken at the same time by existing staff) has to suffice. Kumar (1999) states the number involved in the validation study should be at least 100 and the correlation between test scores and the criteria of performance should be at least 0.2. If the correlation is lower, it is unlikely that the use of the test will be financially worthwhile. In most of the tests, people are chosen randomly to take part.

Face validity is the extent to which the instrument looks as if it is measuring something relevant to the job. If an instrument has low face validity, or contains items, which might for example appear bizarre, then its acceptability to candidates will be questionable. This might affect their motivation and hence undermine the validity of the results. Information on face validity does not appear in psychometric instrument's manual. Users here have to exercise their own judgement about the potential suitability of an instrument to a particular group of employees (Kumar, 1999).

As for the content validity, it is the match between what a test says it measures

and the content of its items that would determine the extent to which a certain test is valid (Mayer *et al*, 2000b). To accomplish correctness for emotional intelligence test items using the ability approach according to Mayer *et al* (2000a), there are at least three possible alternatives for designating a correct answer: target criteria, expert criteria, or consensus criteria. For the target criteria, the authors elaborate the meaning using the following example: If a poll needs to be taken around the office regarding how a certain employee for instance is feeling, there would be variety of answers. Such guessed answers would then be matched against what the target employee is actually feeling. This, according to Mayer *et al* (2000a), would be referred to as a target criterion; those co-workers who guessed the correct feeling of the target employee met the criterion of correctness. So in Mayer *et al*'s (2000b) actual research, they asked people to write down what they are doing and thinking as well as how they are feeling. That written description becomes an item on an ability task. Then the test taker would guess how the target was feeling at the time by referring to multiple emotion rating scales. The second criteria of correctness, the expert criteria, is established in the same manner but by asking experts in emotions (such as clinical psychologists, emotions researchers) to read the target's story to determine how the target was feeling at the time using their expert judgment (Mayer *et al*, 2000b). Regarding the third method, consensus is based on the judgment of a large number of people and the test taker receives credit for endorsing emotions that the group endorses. Mayer *et al* (2000b) point out to the correlations among the three criteria to be generally positive.

In summary, to choose an EI instrument that would give the best results, the following should be taken into consideration: First of all, the instrument should be supplied by a reputable publisher only to those who have received training in its use; Secondly, it must contain instructions for administration,

scoring and interpretation; Thirdly, it should provide details of its reliability and face validity.

2.7.4 What Do Emotional Intelligence Tests Measure?

Mayer *et al* (2000b) point out to the first consideration to look at in evaluating a measure of emotional intelligence is the aspect of mental life it measures. What emotional intelligence tests measure depends on the type of approach followed, whether the ability approach and the tests used by Mayer and Salovey, or the mixed approach and the various tests available as illustrated previously in **Table 2.2**. Overall, the EI tests measure emotional competencies. Referring to the ability approach, the tests measure the four branches of EI specified by Mayer & Salovey (identifying and using emotions, understanding and managing emotions). Looking at the mixed approach, the measurement ranges from emotional intelligent behaviour (Bar-On, 1997), to measuring various qualities and competencies of EQ (EQ Map), to measuring emotional competencies (Boyatzis & Goleman, 1998).

2.8 MEASUREMENT APPROACHES

According to Mayer *et al* (2000a) along with Mayer *et al* (2000b), there are three main approaches to the tests: self-report, informants, or performance (ability) approaches. The measurement approach chosen according to the authors depends on how emotional intelligence is defined. If EI is defined as a mental capacity or a set of abilities then performance measures are seen as more suitable. However, according to Mayer *et al* (2000b) and Gowing (2001), if emotional intelligence is viewed as a set of non cognitive traits (such as assertiveness or impulse control), then these would be measured using other

scales such as informants or self-report (Gowing, 2001).

Self-report measures contain descriptive statements, indicating to what extent the statements describe or don't describe a person. It relies on the individual's self-understanding. This type of measurement, according to Mayer & Salovey (2000) is considered as the most common way to measure things such as personality traits (warmth, empathy, anxiety), where individuals would rate themselves on a scale. On the other hand, Mayer *et al* (2000b) indicate that an ability or performance measure is used to measure a person's mental ability in solving a problem, such as asking a person to answer questions on various issues. It looks into a person's actual capacity to perform well at mental tasks, not just one's beliefs regarding such capacities. Mayer *et al* (2000b) elaborate further by giving an example: If one wants to understand how well people perceive emotion, then show them a sad face and see whether they are able to recognise the facial expression.

According to Spencer (1983), there are three commonly used 'soft skill' assessment methods: ***First***, paper and pencil tests of knowledge content, cognitive ability (e.g. critical thinking or decision making), and personality variables (e.g. attention to detail and concern for influence); ***Second***, superior and/or peer ratings; ***Third***, observer ratings of performance on simulated job-specific tasks.

With the measurement approaches in mind, the following sections illustrate the various tests available.

2.9 MEASURING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN LEADERS

There are five tests that measure emotional intelligence, as shown in **Table 2.4**. Those tests are well thought-out to be widely used among researchers (Mayer *et al*, 2000b; Gowing, 2001). The explanation that follows elaborates what such tests measure, their main features and characteristics, in addition to an overview of other tests of emotional intelligence.

2.9.1 The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

This is a 360-degree joint self-report/observer rating scale, referred to as informants, an assessment tool that covers the full spectrum of the emotional competencies. It provides information about how a person is perceived by others (Mayer *et al*, 2000b). The instrument, developed by Richard Boyatzis & Daniel Goleman, was designed initially to assess the competencies of Goleman's model. The ECI is designed for use only as a development tool, not for hiring or compensation decisions. The instrument is not intended to be used for administrative purposes, e.g., selection, promotion, salary decisions, etc. The proper use of the ECI is for developmental purposes only. Although the instrument is valid across a broad array of situations and has been found to be reliable, it is designed to be general in nature. Each competency measured by the ECI may or may not be relevant to any specific job, thus it is inappropriate to use the ECI for administrative purposes without first validating it against the performance requirements for that job. However, because the ECI is intended to apply broadly, it is an excellent tool for developmental purposes.

Table 2.4 Most Widely Used Tests of Emotional Intelligence

	INFORMANT	ABILITY (PERFORMANCE)		SELF-REPORT	
MEASUREMENT	**ECI** Emotional Competency Inventory Measures: Emotional Competencies *Boyatzis & Goleman* 1998	**MEIS** Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale *Mayer & Salovey* 1997	**MSCEIT** Mayer, Salovey, Caruso EI Test Measures: EI *Mayer, Salovey& Caruso* 2000	**EQ MAP** Emotional Quotient Measures: Emotional Competencies & Context for emotions *Cooper* 1996/1997	**EQ-i** Emotional Quotient Inventory Measures: Emotional Competencies *Bar-On* 1997
CHARACTERISTICS	360 degree instrument Self-reporting rating scale	An ability test designed to measure four branches of EI		Measures various qualities & competencies of EQ	Measures Emotional Intelligence behaviour
	110 items reported 6-scale	122 questions 5 scales	141 items 5 scales	20 scales	133 items 5 scales
CONTENTS	**Personal Competence** • Self-awareness ▪ Self management **Social Competence** ▪ Social awareness ▪ Social skills	▪ Identifying emotions ▪ Using emotions ▪ Understanding emotions ▪ Managing emotions		▪ Current Environment ▪ Awareness ▪ Competencies ▪ Values & attitudes ▪ Out-comes	▪ Intra-personal ▪ Inter-personal ▪ Stress Management ▪ Adaptability ▪ General mood

Adapted from Mayer *et al* (2000a), Mayer *et al* (2000b), Goleman (1999), Gowing (2001).

Many researchers have used the ECI or the 360-degree test for feedback purposes. Sixteen Hay consultants from a number of countries reviewed the ECI, where feedback from the participants was incorporated into the instrument. The instrument was first tested in 1998 on five hundred and ninety six people including managers and sales people from several industrial corporations. The instrument has been validated for construct validity, content validity and criterion validity, according to Anderson & Zhu (2002). The authors also state how it has been proven to have certain degree of reliability. The scale reliabilities were encouraging for most of the items with 0.8 and 0.9 ranges, which is considered to be a desired range (Gowing, 2001). Boyatzis (2001) points out some of the benefits of the 360-degree feedback, where leaders learn through such feedback the feelings of others towards his/her behaviour and outcomes. It also enables leaders to get a further insight regarding their reactions and ways to improve.

The instrument has also been validated against performance in hundreds of competency studies of managers, executives and leaders located in North American, Italy and Brazil (Boyatzis *et al*, 1999; Cherniss, 2000). The informant approach according to Boyatzis *et al* (1999), measures a person's reputation, influenced by many things such as: how well the person treats those around him/her as well as the informant's beliefs about personality and how it functions. The ECI offers a way to assess the strengths and limits of individuals, giving them precise, focused information as to which competencies they intend to improve in order to meet their career goals. A study conducted by Fisher (1998), who gathered a list of competencies most desired in companies (from HR training & development), for 181 jobs in 121 companies worldwide. The study revealed two out of three of the abilities, emotional competencies (trustworthiness, adaptability and a talent for collaboration), were considered as vital. Such findings would perhaps prompt companies to look further into training and promoting people, placing them in appropriate

positions based on their technical and emotional competencies.

Another study conducted by Pfaff (1999) used the test to challenge the conventional wisdom that women are better at the softer skills (such as empathy and compassion). The study was conducted over five years from 1993 to 1998 showing significant differences in the leadership skill levels practiced by male and female managers. It used the 360-degree feedback, where each manager was evaluated by his/her boss, direct reports and self on the Management-Leadership Practices Inventory (MLPI). The inventory uses eighty five items to measure twenty skill areas as follows: Goal Setting, Planning, Technical Expertise, Performance Standards, Coaching, Evaluating Performance, Facilitating Change, Delegation, Recognition, Approachable, Directive, Participative, Strategy, Communication, Teamwork, Empowering Employees, Trust, Resourcefulness, Self Confidence, and Decisiveness. They found that female managers – as rated by their bosses, themselves and the people who work for them – were rated significantly better than their male counterparts.

2.9.2 The Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS)

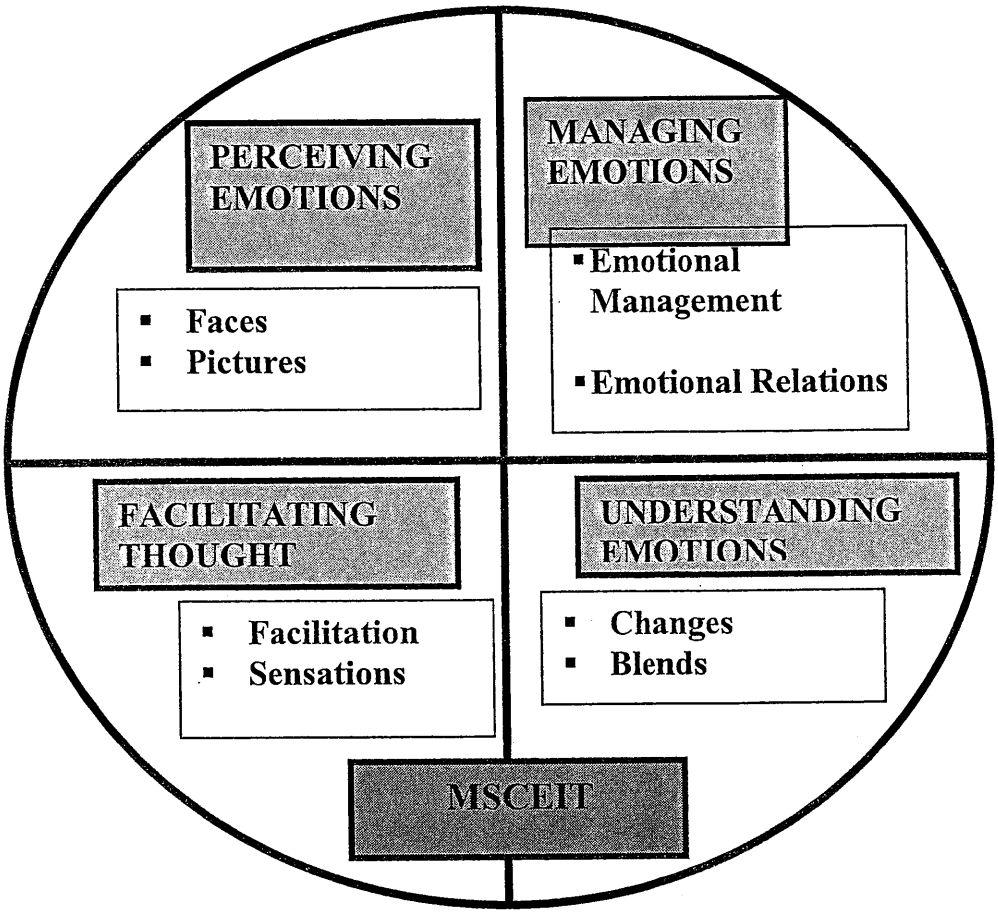
Mayer & Salovey developed this ability test in 1997 as a skill-based test, dealing with how people think, decide, plan and create (Mayer *et al*, 2000b). The test measures and attempts to investigate the following categories: *Identifying and perceiving emotions*: How do I feel? How does the other person feel? *Using emotions* (emotional facilitation of thought): Is the mood helpful? Does it focus our attention, motivates us or blinds us? *Understanding and analysing emotions*: Why do I feel this way? Why does the other person feel this way? How will we feel? *Managing and regulating emotions*: Do the decisions and actions include emotional and logical data to achieve an adaptive

outcome?

The MEIS contains 122 questions, with twelve diverse tasks to measure, grouped within six different sub-tests contained in a nine-page reusable test booklet. The subtests are in different formats; each requires the participant to score from 1 to 5, indicating the extent to which a particular emotion is present, from 'definitely not present' to 'definitely present'. The participants are asked to look at for instance photographs of facial expressions and identify the emotions, which were being displayed in the test. The instrument has excellent reliability estimates ranging between 0.8 and 0.96 (Gowing, 2001). In terms of its validity, it has fulfilled the construct and content validity in addition to validity evidence based on internal structure of the MEIS and evidence based on the response process (Mayer *et al*, 2000a). In the development of the instrument items, Mayer, Caruso and Salovey attempted to capture both the content of emotional situations and the response processes that people go through in responding to those situations.

2.9.3 The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

MSCEIT is an ability-based scale that measures how well people perform tasks and solve emotional problems, as opposed to a scale that relies on an individual's subjective assessment of their perceived emotional skills (refer to **Fig. 2.3**). The test and its predecessors are based on the idea that emotional intelligence involves problem solving with and about emotions. This test is thus a revised version of the MEIS instrument, where the scales were shortened for the MSCEIT to enable the user to complete the questions between twenty five to thirty five minutes instead of completing the hour long MEIS instrument.



Source: (http://www.cjwolfe.com)(22.07.2003)

Fig. 2.3 The The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) model

Responses to MSCEIT represent actual abilities at solving emotional problems; this means that scores are unaffected by self-concept, response set, emotional state, and other confounds. The test provides 15 main scores: Total EI score, two Area scores, four Branch scores, and eight Task scores. In addition to these 15 scores, there are three supplemental scores. MSCEIT was developed from an intelligence-testing tradition formed by the emerging scientific understanding of emotions and their function and from the first published ability measure specifically intended to assess emotional intelligence, namely

the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS). The test takers of the MSCEIT are asked to provide the following: *Identify* the emotion expressed by a face or in designs; *Generate* a mood and solve problems with that mood; *Define* the causes of different emotions, in an attempt to understand the progression of emotions; *Determine* how to best include emotion in our thinking in situations that involve ourselves or other people.

Mayer *et al* (2001) put forward their argument regarding the MSCEIT test and how it has been developed in an attempt to improve on the psychometric qualities of the MEIS. They explain that unlike the MEIS, the MSCEIT used 21 members of the International Society Research in Emotion (ISRE) to answer the questions of the test, which was then scored according to an expert-consensus criterion. This was based on the proportion of experts from the International Society of Research in Emotion (ISRE) to answer the MSCEIT questions. The authors indicated that over 2000 participants' scores on the test were calculated by general or expert consensus scoring, with the inter-correlation of scores was r=0.93 which is well above the r=0.26 found with the MEIS. The MSCEIT was applied to a sample of 2,112 respondents in the year 2001, tested by independent investigators in thirty-six separate academic settings from several countries.

Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenious, 2001) made sure that the test was shorter than the MEIS and more reliable along with its tasks. They also improved the MEIS by making it shorter and more reliable. The test retest reliability of the total MSCEIT score has been reported to be at r=0.60 to r=0.86 (Mayer *et al*, 2001). They then compared their test with Wechsler's Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS), which was written after four decades of intelligence testing. In comparison, the MSCEIT had almost the same reliability as the (WAIS).

2.9.4 The EQ map

Esther M. Orioli (co-founder and president of Q-Metrics Company) along with Robert K. Cooper (co-founder and chair of the board at Q-Metrics and author of Executive EQ) jointly developed the EQ map in 1996. It is a self-administered, self-report measure, constructed for developmental purposes. The test is designed to help business executives, managers and professionals assess their personal EQ levels and enhance their EQ leadership and performance skills in the workplace. It also aims at developing an emotionally intelligent environment, conducting EI training workshops and creating a culture that supports emotional intelligence development. The EQ map focuses on identifying any strengths and pinpointing vulnerabilities, targeting specific actions to be taken in order to look into personal discovery and self-learning (Gowing, 2001). It is described as a multidimensional guide, assisting respondents in discovering the various facets that make up their personal emotional intelligence and to learn the relationship of emotional intelligence to the following factors: performance, creativity and success.

Gowing (2001) also points out that the EQ map attempts to capture information regarding the current environment of the respondent in terms of Life Pressures and Life Satisfaction, as well as the effects of the EQ profile on various outcomes such as: General Health, Quality of Life, Relationship Quotient, and Optimal Performance. The EQ Map has 20 scales divided into five attributes: **First,** current environment: measures life pressures and satisfaction; **Second,** emotional literacy includes: measures of emotional self-awareness, emotional expression and emotional awareness of others; **Third,** EQ competencies comprise of: intentionality, creativity, resilience, interpersonal connections and constructive discontent. **Fourth,** EQ values and attitudes looks into: outlook, compassion, intuition, trust radius, personal power and integrated self; and **Fifth,** the outcome area of the EQ Map measures explicit outcomes of

emotional intelligence including: general health, quality of life, relationship quotient, and optimal performance.

2.9.5 The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Test

Since the early 1980s Bar-On has been interested in measuring what he calls *emotional and social intelligence*, which he defines as a multi-factorial array of interrelated emotional, personal and social abilities that influence our overall ability to actively and effectively cope (Gowing, 2001). Reuven Bar-On developed the EQ-i test which includes 133 items, with 15 subscales measured on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from: 'very seldom' or 'not true of me' to 'very often true of me' or 'true of me.' The test provides the individual an overall EQ score as well as scores for the following five broad categories: 1) Intrapersonal skills (awareness), 2) interpersonal skills (relationships), 3) adaptability (stress tolerance), 4) stress management (problem solving), and 5) general mood (happiness). The test is said to measure non-cognitive capabilities, and competencies as well as skills that influence people's abilities in coping successfully with environment demands and pressures (Bar-On, 2000). This instrument is said to have a lower reliability when compared with other studies (Gowing, 2001). Nevertheless, Bar-On's self report has shown evidence of the criterion-related validity. The test is based on twenty years of research, tested on 48,000 individuals worldwide (Hay Group, 2003). Gowing (2001) points out that there are factors in Bar-On's test that are parallel with Goleman's competencies such as: empathy, emotional self-awareness, impulse control, social responsibility, and problem solving.

Other tests of emotional intelligence include:

2.9.6 The Benchmark of Organisational Emotional Intelligence Test (BOEI)

This instrument is an organisational survey designed to measure the level of emotional intelligence in an organisation as a whole and across departments, teams, or divisions. The test, developed in 2002 by the Multi Health System (MHS), is still considered in the development stage, and more research would need to be conducted to further strengthen the test. It consists of 204 items, rated on a 5-point scale covering the following main areas: Teamwork, Co-worker Relationships, Work Environment, Changes at Work, Organisational Responsibility, Diversity Climate, Leveraging Diversity, Workplace Tension, Employee Empowerment, Learning in Organisation, Compensation, Senior Management Leadership, Job Satisfaction, Organisational Optimism, Attitude, Problem Solving/Decision Making, Organisational Courage, Change Management, Supervisory Leadership, Positive Impression Scale (validity), Negative Impression Scale (validity). Those areas are considered to be critical areas in any organisation.

2.9.7 The EI-360

This test was developed by the Institute for Health and Human Potential (IHHP), a North American company specialising in the design and delivery of programmes in emotional intelligence. This assessment and development tool offers a powerful way to assess an individual's strengths and weaknesses in emotional intelligence. The test includes factors such as authenticity, which they felt were important and missing from available measures. The EI-360 measures: Self-Awareness, Emotional Management, Emotional Connection and

Personal Leadership. It contains 47 statements, rated on a seven-point scale from 'Not at all' to 'always' with a 'don't know' option.

2.10 CRITIQUE OF THE TESTS

The tests discussed in the previous paragraphs are said to be constructive tools for measuring emotional intelligence in organisations. However, they are not free from critique. Beginning with the ECI test (or informant method of measurement) together with the self-report tests (referred to as the 360-degree tests), are well thought-out to be useful according to Mayer *et al* (2000b). Moreover, the tests allow the individual to get honest feedback from people, giving clear sense of where improvement is needed. The authors put forward their argument that the ECI along with the EQ map are tests measuring things that have already been measured with personality tests. Therefore, such tests according to Mayer *et al* (2000b) would not totally serve the purpose of measuring emotional intelligence. One of the drawbacks of using the 360-degree lies perhaps in the ratings of others on your behaviour, which would be based on their own observations. People can also have their own biases and perhaps personal dislikes towards some individuals. Since people don't see you in all situations, they would therefore be unable to fully know how you are feeling or thinking. Such self-reported abilities and traits, according to Mayer *et al* (2000a), rely on a person's own understanding. For instance, if a person's self-concept is accurate (which means that a person would answer precisely and honestly about himself/herself), then these measures may serve as an accurate evaluation of the actual ability or trait.

On the other hand, if the person's self-concept is inaccurate, then the measures would probably contain feedback on the person's self-concept. It can be argued that people can do this honestly but may not have the ability to actually

see how they behave, or may not be able to see the impact of their behaviours on others. Additionally, some people tend to be reluctant or ambivalent regarding expressing their emotions freely, or may perhaps be unable to communicate their feelings using language. Such individuals according to the authors would not be able to demonstrate emotional intelligence, due to the individual's lack of the ability to think about and use feelings in order to guide their behaviour.

Mayer *et al* (2000b) state that some of the questions in the ECI such as 'I am very smart,' 'I am good at solving problems,' would be a great test of what a person thinks about his/her intelligence and may be a measure of self-image but not a way to measure skills. They argue that self-report tests are not useful for someone trying to measure emotional intelligence as a set of abilities, skills or emotional competencies. The argument extends further to the feedback given with self-report tests as being influenced by several factors. Such factors consist of: the way respondents think about their leader, the relationship between the leader and respondents, people's judgments regarding the leadership's personality. This argument may possibly be true and be more sensitive especially to cultures such as the Gulf Region where relationships are influenced by social and cultural factors, and employees are not used to being completely open to giving feedback regarding their managers. The advantage of using informants however, lies in one's ability to get a good idea of his/her reputation (Mayer *et al*, 2000b). The authors also add how some aspects of reputation are fairly visible and appear to be somewhat judged accurately, such as talkativeness and sociability.

As for the MEIS test, Mayer & Salovey (1999) identify its strengths as being based on actual performance, where the test samples a wide range of behaviours, and the subscales of the test have been proven to be reliable. The MEIS does not involve asking other people to assess one's emotional

intelligence. Additionally, it is considered to be easy to use and score, with the results being specific and simple to understand, thereby not requiring the use of trained people to score the test. Several benefits of using the MEIS have been discussed in terms of its characteristics and usage. The MEIS defines a special and unique set of four abilities (as indicated above), offering new insights into the method a person deals with the emotional part and the emotional content of life.

Gowing (2001) points out that in some cases, the competencies in the emotional competence framework seem to somewhat overlap with the emotional intelligence abilities identified by Mayer and Salovey (1997). One of the distinctive features of the MEIS is perhaps the difficulty to fake the test as there are answers considered better than others. Nonetheless, there are some downsides of using the MEIS, which one has to be aware of. First, sufficient data does not currently exist to support its use for selection or to predict successful performance at work. Therefore, it can only be used for development purposes. Secondly, the test looks similar to an exam, as it contains a feedback booklet and a score sheet, making the whole process to some extent low technology. Irrespective of these drawbacks, several authors such as Cherniss (2000) and Orme (2000) are in support of using and administering the MEIS as an ability test being a useful tool for organisations.

Whether tests are popular or not, they are considered as useful tools and means that may assist leaders in identifying and measuring the level of emotional intelligence in their organisations. It has been emphasised that such measurements reveal to leaders the current situation and what action should be taken for the present and the future. For instance, the 360-degree tests are used to get feedback from employees regarding their managers, and the results reveal a need to change certain aspects of managers to ensure the effectiveness of work and satisfaction of employees. The tests are also considered to be

good indicators of people's emotional response to others, as well as their level of emotional awareness level. Nevertheless, many of the measures of emotional intelligence are relatively new, whether in design or application.

2.11 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The preceding pages have highlighted the concept of emotional intelligence, which has become an important measure for identifying and developing effective leadership skills. One can conclude from this chapter the importance of emotions and feelings at work and their effect on people's moods and behaviours. Having such feelings would enable people to relate effectively with each other and to help strengthen their relationships and bonds. One also understands how a leader's mood could set off a chain reaction, whether positive or negative. This would enable people at work to realize such influences and therefore attune to their own behaviour and moods. This, according to Goleman *et al* (2002a), has a great impact on performance. Some of the problems facing employees are when leaders fail in recognizing various emotions, or when their feelings are not genuine. However, authentic feelings, as indicated by many authors and practitioners, lead to being more open-minded, creative, respect and increases self-esteem. One should also bear in mind that 'bounded emotionality,' which constrains people from expressing certain emotions, may lead to a less harmonious working environment. Elaborating on emotional intelligence, its meaning, importance and approaches help to gain more insight into its role for successful leadership. The various approaches to measuring emotional intelligence provide leaders with options for measuring the level of emotional intelligence in their organisation and identify the areas of emotional competencies that employees lack in.

Looking at the various tests and models of testing emotional intelligence, one

finds Salovey and Mayer placing an emphasis on emotional intelligence as a set of abilities and within a model of intelligence; Reuven Bar-On has placed emotional intelligence within the context of personality theory, specifically a model of well-being; Goleman's model looks at emotional intelligence in terms of a theory of performance, which has a direct applicability to the domain of work and organisational effectiveness particularly in predicting excellence in jobs of all kinds (Goleman, 2001). The critiques of the various tests clearly indicate that the argument for choice lies in the strengths of one or combined tests to justify their application. Thus three key issues emerge from close examination of these tests: traits and styles of emotional leaders, the importance of emotional intelligence for leaders, criteria for selecting the most relevant and appropriate test that would serve the objectives of this research. With the availability of various tests in emotional intelligence, leaders would be able to further develop their employees, train existing managers to be leaders in the future, hire and select people based partially on emotional intelligence tests. The critiques on the various tests enable managers to select tests that they find to be more appropriate and practical. With this in mind, the next chapter links emotional intelligence with leadership; the relationship between the six leadership styles and emotional intelligence, and the importance of emotional intelligence for leaders and leaders of the future.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW: LEADERSHIP, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND CULTURE

3.0 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the concept of emotional intelligence in terms of its meaning, approaches and methods of measuring emotional intelligence, and the different tests available. This chapter links the concept of emotional intelligence to leadership, discussing the importance of emotional intelligence for leaders' effectiveness and success. The chapter explains the six leadership styles (Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pacesetting, and Coaching) and their characteristics. It then explores the challenges facing emotionally intelligent leaders of the future. The issue of culture is discussed, looking at both at the national and corporate culture levels, and their role in influencing leadership styles and emotional intelligence.

The topic of leadership and emotional intelligence, although not new, holds a great deal of importance. Such topics continue to be a focal point of discussion and debate by many writers, practitioners, consultants and managers (such as Goleman, 1999; Goleman 2003; Goleman, *et al*, 2002a; Merlevede *et al*, 2001; Ryback, 1998). With the rapid global change that is taking place, the dominant international trends, changes in the market, technological advancement and political changes, the perception of leadership today, and shifts in the organisation structure have all lead to the role that leadership and emotional intelligence can play in influencing change (Al Ismaily, 2004).

3.1 LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Having understood how emotional intelligence is approached and measured, it is important to shed light on how emotional intelligence is considered to be an essential part in the leadership process, and how it is seen as being intertwined within the traits and styles of a leader. "Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions," (Goleman *et al*, 2002b p.3). This implies that emotional intelligence is important for effective leadership and for the success of an organisation (Goleman *et al*, 2002b).

Many authors and practitioners argue that emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in leadership and its success (Goleman, 1998a; Goleman *et al*, 2002a; Hein, 1996; Ryback, 1998). Managing emotions intelligently (thinking clearly and intelligently about how our emotions may influence others) is therefore seen as an important element in the leadership process. A positive emotional environment is said to lead to a positive outcome, where performance becomes more effective, which is thought to lead at the end to a better working environment (Barbalet, 2002; Goleman *et al*, 2002a). For instance, being empathetic with employees may help in maintaining performance. As such, managers are able to accommodate employees' needs based on their circumstances. This would thus enable managers to meet deadlines and perhaps reach objectives without effecting productivity. On the other hand, if employees' emotional needs are not met, then this may affect their morale, which in turn would lower the quality and performance over the long-term. Furthermore, employees would be unhappy and may in turn not add value to their job, such as coming up with new ideas, and improving current procedures.

The literature emphasises that leadership involves relationships with people within the organisation (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). Hence, the leader has influence and power to direct people - who are regarded as followers - towards a shared vision in order to fulfil the organisation's goals. Thus, the very idea of leadership is filled with emotions and feelings, which are considered to be as central to the organising processes. Pagonis (2001) states that leadership is both personal and organisational, requiring a lot of effort by the individual. "Whether you're running a company or feeding, clothing and equipping an army, the bedrock principles of leadership do not change: know your stuff and listen hard, and your troops will fight like lions for you," (Pagonis, 2001 p.107). Pagonis (2001) illustrates this point with an example of an incident where he received an order from his 'boss' for a specific task to be completed, but he did not act upon that, instead carried out what he saw as relevant to that situation he was in. Although Pagonis went against his superior's commands, he thought of the benefit of the soldiers he was commanding, who in turn supported him all the way through due to his flexible style of leadership. This may sound unusual in a military context, but Pagonis's style involved adapting according to the situation at hand, plus being empathetic in the process of leading through listening to his troops and understanding their concerns and well-being.

An emotionally intelligent manager recognises that every person the leader works with has an emotional response and uses it as part of their decision-making, realising the need to change emotions and its presence in all business decisions (Orme, 2000). It is said that leaders can display some degree of false emotions, manipulating others to somehow get the intended results, often putting on a 'show' or an 'act' to hide undesirable feelings that would not render any results. The argument put forward here is how the effects of leaders' feelings and emotions and the role of emotions in the leadership process are often not explicitly considered or sometimes ignored in the

leadership literature (George, 2000; Orme, 2000; Solomon, 1993). Pagonis (2001) together with Hock (2000) are convinced that emotional leaders are made and not born and are shaped by the environment, taking active roles in remaking that environment in productive ways. In other words, true leaders support organisations that assist in supporting the cultivation of leadership. Some authors (Bennis, 1997; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hines, 1987) however, view leadership as the ability to move organisations from present to future states, instilling commitment to change, bringing in new cultures and strategies that mobilise and focus energy and resources. The authors also believe that leaders attempt to reshape organisations to adapt to environmental changes, directing such changes towards employees and building confidence to seek new ways of doing things.

Other authors (Gardner, 1997; Gardner, 1983; Kouzes & Posner, 1995) state how successful leaders use metaphors and figures of speech by giving examples, telling stories, relating anecdotes and offering quotations in addition to reciting slogans. This might seem to be good, but it is perhaps useful to bear in mind that metaphors or stories may be misinterpreted or wrongly understood by some of the employees, who come from different cultural background and may regard these as being offensive and insulting. Ashforth & Kreiner (2002) along with Caruso, Mayer & Salovey (2000) argue that effective leadership involves the use of emotion through what they refer to as 'symbolic management;' which means that leaders use stories, rituals and myths, requiring emotional and intuitive 'buy-in' from the followers. 'Symbolic management' according to the authors is considered to be effective because it depends on engaging people's emotions as well as using their cognitive abilities. According to Ashforth & Kreiner (2002), symbolic management is used by organisations in an attempt to regulate the occurrence of unwanted emotions through using humour and apologies for instance, which would create a positive working atmosphere, increasing the productivity and morale of

employees.

An important point for the emotional leader is to perhaps look at his audience, their level of education along with their background and cultural differences. Thus, what might be perceived as normal and acceptable in one culture may be regarded as totally unprofessional in another. Leaders may demonstrate two active and essential traits, expertise and empathy, which both traits can be cultivated, according to Pagonis (2001). He believes that with experience, leaders would be able to tackle various issues and respond to changes in the environment effectively. In support of this view, Goleman *et al* (2001 p.48) stress that "... emotional skills are partly inborn, experience plays a major role in how the genes are expressed... the more we act a certain way – be it happy, depressed, or cranky – the more the behaviour becomes ingrained in our brain circuitry, and the more we will continue to feel and act that way."

Through empathy demonstrated by the leader, people would perhaps believe in the leader and go along with his/her wishes, to some degree. This may be attributed to how much influence the leader has on his followers and the trust established between them. Clough (2002) indicates that believing in a leader begins with establishing his/her personal credibility. This is achieved by establishing a strong reputation for being credible through what the leader presents to the followers from trust, envisioning the future and working truly together as a team with his followers. Consequently, a passionate and caring leader may be more influential than a rigid, tough leader. Leadership can be regarded as a function of personality, as a behavioural category, and the leader's ability to achieve effective performance (Mullins, 1999). Leadership is also seen as an elusive concept having a dramatic impact on the bottom line (Bennis, 1999; HayMcBer, 1999; Pagonis, 2001; Parry, 2000). An effective and passionate leader would probably inspire people right down through to the lower levels, by taking them towards a shared vision in order to achieve the

organisation's goals. According to Goleman *et al* (2002a), creating and maintaining a vision is achieved by attuning to people, making them feel how they could achieve the organisation's dream and become an important part of it.

Most writers agree that leadership is about motivating others, using power to influence their thoughts and actions in order to accomplish goals, taking charge, and directing activities (Baird, Post & Mahon, 1990; Bennis, 1987; Cummings & Worley, 1993; Goleman, 2000; Kotter, 1998; Mullins, 1999; Pagonis, 2001; Zaleznik, 1998). Other characteristics of emotional leadership include: taking risks, innovating, accepting challenges, involving flexibility in thoughts and actions as well as developing networks of people who would cooperate in order to achieve the desired goal (Moran & Harris, 1982; Pagonis, 2001). It has been acknowledged that the basic principle of leadership is the relationship between a leader and followers. For that reason, emotional leaders attempt to somehow manage the dynamics of this relationship (Bechard, 1996; Gardner, 1997; Mullins, 1999; Pagonis, 2001; Wheatley, 1999), which is believed to help people to perhaps become more emotionally intelligent (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Positive energy spreads throughout the organisation, and the more positive the style of a leader, the more positive, helpful and cooperative are those who follow (Goleman, 1999).

Emotional leadership is also seen as compromising, creating energy in others by instilling purpose to what people do (Kotter, 1998; Sullivan, 2000), fulfilling people's needs and dreams in addition to communicating their passion through expressive vivid language and style (Kouzes & Posner, 1995). Many authors seem to place emphasis on trust and teamwork and its crucial role for emotionally intelligent leaders (Bennis & Goldsmith, 1997; Bennis & Powell, 2000; Kouzes & Posner, 1995; Kotter, 1998; Pagonis, 2001; Syrett & Clare, 1992; Wheatley, 1999), where trust is seen as one of the important elements in the EI process (Goleman, 1998a; Goleman, 1998b; Pagonis, 2001; Shriberg,

Barnhart & Shriberg, 2002). It is thought that trust helps in maintaining strong bonds between an emotional intelligent leader and his followers, strengthening relationships and simply making people happy. Bennis & Powell (2000) point out that in incorporating trust, EI leaders should perhaps provide direction, flexibility and meaning, to create a general sense of hope and optimism. An emotional leader tries to do the best he or she can to make the majority happy and satisfied (Hein, 1996), knowing that there would always be a minority of people who would never be convinced by any improvement at work or development taking place. The existence of such minority may hinder the leader's attempt to fully achieve the goals and objectives effectively. This may have a two-fold effect: on one hand, such a minority may imply that a leader would be more open to various issues and therefore adjust his/her style or make necessary changes accordingly; on the other hand such a minority may have a negative influence on other employees and consequently lead to lowering their moral and productivity (Hofstede, 1991).

The literature puts forward gender in leadership as an issue, which has been tackled by many writers in various ways. For instance, Bennis & Powell (2000), Goleman (1996) along with Orme (2000) talk about how women leaders may be different from men in terms of empathy, social skills and understanding. Orme (2000) remarks on a study conducted in 1997 on 4,500 men and 3,200 women which showed how women scored higher than men in interpersonal relationship and social responsibility, while men scored higher than women in stress tolerance and self-regard. It is generally believed that women are somehow more in touch with feelings, having more emotional intelligence than men (Bennis & Powell, 2000). However, one must consider that there may be some exceptions to the rule.

It is expected that effective leaders be always on the look out, learning and educating themselves continuously, searching for new information and

circulating it freely. At the same time one can argue that leaders should no doubt attempt to test their own perceptions, rechecking for facts and keeping an open mind while talking to their constituents to know what is working and what is not which reinforces why leaders use various styles in their leadership journey to reach their intended goal and to become successful.

3.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LEADERSHIP

McGregor (1985) sheds some light on the literature on leadership prior to the 1930s. The belief then was that leadership is a property of the individual and a limited number of people possessed abilities and traits that made it possible for them to become leaders. McGregor points out to such traits as inherited rather than acquired. He states that since the 1930s, research in this field took new directions and different ideas emerged regarding the nature of leadership. According to Buchanan & Huczynski (1997), the human relations movement in industrial sociology after World War II gave way to an interest in organisational leadership. Hence, the Hawthorne Studies suggested that managers who took an interest in their employees and involved them in decision-making would work harder. Added to that is the style of supervision which would lead to a happy, harmonious and motivated workforce.

In the late 1940s, studies were conducted by Edwin Fleishman & Ralf Stogdill (at the Bureau of Business Research, at Ohio State University) on complexity and diversity of leadership behaviours (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1997). Those researchers first designed a Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire based on how people in leadership roles actually carried out their functions. Fleishman & colleagues described their work in terms of leadership and chose managers as research subjects. Henceforth, the study revealed leaders' behaviour described in two distinct categories – consideration and initiating

structure (Buchanan & Huczynski, 1997). According to Burnes (1996), Fleishman's approach in the 1950s and 1960s gave way to the emergence of 'universal theories' of effective leader behaviour (such as Argyris, 1964; McGregor, 1960; Likert, 1967 as cited by Burnes, 1996). By the 1960s and 70s, democratic and authoritative styles were applied. Champy (2000) mentions the 90s as applying the concept of reengineering business processes as well the team approach to management in the pooling of resources and talents (Moran & Harris, 1982; 1983).

3.2.1 Various Approaches To Leadership

There are various ways and approaches of looking at leadership (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1997; Burnes, 1996). Leadership can also take many forms, according to Mazlish (1984), such as intellectual, artistic, religious and political. He concentrates on political leadership as being central in historical studies. **The Qualities or Traits Approach** assumes that leaders are born and not made and leadership consists of certain inherited characteristics, or personality traits, distinguishing leaders from their followers (Mullins, 1999). This approach according to Mullins (1999) has two limitations, the first is its subjective judgment in terms of good or successful leader; the second is such lists of possible traits are very long and there seem to be no agreement on the most important. Also, the traits approach tends to question whether leaders are born or made and whether leadership is considered as an art or a science. The second approach to leadership is **the Functional or Group Approach**, where the focus is on the functions of leadership and views leadership in terms of how the leader's behaviour affects and is affected by the followers (Mullins, 1999) and neither could exist without the other (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). The third approach to leadership is **the Situational Approach** (The leader-Follower Situation), concentrating on the

importance of the situation in the study of leadership. The situational approach emphasizes the situation as the dominant feature in considering the characteristics of effective leadership (Burnes, 1996; Mullins, 1999). Burnes puts forward Fielder's argument that the situation in which leaders are most effective is where leader follower relations are good, the task is well defined and highly structured and the leader has a high level of formal authority.

The Process Approach of Leadership as discussed by Burnes (1996), attempts to examine the interaction between leaders and followers, and how leaders influence individuals towards achieving the organisation's goals. Yet another approach, varying from situation is **the Contextual Approach to Leadership**, concentrates on leadership style, and instead of the narrow leader-follower situation, it focuses on the overall organisation context and climate (Burnes, 1996). This approach according to Burnes (1996) is unlike other approaches, incorporating change as a variable. He also clarifies how the contextual approach does not seek to invalidate the characteristics or the situation approach, but it tries to incorporate them within.

The last approach is **Transactional and Transformational Approaches**. Transactional leadership involves daily exchanges between leaders and subordinates which is important for achieving routine performance agreed upon by both the leader and subordinate (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1995; Schermerhorn *et al*, 1997) and it appeals to the self-interest of the followers (Mullins, 1999) and leaders (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Bennis & Nanus (1985) view transformative leadership in a slightly different way, referring to the leader as being the one who commits people to action by converting followers into leaders who may in turn convert leaders into agents of change. While Burnes (1996) considers transactional and transformational leadership under contextual leadership, explaining how transactional managers concentrate on optimising the performance of the organisation through incremental changes

where they try to seek to work within the status quo. Where Burnes points out that transformational leaders aim to change their followers' behaviour and beliefs in an attempt to follow a new vision, Mullins (1999) & Schermerhorn *et al* (1995; 1997) elaborate further that those leaders have four dimensions: charisma, inspiration, intellectual and inspiration and they try to encourage followers to look beyond their own self-interests. Bennis & Nanus (1985) argue that most leaders don't have charisma; whereby charisma is the result of leadership and not vice versa. Schein (1992 p.229) indicates that "the problem with charismatic vision as an embedding mechanism is that leaders who have it are rare and their impact is hard to predict. Historians can look back and say that certain people had charisma or had a great vision."

According to McGregor (1985 p.180), "It is unlikely that there is a single basic pattern of abilities and personality traits characteristics of all leaders. The personality characteristics of the leader are not unimportant, but those which are essential differ considerably depending upon the circumstances." McGregor elaborates further by indicating that the requirement for each type of leadership is different, as the requirements for successful political leadership varies from those for industrial or military or educational leadership. Additionally, even within a single organisation different circumstance require different leadership characteristics, and different functions demand certain abilities and skills of leadership (McGregor, 1985). He strongly believes that many aspects of character, such as our degree of energy or our cognitive skills are delivered at birth. There are other characters influenced by family life and our different relationships. Bennis (1999) also adds that character develops throughout life and leaders can assist others become more aware of their own capacities. Similarly, executive leaders develop here that most senior executives have both the drive and competence, which are necessary to lead. According to Chris Mathews, Hay's Chairman and CEO, business success doesn't come from clear cut strategy then structure then process, rather it

comes from people who are the raw resource around which businesses succeed. He also adds that emotional intelligence puts in a nutshell the key success factor for any business (also Goleman, 1996, 1998, 2000; Rankin, 2000). Pierce & Kleiner (2000) describe the following characteristics as leading to a successful leadership: flexibility, inspiring others, enthusiasm, building relationships, inspiring trust, communicating and willingness to experiment. Pierce *et al* (2000) specifies other issues in addition to the leadership style, such as the leaders' ability to think in terms of organisational visionary and building these characteristics for the organisation as a whole. An important point to remember here is that a leader is not the result of a single great idea or a visionary who made great decisions and had a great charisma led with great authority (Pierce *et al*, 2000). Leadership is a combination of many characteristics, skills and traits.

Bennis & Nanus (1985 p.15) refer to the issue of power as being neglected, defining power as "The basic energy to initiate and sustain action translating intention into reality, the quality without which leaders cannot lead." The authors point out to the importance of looking at power for what it really is (which is actually the reciprocal of leadership). Bennis & Nanus (1985) support their argument by providing the example of Chrysler and how Lee Iacocca transformed the company from bankruptcy to a success story in the 1980s, by creating a vision of success and mobilizing key employees to align behind that vision. The authors also point out how Chrysler overcame its problems due to the leadership style. From here, the authors conclude that power is the basic energy required in order to initiate an action and sustain it. Yet another example is of a leader in Canon products in the US market, who was able to transform what he describes as a formerly 'sleeping company' into a powerhouse for selling both Canon products and American computers in Japan (Kraar & Takikawa, 1994).

Chaordic leadership is a relatively new concept discussed by very few writers such as Hock (2000) and Wheatley (1999), with a slight difference in that Hock refers to chaordic leadership, and Wheatley refers to chaos theory. Both are similar in that they derived the concept from nature, and both concentrate on self-organizing. Hock (2000 p.2) describes the word chaord as "any self-organizing, self governing, adaptive, non-linear, complex organism, organisation, community or system, whether physical, biological or social, the behaviour of which harmoniously blends characteristics of both chaos and order," where Wheatley (1999) shares similar views and alters that the two forces, chaos and order, are mirror images. Hock then translates this general definition into a business term: "an organisation that harmoniously blends characteristics of competition and cooperation," in terms of education, it is "an organisation that seamlessly blends theoretical and experiential learning."

Wheatley (1999) elaborates on what she calls 'the self-organizing systems' as being adaptive and resilient instead of rigid and stable and its ability to create structures that fit the moment. Wheatley (1999 p.13) talks about how "a system can descend into chaos and unpredictability, yet within that state of chaos the system is held within boundaries and are well-ordered and predictable." In line with her ideas, healthy, adaptive systems tend to experience tension between chaos and order (Cooper and Sawaf, 1997), where chaos is necessary for creative ordering. Wheatley (1999) further explains that without the partnering of these two great forces, no change or progress is possible. Consistent with Hock's (2000) ideas, Wheatley reflects upon nature as carrying lessons on order and how to achieve it, as such, the world is inherently orderly where it continues to create systems of great scope and diversity. Wheatley also stresses on the importance of fluctuation and change to the process by which order is created. She also states that the Western culture seems to deny chaos's role in the emergence of new order, although it is so well known. To better understand the nature of leadership, it is helpful to go

through the different theories of leadership presented by various authors, as the following paragraphs elucidate.

3.2.2 Theories Of Leadership

Some authors have organised the theories into two categories: traditional leadership and new leadership (Schermerhorn *et al*, 1997). ***Trait theory,*** which is the earliest approach used to study leadership, also referred to as the ***great man*** theory (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Schermerhorn *et al*, 1997), or referred to as the ***qualities approach*** which focuses attention on the man or woman in the job and not on the job itself (Mullins 1999:260).

In the early 1900s, researchers studied leadership as a set of personal traits and characteristics (Baird *et al*, 1990; Schermerhorn *et al*, 1997); these traits are inherited characteristics (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Mullins, 1999). Schermerhorn *et al* (1997) explains the great man theory as those traits that differentiated the 'great person' in history from the masses. Consequently this approach led to a research emphasis that tried to separate leaders form non-leaders or more effective leaders from less effective leaders. Those studies unfortunately were not successful due to mainly the failure to explain leadership (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and to recognise differences in organisations and situations (Schermerhorn *et al*, 1997). Schermerhorn *et al* (1997) explain that the studies were not successful enough to provide a general trait theory, as put forward. Furthermore, the 'Great man theory' narrowed down the chances of everyone becoming a leader, and as Bennis & Nanus (1985) explain that it was either you had what it takes to be a leader or you didn't. The theory also implies that no amount of learning could change a person's fate (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). As such, this theory is out of favour especially among historians today (Burns, 1984).

So in response to the inconclusive results of the trait research, researchers in the late 1940s began to focus their studies on what leaders did rather than on who they were (Baird *et al*, 1990). This shift marked the beginning of the behavioural phase of leadership research which held that leaders may be best characterised by how they behave. These were called ***behavioural theories***, which focused on the relationship between leaders' behaviour and subordinates, assuming that leadership is central to the performance and human resource maintenance (Baird *et al*, 1990). However, behavioural theories deal with behaviours or actions instead of dealing with underlying traits (Schermerhorn, 1997).

Schermerhorn indicates that when applying the Behavioural theories, they must be carried out in different ways in alternative cultures, so for instance British leaders are seen as considerate if they show subordinates how to use equipment whereas in Japan the highly considerate leader helps subordinates with personal problems. In the United States for instance, subordinates tend to be more satisfied with a considerate leader, but a leader's effectiveness appears to vary with the situation. Similar results emerged from Liker in the 1960s and Fleishman in 1973 studies (Alder, 1980). They have generally concluded that more effective leaders are supportive of their subordinates, use group methods of supervision and decision making, and set performance goals. This essentially translated into a managerial style that is both employee and task-centred. In Blake and Mouton (1970) terminology, this 9.9 style: it embodies maximal concern for both production and people. Mouton & Blake (1970) report uniform agreement among managers from various cultural backgrounds (United States, South Africa, Canada, Australia and Japan) that the 9.9 style is the ideal managerial style. Vroom (1976) also raises another issue: the employee-centred /production-centred principle is very broad. Broad leadership principles do not cover the complexities of situational differences or implications of these differences for leadership behaviour. The two-factor

distinction that Blake and Mouton postulate is not helpful to managers who wish to choose an appropriate response for concrete situations they face daily.

Situational contingency theory, is another theory that act in conjunction with trait and behavioural theories (Baird *et al*, 1990 & Schermerhorn *et al* 1997), and basically implies that the success of leaders (effectiveness) is often determined by their ability to analyse the situation and adapt their leadership style to it (Baird *et al*, 1990; Mullins, 1999). Researchers have focused specifically on contingency aspects that influence effective leadership. Leader characteristics, subordinate characteristics, and the nature of the situation are all culturally determined. According to Argyris (1982), differences in these dimensions across cultures will yield different behaviours and performance outcomes (Refer to **Appendix J** for details of theories).

The theories discussed above are referred to as the traditional leadership theories that have been based on the assumption that leadership and its substantive effects can be identified and measured easily which is not always the case (Schermerhorn *et al* 1997). As such, attribution theory, addresses this point, which is important in our understanding of leadership. This theory, according to Baird *et al* (1990), assumes a leader as an information processor. Regardless of which theory the manager decides to adopt and apply or which mixture of theories the managers decides to use, it's the intention and the true feelings of the manager or leader that makes the difference. Goleman *et al* (2002) argue that no matter what leaders set out to do – whether its creating strategy or mobilizing teams to actions – their success depends on how they do it. Even if they get everything else just right, if leaders fail in this primal task of driving emotions in the right direction, nothing they do will work as well as it could or should. "Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great

leadership works through the emotions," (Goleman *et al*, 2002 p.3). The authors refer to the task of such leaders as being emotional and an important act of leadership, as the leader also is considered as the group's emotional guide. They indicate that followers look to a leader for supportive emotional connection and for empathy.

3.3 TRAITS AND STYLES OF EMOTIONAL LEADERS

Regarding the traits of a successful leader, different authors vary in their listings of such traits. Pagonis (2001) for instance believes that an EI leader should have skills, knowledge and experience with emphasis placed on putting people before strategy; where people's needs and demands would be the priority before placing any strategies and plans. Others (such as Goleman, 1998a; Goleman, 1998b; Hay Group, 1999; Mayer *et al*, 2000b) argue that successful EI leaders should perhaps concentrate on developing their emotional intelligence skills (through various emotional intelligence training programmes), so as to strengthen relationships with employees. Some authors stress on vision (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1995), and how it enables a leader to link the present to the future. This is also in line with the thoughts of the researcher. Vision is seen as being a unitary concept, defined as a future state, a condition that does not exist at the moment and has never existed before (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). In order to take employees towards the organisation's vision, leaders should perhaps build strong bonds with employees to make them feel happy, satisfied and encouraged. Employees need to see, feel and touch the values and the vision and the organisation to be attuned into the vision (Goleman *et al*, 2002a). Employees would respond positively or negatively towards the vision; they may have or carry certain emotions and feelings towards that vision.

It is believed that having a clear vision, providing employees with direction and a sense of purpose is crucial for organisations to avoid confusion and anger. Although visions are not strategic plans, nevertheless they represent common caring; what management would like employees to care about at work (Harari, 1997; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). This may sound simple and straightforward, but in reality there are many factors that need to be considered, accepted and shared by all concerned in the organisation. It is expected that some people may not come to terms with the vision, and others may give little attention or support to it. Sometimes vision statements may carry meanings, which may be against the moral of an individual. As for the styles of a leader, Mullins (1999 p.267) views leadership styles as "the manner in which the functions of leadership are carried out and how managers behave towards employees." The styles of leadership is the focus of attention of many researchers and writers nowadays (Al Ismaily, 2006; Beckhard, 1996; Bennis, 2004; Goleman, 2000) especially with increasing business competitiveness, higher standards of education, pressure for a greater social and work responsibility towards employees, in addition to the changing expectations of people at work. Schaeffer (2002) describes leadership as a journey and not a state; where the individual's characteristics change according to the needs of the individual himself/herself, the people around him, the organisation, the industry and changes all around. As such, these characteristics can be referred to as styles.

Goleman (2000) along with Goleman *et al* (2002b) present the argument of emotional intelligence as the underlying element of each leadership style. The six styles presented by the authors, lead to discussions and issues that ought to be borne in mind when considering them. It is important to bear in mind that there are not always sharp dividing lines between the styles. For instance, an autocratic leader may have to use a participative style in some situations and the same goes for other styles (Schaeffer, 2002). Four of these styles according to Goleman *et al* (2002b) – Visionary (Authoritative), Coaching, Affiliative,

and Democratic – create a kind of resonance that boosts performance, while the other two styles – Pacesetting and Commanding – although useful in some very specific situations (such as to get quick results and to help employees improve performance), should be applied with caution, as they could cause dissonance. The characteristics of these styles will be discussed in the paragraphs below.

In looking at the styles of leadership, what should perhaps be considered is how the process of management and leadership contains emotions and feelings in every aspect. The fears, anxiety, anger, enthusiasm of both managers and employees are expressed in a somewhat controllable manner (Flam, 2002), and in ways which would be somehow in line with the organisation's culture and norms followed. It can also be said that the styles of leadership are filled with various emotions and feelings but in varying degrees and in unique ways. Therefore, managing emotions, regardless of the style followed, is believed to be crucial in the process of leadership. According to Cherniss & Goleman (2001), the most effective leaders integrate four or more of the six styles regularly, switching to what the leader perceives as important in each situation. This is also supported by studies conducted in the Gulf Region, AlHashemi's study (1987) as well as Al Ismaily (2006).

The following paragraphs present an overview of the six leadership styles that Goleman (2000) along with Goleman *et al* (2002b), identify and believe to have an impact on the overall organisational performance. (Refer to **Table 3.1, p.108** for a summary of the styles).

Coaching leaders follow what is known as management by delegation, assisting people in assuming responsibility that would lead to the organisation's success. Leaders under this style attempt to develop people for the future through teaching, guiding and helping them in identifying their

strengths and weaknesses, encouraging them to establish long-term goals, giving them plenty of instructions and feedback. An effective coaching leader, according to Goleman *et al* (2002a), listens to employees and attempts to establish rapport and trust, helping them work out for themselves how their performance matters and where they can find additional information and resources. What is also crucial in this style is delegating decision-making authority to employees within their area of responsibility. Leaders under this style of management tend to give employees challenging assignments that go beyond the idea of simply 'getting the job done.' This style seems to work best with employees who show initiative and seek professional development.

The coaching style as put forward by Goleman *et al* (2002) does not prove to be effective under the following conditions: when employees lack motivation, when they require excessive personal direction and feedback, when the leader has insufficient expertise needed to help the employees along. The reason being is that this style depends on employees who actually show initiative and seek further development, necessitating managers to have the capabilities and experience to guide such employees. Goleman (2000) believes that the coaching style has a positive impact on climate and performance. He further explains how a corporate culture together with the leadership style places an influence on individuals' performance. It is thought that strong cultures, one whose members agree and care about their organisation's values, have a greater impact on employee behaviour and are more directly related to reduced turnover (Saffold, 1998; Robbins, 2003). Therefore, the more people accept core values, the greater their commitment, which would in turn have an influence on their performance.

A Coaching style involves the use of emotional intelligence but not to the full extent due to its nature of continuously guiding employees, which may place some emotional pressure on both the employee and the leader. There are some

parts of this style concerning guiding people and encouraging them that entails using some of the emotional competencies. This would necessitate using empathy, being compassionate and considerate towards the individual's needs and concerns. According to Goleman's (2000) study, this style of leadership was the least used by the leaders who took part in his study. The reason put forward is that leaders find such a style to be time consuming, especially in this high-pressure economy. It would be useful to provide further clarification for leaders as to the benefits of this style and ways of going about applying such style with minimum consumption of time and effort as possible. Pagonis (2001) supports using such a style as he himself holds an orientation session for new arrivals, explaining to them the style of leadership followed along with clarifying the vision and objectives. He regularly holds educational meetings with large groups of people from many functional areas, emphasising to them the importance of thinking in advance. This, according to Pagonis (2001), drives people to a challenged thinking and to be more aware of real complexities. Leaders may not need to take a lot of time with each employee, as some employees are more creative than others, and need very little coaching.

Authoritative (Visionary) leaders are said to mobilise people toward a vision. They are referred to as visionaries: attempting to motivate people through emphasising the value of work and how it fits into the organisation's vision, by focusing on long-term goals (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). The emphasis is on the power is with the manager, where he exercises decision-making and authority in determining the policy and procedures for achieving goals, work tasks and relationships, along with control of rewards or punishments (Mullins, 1999). Some of the emotional intelligence competencies that underlie this style comprise: motivation, flexibility, trustworthiness, achievement orientation, inspiring and guiding, building relationships, creating a shared vision, and synergy. These characteristics are said to fit with being 'emotionally

intelligent' (Goleman, 1999).

Goleman *et al* (2002b) state that an effective visionary leader attempts to listen to the values held by the individuals, driving the emotional climate upward and transforming the spirit of the organisation at many levels. In some instances a leader may disagree with what he hears, causing perhaps some discomfort or misunderstanding. In this case, an emotionally intelligent leader would strive to understand the other point of view and empathise but at the same time attempt to get justifications and perhaps let some things go so as to create a balance of harmony among individuals. When people look at the whole picture and see how their job fits within, it somehow gives them clarity, enabling them to have a better understanding of what is expected of them. For instance, visionary leaders articulate where a group should be headed, but not how, for this is left to the people to freely innovate and experiment. An issue to consider perhaps is that this may not always work with every individual. Some individuals may not understand the full picture or may not want to understand. According to Goleman *et al* (2002b), having a clear vision, which is explained and applied by top management, does play a significant role in boosting moral and increasing productivity.

Goleman's (2000) research concluded that out of the six styles of leadership, the Authoritative was perhaps the most effective in motivating people through stressful circumstances. It is contemplated that this leadership style maximises commitment towards the organisation's goals and strategy by integrating the individual's tasks into the overall vision. This is based on the assumption that standards for success are clear to all, as are the rewards. The Authoritative style of leadership is also assumed to have a positive impact on the overall organisation's climate; being flexible and giving employees the freedom to innovate. Nonetheless, the limitation of this style lies in its failure in situations where the leader is working with a team of experts or peers who are more

experienced than he/she is (Goleman, 2000). Visionary leaders would also need the thinking power, helping them to better understand and analyse data successfully, taking charge and inspiring others (Goleman, 2000).

Affiliative leaders are said to create a warm, people focused atmosphere, listening to the emotional needs of their employees and striving to honour and somehow accommodate those needs. This has evidently shown to create emotional bonds, harmony and loyalty, with a positive effect on communication as well as encouraging an emotionally intelligent atmosphere (Goleman, 2000). Goleman *et al* (2002b) state how this style is used mostly to fulfil the following purposes: attempting to boost team harmony, improve moral, enhance communication, and repair broken trust in an organisation. They further indicate how most cultures place emphasis on strong personal ties in conducting business such as Asian cultures, Latin America and some European countries. This is also similar in the Gulf Region and most of the Arab countries.

If the leader strengthens relationships and communicates positively with his employees, they would sense that, placing their trust in their leader and following his footsteps, especially if the leader is sincere. This may be determined by the actions of the leader and in carrying out promises, creating a mutual positive relationship. The affiliative style involves being emotionally intelligent, and is based on the notion that it allows for sharing ideas, inspiration, building trust, innovation and giving people the freedom to do their job in whatever way they think will yield effectiveness. This style is expected to offer positive feedback, recognition, rewarding people, and building a sense of belonging, and giving people the opportunity to express their emotions openly. The leaders under the Affiliative style concentrate on employees' emotional needs, placing less emphasis on accomplishing tasks and goals.

Goleman (2000) as well as Spreier, Fontaine & Malloy (2006) argue that the leader under the affiliative leadership should keep in mind that this style would not be used on its own, but combined in some way with the Authoritative (visionary), participative or coaching styles. This is perhaps to allow leaders to be lenient in exercising their role as leaders and in delegating work, making sure that everything is moving according to plans, and towards achieving the overall objectives. It can be said that the Affiliative style as such, has a stronger bond with emotional intelligence in comparison with other styles. Goleman *et al* (2002b) caution the danger of this style as it focuses on the emotional climate, which may somehow place less emphasis on the work itself.

Democratic leaders are assumed to build consensus through participation, encouraging people to put forward their ideas openly, creating mutual trust, as well as respect and commitment. One of the consequences of this style is perhaps endless meetings, where ideas are thought over and more meetings are scheduled. This style is thought to work best when the leader is uncertain about the best direction to take, requiring the collaborative ideas of his employees along with their guidance. Even if the leader has a strong vision, this style seems to work well to surface thoughts about how to implement that vision and generate perhaps additional ideas (Goleman, 2000). Democratic leadership entails receiving and giving sufficient information to make sure people take correct decisions, implying leaders let go and fully trust their employees in order to make wise management decisions (Goleman, 2000). Therefore, when employees are not competent or informed enough, they will not be able to offer good advice, and this is when this style would prove to be ineffective. Democracy would still suggest that they have an active role in determining decisions, which may possibly affect them.

The democratic style involves some aspects of emotional intelligence, where the leader would use emotions when listening to employees, gaining their

commitment by sharing views and inputs. Emotional intelligence is also applied when the leader puts his full trust in his employees, giving them the feeling of mutual trust and bonding. In this instance, employees would sense the mutual relationship and the leader's actions against his words, in addition to the recognition given to the employees (Goleman *et al*, 2001).

Pacesetting leaders are said to expect excellence and self-direction, setting high performance standards. The leader here is said to be obsessive about perfection, expecting people to do the same. Poor performers under this style of leadership are pinpointed, demanding more from them, and if they don't meet the standard then they are replaced (Goleman, 2000). This style of leadership may lead to an unhealthy working climate in terms of lowering morale, minimising the role of flexibility and degree of responsibility. This is due to the fact that the leader under this style gives no feedback on how well employees are doing, and there is no commitment because employees loose the sense of how personal efforts fit within the big picture. Also, leaders tend to be, to some extent, unclear about guidelines, expecting people to just know what to do, often leaving them to guess what the manager wants.

One may argue that this style alone would most probably not lead to an emotionally intelligent environment because leaders under this style of leadership are considered to be perfectionists, demanding the best out of employees, disregarding their feelings and emotions especially with a difficult task. Moreover, emotional intelligence under this style is not fully applied. Being a perfectionist implies that leaders would require achieving a goal or a set of objectives regardless of how employees feel about it or whether it can actually be achieved or not. People have different abilities, so expecting them to do a perfect job may demoralise them. By being perfectionist, and at the same time attempting to move people towards the vision, leaders use: various feelings and emotions, building positive relationships with them, connecting

with employees' emotional centers which can help in achieving the organisation's objectives and goals (Goleman, 2000).

The pacesetting style by itself may place stress on employees in achieving high standards without any guidance. However, combined with other styles of leadership, such as the Visionary and the Affiliative, this would perhaps minimise the burden placed on employees. As such, managers would provide guidance and coaching as to how to go about achieving a certain set standard. It is anticipated that this would help in achieving an overall successful working environment. Leaders should perhaps bear in mind that employees who have limited skills and low morale may find the Pacesetting style very harsh. Nevertheless, if they were given the opportunity to learn at their own pace and achieve the required standard with guidance, then this style may prove to be more effective.

Coercive leaders (commanding style) are believed to demand immediate compliance, with an extreme top-down decision-making, following what is known as the command-and-control style. This is thought to leave little or no room for the creation of new ideas, flexibility or initiative. Under this style people may experience different feelings such as disrespect, being unable to act on their own, losing a sense of ownership perhaps, and feeling little accountability for their performance. For instance, if subordinates fail to follow their superiors' orders, they could be threatened and may even be punished. This style tends to have a negative effect on the reward system, where high-performing workers are not rewarded nor motivated for their achievements.

A critical issue to consider here is the importance of rewarding employees and motivating them to perform better as well as providing overall satisfaction, thus contributing in boosting productivity (Klubnik, 1995). The statement here is based on the assumption that people would somehow repeat behaviour that is

rewarded, avoiding behaviour that is punished and forgetting behaviour that produces neither result. This is a method used and seemingly followed by many organisations to shape behaviour referred to as reinforcement, whether positive or negative, and has proven to be part of a learning process (Klubnik, 1995). The question raised here is to what extent would this always be applicable? It depends on the type of reinforcement followed by the organisation, the openness of the individual in accepting to learn, and the situation. The Coercive style is seen as necessary in certain situations such as during a turnaround, a hostile takeover, with problem employees, or when a business has to change quickly (Schaeffer, 2002).

Barbalet (2002) cautions against the outcomes of coercive force, such as resistance and instability in the social order, feelings of indifference, and alienation. However, a critical issue for leaders to consider is that this style should be used with extreme caution, to fulfill a healthy working environment (Goleman, 1998b). The coercive style is also recommended during economic depressions when management has to be tougher (McGregor, 1985) and the difficulty of encouraging participation due to the circumstances. Another situation that people have to be forced and closely supervised is when their behaviour and breach as rules and regulations effect overall performance and productivity. This style is seen to ensure behaviours as well as tasks are fulfilled, and corrective actions and measures are taken towards employees who attempt to disrupt the system. Self-awareness, emotional self-control and empathy are also seen as crucial to keep the commanding style from going off track. This permits leaders to take corrective action without causing extensive damage to people's feelings. At that same time, it would help leaders to achieve their intended goals with minimum emotional damage. Goleman *et al* (2002b) state how the coercive style has become a dinosaur in most modern organisations. In executing the commanding style, leaders should look into implementing the following emotional intelligence competencies: influence,

achievement and initiative. Such competencies may reduce the tension in the Coercive style and at the same time inject some degree of emotional intelligence. This would help in reducing the negative characteristics of the style and getting people encouraged and motivated to work towards achieving the organisation's goals (Goleman *et al*, 2002b).

Goleman's (2000) findings conclude that leaders need a mixture of those six styles. Hence, the more styles a leader has, the better the outcome. He also argues that effective leaders tend to switch flexibly among the leadership styles, as needed, especially when organisations today are struggling to maintain skilled workers, who are decreasing gradually in number. Also, an emotionally intelligent leader is able to shift between the styles in accordance with the situation at hand. Taking each style in isolation would lead to some of the styles having an impact on the organisation's climate. Thus, the blend and mixing of the various styles and their overall impact together with their underlying emotional competencies leads to a more effective leader. According to Hofstede (1980) along with Anderson & Zhu (2002), an individual can make use of various styles depending on the demands and the situation (look at **Table 3.1 p.108** for a summary of the styles). Hofstede (1980:57) further adds that leadership in any culture is "a complement to subordinatenship; where the style of the leaders depends on the cultural conditioning of a leader's subordinates."

Table 3.1 The Six Leadership Styles at a Glance

	Coercive	Authoritative	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
The leader's modus operandi	Demands immediate compliance	Mobilizes people toward a vision.	Creates harmony, builds emotional bonds	Forges consensus through participation.	Set high standards for performance	Develops people for the future
The style in phrase	"Do what I tell you."	"Come with me."	"People come first."	"What do you think?"	"Do as I do now."	"Try this."
Underlying emotional intelligence competencies	Drive to achieve, initiative, self-control.	Self-confidence, empathy, change catalyst.	Empathy, building relationships, communication.	Collaboration, team leadership, communication.	Conscientiousness, drive to achieve, initiative.	Developing others, empathy, self-awareness.
When style works best	In a crisis, to kick-start a turnaround, or with problem employees.	When changes require a new vision, or when a clear direction is needed.	To heal rifts in team or to motivate people during stressful circumstances	To build ideas from valuable employees.	To get quick results from a highly motivated and competent team.	To help an employee improve performance or develop long-term strengths.
Overall impact on climate	**Negative**	**Most strongly Positive**	**Positive**	**Positive**	**Negative**	**Positive**

Managerial behaviours affect motivation and a manager's effectiveness in his or her ability to diagnose the requirements of the situation at hand, making use of the various styles rather than relying on one or two styles. Goleman (2000; 2001), Robbins (2001a) and Spreier (2006) state that the most effective leaders integrate four or more of the six styles regularly, switching to the style that is more appropriate to them in a given situation. This is not easy but through experience and building on improving emotional intelligence competencies, leaders are able to switch between the styles. The leader here is not expected to use all of the styles, but at lease four styles depending on the circumstances at hand. The authors also agree that there is no one best style of leadership and each style has its strengths and limits.

3.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERS OF THE FUTURE

It is apparent that leaders of the future may face many challenges such as leading and managing interpersonal relationships effectively, maintaining strong business relations within different sectors at the national level and internationally, and meeting global competition. Other challenges include the effective use of the organisation's role as a culture setter in order to define the norms, rewards, and values that make up the culture, underscoring them through personal behaviour (Beckhard, 1996). Hesselbein (1996) focuses on the leader beyond the millennium as being the 'how to be' leader; developing quality, character, mind-set, values, principles, and courage. The 'how to be' leader knows that people are the organisation's greatest asset, builds a work force that represents the many faces of the community and environment, so that customers and constituents find themselves when viewing the richly diverse organisation. The author adds that the 'how to be' leader engages in listening to customers and learning what they value, recognising the significance of the lives of the men and women who make up the enterprise,

stressing the value of the workplace, and providing a healthy community towards the success of an organisation. This implies the use of emotional intelligence (Ryback, 1998) throughout the organisation, making it a continuous process and valuing its importance towards employees and the organisation. It is also perceived that the leader of the future attempts to mobilise people around the mission of the organisation, making it a powerful force in the uncertain times ahead.

Other authors refer to leaders of the future as being visionaries, believing strongly in their power to shape the future, and act on those beliefs through their personal behaviour (Beckhard, 1996; Leider, 1996; Wallace & Ridgeway, 1996). They point out that a visionary leader is able to identify change in a way that would enable the organisation to maximise its performance, demanding courage on the part of the leader. This can probably be achieved through analysing available information, searching for alternative perspectives, being motivated and innovative. Such leaders would be searching for changes in their economic, technical, and social environment.

Leadership is being viewed as the key to realising the full potential of intellectual capital, which is pondered as the key to future competitive advantage (Bennis, 1999). In line with Bennis's (1999) ideas, Langley (2000) lays emphasis on the education and skill of the workforce as being the competitive weapon dominating the twenty-first century (also Sinclair & Collins, 1992). Farren & Kaye (1996) refer to two future-oriented skills: trend watching and envisioning. The former consists of looking closely for new or unexpected developments in the work team's environment and observing its effect on people's career options. The latter is a way of visualising how the future is shaping itself and its value for the organisation along with its members. It is perhaps important to bear in mind that change is considered to be one of the major challenges that faces leadership. Sinclair & Collins (1992) argue how change requires the redesign of the organisational structure in order

to optimise achievement of its goals. The authors also elaborate on the meaning of redesigning: reshaping workers in terms of the values and beliefs they hold, along with accepting new roles. The leader's role here is to provide answers and support, allowing people to feel the 'pinch of reality,' stimulating them to adapt accordingly.

It is argued that change in organisations affects relationships, and emotionally intelligent people seem to become more aware of the consequences of such change. What has been identified to be crucial here is the implementation of an emotional intelligence program as a tool to assist people in overcoming barriers during transition (Orme & Cannon, 2001), motivating commitment towards such change and maintaining a harmonious working environment. Implementing emotional intelligence by itself is a challenge to be taken into consideration, such as: appropriate reasons for implementation, readiness to undertake emotional intelligence programs, inadequate resources, and can it be achieved? (Orme & Cannon, 2001).

Management awareness of organisational culture and the key role that it can play is important for the overall performance of an organisation. Looking at the dynamics and context of organisational culture, what it comprises and how it works, point clearly to the role of emotional intelligence as an underlying basis for an organisation to have an environment characterised by feelings and emotions – a context that would allow leaders to play a key role in influencing some of the settings.

3.5 CULTURE

Culture as defined by Hofstede (1980 p.43) is "the collective mental programming of the people in an environment. It encompasses a number of people who were conditioned by the same education and life experience." The

contemporary definitions of culture converge on the notion of culture as shared phenomena among members of a group with a common language, in a particular geographic region, during a specific historic period (Triandis, 1996). "In talking about culture, we are really talking about particular events, actions, objects, utterances or situation in distinctive ways," (Morgan, 1997 p.138). In Hofstede's (1980) study, he arrived at four dimensions to culture: Power Distance, the degree to which unequal distribution of power in institutions is accepted as legitimate by those who are less powerful; Individualism, the degree to which persons are expected to care for themselves and their immediate families; Masculinity, the degree to which achievement, heroism, assertiveness, and material success are valued instead of relationships, modesty, caring, and interpersonal harmony; and finally, Uncertainty Avoidance, the degree to which people are uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity, thus valuing stability and conformity.

3.6 CULTURE AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL

A further consideration is the effect of a country's culture on leadership style, as pointed out by Robbins (2001a p.335): "National culture affects leadership style by way of the follower. Leaders are constrained by the cultural conditions that their followers have come to expect." An issue raised by Robbins (2001a) is that most of the leadership theories were developed in the United States, using US companies and subjects, so theories may in fact have an American bias where emphasis is placed on follower responsibilities rather than their rights. This is also in line with Hofstede's (1980) work when he investigated leadership styles in several European countries and made comparisons with American companies where he found there were certain common issues between them but there were preferences relative to each culture. Such theories may also be considered as impractical to be completely replicated in other cultures. For instance, the majority of Arab managers in the

Gulf area tend to dislike impersonal and transient relationships when conducting business (Moran & Harris, 1982). Hofstede (1980 p.45) describes national culture as "the common elements within each nation – the national norm – but we are not describing individuals." Most businessmen in the West, for example, regard acquaintance and discussion periods as opportunities in which they try to make their points quickly and efficiently. In the Far East and certain European countries there are reservations against such quick business meetings (Mona, 2003; Moran & Harris, 1982).

3.6.1 The Gulf States

The Arabic culture, as put forward by Moran & Harris (1982), has a denominator influenced by religion and historical factors, with each aspect of their life depending on one another. Managerial behaviour in the Gulf Region is heavily influenced by the social structure, values and norms, along with expectations of people. The manager in turn can influence the society through his interaction, which also challenges him to perform the role of a change agent. It is useful to note here that deep-rooted values and norms are somewhat slow to change, especially when a manager has to introduce into the environment scientific methods, attempting to adapt them to local modes and life-styles. Social values, norms and attitudes are known to change at a pace far slower than technology, a fact that has given rise to the term 'cultural lag' (Schein, 1992). Muna (2003) explains how managers in the Gulf region have probably been conditioned or socialised by common managerial practices and problems. They are aware of and influenced by a commercial tradition that dates back many centuries. He indicates how the social structure of the Gulf region has certain distinctive characteristics which tend to dominate managerial thinking and behaviour. Muna (2003) further adds how they share with each other exposure to modern business conditions through formal education and/or interaction with other Arab and Western businessmen. This new social and

business environment is bound to have considerable impact on managers' attitudes and behaviour.

3.6.2 Bahrain

Bahrain has also a culture permeated by Islamic beliefs, traditions, and norms of behaviour (AlHashemi, 1996). It is a culture with tradition where the extended family is powerful enough to reflect themselves both in its institutions and the interpersonal relationships of its members. In discussing factors that have influenced the leadership fabric in Bahrain with some of the senior managers (interviewed in this study), they pointed out that leaders' legitimacy is sanctioned by tradition and they extend to followers' protection and welfare. They stated that leadership style in Bahrain and the Gulf states is: a) a product of personality and attributes of the leaders, who expect respect and obedience from their subordinates; b) a product of the ways in which leaders are selected, mostly for political, social or kinship reasons; and c) a product of managers' education and training in technical and managerial matters.

Taboos still play a role as many actions are dichotomised into the permitted and forbidden, into acceptable and unacceptable. The society in Bahrain, as elsewhere in the Gulf, is formed on the basis of primordial ties, such as family, friends, regional and religious affiliation (Al Ismaily, 2006). The expectations and pressures generated by the broad leadership patterns prevalent in society often force Bahraini managers to assume a patriarchal role themselves although evidence from discussions with managers suggests that it is not favoured by a majority among them. Members of the young generation realize the fact that some of the experience, attitudes and beliefs, which their elders hold, are not always reliable or adequate for them in their effort to shape the future. They feel that the alternatives from which they have to choose are more varied and complex than those, which their elders faced, and realize that they have to learn

new ways and develop new guidelines for dealing with them (AlHashemi, 1987).

It is thus implicit that social pressures can impinge on the attitudes and behaviour of a typical manager as well as business pressures such as certain restriction on women, value of time, work attitude, dislike of manual work, individualistic approach to work, and marketing constraints, centralised top-man syndrome, religion, non-business commitments, and expectations (AlHashemi, 1987). The term social pressure refers to the expectations, constraints or demands which society places on the individuals (Schein, 1992). These pressures can be seen as the price of membership, which individuals must commit to belong to a social system. According to Schein (2004), demands, expectations, and constraints originate from, and are shaped by socio-cultural values, norms and mores, which have roots in a long history of traditions, religion, and popular belief systems. AlHashemi (1996) points out to other pressures from the business and social community including: difficulties in separating business affairs from social or personal life; reputation in the community; the inability to escape the insistence by clients; social visits during working hours at the office and in many cases without appointment; and high expectations for success. Although deep-rooted values still remain, such as personal ties and relationships whether in business or in the society as a whole, it can also be acknowledged that the way of life has changed dramatically over a short period of time (Al Ismaily, 2004). Viewed from this perspective, one may regard the manager as being both a target of and an agent of social influence and change and is expected to be sensitive to the cultural norms and yet be able to introduce change and cope with the challenges that faces an effective leader.

It is important to note how national culture in Bahrain helps to shape the needs, values, personality of leaders and followers through the process of socialisation (AlHashemi, 1987). Such cultural norms create expectations regarding the

behaviour of leaders and their group members. As such, expectations are interwoven as part of the socialisation process (Al Ismaily, 2006). The leader's role becomes more vital in offering support for their employees, especially when employees look up to their leaders as their symbol of stability, and putting their full trust in such leaders.

Globalisation and international competition are already exerting considerable pressure on the quality and style of management in Bahrain. The shift from local market to a global market place is also gaining momentum. Kreintner Kinicki & Buelens (1999) perceive the global economy as a rich mix of cultures, where the gap in cultural differences is seemingly narrowing, with global trends such as telecommunications. Overall, it is alleged that people are becoming more alike in ideas and habits. Also, globalisation is said to challenge employees to become more aware of other cultures and ideas, making them adopt some of the cross-cultural issues as their own. In terms of leadership and management recruitment and selection in Bahrain, it is becoming more and more sophisticated involving a complex process of tests, interviews, looking at qualities such as initiative, developer of talents and cultural sensitivity. This shift, if any, reinforces the importance of leadership qualities, styles and the extent to which emotional intelligence can affect it. Not many of the managers in Bahrain are perhaps aware of the influence emotional intelligence can have in the leadership process. This was evident during the interviews that were conducted for this study. It became only apparent to some of them when the aim of this research was discussed with them, which prompted enthusiasm and interest among them.

According to AlHashemi (1987), the Bahraini management culture continues to be, by and large, constrained by the national culture, and confined to whatever limits of tolerance it sets. This relationship can be seen in a variety of ways, including: attitude toward work, motivation, time management, decision-making, conflict resolution, employee discipline, etc. Leadership (at the

corporate level) in Bahrain is legitimised through a combination of factors, albeit with varying proportions of ascriptions, which refer to social status acquired at birth and achievement through personal effort. There is little doubt, however, as clearly stated by the managers interviewed in this study that the trend is clearly moving towards emphasis on professional achievement as a basis for corporate leadership. They also pointed out that unlike established leadership norms at the national level, corporate leadership styles are more pragmatic and open to change.

3.7 CULTURE AT THE CORPORATE LEVEL

Leaders have been encouraged to consider the impact of non-material forces in the organisation such as culture, values, vision and ethics (Goleman *et al*, 2002b). Each one of these concepts describes a quality of organisational life that can be observed in their behaviour, yet none of these forces exist anywhere independent of those behaviours (Huczynski *et al*, 2001; Wheatley, 1999). Corporate culture "defines the context of what a new employee needs to learn to be accepted as a member of the organisation," Chapoux (1996 p.103), where the key aspects include sharing values and experiences in an organisation. Organisational culture is described as the feelings and impression that one gets when entering an organisation, giving the impression of how it feels to work in that organisation (Moran & Harris, 1982). It therefore includes: beliefs, behavioural patterns, habits, customs, the friendliness of the staff, the layout and surroundings; ceremonies, rituals and traditions that members of the organisation hold in common as they relate to each other and become accepted and standardised in a particular group, attempting to meet their continuing needs (Moran & Harris, 1982; Mahon, 1990; Morgan, 1997; Hesselbein, 1999; Baird, Post & Buchanan, 2001; Schein, 2004). According to Robbins (1994), an organisation's culture is perhaps easier to create and develop when an organisation is in the beginning of establishing itself; being small in size in

terms of the number of employees and resources. This implies that subcultures have not yet appeared and relationships are more informal. Due to the small size of the company, it is perhaps considered to be more flexible to shape and deal with. Therefore, under these conditions, management has the opportunity to create a culture that they would imagine could lead to achieving organisational goals and mission (Robbins, 1994). This is said to hold given the suitability of the culture, the support of the leader all the way through the change process, and being able to listen to the feelings and opinions of his followers (Goleman *et al*, 2001).

The author believes that culture may have an impact on the level of emotional intelligence in an organisation. If it is an open culture for instance, then employees are allowed to express their emotions freely without restrictions. Employees are also able to identify their fears and dissatisfaction and express their views openly. One can argue that culture has a powerful impact on the workers' morale and productivity, where organisational settings dictate that emotions should be displayed and which should be suppressed such as negative emotions, like anger or anxiety. Such emotions would be displayed in certain situations and under certain circumstances, depending on the level of people (in terms of education and rank) and their interaction with each other (Champoux, 1996).

Goleman (2000) refers to an organisation's culture as consisting of the following factors such as: flexibility, which entails giving employees the freedom to innovate. The assumptions about how to stay together with a sense of responsibility to the organisation; level of standards that people set; reward system provided by the organisation; clarity people have about mission and values; and commitment to a common purpose. Corporate culture also plays a role in improving people's intelligence, according to Gardner (1983), depending on its leadership and the opportunity given to learn. Furthermore, an organisation's culture (corporate culture) has an impact on the

organisation's working environment, influencing the behaviour of employees, suppliers, customers and business relationships. One example is how Coca Cola's culture has impacted on various cultures around the world, being seen as a universal product accepted by almost everyone regardless of religion, background and age. A corporate culture is in many ways a reflection of the national culture (Hoftstede, 1991). At the micro level, one notices a variety of corporate cultures within the various foreign and local institutions operating in the country.

Fig. 3.1 (adapted from Moran & Harris, 1982; Schein, 1992) illustrates and proposes an organisation as an open system, influenced by many factors both inside the organisation and outside, that shapes various aspects in an organisation with culture being at the centre of all the activities. The diagram may perhaps help in understanding the dynamics and context of organisational culture, what it comprises of and how it works. The figure addresses all the aspects in an organisation's culture that are intertwined and coherent, working together in a harmonious way. What is also unique in the whole process is the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence and its vital role in everyday life (Goleman *et al*, 2002b).



Fig 3.1 Aspects of Organisational & Environmental Culture

(adapted from Moran & Harris, 1982; Schein, 1992)

The author agrees with Goleman *et al* (2002b) that the leader's emotional intelligence is part of the organisational culture and plays a role in ways that would improve the follower's emotional competencies, increase their motivation and team work within the context of the organisation. Goleman (2001) argues that organisational culture influences the styles leaders follow and are an important element in shaping emotional intelligence in organisations. Additionally, emotional competencies are also important for leaders in engaging with others, building strong relationships and carrying out daily tasks with a much more positive outlook, reducing tension to some extent. Kreinter, Kinicki & Buelens (1999) state that culture influences organisational behaviour, as employees bring their societal culture to work with them in the form of customs and language, and organisational culture (a by-product of societal culture) in turn affects the individual's values and attitudes.

Hofstede (1980) states different people in the same situation may perceive different things within their cultural setting. He also points out everyone is culturally conditioned in that people see the world in the way they have learned to see. The diagram also shows the external environment such as a country's culture, the political and legal environment, the economical environment as well as global changes that may have an impact on the organisational life in various ways. **Fig. 3.1** further portrays the components of organisational culture, making it easier to see where things are and how they fit in the overall picture. A further point to note is that organisational culture is not under the full control of management; leaders may therefore play a role in influencing the culture but cannot wholly control or shape it (Schein, 1992). In Bahrain for instance, many employees had to either change their jobs or shift within the organisation due to changes in management or its culture. One can put forward the argument that emotional intelligence emerges within the organisation's culture due to the social interaction, personal ties and connections, giving rise to various feelings among people toward each other. They may not be aware

they are being emotionally intelligent, but it appears to come as a natural process of being part of the cultural norms.

3.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The chapter follows on from the previous chapter to link the concept of emotional intelligence with leadership, discussing in detail the role of emotional intelligence as part of effective leadership and its success. Many researchers and practitioners (such as Goleman *et al*, 2002a and Ryback, 1998) have emphasised the importance of leadership and the affect it can have on the success or failure of an organisation. From the literature review, it is also evident that there is a strong relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence. It argues that effective leadership involves the issue of emotion that helps leaders to better understand people's needs and allows them to work productively with each other. This is based on the assumption that leadership is an emotion-laden process and a key success factor for any business. Though some authors focus on different aspects of leadership traits, they all seem to agree that leadership has become more crucial with globalisation and its implications in the characteristics and ability of leaders who are capable of working through the emotions, managing them intelligently as a core to organising process. The emphasis is on the role of emotions in the leadership process, relationship with people, the power and the vision that a leader has in influencing, directing motivating, and creating emerging to accomplish goals.

The leadership process cannot be separated from the manner or the style in which the functions can be discharged or carried out. Different styles have different effects on the organisation. In most cases, according to the literature, a combination of styles was followed taking into consideration critical issues pertaining to the specifics of the organisation. As circumstances in organisations change, leaders would need to apply a mixture of styles as

identified by Goleman (2000) who emphasises that effective leaders should be able to switch with flexibility among the six leadership styles identified. These leadership styles would undoubtedly provide a very useful guideline to leaders in terms of their benefits and drawbacks. It can also provide a framework as what to expect in applying a specific or a combination of styles and to what extent and under what conditions these styles can lead to organisation success. Orme & Cannon (2001) point out how the role of emotional intelligence is becoming more crucial in the preparation of future leaders. The characteristics and traits of the global leaders focus on issues such as intellectual capital, culture setter, visionaries, drive, initiative, cultural sensitivity, readiness to see the world, and developer of talents.

Cultural sensitivity has become an important issue and understanding the culture, whether at the intermediate level (corporate) or at the macro level (national), should not be underestimated for it can have affect on the style of the leader. The fact is that most leadership theories originated from the West may or may not necessarily be applicable to other cultures (Hofstede, 1980; Shein, 2004). If leadership style, according to the literature, can be influenced by the culture in which the leader operates, then it is also important to consider cultural factors that influences the use of emotional intelligence in leadership styles, for they both have a bearing on the hypothesis [there is a relationship between the six leadership styles identified by Goleman (2000) and emotional intelligence] and the questions raised in this research.

Chapters 2 and 3 provided an insight into the concept of emotional intelligence and leadership, generating a useful framework and ideas which were helpful in deciding the research approach. The next chapter deals with the research methodology adopted to explore the study's research questions and hypothesis.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 2 and 3 examined literature on the concept of emotional intelligence, its meaning, application, development and its significance for the various leadership styles. This chapter focuses on the research approach and methodology adopted. The first part of the chapter highlights various research philosophies and the philosophy chosen for this study. This is followed by the methodology adopted, hypothesis and research questions. The chapter presents discussions on the instruments utilised for this study. The second half of the chapter explains the various stages of the research, the pilot study conducted, the sample size and population. The last part of the chapter outlines the structure of the data collection process in terms of access to the organisations as well as ethical issues considered in the process. This is concluded by an overview of the limitations of the study.

4.1 CONSIDERATION OF RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Easterby-Smith, Thorpe & Lowe (2004) highlight the importance of research philosophy and its significance to research methodology when considering research. They point out to three reasons: First, it can help the researcher to refine and specify the research methods to be used in a study, which is to clarify the overall research strategy to be used. This would include the type of

evidence gathered and its origin, the way in which such evidence is interpreted, and how it helps to answer the research questions posed. Second, it will enable and assist the researcher to evaluate different methodologies and methods to avoid inappropriate use and unnecessary work by identifying the limitations of particular approaches at an early stage. Third, it may help the researcher to be creative and innovative in either selection or adaptation of methods that were previously outside his/her experience.

Shih (1998) regards the starting point for deciding on a research methodology is the philosophical paradigm and goal of the research. The methodological distinctions most commonly applied focus on the differences between quantitative research, which is generally associated with the philosophical traditions of positivism, and qualitative research. The philosophy that allows one to draw on both the constructivist and quantitative (positivism) is referred to as 'post-positivism' philosophy (Polit, 2005). The philosophical level of a research method relates to its assumptions based on the most general features of the world, taking into consideration such aspects as the mind, matter, reality, reason, truth, nature of knowledge, and proofs for knowledge (Hughes, 1994). These philosophies will be discussed in detail in the next sections and sub sections.

4.1.1 POSITIVISM

Smith (1998) provides an insight into positivist thinking within the social sciences. He states that positivists' approach to the social sciences assume things can be studied as hard facts and the relationship between these facts can be established as scientific laws. For positivists, such laws have the status of truth and social objects can be studied in much the same way as natural objects. Cooper & Emory (1995) argue that research in the social sciences has

greater difficulty demonstrating validity than 'scientific research'. They state that physical scientists are much more advanced in their theory development. This could be interpreted that positivism is the only accepted research approach. The philosophical background of the social sciences (including leadership and management) has been mainly formed by positivism. Positivism according to Trochim (2000) is a rejection of metaphysics. He states that it is a position that holds that the goal of knowledge is simply to describe the phenomena that we experience. This implies that the purpose of science is simply to stick to what can be observed and measured. The central thesis of the logical positivist approach can be summed up that human behaviour is subject to the operation of laws of cause and effect, and the nature of these laws can be identified by the process of hypothesis testing against empirical evidence (Johnson, 1983).

The positivist approach has relied primarily on surveys and experimental designs with statistical modeling to achieve generalisation across populations. While social sciences have assumed that research into human beings is challenging because no two humans are the same, it has also assumed that humans are similar and therefore generalisable can be made about human experience (Smith, 1998). The extreme variability of human behaviour has necessitated a number of tests to be carried out to verify that findings that are consistent and generalisable, or true across the population. This has been perceived as a weakness according to the positivist approach to science. Other critiques refer to the gap between the philosophical notion of scientific method and how the practice of science is actually carried out, for example Hagstrom (1965). A major drawback of the positivist approach is that it does not provide the means to examine human beings and the behaviour in an in-depth way (Smith, 1998). At the other end of the research philosophy spectrum is the social constructivist approach discussed in the next section.

4.1.2 SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVISM

According to Clark (1999), social constructivists believe that bias could be eliminated from scientific inquiry, and are therefore more interested in the co-construction of knowledge between the researcher and topic being researched. The constructivists advocate that knowledge and truth are the result of perspective; research participants may be more or less reflexive regarding their own perspectives, and more or less articulate in expressing them. Social constructivism is a sociological theory of knowledge developed by Peter Berger and Thomas Luckmann (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). According to the authors, social constructionism is designed to uncover the ways in which individuals and groups take part in establishing their perceived reality. It involves looking at the ways social phenomena are created, institutionalized and made into tradition by people (Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Prawat & Floden, 1994). Socially constructed reality is an ongoing dynamic process where reality is re-produced by people acing on their interpretations and their knowledge of it (Berger & Luckmann, 1967). The argument put forward by Berger & Luckmann (1967) is that all knowledge, including the most basic, taken-for-granted common sense knowledge of everyday reality, is derived from and maintained by social interactions.

Prawat & Floden (1994) state that social constructivism emphasizes the importance of culture and context in understanding what occurs in society and constructing knowledge based on understanding. According to the authors, social meanings and knowledge are shaped and evolve through negotiation within the communicating groups and any personal meanings shaped through these experiences are affected by the inter-subjectivity of the community to which people belong. They further elaborate that the construction of knowledge is also influenced by the inter-subjectivity

formed by cultural and historical factors of the community. The social constructivist approach is at the other end of the research philosophy spectrum, and post-positivism is considered as mid-way, providing an alternative to the traditions and foundations of positivism for conducting disciplined enquiry (Hughes, 1994).

4.1.3 POST-POSITIVISM

Under this philosophy, reality does not exist within a vacuum; its composition is influenced by its context, and many constructions of reality are therefore possible, according to Hughes (1994). Proctor (1998) suggests that among the various factors that influence reality gender and cultural beliefs are the most significant. Thus it is possible to recognise the intricate relationship between individual behaviour, attitudes, external structures, and socio-cultural issues. Post-positivist approaches to research assume that reality is multiple, subjective and mentally constructed by individuals. The researcher interacts with these being researched, and findings are the outcome of the interactive process with a focus on meaning and understanding the phenomenon under examination. From a realist standpoint, it is advocated that un-observable phenomena have existence and that they can be used to explain the functioning of observable phenomena (Guba, 1990; Schumacher & Gortner, 1992).

According to Trochim (2000), the post-positivist critical realist recognises that all observations are fallible and prone to error and that all theory is reversible. He argues further that the critical realist is critical of the ability to understand and know reality with certainty and attempts to reach the goal rather than simply uncovering the truth (as in the case of the positivist). This statement is supported by the researcher and is in line with the purpose of this study. Trochim (2000) along with Clark (1999) illustrate further how post-positivism

rejects the idea that people can never understand each other due to their different experiences and cultures.

4.2 CHOOSING THE RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND APPROACH

The use of post-positivism as a research philosophy in this study is consistent with the nature of the topic and the need to consider many complex dimensions such as: relationship between leadership styles; different components of emotional intelligence; and cultural factors (national and corporate) that influence emotional intelligence and leadership styles in Bahrain is consistent with the recognition in the literature that an effective research methodology must reflect the multifaceted nature of organisational reality (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). The argument put forward from a post-positivist approach is that we each construct our view of the world based on our perceptions (Trochim, 2000). Measures are still used to explore and understand certain issues further, but rather than just uncovering the truth as in the positivist, the post-positivist believes that the goal of science is to hold steadfastly to the goal of getting it right about reality, even though we can never achieve that goal (Clark, 1999). Because all measurement is fallible, the post-positivist emphasizes the importance of multiple measures and observations. This research uncovered dimensions that can be taken into consideration when constructing emotional intelligence tests as seen from the point of view of Bahraini managers and their experiences.

There are two broad methods of reasoning or thinking in research: the inductive and deductive approach (Gill & Johnson, 1997; Morse & Field, 2002; Morse & Mitcham, 2002; Trochim, 2000). According to Trochim (2000), deductive reasoning works from the more general to the more specific referred to as a 'top-down' approach, as it builds on previous knowledge and research (Morse

& Field, 2002). The researcher would begin with thinking up a *theory* about a topic of interest. This is then narrowed down into more specific *hypotheses*. This is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses that can be tested (Trochim, 2000). According to Morse & Field (2002 p.6) "deduction theory is most valuable when the researcher has clearly identified constructs and concepts with which to work."

Morse & Field (2002) along with Trochim (2000) agree that inductive reasoning works the other way, moving from specific observations to broader generalisations and theories. Here the researcher begins with specific observations and measures to detect patterns and regularities, formulate some tentative hypotheses to be explored, and finally end up developing some general conclusions or theories. The authors further explain how inductive reasoning, by its very nature, is more open-ended and exploratory, especially at the beginning. Morse & Field (2002) state that inductive theory is directed towards bringing knowledge into view and is generally descriptive, conducted in a naturalistic setting.

The deductive approach was used for this research based on a post-positivist philosophy, which requires the researcher to begin with abstract theory so as to create new observations (Gill & Johnson, 1997; Morse & Field; 2002), in trying to understand the cultural differences and experiences (Trochim, 2000) of managers within the Bahrain context. In this study, the researcher explored the concept of emotional intelligence and its relationship to leadership styles in organisations in Bahrain with the aim of investigating cultural factors (both national and organisational) that influence its applicability (see **Fig. 4.1**). This draws on Goleman's (200) study, where leadership styles and emotional competencies were investigated.

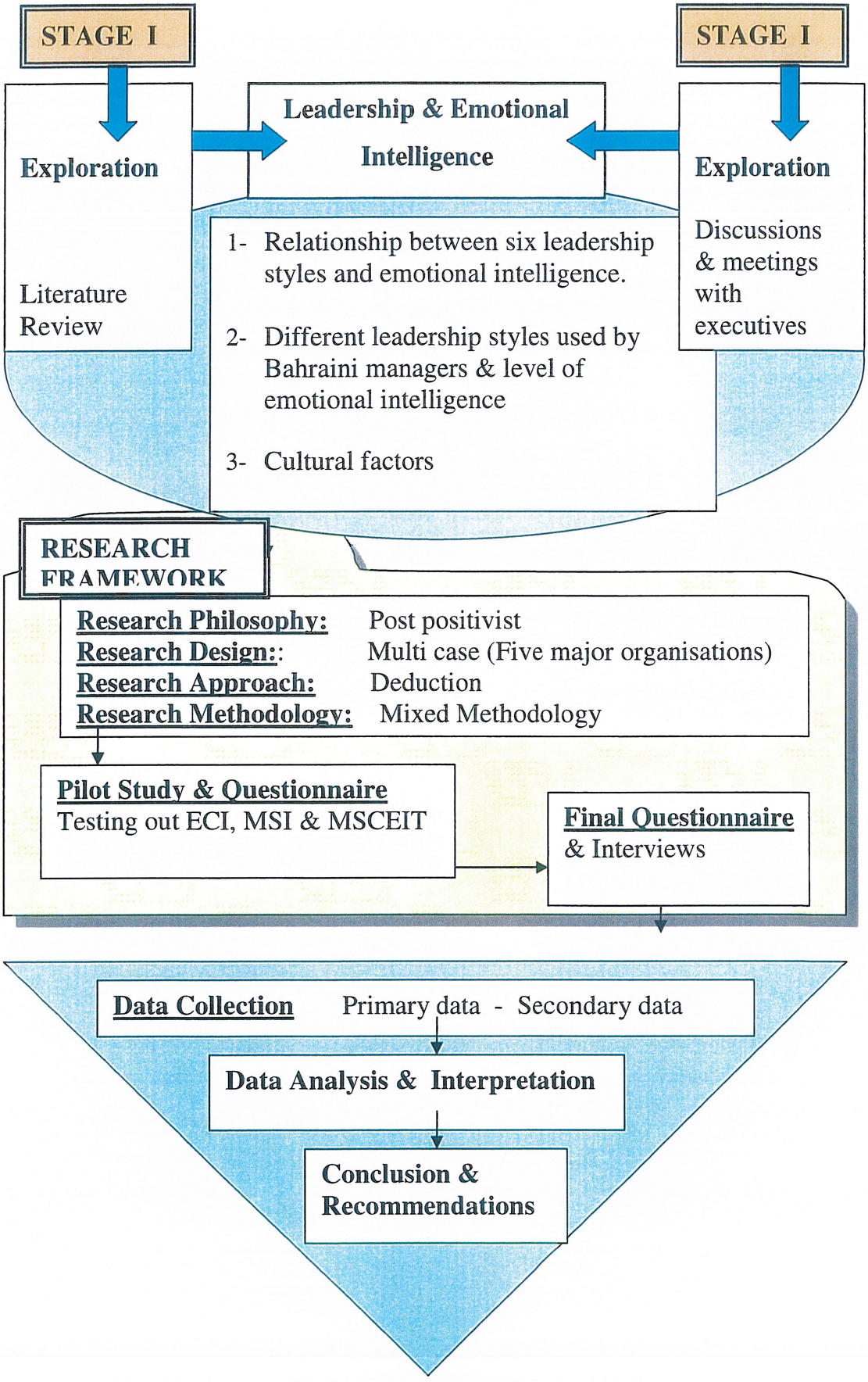


Fig 4.1 Diagram illustrating the research process of this study

Referring back to **Fig. 4.1**, the **first stage** of the research was to go through a literature review, followed by examining company reports and records and a series of individual exploratory discussions and interviews to explore issues of major importance relevant to this study: leadership styles as identified by Goleman (2000) and emotional intelligence in organisations in Bahrain. The challenges facing leadership in Bahrain was perhaps the impetus that eventually illuminated the path which led to this research study. The close link with many organisations in Bahrain gave the researcher access to key individuals, privileged information and critical events. The illuminating discussions that took place during the visits to these leading organisations in Bahrain opened avenues to further investigate the concept of leadership and emotional intelligence. The idea went through successive stages of refinement and eventually materialised in the quest to answer questions related to styles of leadership. It was in this stage that the five organisations under study were chosen to reflect major sectors of the industry in Bahrain covering: manufacturing, banking, petrochemicals, oil refinery, dry dock and telecommunications; namely Gulf Petrochemicals (GPIC), Bahrain Petroleum Company (BAPCO), Bahrain Telecommunication Company (BATELCO), Arab Ship Repair Yard (ASRY), and Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait (BBK). Details of the informants' ranks, educational level, and gender of the participants are presented in Chapter 6. After choosing the organisations, the researcher developed a framework for the study by identifying the research philosophy, design, approach and methodology.

A pilot study was carried out to gain feedback from the informants on the instruments to be used. The result of the pilot study raised as many questions as they answered and confirmed the researcher's intention to pursue the topic further through a doctoral research. During this time, the researcher had been actively interacting with chief executive officers and senior managers in the country in an attempt to find out more accurately what their notions of

leadership and emotional intelligence were and what they required of this research study. The picture that emerged was enough to suggest the need for further investigation on the topic. Based on the feedback, the instruments were chosen and carried for distribution. The interaction with chief executive officers and senior managers in the country in an attempt to find more accurately what their notions of leadership is and to what extent emotional intelligence can influence it was the focus of the discussions. During this stage, it was important to collect data from company records and interviews, in addition to books and internet sources to support the concepts under investigation and strengthen the research process. In this research, mixtures of interviews with executives along with questionnaires were used. Careful consideration was given to the sample selected for this research in terms of rank and position that included top, middle and supervisory levels. Also, the selected organisations represent major sectors of the economy in Bahrain (refer to **section 4.8** for coverage of the population and sample design).

4.3 METHODOLOGY ADOPTED

Research methodology is a general approach to understanding research (Fitzpatrick, Secrist & Wright, 1998). In this research, a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methodologies was considered for the following reasons. Since the topic touches on aspects of emotions and people's feelings regarding the questionnaires and leadership styles and other issues, it is therefore useful to incorporate qualitative methods, to gain an insight into their feelings and experiences. The purpose of the study is to investigate and explore leadership styles and emotional intelligence and the relationship between them in organisations within the Islamic cultural setting. Finally, the availability of resources, such as access to various organisations and the literature on the topic, suggested that it was appropriate to use a mixed-method approach.

Using mixed methodologies allows the researcher to explain causal relationships and at the same time gain more insight into the feelings as well as the opinions of respondents. Therefore, combining both approaches strengthened the research and provided better understanding of the facts and figures, allowing the researcher to answer the research questions and explore areas that have not been covered. The purpose of qualitative research, according to Heffner (2004) and Morse & Field (2002) is to gather non-numerical data to help explain or develop a theory about a relationship. According to Fitzpatrick *et al* (1998), this approach assumes multiple constructions of reality. The authors further add that it is a systematic and empirical strategy for answering questions about people in a bounded social context. Along the same line of thought, Morse & Field (2002) point out that qualitative methods should be used when there is little known about a phenomenon, as in the case of this research, where very little is known about emotional intelligence and its relationship to the leadership styles in the Bahrain context.

On the other hand, quantitative research employs developing mathematical models, theories and hypotheses providing a connection between empirical observation and mathematical expression of quantitative relationships. The emphasis here will be on quantifiable observations that lend themselves to statistical analysis (Gill & Johnson, 1997), as the next section will explain further.

4.3.1 Quantitative Method adopted for this research

This research started with the quantitative method, as it was crucial to look for relationships between the variables in testing the hypotheses with the various statistical tools, so that causality may be explained and accurate prediction

becomes possible (Morse & Field, 2002). One of the drawbacks of solely relying on the quantitative approach lies perhaps in its failure to take people's interpretations of their experiences into account, leading to the assumption that facts are the same and true for everyone at all times (Fitzpatrick *et al*, 1998). For instance, the figures and conclusions of the various studies regarding emotional intelligence conducted by different researchers in the United Kingdom or elsewhere may not be significant or the same as a study conducted in the Gulf Region. The advantages of using questionnaires, as stated by Namara (1999), are as follows: participants can complete anonymously; they are inexpensive to administer and can be administered to many people; and are easy to compare and analyse. However, questionnaires have some challenges such as the researcher might not get the required feedback and the full story. The benefit of conducting interviews was to complement the questionnaires and assist the researcher to get an in-depth feedback and develop relationship with respondents, allowing the researcher to be flexible with the participants (Namara, 1999). However, interviews can be a challenge and the researcher has to bear in mind that it may be hard to analyse and compare, time consuming, in addition to being bias towards the participants' responses.

The instruments used are: the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), and the Managerial Style Inventory (MSI). These instruments were administered to the general managers, executives, CEOs, supervisors and section heads of the five organisations under study. This was accompanied by follow-up interviews in order to get feedback, comments and queries from respondents regarding the instruments. The outcome of interviews is presented in Chapter 6 and **Appendix E**. These instruments, among other instruments, are considered to be popular standardised tests which are valid and reliable (Anderson & Zhu, 2002). Such tests are used for evaluation purposes by many organisations in different parts of the world, particularly the United States (www.eiconsortium.com; www.ei.haygroup.com)(05.12.2005). The strength

of using standardised tests is based on their reliability and comparability, despite being administered in different settings and at different times. Therefore, these tests were considered relatively suitable for the national and corporate culture in Bahrain, as well as serving the purpose of this study. Although these tests are considered to be standardised tests designed and applied in a Western culture, its applicability to Bahrain and the Gulf Region has given insight into other factors not taken into consideration in the original questionnaires, such as: organisational politics, corporate culture, and work attitudes (Al Ismaily, 2006).

Researchers have argued that all tests in existence are to some extent based upon aspects of the culture in which they were developed (Greenfield, 1997; Suzuki & Kugler, 1995). As such, the instruments used in this study were developed in the United States; and certain issues were raised by the respondents regarding some of the items in the questionnaires, indicating that some aspects of national culture has to be taken into consideration when designing standardised tests. Since the tests are standardised tests, part of the data was administered and evaluated by Hay McBer to comply with the guidelines of such tests. The researcher conducted other analysis by using statistical package tool (SPSS) to test the hypothesis and to answer the research questions. The tool was used to examine relationships through using correlations, t-tests, standard deviation, mean, along with Chi-square to explore the overall strength of the relationship between the variables.

4.3.2 Qualitative Method adopted for this research

The qualitative method utilised for this study was in the form of interviews, followed by data analysis and data interpretation. This enabled the researcher to obtain an in-depth understanding of the participants' feelings and emotions,

getting a clearer picture of the interpretation of analysis, allowing room for a descriptive presentation of the data. The approach also allowed the researcher to gain a better understanding of what is applicable and useful in the organisations under study, and what needs to be modified with respect to leadership and emotional intelligence issues. Furthermore, for this study, qualitative analysis was important because it provided a clearer picture of the experience of managers (whether Bahrainis or non-Bahrainis) and their point of view on the various issues raised on emotional intelligence and leadership styles. Some of the interviews were taped and for others notes were taken, depending on the availability of time and the schedule of the respondents being interviewed. The tape-recorded interviews were transcribed and analysed as soon as it was possible, which helped in gaining more comments relevant to national culture and other issues regarding the research topic. Transcription is simply a translation from spoken to written language, and from personal conversation to text which is to be read analytically (Holstein & Gubrium, 2003). This is seen as a tiring and tough process but it helps in translating feelings and opinions. Through the interviews the author gained more insight into the feelings of the respondents towards the topic, their experiences and how they foresee the future of leaders and leadership styles in Bahrain. Additionally, conducting interviews gave the researcher the opportunity to further elaborate on issues and concerns that were unclear; therefore feedback was seen as being mutual.

In analysing qualitative research, especially case studies, it seems that there is little guidance for case study data analysis in general, and particularly where strategies and techniques are not well defined (Yin, 2003). However, data analysis can be carried out in a number of ways and the choice of method depends on the investigator's own style of thinking, sufficient presentation of evidence and careful consideration of alternative interpretations (Yin, 2003). In analysing the qualitative data collected for this study, the researcher

developed themes based on the research questions and looked for similarities and differences in the feedback and answers given by the respondents. The first step in data analysis was to transcribe the interviews, where the researcher went through them and identified themes which emerged from the data. These themes were grouped into broader themes with similar characteristics that would help in answering the research questions and in partially supporting the hypothesis. The researcher also used direct quotes from respondents without referring company names as part of protecting their identity for confidentiality purposes. Some of the quotes and parts of the interviews were inserted in the following chapters: Chapter 5 (**section 5.2**), Chapter 6 and 7 to further support some of the issues and quantitative analysis.

4.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the literature reviewed in preceding chapters, the researcher identified five specific questions as follows:

1) Is there a relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence?

2) Do managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination of styles?

3) What levels of Emotional Intelligence do leaders in Bahrain show?

4) What cultural factors in Bahrain influence the use of emotional intelligence and leadership styles?

5) What are the implications of conducting such research in Bahrain?

4.5 HYPOTHESIS

Identifying the hypothesis is the heart of any deductive research and its importance lies in clarifying the research problem (Fitzpatrick *et al*, 1998). The hypothesis of this research served several functions including providing a study with a focus on a specific problem and shedding light on the type of data needed to be collected and enhancing the objectivity of the study. The research questions raised certain critical issues that paved the way to understanding the rationale behind the hypothesis. These issues (such as corporate culture, the leadership styles being actually implemented in organisations in Bahrain, political changes that had an impact on corporate culture, and informants' feedback on the questionnaires) attempted to take Goleman's research one step forward, by extending the study to include Bahrain and the Gulf Region. This would add a new dimension to the concept of emotional intelligence and leadership not only in the Gulf Region but in the Middle East in general, which has not been researched and explored in depth.

The hypothesis is as follows:

> There is a relationship between the six leadership styles (identified by Goleman, 2000) and emotional intelligence in organisations in Bahrain, within the Islamic cultural setting.

The above-mentioned hypothesis along with what is being investigated in this research is illustrated graphically in **Fig. 4.2**.

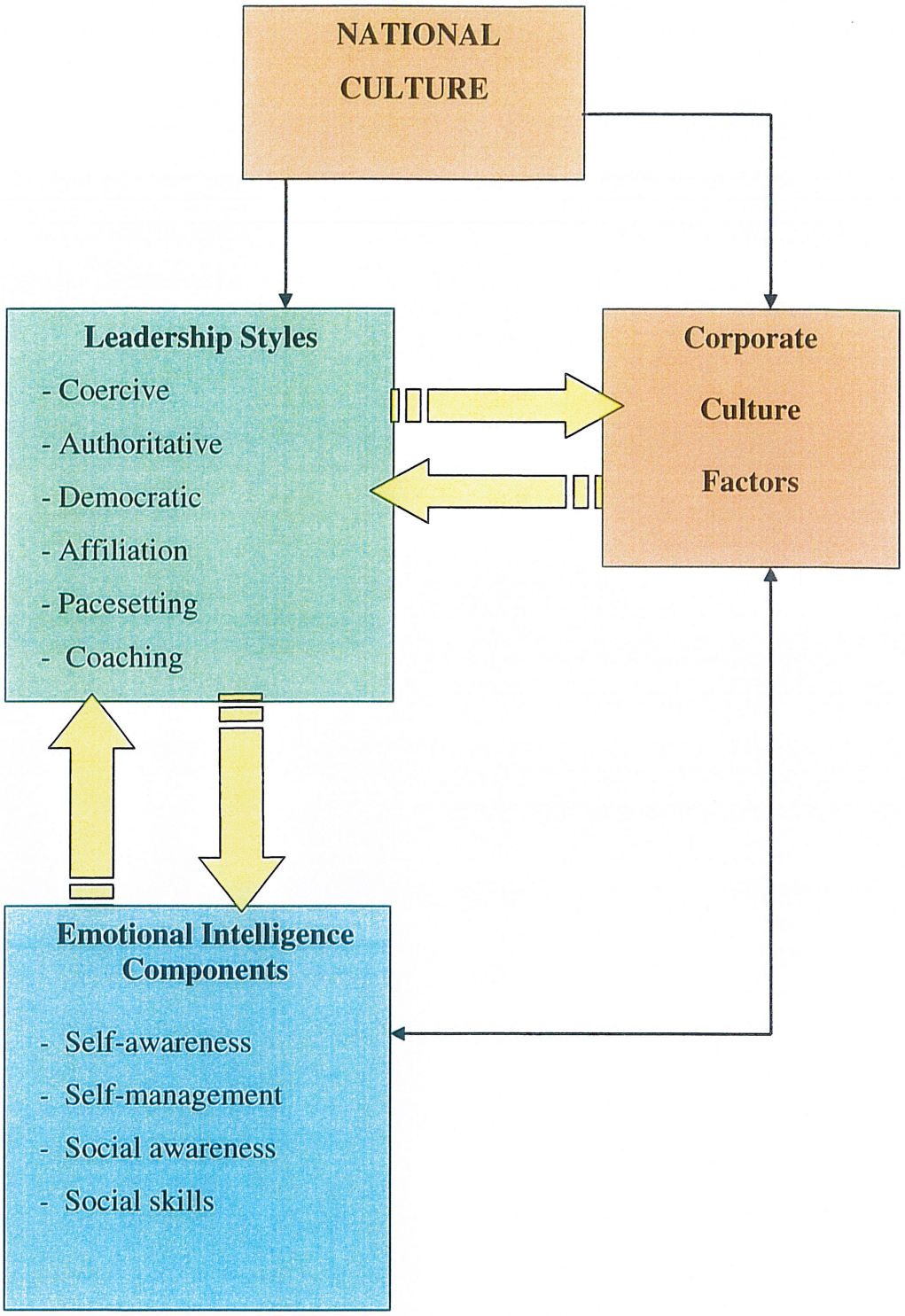


Fig. 4.2 Hypothesis and the various factors under investigation

4.6 QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

Two sets of instruments were used to measure leadership styles and emotional intelligence. The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) with its two versions: one designed for the manager (self) and the other for the direct report (employees who directly report to their manager). The second instrument used is the Managerial Style Inventory (MSI), with two versions: one intended for the manager (participant) and the other for the direct report (subordinate). This instrument has an added advantage over others because it measures all the six leadership styles as discussed in the thesis. The two sets of questionnaires (ECI manager and ECI employee, together with MSI manager and MSI employee) had to be kept together for the purpose of analysis. Each respondent had two sets of questionnaires and at the end the manager's version had to be kept together with that of his subordinate or direct report (so it was on a one to one basis). Both respondents occupy managerial levels, but for analysis purposes and to comply with the guidelines set for using standardised tests, the researcher had to adhere to the instructions set out by Hay McBer.

4.7 BACKGROUND OF VARIOUS INSTRUMENTS USED

As indicated above, two instruments were utilised in this study, the ECI and MSI to measure the relationship between the emotional intelligence competencies with the six leadership styles.

4.7.1. Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

The ECI, described in Chapter 2, comprises of 110 items measured on a 6-point scale, and takes approximately thirty-five minutes to complete (Refer to

Appendix D for a sample of the questionnaire). The ECI observer rating scale defines emotional intelligence as the "capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for managing emotions as well in our relationships" (Hay Group, 1999:1). It looks into four aspects of emotional intelligence: ***Self-awareness***, includes measures of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence. ***Self-management*** measures self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement orientation, and initiative. ***Social awareness***, consisting of empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation. ***Social skills***, looks at developing others, leadership, influence, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration. The ECI measures the respondent on thirty separate work related emotional competencies, covering both personal and social competencies. It is not just a self-report test, but relies on feedback from other respondents. The ECI is best used with people that are in frequent contact with each other or have long working relationships with. In this research managers and subordinates who are in direct contact with each other were chosen to fulfil this objective.

4.7.2 Managerial Style Inventory (MSI)

Richard Mansfield designed the MSI at McBer & Company in 1986, based on an earlier instrument that was used in the 1970s (Anderson & Zhu, 2002; Kelner, Rivers & O'Connell, 1994). The instrument is based on Litwin and Stringer's 1968 research on motivation and organisational climate (Anderson & Zhu, 2002). Managerial style describes a person's characteristic or typical way of acting in various managerial situations. It is used to evaluate how a manager performs the classic functions of management: planning, organising, motivating, controlling and coordinating in terms of key management

behaviours.

The instrument has six dimensions (Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pacesetting, and Coaching), which are based on theoretical conceptions derived from use of the earlier instrument, clinical knowledge and factor analysis. It consists of 68 items, providing participants with a profile of their perceived managerial styles, with two versions: a self-rating version for the managers to evaluate their style, and a version for employees (or direct report) to rate their managers (**Appendix D** contains a sample of the questionnaire). The MSI feedback consists of two profiles: the Managerial Style the participant intends and the Managerial Style experienced by the participant's raters. The self-report measures the managerial styles (expressed by behaviours) that the participant believes he or she demonstrates in the workplace, which are the participant's intended styles but they may not be what others experience. All of the six styles are more or less effective depending on the characteristics of the situation: employee experience, task complexity, the risk associated with the task, resources available, and so forth. The MSI allows free range on all scales, so it is possible to have all scales score high or all six score low, according to Kelner *et al* (1994). The authors add that the items are not repeated and are independent of each other as far as rating is concerned. The managerial style refers to the patterns of behaviour an individual manager uses across the full range of managerial situations and functions. The MSI has been validated for construct validity, content validity and criterion validity, as stated by Anderson & Zhu (2002). The authors also indicate how the MSI has been proven to have certain degree of reliability.

4.8 POPULATION AND SAMPLE DESIGN

This research covered five major organisations in Bahrain (**Appendix A** contains background information on the companies and an illustration of their organisation chart).

Probability sampling was chosen due to the nature of the research and the need to make inferences from the sample about a population (Mann, 1998). Within probability sampling, stratified sampling techniques were applied. According to Cochran (1977), the principle purpose of stratified sampling is to increase the efficiency of estimation (the precision achievable with a given sample size). He further explains that basic stratified sampling calls for partitioning a population into subpopulations, called strata which are formed by grouping element having similar values of one or more auxiliary variables called 'stratification variables,' who values for each population element are already known or easily determined. The respondents in this research were divided into three relevant and significant strata (sharing managerial positions): top management (CEO's, general managers, executives and managers), middle management and supervisors (section heads, superintendents), and subordinates or assistants (details of the ranks and educational level is found in **Appendix F**), taking into consideration that the level of their English was very good. The target population consisted of: 250 full-time executives and managers. The number of respondents who took part in the research was 103 (including the managers and their subordinates), occupying the top, middle and supervisory management positions. It is important to note here that the questionnaires were not translated into Arabic, retaining by that its originality and avoiding misinterpretation.

4.9 SOURCES OF DATA

Besides primary data, which was obtained through questionnaires and interviews, secondary data was also gathered in the form of a library search for books as well as articles on leadership and emotional intelligence. Electronic journals were heavily used to obtain the latest and up-to-date information on the topic. Various books on leaders, leadership, emotional intelligence, and related books on psychology along with organisational behaviour were also referred to. The Internet was of immense help. Each site gave further references and links to other useful related sites, and e-mail addresses helped in exchanging information and ideas. This assisted the researcher tremendously in the process of gathering information and ideas. Informal discussion with various experts and professionals, such as the supervisor, colleagues, librarians and other practitioners also assisted in locating various available data. Company records and reports provided by the organisations were also utilised.

Undoubtedly one can argue that the use of secondary data has several advantages, but perhaps the key advantage is the enormous saving in resources, particularly time and money, because data was obtained quickly and efficiently through the use of the Internet and electronic journals. This research encountered no difficulty in terms of data collection whether from the Internet, library or the companies undergoing the study. On the contrary, there was full cooperation from various companies, whether those undergoing research in Bahrain or others such as Hay McBer (USA), Charles J. Wolfe Associates (USA), MHS (Multi Health Systems) and Ei (UK). This was due to the uniqueness of the topic, which has not been fully explored in the Gulf Region. The main difficulty the researcher faced was perhaps the lack of research material on emotional intelligence and leadership applied to the Gulf Region.

Secondary data on the case study organisations were collected and analysed

chronologically, and the main achievements and developments were highlighted. Background information regarding Bahrain was presented to enable readers to understand the various aspects of the country's political, social, economical, technological and competitive environment.

4.10 PILOT STUDY

Although the questionnaires utilised in this research work are standardised tools, it was nevertheless important to gain constructive feedback from potential respondents before distributing them. Pilot studies according to Baker (1994) are useful in the pre-testing or 'trying out' a particular research instrument, as in the case of this research. Additionally, conducting pilot studies reduces the risk of failure and other problems associated with using the instruments intended. In this research, the pilot study covered 10 managers in the ranks of managers and general mangers and yielded positive results. The pilot study was carried out to decide on which instrument to be used for this research. The managers selected were given three sets of instruments: The Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and Managerial Style Inventory (MSI). A total of 10 participants were selected from the five organisations to answer the three sets of questionnaires. After receiving their input, interviews were conducted with them to get feedback, which helped the researcher in selecting on the instruments to be used in the research. The respondents found the MSCEIT to be complicated and time consuming. Many items were seen as not relevant to the national or corporate culture. On the other hand, the ECI and MSI received more positive feedback, as the managers found they were more suitable and appropriate. Both instruments were considered to be shorter and took less time to complete. The managers had no comments or alterations prior to answering the ECI and MSI. Their comments and suggestions came at a later stage, after taking sufficient

time to carefully answer the questions, and subsequently during the interviews.

One of the main comments raised was on the concept of emotional intelligence, in terms of its meaning and applicability to organisations in Bahrain. The concept was new to the majority of the respondents, therefore it was necessary to explain what is meant by emotional intelligence, its significance and application to organisations, whether theirs or others in Bahrain. Other comments raised by some of the managers centred on the basis for selecting participants. Queries raised included the cultural background of the participants, their qualifications, rank and level of cooperation. Some of the managers referred to Bahrain as being unique in terms of culture, people, society and the structure of the organisations. They believed that such a study would yield interesting results. Others pointed out how various managers in Bahrain have learned to adapt to the changes that have taken place over the last twenty years, which meant that there would be variations in their styles of management. The managers suggested that both Bahrainis as well as non-Bahrainis should participate in these interviews and questionnaires, as this would enrich and strengthen the research. The respondents also raised the issue of the number and types of departments required, and whether there were preferences for certain departments. Others' concern was around the time frame for completing the questionnaires and interviews.

As a result of the feedback from the pilot study, the researcher was able to determine the instruments to be used in the research, as the ECI and MSI were found to be more practical and suitable for the purpose of the research. Through discussions with the executives, it was decided to include both Bahrainis and non-Bahrainis in the sample size to reflect on cultural issues. Sampling across the organisation to ensure coverage of a variety of departments to fulfil the objectives of the research and to gain an insight into different opinions was also considered in the research. In order to understand further

how the interviews were conducted and what method the researcher followed, the next section presents detailed explanation.

4.11 OUTLINE OF THE DATA COLLECTION

The visits to the organisations under study went through five basic stages In the first stage, the researcher provided the executives with a background and purpose of the research. The second stage was the actual distribution of the questionnaires. In the third stage, the researcher collected the questionnaire and arranged for interviews with various participants to get feedback on the research questionnaires. Interviews took place in the fourth stage, along with collection of the remaining questionnaires. The fifth stage involved following up with the remaining respondents for the collection of the questionnaires and feedback on the content of the questionnaires.

For the purpose of this study, two main methods were used, namely questionnaires and interviews. The interviews were conducted with 33 managers in different managerial levels out of which 16 executives were selected to answer specific questions. The purpose of these interviews was to obtain feedback on the questionnaires (ECI and MSI) and to get an in-depth look at their viewpoints regarding leadership styles in Bahrain and some of the current and future challenges facing managers in Bahrain (**Appendix E** contains details of the interviews). Easterby-Smith *et al* (2004) consider interviews as appropriate due to the large number of questions and the subjective nature of some of the concepts of the study. The authors further explain that the aim of interviews is to allow informants to describe their organisational existence from their own perspectives. In this study, the interviews conducted with the managers provided an insight into the queries and research questions needed to be answered. It also provided the researcher

with more understanding into the feelings and concerns of the respondents.

The visits took place between April 2001 and October 2003, comprising five basic stages as follows:

The first stage was to provide the companies with a background of the research work and to explore the possibility of conducting such a study in their organisation. The visits took place between April and June 2001, with the following objectives in mind: *First*, to explain the objective of this research; *Second*, to introduce the companies to the various questionnaires and to get their approval to go ahead; Third, to carry out the pilot study; Fourth, to get practical ideas and feedback from the managers. During this stage the researcher often spent half of the day spread over a period of almost three months. Such a delay was due to the managers' busy schedules.

In the second stage, two sets of questionnaires were distributed namely the ECI and the MSI. The questionnaires were intended for both managers and their direct subordinates. The visits took place between March and June 2002 with the following objectives in mind: *First*, to explain the process for distributing the questionnaires and identifying the sample size targeted; *Second*, to emphasize the importance of meeting targeted deadlines to collect completed questionnaires; *Third*, to distribute the first set of questionnaires with a target sample between 30 and 50 participants for each organisation, totalling to somewhere around 150 and 250 participants.

The requirement was fully explained to the participants who were carefully chosen by each manager according to the criteria set in the first stage. A time frame was also agreed upon for receiving the questionnaires and any additional feedback needed from the respondents. It took the participants between three to four months to complete the questionnaires initially, which was within the

allocated period. An extension was given to the remaining few in order to reach the target sample size.

In the third stage, the questionnaires were collected and checked for any further queries from the respondents and completion of the questionnaires. The third visit took place in October 2002, with the following purposes in mind: First, to make arrangements to meet with various managers; Second, to discuss the components of the questionnaires; Third, to collect the completed questionnaires. The researcher met with the coordinators and made necessary arrangements to start conducting interviews with various managers. The managers expressed their willingness to cooperate fully with the researcher. As such, an agreement was reached as to the selection of departments and the people to be interviewed. In this stage, the process of collecting the questionnaires (MSI and ECI) took place, checking that they were complete and insuring that the manager's set was kept together with the subordinate's. Some of the questionnaires were not complete, partly because some participants did not understand some of the questions. As such, it was arranged to follow-up with the participants and ensure that the missing parts were completed. Another deadline was specified for such participants, and the coordinators emphasised the importance of meeting it. On the other hand, some of the participants had faced some difficulties regarding filling out the questionnaires, so the author took the time to further explain and assist in the process of completing them.

During this stage arrangements were made with the coordinators from each company to set dates for conducting interviews and to coordinate the process of choosing respondents. The total number of participants interviewed from the five companies was 33. The respondents occupied the following ranks: supervisors, managers, executives and general managers. Out of the 33 interviewed, 16 executives were chosen for an interview to answer specific

questions regarding leadership styles followed in their organisation and the challenges facing leaders in Bahrain.

In the fourth stage, the visits took place between November 2002 and March 2003, with the aim to discuss and interview selected managers at different levels. The objective of the interviews was to supplement the questionnaires. In all, 33 managers from various ranks were interviewed out of which 16 executives were chosen to answer the following specific questions:

1) What style of leadership is being followed in your organisation? Do you follow a certain style or a combination and why? From your interactions with different managers in various organisations in Bahrain, what are your feelings regarding their style of management.

2) In your opinion, what do you think are the difficulties that face managers in Bahrain at present, and what do you think are the future challenges?

33 managers were interviewed to get their feedback on the contents of the questionnaires in general and on the issue of corporate culture in particular. The following questions were asked:

3) What is your overall impression regarding the questionnaire? Do you have any comments? Would you like to add anything that you feel was not covered?

4) Looking back at the questionnaires, do you think that the questions were relevant to Bahrain in general and your company's corporate culture in particular?

Some of the comments raised included issues such as: the questionnaires, their

structure and relevance to Bahrain. The managers who took part in the interviews were interested in the research topic, they expressed their opinions openly, explaining in some detail despite their busy schedule and commitments (Chapter 6 covers the detailed analysis of the answers).

In The fifth stage, the aim was to follow-up with respondents who did not complete their questionnaires. The visits started in April 2003 and ended in October of the same year, to collect remaining questionnaires and follow-up on interviews. In this stage, the last remaining sets of questionnaires were collected and at the same time finished the interviews with additional managers and executives. The target sample size was reached and the researcher was able to get all the necessary information that would eventually answer the research questions and help in justifying the hypothesis stated.

4.12 ACCESS TO THE ORGANISATIONS UNDER STUDY

The five organisations under study were chosen based on the following factors: nature of the industry, as this study covers main sectors of the industry; their contribution towards the economy and society in Bahrain; long history with many achievements and success stories, not only at the national or regional level but also internationally; they have established and developed a sound reputation over the years; participated in major projects whether in Bahrain or the GCC, receiving numerous worldwide awards for high quality and safety; access to such organisations, as this is very crucial in any research work; level of cooperation and involvement in taking part in the research.

The researcher had excellent access to the top management of the organisations under research, which was very crucial in gaining cooperation and interest in undertaking such a research work at executive level. However, the researcher

was aware that such access might influence respondents' responses to certain questions. Throughout the data collection phase, the researcher felt that respondents provided open and honest answers, as they were assured of the confidentiality of the information provided. Top management support and encouragement made the process of interviewing and getting necessary information efficient and effective, so the researcher was able to meet the target deadline of collecting data and analyzing it. In addition, this study was considered by many of the managers to be significant not only to their organisations but to the whole area, they felt at ease in answering the questions and in providing reports and information. Such a relationship with trust gave considerable boost and confidence to the researcher. This together with other factors enabled the researcher to carry out the study effectively and to fulfill the purpose of the research. Other factors that contributed to having access to data as well as full cooperation included: the national culture, where Bahrain - being a small country - people have access to organisations due to family ties and friendship; the topic was seen to be very interesting and highly beneficial for the organisations under study and for other companies; the researcher's background, as she has conducted many workshops, and is known with the organisations; the researcher (being a lecturer at the University) was able to get further assistance and cooperation due to the University's strong links with the community as well as its good reputation, which has lead many organisations in Bahrain to cooperate with researchers from the University.

The visits to the organisations went through five basic stages from the initial meeting with managers, pilot study, distribution of questionnaires, follow-up, to the interviews conducted. The visits yielded positive feedback, generating additional practical ideas for the research and a wealth of information that exceeded the researcher's expectations. The organisations also expressed their willingness to cooperate and provide all the necessary help needed. Some of the managers presented their own views based on their experience while others

gave a brief background on the development of management in Bahrain over the years. Their input was valuable in terms of getting practical ideas based on their experience as leaders and managers. The researcher was briefed on the history and development of each organisation in terms of where it was, where it stands now, and what the future prospects are. Some of the managers were not familiar with the research concept, and only few of them had come across the concept of emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership. This meant that it was necessary for the researcher to interact with the various managers to explain the concept of emotional intelligence and the significance of such a study to the organisations in Bahrain. In each organisation, one of the managers was assigned to coordinate the process of distributing the questionnaires, follow-up and collection as well as arranging for interviews. Since there were four sets of questionnaires, and the researcher had to follow the guidelines of administering the standardised tests, the coordinator's job was very important to ensure the proper distribution of the questionnaires and the follow-up with the collection. The method of distribution and coding of the questionnaires was discussed to ease the process of allocating the participants later on if they were further needed.

The interviews and questionnaires were carried out in English to maintain the precise meaning of the questions and answers, and to minimise loosing its originality if translated. The respondents had no problem with that as their level of understanding and expression in English was very good. During the visits and interviews, the researcher also made notes of impressions, feelings, reactions and ideas of the participants. This enabled the researcher to understand further how the respondents felt about the corporate culture of their organisation and to further support the results. It also helped in interpreting some of the data and forwarding some of the recommendations. The interviews also allowed the researcher to probe for more specific answers, repeat certain questions or re-word questions which the informant misunderstood.

The analysis of the interviews was based on the set of categories established to answer the hypothesis and research questions. The researcher was looking for patterns of similarities and differences in order to support the quantitative data used. The researcher went through the interviews taped and notes taken several times before establishing the categories/themes, which covered the following issues: National and corporate culture of each organisation from the respondents' experience; the level of emotional intelligence as well as an understanding of the topic being investigated; leadership styles followed in each organisation and other organisations in Bahrain; general comments and feedback regarding the questionnaires which helped in investigating the influence of national culture on leadership styles and emotional intelligence.

4.13 ETHICAL ISSUES

Regarding ethical decisions in the research process, Bogdan & Taylor (1975) state that it should be honest and free of any deception as it may jeopardize the goodwill of potential research. The researcher discussed and clarified the objective of the research from the initial visit without hiding any vital information from the participants. The participants were verbally informed of the purpose and objective of the thesis and the methods used to carry out the research. Furthermore, the participants were assured of the confidentiality of the information they provide. They were also assured of the confidentiality of their answers, and that their questionnaires would not be given back to their organisations under any circumstance. The participants were not mentioned directly by their names, instead they were referred to by their positions, i.e. supervisor, manager, and so on. No pseudonyms were necessary for the organisations involved, their names were used as they were aware of the research's intentions and significance.

Although the respondents were aware of the access of the researcher through the top management, they felt at ease in answering the questions openly and honestly. They did not feel threatened nor did they feel under pressure. This approach made the interviews fruitful and effective. The researcher undoubtedly felt at ease when conducting the interviews but at the same time was aware of the influence of such an access from top management may have on the respondents. The interviews were conducted privately on individual basis and not through groups, which enabled the researcher to obtain rich data; avoiding group pressure. This method helped to increase anonymity, trust and rapport; and the ability to ask respondents directly. The researcher also tried to be un-biased in influencing the respondents, with an open-mind towards the main objective of the study.

4.14 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As with any research, this study has some limitations in terms of namely the limited number of case organisations. Under ideal conditions, more organisations could have been included in this study. Limited survey was carried out on the concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence and therefore the availability of limited literature and case studies in Bahrain. For reasons of time, accessibility, and confidentiality, this study concentrated on five major organisations in Bahrain, covering various sectors in the economy. These sectors are considered as important, and the organisations are seen as key contributors towards the economy with many successful stories. Another limitation is the non-generalisability of some of the recommendations and conclusions. To what extent can this study be said to yield generalisations extend beyond Bahrain? The outside scope that naturally comes to mind is the Gulf region which has been undergoing very rapid change including the emergence of corporate cultures and the building of management systems

(AlHashemi, 1996).

Despite the above limitations, the author had no problem in accessing the organisations, getting their annual reports and interviewing managers to fulfill the aims of this research. With the availability of time and resources, one could perhaps include more organisations covering additional sectors of the economy in Bahrain. Furthermore, one could also investigate in-depth topics within leadership and emotional intelligence, such as: developing leaders, leadership styles, various aspects of emotional intelligence and organisational culture. Finally, the study did not examine gender differences due to the domination of males in the sample.

4.15 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The nature of the study and the need to consider many complex factors such as: relationship between leadership styles, emotional intelligence, national and corporate culture that influence such a relationship lead to the concept and design of the research process as shown in **Fig. 4.1**. The research process starts from research philosophy, design, approach, methodology to pilot study, final questionnaires and interviews, data collection, data analysis and interpretation and finally conclusion and recommendations. In addressing the research questions and hypothesis with the aim of extending Goleman's (2000) work in the cultural context of Bahrain, it was more fitting to adopt a post-positivism approach, with a multi-case study design using a deductive approach followed by mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative. This, together with the combination of interviews and questionnaires, allowed the researcher to gain further insight into the findings and opinions of managers as to their level of emotional intelligence that they show, the effect that this has on these leadership styles and the cultural factors (both national and corporate) that

influence the use of emotional intelligence.

The choice of instruments such as the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and the Managerial Style Inventory (MSI) with their two versions: one for the manager and the other for the direct report (subordinate) was based on the following factors: Firstly, they have been used by many researchers including Goleman (2000); Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee (2000); Cherniss (2000); Cherniss & Goleman (2001). Secondly, they have been validated for construct, content and criterion validity (Anderson & Zhu, 2002). Thirdly, they have proven to have certain degree of reliability (Anderson & Zhu, 2002). Finally, the relevance and applicability of the instruments to the Bahrain context, as pointed out by the managers (during the pilot study).

One key issue in any research project is getting access to information. This research had the benefit of getting access to the organisations through the top management. Every consideration was taken to ensure the confidentiality of the respondents, knowing that this would make them at ease in cooperating and providing necessary information and knowledge.

The next chapter deals with Bahrain national and organisational background information to which this study has been conducted.

CHAPTER 5

THE NATIONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a contextual profile of Bahrain's recent economic development and historical events. The first part of the chapter outlines the major events in the history of Bahrain that strengthened the country's position not only within the Gulf Region but also throughout the world. The second part of the chapter presents an overview of the corporate culture of the five major organisations in Bahrain under investigation namely GPIC (Gulf Petrochemicals), BAPCO (Bahrain Petroleum Company), BATELCO (Bahrain Telecommunication Company), ASRY (Arab Ship Repair Yard), and BBK (Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait). The information was obtained from company reports, their websites as well as quotes from interviews conducted with managers.

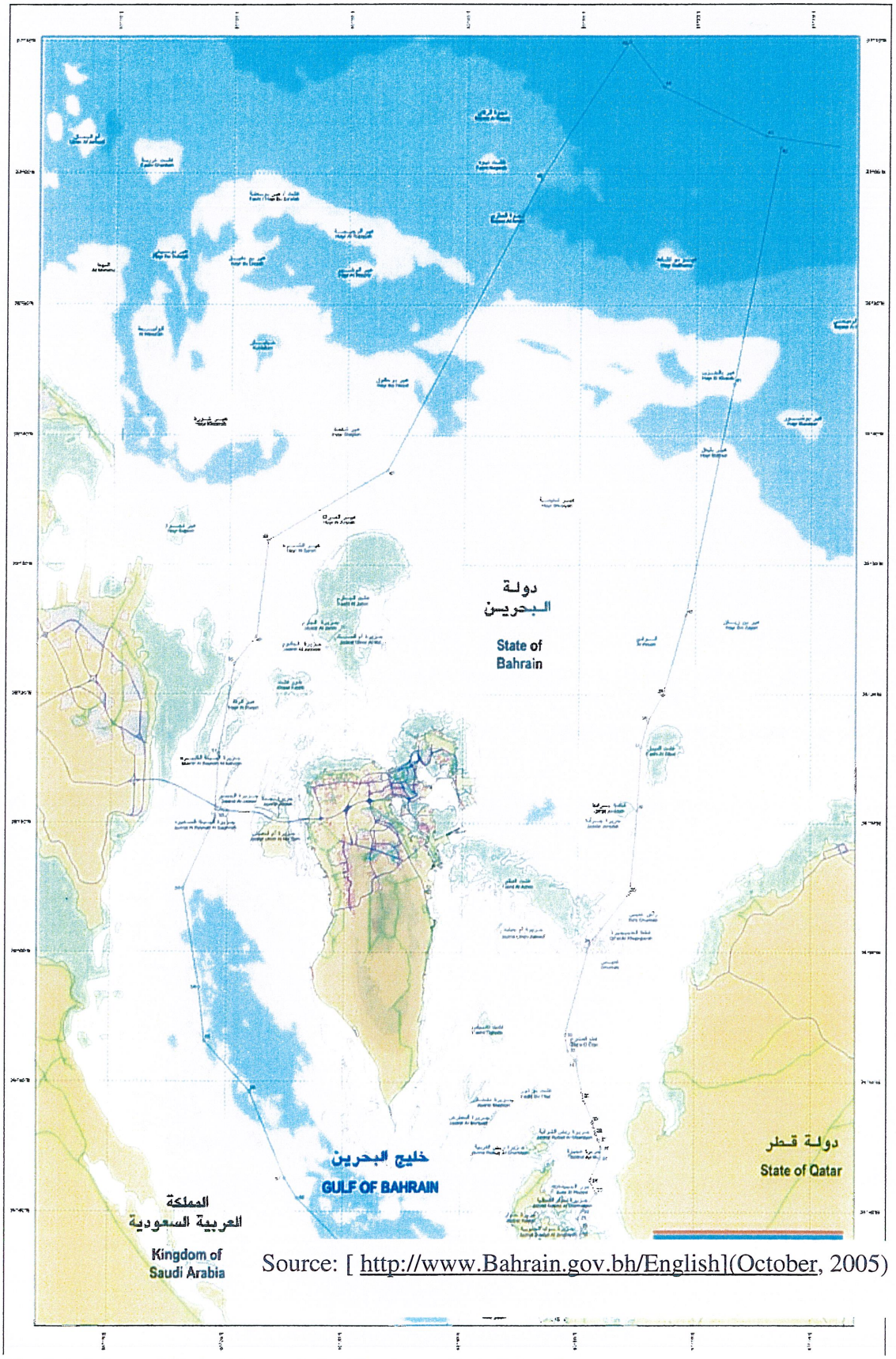
5.1 OVERVIEW OF BAHRAIN

The Kingdom of Bahrain is located in the Arabian Gulf, off the Eastern shore of Saudi Arabia. It comprises 40 islands, total land area of about 711.9 square km, with a population of 698,585 as of July 2006 (www.bahrainedb.com) (03.11.2006). Because of limited land space, many parts of the country have been reclaimed from the sea. It is expected that reclamation will continue for many years to come. While this reclamation is necessary because of land

limitation, the environmentalists have cautioned against it with arguments that it has affected the sea life around the island and the effect it has had on salivation discharge on the agricultural land. Since the late 18th century (1782), Bahrain has been governed by the Al-Khalifa family (generally in succession of father to son). The presence of the AlKhalifa dynasty created close ties with Britain by signing the General Treaty of Peace in 1820 and 1861 (Belgrave, 1973). This marked the beginning of development in the country. The religion in Bahrain and the Gulf Region is Islam, practiced by 85% of the population in Bahrain. However, freedom of worship is permitted in other faiths including Christianity, Hinduism, Parseeism, Judaism, and Buddhism. Bahrain has a mix of nationalities. English is widely spoken, but traditional Arab courtesy and hospitality are still the hallmark of a friendly and peaceful Bahrain (Belgrave, 1973). **Fig. 5.1** shows the boundaries of the country along with Hawar Island that was voted in favour of Bahrain (in 2001) after years of dispute with Qatar.

5.1.1 ECONOMIC ENVIRONMENT

Oil Sector: The discovery of oil in the 1930s had an enormous impact both on the kingdom and its neighbouring countries. The Bahrain Petroleum Company (Bapco), formed in 1929 to manage the country's oil industry, played a major role at that time, in the economy of the country still remains important to the economy with its high contribution, expansion and growth. It opened the ways for employment and further progress in the country as well as improving the welfare. The surfacing of oil gave way to the discovery of gas, which led to the beginning of progress and development in the country (Mitchell, 2005). Bahrain and the Gulf States prospered greatly, due to a rise in the price of crude oil in the 1970s by 70%. This led to substantial cash surpluses in the Gulf countries, which triggered investment opportunities for Bahrain.



Source: [http://www.Bahrain.gov.bh/English](October, 2005)

Fig 5.1 Map of Bahrain and the Surrounding Islands

The Bahrain National Oil Company (BANOCO) was formed in the mid 70s, to manage the country's oil industry on behalf of the government (www.banagas.com.bh)(05.10.2005). Bahrain's share of oil has dwindled since its discovery in 1932. Output has fallen since the 1970s when it was around 75,000 barrels per day (bpd) to 37,000 (bpd) in 2003 (Emerging Bahrain, 2005). For this reason steps were taken to diversify the economy to include various industries such as ship repair, tourism and manufacturing (Mitchell, 2005). By 1979, gas was being harnessed to full extent with the creation of Bahrain National Gas Company (BANAGAS). The objective of establishing the company was to achieve optimum utilisation of gas in the country by processing gas associated with oil (www.banagas.com.bh)(05.10.2005). However, it is expected that the gas reserves will be exhausted some time in the next two decades, and the amount of gas injected will also decline. The demand for gas in Bahrain is rising at such a pace that unless a major new gas field is discovered it cannot be met by local production (Emerging Bahrain 2005). In a bid to locate new sources of oil, the Kingdom launched a program for oil exploration and drilling in 1998. In 2005, the Board of National Oil and Gas Authority was established to overlook quality and standards.

Financial Sector: Bahrain has been heading towards diversifying its economy by establishing various industries and concentrating on strengthening the service sector. Perhaps the first sign of progress and development in the Kingdom was with the establishment of the first bank in 1921, known then as the Eastern Bank (now the Standard Chartered Bank). The worldwide depression of the 1920s led to a sharp fall on Bahrain's pearl exports (Mitchell, 2005). The 1940s and 50s witnessed further progress and expansion in the country, beginning with the expansion in the banking sector in 1944 and the opening of the British Bank of the Middle East (now HSBC). This was followed by the establishment of the first Bank exclusively owned by Bahraini Nationals in 1957. Other industries emerged as part of the diversification

strategy such as: Arab Shipbuilding and Repair Yard Company (ASRY), established in 1977 principally to service oil tankers (www.bahraingateway.org)(12.12.2005); Aluminium Bahrain Company (ALBA), established within the same period, and is considered today as one of the largest aluminium smelters in the world. The progress of ALBA opened the doors for downstream aluminium industries to emerge, such as Bahrain the Aluminuim Extrusion Company (Balexco), formed during 1977 (www.bahrain.gov.bh)(05.08.2002). Another leading industry that emerged in 1979 was The Gulf Petrochemicals Industry, producing methanol and ammonia for world export. The 1970s was a period of dramatic changes in Bahrain. Perhaps the most significant was its independence as a separate entity on the 15th of August 1971 as the state of Bahrain. The country had its sovereignty over its domestic and foreign affairs and its land, and bestowed the title Amir of the state of Bahrain on the ruler. The state then joined some of the major organisations in the world such as: The United Nations; The Arab League; The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO); Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO); and the World Health Organisation (WHO).

The 80s was a decade with many changes in the Kingdom of Bahrain. In May of 1981, Bahrain became a member of the Arabian Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), with five other Gulf States (Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, and Oman) (Ernst & Young, 2003). The aim of the Council was to coordinate, integrate and interconnect between member states in all fields to achieve eventual unity between them. The opening of the causeway linking Bahrain with Saudi Arabia in 1986 opened the gateway to commercial traffic (from Europe and all parts of the region) to have uninterrupted access to Bahrain's port and trans-shipment facilities, welcoming thousands of regional tourists and business visitors every week. As such, the tourism sector flourished, properties and investment witnessed an increase.

More service industries emerged in the 1990s as a result of factors such as: Bahrain's favourable and geographical location; no taxation; a stable government; low operating costs; well established communications; stable currency; and free foreign exchange movement. Such factors create an ideal climate for the establishment of industries. Although the economy went through a period of slump during the Gulf War in 1991, it quickly regained momentum and fully recovered a year later (Emerging Bahrain 2005 pp.37-41). The Bahrain Development Bank established in 1992 to help entrepreneurs set up new businesses. During the same year, the Bahrain Stock Exchange was established, giving opportunity to further investment and prosperity for the Country's financial and investment services.

The new millennium brought forth many changes both positive and negative, as well as further progress in the Kingdom, starting with the establishment of The Bahrain's Economic Development Board (established in 2000), which is considered as the executive arm of the Supreme Council for Economic Development. The aim of the board is targeting investments to boost the gross domestic product (GDP), as well as creating quality employment opportunities in the country. It applies a 'one-stop shop' policy, encouraging inward investments and processing foreign direct investment to further enhance Bahrain as a regional investment destination. The long-term goal of the Board is to help diversify Bahrain's economy, in geographical terms, by the production of goods as well as the service sector (Emerging Bahrain, 2005 pp.37-41).

As part of strengthening Bahrain's financial position and economy, work started on the Bahrain Financial Harbour (BFH), which is expected to be complete by the year 2009 (www.bfharbour.com)(01.09.2005). The Harbour combines business, leisure and residential components and is being developed on a high-profile waterfront site. The development has also been designated by

the Government of Bahrain as a strategic investment zone, with a blend of liberalized conditions to attract private-sector participation (Mitchell, 2005). The Formula One Grand Prix (in 2004), brought further publicity and exposure for the country. A report from the American Heritage Institute prepared in cooperation with Wall Street Journal, ranked Bahrain 16th out of 153 countries around the world in terms of economic freedom (as of 2003). The Wall Street Journal's Economic Freedom Index also ranked the Kingdom first in the Arab world and 20th internationally in January 2005. Bahrain generally pursues a policy of close consultation with neighbouring states and works to narrow areas of disagreement (Emerging Bahrain, 2005:25). The formation of the GCC has undoubtedly brought the Gulf States closer. However, there has been some criticism that the integration has been much slower than expected.

5.1.2 POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT

One of the important recent political developments in the Kingdom was perhaps the formation of the consultative council (Shura) in 1993, enhancing the life of the citizens and taking a step forward to democracy. In 1999, His Majesty Shaikh Hamad Bin Isa AlKhalifa (King of Bahrain) took over the leadership of the Kingdom, after the death of his father (HH Shaikh Isa Bin Salman AlKhalifa), taking Bahrain into a new era. One of His Majesty's first actions was to promise his people the restoration of democracy and "a one-family nation, economic and social development and ever stronger international ties top the country's priorities." On the negative side, the country witnessed violence by some religious groups targeting the state and foreigners. A tough government response contained the immediate threat (Rosser, 2005). Another transformation and a major leap forward in the political and democratic evolution of the nation was in 2001, when the National Action Charter that was voted into law on the 14th of February.

His majesty, Shaikh Hamad Bin Isa AlKhalifa (the King of Bahrain), pursued to ultimately change the country from an Emirate into a Constitutional Monarchy, and championed the Charter from the beginning. The outcome, which has now become a new motto for the Kingdom, gained a 98.4% 'Yes' vote in favour of the Charter. Another historical situation was in March of the same year, when the international Court of Justice announced its verdict in favour of Bahrain in resolving territorial dispute with its neighbouring country Qatar. Yet another step in a new era of democracy was the opening of the National Assembly on the 13th of December 2002. The Assembly comprises of the elected parliament and appointed Shura (consultative) council. One of the aims of the parliament is to put forward the people's concerns and pass them on to the government. This new era boosted public participation in the decision making process. In 2003, Bahrain took steps to join the International Convention for the Suppression of Terrorist Bombings.

Equality for women has been and still remains an important theme in developing education and job opportunities. In the new Kingdom of Bahrain, women have the right to vote and to put themselves up as candidates for election. In addition, women are entitled to other social benefits such as owning businesses and property, working in executive and managerial positions in banks and private companies, as well as assuming positions in high office in the Government. His Majesty the King has stressed that imposing traditional attitudes upon women will not hold back their progress. His Majesty's wife, HH Shaikha Sabikha bint Ibrahim AlKhalifa, is chairwoman of the Supreme Council for Women and has proved a powerful spokeswoman for their cause, often appearing at appropriate international meetings and conferences. In terms of the role of women in key positions in the kingdom, women now head the country's two main universities; hold leading positions in banks and businesses as well as occupying senior civil service posts, such as the appointment of a health Minister (Cook, 2005).

In February 2005, Bahraini women were promised a new deal consisting of stronger legal rights, better financial prospects and a bigger political say (Emerging Bahrain 2005). The pledge came from Her Highness Shaikha Sabeeka bint Ibrahim AlKhalifa, wife of His Majesty King Hamad and chairwoman of the Supreme Council for Women. The new national strategy aims to empower women, which is seen as a positive step forward by the King's wife. As part of further acknowledging women's important role, a Social Affairs Minister was appointed in February, 2005. Women are now prepared to enter a new era of rising in the hierarchy in the Foreign Ministry and reach greater heights of command and responsibility. The Minister of Foreign Affairs underscored this aspect, when he said in an exclusive interview that the ministry would definitely witness the appointment of new female faces in the upper echelons (Bahrain Tribune, 2.12.2005). The Minister stressed that women play a positive and strong role in the diplomatic sections in the Ministry.

5.1.3 EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Secondary education in Bahrain for boys began in 1939 and for girls in 1951 and the intermediate schooling was set up in 1961 (Gulf Mirror, 1983). Since then education has progressed and developed dramatically. A number of private universities have been established since the beginning of the millennium. In 2005, the country started a new project, which is the creation of cyber classes for secondary school pupils (Gulf Daily News, July 2005). This project aims to enable pupils to communicate with teachers and pupils from other schools via the Internet. It is expected that by the year 2008 the scheme will be operating nationwide, incorporating all 32 secondary schools. There are around fifty local and international experts monitoring the progress of this project. The high rate of growth in the population has put considerable

strain on the government to provide the basic free education to all up to the secondary level. With the establishment of private schools, the burden has eased off to some extent. As such, this issue will continue to be a challenge for the government. Along with the infrastructure change and growth in the Kingdom the new millennium, there has been a notable development in its people. It has been acknowledged by UNESCO that the Bahraini people are the most literate and best-qualified citizens in the Arab World.

5.1.4 SOCIAL ENVIRONMENT

Bahrain is part of the Arab Middle East and shares many of its characteristics. Its culture is permeated by Islamic beliefs and traditions in which authoritarianism (up to a certain extent), and the extended family are powerful enough to reflect themselves both in its institutions and the interpersonal relationships of its members (AlHashemi, 1987). The influence of both the nuclear and extended family is based on a strong patriarchal system ensuring that the father is always a towering figure (Hitti, 1970). This leads to genuine affection, care and selfless devotion that constitute the hallmarks of this relationship (Al Ismaily, 2006). As elsewhere, leadership behaviour in Bahrain is heavily influenced by the social structure, and by the values, norms and expectations of its people. At the national level, established patterns and norms are primarily patriarchal. The man is the head of the family, which is still a very strong and cohesive social unit in both its nuclear and extended forms. At this level, the receptivity to change is slow because those ideas are widely diffused throughout the socio-cultural fabric and exert influence on leadership behaviour. Referring to Hofstede's work (1980), leadership at corporate level is more open to change than leadership at the national level. Some changes are beginning to occur but at a medium rate, gaining momentum slowly as the trend moves towards an emphasis on professional achievement as a basis for

corporate leadership.

At the micro level, managers seem to perceive themselves as practitioners of contingency, shifting their approach and styles to cope with the situational demands. They seem to realise the need to operate within norms set by the broader environment, as they too still represent a relatively minor enclave in society with limited impact outside their immediate domain. In discussions with a number of executives, they pointed out that the leader could also influence the society through his dynamic interaction, which often challenges him to perform the role of a change agent critical to the survival and future development of the country. Despite many changes and progress in the country, and the Kingdom moving towards democracy, there were minor incidents that took place, which had an impact on the citizens. Incidents such as demonstrations and strikes took place during 2005 raising various issues and concerns regarding political situation, better role for women, human rights and supporting the Palestinian case. There were numerous complaints raised by local rights groups and political societies regarding this issue and about the anti-terrorism law as well as the excessive use of violence (Gulf Daily News, October 2005).

The way of life has changed in certain ways considerably, mainly due to the country's exposure to the rest of the world. This has perhaps led to more awareness among people, being more knowledgeable and open to new ideas and change. The future holds many more transformations and promises for the Kingdom in various sectors. This places considerable strain on the government. On the one hand, there is the problem of unemployment among Bahrainis, on the other hand the country continues to import foreign labour particularly in the construction area to cope with the building boom projects. The Kingdom is also working continuously to enhance transparency in its capital market, constantly reviewing political and economic reforms to create an even more

investment-friendly climate.

This has considerable impact on the role of leadership in organisations, for this involves relationship with people with vision, influence and flexibility to direct people to achieve the required goals. The leader is expected to function with a degree of professionalism, which many executives believe that it will also lead at once to greater sensitivity to local environmental particularities and better integration into the international arena. The literature also argues that emotional intelligence has an important bearing on the role of leadership (Goleman, 2000; Goleman, 2003; Caruso, 1999) and how it manages emotions by recognising that the people the leader works with have emotional response that can be applied as part of their decision making (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Under these circumstances, according to Goleman *et al* (2002b), emotional leadership will be seen as someone who can instill purpose and create energy in others. Given the fact that considerable changes have taken place in Bahrain, and will continue, the importance of the leadership role and styles cannot be underestimated.

5.2 CULTURAL INFLUENCES ON THE FIVE ORGANISATIONS UNDER STUDY

Each organisation (of the five organisations under study) has a different corporate culture, but they all share some characteristics, which are influenced by Bahrain's culture. This is the focus of this section which explores the influence of the Bahrain culture on the management and operations of these organisations. This analysis is supported by discussions and interviews with the executives in the case organisations. There are many challenges and issues facing such organisations, as expressed by the 16 executives and General Managers (in an interview) in these organisations. **Appendix E** contains

details of the interviews.

One of the issues concerning the executives is creating a healthy working environment in their organisations, in terms of safety, providing certain facilities for employees, and working in harmony with each other. This necessitates providing training and developing its human resources. The executives see such an issue as an important element and a challenge that faces a number of companies in Bahrain today. They indicated how globalisation, competition and change result in a need to train people at all levels in organisations. They added that having competent managers, who are well trained to cope with such changes and are able to lead people successfully through, is by itself a challenge. The executives referred to both internal and external challenges. They felt that internal changes such as new laws, changes in the society and in people's taste and demands, the establishment of various societies as well as change in people's habits influences the operations of businesses in Bahrain. The upbringing of children, for example, affects their careers. Family norms in Bahrain have changed, where young generations have different values and perspectives, which are reflected in their behaviour at work. "*In the past we used to respect our parents greatly and wouldn't argue with them, whereas nowadays the young generation questions everything and require answers to actions taken by their parents*," said one of the General Managers in an interview. External challenges come from outside forces such as changes in the economy and business.

The 16 executives regard change as inevitable and say it has already affected all sectors in Bahrain, particularly the Banking sector. This is attributed to the nature of their operations, particularly in the application of latest technology. The focus of business in Bahrain has changed, and so has the market and customers, and it will continue to change. Managers believe that technological changes as well as developing new products pose a challenge, which

necessitates constantly relearning and training. For instance, global changes such as GATT and quality control certification, requires companies to continuously update and evaluate. Another factor is managing change in a turbulent environment. According to the managers interviewed, they argue that managers should possess multi skills that would enable them to be proactive and to think ahead, leading people successfully and effectively through such change. Managing change was vital for one of the five organisations under study, as it affected the whole company from being a monopolistic one to being a company that faced competitors not only in the local market but worldwide. This imposed changes at all levels in order to be in line with the new mission and vision of the company. One of the changes that have affected some of the companies under study is the establishment of labour unions. This gave an opportunity for the five companies to hold more open discussions with employees about their concerns regarding every aspect in the organisation.

In terms of the political environment, the executives believe that it poses a challenge to every aspect of the business, both at a local level and worldwide level. The respondents made references to the changes in the laws in Bahrain, and the recent shift towards democracy and freedom of expressing opinions. Lack of natural resources and the ability to deal with various resources effectively, is considered to be another challenge and a threat at the same time to some of the companies. Some of the executives expressed that Bahrain has less resources compared with the rest of the Gulf countries, which imposes restriction on expansion and promotions besides managing resources in a turbulent and changing environment. They stressed that economic constraints would have an impact on their organisations, placing further responsibility on managers to cope with. According to some of the 16 executives interviewed, the increase in population in Bahrain is considered as also a challenge facing many organisations. They believe that this leads to an increase in social

pressure in the job market, especially with the government policy to Bahrainise jobs.

Globalisation is considered to be an important issue, indicating its role in competing with other firms in terms of quality certifications, as well as responding to local and worldwide changes in the rules of trade and business. Although the majority of the respondents agreed with the idea of having their business adapt accordingly, however, one of the respondents was against the idea of globalisation. His justification was that globalisation has negative consequences, to a certain extent, on the economy. He stated that this leads to the issue of competition, whether it is locally, regionally or internationally. The respondents strongly believed this to be a challenge facing many firms in Bahrain, posing a threat to them unless they take the necessary action to bring about change and remain competitive.

The executives interviewed regarded managerial styles as posing another challenge to business and organisational culture in Bahrain. They believed that this is more evident in companies that are going through transition, requiring change in management style throughout the organisation to meet with local expectations. The executives also pointed out that some companies are in the process of shifting their style from an autocratic to a more open and flexible style; one that is more team oriented, aiming at empowering the employees at the same time. Yet another challenge indicated by some of the managers is reputation; since Bahrain is characterised by being a small community, rumours can spread easily and credibility is affected, as one of the managers said "*I tried to disregard such issues, but there are managers who are still influenced by the cultural norms.*" From the analysis of the MSI (Managerial Style Inventory), it was evident that managers in the organisations under study are characterised by being inspirational leaders; being able to handle change and build strong teams (details of the results are discussed in

Chapter 6). Managers are also characterised by having the ability to achieve organisational goals successfully through improving performance, changing ideas based on new information and setting measurable and challenging goals.

According to two of the executives (out of the 16), their company supports Bahrainisation in terms of training and educating nationals, giving them confidence and trusting their abilities. They stated that their company had the vision, which came to reality - what they had anticipated in term of changes – foreseeing what to expect. They ensured that the system followed would cater for such developments and changes in the society. As for the style of leadership followed in the organisations under study, some of them pointed out that it is characterised by the participative management style, working as a one-team organisation, respecting its employees, and emphasising on the core values and beliefs of the organisation. It follows a flexible style of giving opportunities to everyone to take part – working as a team in harmony. Even if the General Manager is not present, the system flows smoothly as it should be, and it does not mean that everything will come to a halt (as stated by two executives in the interview). Another feature pointed out by the respondents is the management style, which is transparent, creating a relaxing caring environment for employees to be in, maintaining good relationships with each other. Some of the managers believe in making people's job interesting and exciting that would help in boosting a positive environment, leading to promoting success and loyalty.

Both national and corporate culture has a major role in determining the various managerial styles and the measurement of emotional competencies in this research study. According to Nisbett (2003) who is the co-director of the Culture and Cognition Program at the University of Michigan, some cultural differences in intelligence play out on a global scale where East Asian and Western cultures have developed cognitive styles that differ in fundamental

ways. He further adds that people in Western cultures for instance tend to view intelligence as a means for individuals to devise categories and to engage in rational debate, whereas people in Eastern cultures see it as a way for members of a community to recognize contradiction and complexity in order to play their social roles successfully. The corporate culture in the five companies under study (as seen from the point of view of the executives) is characterised by both Bahrainis and non-Bahrainis to have harmony, in that they have learned to cope with each other and respect people of different nationalities.

In Bahrain, a national management culture is yet to crystallise, although it has been in the making for the past four to five decades (AlHashemi, 1996). According to one of the executives (out of the 16), the time frame for change in Bahrain is relatively short as a nation. He adds that there will be further changes to the corporate culture and the style of management followed, from autocratic to a more open and participative approach. "*There is more openness in the society and freedom, and managers with the old style of management can no longer dictate their style. At the micro level, one notices a variety of corporate cultures within various foreign and local institutions operating in the country. The general picture is one of dynamic transition, fluidity and rapid change, not having developed fully yet to force a certain degree of accommodation on the conventional culture.*"

5.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter focuses on the major events that took place in the country and its achievements in the various sectors of the economy. It starts with an overview of Bahrain in terms of the following contexts: economic development, political, education and social contexts. Major events and progress were identified under each context from the 1900s till 2006. Bahrain is a country in

which the way of life has changed considerably. The impetus for change cannot be disassociated from the exploration of oil with its complex technology and the affluence, which it brings to the society. The progress and development -since its independence in 1971- is significant. By the beginning of the 1980s, Bahrain had experienced a decade of independence. The indicators of that independence were varied: a stable government, a bustling economy, a prosperous population, and a progressive society. The 1990s witnessed further growth and progress in all of the sectors in the economy, bringing further opportunities to the country and towards its people. Perhaps the turning point for Bahrain was becoming a Kingdom in 2001, bringing in democracy and change.

The last part of the chapter covers the influence of Bahain's culture on the five organisations under study. It highlights the qualities of leadership and management abilities to cope with pressures exerted by the national culture norms and accommodate the changes that are taking place in the country and competition internationally. Having leadership with mission, abilities and skills that can lead organisations to success is one of key factors in the management process of these organisations.

The next chapter presents the analysis, findings and discussion of the research.

CHAPTER 6

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF PRIMARY DATA

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 dealt with the research methodology approach, questionnaires used and interviews conducted. This chapter focuses on the research findings and analysis, testing out the hypothesis and answering the research questions. An application of statistical package (SPSS) was used for the purpose of analysis of the findings. The interviews were analysed using patterns of similarities and differences.

Three methods were used to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence: The ECI (Emotional Competency Inventory), the MSI (Managerial Style Inventory) and interviews as detailed in Chapter 4. As mentioned earlier, the research was conducted in five organisations in Bahrain namely: Gulf Petrochemicals (GPIC), Bahrain Petroleum Company (BAPCO), Bahrain Telecommunication Company (BATELCO), Arab Ship Repair Yard (ASRY), and Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait (BBK). The target population consisted of: 250 full-time executives and managers, out of which 103 responded and took part in answering the questionnaires. The sample size (n= 103) consisted of top, middle and supervisory management positions, both managers and their subordinates (who also occupy managerial positions). From the sample size (n=103), interviews were conducted with 33 managers and supervisors (out of which 16 were senior executives in the five

organisations mentioned earlier).

Fig. 6.1 below shows out of the 103 respondents, the majority of the samples were males (87%) and only 13% consisted of females.

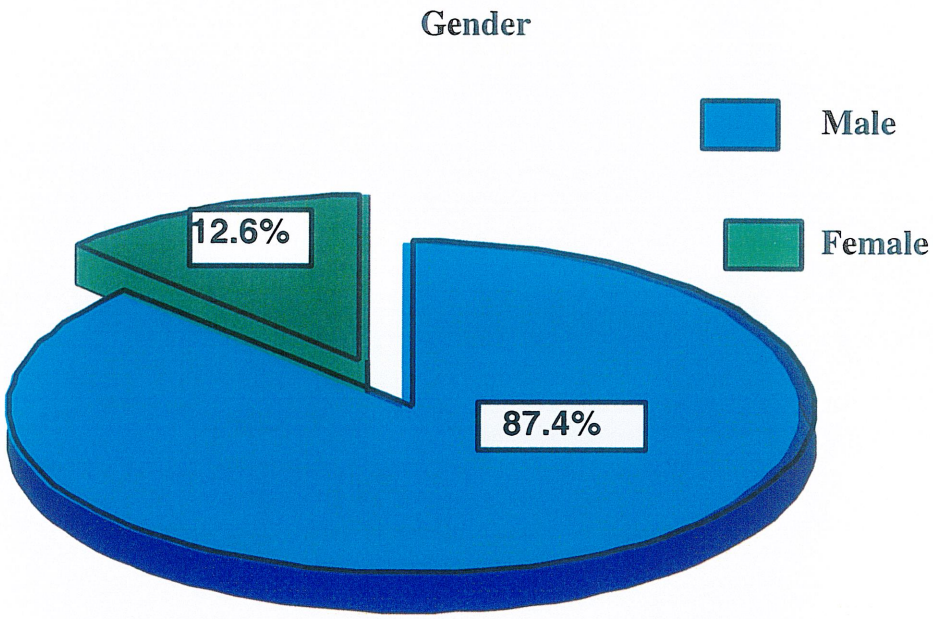


Fig. 6.1 Profile of the informants: Distribution of Males and Females

Out of the 103 respondents, 79% were Bahrainis and 21% identified themselves as non Bahrainis, as shown in **Fig 6.2**.

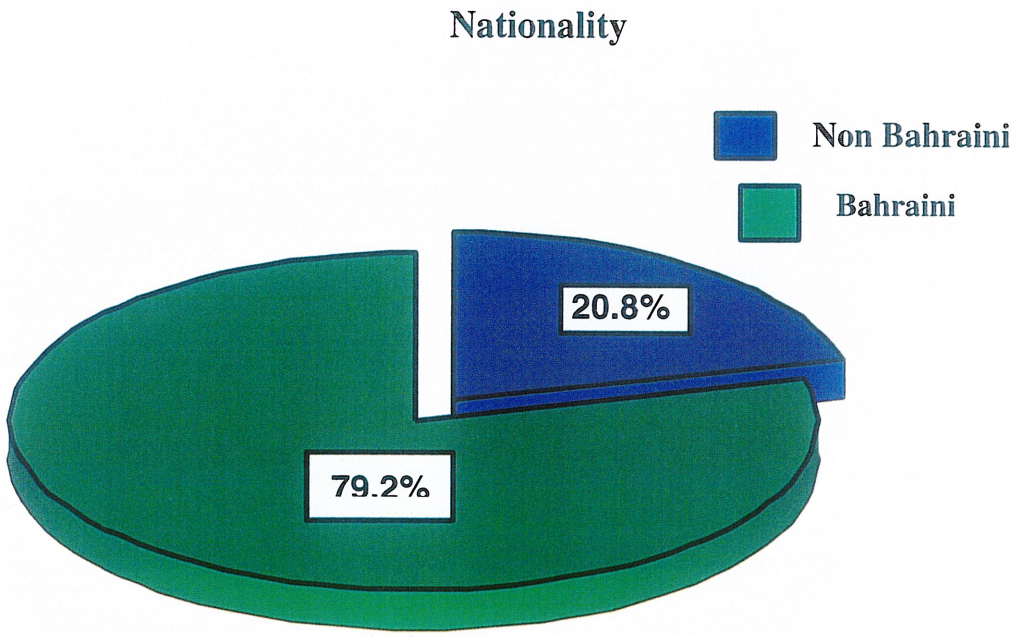


Fig. 6.2 Profile of the informants: Nationality

The participants occupied the following managerial ranks: 31% are managers, 16% Superintendents, 12% Specialists, 10% Senior Managers, 6% Supervisors, 5% Auditors, 5% Administrators, 2% Assistant General Managers, 2% Engineers, 2% are Trainers, and (6%) did not report their position.

In terms of their education level, **Fig. 6.3** shows the percentages of the different educational levels. The majority BSC holders (37%) and the minority are PhDs (2%). Masters Degree holders consisted of 32% of the sample and 19% were Diploma holders. This sample appears to be well educated with all the managers possessing a high, post-school qualification.

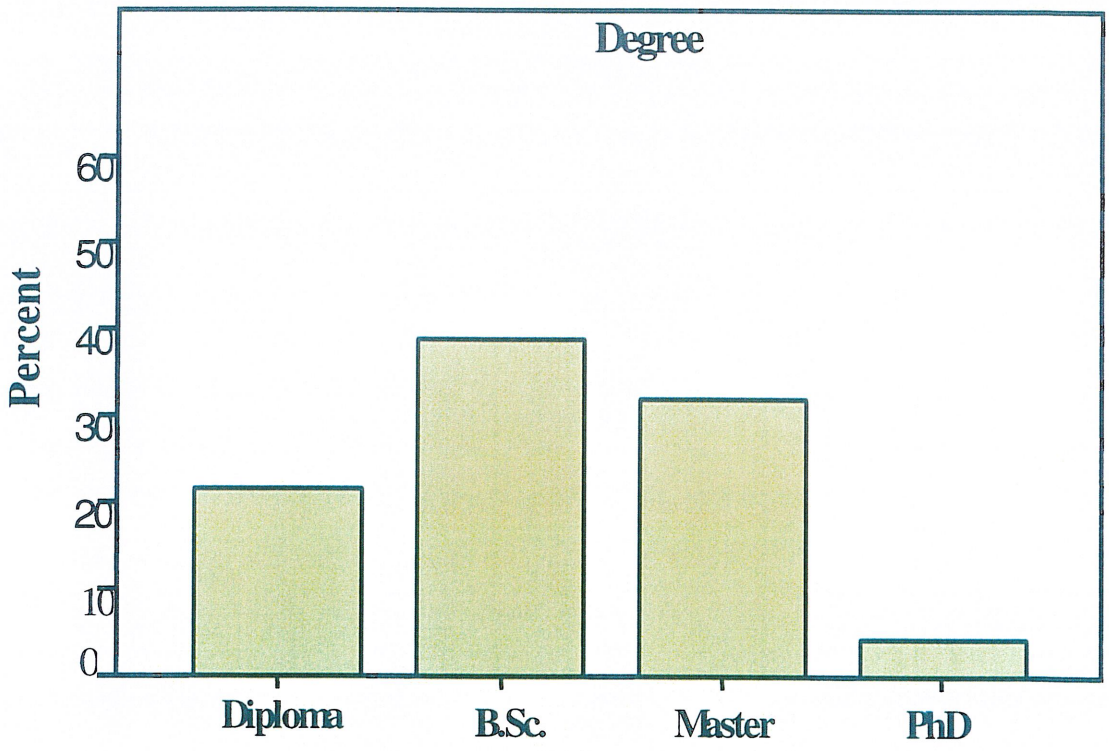


Fig. 6.3 The profile of informants: Education level

The study was not confined to specific departments but covered a sample from across the organisation to include a range of departments as follows: Information Technology, Finance, Service Management, Business Development, Marketing, Electronic Banking, Operations, Human Resource, Engineering, Maintenance, Administration, Public Relations, Quality Assurance, Risk Management, and Power & Utilities. Refer to **Appendix F** Table 1.2 and Table 1.3, which shows the percentage distribution of the informants from the various departments, and illustrates the nature of work in the five organisations under study.

In looking at the findings and interpreting the analysis, the first part starts with quantitative analysis and the second part covers qualitative analysis.

6.1 QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

The findings begin with the original hypothesis:

> **There is a relationship between the six leadership styles (identified by Goleman, 2000) and components of emotional intelligence in organisations in Bahrain, within the Islamic cultural setting.**

Within the analysis attention was also given to answer the following research question:

> **Is there a relationship between the six leadership styles and components of emotional intelligence?**

Other research questions are dealt with later in this chapter.

To test the hypothesis and answer the above research question, correlations were used to determine the degree of relationship between the managerial styles (MSI) and the emotional intelligence competencies (ECI). The findings revealed a relationship between the six styles of leadership and the emotional competencies.

The correlations ranged from weak, to a fair degree of relationship according to the conservative rule of thumb identified by Fink (1995). **Table 6.1** provides the detail of these correlations.

Table 6.1 Size of the Correlation

0 to + (-) 0.25	Little or no relationship
+ or (-) 0.26 to + or (-) 0.50	Fair degree of relationship
+ or (-)0 .51 to + or (-) 0.75	Moderate to good relationship
Over + or (-)0 .75	Very good to excellent relationship

(Source: Fink, 1995 p.36)

6.1.1 Outcome of Managerial Style Inventory (MSI) and the Four Main Clusters of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

Looking at **Table 6.2,** the weak correlations were identified by the following styles: Coercive (.007), Pacesetting (.037) and Affiliative (.198). A fair degree of relationship was found with the Authoritative (.451), and Democratic (.314) styles.

Table 6.2 Correlations between Managerial Styles and the Four Clusters of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) of the informants

Clusters	Coercive	Authoritative	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
Self-Awareness	.011	.382(**)	.265(**)	-.218(*)	-.039	-.271(**)
Self-Management	.036	.382(**)	.126	-.291(**)	-.006	-.304(**)
Social Awareness	-.025	.374(**)	.087	-.260(**)	-.026	-.182
Social Skills	.005	.456(**)	.190	-.358(**)	-.058	-.351(**)
Emotional Competence Inventory	.007	.451(**)	.193	-.317(**)	-.037	-.314(**)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The ***Coercive (Autocratic) style*** focuses on immediate compliance and control. A very weak but positive relationship was found between the coercive style and ECI (.007), indicating that this style is being used but with very little impact on the competencies. Looking at the impact of this style on the four clusters of ECI (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, social skills), there is very weak but positive relationship, except for social awareness, where

negative results were achieved. Hardly any relationship is achieved with the social skills cluster and this is due to the nature of the style. Despite the nature of this style (being firm, controls tightly and gives corrective but negative feedback), positive but weak results are achieved. This may be due to the corporate culture in organisations in Bahrain. The Coercive (Autocratic) style prevailed in the 80s according to a research conducted by AlHashemi (1987) and it continues to do (as shown in this study) but at a lesser degree. This is also supported by some of the managers interviewed in this research who indicated that this style is still being used but at a lower rate than it was before *"As for the management styles in organisations in Bahrain, it has changed due to the overall changes in the country. With time things may change further."* Another executive pointed out that *"the style of management in Bahrain is still autocratic, although this is now changing. The question here is to what extent is this change. This is questionable, for there are still cultural and social issues and norms prevailing."*

The ***Authoritative style*** yielded a fair degree of positive relationship with the ECI (.451), as shown in **Table 6.2.** Its score was the highest among other leadership styles, indicating its popularity among the six leadership styles. Goleman (2000) indicated how this style was the favoured style in his study. This style gives long-term direction and vision and accepts input from others but at the same time provides a balanced feedback (Kelner, Rivers & O'Connell, 1994). The ***Authoritative style*** has a fair degree of relationship with the four clusters of ECI, and has the strongest correlation out of the other leadership styles. This is attributed to its nature of being visionary and creating a sense of purpose towards a vision (Goleman, 2000). The highest correlation is with social skills (.456), and equal correlations are maintained with self-awareness and self-management (.382).

The ***Affiliative style*** has an overall positive but very weak relationship with the ECI (.193) and the four main clusters of ECI. This style is characterised by promoting harmony and considers people's feelings. One of the reasons for such a weak correlation may be attributed to how the style gives inconsistent or exclusively positive feedback unrelated to performance (Goleman, 2000). Employees in Bahrain, according to some of the executives (from the interview conducted with 16 executives), are not used to such feedback on their performance. The highest correlation achieved is with self-awareness (.265). Since this style concentrates on sharing ideas and inspiration, allowing innovation and risk taking, not all the managers are willing to create such an environment. According to some of the executives in the interview (5 out of 16) expressed how some managers hold on to their position and are reluctant to give it up. This is reflected in the weak relationship found with: social awareness (.087), self-management (.126) and social skills (.190).

In analyzing the ***Democratic style***, the results were not as expected as it yielded negative correlations with the four clusters of ECI (**Table 6.2**). This maybe partially attributed to the cultural factors, where Democracy is still starting to be implemented in most of the organisations in Bahrain but at a gradual pace. This style has the most adverse relationship with the social skills (-.358). The rest of the clusters have similar negative correlations.

With respect to ***Pacesetting style***, the study revealed an overall very weak and negative relationship with the ECI (–.037) and the four main clusters (refer back to **Table 6.2**). This style yielded very weak correlations with the four main clusters, but the weakest relationship is with social awareness (-.26), and self-awareness (-.39) clusters. Hardly any relationship exists with self-management. This may be partially attributed to the nature of the style, which does not give feedback, and employees are deprived of all responsibilities if the

manager sees that they are incompetent (Kelner *et al*, 1994). Under these circumstances, the manager would take over a task when the subordinates' work begins to fall short, and expects subordinates to figure out for themselves how to do their job (Kelner *et al*, 1994). In such instances, some of the employees may be incapable of handling certain tasks and responsibilities without sufficient guidance or supervision. Another reason for such result is that the manager may be a perfectionist, leaving little room for people to think about their behaviour and manage their emotions because they are involved in perfecting their task (Goleman, 2000).

The ***Coaching style*** also yielded unexpected results when compared with the MSI manual (Kirsta & Zhu, 2002) as well as the study conducted by Kelner *et al* (1994). The style by its nature has a positive impact according to the authors, but this study proved otherwise with an overall negative but a fair degree of relationship with the ECI inventory and its four main clusters; with the highest negative impact on the social skills (-.351) and the lowest with social awareness (-.182). This is justified by the nature of the style, which requires constant dialogue and focusing on personal development which some managers in Bahrain try to minimize. Another reason, according to one of the executives, is that some of the organisations do not have career paths and development for certain positions. Such results may be influenced by Bahrain's culture. The Coaching style requires empowering employees, a step that many organisations in Bahrain have started, but for some it is still at the beginning stages and has a long way to go (as pointed out in the interviews conducted in this study with the 16 executives). Furthermore, this style implies that managers should seek opportunities for subordinates' professional development. However, in some organisations there is little or no room for development or further progress (as stated by 4 executives out of the 16).

One of the executives revealed how his organisation shifted from Autocratic (***Coercive***) to a *Participative* approach. He remarked that this step was very difficult at the beginning where there was a lot of resistance from most of the managers who followed the traditional style of management. Also, such change led to apprehension by the employees who were used to being spoon fed, and guided as to what they should do. According to the executive, other managers indicated that changing their style towards being more flexible meant using a soft style, which they believed to be a weak style of management.

The following paragraphs provide an in-depth analysis of the six leadership styles in terms of its relationship with the various components of emotional intelligence.

6.1.2 Managerial Style Inventory (MSI) and the Competencies of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

The previous section covered analysis of the four the main clusters of the ECI and the managerial styles. Details of the clusters of (ECI) are discussed in this section. **Table 6.3** shows detail correlations of the relationship between the emotional competencies and the six leadership styles.

Table 6.3 Correlations Between Managerial Styles (MSI) and Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) Competencies of the informants

Emotional Competencies	Coercive	Authoritative	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
Emotional Self-Awareness	-.060	.267(**)	.177	-.246(*)	-.162	-.152
Accurate Self-Assessment	.087	.332(**)	.294(**)	-.149	-.031	-.262(**)
Self-Confidence	.030	.323(**)	.165	-.124	.095	-.219(*)
Emotional Self-Control	.155	.327(**)	.098	-.153	-.165	-.020
Thrust worthiness	.141	.242(*)	.159	-.095	-.002	-.165
Adaptability	-.098	.113	.007	-.187	-.059	-.051
Achievement Orientation	-.047	.347(**)	.087	.280(**)	.076	-.338(**)
Initiative	-.019	.110	-.031	-.151	.003	-.218(*)
Optimism	.003	.351(**)	.160	-.284(**)	.100	-.378(**)
Organisational Awareness	-.059	.216(*)	-.064	-.126	-.073	-.054
Service Orientation	.004	.349(**)	.050	-.292(**)	.076	-.190
Empathy	-.002	.301(**)	.194	-.194(*)	-.042	-.174
Developing Others	-.142	.396(**)	.183	-.371(**)	.050	-.458(**)
Inspiration Leadership	.027	.444(**)	.178	-.361(**)	-.134	-.329(**)
Influence	-.124	.389(**)	-.008	-.297(**)	-.167	-.230(*)
Change Catalyst	.097	.269(**)	.143	-.240(*)	-.015	-.214(*)
Conflict Management	-.044	.178	.183	-.217(*)	-.089	-.066
Teamwork & Collaboration	.323(**)	.401(**)	.218(*)	-.078	.138	-.238(*)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Beginning with the ***Coercive style***, it has a positive relationship with most of the variables in the ECI. One would expect this style to have a negative impact on all the variables, this study proved otherwise. Looking at **Table 6.3**, the highest positive relationship achieved is with teamwork and collaboration (.323). One explanation for such a relationship is that people may tend to shift towards socialising with others to relieve their stress and seek comfort (Hofstede, 1991). Another justification would be that under threat and pressure, people cooperate and help out each other to avoid punishment or other means of negative enforcement. Additionally, some employees may cover for others due to informal relationships and mutual benefits. Though the Coercive style may work in the short-term, in the long-term it does not prove successful (Kelner *et al*, 1994), as it may lead to resistance and instability in the social order, feelings of indifference and alienation (Barbalet, 2002).

The ***Authoritative style*** has an overall positive, fair degree of relationship with most of the variables in the ECI. However, weak but positive relationships exist with: trustworthiness (.242), organizational awareness (.216), initiative (.110), conflict management (.178), and adaptability (.113). Organisational awareness is very much tied with the national culture, where the lower levels in the organisation are not well informed about policies and changes. This was also raised by some of the executives in the interviews (8 out of 16), *"The higher you go up the more you can understand the politics at work and the more you are in control of the decision making and why certain decisions are taken. Employees may not be fully aware of the politics at work because they are not in the core of the major decision making. This question depends on how high a person is in the management level."*

The ***Affiliative style*** has little influence on the competencies, and the relationship is characterised as weak but positive (refer to **Table 6.4**). The nature of this style is positive, but the results show a negative but very weak

relationship with some of the components in the ECI: influence (-.008), initiative (-.031), and organisational awareness (-.064). This may be attributed to the influence of national culture on the corporate culture, where some of the managers do not encourage employees to develop new ideas and take initiatives, and are not fully aware of organisational politics. However, a fair degree of positive relationship is found with accurate self-assessment (.294) and teamwork and collaboration (.218), which reflects that respondents use emotions and feelings when cooperating with each other and understanding their inner feelings.

The ***Democratic style*** yielded negative correlations with most of the variables in the ECI. This style has the most adverse effect on: change catalyst (-.240), emotional self-awareness (-.246), achievement orientation (-.280), service orientation (-.292), influence (-.297), inspiration leadership (-.361), and developing others (-.371). The least variable that was affected is teamwork and collaboration (.-078). The strongest justification for such negative results with the variables is that Democracy is still in the transition stage in Bahrain and is not accepted to be applied by everyone, and even the managers who are willing to use this style are restricted by the national culture.

The ***Pacesetting style*** yielded negative weak correlations with most of the variables in the ECI. This is attributed to the nature of the style, as leaders here strive to be perfectionist, leading to a decrease in their overall emotional competencies (Goleman, 2000). Nevertheless, it has a positive but very weak relationship with: achievement orientation (.076), self-confidence (.095), optimism (.100), teamwork and collaboration (.138). This indicates that the more the manager tries to perfect work, the more employees attempt to cooperate with each other, they become a little bit more optimistic, gaining confidence in achieving what is required from them. There is hardly any

relationship with initiative, and developing others, which justifies how a perfectionist leaves no room for employees to seize opportunities and be creative.

*The **Coaching style*** has a negative relationship with all of the variables in the ECI, but the greatest adverse effect is on the following components: accurate self-assessment (-.262), influence (-.329), achievement orientation (-.338), optimism (.378), and developing others (-.458). There was hardly any relationship with emotional self-control, adaptability, organisational awareness, and conflict management (refer to **Table 6.4**). This style is positive in nature, but it seems that because it requires managers to spend a lot of time guiding employees and managers in this study seem to be reluctant to do so. In addition, managers in Bahrain, as pointed out by one of the managers in the interview, "*hold on to their positions.*"

To sum up, there is a relationship between emotional competencies and the six leadership styles of management proving the hypothesis and the two research questions. Some issues may need to be addressed such as the negative results of the Democratic and Coaching styles, and the negative relationships between clusters and the various variables. An unexpected result came from the Coercive style, where a positive but very weak relationship was found with the ECI. According to Yukl (1998), national culture has been proven by many studies to have an impact on people's behaviours and leadership styles. For instance, in a series of studies comparing Americans to East Asians, Dr. Richard Nisbett and his colleagues found that people who grow up in different cultures do not just think about different things but they think differently (Nisbett, 2003).

6.2 OUTCOME OF MANAGERIAL STYLE INVENTORY (MSI)

The MSI also known as the Inventory of Leadership Styles (ILS) is a 68-item multi-rater survey which provides managers with a profile of their managerial styles on six dimensions: Coercive, Authoritative, Affiliative, Democratic, Pacesetting and Coaching. Detailed explanation of the Inventory is covered in Chapters 2 and 4.

In interpreting and analysing data regarding the MSI, there are some factors which need to be taken into consideration. First of all, the MSI questionnaire tends to draw on general assessments over time ('your manager does' rather than 'your manager did in this situation'). Such correlations would indicate cumulative effect of a style repeated over time and in a variety of situations rather than a specific situation. Secondly, the administration of the MSI is a single cut in time, and asks individuals to describe behaviours they consider characteristic of their managers. Their answers, in some cases, may be influenced by recent events, in the typical case the rater will be considering overall performance. Thus what is being examined is the impact of a pattern of behaviour over time. This however must be distinguished from the impact of a feedback of a specific behaviour on a specific situation. Last of all, self report tests are subjective in nature where accurate feedback may somehow be difficult, particularly when people tend to avoid or minimize giving negative feedback.

The above points will help in understanding the outcome of MSI in this study and partially justify the interpretation of the results.

Do managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination of styles?

To answer the above research question, correlations were investigated as well as looking at the means and standard deviations.

By looking at **Table 6.4**, an overall positive relationship prevails among the six leadership styles with some exceptions.

Table 6.4 Correlations within the six styles of leadership (of the informants)

	Coercive	Authoritative	Affiliative	Democratic	Pacesetting	Coaching
Coercive	1	.178	.313(**)	.432(**)	.233(*)	.140
Authoritative	.178	1	.183	-.378(**)	-.046	-.269(**)
Affiliative	.313(**)	.183	1	.176	.094	.188
Democratic	.432(**)	-.378(**)	.176	1	.372(**)	.307(**)
Pacesetting	.233(*)	-.046	.094	.372(**)	1	-.208(*)
Coaching	.140	-.269(**)	.188	.307(**)	-.208(*)	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Referring back to **Table 6.4**, it shows that managers in Bahrain (in the five organisations under study) tend to use a variety of leadership styles. It is significant to note here that this research concurs closely with a previous study conducted by AlHashemi (1987) who also concluded that managers at that time also used a variety of leadership styles, and a recent study conducted by Al Ismaily (2006) who also found that Omani managers used a mixture of

leadership styles. The Table shows a fair degree of positive relationship between the Coercive style and Affiliative (.313), and the Coercive style with Democratic (.432). The Democratic style maintained a fair degree of positive relationship with Pacesetting (.372) and Coaching (.307). It seems that using the Authoritative style reduces the use of Democratic and Coaching styles, as a negative relationship was found between Authoritative and Democratic (-.378), and Authoritative with Coaching (-.269). A negative relationship is also found between Pacesetting and Coaching (-.208), indicating that both styles are not compatible; where the use of one would reduce the use of the other.

To further support whether managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination style and which style is favoured, means and standard deviations (SD) were analysed. The overall means and standard deviations for the Managerial Style Inventory dimensions were performed on the entire sample as one large data sample (look at **Table 6.5**). The means for all the styles are within the same range, with the lowest-scored mean being Democratic (3.11) and the highest Authoritative (3.75), and though the difference is narrow. The Coercive style has the next highest mean which explains how this style is being used more than the remaining styles (Affiliative, Pacesetting and Coaching). This is also supported by the feedback from the 16 executives interviewed who indicated that some managers in their organisations are still following the Coercive style, but on a lower scale than in the 1980s. As for the Affiliative and Pacesetting styles, they have almost identical means. The Table also reveals how the Democratic style was the least used as it has the lowest mean out of the other styles.

Table 6.5 Summary of Means and Standard Deviations of the Six Styles of Leadership (from informants)

Style	Mean	Standard Deviation
Coercive	3.63	.67
Authoritative	3.75	.54
Affiliative	3.38	.46
Democratic	3.11	.73
Pacesetting	3.36	.61
Coaching	3.22	.74

6.2.1 Nationality Findings

In order to investigate cultural issues, the styles of leadership were investigated in terms of nationality, to find out the styles used by non-Bahrainis and how the culture influenced their styles of leadership. This section attempts to answer the following research question:

Are there additional factors that need to be addressed to suit the culture in the Gulf Region?

This was also backed by the interviews conducted with 16 executives (details of the interviews are in **Appendix E**).

Look at **Table 6.6** which shows Chi-Square tests between nationality and the six styles.

Table 6.6 Chi-Square Test showing Nationality and the Six Leadership Styles of the informants

Style	Pearson Chi-Square	Degrees of Freedom (df)	Assumption Significance (2-sided)
Coercive	23.350	25	.557
Authoritative	22.053	24	.576
Affiliative	24.636	23	.369
Democratic	27.583	26	.379
Pacesetting	15.390	21	.803
Coaching	20.221	20	.444

The above table shows no significant results for nationality because the differences between Bahrainis and non-Bahrainis for the styles are slim. This is also supported by **Table 6.7** which shows detail means for both nationalities, and the styles which both nationalities have similar means such as Authoritative, Pacesetting and Coaching. The other styles have little variations

where Non Bahrainis had a slightly higher mean such as the Affiliative, Democratic and Coercive styles. Perhaps the result that was not quite as expected is the higher rate of the mean for non-Bahrainis for Coercive style. One explanation for this could be the adaptation of the non-Bahrainis to the corporate culture in Bahrain. The result of such adaptation is using the preferred styles by managers in their organisation and blending in with the corporate culture.

Table 6.7 Mean and Standard Deviations of informant's Nationality

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Coercive	Non Bahraini	20	3.8560	.51725
	Bahraini	76	3.5519	.70342
Authoritative	Non Bahraini	20	3.7500	.43540
	Bahraini	76	3.7334	.55981
Affiliative	Non Bahraini	20	3.4795	.31072
	Bahraini	76	3.3420	.50522
Democratic	Non Bahraini	20	3.4457	.60099
	Bahraini	76	3.0079	.72120
Pacesetting	Non Bahraini	20	3.5393	.34875
	Bahraini	76	3.3271	.63493
Coaching	Non Bahraini	20	3.2667	.70587
	Bahraini	75	3.2036	.69969

Some of the non-Bahraini managers found that there were some similarities between the culture in organisations in Bahrain and the organisations they used to work in their own country, with slight differences. *"I found that the culture in Bahrain and ..... are very similar, where in both cultures people try to*

mould their style according to the leadership style." This is also supported by another study conducted in Oman by Al Ismaily (2006), where he found very little difference between Omani and non-Omanis managers when examining leadership styles. Other participants indicted that the style of leadership being followed in most organisations in Bahrain is still Autocratic, although they believe that this is gradually changing into a more Democratic style. The question raised by some of the managers is to what extent change will occur and how transparent will it be? They argued that *"there are still some cultural norms that would take some time to overcome and to totally transform."* According to some of the Bahraini managers (7 out of the 16), *"in larger organisations, the leadership style is much more transparent due to the existence of labour unions."*

It is interesting to note that one of the senior executives stated *"It was always believed in Bahrain that the expatriates have more knowledge and are overall better than the Bahraini managers. Therefore, Bahraini managers had to put extra effort in order to change this view. I believe that Bahraini managers are among the best managers in the world, given the opportunity, proper training and development.... They can be among the best leaders and managers."* He also stated that *"International benchmarking studies by independent organisations' statement has proved the high level of Bahraini managers in this organisation. This was not easy to achieve, because the managers had to overcome the various hurdles of the mental block that Bahraini managers are not capable."*

The fact that there is little difference in nationality reflects the impact and role of national culture.

6.2.2 Outcome of the questions in the Managerial Style Inventory (MSI)

This section addresses the following research question:

1) **What circumstances (situations) do they use the different styles?**

2) **What culture factors in Bahrain influence the use of emotional intelligence and leadership styles?**

To answer the above research questions, the MSI questionnaires were analysed. Additionally, this was also supported by the interviews conducted with 16 executives in the five organisations.

In ***dealing with tensions***, 43% use Pacesetting style and 26% use the Coaching style. On the issue of *decision making*, 31% seem to follow the Pacesetting style, and only a minority use Coercive style (5%). Managers prefer to *make most decisions for their subordinates*, expressed by 53%. The Authoritative and Pacesetting styles are used in equal proportions when it comes to the issue of managers requiring subordinates to ***submit reports on their activities***, where 20% follow the former and 23% use the latter style. In ***determining the level of output for the subordinates***, 34% agree on using Pacesetting style, where 26% use the Democratic style. In ***giving instructions to subordinates***, two styles were used in equal proportions, 20% for both Affiliative and Democratic, 18% used the authoritative and 16% followed the Pacesetting. When it comes to ***reviewing subordinates' outcome***, the style used is in favor of Pacesetting, as 26.2% agreed to that, and the rest of the styles have almost similar percentages except for the Coercive style, only 6% use this style. As for ***carrying out important tasks***, it seems that managers prefer to do such tasks themselves to make sure it is carried out effectively, as 30% said they followed

the Pacesetting style, where 21% let their employees participate, 13% use Affiliative, and 11% use the Authoritative. ***Developing close relationships with subordinates and managers*** seem to be favoured, as 39% indicated using the Authoritative style, 17% use the Affiliative style, and 23% dictate relationships.

In terms of ***taking over a task from a subordinate***, 34% do not seem to hesitate to do that because they are perfectionist and the outcome is vital to them, the rest consider the subordinates' feelings regarding this matter. Nonetheless, ***when subordinates' work begins to fall short***, few of the managers would take over the task: 48% indicated following the Authoritative style, 26% follow Affiliative style, but 15% use force. Yet when it comes to ***explaining the task*** to subordinates, 31% use Pacesetting style to ensure immediate task accomplishment, 23% follow the Democratic style, and 14% follow the Authoritative style. Managers ***encourage employees to refer to them when they need help***, while others prefer that subordinates act as advisors to one another. Several managers strive to be ***productive through perfecting things and guiding people*** (25%). Other managers try to be popular through using a mixture of styles. The outcome shows 42% of the managers are perfectionist when it comes to ***achieving tasks that subordinates fail in***, and 18% are democratic about it, and only a small percentage follow the Coercive style. In terms of ***being involved in the subordinates' work***, 32% seem to get involved in their progress, 23% provide direction, and 12% are involved in every step. Managers have a habit of ***checking on subordinates' progress until their assigned tasks are due***, as 32% follow the Pacesetting, 19% are Democratic, and 29% do not check on a regular basis.

It seems that ***managers work in harmony with each other***, as 26% spend time looking for opportunities for their subordinates' professional development,

20% follow the Authoritative style, 14% are perfectionist, and 12% give their subordinates the freedom to decide. Through such an environment, managers ***learn through the personal contact with subordinates*** to use each person's talent most effectively. Work plans are developed based on the managers' ideas as 32% are perfectionist with these matters, 27% are democratic, and 17% take their subordinates' opinion and feelings into consideration. In terms of ***influencing others through relying on their knowledge and competence***, 44% use the Authoritative, 15% are democratic, and hardly anyone uses Pacesetting and Coaching for such matters. On the other hand, 19% of the managers rely on their position to influence subordinates. Managers seem to put a great deal of effort into ***developing their subordinates***, as 40% follow the Authoritative style and 21% use Affiliative style and only a small percentage use the Coaching style (3%). ***Personal problems of subordinates*** seem to be a concern for some managers, where 12% indicated following the Affiliative style, 36% follow the Pacesetting, and 19% are Democratic. Regarding ***the importance of subordinates' feelings***, 57% expressed its importance, whereas 20% are not very concerned.

Issues involving ***subordinates in organisational matters***, 34% follow the Pacesetting style, 14% would get subordinates involved because they are visionaries, and 16% follow the Coaching style. When there are ***changes in the company policy that require managers to discuss or announce such changes***, 36% are visionaries, 31% are open to such issues, 11% are reluctant, and 10% appear to share such issues. When ***subordinates disagree***, some managers simply tell them what must be done and others explain reasons of wanting something to be done in a certain way; 35% are in favor of following the Pacesetting style, 18% follow the Coaching style, and 20% are emotionally involved. The majority of the managers give orders to others by means of suggestion and being democratic about it. In terms of ***disciplining***

subordinates, 35% follow the Pacesetting style, 34% are Democratic, and 14% use their feelings in this regard. 38 % of the managers strive to ***set difficult goals***, 21% let subordinates participate in setting their goals, and 16% allow employees to express their feelings and opinions towards goal setting. At ***performance reviews***, 25% focus on sharing the evaluation with their subordinates, assisting them on focusing ways in reaching their goals (21% for each Authoritative and Affiliative). Managers attempt to ***praise subordinates for their work***, as 30% follow the Authoritative style, 17% implement the Democratic style and 16% use the Coercive style. Nevertheless, (35%) do not ***hesitate to criticize employees to get the desired outcome or to reach a certain standard of work***, whereas only a minority uses the Coercive style (2%).

When subordinates ***suggest alternatives***, 40% of the respondents follow the Pacesetting style, 19% use Democratic and 14% use Affiliative style. It seems that subordinates are very closely ***supervised***, as 43% use the Pacesetting style and the rest are distributed among the other styles, with the Coercive style having the least vote (6%). In ***sharing information and ideas through meetings***, the majority is towards using the five styles of leadership, except for 29% indicated using force and threat. Regarding following instructions, the majority are towards expecting employees to follow instructions when necessary.

The above discussion supports Goleman's (2000) findings and reveal how managers use and switch between the six leadership styles depending on the task and situation at hand. Investigating the level of emotional intelligence and the existence of emotional competencies would require an in-depth look into the outcome of the emotional competency inventory. This could help in understanding some of the cultural issues influencing how managers lead.

6.3 OUTCOME OF EMOTIONAL COMPETENCY INVENTORY (ECI)

What levels of Emotional Intelligence do leaders in Bahrain show?

To answer the above question, correlations were used to determine the relationship between the variables that reveal the overall level of emotional intelligence within each cluster. Refer again to Table 6.1 to see the range of weakness and strength of the relationships.

When looking at the results of the ECI, the following two key issues were considered: **Firstly**, the ECI questionnaire measures four clusters as follows:

1) The Self-awareness Cluster: Emotional Awareness, Accurate Self-Assessment and Self-Confidence.
2) The Self-management Cluster: Self-control, Trustworthiness, and Adaptability.
3) The Social-awareness Cluster is divided into two parts. The Motivation Cluster includes: Achievement Orientation, Initiative, and Optimism. The second part is Empathy which includes: Empathy, Service Orientation, Developing Others, and Organisational Awareness.
4) The Social Skills Cluster: Inspirational Leadership, Influence, Change Catalyst, Conflict Management, and Teamwork & Collaboration.

Secondly, in analysing the clusters and the relationships between the competencies, the following should be taken into consideration (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 1999):

a) Clusters within a competency model should be related in some way, and not just a list. They may be related as being parts of a whole; complementing each other.
b) The clusters within a model may have a developmental relationship; so one cluster may be needed to sustain another.
c) The clusters have compensatory relationships; meaning that the use of one competency may compensate for another.

With the above in mind, one would be able to understand the analysis and outcome of the ECI.

Some emotions are considered as universally expressed according to Ekman (as cited in Goleman, 2003). However, cultural variations have been documented for a wide range of emotion process, including judgments of the level of emotional intensity and categorisations of emotions (Russell, 1991). The following paragraphs attempt to bring out such cultural issues.

6.3.1 Correlations between the Main Clusters and the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

When comparing the correlations between the four main clusters in the ECI and the competencies, the relationships ranged from positive moderate to excellent. This indicates a high level of emotional intelligence among managers (see **Table 6.8**).

Table 6.8 Pearson Correlations between Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) Clusters and Emotional Competencies of the informants

	Self-Awareness	Self-Management	Social Awareness	Social skills	ECI
Emotional Self- Awareness	.779**	.471**	515**	.511**	.647**
Accurate Self-assessment	.805**	.634**	.450**	.670**	.727**
Self-Confidence	.770**	.640**	.514**	.620**	.721**
Emotional self-Control	.515**	.583**	.428**	.420**	.546**
Trustworthiness	.599**	.723**	.501**	.659**	.698**
daptability	.406**	.674**	.430**	.537**	.571**
Achievement Orientation	.611**	.752**	.576**	.694	.740**
Initiative	.201*	.523**	.222*	.357**	.361**
Optimism	.597**	.736**	.334**	.589**	.634**
Organizational Awareness	.297**	.255**	.708**	.381**	.463**
Service Orientation	.470**	.592**	.755**	.582**	.673**
Empathy	.637**	.589**	.818**	.647**	.759**
Develop Others	.675**	.708**	.643**	.826**	.806**
Inspiration Leader	.663**	.719**	.542**	.840**	.781**
Influence	.604**	.665**	.629**	.768**	.754**
Change Catalyst	.567**	.690**	.539**	.792**	.729**
Conflict Management	.515**	.497**	.498**	.737**	.637**
Teamwork & Collaboration	.406**	.404**	.312**	.575**	.481**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Self awareness

In this cluster, a positive relationship did exist within the cluster and with other variables in other clusters. Within the cluster, an excellent relationship was found with emotional self-awareness (.779), accurate self-assessment (.805), self confidence (.770). However, Self-awareness maintained a good correlation with: emotional self-control (.515), trustworthiness (.599) and achievement orientation (.611), optimism (.597), empathy (.637), developing others (.675), inspiration leadership (.663), influence (.604), and change catalyst (.567). There was a very weak relationship between accurate self-assessment, emotional self-awareness, emotional self-control and initiative.

Self-management

Overall, Self-Management correlated moderately with accurate self-assessment (.634), self-confidence (.640), emotional self-control (.583), trustworthiness (.723), adaptability (.674), initiative (.523), optimism (.736), service orientation (.592), and empathy (.589). Self-management has an excellent relationship with achievement orientation, indicating that managers in those companies have a good level of self-control, enabling them to have a higher achievement towards organisational goals and performance. Nevertheless, self-management has very little relationship with organisational awareness. Due to organisational politics at work and the influence of national culture on corporate culture, some of the managers may have low confidence level and motivation when the knowledge and information regarding the organisations is not sufficient and does not serve his/her own interests.

Social-Awareness

A moderate relationship was produced with most of the variables; emotional self-awareness (.515), self-confidence (.514), trustworthiness (.501), achievement orientation (.576), organisational awareness (.708), developing others (.643), inspiration leadership (.542), influence (.629), and change catalyst (.539). Such results indicate good teamwork and relationships among various managers who are aware of the importance of such competencies. This was also felt by the researcher during the interviews with the 16 managers. As one of the managers commented on this point *"regarding understanding political forces in the organisation, these are not directly work related, it may be difficult for some people to understand. The higher you go up in the organisation, the better one is able to understand such politics. People at the lower end depend on rumours regarding what is going on in the organisation."*

Social Skills

Social skills maintained moderate relationship with most of the variables, where no weak relationship was found with any of the variables. This shows that the managers in the organisations are characterised by teamwork and the ability to work in harmony with each other and being able to influence others positively towards working in such an environment. One of the managers indicated the change in the style of management in his organisation from being Autocratic to a teamwork-based style. Another manager described his organization: *"The company has an open culture based on teamwork with various committees, which are very productive, giving employees an opportunity to be in touch with each other. This would also help in pinpointing active people, which would help in promoting employees and tapping on their potential."*

6.3.2 Correlations between the Competencies in the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

The following analysis of the competencies in the ECI helps to identify the level of emotional intelligence and bring out the factors that are considered to be influenced by the corporate culture. Refer to **Table 6.9** for an illustration of the Pearson correlations.

Emotional Self-awareness maintained a fair degree of positive relationship with all the variables in the clusters. However, a notable weak correlation was evident with adaptability, and hardly any relationship with initiative. This may be attributed to what Boyatzis *et al* (1999) refer to as clusters having compensatory relationship; where using more of one competency may compensate for the demonstration of another, and in this case being engaged in self-awareness may have reduced the use of initiative (look at **Table 6.9**).

As for the ***Accurate Self-Assessment***, a good relationship was found with change catalyst (.543), Optimism (.539), trustworthiness (.571), developing others (.603), and inspiration leadership (.608). This indicates that the managers conduct a self-assessment test and seem to have a moderate level of trust. Such managers are being optimistic, attempting to develop others, though it is not very strong.

Self-Confidence correlated moderately with empathy (.501), developing others (.575), inspiration leadership (.562), and influence (.516). This shows that managers are confident of themselves, have empathy towards others at work which makes them moderately influential, and in turn has an impact on developing others to further progress and reach their goals.

Table 6.9 Pearson Correlations of Emotional Competencies amongst the informants

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
Emotional Self- (1) Awareness																
Accurate Self-assess-Ment (2)	.412 **															
SelfConf-idence (3)	.378 **	.456 **														
Emotional self-Control (4)	.400 **	.421 **	.416 **													
Trustworthi-ness (5)	.403 **	.571 **	.426 **	.345 **												
Adapt-Ability (6)	.231 *	373 **	317 **	.225 *	.358 **											
Achievement Orientation (7)	.372 **	.487 **	.589 **	.305 **	.505 **	.428 **										
Initiative (8)	.089	.106	.295 **	.003	.245 *	.419 **										
Optimism (9)	.362 **	.539 **	.487 **	.419 **	.413 **	.345 **	.243 *									
Organiza-tional (10) Awareness	.279 **	.201 *	.216 *	.137	.266 **	.244 **	.150	- .068								
Service Orienta-Tion (11)	.387 **	.284 **	.456 **	.339 **	.340 **	.394 **	.279 **	.421 **	.316 **							
Empathy (12)	.497 **	.513 **	.501 **	.484 **	.515 **	.353 **	.106	.418 **	.301 **	.498 **						
Develop Others (13)	.401 **	.603 **	.575 **	.328 **	.505 **	.486 **	.305 **	.574 **	.333 **	.557 **	.582 **					
Inspiration Leader (14)	.389 **	.608 **	.562 **	.435 **	.558 **	.429 **	.274 **	.549 **	.267 **	.480 **	.495 **	.632 **				
Influence (15)	.455 **	.445 **	.516 **	.386 **	.496 **	.456 **	.286 **	.449 **	.413 **	.459 **	.550 **	.533 **	.621 **			
Change Catalyst (16)	.347 **	.543 **	.464 **	.243 *	.670 **	.452 **	.356 **	.399 **	.382 **	.450 **	.410 **	.554 **	.644 **	.540 **		
Conflict (17) Management	.463 **	.426 **	.371 **	.285 **	.409 **	.371 **	.233 *	.262 **	.214 *	.416 **	.499 **	.537 **	.484 **	.441 **	.561 **	
Teamwork & Collabora-Tion (18)	.278 **	.400 **	.291 **	.192	.350 **	.201 *	.163	.412 **	.073	.238 *	.383 **	.423 **	.386 **	.278 **	.310 **	.385 **

** correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Emotional Self-Control has very little relationship with most of the variables, indicating that managers' emotional self-control does not influence teamwork and other variables for instance. By looking back at **Table 6.9**, there was no relationship with initiative and organisational awareness.

Achievement orientation correlated moderately with self confidence (.589), trustworthiness (.505), developing others (.613), inspiration leadership (.604), influence (.561), and change catalyst (.629). Giving others something to achieve and reach inspires them and builds their self-confidence which enables them to move forward and change.

Initiative had little relationship with all the variables and this again maybe offset by the use of other competencies. The moderate correlation of other variables leads to a negative impact on other variables, such as initiative, and thus reduces its application.

Optimism maintained a moderate relationship with the following variables: accurate self-assessment (.539), developing others (.574), and inspiration leadership (.549). However, there was no strong relationship with the rest of the variables.

Trustworthiness has a moderate relationship with empathy (.515), developing others (.505), inspiration leadership (.558), and change catalyst (.670). This shows further how managers attempt to build trust using their initiative to develop others and play a role in being change agents.

Adaptability has a fair degree of relationship with all of the variables except for team work and collaboration, where little relationship was found (.201) due to the nature of managers in Bahrain where they try to change and develop but hold on to their positions as long as possible, making them less willing to work strongly in a team and collaborate with them.

Organisational awareness on the other hand, produced low correlations with all of the variables. The lowest correlation is with emotional self control (.137), initiative (.150), teamwork and collaboration (.163), and empathy (.106). This is due to national culture that places certain constraints on understanding politics at work, especially at lower levels of management. This was also pointed out by some of the managers (8 out of 16) in the interviews.

Service orientation maintained a fair degree of relationship with most of the competencies, where a moderate relationship is evident with achievement orientation (.577) and developing others (.577). This reflects the willingness of managers in responding to customers and employees and their willingness in developing others to progress. This was also indicated by some of the managers in the interview, *"The Company has many social activities to help in socialising employees. This leads to increase the bonding between employees, which has benefited the company greatly."*

Empathy sustained a fair degree of relationship with all the variables, but correlated moderately with: accurate self assessment (.513) and self-confidence (.501), developing others (.582) and influence (.550). This reflects a sustained relationship between how managers feel about themselves and others, as one manager commented:*"Emotional issues are very sensitive in our culture, especially in terms of the reputation of the company in the market."*

Developing others produced a moderate relationship with most of the variables, indicating that managers in the five organisations are concerned with developing their employees and this is evident in their success and the strong training in their organisations. **Appendix A** highlights background information on the five organizations, which shows the achievements and strength of their human resources.

Inspiration Leadership has a moderate relationship with accurate self-assessment (.608), self-confidence (.562), trustworthiness (.558), achievement orientation (.604), optimism (.549), developing others (.632), influence (.621). As for the rest of the variables, it maintained a fair degree of relationship, but no weak correlations were found, and this means that these organisations have good and sound leaders who play a role in inspiring others and moving them towards higher achievement and progress.

Change Catalyst maintained a fair degree of relationship with most of the variables. However, a good relationship was found with accurate self-assessment, trustworthiness, achievement orientation, developing others, inspiration leadership, conflict management and influence. This shows that managers recognise the need for change and attempt remove barriers.

Influence correlated moderately with few of the variables such as inspiration leadership, change catalyst, empathy, achievement orientation and self-confidence, which shows how managers play a role in influencing others but not highly. A fair degree of relationship was found with the rest of the variables. The lowest correlation was with emotional self-control (.386), initiative (.286), and teamwork and collaboration (.287).

Conflict Management had a fair degree of relationship with most of the other factors in the ECI with the exception of two variables that has a moderate relationship: developing others (.537) and change catalyst (.561). It seems that managers have the ability to handle difficult people and tense situations with diplomacy, have the ability to handle conflict and bring disagreements into the open.

Teamwork and Collaboration maintained a fair degree of correlations with the variables (refer back to **Table 6.9**). This indicates that there is teamwork in those organisations but it may not be strong enough at the managerial level. On the other hand, a very weak relationship is found with organisational awareness (.073). This is attributed to the national culture where organisational politics is a very sensitive issue according to the 16 managers in the interview. Politics at work in organisations in Bahrain is not discussed with lower level managers, where some issues according to the managers are 'hidden under the carpet.' Also, each manager strives to achieve something for himself in order to go along with the politics at work, therefore teamwork and collaboration with politics has a weak relationship.

6.3.3 Mean and Standard Deviations of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and Nationality

The overall scores of nationality and the four clusters of ECI are presented in **Table 6.10**, where the results showed no significance between nationality and the four clusters (P> .05): Self-awareness (.423), self-management (.452), social-awareness (.423), and social skills (.452). This indicates that nationality does not influence the emotional competencies of the people working in those five organisations under study. It could also reflect the adaptation of people from different nationalities in the corporate culture in Bahrain.

Table 6.10 Chi-Square Tests of the Four Clusters of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and Nationality of informants

ECI Clusters	Pearson Chi-Square	Degrees of freedom (df)	Assumption Significance (2-sided)
Self-awareness	96	94	.423
Self-management	96	95	.452
Social-awareness	92.968	91	.423
Social skills	96	95	.452

To support the above results, **Table 6.11** presents the mean and standard deviation of the four clusters of emotional intelligence competencies, illustrating similar means for both nationalities. It seems that regardless of their nationalities, managers possess certain emotional competencies at work without having their own culture influence their leadership style.

Table 6.11 Mean and Standard Deviation of the Four Clusters of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and Nationality of the informants

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-Awareness	Non Bahraini	20	-.0551	.56141
	Bahraini	76	.0434	.52010
Self-Management	Non Bahraini	20	-.0051	.53083
	Bahraini	76	.0043	.41362
Social Awareness	Non Bahraini	20	.0196	.50629
	Bahraini	76	.0086	.46396
Social Skills	Non Bahraini	20	-.0144	.55726
	Bahraini	76	.0081	.48779
Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)	Non Bahraini	20	-.0138	.50409
	Bahraini	76	.0161	.40950

Details of the competencies and Nationality are illustrated in **Table 6.12**. The Bahrainis scored the lowest mean for initiative (.0005), inspiration leadership (.0024), conflict management (.0030), trustworthiness (.0061), optimism (.0119), influence (.0199), organizational awareness (.0150) and accurate self-assessment (.0155). This reflects the influence of national culture and its constraints on the Bahraini managers working within the corporate culture.

Table 6.12 Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) and Nationality of the informants

	Nationality	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional Self-Awareness	Non Bahraini	19	-.2323	.60659
	Bahraini	72	.0895	.67615
Accurate Self-Assessment	Non Bahraini	20	.0353	.62046
	Bahraini	76	.0155	.70036
Self-Confidence	Non Bahraini	20	.0032	.75539
	Bahraini	76	.0164	.61308
Emotional Self-Control	Non Bahraini	20	.0707	.78017
	Bahraini	76	-.0454	.60354
Trustworthiness	Non Bahraini	20	-.0225	.69213
	Bahraini	76	.0061	.66568
Adaptability	Non Bahraini	20	-.0692	.69711
	Bahraini	76	.0390	.55934
Achievement Orientation	Non Bahraini	20	-.1129	.81713
	Bahraini	76	.0378	.68715
Initiative	Non Bahraini	20	.0227	.74427
	Bahraini	76	.0005	.57827
Optimism	Non Bahraini	20	.0804	.75946
	Bahraini	76	-.0119	.70619
Organizational Awareness	Non Bahraini	20	.0277	.61012
	Bahraini	76	.0150	.63131
Service Orientation	Non Bahraini	20	-.0958	.59401
	Bahraini	76	.0499	.47947
Empathy	Non Bahraini	20	.1270	.97291
	Bahraini	76	-.0391	.65267
Developing Others	Non Bahraini	20	-.0174	1.04252
	Bahraini	76	.0583	.64215
Inspiration Leadership	Non Bahraini	20	-.0935	.79486
	Bahraini	76	.0024	.70349
Influence	Non Bahraini	20	-.0879	.65212
	Bahraini	75	.0199	.72720
Change Catalyst	Non Bahraini	20	-.0436	.57654
	Bahraini	76	.0275	.63064
Conflict Management	Non Bahraini	20	-.0312	.55465
	Bahraini	76	-.0030	.59770
Teamwork & Collaboration	Non Bahraini	20	.1874	.39192
	Bahraini	76	-.0457	.53268

The negative means also reflect the negative statements in the questionnaires. As for the non-Bahrainis, the lowest score was with self-confidence (.0032), as they may need time to adjust to the culture and gain their confidence at work and in their relationships with others.

6.3.4 Outcome of the questions in the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) Questionnaire

This section addresses the following research question:

Do leaders in Bahrain show high or low levels of emotional intelligence?

interviews were conducted with 33 managers at various levels regarding the contents of the ECI questionnaire. Overall, respondents seem to posses moderate to high emotional competencies (see **Tables 6.13, 6.14 & 6.15** for the percentages of each question).

Starting with **Table 6.13**, the majority (98%) seek ways to improve performance, change ideas based on new information (97%), set measurable and challenging goals (93%), and are seen as inspirational leaders as indicated by 85%. A very small percentage expressed being uncomfortable with ambiguity (12%), and it seems that dealing with ambiguity may be part of the culture and they find it acceptable.

Table 6.13 Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)Questionnaire Results

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Consistently	Don't know	
1	Seek ways to improve performance		1.9%	12.6%	47.6%	37.9%		98%
2	Are uncomfortable with ambiguity	25.2	36.9	23.3	9.7	1.9		34.9
3	Have sense of humor about yourself	1	7.8	28.2	38.5	21.4	2.9	88.1
4	Remove barriers to change	1	4.9	19.4	50.5	22.3	1	92.2
5	Communicate the positions of those involved in a conflict to all concerned	1	7.8	19.4	43.7	17.5	9.7	80.6
6	Listen attentively	1.9	8.7	47.6	40.8	1		89.4
7	Develop behind-the-scenes support	1	5.8	16.5	47.6	20.4	8.7	84.5
8	Are an inspirational leader	1	5.8	25.2	44.7	15.5	7.8	85.4
9	Understand the organization's values and, unspoken rules		1.9	8.7	36.9	51.5		97.1
10	Doubt the ability of others to succeed	2.9	11.7	25.2	42.7	13.6	3.9	81.5
11	Resist the impulse to act immediately	4.9	23.3	35	24.3	9.7	1	69
12	Match customer or client needs to services		4.9	5.8	44.7	39.8	3.9	90.3
13	Are a person others can count on	1	1	12.6	37.9	44.7	2.9	95.2
14	Act on own values even when there is a significant risk	4.9	7.8	23.3	40.8	17.5	5.8	81.6
15	Set measurable and challenging goals		4.9	12.6	49.5	31.1	1.9	93.2
16	Change ideas based on new information			20.4	47.6	29.1	1.9	97.1
17	Are not defensive when receiving feedback	1.9	12.6	34	39.8	10.7	1	84.5
18	Personally lead change initiatives		4.9	24.3	50.5	19.4	1	94.2
19	Bring disagreements and grievances into the open	10.7	13.6	27.2	40.8	7.8		75.8
20	Can see things from someone else's perspective	2.9	2.9	30.1	44.7	17.5	1.9	92.3
21	Gain the buy-in of influencial parties		6.8	38.8	26.2	10.7	16.5	75.7
22	Engage an audience when presenting	1	6.8	28.2	39.8	19.4	3.9	87.4
23	Make work exciting	1	5.8	34	35	20.4	1.9	89.4
24	Understand political forces in an organization		1.9	14.6	46.6	35	1	96.2
25	Are pessimistic about setbacks	1.9	12.6	35	34	5.8	8.7	74.8

Managers and subordinates seem to enjoy the sense of humor about themselves as expressed by 88%, where they also listen attentively to others (88%) and attempt to develop behind-the-scenes support (84%). In terms of understanding the organisation's values and unspoken rules, 8% indicated sometimes but the majority (88%) seems to have a clear understanding. There is a strong will to match customer or client needs to services or products as expressed by 90% of the respondents.

The majority (93%) seem to have empathy skills and are considerate towards others, bringing disagreements and grievances into the open (77%) and attempt to make work exciting (90%). Also, 93% behave calmly in stressful situations. Confronting unethical actions are considered as difficult to some of the respondents, as they often do (41%) and others consistently confront (36%). As for applying standard procedures flexibly, there seems to be some degree of flexibility as 41% indicated they often do, 24% sometimes, 17% consistently do and 16% are not flexible in applying procedures. In terms of setting goals and change, 39% sometimes change overall strategy and goals to fit the situation, 30% often do and only 9% do that consistently, where 17% indicated they rarely do. Additionally, 43% anticipate obstacles to a goal, where 30% sometimes do and 14% consistently anticipate obstacles.

Table 6.14 shows how the majority of the respondents (95%) point toward the need to change the overall strategy, goals and projects, and 87% advocate for change despite opposition. Nevertheless, 23% are reluctant to change or make changes, but the majority is not as expressed by 64%. However, (43%) of the respondents may sometimes need to bend rules when necessary, 18% often cut through 'red tape,' but 25% rarely do that.Giving timely, constructive feedback in behavioral terms rather than personal terms seems to be the norm followed by the majority of the respondents:

Table 6.14 Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) Questionnaire Results

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Consistently	Don't know	
26	Behave calmly in stressful situations		5.8	25.2	44.7	23.3	1	93.2
27	Make yourself available to customers or clients	1	2.9	48.5	46.6	1		96.1
28	Confront unethical actions	3.9	4.9	8.7	40.8	35.9	5.8	85.4
29	Apply standard procedures flexibly	3.9	15.5	23.3	39.8	16.5		79.6
30	Change overall strategy, goals, or projects to fit the situation	1	17.5	38.8	30.1	8.7	3.9	77.6
31	State the need for change		2.9	16.5	53.4	25.2	1	95.1
32	Advocate for change despite opposition		8.7	26.2	50.5	10.7	2.9	87.4
33	Give timely, constructive feedback in behavioral rather than personal terms	3.9	27.2	44.7	16.5	5.8		67
34	Recognize the situations that arouse strong emotions in you		1	24.3	44.7	19.4	9.7	88.4
35	Cut through red tape or bend rules when necessary	6.8	25.2	42.7	2.9	3.9		49.5
36	Inspire others by articulating a compelling vision	1	7.8	40.8	31.1	11.7	5.8	83.6
37	See opportunities rather than threats	1	4.9	27.2	37.9	25.2	1.9	90.3
38	Believe oneself to be capable for a job	1	5.8	5.8	46.6	36.9	2.9	89.3
39	Establish and maintain close relationships at worlk		2.9	6.8	40.8	49.5		97.1
40	Publicly admit mistakes	1.9	11.7	36.9	30.1	16.5	2.9	83.5
41	Anticipate obstacles to a goal	1	7.8	30.1	43.7	14.6	2.9	88.4
42	Smoothly juggle multiple demands	2.9	5.8	20.4	46.6	15.5	8.7	82.5
43	Are reluctant to change or make changes	15.5	49.5	23.3	6.8	1.9	1.9	32
44	Find a common ideal to which all parties in a conflict endorse		5.8	35	40.8	10.7	6.8	86.5
45	Respect and relate well to people of diverse backgrounds		1	12.6	40.8	44.7	1	98.1
46	Convince by appeling to people's interest		6.8	35	44.7	8.7	3.9	88.4
47	Seek information in unusual ways	7.8	26.2	35	23.3	4.9	2.9	63.2
48	Are not plitically savvy at work	9.7	28.2	22.3	18.4	2.9	13.6	43.6
49	Believe the future will be better than the past		1.9	16.5	50.5	28.2	2.9	95.2
50	Do not cooperate with others	60.2	36.9	2.9				2.9
51	Are friendly and cooperative	1	2.9	3.9	26.2	66		96.1
52	Take calculateed risks to reach a goal		5.8	20.4	53.4	11.7	8.7	85.5

45% often do, 26% sometimes and 16% consistently give constructive feedback, and only 4% rarely do. Respondents seem to inspire others by articulating a compelling vision, as 31% indicated they often apply that, 41% sometimes do, 12% consistently inspire others, but only 8% indicated rarely. This is also supported by maintaining close relationships at work, as 50% indicated they consistently maintained relationships, 41% often did and 6.8% sometimes did. In addition to the respect for people of diverse backgrounds as 45% consistently relate well to such various cultures, 41% often respect, and 12% sometimes do that.

Part of the issues that may be restricted by the national culture is reluctance to publicly admit mistakes (refer to **Table 6.14**). Despite that, 37% said they sometimes admit mistakes, 30% often do, and 16% consistently admit mistakes publicly. People working in the five organisations under study seek information in a normal and usual way as expressed by 26%. However, 35% pointed out that they sometimes seek information in unusual ways, and 23% indicated that they often do, and only a small percentage (5%) does that regularly. 'Are not politically savvy,' may have not been fully understood by some of the respondents due to the language and meaning of the sentence. Nevertheless, 23% indicated they are not politically savvy sometimes, 19% said often, but it seems that people are politically knowledgeable as indicated by 29%. As to the state of the future, 43% believe that the future will be better than the past, and 28% rarely believe that.

Respondents seem to be enjoying a climate of friendliness and cooperation, as the majority (96%) expressed they are cooperative and very few (3%) indicated that they are not. 85.5% of the respondents take calculated risks to reach their goal, whether this is implemented often or sometimes or even consistently. Only 6% said they rarely do and 9% said they don't know. 21% consistently acknowledge strengths and weaknesses as part of a healthy working

environment, whereas 44% often do, and 19% said they sometimes do. 37% try to avoid conflicts when they arise, 18% often try to avoid, but 25% said they don't avoid. Part of the harmonious environment enjoyed by respondents is finding ways to convince others by appealing to people's interest as indicated by the majority; 45% often do, 35% said sometimes, and 9% consistently sought ways of convincing others through looking into their interests.

Refer to **Table 6.15**. The majority (95%) of the respondents give directions to develop others, and attempt to provide on-going mentoring or coaching (92%). 52% of the respondents often recognize strengths in others, 30% pointed out they consistently do and 12% said sometimes. Although most of the respondents (77%) indicated that they are sometimes not aware of their own feelings, but they realize how their feelings impact their actions (86%), and at the same time attempt to acknowledge others' input (86%). It seems that 53% of the respondents often have the ability to read peoples' moods or nonverbal cues, 27% said sometimes, and only 13% said consistently. Most of the managers (93%) have positive expectations about others, where 89% expressed being positive even in difficult moments. 95% strive to lead by example, and 96% pointed out to have 'presence.' Customer satisfaction is considered to be an important element by 91% of the respondents, where 41% agreed they rarely are not responsive to clients' needs, and 47% pointed out to being responsive.

Table 6.15 Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) Questionnaire Results

		Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Consistently	Don't know	
53	Do not acknowledge your personal limitations		10.7	28.2	36.9	15.5	8.7	80.6
54	Acknowledge own strengths and weaknesses		6.8	19.4	43.7	21.4	7.8	84.5
55	Avoid conflicts when they arise	7.8	25.2	36.9	18.4	7.8	3.9	63.1
56	Give directions or demonstrations to develop someone	1	1.9	13.6	42.7	38.8	1.9	95.1
57	Provide on -going mentoring or coaching	1.9	4.9	17.5	37.9	36.9	1	92.3
58	Are unaware of your own feelings	3.9	4.9	20.4	23.3	34	12.6	77.7
59	Know how your feelings impact your actions		1.9	16.5	49.5	20.4	10.7	86.4
60	Hesitate to act in unfamiliar situations	3.9	14.6	34	33	8.7	4.9	75.7
61	Solicit and use others' input	2.9	5.8	22.3	47.6	14.6	3.9	84.5
62	Have mainly positive expectations about others		1.9	20.4	57.3	13.6	4.9	91.3
63	Get impatient or show frustration	2.9	12.6	38.8	35.9	8.7		83.4
64	Monitor customer or client satisfaction		3.9	12.6	49.5	29.1	2.9	91.2
65	Present yourself in an assured, and unhesitating manner	1	2.9	13.6	49.5	31.1	1	94.2
66	Initiate actions to create possibilities for the future		5.8	22.3	43.7	25.2	1.9	91.2
67	Understand historical reasons for organizational issues		2.9	18.4	50.5	22.3	4.9	91.2
68	Stay composed and positive, even in trying moments	1	1.9	18.4	48.5	22.3	5.8	89.2
69	Lead by example		1.9	20.4	44.7	30.1	1.9	95.2
70	Are not responsive to clients' needs	46.6	40.8	5.8	2.9	1	1.9	9.7
71	Have 'presence'	1		18.4	51.5	26.2	1	96.1
72	Recognize specific strenghts in others	1	2.9	11.7	52.4	30.1	1	94.2
73	Accurately read peopls' moods or nonverbal cues	1	1	27.2	52.4	13.6	3.9	93.2

6.4 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

The second stage in the analysis and findings process was to analyse the interviews conducted to further support the literature and aims of the study as the following paragraphs illustrate.

6.4.1 The overall impression on the Questionnaires, its Relevancy to the Corporate and National Culture in Bahrain

With a sample size of (n=33), 91% thought that the questions in general were comprehensive, relevant and applicable to all organisations in Bahrain. They stated that most of the questions covered basic aspects, which are followed in all organisations around the world. As for the topics covered in the questionnaires, 40% regard it as interesting and significant such as: human relations, behaviour, attitude, emotions and feelings, along with competencies which the respondents believe to be crucial for many organisations not only in Bahrain but anywhere in the world. Only a small percentage (15%) considered the questionnaires to be unique, and provided a useful way of diagnosing oneself. In terms of the structure, 40% said the questionnaires were organised, well presented, the questions were simple and straightforward, and they enjoyed answering.

On the other hand, 25% of the respondents found the questionnaires to be complicated and time-consuming, requiring intense concentration from the respondents. 18% felt that some of the questions had no mid point and some questions were general and broad in scope, while other questions did not have the same focus. They also thought that it was difficult to make choices among these questions due to the difficulty in observing the situation and the relationship that exists between the manager and the subordinate. It is interesting to note that 30% of the respondents expressed that some of the questions were actually culture-bound and more Westernised, especially that the questionnaire was developed in

the United States, making it more Americanised. They felt that there were some questions that did not capture the Arab culture. The following general comments were raised by some of the participants regarding the questionnaires (both the ECI and MSI):

Some questions had no mid point, where respondents could not pinpoint an exact scale measure. For instance: 'When subordinates fail at a task, my manager lets them learn the reasons themselves,' and the other statement 'My manager does not hesitate to fire or transfer a person he/she considers to be un-manageable.' One of the respondents suggested that he uses a coaching style to help his employees establish the reasons. So he could not pinpoint a number on the scale as the question contained a statement that had no mid-point.

'My manager helps subordinates think through the 'who, when, and how' of completing tasks' and the other choice is: 'My manager lets subordinates find ways to complete their tasks themselves.' The question was not applicable to all of the participants because some of them simply tell their employees what to do. Some of the questions contained words which were misinterpreted by some of the respondents or were not fully understood: 'My manager holds moderate standards of performance for subordinates'

The following section discusses the instruments used in more detail, presenting their characteristics and comments of the respondents raised regarding each instrument.

6.4.2. Overall Impression of Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)

Some respondents indicated that part of the questions in the ECI apply to their organisations. However, the majority felt that these questions are 'culture bound' and may affect the outcome. They also felt that the issues raised in these questionnaires were applicable to their work situation (Refer to **Appendix D** for a specimen of the questionnaires). The following concerns were expressed:

'Develop behind the scenes support.' This question was considered to be culture sensitive and at the same time may not be fully understood as to its precise meaning.

'Understand political forces in the organisation.' Some of the participants referred to this question as being very sensitive in our culture and the higher one goes up in the managerial position, the more one would be able to understand the politics at work and the more the person would be in control of the decision making. They referred to a number of factors that they thought influenced and determined to which level people have an understanding of politics at work, such as: timing, level of management, organisational culture, background of the individual, external and internal forces as well as experience. Others raised their concerns on how people should learn the way in which politics work in their organisation.

'Confront unethical issues.' The respondents indicated that confrontation is avoided due to the politics in their organisation and the national culture. Confrontation in the Arabic culture is a difficult issue and people feel uneasy to express their thoughts and opinions honestly and openly. A number of managers mentioned that although they try to confront their employees regarding performance or behaviour, it was felt that it was only possible in certain situations, depending on the employee's circumstances.

Other issues raised by some of the respondents related to the ***level of English required*** for filling out the questionnaires. Some of the respondents felt that those with less proficiency in English language might misunderstand the meaning of some of the sentences, as they tend to be either difficult or misleading in the phrases used. Some of the words used were also regarded as too American. For instance, the question: ***'Are not politically savvy at work.'***

'Advocate for change despite opposition.' This question was believed to be *culture bound* as it depends on the policy of each organisation. In some of the organizations, proposing change is relatively easy and flexible, while in others it becomes a difficult process.

'Publicly admit mistakes.' This is regarded by some of the respondents to be very sensitive because the national culture places certain constraints on management admitting mistakes and being very open about it.

6.4.3 Overall Impression of Managerial Style Inventory (MSI)

There were few comments concerning some of the questions in the MSI both the manager's version and the employee. Beginning with the manager's, the following comments were raised.

'I work to develop close personal relationships with subordinates.' Due to the culture in Bahrain, being in an Islamic setting, this tends to be difficult when it comes to women establishing personal relationships with men at work.

'I am reluctant to fire or transfer a person I have found to be unmanageable.' Such an issue is seen as too sensitive, especially with the Bahrainisation of jobs and the policy against discharging Bahrainis without sound justification.

'I spend time looking for opportunities for my subordinates' professional development.' In some organisations, managers strive to develop employees and motivate them to further progress, but there are limits for promotions. So while the manager would very much like to see his/her employee progress, nothing further can be given or done due to the company's policy.

'I avoid talking to my subordinates about organisational issues until clear decisions have been made,' and 'I encourage my subordinates to participate in most decision making.' These questions are considered as too general by some of the respondents, indicating that some managers may not discuss such issues with their employees. This is again due to cultural norms and politics at work.

'I avoid disciplining my subordinates.' This question is regarded as somewhat culturally sensitive, as it is similar to confrontation. Managers try to complement others especially with managers in the same rank and higher.

'I spend as little time as possible on my subordinates' job security and fringe benefits,' 'I often reward performance that is adequate.' Job security and fringe benefits vary greatly between private and government organisations. Some of the respondents referred to this question as depending on the company policy.

Given the detailed description of the two instruments used in this research study, it is equally important to shed light on the target population and sample along with the pilot study conducted prior to distributing the questionnaires, in an attempt to get some feedback and comments.

6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The results of this research proved the hypothesis that there is a moderate relationship between the six leadership styles identified by Goleman (2000) and the various components of emotional intelligence. It also revealed that these managers possessed moderate to high levels of emotional intelligence. The analysis shows that corporate culture (which is part of and is influenced by the national culture) plays a role and can influence some of the leadership styles and components of emotional intelligence. The results also suggest that the national culture is an important element to be taken into consideration when designing and applying standardised measurements or tests. The study also shows that the six leadership styles are being used and applied by managers in Bahrain depending on the situation at hand, the nature of managerial activity and the tasks to be accomplished. There still remain some managers who continue to follow the old style by being tough and autocratic.

The Coaching and Democratic were the least used and least preferred styles out of the six. These unexpected results came from the negative correlations of the Democratic and Coaching styles. This is justified by the influence of national culture, where democracy has recently been introduced and is gradually taking shape. As pointed out by the 16 executives, the corporate culture in Bahrain is changing towards a more democratic and open approach. The managers interviewed agreed that employees nowadays are given the opportunity to express their opinions freely, participate in the decision making process and planning. Furthermore, managers are becoming more transparent in dealing with change and leadership styles. Nevertheless there still remain some difficulties such as confronting employees or leaving matters being 'swept under the carpet.' They indicated that this shift is gradually taking place, and that it would take some time when more democracy is practiced at various levels in all organisations in Bahrain. The managers also expressed their concern towards the

minority of people who have negative attitudes towards democracy and change, as they consider this may hinder progress. They stated that they strive to make the workplace appealing for employees, through activities that help bring employees together especially after working hours. Another unexpected result came from the positive correlations of the Coercive leadership style that is normally negative correlations. The Affiliative style yielded low correlations, but was expected to have a stronger relationship with the emotional intelligence competencies due to the nature of the style. No significant results were found in terms of nationality and gender, although the only unexpected result came from the non-Bahrainis using the Coercive style at a slightly higher rate than Bahrainis. In terms of the emotional competencies, the managers showed high levels of competencies such as empathy, developing others, inspiration leader, and influence.

Various issues and concerns were raised by the 16 managers (in an interview) with regards to components of the questions in the questionnaire, the challenges that face managers in Bahrain, the style of leadership followed in their organisation and in other organisations in Bahrain. The challenges that face managers in Bahrain as pointed out by the managers included: coping with the speed of change, creating a healthy working environment, globalisation, competition, training and human resources, leadership style used, diversity, political environment, lack of natural resources, increase in population, economic constraints, and labour unions. The majority of managers emphasised the internal challenges in the country such as changes in the laws and shifts in people's needs. Another concern raised was the issue of competition, whether it was locally or internationally, and its impact on various aspects of the organisation.

The questionnaires and interviews indicate clearly that managerial behaviour in the Gulf region is heavily influenced by the social structure, and by values,

norms and expectations of people. What is sometimes overlooked is that deep-rooted values and norms are slow to change, particularly when managers find themselves in an uneasy situation when introducing change in leadership style or up-to-date with scientific methods in their organisations. It can be assumed that managers in the Gulf region have been conditioned or socialised by common managerial practices and problems and that they are aware of and influenced by a commercial tradition that dates back to many centuries (Badawy, 1980). The use of personal ties and connections is evident in a wide range of activities (Al Ismaily, 2006). This has become an important and necessary means of doing business. However, managers share with each other exposure to modern business conditions through formal education and/or interaction with other Arabic and Western businessmen. The analysis also reveals that the majority of the executives are gradually changing with the change in the new political environment, as one executive said "*so such managers will have to try to adapt to this change or they will find it very difficult to survive. Such managers must realize that in this new setting they will have to learn to be perhaps more approachable and be more open, setting examples for others to follow.*"

The next chapter (Chapter 7) presents the conclusions of this study and identifies its contribution towards refining the concept of leadership and emotional intelligence as well as making recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.0 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the research work by presenting the conclusions according to each research question. Identification of the study's contribution of knowledge follows, and the chapter ends with recommendations for future research.

This research work explores the relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence in Bahrain, identifying the influences that culture has on them. The issues it raises centres on the concept of emotional intelligence and leadership in the five organisations under study. In the first instance, and as indicated earlier, Bahrain's socio-cultural, environmental and economic structure is very similar to other countries in the Gulf area. A close examination of its achievements and constraints in the area of leadership development can offer an indicator of what to expect elsewhere in the region (Al Ismaily, 2006). On this basis some key dimensions of the research will be highlighted with a view to their regional applicability throughout the Gulf area. Perhaps to some extent, these same comments and observations might be relevant to a wider spectrum of developing countries grappling with building indigenous leadership skills and capabilities. A leader's legitimacy in Bahrain according to AlHashemi (1987) is sanctioned by tradition. Such norms of leadership, deeply rooted in the country's history and culture, although having withstood the test of time, the onslaught of modernisation and massive

transformations in the infrastructure. The results of this research highlight the changes in the use of leadership styles in relation to the emergence of emotional intelligence. Hofstede's (1980) work stresses that leadership styles differ from one cultural setting to another, and what may be practical and applied in the United States may not work in another culture. This has been an important consideration in the present study.

The hypothesis: **There is a relationship between the six leadership styles (identified by Goleman, 2000) and emotional intelligence in organisations in Bahrain, within the Islamic cultural setting**, was tested and proved, and the research questions addressed. This was achieved through the statistical analysis of the questionnaires (ECI and MSI) as well as the interviews conducted with 33 managers, out of which 16 answered questions related to managerial styles and future challenges in Bahrain. This research has five questions: Is there a relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence? Do managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination of styles? What levels of Emotional Intelligence do leaders in Bahrain show? What culture factors in Bahrain influence the applicability of emotional intelligence and leadership styles? What are the implications of conducting such research in Bahrain?

7.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

From the analysis in Chapter 6, the following conclusions were drawn for each research question.

Is there a relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence?

First of all it is possible to state that there is a relationship between the six leadership styles identified by Goleman (2000) and various components of emotional intelligence. Goleman (2000) indicates how emotional intelligence influences leadership styles, but this thesis revealed that such a relationship is of two fold: First, emotional intelligence competencies had an impact on leadership styles and, Second, leadership styles influenced some of the emotional intelligence competencies.

Do managers in Bahrain rely on one or a combination of styles?

The analysis revealed that the six styles of leadership are used and practiced in the case organisations. The findings of this study are consistent with other studies conducted in the Gulf region on leadership styles (such as Atiyyah, 1993; Al-Faleh, 1983; Al Ismaily, 2006; Al-Shaikh, 1989) indicted that managers in the region use a number of styles and their choice of style depends on their evaluation of the situation. This is in line with the situational approach to leadership argued by Burnes (1996) as well as Mullins (1999). The results of this study were also anticipated by some of the managers in the study conducted by AlHashemi (1987) with 20 senior managers and executives in Bahrain. They indicated that managers switched between the styles according to what is being dealt with. They also stated that management styles are themselves culture-bound and not necessarily transferable.

The most favoured style is the ***Authoritative*** style, concurs closely with Goleman's (2000) study which reveals that this style was found to be the most effective out of the six styles of leadership. The findings of this study also support previous studies conducted by Badawy (1980) and AlHashemi (1987), stressing the ***Participative*** and ***Authoritative*** style especially in decision making. The next favoured style is the ***Coercive***, ***Affiliative***, ***Coaching***, and

Pacesetting styles. The ***Coercive*** style is still being used in the organisations under study (but at a lesser degree than it was in the 1980s) as indicated by the weak positive correlations with the ECI. The least favoured style out of the six styles is the ***Democratic*** style. However, the managers (in an interview with 16 executives) argued that there is a shift in the style of management in Bahrain, from a more autocratic and rigid style, to a more transparent and ***Democratic*** style, which is beginning to spread to most organisations in Bahrain. This was also pointed out by 15 (out of 16) executives interviewed.

One of the executives described his organisation's leadership: "*It is characterised by the participative management style, working as one team organisation, respecting its employees, emphasising on the core values and beliefs of the organisation. It follows a flexible style of giving opportunities to everyone to take part.*" As for the **Coaching** style, the results were similar to Goleman's (2000) study that concluded to be the least used, whereas in this research it was found to be the next least used style. On the other hand, the **Pacesetting** style yielded negative results as expected and concurs with Goleman (2000) and Kelner et al (1994). Compared to a study conducted by Kelner et al (1994) on 3871 participants, some of the scores were similar to this research in terms of the six leadership styles, their means and standard deviations. The standard deviations of the **Coercive** and **Democratic** styles of both studies (this and Kelner et al's) were within the same range. The **Authoritative** style of both studies had the highest mean. As for the **Coercive** style, this study had the next highest mean (3.63), whereas in Kelner et al (1994) it had the lowest mean (2.96).

In performing various managerial activities, two styles were mostly referred to: the ***Authoritative*** and ***Pacesetting***. The ***Authoritative*** style is used in the following activities: managers requiring subordinates to submit reports on their activities, developing close relationships with subordinates and managers,

being involved in the subordinates' work, working in harmony with each other, sharing the evaluation of their subordinates at performance reviews, discussing changes in the company policy with subordinates, praising subordinates for their work, taking over subordinates' task if their work begins to fall short, encouraging employees to refer to them when they need help, sharing information and ideas through meetings, developing subordinates, learning through their contacts with subordinates, influencing others through relying on their knowledge and competence, and trying to be popular among employees. The Pacesetting style is preferred for the following managerial activities: decision making, dealing with tension, reviewing subordinates' outcome, carrying out important tasks, achieving tasks that subordinates fail in, organisational matters, conflict among subordinates, checking on subordinates' progress until their assigned tasks are due, disciplining subordinates, setting difficult goals, personal problems of employees, taking over a task from a subordinate, suggesting alternatives, close supervision, and developing work plans based on their ideas. Therefore, the managers adjusted their styles according to the nature of the decision making and situation.

Looking at the relationship within the six styles of leadership, certain styles are preferred and used together, such as the ***Coercive*** style with the ***Affiliative*** and ***Democratic*** styles. The ***Democratic*** style is used in combination with the ***Pacesetting*** and ***Coaching*** styles. However, other styles have negative impact when used and applied together, such as the ***Authoritative*** style with the ***Democratic*** and ***Coaching*** styles. This reflects the preferences of the styles which are uniquely combined and used by the managers in the case organisations.

What levels of Emotional Intelligence do leaders in Bahrain show?

The study proved that emotional intelligence is applied and this is reflected in the overall positive results of the emotional competencies and relationships that ranged from moderate to excellent. It also shows that managers posses high emotional intelligence regarding some of the competencies such as self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, service orientation, empathy, developing others, inspiration leader, influence, empathy, and being compassionate. Such factors are part of the Arabic and Islamic culture, where emphasis is on building strong bonds, being passionate, considerate, and having compassion towards others (AlHashemi, 1987; Al Ismaily, 2006; Mona, 2003). This study revealed the organisations under study enjoy an environment that can be described as cooperative, strong preference and support for teamwork, harmonious and friendly. The majority of the managers interviewed indicated that they enjoyed a sense of humour about themselves and maintain close relationships at work. They seem to give directions to develop others as well as attempt to provide on-going mentoring or coaching.

Wier's (2004) work has identified what he refers to as 'Arab leadership' that places a great importance on relationship, building of trust and open dialogue, not only between employers and employees but the entire stake holders including the owners and customers. This is reinforced in the results of this research work; the managers in this study also emphasised that employees are highly regarded, and their opinion taken into consideration, especially with the recent establishment of the various labour unions in major organisations in Bahrain. Such issues were also considered to be of paramount importance to managers operating in Oman, where they involve their employees when formulating strategies and policies for their companies (Al Ismaily, 2006).

This study showed that organisational politics has an affect on some of the emotional intelligence competencies especially self-awareness. According to some of the managers (9 out of 16), the higher one goes up the ladder the more

one understands the politics at work and the more one is in control of decision making, *"The higher you go up the more you are involved in the politics and the more you can understand why certain decisions are taken. There are certain factors that influence and determine the extent to which people have understandings of politics at work: timing, level of management, organisation culture, and background of the person, external and internal forces, as well as experience."* Organisational politics has an adverse effect on initiative (where managers scored the lowest out of the other competencies), putting pressure on managers to high performances with little initiative involved in the process. Politics at work, as argued by Goleman (1999), due to cultural norms, have an impact on employees and their inner feelings. He adds that insufficient knowledge of organisational politics influences people's confidence level and their emotional self-awareness.

What culture factors in Bahrain influence the applicability of emotional intelligence and leadership styles?

The fourth research question looked into cultural factors that influenced the applicability of emotional intelligence and leadership styles in Bahrain.

It is evident that corporate and national culture influenced both leadership styles and emotional intelligence in the case organisations under study. This is reflected in the negative correlations yielded by the ***Democratic***, and ***Coaching*** styles with the emotional competencies, which indicates that the managers may not favour these styles. However, it is important to note that such styles by nature have a positive influence on the organisation's culture as shown in the MSI technical manual (Anderson & Zhu, 2002) and in a study conducted by Kelner, Rivers & O'Connell (1994). This is justified by the fact that democracy is not being fully applied or practiced on a wide scale in most of the

organisations in Bahrain. Organisations in Bahrain are still going through a transition stage because democracy is still new and has only been implemented since 2002, coinciding with the timing that this research work commenced, which justifies the weak correlations of the ***Democratic*** style. According to Goleman (2000), this style is said to work for collaborative commitment through empowering others to act as well as giving feedback for adequate performance. In Bahrain, although some managers are reluctant to empower their employees and tend to avoid giving them total freedom to take decisions, the outcome of the interviews with 16 executives in the five organisations under study showed that seven executives believed that ***Democratic*** style is used. They also acknowledged a shift from ***Coercive (Autocratic)*** to a more open and flexible style, but it is clear that this transition is gradual.. Another reason for the negative results of the ***Democratic*** style according to Goleman (2000) and Goleman et al (2000b), is that this style is not effective if employees are not well informed and do not have an active role in the decision making. This was reinforced by eight managers (out of 16) referred to above.

When the styles were investigated in terms of nationality, very little difference was found between the means within the six styles of leadership. The non-Bahrain managers had slightly higher means for the ***Democratic*** and ***Pacesetting*** styles. Similar means were seen for the ***Affiliative***, ***Authoritative*** and ***Coaching*** styles. This shows that managerial styles are not very much influenced by the nationality of the manager. They felt at ease working with organisations in Bahrain and they adapted their style to the Bahrain context. . The unexpected result came from the ***Coercive*** style, which had a higher mean for non-Bahrainis. This is attributed to the fact that non-Bahrainis are trying to adapt to local culture. Four of the executives (out of 16) referred to their leadership styles being influenced by a mixture of various nationalities within their organisation. Such an environment was characterised as flexible and more open. These results concur closely to similar studies conducted by

AlHashemi (1987) in Bahrain and recently by Al Ismaily (2006) conducted in Oman that found nationality of the manager was not a major influence on his style of leadership.

Another cultural issue, pointed out by the majority managers, is 'confronting unethical issues or actions.' They stated that *"unethical issues are difficult to confront immediately in our culture and society."* However, one of the executives indicated that the effect varies depending on the level of management. *"For instance, a junior manager or staff may get punished, whereas the senior manager may somehow get away with it."*

What are the implications of conducting such research in Bahrain?

The last research question concerns the implications of conducting such research in Bahrain.

The findings from the five organisations studied could contribute to further knowledge for others in Bahrain in terms of the leadership styles and applicability of emotional intelligence. If the first set of indicators yielded by this research study of the leadership styles in Bahrain, its relationship to emotional intelligence and the management culture, seem to be negative in so far as certain Western management theories are concerned, there is definitely another set pointing in a different direction. Perhaps the most encouraging of the positive indicators as suggested by Bahraini experience is that some management/leadership universals do exist, that more can probably be generated through carefully designed country studies that are not purely descriptive. It would be hard to contain questions focusing on whether and to what extent this study can be said to yield generalisations extending beyond Bahrain. The outside scope that naturally comes to mind is the Gulf region

which has been undergoing very rapid change including the emergence of corporate cultures and building of management systems. The general environmental characteristics prevailing in the GCC countries are not very different from the picture portrayed in this study. However, some differences might exist at the intermediate and micro levels. This makes it all the more inviting to carry the analysis a bit further and examine if the key findings of this study, while formally limited to Bahrain can assume regional proportions.

7.2 CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

This study is the first of its kind to be conducted in Bahrain and the Gulf Region. Thus the findings would have an impact on leadership styles used and their relationship to emotional intelligence. It has established that leader's style can be influenced by the culture in which the leader operates, it has also emphasised the cultural factors that influence the use of emotional intelligence in leadership styles. Such an analysis has reinforced the hypothesis of this thesis that there is a relationship between the six leadership styles (identified by Goleman, 2000) and various components of emotional intelligence in Bahrain. Goleman (2000) indicates that emotional intelligence influences leadership styles, however, the outcome of this thesis has gone further by revealing that such a relationship has a two fold effect: ***First,*** emotional intelligence competencies had an impact on leadership styles and, ***Second,*** leadership styles influenced some of the emotional intelligence competencies, which is indicated in **Fig. 7.1**.

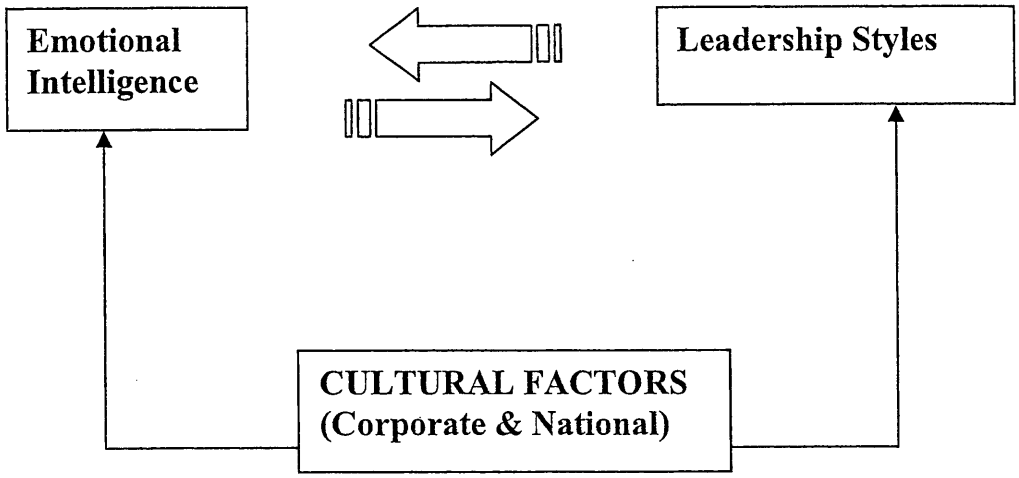


Fig. 7.1 Two-fold effect of the hypothesis

The Standardised tests which have been developed in the West and especially the United States do not take into consideration the effect that national and corporate culture can have on leadership styles and emotional intelligence. This study has clearly shown that culture can have an impact on leadership styles and emotional intelligence. What managers practice and use is shaped by the nature of the organisation, the corporate culture of that organisation and the overall national culture. This issue is also highlighted by Weir (2004), where he indicates that the Anglo American paradigms are now being challenged in the West. This is also supported by Hofstede's and work (1980; 1991). From the results of this study, it was apparent that tests developed in the West do often need to be modified to take cultural factors into consideration. The interviews revealed and identified the issues that need to be altered for use in the Gulf Region.

Each of the six leadership styles identified was appropriate to certain situations and settings but none alone were appropriate to all. The most effective leaders appeared to know how to use the right style for the situation at hand. The

study showed that leadership styles used in the West are not uncommon in Bahrain. Some styles were preferred to be used with certain other styles (look at **Fig. 7.2**).

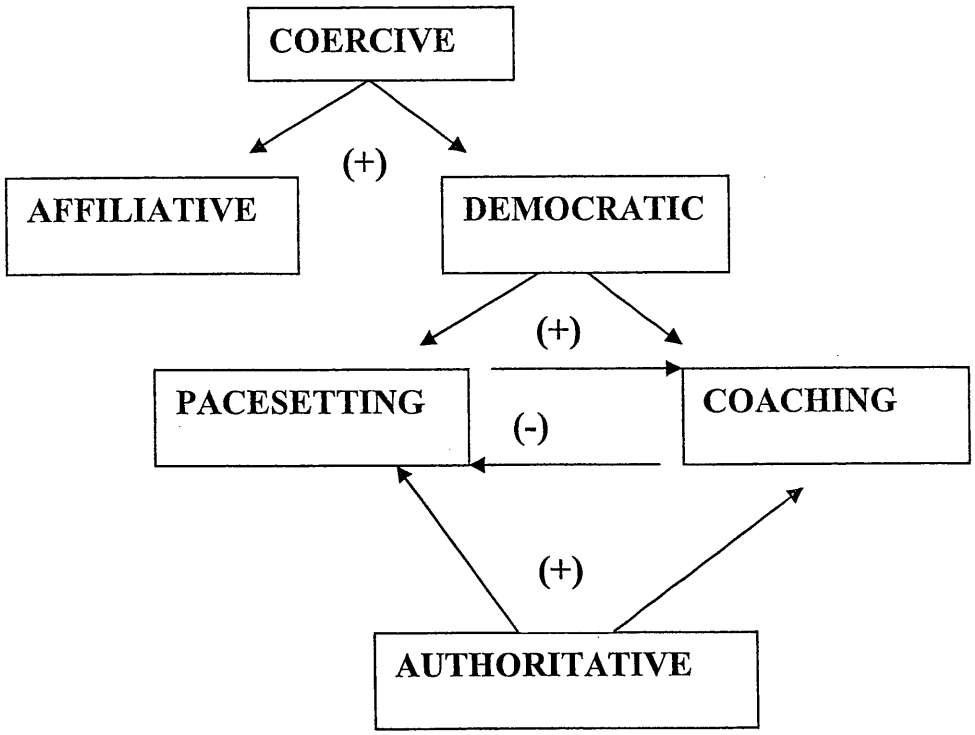


Fig. 7.2 The compatibility of the six leadership styles in this study

The Coercive style is preferred best with the Affiliative and Democratic styles. The Democratic style is strongly associated with the Pacesetting and Coaching. The Authoritative is favoured with the Pacesetting and Coaching styles. However, it was found that the Pacesetting and Coaching styles are not compatible with each other. These results differ from other studies such as Kelner et al (1994), where the combination of the styles used together where

based on the nature of the styles in which this study proved a slight variation (as discussed earlier).

7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

From the previous discussion it may be concluded that there are some concerns raised by the executives in the case organisations undergoing the research, which warrant further attention. Based on the findings, it is perhaps necessary to present some solutions and recommendations on ways to overcome such problems and issues relative to improving the use of some of the styles and to increase emotional intelligence. One should also bear in mind that not all of these suggestions put forward may be applicable to every situation, and others may take some time to implement. However, some of the recommendations are very practical.

From the low correlations of the emotional competency inventory (ECI) and the feedback of some of the executives concerning competencies in their organisation, perhaps it would be beneficial to consider providing in-depth training and development of emotional intelligence in leadership. This may be achieved by looking into ways of assessing the level of emotional intelligence within the organisation. Emotional intelligence can be learned using the mixed models, according to Caruso, Mayer & Salovy (2001) and Goleman (2000). What seems to be clearly required is a strategy with clear goals, operational targets, progress indicators, implementation set up and an evaluation framework. An important observation here is not to view the organisation as a self contained entity but to account for the profound influence of the broader national culture.

A model for developing emotional intelligence was developed by the author is shown in **Fig. 7.3** below.

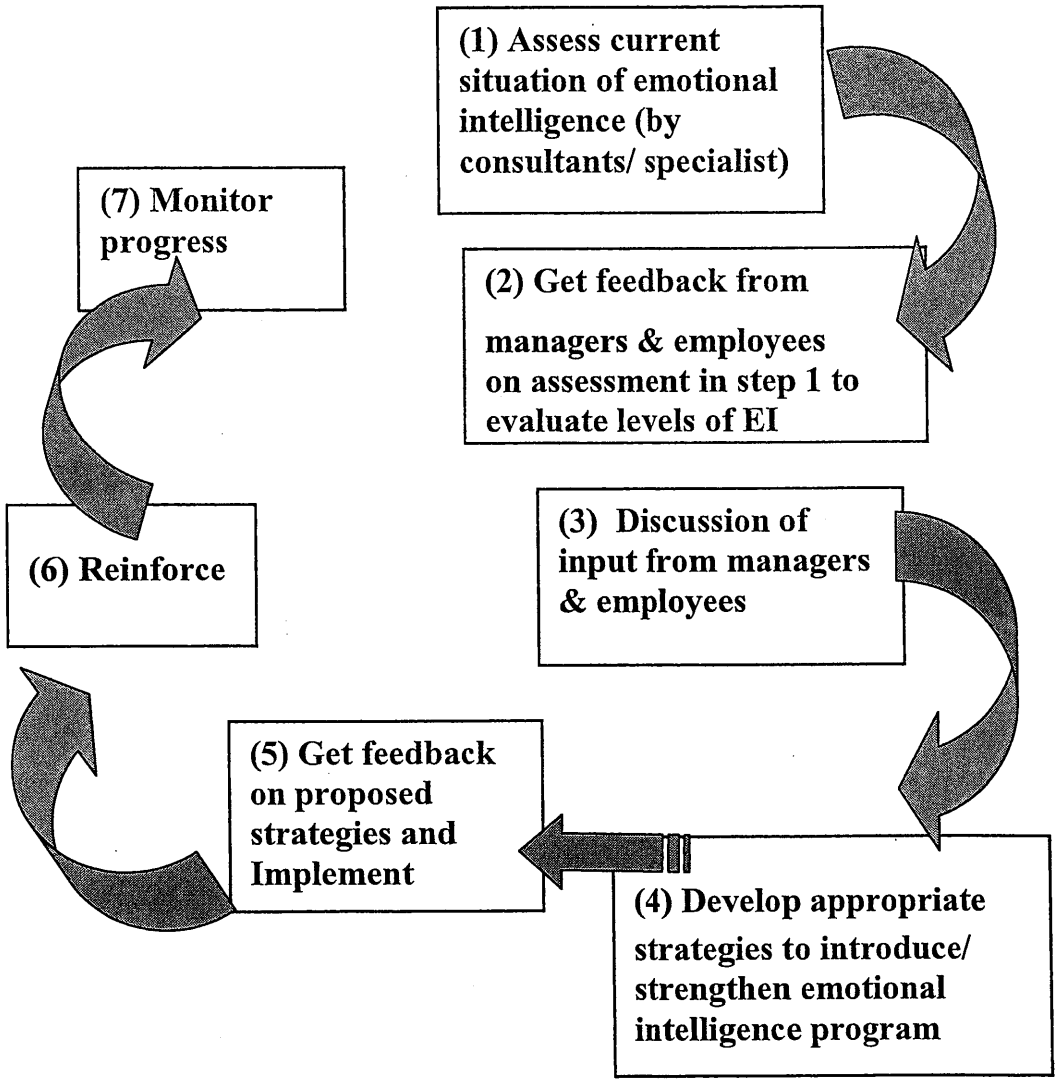


Fig.7.3 Emotional Intelligence Development Model

Fig 7.3 highlights a proposed process of identifying and developing emotional intelligence in an organisation. The assessment could be carried out by specialists in applying emotional intelligence programs (Orme, 2003a) or by trained managers within the organisation to carry out such evaluation programs. This is done by first looking at the stages in the process, what ought to be considered in carrying out and implementing an emotional intelligence program, bearing in mind that such a process is continuous and ongoing for the organisation, to ensure its effective applicability and success. The model can be applied in all organisations but each organisation in this research had a different context and setting that will influence the strategy and development.

The process starts by identifying and evaluating the current situation of emotional intelligence in the organisation through questionnaires that measures the level of emotional intelligence. This would perhaps be done at various managerial levels in the organisation. Once feedback is collected, it would then be easier to pinpoint problems, and what should perhaps be done in terms of developing appropriate strategies based on the analysis carried out in the first stage. An important step here would be the input generated from both managers and employees. It is strongly advised to reinforce whatever programmes and strategies put forward and to ensure sufficient support by top management. Such programs may include Investing in social capital, a key issue today, as put forward by many writers and practitioners (Goleman, 2000; Prusak & Cohen, 2001). Strengthening relationships is seen as "the grease of an organisation," investment in such relationships returns real gains that show up on the bottom line," (Prusak & Cohen, 2001:86). Furthermore, managers should specify a trial period and application for the suggested programme(s), to monitor its progress and detect any weaknesses or difficulties that may arise, making necessary amendments as well as taking corrective action wherever possible.

The training and developing of employees (as put forward by some of the managers) is possible though using the experience of consulting companies, such as Hay McBer, Ei Uk and MHS (Multi Health Systems) that provide workshops and training programs in leadership and emotional intelligence. This would help managers and their direct reports to gain more information, knowledge and further insights in new concepts and have a better understanding in the benefits of the various leadership styles and emotional competencies. According to Mayer (1990), Emmerling & Goleman (2003), emotional intelligence may be learned through life experience. However, the development of social and emotional competencies takes commitment and sustained effort over time (Goleman, 1998; Goleman et al, 2002; Emmerling & Goleman 2003). Some of the executives (8 out of 16) suggested training managers in various aspects of leadership and managerial theories and concepts to keep them in pace with the latest development, *"Managers in Bahrain need to endeavor and meet advancements in various areas such as technology, leadership and management."*

Since the results revealed that the Coercive style is still being used, although very low, then it may be useful to raise awareness in the organisations as to the drawbacks of using this style and the situations which this style is more appropriate, such as during change. Also, the organisations may look into encouraging the use of Democratic style as it yielded negative relationships and it was the least used style out of the six styles of leadership. This would necessitate the support and backup of top management in articulating the concept throughout the organisation. Some of the executives stated that this is possible, reflecting from their experience. Other executives indicated that some of the existing managers need to gradually change their style, perhaps encouraging participation in various aspects of organisational plans, enabling the input of views and experience of all those employees who are affected by the business with the objective of collaborative decisions, which gives them an

opportunity to influence and contribute towards more effective decisions and better performance. Two of the executives (out of 16) suggested open discussions, as this helped them tremendously when their organisation went through transition, and it gave their employees an opportunity to solve problems and become more objective.

Most of the managers talked about their long experiences and how it helped in shaping their organisation, in terms of progress, development and success. With this in mind, it would be useful to look into the power of transference in leadership and its impact on the various styles used and applied. Maccoby (2004) explains that people transfer experiences and emotions from past relationships onto the present. Such past relationships might be with parents, families and friends that effect people's expectations, performance, emotional level and behaviour.

The results revealed very weak correlations of the initiative competence with almost all of the ECI competencies. Therefore, a step could be taken in encouraging initiative through managers and employees to transform organisational culture to one which is conducive to motivation and creativity. This entails emphasis on elements of creative behaviour (Torrance, 1979) namely abilities (particularly visualisation, ability to define problems, logical thinking, emotional intelligence, analysis and evaluation, flexibility and transformation); skills (problem definition, idea generation and problem solving through teamwork); and task motivation (work environment and teamwork with commitment towards the task). Understanding of the interrelations of organisational culture in the management and leadership practices to enhance creativity and motivation. According to AlSayed (2000), introducing and enforcing creativity to the transformation of an organisational culture as a tool that individuals as well as organisations could be trained to apply. Supporting the power of 'group creativity' that can be achieved through

team work is even of greater importance.

Another suggestion for the leaders, as put forward by several practitioners (such as Hock 2000), is learning to follow if they wish to successfully lead. This entails that leaders and employees should follow the vision and purpose of the organisation. The 'following part' of leadership can be exercised by achieving certain behaviours and skills that can help in making an effective follower (Hock, 2000). First of all leaders should ask some questions such as 'What do you think we should do?' or 'How do you suggest?' and providing opportunities for others to lead them in getting answers. Additionally it can be argued that leaders should do real work, regardless of the hierarchical position, to show support and help to others by building common understanding instead of superficial consensus. This means a different organisational culture where its entire people practice both the following and the leading skills.

Strengthen labour unions (as recommended by some of the executives) so as to create a more open and flexible system and at the same time attempt to overcome the barriers that hinder the process of change, such as attitudes of people towards democracy and change. This will enable managers to become more open to any change and help in the process of transformation in their organisations. The majority of the respondents (95%) pointed out, there is a need for having mechanisms that would provide continuous evaluation and feedback in time to enable the organisation to introduce the necessary change required to sustain stability, survival, growth and success. Also, giving Bahraini managers more confidence and trusting their abilities. This is a tested experience by three of the five organisations under study, and proved very successful over the years. This was pointed out as a challenge by the executives interviewed. *"In some organisations the Bahraini managers have overcome most of the challenges in an excellent way."*

7.4 LIMIATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This is the first study of its kind to be conducted in Bahrain and the Gulf region. This thesis has called attention to a wide range of issues to be addressed. An ambitious research agenda was developed but this work is a long way from satisfying its various dimensions. Only a first step has been taken towards a journey that will undoubtedly invite others. Subsequent research work is needed if this attempt is to have sustained effect in the long run. The issues it covers are still developing and need to be followed.

The author proposes that future studies to extend this work could pursue a range of issues. Firstly, a new study might incorporate the analysis of organisational climate factors by using the Organisational Climate Survey Questionnaire (OCS) which measures climate variables such as: Flexibility, Responsibility, Standards, Rewards, Clarity and Commitment. This could be investigated in the five organisations under study to look into specific climate variables and compare it with Goleman's (2000) study that investigated leadership styles and climate variables.

Secondly, applying emotional intelligence programs to the five organisations researched in this study by repeating the MSI and ECI along with the OCS (referred to above) and making comparisons with this study to look at its affect on managers before and after implementation. Another suggestion would be to investigate other models of measuring emotional intelligence such as the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test), as discussed in previous chapters, to investigate its applicability as a standardised tool in Bahrain. Comparisons can be made with the results of this study and further conclusions drawn that would benefit organisations and other researchers. The study could include other organisations in Bahrain to further explore the concept of emotional intelligence and validate Western studies conducted in

other settings.

Thirdly, to conduct studies that would include leadership styles that incorporate the traditional Islamic and Arabic styles such as the Consultative style (Shura) and the Delegative style, that were investigated in AlHashemi's (1987) and Al Ismaily's (2006) studies, by replicating their studies in the organisations under this study or other organisations in Bahrain. Weir (2004) introduces the Arab leadership as the fourth paradigm. He argues that it can constitute the basis for philosophy of management which is consistent with the requirements of modern organisations; whether there exists within the philosophical and cultural elements of the Arab world, the basis for a successful accommodation with the core requirements of global business. As such, Weir (2004) puts forward the following four paradigms: the American, European, Japanese and the Arab leadership styles. He demonstrates that there is no fundamental incompatibility between such practices. Therefore, his study could be taken into consideration when conducting further studies in Bahrain and could be used for further support.

Last but not least, investigating gender and emotional intelligence by looking at the differences in gender in terms of emotional competencies and leadership styles, using the ECI and MSI in organisations that have a higher percentage of female managers. It should be also of great interest to duplicate, to the extent possible, this study in other Gulf States to observe patterns of congruence or variance. This indeed would be a very promising prospect not only from a policy analysis perspective but from a theoretical perspective as well. Equally inviting is the prospect of extending the study in the form of a more ambitious research project focusing on the cross-cultural applicability of leadership and emotional theories.

7.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is often said that a 'good' research study raises more questions than it answers. It is hoped that this thesis has not been a failure. To start with, it makes no claim whatsoever to exhaustiveness. The issues it addresses are varied and complex to allow drawing the general frame work in a first study no matter how thorough. This indeed is the major constraint of this work, i.e. being a first study on emotional intelligence and its relationship to leadership styles in Bahrain.

The results revealed knowledge, awareness and applicability of some of the theories and concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence in the Bahrain context, which implies that some of the theories can be used but to a limited extent. This is also supported by the work of Hofstede (1980) who investigated organizational theories developed in the United States and highlighted how it was perceived by managers in other countries. His study revealed that there are some issues that can be generalized and is common among managers, while there are certain issues and problems that are only familiar to a particular culture. Hofstede's (1980) study reflects the appreciation by organizational scientists that cultural differences influence management and restrict the generalizability of certain organizational theories. His work underscores the significance of culture, or the "collective mental programming", in determining attitude and behaviour. The work of Hofstede and his colleagues very strongly refer to organisations as being heavily culture-bound. He argues that this not only affects people's behaviour within organizations, but such cultural influences also limit how much (and how well) theories developed in one culture can be used in another. The dimensions that Hofstede identified affect different facets of organisational functioning. For instance, from a leadership perspective, individualism and power distance are the most important phenomena. Hofstede (1980 p.57) reminds us that "if leadership is only a

complement to subordinate expectations we are likely to find in a country".

The way the thesis is structured, the decision to base it on the direct experience of the managers in Bahrain, as well as the effort made to reflect as 'authentically' as possible on the concept of leadership meant being less 'foolish' and more open to action alternatives. Leadership and emotional intelligence are highly needed managerial qualities emphasised by the majority of managers in the case organisations. Perhaps the strong sense of Bahraini managers of the transition that seems to have swept them partly explains the high premium they now place on leadership and emotional intelligence.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

ORGANISATIONS UNDER STUDY

This research has focused on five major organisations in Bahrain, namely The Bahrain Petroleum Company (BAPCO), Arab Ship Repair Yard (ASRY), Gulf Petrochemicals Industry (GPIC), The Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait (BBK), and The Bahrain Telecommunications Company (BATELCO). These organisations play a major role in the society and are considered as contributing significantly towards the country's economy. They were also chosen for their long history with many achievements and success stories, not only at the national or regional level but also internationally. The organisations under this study have established and developed a sound reputation over the years and participated in major projects whether in Bahrain or the GCC, receiving numerous worldwide awards for high quality and safety. They cover different sectors of the economy of Bahrain: oil, ship repair, manufacturing, services, and telecommunications, giving this research a good coverage of the various sectors of the economy.

BAHRAIN PETROLEUM COMPANY B.S.C (BAPCO)

In the petroleum industry every discovery of an oil field in a new region of the world is hailed as significant to the area. The history-making day, on the 1st of June 1932, when oil began flowing at Jebel ad-Dukhan (the highest point in Bahrain), marked the beginning of oil production in Bahrain (Mitchell, 2005/06). As such, the first shipment of crude oil loaded onto the tanker EI Segundo was in 1934. In December of that year, Shaikh Hamad AlKhalifa (the

Ruler of Bahrain at that time) granted a 55-year mining lease to Bahrain Petroleum Company (Bapco), covering an area of 100,000 acres. The refinery was officially opened in 1937, with expansion taking place in the early 1940s following the construction of a submarine crude pipeline from Saudi Arabia. From then on, the refinery continued growth in its production, with the major expansion of the refinery in 1944. The post-war years saw reconstruction on a scale never before witnessed by the world. Henceforth, oil for fuel, transport and emerging industries became a prime commodity. As part of the expansion and development by Bapco, it opened its first Training School in 1948, with the total number of employees reaching 6,677 at that time. This period also witnessed Bahrainis effectively sharing in the job opportunities offered by the expansion.

In the 70s, further developments took place, as a new Training & Development Department was created in 1979. The following year, the Bahrain Government signed an agreement with Caltex for a 60% participation in the ownership of the Bahrain Refinery with the remaining 40% to the Government of Bahrain. Throughout most of 1989, the refinery achieved substantially higher-value yields without major investment. Also, many changes were made to the management accounting system, incorporating sophisticated technology to its line management information reports. During the same year, total plant reliability, formerly only a concept, now became an operating department with a clearly defined function. As a multi-disciplinary team, they started looking at ways of designing out operations risk, materials failure and equipment malfunctions. The company achieved many awards in quality assurance and safety that led to its sound foundation for its business activities. The Company's shareholders developed the key elements of a Refinery Modernisation Program (BRMP) in 1995. Its Manpower development programmes were directed through a strong portfolio of training courses, seminars and workshops supported by one-to-one coaching. The company has

a fully equipped training centre, where most of the in-house training takes place. The company also supports scholarship and sponsorship programmes. In terms of safety, it has performed very well due to the true dedication of all its employees in following correct procedures, supported throughout by a strong management, committed to excellent training as well as the best personal protective environment. In 1997, Caltex sold the remaining 40% of Bapco, giving the government of Bahrain full ownership.

The process of change in Bapco, according to one of the executives in the interview, started in the 1980s and the company was the first company in Bahrain and the region to introduce the mission-vision-values, which are seen as critical factors trying to encourage a more participative style, an attempt to involve everyone in the company to have a say. At the beginning, some managers were striving to articulate the vision and mission to the rest of the employees, which took a lot of effort and will. "Values play a big part in changing the behaviour of employees," as pointed out by one of the senior executives (in an interview with 16 managers). Such values played a major role in introducing a new management structure and changing the corporate culture. "Bapco has moved a long way from autocratic to being a more participative management. These were one of the main reasons for its success." Despite the gradual transition and its success, there still remain few who are autocratic. However, the full change in Bapco remains to be seen according to this executive.

With the start of the new millennium, the company launched unleaded fuel in Bahrain as a step to replace lead-additive fuel. This is considered as a positive step in its concern for a more healthier and safe environment. In February 2005, the Company held a huge environmental fair, where 15,000 visitors attended and many took part. The aim of the fair was to educate people regarding recycling and protecting the environment, highlighting the

company's role in the recycling program and energy conservation. The refinery is considered to be a major contributor to the Bahrain economy, both directly and indirectly. Perhaps one of the key reason for its success is that the Company is always driven by its view of the future, embodied in a blueprint covering the following major areas: organisational change, development of human resources, adoption of relevant technology, as well as a sound management practice and philosophy

GULF PETROCHEMICALS INDUSTRY (GPIC)

Gulf Petrochemical Industries Company (GPIC) is Bahrain's first Venture into the Petrochemical field. The company was formed on the 5th of December 1979, as an equal partnership between the Governments of Bahrain, Saudi Arabia and Kuwait with an initial capital of BD60 million. The objective of GPIC is to utilize Bahrain's natural gas for the production of basic petrochemicals (see **Fig 1** for the organisation chart). In 1983 the engineering and construction work for the petrochemical complex commenced and by 1985, the project was mechanically complete. After successful commissioning of the plants, ammonia and methanol were first produced in June of the same year, marking a new era for Bahrain industry. The company received numerous awards and certifications for quality and safety. Such an achievement was made possible through the outstanding efforts of the staff and their team spirit. GPIC launched a five-year plan for technical training career and supervisory development in order to qualify Bahrainis for senior technical and administrative positions in the company.

APPENDIX A

ORGANISATION CHARTS

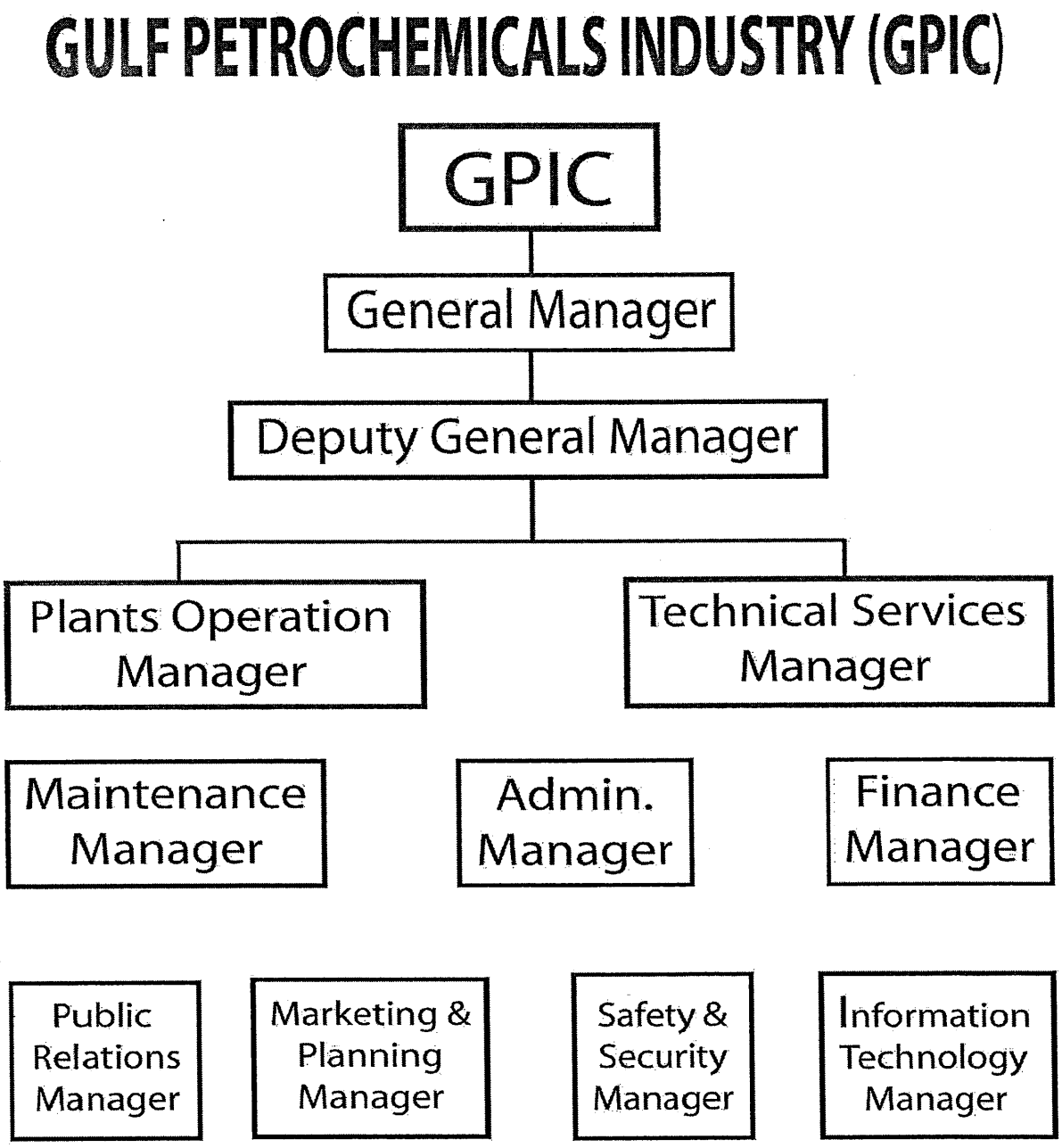


Fig. 1GPIC's Management Structure

One of the unique aspects of GPIC is that it has its own pollution control equipment and systems, in addition to a pollution monitoring system and a modern meteorological weather station. Pollution control is emphasised in the design of the company, in accordance with international standards, to minimise the discharge of land, air and water pollutants to the environment. Hence, GPIC's total commitment to the environment has allowed animal life around the complex to flourish. The Company remains fully committed to complying with, and where possible, exceeding all national and international safety and health laws and regulations. This approach has enabled it to achieve one million continuous employee work hours without Lost Time Accident, during the years 1988, 91, 92, 94, 96, 97 and 99.

In early 2000, GPIC was able to exceed two million continuous employee hours and 1.5 million continuous contractor work hours without suffering a singly Lost Time Accident. GPIC continues to place a top priority on its excellent management of safety and health of all people at its complex (annual report, 2001). The year 2005 witnessed further achievements for the company, as it exported its biggest shipment ever of urea to Australia. GPIC is also the first urea producer to be awarded AQIS certificate of the first degree. This award is considered as a distinguished status from the Australian government that gives its facilities for the unloading of shipments upon their arrival in Australia (KHALEEJIEH newsletter, 2005).

The Company is dedicated to the development of its human resources, training its employees in various areas such as English language, secretarial skills, and technical report writing as well as presentation skills, in addition to the specific technical training. The company considers training a top priority among its various activities. As an example of the significant programmes that serve the Company's objectives for development of human resources and participation in decision making and enhancing a sense of loyalty, it applies a staff suggestion

scheme to be evaluated and implemented according to recognised international systems. Such creative ideas are seen as having positive returns upon the company and employees, not only from the material aspects but also in terms of enhancing performance levels throughout the operations (www.gpic.com)(10.10.2005). GPIC was the first company in Bahrain to have a labour union, a step forward in empathising with and respecting employees and acknowledging that they are the biggest assets of the company. Eight committees were created within the union, involving all aspects of GPIC and business activities.

ARAB SHIP REPAIR YARD (ASRY)

The yard was first conceived in 1968 with the aim of building and operating a well equipped and efficient repair yard serving the Arabian Gulf oil terminals. The seven OAPEC countries (Bahrain, Iraq, Kuwait, Libyan Jamahiriyah, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates) own the company. Bahrain was chosen as the location for the first major repair facility in the Arabian Gulf for many reasons such as: availability of suitable human resources, having a developed industrial infrastructure, favourable site that gave shelter against the rough seas and strong winds, and a satisfactory water depth with a large manoeuvring basin. In 1974, the foundation stone of the shipyard was laid, paving the way for its development. ASRY opened for business in 1977, being the first major shipyard in the area. Since then it has steadily progressed and improved its services and facilities in a climate of fierce competition (look at **Fig 2** for the organisation chart).

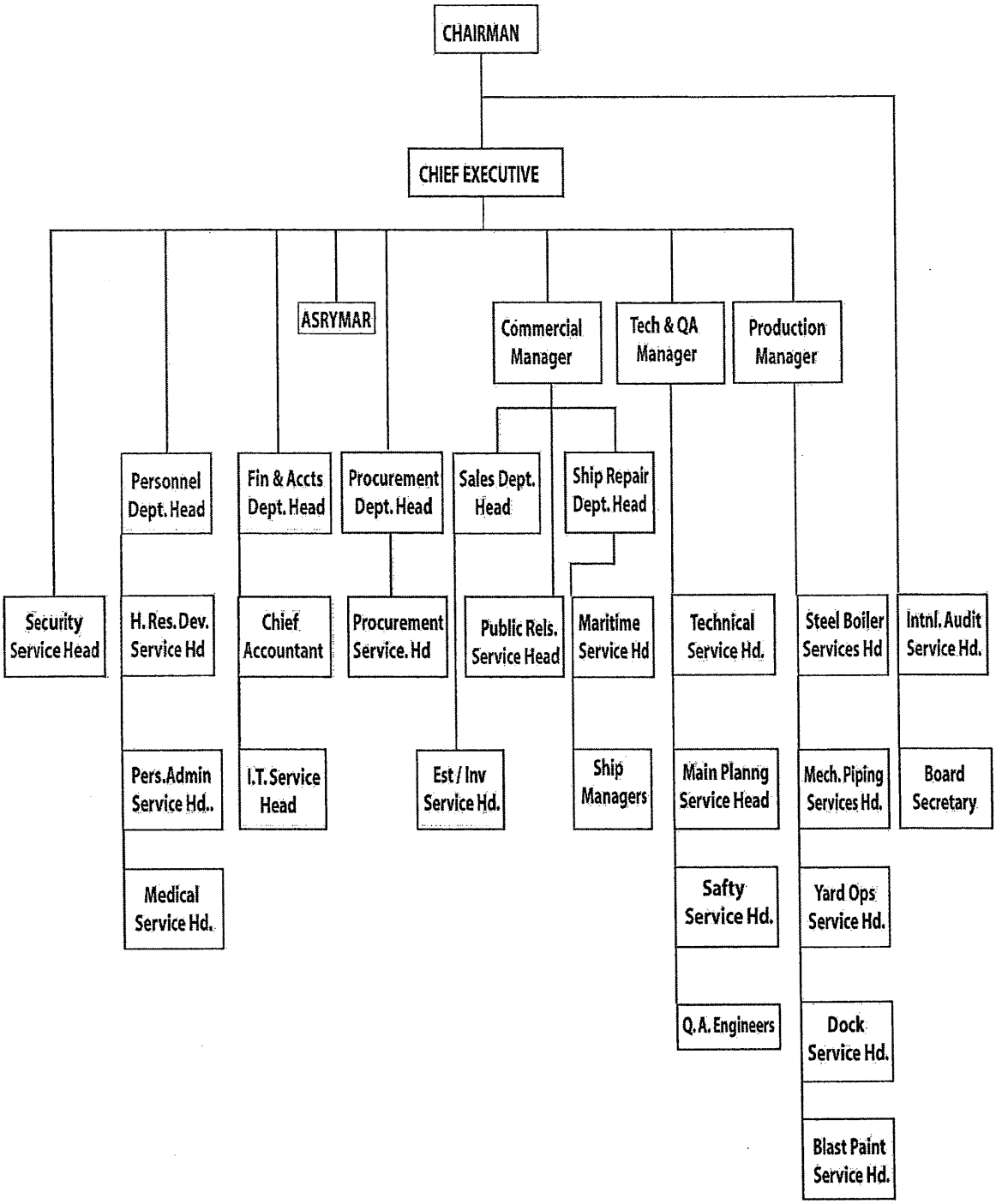


Fig. 2 ASRY Organisation Chart

Fig. 2 ASRY Organisation Chart

The Yard has been providing ship owners worldwide with a consistent quality service, receiving numerous awards and certification for quality and safety. From the start, its policy has been to create a spirit of mutual trust and regard when discussing specifications, tenders and invoices with its customers (www.asry.net)(10.10.2005). In terms of safety, the company has written 'safety first' in huge capital letters across the dock's gate providing a visible statement of the Yard's comprehensive safe operating procedure. The company has also taken steps in protecting the environment by installing a marine sludge treatment plant. This, in turn reduced the volume of waste materials considerably through an oil separation phase, producing clean oil, water suitable for ocean discharge and environmentally safe solids. Such a step is considered as the first of its kind in the Gulf region. By 1992, ASRY had completed its expansion including two giant floating docks.

The policy of aggressive pricing and repair times, coupled with improvements in productivity and cost reduction measures, enabled ASRY to generally maintain its market share despite the continued intensive competition from ship repair yards world-wide. As such, the Yard implemented a new information technology system for ship repair planning, procurements, inventory control, personnel and payroll, in 1999. This was coupled with the developmental work on the new production planning and job costing modules aimed at improving efficiency and cost-effectiveness. Training in Quality Assurance continued during 1999, supported by monthly Quality Assurance Team meetings held with representatives from all the Yard's Services to discuss any problems related to the implementation of the Quality System. The training programme focused on the development of technical skills for specialised production division employees in areas such as welding, mechanical and electrical works, together with the development of managerial skills for team leaders/supervisors of all sections and departments. A Customer Feedback Review Committee was introduced to analyse all client feedback, including any complaints. Corrective

action was recommended where necessary to ensure continuous improvement in the quality of the services given to ASRY's clients.

In February 2005, the company was awarded a $4 million contract by the Kuwait Oil Tanker Company (KOTC) to build a new 35-metre service boat. The vessel is considered to be the first of this particular design to be built by ASRY. The Yard has also started looking into expanding its expertise into the field of specialist vessels, such as tugboats and service boats. As part of the management's scheme to encourage and increase employee commitment, motivation, capability and express management appreciation, the Yard implemented several programs. Such programs covered rewarding employees with zero absenteeism by giving out monetary awards for exemplary performance. Additionally, the company provides many facilities to its employees such as medical care, as part of its concern to their well-being (www.asry.net)(10.10.2005).

One of the major challenges facing Asry, as pointed out by some of the managers in an interview, is adjusting to the cost of labour and materials. The high fixed cost is due to the Bahrainisation program. To overcome this challenge, the company has incorporated in-house contractors to enable its expansion and growth as well as competing on a world-wide basis. Other challenges as indicated by one of the consultants are: global changes such as GATT and quality control certifications, world-wide competition, and the establishment of the society for public relations managers. Another manager considered survival, planning (for production) and leadership styles as other challenges. He pointed out that the yard witnessed a shift in the leadership style from autocratic to a teamwork-based style. Yet another challenge indicated by one of the executives, is working with various clients from different parts of the world.

BANK OF BAHRAIN AND KUWAIT (BBK)

The Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait B.S.C. (BBK) was established on the 16th of March 1971, with the shareholding being divided equally between Bahraini individuals and two quasi Government institutions, and Kuwaiti financial institutions (look at **Fig 3** for the management structure of the Bank). Over the years the Bank has established itself with steady growth and profits, along with a reputable name in the banking and financial sector. The first branch to be established outside Bahrain was in Kuwait during 1978. This was followed by another branch in Bombay (India) in 1986, and Kuwait in 1998, as part of the bank's policy.

The Bank provides a full range of corporate and commercial banking services to Bahrain's Government, various businesses and individual sectors as well as to employees requiring consumer-banking loans or any other retail services. The Bank provides consistent support towards industrial projects, whether large or small, government or private, local or joint venture. It attempts to tailor its financing, guarantees and other trade services. The Bank also offers assistance to ongoing and new ventures, adding value to the economy by creating wealth and employment opportunities. Due to the bank's strong capital base, it is able to satisfy most requirements, in addition to raising funds in syndicated bank facilities on large projects (www.bbkonline.com)(12.12.2005). In 1998, BBK launched its first e-commerce home shopping service in the region achieving further progress and development in its services. During the same year, it established a new subsidiary in Bahrain (Cards Financial Services Company) to take over the operations of the Bank's card centre. The Bank also introduced strategic initiatives in human and technological resources.

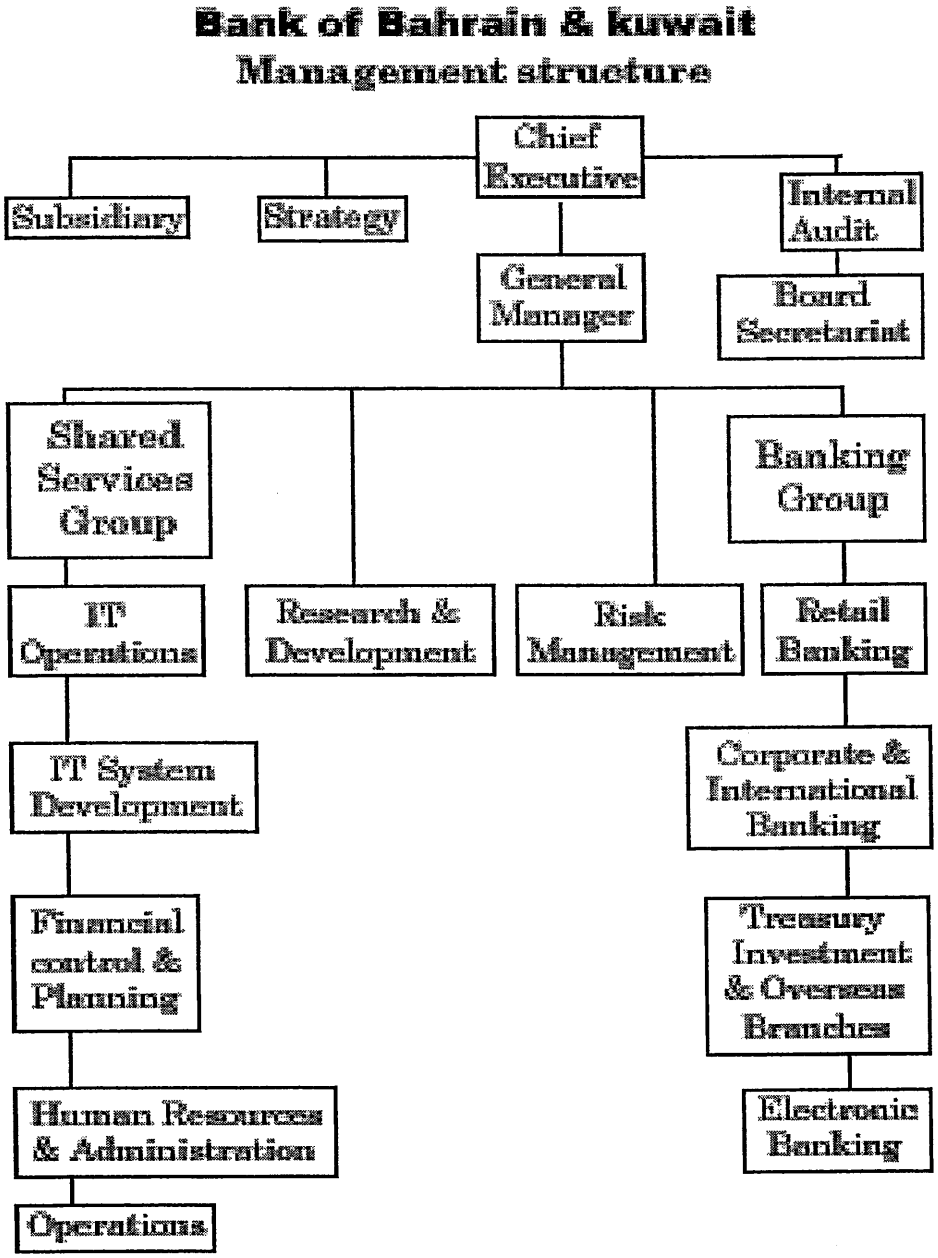


Fig 3 Management Structure of BBK

The year 2000 is considered as the most strategically important year in the Bank's history with regards to technological advancement. Significantly, the Bank led the way in technological innovation, laying down a platform for future growth and diversification. The number of new systems implemented internally, and the number of new products and services launched externally, comprise a total achievement that is remarkable, for a regional financial services institution. Despite continuing regional economic volatility and increasing local competition, the Bank posted an improved financial performance and, at the same time, invested substantially in technological resources throughout the enterprise (www.bbkonline.com)(12.12.2005).

One of the biggest challenge facing managers in the banking sector is coping with continuous changes in the market, technology and customers' demands. Having built a reputation for innovation and quality service with an impressive customer portfolio, BBK firmly believes that its commitment to becoming a leading provider of banking services can only be met through developing its human resources asset as well as achieving total customer satisfaction. This entails the Bank's concern and concentration on its own people along with its commitment to the training and development of its staff. The Bank has always been in the forefront incorporating the latest technology with the finest tradition of service, believing that their shareholders are the source of their financial strength. Perhaps the clear vision statement has led the Bank to its strong reputation and growth today. The Bank also aims at expanding its overseas presence in more locations.

BAHRAIN TELECOMMUNICATIONS COMPANY (BATELCO)

Bahrain Telecommunications Company is a Bahraini shareholding Company (BSC), established in 1981. The shareholders include: the Government of Bahrain, quasi government institutions, leading financial and commercial institutions along with Bahraini and non-Bahraini citizens. Between them they own 80% of the shares, with Cable & Wireless of the UK owning the remaining 20%. The company provides business and domestic users a range of integrated communications solutions, including fixed and mobile telephone services, Internet service, data communication, facsimile, paging, international leased circuits, maritime communications, e-commerce, integrated corporate messaging, global managed data service and other associated voice and data communications solutions. It operates in a challenging and rapidly changing global business environment influenced by a range of prevailing and imminent trends in the industry. Therefore, the company has clearly defined its objectives in terms of enhancing customer and employee satisfaction, sustaining revenue and growth along with improving efficiency. The company has made a lot of achievements over the years and is continuing to grow and expand. Batelco's activities go beyond Bahrain's boundaries by participating in key investment projects both at the regional and global levels.

The new millennium brought further progress and expansion for the Company. In the year 2000, it became the first telecommunications company in the region to offer Wireless Application Protocol (WAP) service. In 2003, Batelco underwent dramatic changes, as it transformed from being a monopoly in the market to a company that faced competitors. This meant a holistic shift in the company's objectives and goals. Due to the changes that took place in the year 2003, the company introduced a more effective structure that increased the number of people under each manager, and consequently reduced the overall

number of managers. As a result, around 300 jobs were cut at the company as part of the policy. The restructure of Batelco during 2003 and 2004 made the Company better organised, more efficient and customer focused, which is essential to meet the challenges of competition. New products and services were introduced to meet such a competition.

"In the past, customers had no choice but Batelco, so employees did not respond or take good care of customers. This is because the employees were protected by the system. This has changed due to the open market competition and employees have to respond positively to customers, changing their attitudes and behaviour, and performing well or they may face losing their jobs. Being open to the market was a result of global changes in business and economy, which exerted pressure on the Company to change and become an open system" (An interview with one of the General Managers in this research).

The year 2005 witnessed further progress and success for the company, as Bahrain's telecommunications market became completely liberalised, giving more choices for customers than before. During this year, the company invested BD9 million in a network expansion programme that gave Bahrain's mobile users more capacity and better coverage. Additionally, the Company obtained various awards on quality that led to its success. Batelco is continuing to build strong strategies and plans for the future, as well as continuing to contribute towards the society, and responding to various charitable organisations in the Kingdom.

APPENDIX B

EMOTIONAL QUOTIENT MODEL

The "Know Yourself, Choose Yourself, Give Yourself" model turns EQ theory into practice for your personal and professional life. Emotional intelligence is the capacity to get optimal results from your relationships with yourself and others. To provide a practical and simple way to learn and practice emotional intelligence, Six Seconds developed a three-part model in 1997. To be emotionally intelligent means to "Know Yourself," "Choose Yourself," and "Give Yourself." The model draws on the work of Peter Salovey, Ph.D. (one of our advisory board members), and Jack Mayer, Ph.D. who first defined EQ as a scientific concept. It also aligns with the model popularized by Daniel Goleman in his 1995 book, *Emotional Intelligence*, which endorses our EQ curriculum *Self-Science*. The Six Seconds' EQ model also aligns with the 15 competencies defined by Reuven BarOn, Ph.D, in his EQ-i test, and the structure of Q-Metrics' test, the EQ Map created by Esther Orioli and advisory board member Robert Cooper, Ph.D.

The three major parts of Six Seconds' model are:

- Know Yourself is increasing self-awareness. It is based on understanding how you function.
- Choose Yourself is building self-management. It focuses on consciously choosing your thoughts, feelings, and actions.
- Give Yourself is developing self-direction. It comes from using empathy and principled decision-making to increase wisdom and to create a more

compassionate, healthy world.

There are eight key skills, or fundamentals, of emotional intelligence. They are divided into the three parts of the model.

Six Seconds' eight fundamental EQ skills

Know Yourself	*Choose Yourself*	*Give Yourself*
Enhance Emotional Literacy Recognize Patterns	Apply Consequential Thinking Navigate Emotions Engage Intrinsic Motivation Exercise Optimism	Increase Empathy Pursue Noble Goals

Details of the above Model:

	Questions	**Components**
Know Yourself	What makes you think, act and feel the way you do? What parts of your reaction are habitual (done without conscious thought) and which parts are intentional? What are you afraid of?	Self-awareness: the recognition of the causes and effects of your own feelings and reaction. Self-honesty: the acceptance of your own qualities and faults, your own experiences and emotions, and your own power. Independence: the recognition of your own rights and responsibilities as a free person

Choose Yourself	How do you know what is right for you? Can you increase your awareness of your actions so that you see their effects? If you were not afraid, what would you do? Can you live with doing less that what is right?	Delay gratification: take "right" action even though there may not be immediate reward. Prioritize: bring to the forefront of your mind a "checklist" of what is most important so you can weigh decisions and actions. Manage feelings: use simple techniques, like a pause for reflection, to act -- not react. Optimism: recognize that you have choice, that you can make a difference, that you are an important part of a living whole. Accountability: hold yourself to high standards and do what is right... even when it seems hopeless.
Give Yourself	Am I leaving a legacy of good? Am I healing or hurting? Do I live the golden rule? Will I die knowing I lived well?	Interdependence: the recognition of an individual's place in the larger community; awareness and decision making that takes into account the short & long term consequences of our actions. Empathy: use your awareness to guide your choices. Noble Goals: commit to action that serves ideals & serves others, but does not hurt anyone and does not profit one over another.

KNOW YOURSELF

Is a process of increasing self-awareness. It is based on understanding how you function. There are two fundamental skills in this section, "Enhance Emotional Literacy" and "Recognize Patterns."

Enhance Emotional Literacy

Feelings are a complex aspect of every person. While research has identified eight "core" feelings (fear, joy, acceptance, anger, sorrow, disgust, surprise, anticipation), we each experience dozens, even hundreds, of variations each day. These emotions blend and merge, and frequently they conflict. This EQ fundamental helps us sort out all of those feelings, name them, and begin to understand their causes and effects. It also helps us understand how emotions function in our brains and bodies, and the interaction of thought, feeling, and action.

Recognize Patterns

The human brain follows patterns, or neural pathways. Stimulus leads to response and, over time, the response becomes habitual as the pathway becomes a road, the road a highway, and the highway a super expressway. Then it requires extraordinary measures to interrupt the established habit. The patterns include thinking, feeling, and action in a continuous cycle. At a young age, we learn lessons of how to cope, how to get our needs met, and how to protect ourselves. These strategies reinforce one another, and we develop a complex structure of beliefs to support the validity of the behaviors. Often this system of patterns serves us well, and at other times it leads us to unconsciously create the opposite of what we really want.

CHOOSE YOURSELF

It is all about building self-management. It focuses on consciously choosing your thoughts, feelings, and actions. There are four fundamentals: "Apply Consequential Thinking"; "Navigate Emotions"; "Engage Intrinsic Motivation"; and "Exercise Optimism."

Apply Consequential Thinking

This "habit of mind" stems from a clear assessment of the consequences of our choices and the ability to imagine the cause and effect relationships. This process allows us to be as impulsive as we truly want to be, but it also allows us to delay gratification when the consequences are undesirable and/or painful.

Consequential thinking is key to evaluating and re-choosing our thoughts, feelings, and actions.

We each make countless decisions each hour. What should I eat for lunch? What clothes should I wear today? Which book should I read? Which person should I ask? We make those decisions unconsciously based on our patterns, habits, and our personal priorities. The choices shape us. In order to create integrity, we must look at the costs and benefits of the small actions as well as the large ones, and align our actions with our intentions.

Navigate Emotions

People are often told to control their emotions, to suppress feelings like anger, joy, or fear, and cut them off from the decision-making process. This old paradigm suggests that emotions make us less effective; nothing could be farther from current research. Feelings provide insight, energy, and often are the real basis for almost every decision. Instead of disconnecting our emotions, we need to slow down our reactions so that we have time to make the most creative, insightful, and powerful decisions. Particularly when dealing with conflict or crisis, we benefit by slowing the process down, carefully engaging both heart and mind, and creating productive solutions. When we become skilled at sensing, labelling, and using our own emotions, we are able to harness them as a source of information and motivation. Emotions are the fuel for change -- the challenge is to refine and utilize that energy -- to carefully choose how we will use the power of our feelings.

"Motivation" comes from the Latin meaning "to move." In essence, we take action because it feels rewarding to do so. The challenge to is manage and sustain our energy levels and ensure that we are able to persevere through the challenges. To do so, we must tap into the part of ourselves that has a longer view and find the reward within ourselves. Otherwise, we are dependent on feedback from others and can easily be swayed from our true intentions. As we learn to get the validation we need from inside we create inner strength and the power to continuously grow.

Exercise Optimism

Optimism confirms our long-term motivation because it allows us see the future as positive and worthwhile. Optimism is the vehicle to see beyond the present and anticipate the future. It is tied to resiliency and to perseverance, which are two skills that most affect our ability to function despite the stresses and challenges of day-to-day life. Optimism means recognizing that we each have the power to make change -- that we make a difference -- and that though our efforts the world can improve. Our perceptions of the future create the

present; optimistic thinking immediately enhances our lives.

GIVE YOURSELF

Give Yourself is developing self-direction. It comes from using empathy and principled decision-making to increase wisdom and to create a more compassionate, healthy world. The two core skills are "Increase Empathy" and "Pursue Noble Goals."

Increase Empathy

Empathy is the ability to recognize and respond to other people's emotions. We actually experience for ourselves the emotions of others; it hurts us to hurt others or to see them hurt. Therefore, we all benefit when that hurt can be resolved. Thus, empathy is the force that validates the Golden Rule. Some parts of empathy are instinctive. For example, infants and toddlers will reach out and touch others in distress; in maternity wards, one infant's tears will lead to a room full of crying babies. These actions are the first steps towards building empathic responses. Unfortunately, this unconscious or instinctive behavior does not automatically lead to conscious empathy. Instead, these flickering flames must be carefully banked and fueled through role-modeling, reinforcement, and practice. Once people develop empathy on a conscious level, it becomes self-reinforcing because it answers a deep-seated need to build sustaining relationships with others.

Pursue Noble Goals

Noble goals activate all of the other elements of EQ. Through our goals, our missions, and our acts of human kindness, the commitment to emotional intelligence gains relevance and power for improving the world today and tomorrow. Just as our personal priorities shape our daily choices, our noble goals shape our long-term choices. They give us a sense of direction, they give us a spar to hold in the storm, and they are the compasses for our soul. A noble goal provides a measure for your daily actions and invites your best self to step forward. All the "inside" aspects of emotional intelligence change your attitudes, perceptions, and beliefs. They shape your own life; they help you become the person you want to be. Your noble goals touch the future.

APPENDIX C

EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK

SOURCES: This generic competence framework distills findings from: *MOSAIC competencies for professional and administrative occupations* (U.S. Office of Personnel Management); Spencer and Spencer, *Competence at Work*; and top performance and leadership competence studies published in Richard H. Rosier (ed.), *The Competency Model Handbook, Volumes One and Two* (Boston : Linkage, 1994 and 1995), especially those from Cigna, Sprint, American Express, Sandoz Pharmaceuticals; Wisconsin Power and Light; and Blue Cross and Blue Shield of Maryland. Much of the material that follows comes from *Working with Emotional Intelligence* by Daniel Goleman (Bantam, 1998).

PERSONAL COMPETENCE

Self-Awareness

EMOTIONAL AWARENESS: Recognizing one's emotions and their effects. People with this competence:

Know which emotions they are feeling and why

Realize the links between their feelings and what they think, do, and say

Recognize how their feelings affect their performance

Have a guiding awareness of their values and goals

ACCURATE SELF-ASSESSMENT: Knowing one's strengths and limits. People with this competence are:

Aware of their strengths and weaknesses

Reflective, learning from experience

Open to candid feedback, new perspectives, continuous learning, and self-development

Able to show a sense of humor and perspective about themselves

SELF-CONFIDENCE: Sureness about one's self-worth and capabilities. People with this competence:

Present themselves with self-assurance; have "presence"

Can voice views that are unpopular and go out on a limb for what is right

Are decisive, able to make sound decisions despite uncertainties and pressures

Self-Regulation

SELF-CONTROL: Managing disruptive emotions and impulses. People with this competence:

Manage their impulsive feelings and distressing emotions well

Stay composed, positive, and unflappable even in trying moments

Think clearly and stay focused under pressure

TRUSTWORTHINESS: Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity. People with this competence:

Act ethically and are above reproach

Build trust through their reliability and authenticity

Admit their own mistakes and confront unethical actions in others

Take tough, principled stands even if they are unpopular

CONSCIENTIOUSNESS: Taking responsibility for personal performance. People with this competence:

Meet commitments and keep promises

Hold themselves accountable for meeting their objectives

Are organized and careful in their work

ADAPTABILITY: Flexibility in handling change. People with this competence:

Smoothly handle multiple demands, shifting priorities, and rapid change

Adapt their responses and tactics to fit fluid circumstances

Are flexible in how they see events

INNOVATIVENESS: Being comfortable with and open to novel ideas and new information. People with this competence:

Seek out fresh ideas from a wide variety of sources

Entertain original solutions to problems

Generate new ideas

Take fresh perspectives and risks in their thinking

Self-Motivation

ACHIEVEMENT DRIVE: Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence. People with this competence:

Are results-oriented, with a high drive to meet their objectives and standards

Set challenging goals and take calculated risks

Pursue information to reduce uncertainty and find ways to do better

Learn how to improve their performance

COMMITMENT: Aligning with the goals of the group or organization. People with this competence:

Readily make personal or group sacrifices to meet a larger organizational goal

Find a sense of purpose in the larger mission

Use the group's core values in making decisions and clarifying choices

Actively seek out opportunities to fulfill the group's mission

INITIATIVE: Readiness to act on opportunities. People with this competence:

Are ready to seize opportunities

Pursue goals beyond what's required or expected of them

Cut through red tape and bend the rules when necessary to get the job done

Mobilize others through unusual, enterprising efforts

OPTIMISM: Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks. People with this competence:

Persist in seeking goals despite obstacles and setbacks

Operate from hope of success rather than fear of failure

See setbacks as due to manageable circumstance rather than a personal flaw

SOCIAL COMPETENCE

Social Awareness

EMPATHY: Sensing others' feelings and perspective, and taking an active interest in their concerns. People with this competence:

Are attentive to emotional cues and listen well

Show sensitivity and understand others' perspectives

Help out based on understanding other people's needs and feelings

SERVICE ORIENTATION: Anticipating, recognizing, and meeting customers' needs. People with this competence:

Understand customers' needs and match them to services or products

Seek ways to increase customers' satisfaction and loyalty

Gladly offer appropriate assistance

Grasp a customer's perspective, acting as a trusted advisor

DEVELOPING OTHERS: Sensing what others need in order to develop, and bolstering their abilities. People with this competence:

Acknowledge and reward people's strengths, accomplishments, and development

Offer useful feedback and identify people's needs for development

Mentor, give timely coaching, and offer assignments that challenge and grow a person's skill

LEVERAGING DIVERSITY: Cultivating opportunities through diverse people. People with this competence:

Respect and relate well to people from varied backgrounds

Understand diverse worldviews and are sensitive to group differences

See diversity as opportunity, creating an environment where diverse people can thrive

Challenge bias and intolerance

POLITICAL AWARENESS: Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships. People with this competence:

Accurately read key power relationships

Detect crucial social networks

Understand the forces that shape views and actions of clients, customers, or competitors

Accurately read situations and organizational and external realities

Social Skills

INFLUENCE: Wielding effective tactics for persuasion. People with this competence:

Are skilled at persuasion

Fine-tune presentations to appeal to the listener

Use complex strategies like indirect influence to build consensus and support

Orchestrate dramatic events to effectively make a point

COMMUNICATION: Sending clear and convincing messages. People with this competence:

Are effective in give-and-take, registering emotional cues in attuning their message

Deal with difficult issues straightforwardly

Listen well, seek mutual understanding, and welcome sharing of information fully

Foster open communication and stay receptive to bad news as well as good

LEADERSHIP: Inspiring and guiding groups and people. People with this competence:

Articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision and mission

Step forward to lead as needed, regardless of position

Guide the performance of others while holding them accountable

Lead by example

CHANGE CATALYST: Initiating or managing change. People with this competence:

Recognize the need for change and remove barriers

Challenge the status quo to acknowledge the need for change

Champion the change and enlist others in its pursuit

Model the change expected of others

CONFLICT MANAGEMENT: Negotiating and resolving disagreements. People with this competence:

Handle difficult people and tense situations with diplomacy and tact

Spot potential conflict, bring disagreements into the open, and help deescalate

Encourage debate and open discussion, Orchestrate win-win solutions

BUILDING BONDS: Nurturing instrumental relationships. People with this competence:

Cultivate and maintain extensive informal networks

Seek out relationships that are mutually beneficial

Build rapport and keep others in the loop

Make and maintain personal friendships among work associates

COLLABORATION AND COOPERATION: Working with others toward shared goals. People with this competence:

Balance a focus on task with attention to relationships

Collaborate, sharing plans, information, and resources

Promote a friendly, cooperative climate

Spot and nurture opportunities for collaboration

TEAM CAPABILITIES: Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals. People with this competence:

Model team qualities like respect, helpfulness, and cooperation

Draw all members into active and enthusiastic participation

Build team identity, esprit de corps, and commitment

Protect the group and its reputation; share credit

APPENDIX D

SAMPLE OF QUESTIONNAIRES

UNIVERSITY OF BAHRAIN
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
DEPARTMENT OF OFFICE MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire investigating emotional competence

Prepared by: Suhaila AlHashemi, PhD researcher

Dear Manager,

You are kindly requested to respond to this questionnaire conducted as part of a research project for my doctoral work. I would like to assure you that your answers will be strictly confidential. Your prompt returning of this questionnaire will be of great value and highly appreciated. As a manager, you are kindly required to fill out two sets of questionnaires: MSI (Participant) along with the ECI (Self), your subordinate will also fill out two sets, at the end your sets along with your subordinate's should be kept together. Your response by October 10, if at all possible, will be highly appreciated.

Highest degree attained and the year

☐ Diploma
☐ Bachelor's degree
☐ Master's degree
☐ PhD

Sex: F ☐ M ☐

Nationality: Bahraini ☐ Non Bahraini ☐

Company:
Department/Section:
Position/Rank/Job Title:

After completing the questionnaire, I would be very grateful if you could take the time to answer some additional questions which would be very valuable as part of conducting this study.

1) What is your overall impression regarding the questionnaire? Do you have any comments on them? Would you like to add anything that you feel was not covered?

2) Looking back at the questionnaires, do you think that the questions were relevant to Bahrain in general and your company's corporate culture in particular?

UNIVERSITY OF BAHRAIN
COLLEGE OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
DEPARTMENT OF OFFICE MANAGEMENT

Questionnaire investigating emotional competence

Prepared by: Suhaila AlHashemi, PhD researcher

Dear Subordinate,

You are kindly requested to respond to this questionnaire conducted as part of a research project for my doctoral work. I would like to assure you that your answers will be strictly confidential. Your prompt returning of this questionnaire will be of great value and highly appreciated. As a subordinate, you are kindly requested to fill out two sets of questionnaires: the MSI (Employee) and the ECI, at the end your sets along with your manager's should be kept together. Your response by October 10, if at all possible, will be highly appreciated.

Highest degree attained and the year

☐ Diploma
☐ Bachelor's degree
☐ Master's degree
☐ PhD

Sex: F ☐ M ☐

Nationality: Bahraini ☐ Non Bahraini ☐

Company:

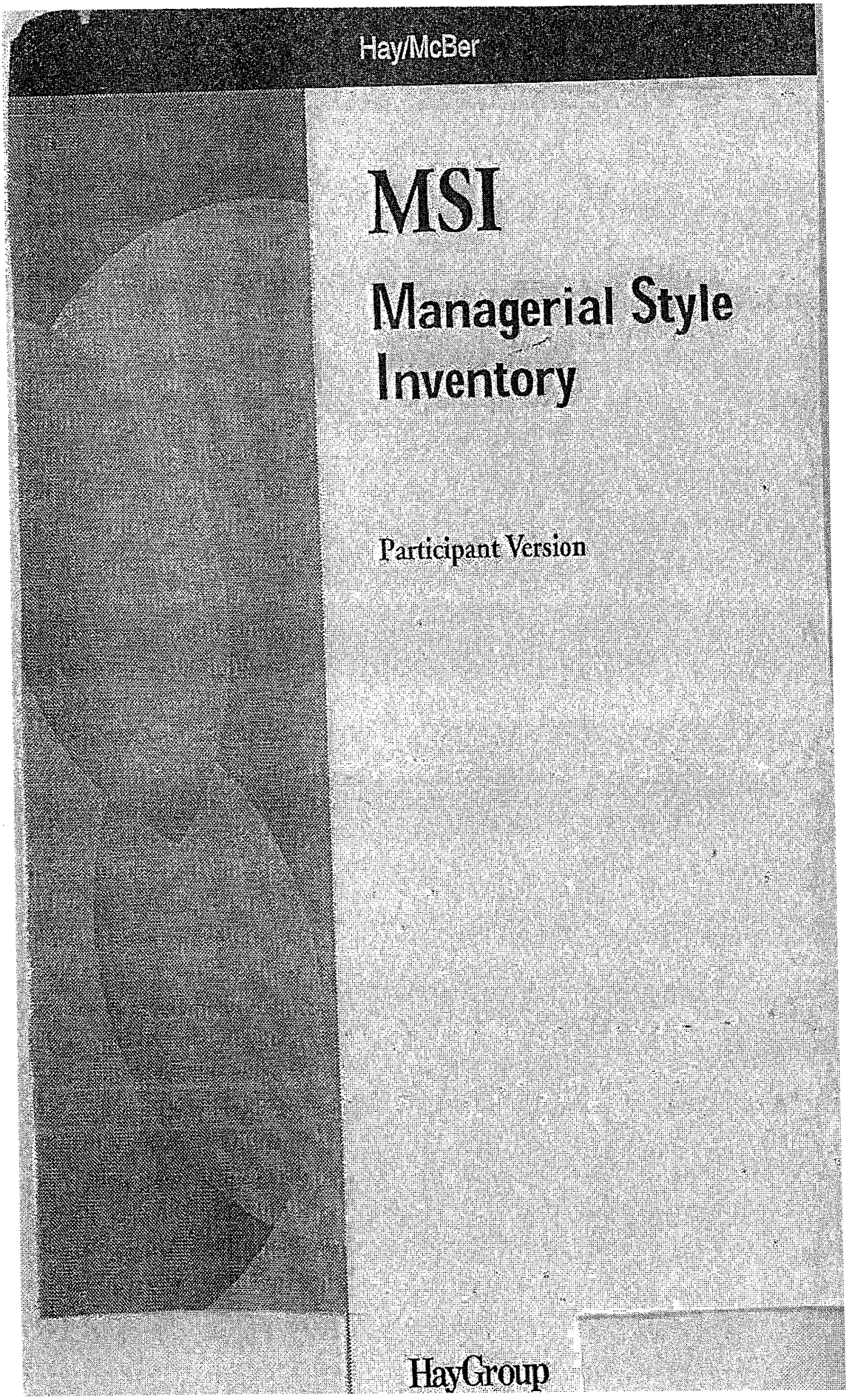
Department/Section:

Position/Rank/Job Title:


Emotional Competence
Inventory–Version 2 (Self)
(ECI 2.0)
Rating Booklet – Self Version

Item Number	Please carefully respond to each survey item below. You:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Consistently	Don't know
1	Seek ways to improve performance						
2	Are uncomfortable with ambiguity						
3	Have sense of humor about yourself						
4	Remove barriers to change						
5	Communicate the positions of those involved in a conflict to all concerned						
6	Listen attentively						
7	Develop behind-the-scenes support						
8	Are an inspirational leader						
9	Understand the organization's values and, unspoken rules						
10	Doubt the ability of others to succeed						
11	Resist the impulse to act immediately						
12	Match customer or client needs to services or products						
13	Are a person others can count on						
14	Act on own values even when there is a significant risk						
15	Set measurable and challenging goals						
16	Change ideas based on new information						

Item Number	Please carefully respond to each survey item below. You:	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Consistently	Don't know
17	Are not defensive when receiving feedback						
18	Personally lead change initiatives						
19	Bring disagreements and grievances into the open						
20	Can see things from someone else's perspective						
21	Gain the buy-in of influential parties						
22	Engage an audience when presenting						
23	Make work exciting						
24	Understand political forces in the organization						
25	Are pessimistic about setbacks						


Hay/McBer
MSI
Managerial Style Inventory
Participant Version
HayGroup

1.	My manager avoids dealing with tensions that arise in my work group.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager works hard to ease tensions whenever they arise in my work group.
2.	My manager requires subordinates to submit detailed reports of their activities.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager does *not* require subordinates to submit detailed reports of their activities.
3.	My manager expects subordinates to follow his/her decisions and figure out for themselves what they have to gain.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager tries to reduce resistance to his/her decisions by telling subordinates what they have to gain.
4.	My manager determines the level of work output for subordinates.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager allows subordinates to establish their own level of work output.
5.	To instruct subordinates, my manager relies primarily on providing an example through his/her own behavior.	A	B	C	D	E	F	To instruct subordinates, my manager talks in detail with them about how things should be done.
6.	My manager does not spend much time reviewing subordinates' progress with them.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager spends a lot of time reviewing subordinates' progress to determine whether adjustments are necessary.
7.	My manager makes sure that he/she does the important tasks himself/herself.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager often delegates important tasks to subordinates.
8.	My manager works to develop close personal relationships with subordinates.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager avoids developing close personal relationships with subordinates.
9.	My manager is reluctant to fire or transfer a person he/she has found to be unmanageable.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager does not hesitate to fire or transfer person he/she considers to be unmanageable.
10.	When subordinates fail at a task, my manager lets them learn the reasons themselves.	A	B	C	D	E	F	When subordinates fail at a task, my manager calmly but firmly lets them know why.
11.	Even when subordinates' work is progressing well, my manager keeps himself/herself involved and provides direction.	A	B	C	D	E	F	As long as my manager sees results, he/she doesn't get involved in subordinates' work.
12.	My manager spends time looking for opportunities for subordinates' professional development.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager lets subordinates find opportunities for their professional development themselves.
13.	My manager avoids talking to subordinates about organizational issues until clear decisions have been made.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager keeps everyone involved and well-informed about organizational issues that may affect them.
14.	My manager does not get concerned about conflict among subordinates.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager discourages arguments that might lead to conflict among subordinates.
15.	My manager often gives orders in the form of a suggestion, but makes it clear what he/she wants.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager rarely gives orders in the form of a suggestion.
16.	My manager makes most decisions for subordinates.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager allows subordinates to make most their own decisions.
17.	My manager does not ordinarily check on subordinates' progress until their assigned tasks are due.	A	B	C	D	E	F	My manager frequently "checks in" with subordinates to see how they are progressing on assig tasks.

APPENDIX E

OUTCOME OF THE INTERVIEWS

The following questions were targeted at 16 executives and managers in an interview that took place in 2003

1. Looking back at the questionnaires, do you think that the questions were relevant to Bahrain in general and your company's corporate culture in particular?

2. What is your overall impression regarding the questionnaire? Do you have any comments on them? Would you like to add anything that you feel was not covered?

3. In your opinion, what do you think are the difficulties that face managers in Bahrain at present, and what do you think are the future challenges?

4. What style of leadership is being followed in your organisation? Do you follow a certain style or a combination and why? From your interactions with different managers in various organisations in Bahrain, what are your feelings regarding their style of management.

In addition to answering the research questions mentioned in chapters 1 and 4.

Chief Executive Officer

CHALLENGES facing Bahraini managers in Bahrain with the new political environment:

1. New political environment. looking into what Daniel Goleman said about Emotional Intelligence, in terms of having empathy and social skills as well as developing rapport with the people and the public. This change in the political environment has allowed people to express freely their views and employees to share in the decision making process. Having a manager who is open-minded, being transparent and having the ability to listen to the employees, use his contacts with people to generate ideas in order to assist in developing the

organisation. Managers who don't believe in such issues, will face many problems. Looking into the freedom of expression by the public has a tremendous impact on the managers. Freedom of choice and expressing their opinions freely, sharing in the decision making , which of course has a lot of impact on employees. The old style of being tough and autocratic will not be very welcomed in this new environment. Such managers will have to try to adapt to this change or they will find it very difficult to survive. Such managers must realize that in this new setting they will have to learn to be perhaps more approachable and be more open, setting examples for others to follow. Therefore, it is a challenge in itself to change the old style of some of the managers.

2. Being transparent in this changing environment, being more open-minded and flexible in management.

Reflecting on past Experience

In the days of the British managers, where the British style prevailed, it was like an army – rigid style, the command and control or the 'Do as I say.' The main objective of management at that time was to organise and control. It may have been the right thing to do at that time, but due to many changes such as: changing environment, more educated workforce that are enlightened with what is going on around them, there was a need to change the old style of management. This CEO had a role in changing the style of management and culture in his organisation, as he experienced both styles during his time. The process of change in his company started in the 1980s. In 1983, the company was the first in Bahrain and in the region, to introduce the mission, vision, values, which are seen as critical factors trying to encourage a more participative style, and having employees to have a say and attempting to involve everyone. Employees should know what the mission and vision of the company is so that everyone would work in the same direction, rather than each division and each manager interprets in their own way what the company wants

to do. "Values play a big part in changing the behaviour of employees," such values played a major role in introducing a new management structure as well as attempting to change corporate culture. The company has moved a long way from an autocratic style towards a more participative management. It still has a long way to go, because culture takes a long time to change. These were one of the main reasons for its success. This CEO strongly believes that corporate culture has an impact on performance. One of the important issues that needs to be taken into consideration in the change process of a culture is acceptance of change as a way of life. This will allow employees to accept further change in the future.

Q] Did you go through difficulties during implementing such changes?

There was a lot of resistance in the beginnings, some managers resisted to changing their style. Such managers believed that their style worked in the past and saw no reason for such a change. There was some apprehension by the employees because they were used to being spoon fed, guided and told what to do. Such employees found it difficult at the beginning to go along with this change. Others believed that such change was a soft style of management, which for them was a weak style. In order to make the change transition smoothly, what the managers did was to conduct bilingual workshops, where each manager would present the mission, values and objectives to the employees. Open discussions took place, and each employee would talk openly about the problems and difficulties they face in his/her department. Criticism from employees was accepted openly, to give the opportunity for such employees to lift the heavy burden off their shoulders. Employees changed from being critics in the open discussions to being gradually more objective. Another step taken in the change process was publishing the mission-vision-values in leaflets and distributing them to the employees in both Arabic and English, and was displayed on notice boards to inform employees that there is new way of doing things. Despite the gradual transition and its

success, there still remain some people who are autocratic, but overall this is less than before. However, the full change in this company remains to be seen. The CEO also believes that the key to success is placing the right people in managerial positions, and never to hire the wrong chief executive.

Emotional Intelligence in the 80s

The CEO strongly believes in emotional intelligence and its application in organisations. He indicates that emotional intelligence is a personal quality, depending on the person and how he/she projects. Some people use emotional intelligence naturally without using authority, and seem to have a natural way of being empathetic and listening to people, being more open and establishing rapport with their employees. The time frame of change in Bahrain is small for a nation. There have been changes and there will be further changes on the way. The public sector still believes in the old style of management as being successful, but by time they will realise the need to change and they will not be able to dictate their terms. The situation will change further as new issues in business evolve. There is more openness in the society and freedom, and managers with the old style of management can no longer dictate their style.

General Manager

(Q3) Challenges facing managers in Bahrain

1. Managers proving themselves to the leadership and the system in terms of ability and assuming responsibility. It was always believed in Bahrain that the expatriates have more knowledge and are overall better than the Bahraini managers. Therefore, Bahraini managers had to put extra effort in order to change this view. "I believe that Bahraini managers are the best managers in the world, given the opportunity, proper training and development.... They can be the best leaders and managers." This statement, according to the GM, is based on facts. International benchmarking studies by independent

organisations' statement has proved the high level of Bahraini managers in his organisation. This was not easy to achieve, because the managers in had to overcome the various hurdles of the mental block that Bahraini managers are not capable.

2. Changing the mentality of the subordinates. They believed that anything that was from outside Bahrain was better. The challenge for the Bahraini manager was to educate them to meet such a competition. It was a challenge for Bahraini managers, they had to also prove to their subordinates that their capabilities met the expatriates' and that the old view no longer holds.

3. Technical & technological advancements. Being away from the industrial world in terms of accessibility to information, technology and material that allows us to continue our growth. Bahraini managers need to endeavour to meet advancements in various areas, such as in the areas of technology, leadership and management. In terms of theories of management and keeping in pace with the latest applications and different theories. Bahraini managers have met world wide challenges and are into reading and exploring and gaining further knowledge to be in line with the latest in management and technology.

4. Social and political front. Things are no longer the same in Bahrain, with the openness in society and democracy.

5. Adapting to the changes in Bahrain. Employees today vary considerably; they no longer have to do what they are told. Managers today have to give employees the choice and provide justification for any changes. They are more challenging and question everything, unlike in the past.

6. Bahrainisation – in terms of training and educating Bahrainis, as well as giving them confidence and trusting their abilities. The challenge comes to the managers to accept this fact and giving them the opportunity to excel. How far have Bahrainis overcome these challenges? in some organisations, the Bahraini managers have overcome most of the challenges in an excellent way. Solution to such challenges will also change by time. Managers should look at such challenges and attempt to accept it and adjust to the rapid changes.

Experience

This organisation had the vision, which came to reality - what they had anticipated in term of changes – foreseeing what to expect. They ensured that the system followed would cater for such developments and changes in the society. So the company developed various programs and training for the managers. Bahrainis in this company are putting their heart into work to accomplish things.

(Q4) The leadership style followed. It is characterised by the participative management style, working as a one team organisation, respecting its employees, emphasising on the core values and beliefs of the organisation. It follows a flexible style of giving opportunities to everyone to take part. Even if the General Manager is not present, the system flows smoothly as it should be, and it does not mean that everything will come to a halt. Another feature of the management style is being transparent, creating a relaxing environment for employees to be in. His organisation was the first company in Bahrain to have a labour union, a step forward in empathising and respecting employees and that they are the biggest asset of the company. Eight committees were created within the union, and it involved all aspects of the company and business activities. As for the leadership styles being followed in other organisations in Bahrain, they fall into two main categories: a) categories that follow democracy, b) the rest that do not follow the latest pace in the management style and the challenges we discussed earlier. Such companies also do not fully apply labour unions.

The GM concluded by stating that if the system in the country changes, the companies have to change in accordance with the latest in the country and in the world. It is also very important to let employees participate in the decision making, and this is a strong belief in his organisation, which makes a lot of difference.

Manager

(Q3) Difficulties facing managers and the challenges facing the petrochemicals industry in Bahrain

One of the main difficulties is perhaps democracy, which would take some time to be fully implemented in organisations in Bahrain. The following are two main challenges:

a- Limited natural resources compared with other Gulf countries. This would somehow limit expansion and restrict promotions. Despite that, the company a very well educated workforce.

b- External challenges: technology & environmental challenges.

(Q4) Style of Leadership followed in his company and other organisations

The style of management is very much related to qualification. Technology has had an impact in terms of managers learning and gaining knowledge and the latest views. His organisation allows employees to participate in major events as a way of directing the energy of employees and their health. The company has an open culture based on teamwork with various committees, which are very productive, giving employees an opportunity to be in touch with each other. This would also help in pinpointing active people, which would help in promoting employees and tapping on their potential. The company has many social activities to help in socialising employees as well as interacting their families. This leads to increase the bonding between employees, which has benefited the company greatly. As for the management styles in organisations in Bahrain, it has changed due the overall changes in the country. With time things may change further.

(Q1) Comments regarding some of the questions. Confronting ethical issues: depends on the level of management. A junior manager or staff may get punished, whereas the senior manager may somehow get away with it. It would be difficult to confront immediately. The best thing is to take such

issues case by case. With regards to publicly admitting mistakes: this would be extremely difficult as our culture is still traditional, where democracy is still not fully applied.

Maintenance Manager

(Q.3) -- Lack of availability of competent people due to the educational system in Bahrain, where graduates are not competent to face challenges at work. Another challenge facing managers is that being a small community, things and issues spread easily and reputation is effected due to cultural issues. I tried to disregard such issues, but there are managers who are still intertwined with cultural issues

(Q.4) In Bahrain I think there is a bit of selfishness among managers, where they are not considering the group's interest. This is perhaps due to the cultural aspects that are still intertwined. It starts from the top levels and it goes down to the lower levels. There is a mixture of different styles in my organisation but the dominant feature is perhaps taking care of employees, encouraging them to participate in every aspect and to engage in team work. The company used to have what is so called a Joint Labor Committee that started 10 years ago, but this is now replaced by labor unions. The company also has a suggestions program, where employees present suggestions that are raised to top management and taken into consideration. Employees seem to work in harmony due to the various activities presented by the company that plays a role in bringing employees together.

(Q.1) Overall, had no problem with the questions, and there wasn't anything specific that was not suitable to the organisational culture in Bahrain. **(Q.2)** He was impressed with the questionnaires, he thought that the ECI would be very useful for him as a manager, in terms of having feedback about himself and how his subordinates' think about him. Although some managers may not respond honestly to some of the questions especially if the questions reflect the

negative side of him/her, or if the questions were used by the company, where the manager may not reflect his/her true style. Regarding the question: encouraging employees to talk about personal problems, The manager feels indifference about it. It is not culturally tied and he takes personal issues of others into consideration and considers circumstances of others, being more flexible with employees according to the situation. Regarding disciplining employees, since Mr. _____ was educated in the US, he has a more open-minded approach towards employees.

Ex-General Manager

(Q.3) From your organisation's point of view, the following are the challenges put forward:

a. Style of management: Since the company is transforming from a monopoly to a competitive firm, necessitating change in its management style. Operating in an open market system has an impact on employees. In the past, customers had no choice but this organisation, so employees did not respond and take care of its customers. This, however has changed due to the open market system, and employees have to respond positively to customers and perform well or they may face loosing their jobs. In the past employees were protected by the system, this is no longer in practice. Employees had to change their behaviour to keep their jobs and to satisfy customers. Being open to the market is a result of global issues in business and economy, which placed emphasis on the company to change and become an open system.

b. External and internal challenges. Internal challenges come from the society and changes in the country. Forces such as family upbringing to the children, and its effects on their careers. Family norms are changing in Bahrain, in the past we used to respect our parents greatly and wouldn't argue with them, whereas nowadays the young generation question everything and require

answers and actions taken by the parents. External challenges come from outside forces such as economical and business. The war in Iraq had an impact on our operations and directions of the company.

(Q4) Democratic style is followed in this organisation, with a very open system, being flexible and transparent. This leads people to take on more responsibilities. " we believe in being very honest with our employees. We also try to be committed to our list of ethical codes and values. We allow employees to participate in the decision making, working side by side with the trade unions" She believes the style of management in Bahrain is still autocratic, although this is now changing. The question here is to what extent is this change and how open will it be. This is again questionable, for there are still cultural and social issues and norms prevailing.

(Q1) & (Q2). Confronting ethical issues in the ECI: this is relevant to our culture, and people should be aware and recognise its importance. Every organisation has its own politics. It depends on the individual's ethical beliefs and background. We have to learn how to deal with organisational politics. She confronts such situations and believes that one cannot let unethical behaviour to continue. Not confronting means there is something wrong and one has to search for facts. When an individual does unethical things, we have to look at that individual, is he/she serious? We have to look at those issues through religion. This Ex-GM believes that unethical issues would be somehow the same anywhere regardless of the culture. People who have religion and believe in certain values and beliefs, which is based on societal values that is at the end derived from religion.

Communications Manager

(Q.1) & (Q2). She feels that some of the questions fall in between two sets, where she found some questions were general and broad in scope. As for the

question: understanding political forces: the higher you go up the more you can understand the politics at work and the more you are in control of the decision making and why certain decisions are taken. Employees may not be fully aware of the politics at work because they are not in the core of the major decision making. This question depends on how high a person is in the management level. There are certain factors that influence and determine to which level people have understandings of politics at work: timing, level of management, organisation culture, background of the person, external and internal forces, as well as experience. Regarding confronting ethical issues: It depends on the situation and the person, whether the person will accept confrontation or not. So one has to assess the situation at hand and then take action but only after careful thinking or else it may backfire. As for delegating tasks or in terms of making sure that important tasks are performed by the manager himself/herself : she would perform some of the tasks herself, but it depends on the situation one is in, and finds that this question was difficult for her to pinpoint on the scale. In terms of maintaining close relationships, she doesn't believe in it and she has no close friendship at work. Looking for opportunity for employees' developments, this depends on the organisation and the situation. In this organisation for instance, there is no career development and career path. When it comes to job security and benefits, this is tied to the situation at the moment in this company, as they are now in the phase of downsizing.

Manager

(Q.3) "The open system and democracy requires time to be implemented fully" There are some barriers towards the full implementation of democracy and change. **(Q4)** " It is an open system, views are expressed but the understanding of democracy has to be understood and applied properly." "We had the idea of a labour union in ____ from the Joint Consultative Committees

established over ten years ago, where there were voting rights for the members. The management style, according to Mr. _____, depends on the personality of the manager. He is a member of the Bahrain management society and sees that the management style is open and most of the large companies in Bahrain have labour unions, which means managerial styles would therefore be more flexible. He talked about his working experiencing prior to his current job, in one of the large industries in Bahrain back in the 1970s. He described the management style at that time as being very open and flexible, despite democracy not being used as a managerial style in other organisations in Bahrain at that time. The reason for that is the mixture of nationalities working in that company which lead to a combination of management styles, characterised by being open and flexible.

(Q1) & (Q2): Confronting ethical issues. This is more open now due to labour unions emerging many in organisations in Bahrain, where open discussions takes place with employees, and they are involved in a lot of issues concerning the company. In the past people used to hesitate to have a say. There are also differences between the young generation and the old generation. Mr. _____would confront and take immediate action because if such issues are not confronted, then more problems would occur.

Training Manager

(Q.3) The following are some of the challenges and difficulties:

a. Maintaining pace with the changes taking place and responding appropriately to such changes. Understanding the impact of such changes to the organisation and what needs to be done to survive. At ____, business planning exercise is being applied and includes the following basic factors: values, mission, vision and purpose.

b. Competing with the state of the art refineries all over the world by modernising his company and the attempt of the government to follow

international regulations.

(Q.4) Overall, there are still people who are autocratic but the overall style in Bahrain can be said to be a mixture of styles.

(Q.1) & (Q.2) In terms of firing or transferring a person found to be unmanageable, this is culture sensitive, especially in Bahrain due to the emotional aspects involved in the culture and family ties. When it comes to subordinates failing in a task and what actions the manager takes, the culture here is a bit sensitive towards confrontation where most people avoid negative feedback. In the West for instance, the employee performance appraisal is more direct unlike here where managers tend to minimize being direct. Disciplining subordinates: this is not directly followed in our culture. The following question is very much related to our culture, it has its presence in this part of the world: I try to be a popular manager: This question is also very relevant to our culture: I avoid telling my subordinates directly when they have done something wrong, . Regarding sharing information with his staff: Mr. ___ tries to involve as many employees as possible so that they would better understand change. Issues regarding criticising subordinates: this is difficult due to again the culture in Bahrain. Making decisions and supervising closely: this is extremely sensitive and is very much the case in our part of the world.

Training Supervisor

(Q3) Dealing effectively and professionally with Trade Unions movements for both sides: the management and the unions. They have to learn to interact with one another, working in partnership with each other so as to serve the best interest of the organisation. The following are some of the difficulties and challenges facing managers, according to the supervisor:

a. Managing resources. Due to increase in competition, managers will have to learn to manage in a competitive environment and work in different arenas.

b. Increase in population, which would lead to increase in demand for jobs. Therefore, part of the organisaiton's responsibilities towards the society is to accept managing issues of employment, providing scholarship for students and accepting to train university students.

c. Managing change in the turbulent business environment. It started with Batelco who went through the phase of changing its business from a monopoly to a company that has to face competition. Such change required managers to posses multi-skills, learn to become leaders of the future, and manage within the rapidly changing arena.

d. Leading people through change. People who enter organisations with production line for instance and used to stay in the same job for years no longer face this issue. People in this company are working on developing projects and this may be the case in the future.

(Q.1) & (Q.2)

The following question might not be clear for people who are weak in English language: Is not politically savvy at work. The wording of this question is confusing to people with weak understanding of English. The word savvy could be unclear and misleading for some people. Some of the questions are not specific, for instance: when subordinates fail a task, I let them learn the reasons ... As long as I see results, I don't get involved: In such questions, there is no suggestion for the coaching role. Also, there is nothing in the question that suggests managers would guide the employees. As for: I set goals that are easy for my subordinates to meet, here the wording needs to be changed, so perhaps use the word challenging when describing how the manager sets goals. I help my subordinates think through the 'who, when, and how' of completing tasks: some mangers simply tell employees what to do, so its neither of the two aspects in the question. Furthermore, some managers don't actually help but they hand over tasks. This question is not very clear: I hold moderate standards of performance for my subordinates, is not clear

when it says holds, this word is not clear as to the exact meaning and would therefore be misleading for people with weak understanding of English. Regarding using warnings to motivate employees: this does not apply to the culture in Bahrain. Such issues are 'swept under the carpet,' so the managers would avoid using warnings to avoid receiving negative issues and to motivate employees.

Training Center

(Q.3) Perhaps the major challenge is to move from a directive management style towards empowering employees. Organisations believe that 'our people are our most valued asset,' therefore our organisation has to strongly believe in this. Intensive competition and Economic constraints are other challenges facing organisations in Bahrain. **(Q.4)** In Bahrain, leadership is becoming less and less traditional and charismatic, moving towards a more flexible style and being up-to-date.

Vice President

(Q.3) Cost is very important especially when competition has to be taken into consideration. We are importing everything for our operations, therefore we have to find ways of cutting cost of other things in order to survive and be in line with the competition. Adjusting the cost of labour and materials is a major challenge. There is a high fixed cost due to the Bahrainisation and this is a challenge on its own. To overcome this challenge, the company has in-house contractors, which enables the company to expand and grow and compete on a world-wide basis. This is the basic culture in.

(Q1) & (Q2). In terms of transferring or firing a person who is seen as unmanageable: This is difficult, but have to find a way that is acceptable in Bahrain. Emotional issues are very sensitive in our culture, especially in terms

of the reputation of the company in the market.

Public Relations Consultant

(Q.3) The following are some of the main challenges facing his organisation:

a. Global changes such as GATT and quality control certifications. We have to keep in pace with such changes. In terms of quality control, the organisation concentrates on effectiveness of productivity, where such initiation starts from top management.

b. World wide competition - Locally there is very little competition for his organisation, but there is competition within the Gulf region.

c. The establishment of the society for public relations manager is yet a new challenge. This necessitates promoting PR side in Bahrain. Bahrain would be considered the second country in the Gulf after Kuwait to establish this society. The organisation is also looking into having ties with the PR society in America. **(Q.4)** Due to Mr. ____ being in the public relations area which is different from other divisions because it relies on working as a team with others whether from the company or outside, being very cooperative and trying to maintain good relationships.

Marketing Manager

(Q.3)

a. Globalisation and what comes after it is a major challenge. Although he is personally against globalisation. "We are facing these problems nowadays and we are going to face the consequences. Of course every company will be effected, everyone will be eaten by the stronger and this is how the process is."

b. Competition is a problem and a challenge in the face of continuous change.

c. Survival in a turbulent market and changing market.

d. Planning. For production we plan for two months, but it is very difficult to determine what comes after and what will happen

e. Leadership style is another challenge which is difficult especially that his organisation is dealing with various nations and clients from different parts of the world.

Manager

(Q.3) Perhaps the major challenge is the shift from the autocratic style to a teamwork- based style. Another challenge is the ability of different disciplines working across the organisation. Yet another challenge is to have managers with strong training in management. Some managers have technical qualifications but they lack managerial skills. This is very important for his organisation, especially that Bahrain is looking at Bahrainisation. Managerial competency is an area that needs to be looked into.

(Q.4) The style of management followed in Bahrain used to be mainly command and control. The downsides of this style is that it does not take into consideration emotions of employees. The consultative style is very much encouraged. Bahrainis are known to be protective, but this is gradually changing due to the shift in life style and attitudes of people, in addition to the changing political environment in Bahrain.

(Q1) He found the questions to be straight forward.

(Q2) In terms of transferring or firing a person who is seen as unmanageable: This is difficult to do in this company due to the culture mix. For expatriates, it would be easier done by terminating their contracts, but it is difficult to do that for Bahrainis. As for developing employees, Chris is very keen to develop employees, particularly the Bahrainis. Regarding understanding political forces in the organisation: These are not directly work related, it may be difficult for some people to understand. The higher you go up in the

organisation, the better one is able to understand such politics. People at the lower end depend on rumours regarding what is going on in the organisation.

Assistant General Manager – e-Banking

(Q3) The following are some of the **challenges facing managers**: a) Coping with the speed of change, trying to look for something better and executing such change. b) Creating a healthy environment, which is very essential. **(Q.4)** They follow the style of caring for each other, creating a positive friendly environment, as well as maintaining good relationships with each other. He stressed on having such an environment to promote success and loyalty towards their managers and the company, that would lead to being loyal towards the country. He believes in making people's job interesting and exciting that would help in boosting such a positive environment. He believes that leadership is something you were born with and it comes within the person. This doesn't mean that people cannot become leaders, but it takes considerable training and requires experience. Here, decision-making is decentralised and we lead by example. It is very important for leaders to practice and believe in what he is doing. Objectives are very well defined at all levels in this organisation. There is an autonomy, whereby employees are only monitored from a distance, which of course gives them far more responsibilities. The managers at have a lot of social activities, like going out for a business lunch or evenings and getting together

(Q1) & (Q2) Regarding understanding political forces in the organisation: There is politics at work, but perhaps it is less in the private sector. There are managers who hold on to their position as if it was eternal. Managers should train people who can replace them at some stage, and this calls for hiring people who are qualified. He tries to understand politics at work, where a lot of decisions depend on understanding such politics. "You cannot avoid politics at work, and we tend to take things very personal in our culture." Some issues

are culture sensitive in our culture, and people tend to mix personal and emotions with business and take issues sensitively. It is difficult not to find anyone in Bahrain or the Gulf and the Arab world not doing that. As for Confronting unethical issues: I try to confront unethical issues immediately, although it would sometimes backfire on people, "I raise it immediately, maybe not 100 percent but at least 98 percent. I would talk to them fairly and provide an advice to them." The role of trust is very important here, in that employees trust in each other and in their manager (s).

Senior International Banking

(Q.3) The biggest challenge facing managers in Bahrain is perhaps change, especially in the banking sector. The focus in business has changed, as well as changes in the market and customers. Therefore it requires managers to be proactive and to think ahead. Technological changes as well as developing new products pose a challenge. This necessitates constantly relearning and training. Therefore his company has to be ahead of other financial institutions in Bahrain. Another challenge is globalisation, competing with foreign firms in addition to the local market. Yet another challenge is training people at work.

(Q.4) Very delegative and participative style. Nothing is forced down and there is freedom among employees to question. Everyone is involved and people are satisfied about being involved in setting objectives and participating in the decision making process. This organisation follows an open leadership style. "I found that the culture in Bahrain and India are very similar," where in both cultures, people try to mould their style according to the leadership style. Mr. ____ commented on the similarities in both cultures are due to the similarities in family ties.

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHICS DETAILS

Table 1.1 Distribution of the sample size among the five organisations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bapco	27	26.2	27.6	27.6
	Batelco	32	31.1	32.7	60.2
	BBK	16	15.5	16.3	76.5
	GPIC	21	20.4	21.4	98.0
	Asry	2	1.9	2.0	100.0
	Total	98	95.1	100.0	
Missing	System	5	4.9		
Total		103	100.0		

Table 1.2 Distribution of the sample size among Department/Section

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Power & Utilities	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Public Relations	3	2.9	3.1	5.2
	Finance	10	9.7	10.4	15.6
	Human Resources	5	4.9	5.2	20.8
	Business Development	9	8.7	9.4	30.2
	Service Manag.	10	9.7	10.4	40.6
	I.T.	19	18.4	19.8	60.4
	Marketing	8	7.8	8.3	68.8
	Engineering	4	3.9	4.2	72.9
	Quality Assurance	3	2.9	3.1	76.0
	E- Banking	6	5.8	6.3	82.3
	Operations	6	5.8	6.3	88.5
	Risk Management	3	2.9	3.1	91.7
	Maintenance	4	3.9	4.2	95.8
	Administration	4	3.9	4.2	100.0
	Total	96	93.2	100.0	
Missing	System	7	6.8		
Total		103	100.0		

Table 1.3 Distribution of the sample size: Nature of Work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		39	37.9	37.9	37.9
	Acquisition and Joint Ventures	1	1.0	1.0	38.8
	Besides supervising 50 employees intermediate refinery tanks smooth operation is maintained	1	1.0	1.0	39.8
	Business Analyst	1	1.0	1.0	40.8
	co-ordinator of all training activities.	1	1.0	1.0	41.7
	Control all payments and out payments for the company.	1	1.0	1.0	42.7
	Credikt Risk Management	1	1.0	1.0	43.7
	Credit Control	1	1.0	1.0	44.7
	Credit review	1	1.0	1.0	45.6
	Design & Dept. (Future needs), Office environment	1	1.0	1.0	46.6
	Editing Eng. Lang. material - Publication	1	1.0	1.0	47.6
	Eng. and Administration	1	1.0	1.0	48.5
	Engineering	1	1.0	1.0	49.5
	Engineering/ Operations	1	1.0	1.0	50.5
	Executive	1	1.0	1.0	51.5
	Finance	1	1.0	1.0	52.4
	Head of Internal Audit Department	1	1.0	1.0	53.4
	I.T.	1	1.0	1.0	54.4
	Individual Banking	1	1.0	1.0	55.3
	Inspection Engineering	1	1.0	1.0	56.3
	Internet/Online Banking	1	1.0	1.0	57.3
	IT Planning	1	1.0	1.0	58.3

Management Functions. Output includes: Co. status & image, Publications, Participation in Local and Int. & Conf. & exhibitions , , Contribution to Local Community various activities	1	1.0	1.0	59.2
Managing a programme of work to implement and maintain large scale I.T. Systems.	1	1.0	1.0	60.2
Network Development	1	1.0	1.0	61.2
Office	1	1.0	1.0	62.1
Oil refining	1	1.0	1.0	63.1
Operation	2	1.9	1.9	65.0
Operations	1	1.0	1.0	66.0
Overseeing Credit, Market & Operational Risks	1	1.0	1.0	67.0
Planning and Administration	1	1.0	1.0	68.0
Planning and Org. quality audits, Handling customer complaints, Management reviews participation, Review of quality documents	2	1.9	1.9	69.9
Policy Development & Compensation	1	1.0	1.0	70.9
Pressure Equipment Inspection, Engineering & Materials Engineering	1	1.0	1.0	71.8
Processing, Settlement and Accounting	1	1.0	1.0	72.8
Product handling and export.	1	1.0	1.0	73.8
Project Management & Account Management	1	1.0	1.0	74.8
Project Management of Datacom and Internet Networks.	1	1.0	1.0	75.7
Project Management.	1	1.0	1.0	76.7
Project Related	1	1.0	1.0	77.7

Providing Account Management Services thru. The build. of diff. strategies, aim at maintaining customer retention and building a strong customer relationship	1	1.0	1.0	78.6
Provision of Post-acquisition support to jt. Ventures in which Batelco has invested around the Middle East region.	1	1.0	1.0	79.6
Provision of trainig & develoment services	1	1.0	1.0	80.6
Report writing, analysing	1	1.0	1.0	81.6
Responsible for the oil movement, storage & shipping of Co. products.	1	1.0	1.0	82.5
"OPERATION OF OFFSITE"	1	1.0	1.0	83.5
Responsible for the provision of IT related services to the Company.	1	1.0	1.0	84.5
Run Dept. plus Employee suggestion Programme.	1	1.0	1.0	85.4
Sales	2	1.9	1.9	87.4
Sales & Marketing	1	1.0	1.0	88.3
Sales and Management	1	1.0	1.0	89.3
Section Head/ Technical Support	1	1.0	1.0	90.3
Selling various types of products, data & telephony	1	1.0	1.0	91.3
Senior Training co-ordinator	1	1.0	1.0	92.2
Service Management	1	1.0	1.0	93.2
Serving customer through the phone	1	1.0	1.0	94.2
Ship Repair	1	1.0	1.0	95.1
Technical fine safety and security	1	1.0	1.0	96.1
Technical/Project Management/Development				

	To manage the activities of refineries process units. This includes attending to operation, technical and administrative tasks. Major involvement in modernisation project is a significant activity.	1	1.0	1.0	97.1
	To train and follow up operator trainees and graduate engineers.	1	1.0	1.0	98.1
	Training manager, Superintendent & Supervisor	1	1.0	1.0	99.0
	Treasury & Cash Management	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	103	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX G

OUTCOME OF EMOTINAL COMPETENCY INVENTORY (ECI)

Table 1 ECI T-tests and df (degree of Freedom)

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Emotional Self-Awarness	Equal variances assumed	-1.883	89	.063	-.32183
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.007	30.897	.054	-.32183
Accurate Self-Assessment	Equal variances assumed	.115	94	.909	.01982
	Equal variances not assumed	.124	32.939	.902	.01982
Self-Confidence	Equal variances assumed	-.081	94	.935	-.01316
	Equal variances not assumed	-.072	25.960	.943	-.01316
Emotional Self-Control	Equal variances assumed	.719	94	.474	.11616
	Equal variances not assumed	.619	25.297	.542	.11616
Thrustworthiness	Equal variances assumed	-.169	94	.866	-.02854
	Equal variances not assumed	-.165	28.942	.870	-.02854
Adaptability	Equal variances assumed	-.730	94	.467	-.10821
	Equal variances not assumed	-.642	25.796	.527	-.10821
Achievement Orientation	Equal variances assumed	-.838	94	.404	-.15069
	Equal variances not assumed	-.757	26.497	.456	-.15069
Initiative	Equal variances assumed	.143	94	.886	.02214
	Equal variances not assumed	.124	25.354	.903	.02214
Optimism	Equal variances assumed	.512	94	.610	.09228
	Equal variances not assumed	.490	28.259	.628	.09228
Organizational Awarness	Equal variances assumed	.080	94	.936	.01263
	Equal variances not assumed	.082	30.600	.935	.01263
Service Orientation	Equal variances assumed	-1.149	94	.254	-.14572

	Equal variances not assumed	-1.014	25.881	.320	-.14572
Empathy	Equal variances assumed	.907	94	.367	.16609
	Equal variances not assumed	.722	23.683	.477	.16609
Developing Others	Equal variances assumed	-.407	94	.685	-.07571
	Equal variances not assumed	-.310	22.926	.760	-.07571
Inspiration Leadership	Equal variances assumed	-.528	94	.599	-.09594
	Equal variances not assumed	-.491	27.346	.627	-.09594
Influence	Equal variances assumed	-.601	93	.549	-.10780
	Equal variances not assumed	-.641	32.765	.526	-.10780
Change Catalyst	Equal variances assumed	-.457	94	.649	-.07116
	Equal variances not assumed	-.481	32.044	.634	-.07116
Conflict Management	Equal variances assumed	-.191	94	.849	-.02823
	Equal variances not assumed	-.199	31.639	.843	-.02823
Teamwork & Collaboration	Equal variances assumed	1.828	94	.071	.23310
	Equal variances not assumed	2.182	39.593	.035	.23310
Self-Awareness	Equal variances assumed	-.741	94	.460	-.09850
	Equal variances not assumed	-.709	28.188	.484	-.09850
Self-Management	Equal variances assumed	-.086	94	.932	-.00948
	Equal variances not assumed	-.074	25.392	.941	-.00948
Social Awareness	Equal variances assumed	.093	94	.926	.01100
	Equal variances not assumed	.088	27.980	.931	.01100
Social Skills	Equal variances assumed	-.178	94	.859	-.02252
	Equal variances not assumed	-.165	27.155	.870	-.02252
Emotional Competence Inventory	Equal variances assumed	-.276	94	.783	-.02988
	Equal variances not assumed	-.245	25.974	.809	-.02988

APPENDIX H

DETAILS OF MANAGERIAL STYLE INVENTORY (MSI)

MSI 1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	3	2.9	3.2	3.2
	Authoritativ	1	1.0	1.1	4.3
	Affiliative	8	7.8	8.6	12.9
	Democratic	10	9.7	10.8	23.7
	Pacesetting	44	42.7	47.3	71.0
	Coaching	27	26.2	29.0	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	13	12.6	14.0	14.0
	Authoritativ	21	20.4	22.6	36.6
	Affiliative	13	12.6	14.0	50.5
	Democratic	14	13.6	15.1	65.6
	Pacesetting	24	23.3	25.8	91.4
	Coaching	8	7.8	8.6	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.6	5.6
	Authoritativ	12	11.7	13.3	18.9
	Affiliative	11	10.7	12.2	31.1
	Democratic	17	16.5	18.9	50.0
	Pacesetting	32	31.1	35.6	85.6
	Coaching	13	12.6	14.4	100.0
	Total	90	87.4	100.0	
Missing	System	13	12.6		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Authoritativ	12	11.7	12.9	15.1
	Affiliative	11	10.7	11.8	26.9
	Democratic	27	26.2	29.0	55.9
	Pacesetting	35	34.0	37.6	93.5
	Coaching	6	5.8	6.5	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	4.4	4.4
	Authoritativ	19	18.4	21.1	25.6
	Affiliative	21	20.4	23.3	48.9
	Democratic	21	20.4	23.3	72.2
	Pacesetting	17	16.5	18.9	91.1
	Coaching	8	7.8	8.9	100.0
	Total	90	87.4	100.0	
Missing	System	13	12.6		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	6	5.8	6.4	6.4
	Authoritativ	14	13.6	14.9	21.3
	Affiliative	18	17.5	19.1	40.4
	Democratic	17	16.5	18.1	58.5
	Pacesetting	27	26.2	28.7	87.2
	Coaching	12	11.7	12.8	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	10	9.7	10.9	10.9
	Authoritativ	11	10.7	12.0	22.8
	Affiliative	13	12.6	14.1	37.0
	Democratic	22	21.4	23.9	60.9
	Pacesetting	31	30.1	33.7	94.6
	Coaching	5	4.9	5.4	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	24	23.3	25.5	25.5
	Authoritativ	40	38.8	42.6	68.1
	Affiliative	18	17.5	19.1	87.2
	Democratic	4	3.9	4.3	91.5
	Pacesetting	5	4.9	5.3	96.8
	Coaching	3	2.9	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	6	5.8	6.6	6.6
	Authoritativ	22	21.4	24.2	30.8
	Affiliative	19	18.4	20.9	51.6
	Democratic	23	22.3	25.3	76.9
	Pacesetting	19	18.4	20.9	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	91	88.3	100.0	
Missing	System	12	11.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	3	2.9	3.2	3.2
	Authoritativ	8	7.8	8.6	11.8
	Affiliative	10	9.7	10.8	22.6
	Democratic	19	18.4	20.4	43.0
	Pacesetting	43	41.7	46.2	89.2
	Coaching	10	9.7	10.8	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	7	6.8	7.5	7.5
	Authoritativ	24	23.3	25.8	33.3
	Affiliative	9	8.7	9.7	43.0
	Democratic	7	6.8	7.5	50.5
	Pacesetting	33	32.0	35.5	86.0
	Coaching	13	12.6	14.0	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	12	11.7	12.8	12.8
	Authoritativ	21	20.4	22.3	35.1
	Affiliative	27	26.2	28.7	63.8
	Democratic	12	11.7	12.8	76.6
	Pacesetting	15	14.6	16.0	92.6
	Coaching	7	6.8	7.4	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	7	6.8	7.5	7.5
	Authoritativ	15	14.6	16.1	23.7
	Affiliative	10	9.7	10.8	34.4
	Democratic	9	8.7	9.7	44.1
	Pacesetting	35	34.0	37.6	81.7
	Coaching	17	16.5	18.3	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Authoritativ	5	4.9	5.3	7.4
	Affiliative	15	14.6	16.0	23.4
	Democratic	17	16.5	18.1	41.5
	Pacesetting	36	35.0	38.3	79.8
	Coaching	19	18.4	20.2	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	18	17.5	19.4	19.4
	Authoritativ	29	28.2	31.2	50.5
	Affiliative	25	24.3	26.9	77.4
	Democratic	9	8.7	9.7	87.1
	Pacesetting	12	11.7	12.9	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 16

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	3	2.9	3.2	3.2
	Authoritativ	4	3.9	4.3	7.5
	Affiliative	5	4.9	5.4	12.9
	Democratic	15	14.6	16.1	29.0
	Pacesetting	55	53.4	59.1	88.2
	Coaching	11	10.7	11.8	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 17

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.4	5.4
	Authoritativ	15	14.6	16.1	21.5
	Affiliative	14	13.6	15.1	36.6
	Democratic	20	19.4	21.5	58.1
	Pacesetting	33	32.0	35.5	93.5
	Coaching	6	5.8	6.5	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 18

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.0	2.0
	Authoritativ	9	8.7	8.9	10.9
	Affiliative	15	14.6	14.9	25.7
	Democratic	25	24.3	24.8	50.5
	Pacesetting	36	35.0	35.6	86.1
	Coaching	14	13.6	13.9	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 19

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Authoritativ	13	12.6	12.6	16.5
	Affiliative	17	16.5	16.5	33.0
	Democratic	22	21.4	21.4	54.4
	Pacesetting	39	37.9	37.9	92.2
	Coaching	8	7.8	7.8	100.0
	Total	103	100.0	100.0	

MSI 20

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Authoritativ	22	21.4	22.0	27.0
	Affiliative	22	21.4	22.0	49.0
	Democratic	26	25.2	26.0	75.0
	Pacesetting	18	17.5	18.0	93.0
	Coaching	7	6.8	7.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	11	10.7	10.7	10.7
	Authoritativ	37	35.9	35.9	46.6
	Affiliative	32	31.1	31.1	77.7
	Democratic	10	9.7	9.7	87.4
	Pacesetting	9	8.7	8.7	96.1
	Coaching	4	3.9	3.9	100.0
	Total	103	100.0	100.0	

MSI 22

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	3	2.9	3.0	3.0
	Authoritativ	8	7.8	7.9	10.9
	Affiliative	12	11.7	11.9	22.8
	Democratic	20	19.4	19.8	42.6
	Pacesetting	37	35.9	36.6	79.2
	Coaching	21	20.4	20.8	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 23

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	17	16.5	16.7	16.7
	Authoritativ	31	30.1	30.4	47.1
	Affiliative	13	12.6	12.7	59.8
	Democratic	18	17.5	17.6	77.5
	Pacesetting	14	13.6	13.7	91.2
	Coaching	9	8.7	8.8	100.0
	Total	102	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 24

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	21	20.4	21.0	21.0
	Authoritativ	34	33.0	34.0	55.0
	Affiliative	25	24.3	25.0	80.0
	Democratic	8	7.8	8.0	88.0
	Pacesetting	10	9.7	10.0	98.0
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 25

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Authoritativ	14	13.6	14.1	15.2
	Affiliative	13	12.6	13.1	28.3
	Democratic	20	19.4	20.2	48.5
	Pacesetting	35	34.0	35.4	83.8
	Coaching	16	15.5	16.2	100.0
	Total	99	96.1	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 26

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Authoritativ	15	14.6	14.9	19.8
	Affiliative	8	7.8	7.9	27.7
	Democratic	24	23.3	23.8	51.5
	Pacesetting	32	31.1	31.7	83.2
	Coaching	17	16.5	16.8	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 27

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	22	21.4	21.6	21.6
	Authoritativ	28	27.2	27.5	49.0
	Affiliative	20	19.4	19.6	68.6
	Democratic	18	17.5	17.6	86.3
	Pacesetting	9	8.7	8.8	95.1
	Coaching	5	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	102	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 28

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.0	5.0
	Authoritative	26	25.2	26.0	31.0
	Affiliative	19	18.4	19.0	50.0
	Democratic	21	20.4	21.0	71.0
	Pacesetting	25	24.3	25.0	96.0
	Coaching	4	3.9	4.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 29

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	16	15.5	15.5	15.5
	Authoritative	50	48.5	48.5	64.1
	Affiliative	27	26.2	26.2	90.3
	Democratic	7	6.8	6.8	97.1
	Pacesetting	2	1.9	1.9	99.0
	Coaching	1	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	103	100.0	100.0	

MSI 30

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Authoritativ	7	6.8	7.0	11.0
	Affiliative	15	14.6	15.0	26.0
	Democratic	20	19.4	20.0	46.0
	Pacesetting	41	39.8	41.0	87.0
	Coaching	13	12.6	13.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 31

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	6	5.8	5.9	5.9
	Authoritativ	8	7.8	7.8	13.7
	Affiliative	14	13.6	13.7	27.5
	Democratic	13	12.6	12.7	40.2
	Pacesetting	44	42.7	43.1	83.3
	Coaching	17	16.5	16.7	100.0
	Total	102	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.0		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 32

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	30	29.1	30.0	30.0
	Authoritativ	28	27.2	28.0	58.0
	Affiliative	17	16.5	17.0	75.0
	Democratic	9	8.7	9.0	84.0
	Pacesetting	9	8.7	9.0	93.0
	Coaching	7	6.8	7.0	100.0
	Total	100	97.1	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 33

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	6	5.8	5.8	5.8
	Authoritativ	38	36.9	36.9	42.7
	Affiliative	31	30.1	30.1	72.8
	Democratic	17	16.5	16.5	89.3
	Pacesetting	7	6.8	6.8	96.1
	Coaching	4	3.9	3.9	100.0
	Total	103	100.0	100.0	

MSI 34

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Authoritativ	4	3.9	4.0	5.0
	Affiliative	11	10.7	10.9	15.8
	Democratic	17	16.5	16.8	32.7
	Pacesetting	45	43.7	44.6	77.2
	Coaching	23	22.3	22.8	100.0
	Total	101	98.1	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.9		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 35

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.1	1.1
	Authoritativ	7	6.8	7.5	8.6
	Affiliative	14	13.6	15.1	23.7
	Democratic	22	21.4	23.7	47.3
	Pacesetting	37	35.9	39.8	87.1
	Coaching	12	11.7	12.9	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 36

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	13	12.6	13.8	13.8
	Authoritativ	41	39.8	43.6	57.4
	Affiliative	22	21.4	23.4	80.9
	Democratic	10	9.7	10.6	91.5
	Pacesetting	5	4.9	5.3	96.8
	Coaching	3	2.9	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 37

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	20	19.4	22.2	22.2
	Authoritativ	41	39.8	45.6	67.8
	Affiliative	17	16.5	18.9	86.7
	Democratic	7	6.8	7.8	94.4
	Pacesetting	3	2.9	3.3	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	90	87.4	100.0	
Missing	System	13	12.6		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 38

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Authoritativ	4	3.9	4.3	6.4
	Affiliative	18	17.5	19.1	25.5
	Democratic	28	27.2	29.8	55.3
	Pacesetting	33	32.0	35.1	90.4
	Coaching	9	8.7	9.6	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 39

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	4.3	4.3
	Authoritativ	28	27.2	30.4	34.8
	Affiliative	23	22.3	25.0	59.8
	Democratic	22	21.4	23.9	83.7
	Pacesetting	12	11.7	13.0	96.7
	Coaching	3	2.9	3.3	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 40

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Authoritativ	14	13.6	14.9	17.0
	Affiliative	12	11.7	12.8	29.8
	Democratic	17	16.5	18.1	47.9
	Pacesetting	36	35.0	38.3	86.2
	Coaching	13	12.6	13.8	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 41

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Authoritativ	6	5.8	6.5	8.7
	Affiliative	18	17.5	19.6	28.3
	Democratic	32	31.1	34.8	63.0
	Pacesetting	33	32.0	35.9	98.9
	Coaching	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 42

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	20	19.4	21.3	21.3
	Authoritativ	45	43.7	47.9	69.1
	Affiliative	11	10.7	11.7	80.9
	Democratic	16	15.5	17.0	97.9
	Pacesetting	1	1.0	1.1	98.9
	Coaching	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 43

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	6	5.8	6.5	6.5
	Authoritativ	23	22.3	24.7	31.2
	Affiliative	31	30.1	33.3	64.5
	Democratic	16	15.5	17.2	81.7
	Pacesetting	12	11.7	12.9	94.6
	Coaching	5	4.9	5.4	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 44

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.1	1.1
	Authoritativ	8	7.8	8.5	9.6
	Affiliative	9	8.7	9.6	19.1
	Democratic	18	17.5	19.1	38.3
	Pacesetting	32	31.1	34.0	72.3
	Coaching	26	25.2	27.7	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 45

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Authoritativ	6	5.8	6.7	8.9
	Affiliative	8	7.8	8.9	17.8
	Democratic	25	24.3	27.8	45.6
	Pacesetting	36	35.0	40.0	85.6
	Coaching	13	12.6	14.4	100.0
	Total	90	87.4	100.0	
Missing	System	13	12.6		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 46

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.1	1.1
	Authoritativ	12	11.7	12.8	13.8
	Affiliative	15	14.6	16.0	29.8
	Democratic	25	24.3	26.6	56.4
	Pacesetting	31	30.1	33.0	89.4
	Coaching	10	9.7	10.6	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 47

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Authoritativ	6	5.8	6.5	6.5
	Affiliative	16	15.5	17.2	23.7
	Democratic	27	26.2	29.0	52.7
	Pacesetting	40	38.8	43.0	95.7
	Coaching	4	3.9	4.3	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 48

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	9	8.7	9.6	9.6
	Authoritativ	33	32.0	35.1	44.7
	Affiliative	22	21.4	23.4	68.1
	Democratic	15	14.6	16.0	84.0
	Pacesetting	10	9.7	10.6	94.7
	Coaching	5	4.9	5.3	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 49

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	11	10.7	11.8	11.8
	Authoritativ	27	26.2	29.0	40.9
	Affiliative	19	18.4	20.4	61.3
	Democratic	23	22.3	24.7	86.0
	Pacesetting	11	10.7	11.8	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 50

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.5	5.5
	Authoritativ	13	12.6	14.3	19.8
	Affiliative	24	23.3	26.4	46.2
	Democratic	27	26.2	29.7	75.8
	Pacesetting	15	14.6	16.5	92.3
	Coaching	7	6.8	7.7	100.0
	Total	91	88.3	100.0	
Missing	System	12	11.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 51

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Authoritativ	6	5.8	6.5	8.6
	Affiliative	5	4.9	5.4	14.0
	Democratic	21	20.4	22.6	36.6
	Pacesetting	45	43.7	48.4	84.9
	Coaching	14	13.6	15.1	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 52

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	7	6.8	7.5	7.5
	Authoritativ	13	12.6	14.0	21.5
	Affiliative	9	8.7	9.7	31.2
	Democratic	21	20.4	22.6	53.8
	Pacesetting	33	32.0	35.5	89.2
	Coaching	10	9.7	10.8	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 53

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	16	15.5	17.0	17.0
	Authoritativ	49	47.6	52.1	69.1
	Affiliative	15	14.6	16.0	85.1
	Democratic	4	3.9	4.3	89.4
	Pacesetting	7	6.8	7.4	96.8
	Coaching	3	2.9	3.2	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 54

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	11	10.7	12.0	12.0
	Authoritativ	51	49.5	55.4	67.4
	Affiliative	22	21.4	23.9	91.3
	Democratic	5	4.9	5.4	96.7
	Pacesetting	2	1.9	2.2	98.9
	Coaching	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 55

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	14	13.6	15.1	15.1
	Authoritativ	24	23.3	25.8	40.9
	Affiliative	25	24.3	26.9	67.7
	Democratic	13	12.6	14.0	81.7
	Pacesetting	12	11.7	12.9	94.6
	Coaching	5	4.9	5.4	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 56

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	10	9.7	11.0	11.0
	Authoritativ	30	29.1	33.0	44.0
	Affiliative	33	32.0	36.3	80.2
	Democratic	13	12.6	14.3	94.5
	Pacesetting	2	1.9	2.2	96.7
	Coaching	3	2.9	3.3	100.0
	Total	91	88.3	100.0	
Missing	System	12	11.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 57

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	1	1.0	1.1	1.1
	Authoritativ	14	13.6	14.9	16.0
	Affiliative	19	18.4	20.2	36.2
	Democratic	23	22.3	24.5	60.6
	Pacesetting	24	23.3	25.5	86.2
	Coaching	13	12.6	13.8	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 58

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	5	4.9	5.4	5.4
	Authoritativ	21	20.4	22.6	28.0
	Affiliative	25	24.3	26.9	54.8
	Democratic	18	17.5	19.4	74.2
	Pacesetting	22	21.4	23.7	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 59

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.1	2.1
	Authoritativ	7	6.8	7.4	9.6
	Affiliative	20	19.4	21.3	30.9
	Democratic	20	19.4	21.3	52.1
	Pacesetting	34	33.0	36.2	88.3
	Coaching	11	10.7	11.7	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 60

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	8	7.8	8.9	8.9
	Authoritativ	12	11.7	13.3	22.2
	Affiliative	20	19.4	22.2	44.4
	Democratic	23	22.3	25.6	70.0
	Pacesetting	18	17.5	20.0	90.0
	Coaching	9	8.7	10.0	100.0
	Total	90	87.4	100.0	
Missing	System	13	12.6		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 61

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	4.3	4.3
	Authoritativ	18	17.5	19.4	23.7
	Affiliative	18	17.5	19.4	43.0
	Democratic	21	20.4	22.6	65.6
	Pacesetting	28	27.2	30.1	95.7
	Coaching	4	3.9	4.3	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 62

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	2	1.9	2.2	2.2
	Authoritativ	6	5.8	6.5	8.7
	Affiliative	13	12.6	14.1	22.8
	Democratic	20	19.4	21.7	44.6
	Pacesetting	40	38.8	43.5	88.0
	Coaching	11	10.7	12.0	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 63

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	4	3.9	4.3	4.3
	Authoritativ	40	38.8	43.0	47.3
	Affiliative	25	24.3	26.9	74.2
	Democratic	14	13.6	15.1	89.2
	Pacesetting	8	7.8	8.6	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 64

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	13	12.6	14.1	14.1
	Authoritativ	33	32.0	35.9	50.0
	Affiliative	19	18.4	20.7	70.7
	Democratic	13	12.6	14.1	84.8
	Pacesetting	8	7.8	8.7	93.5
	Coaching	5	4.9	5.4	98.9
	8	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	92	89.3	100.0	
Missing	System	11	10.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 65

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	3	2.9	3.2	3.2
	Authoritativ	7	6.8	7.5	10.8
	Affiliative	9	8.7	9.7	20.4
	Democratic	10	9.7	10.8	31.2
	Pacesetting	41	39.8	44.1	75.3
	Coaching	23	22.3	24.7	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 66

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	9	8.7	9.7	9.7
	Authoritativ	39	37.9	41.9	51.6
	Affiliative	21	20.4	22.6	74.2
	Democratic	10	9.7	10.8	84.9
	Pacesetting	12	11.7	12.9	97.8
	Coaching	2	1.9	2.2	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 67

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	11	10.7	11.7	11.7
	Authoritativ	48	46.6	51.1	62.8
	Affiliative	26	25.2	27.7	90.4
	Democratic	6	5.8	6.4	96.8
	Pacesetting	2	1.9	2.1	98.9
	Coaching	1	1.0	1.1	100.0
	Total	94	91.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	8.7		
Total		103	100.0		

MSI 68

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Coercive	21	20.4	22.6	22.6
	Authoritativ	41	39.8	44.1	66.7
	Affiliative	24	23.3	25.8	92.5
	Democratic	3	2.9	3.2	95.7
	Pacesetting	4	3.9	4.3	100.0
	Total	93	90.3	100.0	
Missing	System	10	9.7		
Total		103	100.0		

APPENDIX I

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Table 1 Chronological presentation of the historical development of Emotional Intelligence

Year/Name	DESCRIPTION
1920 Robert Thorndike	Focused on identifying what makes up 'intelligence', indicating that 'social intelligence' was part of general intelligence and is "the abilities to understand others and to act or behave wisely in relation to others." During his time, other researchers dismissed his suggestion that 'social intelligence' might be an important capability to develop in the school system, it was seen as far ahead of its time. As such, children were best seen and not heard, they were not encouraged to sit together to develop close friendships.
1935 Edgar Doll	An Australian psychologist, devised a structured interview called the Vineland Social Maturity Scale to assess social competence, which gave an SQ (social quotient) score to indicate the level of social maturity of the individual.
1940 David Wechsler	Continued to challenge the traditional view on intelligence with his notion of 'non intellective intelligence', being the first researcher to indicate a range of intelligences, other than traditional IQ, that were part of general intelligence. Yet his name has been associated to a known test for IQ - the Wechsler Intelligence Scale.
1948 Robert W. Leeper	Made a small but important contribution to the early work of David Wechsler, in studying 'emotional thought'. He found that emotions 'arouse, sustain and direct activity', proposing that 'emotional thought was part of, and contributes to, logical thought' and intelligence in general. It was another thirty-five years before Howard Gardner helped to broaden the view of aspects of 'intelligence' in the twentieth century

1973 **Peter Sifneos**	Coined the term 'alexithymiaa' (from the Greek – ***a*** meaning absence, ***lexis*** meaning word, ***thymos*** meaning feelings, i.e. an absence of words for feelings). This is a condition best described as the opposite of emotional intelligence - it includes difficulty in *identifying and distinguishing* between different feelings, difficulty in *imagining* feelings and *describing* them to others.
1983 **Howard Gardner**	A professor at Harvard University found that one could categorise a number of different intelligences. He defined seven initially and more recently added an eighth and ninth: spatial/visual, linguistic, intrapersonal, musical, bodily/kinaesthetic, interpersonal and logical; naturist and existential were added in 1998.
1985 **Robert Stemberg**	Continued research started by Doll (1935), Wechsler (1940) and Leeper (1948), asking people to describe an 'intelligent' person, where the concept of 'practical intelligence' emerged in his findings. He wrote: 'Practical intelligence is the ability to adapt to, change or alter real-life situations." This research created a broader view of intelligence.
1985 **Peter Salovey & John Mayer**	They started to pull together the isolated phrases, ideas and research areas about emotions into a coherent whole, influenced by early work on emotions and the role of thinking in emotions.
1990 **Mayer & Salovey**	Published their first research paper, in which they coined the term 'emotional intelligence', defined it and provided the first scientific measure of it. In the same year, they published their first review of emotional intelligence. They published subsequent papers in 1993 and 1995.
1990 **Carolyn Saarni**	A developmental psychologist who specialises in emotional development, focused on how children learn to accurately express, understand, and regulate emotions in their interactions with peers, parents and siblings. She published further papers in 1997 and 1999.

1994 R. Bagby,J.Parker &G. Taylor	Conducted research on alexithymia, leading to the creation of the Toronto Alexithymia Scale - a measure of the condition that is an improvement on Sifneo's earlier measure.
1995 Mayer, Salovey& Caruso	Began work on their test of emotional intelligence. They had heard that a new book on the topic was about to be published which could help them to 'get the word out.
1995 Daniel Goleman's	Published *Emotional Intelligence* book. The working titles of the book being: 'Socio-emotional learning' and 'Emotional literacy,' indicating how EQ may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart.
1997 Mayer &Salovey	Published their revised definition of emotional intelligence and their work on their ability measure of emotional intelligence, the *Multi-factor Emotional Intelligence Scale* (MEIS).
1998 Goleman	Published a book: *Working with Emotional Intelligence,* where he outlined a set of twenty-five competences for leaders, being a bestseller in the business book list. In the same year, the consulting firm that Goleman is associated with, HayMcBer, published a '360-degree' measure of emotional intelligence for people in business – the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI).
2000 Mayer, Salovey, Caruso	Developed the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test). This test takes the MEIS a step forward.

APPENDIX J

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LEADERSHIP

Situational Theories

Three well-known situational theories are Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership (Fiedler & Martin, 1974). Vroom and Yetton's normative model and House and Mitchell's path-goal theory of leadership (Fiedler & Martin, 1974). Fiedler's contingency model considers the situation along with the leader's personality as a determinant of the leader's effectiveness. According to Fiedler, the model can help predict which leaders would be most effective in which situations. A central aspect of this theory is that leaders differ in a personality variable (called LPC) that indicates the extent of their social responsiveness. The LPC score measures the leaders' feelings about an individual with whom they work least effectively. Thus leaders with low LPC scores see their least-preferred co-worker in negative terms, whereas the high LPC leaders do not impute negative attributes to those with whom they have difficulty working. Fiedler's work is not without its problems or critics (AlHashemi, 1987). First of all, evidence shows, training and experience play a role in leader effectiveness and, secondly, there is some doubt whether the LPC scale is a true measure of leadership style. Critics contend that its interpretation is speculative and inadequately supported. Moreover, conditions vary across cultures; a theory that has applicability in one culture may be irrelevant to another. For example, Bennett (1977) found that high-performing bank managers in the Philippines are low on Fiedler's LPC scale, whereas comparable managers in Hong Kong score high on it. Just as contingencies vary across cultures, so does the relationship between LPC scores and performance

House's (1971) path-goal model (another contingency theory) states that leadership behaviour is contingent on the characteristics of the subordinates and the nature of the task. The leader's goal is to reduce the impediments that hinder employees in reaching their goals. There is an obvious cultural dimension to this theory. After all, cultures are likely to differ in terms of subordinates' and leaders' personal characteristics, thus implying that different managerial styles will be appropriate in dealing with them (House, 1971). However, research conducted to test it has yielded mixed results. Three criticisms suggested by some studies are: First of all the path-goal theory is extremely complex which has made its practical application particularly difficult. Secondly, the complexity of path-goal theory has made measuring the relevant variables contained in the theory especially difficult and, thirdly, although many possible predictions are suggested by path-goal theory, not all have been thoroughly researched. Empirical research has largely concentrated on predictions associated with directive and supportive leaders behaviour.

The path-goal theory is not explicitly normative, but, because the optimal style depends on the nature of the contingency, it does have normative implications. Vroom and Yetton's model (1973), on the other hand, is prescriptive and is based on the assumption that no single leadership style is applicable to all situations. This model's focus is the degree of subordinate participation that is appropriate in the given situation. Vroom and Yetton have developed a series of problem attributes that together determine the appropriate managerial style, ranging from subordinate participation to group decision making. Again, this model like the others has also been criticized. First of all, Researchers argue that there are decision-making methods besides the five identified by Vroom and Yetton. Secondly, normative theory considers seven problem characteristics by posing seven separate questions. Should other characteristics be considered? What about the need for secrecy. Thirdly, recognizing the limitations of bounded rationality, it is possible that managers are not

sufficiently rational to apply normative theory under the best conditions, let alone given limited time and the stresses of work. Moreover, it is questionable whether the problem attributes referred to earlier in this model are transferable to non-Western cultures; however, the significant conclusion (from a comparative management point of view) is that styles ranging from highly autocratic to highly democratic can be effective in particular situations. This clearly implies that managers must fit the decision-making process to a particular situation and that a leadership style effective in one culture may be ineffective in another (Vroom and Yetton, 1973).