

Leadership Style and Emotional Intelligence: A Gender Comparison

Dr. Masud Al Noor

Assistant Professor, University of Asia Pacific, Dhaka-Bangladesh

Cell: +88-017-13409322; e-mail:masud.noor@gmail.com

Md.Ishtiak Uddin

Lecturer, University of Asia Pacific, Dhaka-Bangladesh

Cell: +88-017-55000013; e-mail:ishtiak.hrm@gmail.com

Sheikh Sharmin Shamaly

Sn. Lecturer, University of Asia Pacific, Dhaka-Bangladesh

Cell: +88-01711628493; e-mail:shamaly77@yahoo.com

Abstract

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between three distinct variables: gender, leadership style, and emotional intelligence. Two leadership styles were explored: transactional and transformational. No significant gender differences were found between either of the two. Emotional intelligence was defined by five factors: Self-Awareness, Managing Emotion, Self-Motivation, Relating Well, and Emotional Mentoring. Women were found to score more highly than men in the two Interpersonal factors: Relating Well and Emotional Mentoring. Finally, there was a noticeably higher interaction between three components of E.I (Self-Awareness, Self-Motivation and Emotional Mentoring) and the transactional, rather than transformational leadership style.

Keywords: Leadership, Emotional Intelligence, Gender and Comparison.

INTRODUCTION:

Overview:

Professional organizations form the backbone of today's society. Beyond its intrinsic role in human survival and the workplace is increasingly considered as an opportunity for human interaction and personal development. It is due to this rising significance of the quality of relationships established in the workplace, and the extent to which these can benefit the organization as a whole, that issues of diversity in emotional intelligence (E1), leadership style and gender are brought forward by this study. For the past couple of decades, the subject matter has been attracting more and more general interest. Popular literature has created a virtual industry related to gender differences associated with emotional intelligence.

Research Questions and Objectives:

In the traditionally patriarchal nature of organizations, where gender has often constituted an object of prejudice, and where an uncritical adoption of stereotypes still prevails, it has become of paramount importance to attempt to discern the differences that do in fact exist between genders. It is a current urgent need to be able to substantiate one's arguments with scientific evidence and widely conducted research results. Thus, one of the central aims of this study is to unveil the true role of gender in determining two critical areas of Organizational Behavior: leadership style and emotional intelligence. Recently, increasing numbers of scholars have argued that emotional intelligence is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders. It is also therefore the objective of this study to examine the extent to which leadership style (and whether a particular type of leadership can emerge as most positive) is influenced by E.I. (argued to have a positive effect on job performance and attitudes). Considering the above factors lead to the following research questions:

What defines successful leadership, and how far can one assume that a certain leadership style will be

regarded as having more favorable implications than another?

How exactly emotional intelligence is related to leadership?

Why should there be such an interest in gender differences in E.I?

To what extent leadership is impacted by gender?

Literature Review:

Leadership:

Transactional vs Transformational Leadership: Definitions

As a generic term, leadership undoubtedly encompasses a wide range of interpretations, and literary opinion has often been divided in terms of the number and styles of leadership that exist. Transformational leadership is of particular interest, since it is considered to be mostly connected with emotional intelligence. In addition, in a content analysis of articles published in *Leadership Quarterly*, Lowe and Gardner (2001) found that one third of the research was about transformational or charismatic leadership, clearly suggesting the 'central place it occupies in leadership research. Transactional and transformational leadership were first conceptualized by Burns (1978) and later developed by Bass (1984). Bass and Avolio (1994) defined transformational leadership as leadership that occurs when the leader stimulates the interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from a new perspective. The transformational leader generates an awareness of the mission or vision of the organization, and develops colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential. In addition, the transformational leader motivates colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests towards interests that will benefit the group. As its name implies, transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals and includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. Bass and Avolio (1994) suggested that its current popularity may be due to its emphasis on intrinsic motivation and follower development. It fits the needs of today's work groups. Who want to be inspired and empowered to succeed in times of uncertainty. In comparison to transformational leadership, Bass and Avolio (1994) described transactional leadership occurring when the leader rewards or disciplines the follower with regards to performance. Burns (1978) described transactional leaders as leaders that emphasize work standards, assignments, and task-oriented goals.

The Additive Effect of Transformational Leadership:

Several researchers have investigated the effects of transformational and transactional leadership. Bass (1997) found transformational leadership when compared to transactional leadership, predicted higher employee ratings of effectiveness and satisfaction. Bass (1997) noted that transformational leaders were promoted more often and produced better financial results than transactional leaders. Furthermore, Keller (1995) found that certain aspects of transformational leadership predicted higher group performance. Evidence also suggests that leadership enhances subordinates' trust (Barling et-al., 2000; Pillai et-al., 1999; Podsakoff et-al., 1996)) in leadership, as well as employee's affective commitment (Barling et-al., 1996). More importantly, top performing managers are seen as more transformational in their leadership style than ordinary managers and transformational leadership is fundamentally morally uplifting (Avolio, 1994). This emphasis sets the transformational approach apart from all other approaches to leadership because it suggests that leadership has a moral dimension.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

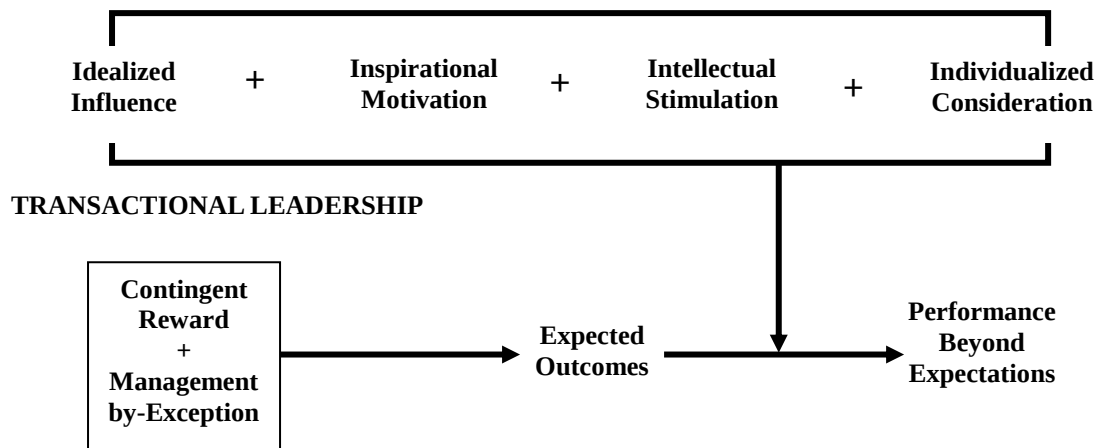


Figure 1: The Additive Effect of Transformational Leadership. (Bass and Avolio 1994)

Given the usefulness of transformational leadership, attention has turned to other issues such as how it develops (Zacharatos et al., 2008), and associated factors such as moral development that may predispose individuals to use transformational leadership (Turner and Barling, 2000).

Leadership Success Beyond Leadership Styles:

Transformational Leadership is not without any important criticisms in itself. Amongst the most prominent, is that it has the potential to be abused. If this style of leadership is concerned with changing peoples' values and moving them to a new vision, who is to determine whether the new directions are good and more affirming? Who decides that a new vision is a better vision? If the values to which the leader is moving his or her followers are not better, and if the set of human values is not more redeeming, then the leadership must be challenged. Various theories in the past have concentrated on the need to look beyond leadership styles and simple comparisons between them, and to emphasize more the role of the context, or situation that drives leadership action. These theories stress using different styles of leadership appropriate to the needs created by different organizational situations. They postulate that no single type is outstanding in all situations, that all leadership types have good and bad points, and each will be effective in the right situation. (Fiedler and Chemers 1984).

Contingency Theory of Fiedler and Chemers (1984) states that a leader's success is contingent on two factors: (1) the leader's typical way of interacting with members of the group (i.e., the leadership style); and (2) the degree to which the leader has control over the situation (i.e., the group, the task, and the outcome). This is called "situational control". Why then, is situational control so important and what does it depend on? Feeling in complete control of the leadership situation means being relaxed, secured, and at ease, whilst when the outcome of the actions is in doubt, there is an element of tension, uncertainty, and perhaps excitement. Three contextual variables are responsible for achieving control: the leader's relationship with the group, the structure of the task, and the power vested in the leader's position. Effective leadership required to match the situation to particular leadership style. Fiedler and Chemers (1984) reveal that task-motivated leaders (transactional) perform best in situations of high control or low control and relationship-motivated (transformational) leaders perform best in situations of moderate control.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:

The Definition and Domain of EI:

Emotional intelligence has its roots in the concept of "social intelligence" that was first identified by Thorndike in 1920. Thorndike defined social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls — to act wisely in human relations." Following Thorndike, Gardner (1993)

included social intelligence as one of the seven intelligence domains in his theory of multiple intelligences. According to Gardner, social intelligence is comprised of a person's interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. Intrapersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with oneself, and is the ability to "symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings." In contrast, interpersonal intelligence relates to one's intelligence in dealing with others and is the ability to "notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions". Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the earliest to propose the name "emotional intelligence" to represent the ability of people to deal with their emotions. They defined emotional intelligence as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions". This in fact constitutes the most widely accepted scientific definition of E.I. Goleman (1996) adopted Salovey and Mayer's (1990) definition, and proposed that EI involves abilities are categorized as: (a) Self-awareness, (b) Self regulation, (c) Self-motivation, (d) Understanding one's emotions and (e) Managing relationships.

E.I. as a Leadership Quality:

Leadership concerns the interaction of leaders with other individuals. Once social interactions are involved, emotional awareness and emotional regulation become important factors affecting the quality of the interactions. As House and Aditya (1997) summarized, "contemporary research on intelligence offers renewed potential for leadership trait research. Leadership is embedded in a social context, and the idea of social intelligence as a required leadership trait is a powerful one" According to Goleman (1996), most effective leaders are alike in that they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence. He claimed, "emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership.... without it, a person can have the best training in the world, and incisive analytic mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but he still won't make a great leader" Emotional Intelligence plays an increasingly important role at the highest levels of the company, where differences in technical skills are of negligible importance (Goleman, 1996).

More specifically, transformational leadership as a most contemporary and effective way of management, is shown to be greatly dependent upon E.I. levels. Focusing on a multiple model of intelligence, a review of studies (Atwater and Yammarino, 1993; Gibbons, 1986; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Ross and Offerman, 1997; Southwick, 1998) that examined the relationship between leadership style and emotional intelligence found evidence of correlations between transformational leadership and traits of emotional intelligence, less for social intelligence and least for cognitive intelligence. Bass (1997) proposes that transformational leaders must possess multiple types of intelligence and that social and emotional intelligence are critical because these are important to the leader's ability to inspire employees and build relationships. According to Mayer and Salovey (1989), emotional intelligence underlies a leader's relationship skills. In fact, relationship skills (relating well, demonstrating empathy) as a main component of emotional intelligence, also constitute an important factor differentiating between leadership and management. Whilst a manager focuses on systems and structures, relies on control and aims at doing things right, a leader focuses on people, inspires trust and rather than doing things right, does the right thing. Weathersby (1999) argued that leadership focuses on the creation of a common vision, It means motivating people to contribute to the vision and encouraging them to align their self-interest with that of the organization. It means persuading, not commanding. Management is efficiency in climbing the ladder of success. Leadership determines whether the ladder is leaning against the right wall." This kind of charisma and its emotional components, has often been considered a prerequisite of the transformational style of leadership (Bass and Yammarino, 1993).

In the same way Inspirational Leadership is inextricably intertwined with relationship management, optimism is essentially associated with self- management and self-motivation: two of the other main components of Emotional Intelligence. While optimism does not differentiate between success and failure in leaders, being low in pessimism, according to Wunderley et-al (1998) does. This is consistent with Gardner's (1993) observation that what differentiates successful and unsuccessful leaders is how they handle failures, perhaps because failure experiences are demotivating and decrease persistence.

Furthermore, George and Bettenhausen (1990) found that the extent to which leaders of work groups experienced positive moods was positively related to levels of pro-social behaviour performed by group members and negatively related to group labour turnover rates.

GENDER:

Gender Differences:

There are some small psychological differences between women and men on traits that are often seen as related to effective leadership, such as men showing slightly more assertiveness than women and women showing somewhat higher levels of integrity than men (Franke, 2004). French anthropologist François H éritier, emphasises however, that a female leader does not possess fundamentally different attributes than a male leader. The brain of both sexes works in the same way. She goes on declaring that the gender hierarchy is not a biological, but a cultural phenomenon that over history, civilizations throughout the world have perpetuated with undiminished force (www.lemonde.fr).

Gender can be predominantly characterized as a process. Society at large has determined that some situations and activities are more masculine or feminine just as society has concluded certain behaviours are more masculine or feminine (Petrides and Furnman, 2000). Childhood socialization by parents, school, peers, and/or the media encourages girls to be cooperative, expressive, and attuned to their interpersonal world, whereas boys are led to be openly competitive, independent, and instrumental (Petrides and Furnman, 2006). Thus, through childhood experiences, women learn to value nurturance and interpersonal interconnectedness more highly than men (Gunkel et-al 2007). In the same vein that gender difference is socially constructed, work is gendered. One gender difference that is robust and pertains to leadership is that women are less likely than men to ask for what they want (Reiff et-al, 2001). Reaching elite leadership positions has not done in a vacuum; people must negotiate with others to access the right positions, experiences, opportunities, resources, and assistance in both the professional and domestic spheres. However, women are less likely to negotiate than men are.

Gender and Leadership Styles:

As more women begin occupying positions of leadership, questions as to whether they lead in a different manner from men and whether women or men are more effective as leaders have garnered greater attention. Increasingly, writers in the mainstream press are asserting that there are indeed gender differences in leadership styles and that in contemporary society women's leadership is more effective (Petrides and Furham, 2000). However, academic researchers have a greater diversity in their views; indeed, many argue that gender has little or no relationship to leadership style and effectiveness. In a meta-analysis of gender and leadership literature, Eagly and Carli (2003) found that women exhibited more tendencies of transformational or charismatic leadership than did men despite typical stereotypes of women as less effective leaders. As various researchers (Eagly and Carli, 2003; Young and Hurlic, 2007) have asserted, any substantial leadership style differences between women and men that might exist, should not disadvantage women and can even offer a female advantage. Because the glass ceiling makes it so difficult for women to attain elite leadership positions, the ones who do make it tend to be very competent.

Heilman et-al, (1995) explained that women are typically believed to be less competent than men, particularly in terms of management responsibilities. The authors used supporting evidence from studies on gender and selection, in which women were found to be less desirable candidates for management positions. Terms used to describe successful managers included competence, independence, and rationality, typically masculine terms, according to the authors, and typically not used to describe women. Among male and female managers, women were scored lower than men on attributes of success. Yet, Johnson (1994) found no gender differences in actual managerial behaviour when studying men and women. Gunkel et-al, (2007) also concluded, based upon the results of an extensive meta-analysis, that there is more support for gender similarities than for differences.

Gender and Emotional Intelligence:

An important question arises when dealing with the concept of organizations as social arenas in which all human emotions are likely to emerge. The question is that of who deals with the negative emotions (e.g anxiety and emotional pain) that can threaten to overwhelm organizational initiatives and contribute to lower performance (Ginkal et-al 2007). It is undoubtedly an important one that relates to the health and well-being of organizational members. From an interactionist perspective, a study anticipated that increasing levels of managerial responsibility would unlock discretionary helping behaviour related to differences in self-monitoring and positive affectivity (Ginkal et-al 2007). Results from a study of 94 members of a recruitment firm confirmed that those active in providing emotional help to others in the workplace tended to possess a combination of managerial responsibility and a high self-monitoring or high positive affectivity disposition. By contrast, when members were low in positive affect of self-monitoring they provided less emotional help to others, irrespective of the level of managerial responsibility. These interaction results remained significant after taking into account centrality in friendship and workflow networks, as well as significant effects of gender. Research shows that women are slightly superior to men in perceiving emotions (Mayer and Geher, 1996; Wong and Law, 2002; Joseph et-al, 2000). Again, women demonstrated slightly greater abilities in social and emotional intelligence, greater doubt about feelings and decisions, and less emphasis on the intellect.

HYPOTHESIS:

Having considered the above, the number of hypothesis that this paper produces are listed below:

1. Men make greater use of the Transactional Leadership Style than women.
2. Women use Transformational Leadership more than men.
3. There is a significant difference between genders across each of the five Emotional Intelligence variables (Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions, etc), Women score higher than men in each of E.I.'s components.
4. Transformational Leadership is more related to Emotional Intelligence than Transactional Leadership.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY:

The aim of this section is to provide the reader with a thorough representation of the steps taken to conduct a practical research on the topic. Due to the comparative rather than in-depthly informative nature of this research, it was deemed more suitable to use a quantitative rather than qualitative method of collecting related information. Literally acclaimed questionnaires were used as the basis of this research.

Participants:

In total, the sample comprised of 51 participants of whom 29 were male and 22 were female. Two questionnaires were distributed, one measuring leadership style and the other one emotional intelligence. Initially it was thought that the E.I. questionnaire should be distributed to managers and the one on Leadership Style solely to subordinates who would comment on their supervisors. It was believed that this would be the most effective way of gathering data which could be as realistic and reliable as possible. At a later thought however, it was perceived that the combination of both a 360 degree survey as well as a Self Report (SR) on leadership styles would have provided a more interesting and potentially more accurate set of results. The goal was to find a total of 30 managers (e.g general managers, middle managers and supervisors) who would answer both questionnaires (all therefore SRs). This goal was eventually achieved. 30 however, would be the minimum number of people who would only answer the leadership style" questionnaire. In the end, 51 completed the latter. These were either supervisors or subordinates, having on rare occasions more than one subordinate commenting on the same manager. (In the Analysis section that follows, a distinction between the set of scores resulting from Self-Reports/ Observer reports, will be demonstrated). Of the 30 occupying some kind of leadership position. 17 were men and 13 were women.

The industry sectors these managers belonged to were mostly banking (7) and construction (8),

although also accounting (4), sports, sales, residential housekeeping and catering. The sample at large included people from an even wider range of industries including publishing, recruitment consulting and marketing. The variety of industry backgrounds was necessary, given the traditionally male/female dominated nature of an overwhelming number of professions. Indeed, finding an adequate combination of male and female managers within a single domain proved challenging, revealing the applicability of the earlier-mentioned principle that ‘work is gendered’. The educational levels of the sample therefore also varied, with a postgraduate degree being the highest level of attained education and a school leaving certificate the lowest. The national/cultural background of all the participants was mostly British. Although specific information on age was not requested, it can be stated with fair confidence that the estimated age range of the sample managers was early 40s to mid-60s, while employees could be as young as in their mid-20s.

Procedure:

The mere process of collecting the questionnaires was undoubtedly educating in various respects. Firstly, when the researcher attempted to approach employees individually he was surprised to find out that a small section of them reacted with a strong sense of apprehension towards the prospect of answering a questionnaire, before even they were informed of its content. It took a reassuring voice and patience in explaining to them what it was all about and how their contribution would be greatly valued, to convince some of them to cooperate. Given that a number of the people (managers and non) approached face to face had previously been either complete strangers or distant acquaintances, it was at times difficult to gain some of their time to firstly listen and secondly actually fill in the questionnaires. Given also that due to security reasons it was difficult to gain access to workplace establishments in London, places visited had to be restricted to those generally most frequently attended such as the university, hall of residence, coffee places, supermarkets/ clothes’ shops, the gym (opportunity sample). Some were able to complete the questionnaires on the spot, whilst others necessitated time and good organizational skills from the researcher’s part in remembering when they would be ready to collect and return to the establishment in due time.

However, the success rate was as expected a lot higher (more than 90%) when people were contacted on a face-to-face basis, than when questionnaires were sent by email. Indeed, even though every effort was made to send individualized/ personalized emails (with the questionnaires attached) kindly requesting people’s participation in the research, it was very difficult to attract people at managerial positions who would at best respond through their secretary to apologise for their lack of sufficient time. For various types of employees however, who were asked to solely complete the leadership questionnaire, overall the email proved to be a very efficient means of collecting data in a short time from people who were out of station.

Measures:

The questionnaire assessing Leadership Styles that was used in this research was taken from Northouse’s (2007) *Leadership: Theory and Practice* book. It is made up of 20 items that assess two orientations: task and relationship (or transactional transformational style). All items are rated on a five-point scale (where 1-Never, and 5-Always). The questionnaire gathered therefore, each individual acquired two separate scores (from 10 to 50 in each), corresponding to the two leadership styles. Some strengths and weaknesses of the above questionnaire should be mentioned here. Firstly, it is a reliable approach to studying the behavior of leaders (rather than only their personal traits or characteristics) because it is supported by a wide range of studies. Also this style approach is valuable because it underscores the importance of the two core dimensions of leadership behavior: task and relationship. It

reminds leaders that their impact on others occurs along both dimensions. On the negative side, researchers have not been able to associate the behavior of leaders (task and relationship) with outcomes such as morale, job satisfaction, and productivity. Therefore, an interpretation of the gender — transformational leadership style comparison results should be treated with caution. Moreover, it should be bore in mind that researchers from the style approach have not been able to identify a universal set of leadership behaviors that would consistently result in effective leadership.

The Emotional Intelligence questionnaire was used for this study taken from Weisinger's (2000) "Emotional Intelligence at Work" book. It comprises of 45 items rated on a seven-point scale (where 1 indicates low ability and 7 high ability). The items are categorized into two main components and 5 factorial components. The two main components are Intrapersonal and Interpersonal, whilst the factorial components are: Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions, Self-Motivation (Intrapersonal); Relating Well, and Emotional Mentoring (Interpersonal). These constitute besides, the attributes of Goldman's (1996) definition of E.I. as stated earlier. 12 items were under Self-Awareness, 10 under Managing Emotions, 7 under Self-Motivation, 20 under Relating Well and 13 under Emotional Mentoring, indicating of course, an overlap between some of the items' categories. Clarifying further, the Intrapersonal component acts as a scale for assessing the inner self. Individuals who score high on this scale are considered to be in touch with their feelings, they feel good about themselves, and they feel positive about the way things move in their lives (Bar-On, 1997). Bar-On (1997) identified the second component, Inter-personal, to be characteristic of responsible and dependable individuals who have good people skills. Individuals who score high on this scale understand, interact and relate well with others (Bar-On, 1997). Using Microsoft Excel, each participant's scores were entered on the program and double-checked for calculation errors. A statistical analysis of the data was then carried on making use of the program's relevant tools, and an interpretation made.

ANALYSIS:

A set of descriptive statistics (sample size, sample mean, sample standard deviation) were initially found for the eight number of variables under which the data set was grouped (please see Section 1 in the Appendix for a detailed illustration of both the data set and descriptive statistics). Independent t-tests were then conducted to determine gender differences in the emotional intelligence scores and leadership styles of male and female managers. At a following step, a comparison was undertaken between Self and Observer- Reported Leadership Styles using the above method of analysis (descriptive statistics and t-test). The hypothesis formed was that there would be a significant difference between the results obtained by the two methods. The Statistical Analysis concluded with the Correlation procedure (using Pearson Correlation). The main aim of the Correlation procedure was to examine the degree of association between the two leadership styles and the various components of Emotional Intelligence. Given the different scale ranges for these variables, it was considered necessary for precision purposes, to first standardize the participants' scores (please see Table VII.3(ii) in Appendix) before proceeding to find their correlation coefficients. The Correlation procedure additionally examined the degree of association between firstly the Leadership Styles only. and secondly the number of E.I.s components only.

Results:

For the 51 men and women involved, the summary of descriptive statistics presented in VII.I in the appendix, shows the mean transactional leadership score to be 38.59 and that of transformational slightly higher, at 40.29 in a scale of 10-50. Table 1 below demonstrates that scores for men and women separately were also always slightly higher for the transformational style. The Standard Deviations were also smaller for this style. Men overall had higher mean scores than women in both

styles. A t-test however, did not confirm any gender differences in leadership style ($p > .05$ for a more detailed illustration of p-values please see Section 1 (ii) — (iv) in the Appendix.)

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Gender, Leadership Style and E.I.

	Male (Means and standard Deviations)	Female (Means and standard Deviations)	p
LEADERSHIP STYLE	n	n	
Transactional	29 39.17 (5.71)	22 37.82 (6.74)	>.05
Transformational	40.93 (3.83)	39.45 (5.70)	>.05
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE:	n	n	
Self-Awareness	27 63.71 (9.18)	13 65.92 (6.34)	>.05
Managing Emotions	47.29 (7.12)	45.15 (7.99)	>.05
Self-Motivation	33.24 (6.26)	34.85 (6.14)	>.05
Relating Well	104.12 (14.10)	113.62(14.23)	<.05
Emotional Mentoring	67.71 (9.51)	73.62 (8.19)	<.05

It is important to note however, that there were significant differences between self and Observer-Reported scores in Leadership Style. Table 2 below demonstrates this. The Mean differences for the TA (Transactional) and TF (Transformational) leadership styles were as high as 4.68 and 4.23 for SR and OR respectively, with SR scores being higher. It is also worth mentioning here the respective p-values, which were particularly low, justifying in large part, the validity of the initial statement: P (T=t) two-tail: 0.01 for TA L.S. and less than 0.01 for TF L.S (please see VII.2 (ii) — (iii) in Appendix for details) The relatively large difference in the number of observations under each variable however (33 for SR and 18 for OR), is also a factor to consider in the interpretation of these results. Moreover it should be stated that the imbalance of gender variation under each of this specific group of scores (SR - M: 24, F: 9; OR— M: 13, F: 5). prevented further research into possible gender differences between Self and Observer-Reported measurements.

Table 2: Self-Report and Observer Report differences in Leadership Styles

		SR (n=33)	OR (n=18)	p-value
TA L.S.:	Mean	40.24	35.56	>.05
	St. Dev.	5.56	6.15	
TF L.S.:	Mean	41.79	37.56	>.05
	St. Dev.	3.71	5.28	

Note: TA L.S.: Transactional Leadership Style; TF L.S.: Transformational Leadership Style.

As for the Emotional Intelligence scores, Table 1 above shows how there were no significant differences between men and women's mean scores in three components of E.I.: Self-Awareness, Managing Emotions and Self-Motivation. Nevertheless, women scored more highly than men in the "Relating Well" and "Emotional Mentoring" factors of E.I. with mean scores for women at 113.62 and 73.62 respectively, against 104.12 and 67.71 of men. P-values are less than 0.04 in both of these factors

demonstrate that these results are of significance statistical importance. It should also be stated that these latter two factors make up the Interpersonal dimension of E.1., while the first three the Intrapersonal one.

In examining the degree of association between this study's variables, it was deemed necessary to preliminarily verify the independence of the two variables under Leadership Style, as asserted by the author of the distributed questionnaire. In fact, the results showed a certain degree of association between Transactional and Transformational Leadership, with a correlation coefficient of 0.22 (as demonstrated in Table 3). Overall, the correlation coefficient among all the study's variables was both positive and significant, demonstrating that not only is there a degree of association between the two Leadership Styles' variables, but also between Leadership Style and Emotional Intelligence, as well as among the various components of Emotional Intelligence themselves. As can be seen from the first two columns of the table below, correlation coefficients were on the whole higher among Transactional Leadership and E.1 rather than Transformational Leadership and E.1.

As a result, it can be concluded that Hypothesis No 4 has been proven wrong. Particularly strong was the association between Transactional Leadership Style and Self-Motivation ($r = 0.58$), whilst the weakest relationship was between Transformational Leadership Style and Self-Awareness ($r = 0.25$). Transactional Leadership was two times ($r = 0.51$) more associated to Self-Awareness than Transformational. Only in the relationship Managing Emotions - Leadership style, did the link between Transformational Leadership and an Emotional Intelligence component prove stronger than between Transactional L.S. and an E.I. component ($r = 0.41$ against $r = 0.31$). The correlation between Relating Well and Leadership style proved to be almost equal for the two styles ($r = 0.44$ and $r = 0.43$). Finally, Emotional Mentoring was more associated to Transactional than Transformational Leadership by 13%.

Table 3: Correlation among variables

	TA L.S	TF L.S	E.I. 1	E.I. 2	E.I. 3	E.I. 4
TA L.S.	-					
TF L.S	0.22	-				
E.I. 1	0.51	0.25	-			
E.I. 2	0.31	0.41	0.56	-		
E.I. 3	0.58	0.44	0.55	0.79	-	
E.I. 4	0.44	0.43	0.67	0.54	0.71	-
E.I. 5	0.46	0.33	0.60	0.52	0.69	0.97

Note: n 30; E.1. 1: Self-Awareness, E.1.2: Managing motions, E.1. 3: Self-Motivation, E. 1. 4: Relating Well, E. 1. 5: Emotional Mentoring

Whilst for the variables discussed so far the degree of association between them can overall be characterized as moderate, that among the various components of Emotional Intelligence can be regarded as strong. All correlation coefficients were above 0.5, with a particularly strong relationship nearing perfect positive linear correlation ($r = 0.97$) between Relating Well and Emotional Mentoring. It must be stated at this point however, that such high correlation coefficients amongst E.I Components were largely to be expected, given that it was known from the beginning that statements in the E.I. questionnaire used, and their associate scores, often corresponded to more than one E.I. component (see Appendix for the scoring method used). Therefore, this study took a certain degree of correlation between E.I. competencies for granted, and solely aimed to provide an overview of the extent of such correlations. In this light, it is also worth noting the very high degree of association between Managing Emotions and Self-Motivation ($r = 0.79$), as well as Self-Motivation and Relating Well ($r = 0.71$).

DISCUSSION:

The analysis carried out above has resulted in a number of interesting findings associated with the inter-relationship between gender, leadership style and emotional intelligence. Firstly, contrary to this study's two initial hypothesis, no gender differences were found between transactional or transformational leadership scores of male and female managers. As mentioned in the Literature Review section of this study, previous research on this subject has revealed ambiguous findings. Some researchers have found women to be more transformational than men (Carless, 1998). While other researchers such as Eagly and Carli (2003) found that contrary to stereotypic expectations, women were not found to lead in a more interpersonally oriented and less task-oriented manner than men in organizational studies. These differences were found only in settings where behavior was more regulated by social roles, such as experimental settings. Additionally, a very recent study conducted for a multinational corporation headquartered in Germany with branches in China, Japan and the USA, found that men and women independent of nationality exhibit rather similar penchants for managerial style (Gunkel, et-al 2007). It thus becomes apparent that emphasis should perhaps now be shifted from gender differences in leadership style to a more profound investigation of each gender's particular strengths which could prove beneficial in a managerial role. These strengths might not necessarily be categorized into Leadership styles.

Before moving on to a discussion about the role of Leadership styles in determining successful leadership, some further attention must be placed on the ways this study's scores were attained. It can be argued that the combination of a 360 degree survey together with Self-Reports, offers a reliable measure of assessing Leadership Styles. However, the analysis carried out earlier on, demonstrated a significant difference between SRs and ORs, in favour of the first. An important question then arises as to who (and perhaps how many) can be deemed more suitable to assess one's leadership style. Questions also arise as to why it might be that Self-Report scores in these questionnaires were higher than Observer Reports. Do people in general tend to rate themselves more highly than others, or is it perhaps that leaders, given the confidence acquired through their role, and perhaps the inferior (and thus more critical) position of subordinates, that the observed discrepancy can be explained? People's concern with social desirability, is undoubtedly also a factor to be kept in mind when considering such questions. In any case, it cannot be stated with absolute certainty how the SR — OR composition of the sample would affect the leadership style scores. Given that both genders exhibit similar leadership styles, it can be inferred that explanations relating to gender inequalities at managerial positions should concentrate on factors outside leadership styles. If leadership success is dependent / strongly related to leadership styles (and the latter is almost equal for both genders), then it follows that men cannot be considered as more successful managers than women. An important question that was raised at the beginning of this study therefore manifests itself once more, as to what essentially defines successful leadership, and the extent to which it is dependent on leadership styles. This is also important to explore before moving on to a discussion about the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational / Transactional leadership styles. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (1964, 1978, 1985) [in Northouse, (2007). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. London: Sage. p. 72-76], which was republished in 1991 as the Leadership Grid, can provide a solid basis upon which to investigate the relationship between leadership style and success. The Grid was designed to explain how leaders help organizations to reach their purposes through two factors: concern for production (paralleled to transactional leadership) and concern for people (paralleled to transformational style). The Grid proposes five leadership styles and their associated scores (with 1 being the lowest and 9 the highest) in each of these two dimensions. This style approach marked a major shift in the general focus of leadership research, as leadership was no longer treated as an exclusively personality trait: focus on it expanded to include what leaders did and how they acted. The style approach declares that whenever leadership occurs, the leader is acting out both task and relationship behaviors; the key to being an effective leader often rests on how the leader balances these two behaviors.

This said, the above approach has not adequately shown how leaders' styles are associated with performance outcomes. Researchers have not been able to establish a consistent link between task and

relationship behaviors and outcomes such as morale, job satisfaction, and productivity. Even though this approach has failed to find a universal style of leadership that could be effective in almost every situation, Blake and Mouton do exalt the merits of maximizing both production-oriented and people-oriented methods in leadership use. This study's initial emphasis on the additive effect of transformational leadership therefore, now shifts attention from a single style of management to the combination of both (transactional and transformational). Even if this constitutes an ideal, Blake and Mouton claim that it is an ideal which is worth working for. Another question which arises here however, is the extent to which transactional and transformational leadership styles can be considered as two independent variables. Despite claims that this is indeed the case - supporting even the relevant questionnaire used in this study by Northouse, valid beliefs underlining the human nature of both of these variables, predicted the high likelihood that they are to a certain degree correlated. As demonstrated earlier on, this study proved this assumption to be a fact, with a rather low but still significant degree of positive correlation of 0.22 between the two variables. This result therefore suggests that the way people lead cannot only wholly be dependent on one of the two styles; it can thus also be derived, that a successful leadership style cannot be defined solely by a transactional or transformational approach. The positive correlation also suggests that if one improves on one of these styles, not only will it have an impact on the other, but this will also be positive (even if limited). Overall, building on House and Avolio (1993) work, described transactional and transformational leadership as a single continuum rather than mutually independent continua.

As expressed in the Literature Review, transformational leadership did not generally prove to be as connected to emotional intelligence as transactional. In fact, the difference in favour of the latter in three of EI's attributes — Self-Awareness, Self-Motivation and Emotional Mentoring — was considerable. According to various researchers (Bass, 1997; Burns, 1978; Ross and Offerman, 1997), a transformational leader exhibits qualities including empathy, motivation, self-awareness, and self-confidence, all of which Goleman (1996) described as subcomponents of emotional intelligence. This study does not prove the opposite, as correlations between transformational leadership and all of E.I.'s tested components were both positive and moderate (with the exception of "Self-Awareness" which can be considered as rather low). The "Managing emotions" component was also clearly more associated to transformational rather than transactional leadership. This can be considered as reasonable, given that the very definition of transformational leadership is concerned with change, and especially change in one's emotional state, to the most productive outcome.

What this study did demonstrate however, is that transactional leadership can potentially be even more related to some aspects of E.I. than transformational. It has underlined the relationship that has always undoubtedly existed, between, for instance, self-awareness and transactional leadership — a task-oriented behavior. Weisinger (2000) asserts that with high self-awareness you are able to monitor yourself, observe yourself in action, to influence your actions so that they work to your benefit. He stresses moreover, that self-awareness is the core of each of E.I.'s skills, "because emotional intelligence can only begin when affective information enters the perceptual system". Its importance for success in the workplace is considered paramount. The highest correlation coefficient attained was that between Transactional leadership and Self-Motivation. This relationship can again be explained in the way Weisinger (2000) associates self-motivation with productivity. He asserts that when you are self-motivated, you are able to begin a task or assignment, stick with it, and move ahead to completion, all the while dealing with any setbacks that may arise. Self-Motivation, together with Self-Awareness and to a less degree Emotional Mentoring, concentrate attention on the self and its role in the process of task completion, rather than the other, which makes their stronger association with transactional rather than transformational leadership appear logical in hindsight.

It is of interest to note however, that E.I.'s 'Relating Well' factor — of incalculable value in the workplace — did not meet initial expectations that it would most strongly be associated to the transformational style. This is where one of the greatest criticisms of transformational leadership comes

into surface: Relating a lot to people, and having a great impact on people, does not necessarily imply that this relationship is good, explaining therefore the presence of E.I. Researchers have on occasions emphasized that the charismatic nature of transformational leadership presents significant risks for organizations because it can be used for destructive purposes (Howell and Avolio, 1993). Taking into consideration the above complications, coming to valid conclusions about the relationship between successful leadership and emotional intelligence is no straightforward task. Given in addition, the high degree of correlation between all of E.I.'s components, it is difficult to consider them as distinct factors whilst also given the variability of the correlations, no reliable overall E.I. score may be obtained. For the purposes of this study's investigation, it was deemed suitable to take the "Self-Awareness" component (which is besides, as argued earlier, at the core of all of E.I.'s skills) and "Relating Well" (which, contrary to Self-Awareness, belongs to the Interpersonal sphere of E.I.), and compare them to both the highest and lowest combination of leadership style scores.

As highlighted in Table VII.3.(i) in the Appendix, it can be seen how the highest combination scores in leadership style are also associated with some of the highest scores in the two components of E.I. mentioned earlier. However, the lowest set of combination leadership style scores was not necessarily associated with the lowest two E.I. scores or vice versa. Nor did the highest E.I. scores necessarily relate to some of the highest combination L.S. scores. If therefore one takes Blake and Mouton's high transactional — high transformational proposition as model of leadership success, Emotional Intelligence can indeed (Goleman, 1996). be considered an important prerequisite of managerial effectiveness. This said, neither does high E.I. seem to guarantee leadership success, nor does relatively low E.I. associate to an overall poor leadership style. The conclusions just reached contain all of the nuances mentioned earlier on however, regarding for instance the way successful leadership can be defined, the extent to which various leadership styles' success can be dependent on the situation, and the degree to which one can associate Self-Awareness' and Relating Well' to overall impressions about E.I. Having examined also the relationship between gender and leadership style and found no significant differences, it is now also worth discussing the results based on the relationship between gender and Emotional Intelligence.

The results of this study showed that there are significant differences in the Emotional Intelligence scores between men and women only in some of E.I.' factors. It was found that women scored more highly than men in the Interpersonal domain of E.I., namely in the 'Relating Well' and Emotional Mentoring' factors. This seems to be in agreement with Petrides and Furnham's (2000) findings: having had two hundred and sixty participants complete a measure of trait emotional intelligence and estimated their scores, they found that females scored higher than males on the 'social skills' factor of measured trait E.I. As discussed earlier on, this is less likely to be due to biological predisposition, and more likely to be associated with childhood socialization and socially defined models of femininity vs masculinity. In some studies where overall emotional intelligence scores were compared to men and women, such as Goleman's (1996), no differences were found in E.I. for male and female managers. Mandell and Pherwani (2003) reveal that where females did result in having higher overall E.I. scores than men, the authors emphasized that "it is possible that women as compared to men scored high on certain components (for example empathy and social skills) and low on certain other components (for example, motivation and self regulation)" (Mandell. and Pherwani, 2003).

CONCLUSIONS:

By means of practical research as well as scholarly reviews, this study has provided a gender comparison between two social and work-related aspects: Leadership Style and Emotional Intelligence. The results revealed hardly any gender differences, if it is not in the Interpersonal component of E.I. in favour of women. No evidence has been provided that women might be less effective as leaders than men — explaining the glass ceiling, while the E.I. results prove, on the contrary, that women possess a particularly precious advantage over men in the workplace and potentially in leadership positions in particular.

The results encourage one to conclude that it is perhaps time to stop talking about gender differences between men and women in leadership and perhaps start focusing on the fact that even if gender differences exist, they are both necessary in running a business. Certain masculine traits, such as the ability to focus and take action, are essential to a business's success. The feminine qualities of relationship building, emotional mentoring, communication, multitasking, intuition and compassion offer business a very different perspective from the more commonly recognized masculine traits.

Emotional Intelligence, this contemporary concept that has often resulted in convoluted conclusions about its relevance to the workplace, has proved itself to be particularly associated to the transactional leadership style. The particularly strong relationship between three factors of E.I - namely Self-Awareness, Self-Motivation and Emotional Mentoring - with the transactional approach has challenged the traditional association of E.I. with the transformational style, and has emphasized that transactional leadership is still a modern, valid and demanding approach that reveals a lot more about the self than a simple practical concern with the completion of tasks. Nevertheless, when expiring leadership styles it is important to bear in mind that generalizations are often not apt; considering their application, it is clear that certain types of occupations simply call for different types of leaders. However, whether one is a "true-type" or a combination of leadership styles, it is also important to remember that one's effectiveness as a leader will depend on how well his/her style fits a particular leadership situation or meets the demands of a specific occupation. and not necessarily on how highly he/she scores in a certain leadership style category.

Appendix:

Section 1

Data Set Table

I.D.	M/F	SR/ OR	TA L.S. (10-50)	TF L.S. (10-50)	EI 1 (12-84)	EI 2 (10-70)	EI 3 (7-49)	EI 4 (20-140)	EI 5 (13-91)
1	0	1	43	46					
2	0	1	38	38					
3	0	1	38	36					
4	0	1	41	31					
5	0	0	43	39					
6	0	1	34	40					
7	0	1	31	39					
8	0	0	34	42					
9	0	1	31	40					
10	0	1	47	43					
11	0	1	39	44					
12	0	1	40	44					
13	0	0	48	46	74	51	41	127	82
14	0	0	39	39	61	47	29	103	70
15	0	0	40	38	56	48	36	93	61
16	0	0	50	49	84	67	47	140	91
17	0	0	45	41	69	45	34	92	57
18	0	0	39	42	61	51	32	108	70
19	0	0	34	44	63	47	32	106	71
20	0	0	45	35	76	43	31	102	67
21	0	0	46	39	63	54	41	108	73
22	0	0	38	41	58	47	30	93	62
23	0	0	42	43	71	51	42	123	79
24	0	0	35	39	67	44	25	99	64
25	0	0	44	42	60	43	32	106	66
26	0	0	25	41	65	51	31	95	58
27	0	0	35	48	50	34	24	93	59

28	0	0	37	40	56	41	29	91	56
29	0	0	35	38	49	40	29	91	65
30	1	1	38	28					
31	1	1	34	40					
32	1	0	47	45					
33	1	1	38	39					
34	1	1	33	34					
35	1	1	23	28					
36	1	1	38	38					
37	1	1	25	33					
38	1	1	29	35					
39	1	0	38	42	63	53	41	105	69
40	1	0	41	39	71	41	31	135	86
41	1	0	49	49	76	60	46	126	81
42	1	0	39	42	68	49	38	122	79
43	1	0	41	40	61	42	33	109	69
44	1	0	38	47	56	38	28	101	66
45	1	0	43	44	61	50	40	120	77
46	1	0	47	41	73	35	28	96	62
47	1	0	39	42	63	46	30	91	60
48	1	0	32	45	75	53	35	128	78
49	1	0	35	32	60	36	26	100	71
50	1	0	39	43	62	35	36	115	75
51	1	0	46	42	68	49	41	129	84

Table (ii): Descriptive Statistics – Men and Women

MandF	TA. L.S. (10-50)	TF. L.S. (10-50)	E.I. I (12-84)	E.I. 2 (10-70)	EJ. 3 (7-49)	E.I. 4 (20-140)	E.I. 5 (13-91)
n	51	51	30	30	30	30	30
Mean Scores	38.59	40.29	64.67	46.37	33.93	108.23	70.27
St. Dcv.	6.15	4.74	8.02	7.45	6.15	14.71	9.30

Table (iii): Descriptive Statistics – Men

M	TA. L.S. (10-50)	TF. L.S. (10-50)	E.I. I (12-84)	E.I. 2 (10-70)	EJ. 3 (7-49)	E.I. 4 (20-140)	E.I. 5 (13-91)
N	29	22	17	17	17	17	17
Mean Scores	39.17	40.93	63.71	47.29	33.24	104.12	67.71
St. Dcv.	5.71	3.84	9.18	7.12	6.26	14.10	9.51

Table (iv): Descriptive Statistics – Women

M	TA. L.S. (10-50)	TF. L.S. (10-50)	E.I. I (12-84)	E.I. 2 (10-70)	EJ. 3 (7-49)	E.I. 4 (20-140)	E.I. 5 (13-91)
N	29	22	13	13	13	13	13
Mean Scores	37.82	39.45	65.92	45.15	34.85	113.61	73.62
St. Dcv.	6.74	5.70	6.34	7.99	6.14	14.23	8.19

Table (v): Transactional Leadership Style
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	39.17241	37.81 818

Variance	32.57635	45.39394
Observations	29	22
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	41	
t Stat	0.758619	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.22621	
t Critical one-tail	1.682879	

Table (vi): Transformational Leadershin Style.
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	40.93103	39.45455
Variance	14.70936	32.54545
Observations	29	22
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	35	
t Stat	1.047562	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.151 011	
t Critical one-tail	1.689573	

Table (vii): E.I. 1- Self-Awareness
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	63.70588	65.92308
Variance	84.22059	40.24359
Observations	17	13
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	28	
t Stat	-0.78147	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.220543	
t Critical one-tail	1.70113	

Table (viii): E.I. 2 —Managing Emotions
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	47.29412	45.15385
Variance	50.72059	63.80769
Observations	17	13
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	24	
t Stat	0.761868	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.226781	
t Critical one-tail	1.710882	

Table (ix): E.I. 3—Self-Motivation
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Male	Female
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Mean	33.23529	34.84615
Variance	39.19118	37.64103
Observations	17	13
Pooled Variance	38.52683	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	28	
t Stat	-0.70439	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.243505	
t Critical one-tail	1.70113	

Table (x): E.I. 4 — Relating Well
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	104.1176	113.6154
Variance	198.8603	202.4231
Observations	17	13
Pooled Variance	200.3872	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	28	
t Stat	-1.82105	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.039651	
t Critical one-tail	1.70113	

Table (xi): E.I 5 — Emotional Mentoring
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male	Female
Mean	67.70588	73.61538
Variance	90.47059	67.08974
Observations	17	13
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	28	
t Stat	-1.82523	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.039326	
t Critical one-tail	1.70113	

Section 2

Self-Report/Observer Report Data Set Table

I.D.	SR/OR	M/F	TA L.S. (10-50)	TF L.S. (10-50)
13	0	0	48	46
14	0	0	39	39
15	0	0	40	38
16	0	0	50	49
8	0	0	34	42
17	0	0	45	41
18	0	0	39	42

19	0	0	34	44
20	0	0	45	35
21	0	0	46	39
22	0	0	38	41
23	0	0	42	43
24	0	0	35	39
25	0	0	44	42
26	0	0	25	41
27	0	0	35	48
28	0	0	37	40
5	0	0	43	39
29	0	0	35	38
39	0	1	38	42
40	0	1	41	39
41	0	1	49	49
42	0	1	39	42
43	0	1	41	40
44	0	1	28	47
45	0	1	43	44
46	0	1	47	41
47	0	1	39	42
48	0	1	32	45
32	0	1	47	45
49	0	1	35	32
50	0	1	39	43
51	0	1	46	42
10	1	0	47	43
11	1	0	39	44
12	1	0	40	44
9	1	0	31	40
1	1	0	43	46
2	1	0	38	38
6	1	0	34	40
7	1	0	31	39
38	1	1	29	35
36	1	1	38	38
35	1	1	23	28
34	1	1	33	34
33	1	1	38	39
31	1	1	34	40
37	1	1	25	33
30	1	1	38	28
3	1	1	38	36
4	1	1	41	31

Table (ii): Transactional

Table (ii): Transactional L.S — Self-Report/Observer-Report
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	SR	OR.
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Mean	40.24242	35.55556
Variance	30.93939	37.79085
Observations	33	18
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	32	
t Stat	2.689409	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.005637	
t Critical one-tail	1.693888	
P(T<=t) two-tail	2.036932	
t Critical two-tail		

Table (iii): Transformational L.S. —Self-Report/Observer-Report
t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	S.R	O.R
Mean	41.78788	37.55556
Variance	13.73485	27.9085
Observations	33	18
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	26	
t Stat	3.01795	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.002817	
t Critical one-tail	1.705616	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.005634	
t Critical two-tail	2.055531	

Section 3

30 Managers' Data Set Table

l.D.	M/F	SR/ OR	TA L.S. (10-50)	TF L.S. (10-50)	EI 1 (12-84)	EI 2 (10-70)	EI 3 (7-49)	EI 4 (20-140)	EI 5 (13-91)
13	0	0	48	46	74	51	41	127	82
14	0	0	39	39	61	47	29	103	70
15	0	0	40	38	56	48	36	93	61
16	0	0	50	49	84	67	47	140	91
17	0	0	45	41	69	45	34	92	57
18	0	0	39	42	61	51	32	108	70
19	0	0	34	44	63	47	32	106	71
20	0	0	45	35	76	43	31	102	67
21	0	0	46	39	63	54	41	108	73
22	0	0	38	41	58	47	30	93	62
23	0	0	42	43	71	51	42	123	79
24	0	0	35	39	67	44	25	99	64
25	0	0	44	42	60	43	32	106	66
26	0	0	25	41	65	51	31	95	58
27	0	0	35	48	50	34	24	93	59

28	0	0	37	40	56	41	29	91	56
29	0	0	35	38	49	40	29	91	65
39	1	0	38	42	63	53	41	105	69
40	1	0	41	39	71	41	31	135	86
41	1	0	49	49	76	60	46	126	81
42	1	0	39	42	68	49	38	122	79
43	1	0	41	40	61	42	33	109	69
44	1	0	38	47	56	38	28	101	66
45	1	0	43	44	61	50	40	120	77
46	1	0	47	41	73	35	28	96	62
47	1	0	39	42	63	46	30	91	60
48	1	0	32	45	75	53	35	128	78
49	1	0	35	32	60	36	26	100	71
50	1	0	39	43	62	35	36	115	75
51	1	0	46	42	68	49	41	129	84

30 Managers' Data Set Table in Standardized format

I.D	M/F	TRC L.S.	TRF L.S	E.I. 1	E.I. 2	E.I. 3	E.I. 4	E.I. 5
13	0	1.414108	1.110601	1.163328	0.621654	1.148521	1.275755	1.261232
14	0	-0.20372	-0.7258	-0.45702	0.084974	-0.8018	-0.35576	-0.02866
15	0	-0.02396	-0.98814	-1.08023	0.219144	0.335889	-1.03556	-0.99609
16	0	1.773625	1.897629	2.409751	2.768376	2.12368	2.159491	2.228654
17	0	0.874832	-0.20111	0.540116	-0.18337	0.010836	-1.10354	-1.42605
18	0	-0.20372	0.061231	-0.45702	0.621654	-0.31422	-0.01586	-0.02866
19	0	-1.10251	0.585916	-0.20774	0.084974	-0.31422	-0.15182	0.078827
20	0	0.874832	-1.77517	1.412613	-0.45171	-0.47674	-0.42374	-0.35114
21	0	1.05459	-0.7258	-0.20774	1.024165	1.148521	-0.01586	0.293809
22	0	-0.38348	-0.20111	-0.83095	0.084974	-0.63927	-1.03556	-0.8886
23	0	0.335556	0.323573	0.789401	0.621654	1.311048	1.003836	0.938758
24	0	-0.92276	-0.7258	0.290832	-0.31754	-1.4519	-0.62768	-0.67361
25	0	0.695073	0.061231	-0.58166	-0.45171	-0.31422	-0.15182	-0.45863
26	0	-2.72034	-0.20111	0.041547	0.621654	-0.47674	-0.8996	-1.31856
27	0	-0.92276	1.635287	-1.82809	-1.65924	-1.61443	-1.03556	-1.21107
28	0	-0.56324	-0.46345	-1.08023	-0.72005	-0.8018	-1.17151	-1.53354
29	0	-0.92276	-0.98814	-1.95273	-0.85422	-0.8018	-1.17151	-0.56612
39	1	-0.38348	0.061231	-0.20774	0.889994	1.148521	-0.2198	-0.13616
40	1	0.155797	-0.7258	0.789401	-0.72005	-0.47674	1.819593	1.691197
41	1	1.593866	1.897629	1.412613	1.829185	1.961154	1.207775	1.153741
42	1	-0.20372	0.061231	0.415474	0.353314	0.660942	0.935856	0.938758
43	1	0.155797	-0.46345	-0.45702	-0.58588	-0.15169	0.05212	-0.13616
44	1	-0.38348	1.372944	-1.08023	-1.12256	-0.96432	-0.49172	-0.45863
45	1	0.515314	0.585916	-0.45702	0.487484	0.985995	0.799897	0.723775
46	1	1.234349	-0.20111	1.038686	-1.52507	-0.96432	-0.83162	-0.8886
47	1	-0.20372	0.061231	-0.20774	-0.0492	-0.63927	-1.17151	-1.10358
48	1	-1.46203	0.848259	1.28797	0.889994	0.173362	1.343735	0.831266
49	1	-0.92276	-2.5622	-0.58166	-1.3909	-1.28938	-0.5597	0.078827
50	1	-0.20372	0.323573	-0.33238	-1.52507	0.335889	0.459998	0.508792

51	1	1.05459	0.061231	0.415474	0.353314	1.148521	1.411714	1.476215
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Leadership Style Questionnaire

Instructions: Read each item carefully and think about how often you (or the person you are evaluating) engage in the described behaviour. Indicate your response to each item by circling one of the five numbers to the right of each item.

Key: 1 = Never; 2 = Seldom; 3 = Occasionally; 4 = Often; 5 = Always

- | | | |
|---|---|-----------|
| 1 | Tells group members what they are supposed to do. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2 | Acts friendly with members of the group. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3 | Sets standards of performance for group members. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4 | Helps others feel comfortable in the group. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

5	Makes suggestions about how to solve problems.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Responds favourably to suggestions made by others.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Makes his or her perspective clear to others.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Treats others fairly.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Develops a plan of action for the group.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Behaves in a predictable manner towards group members.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Defines role responsibilities for each group member.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Communicates actively with group members.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Clarifies his or her own role within the group.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Shows concern for the well-being of others.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Provides a plan for how the work is to be done.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Show flexibility in making decisions	1	2	3	4	5
17	Provides criteria for what is expected of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Discloses thoughts and feelings to group members.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Encourages group members to do high quality work.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Helps group members get along.	1	2	3	4	5

Manager's Name:

Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

For each item, rate how well you are able to display the ability described. Before responding, try to think of actual situations in which you have been called on to use the ability

		Low ability						High ability					
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
1	Identify changes in physiological arousal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
2	Relax when under pressure in situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
3	Act productively when angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
4	Act productively in situations that arouse anxiety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
5	Clam yourself quickly when angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
6	Associate different physical cues with different emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
7	Use internal "Talk" to affect you emotional states	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
8	Communicate your feelings effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
9	Reflect on negative feelings without being distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
10	Stay clam when you are the target of anger from other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
11	Know when you are thinking negatively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
12	Know when you 'self-talk" is instructional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
13	Know when you are becoming angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
14	Know how you interpret events you encounter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
15	Know what senses you are currently using	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
16	Accurately communicate what you experience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
17	Identify what information influences you interpretations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
18	Identify when you experience mood shifts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
19	Know when you become defensive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
20	Know the impact that you behaviour has on other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
21	Know when you communicate incongruently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
22	"Gear up" at will.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
23	Regroup quickly after a setback.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
24	Produce high energy when doing uninteresting work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
25	Stop or change ineffective habits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
26	Develop new and more productive patterns of behaviour	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
27	Follow out conflicts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					
28	Develop cons with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7					

29	Medicate conflict between others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Medicate conflict between others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Manager's Name:

31	Exhibit effective interpersonal communication skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Articulate the thoughts of a group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Influence others, directly or indirectly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Build trust with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Build support teams	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Make others feel good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	Provide advice and support to others, as needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	Accurately reflect people's feelings back to them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	Recognize when others are distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	Help others manage their emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	Show empathy to other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	Engage in intimate conversations with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	Help a group to manage emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	Detect incongruence between other's emotions or feelings are their behaviours.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Guide to Scoring Methods:

Leadership Style Questionnaire

- Transactional leadership scores are indicated by the sum of odd-numbered item's scores.
- Transformational leadership scores are indicated by the sum of even-numbered items' scores.

Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

Tables indicating which items reflect which competencies

Intrapersonal

Self-Awareness	Managing Emotions	Self-Motivation
1, 6, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10, 13, 27	7, 22, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28

Intrapersonal

Relating Well	Emotional Mentoring
8, 10, 16, 19, 20, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 42, 43, 44, 45	8, 10, 16, 18, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 44, 45

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