Chapter 2

Literature Review

Literature review examines the concept of Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership and Empowerment, and the effect of its components on the organization, performance and work teams. This chapter provides the in depth review of the several studies which help us to enter in to the conclusion that these three fields are inter linked. From this review, the specific components of Emotional Intelligence, which influence Transformational Leadership behaviour and Empowerment, will be determined.

2.1. Is EI an oxymoron?

Some early researchers considered emotions as disorganized interruptions of mental activity, which has to be controlled. The general understanding is that emotions are in the way of thinking. Strong decisions are made with clear intellect, without the confusion of emotions. Publilius Syrus (1961) stated, “Rule your feelings, lest your feelings rule you”. They believed that to think critically, people have to get their emotions out of the way or leave emotions out of it”. Young (1943) defined emotions as “acute disturbances of the individual as a whole”. Pure emotion is seen as having no “trace of conscious purpose” (Young 1936).

However, there is another group of researchers who viewed emotions as an organized response, which focuses adaptively on cognition and subsequent action (Leeper, 1948; Easterbrook, 1959). Emotions are not viewed as chaotic or haphazard. Emotions are motivating forces which arouse, sustain and direct activity (Leeper, 1948). The complete expression of emotions is seen as a primary human motive (Izard & Buechler, 1980; Plutchik, 1980; Tomkins, 1962) and it is reasonable to study it from practical functional viewpoint.

Emotions arise in response to a stimulus, which positively or negatively affects the individual. Emotions are different from moods. Emotions are shorter and more intense, while moods are lingering and less intense. In the current study, emotions are seen as an organized adaptive response, which, when managed intelligently, can potentially lead to
an enriching transformation in social and personal interactions (Salovey & Mayer 1990).

2.2. Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Emotional Intelligence became a media buzzword in 1996 after Daniel Goleman’s bestseller *Emotional Intelligence* was published in 1995. "EI" has become a major topic of interest among the public as well to professionals after the publication of this book. And to date, EI is gaining acceptance and popularity, as the science is getting clearer through compelling research studies.

However, the origins of this concept date back to much earlier studies. Charles Darwin began studying key aspects of this construct as early as 1837 and published the first known work in 1872. He concluded that emotional awareness and expression play a major role in survival and adaptation, which remains an important maxim of EI to the present day.

Thorndike (1920) coined the word, *Social Intelligence* and defined it as “the ability to perceive one's own and others' internal states, motives and behaviours, and to act toward them optimally on the basis of that information”. This definition strongly influenced different conceptualizations of Emotional Intelligence that appeared later in the century. A few years after Thorndike's conceptualization of Social Intelligence, Doll (1935) invented the psychometric instrument to measure "socially intelligent behaviour" in young children. Doll also coined the term "SQ" ("Social Quotient").

Wechsler (1943) described the effect of non-cognitive factors on intelligent behaviour, which provided another indication of the different aspects of EI. He also implied that if the non-intellective factors were also not adequately measured, the measurement of the intelligence would not be complete. He also defined general intelligence as "the capacity of the individual to act purposefully" (Wechsler 1958). Psychologists Moss, Hunt (1927), Kelly (1955), Rogers (1961) and Rotter (1966), shifted their focus to understanding what drives interpersonal behavior (rather than defining and measuring social intelligence) and the role it plays in adapting effectively within the social setting (Zirkel 2000).
The conceptualization of the EI in the later part of the twentieth century was largely influenced by the definitions of social intelligence, which was conceptualized in the early twentieth century. Salovey & Mayer (1990) described EI as “the ability to perceive, understand and express emotions”. They observed "Emotional Intelligence" as part of Social Intelligence (Mayer et al. 1990). This suggests that both concepts i.e., Social Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence, may be related closely and even represent interconnected components of the same concept.

While looking at the connection between Emotional and Social components of EI, it is important to remember that interpersonal competence, i.e., one’s ability to understand others and relate it with them, depend on intrapersonal competence, which is the ability to understand one’s own emotions and express them. Based on the Bar-On model, “Emotional Social Intelligence is a cross-section of inter-related Emotional and Social competencies and skills that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures” (Bar-On 2000).

**Emotional Intelligence Defined:**

Emotional Intelligence is defined as “the subset of Social Intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and other’s feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Salovey & Mayer 1990). The skill to process the affective information and emotion may differ among individuals. Emotional Intelligence is also the part of Gardiner’s description about Personal Intelligence (Gardener 1983), which is divided into Inter and Intra Personal Intelligence and includes knowledge about self and others. Knowledge about self and others does relate to feelings and is close to EI (Gardener 1983). Interpersonal Intelligence is the ability to observe others’ moods and temperaments and use that information in future to solve problems or enrich relationships.

The Encyclopaedia of Applied Psychology (Spielberger 2004) offers three major Emotional Intelligence Models. These are Mayer & Salovey model, Goleman model and Bar-on model.
(a) The Mayer and Salovey model (1997) defines Emotional Intelligence as “the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking”. According to them “Emotional Intelligence is the subset of Social intelligence and Gardner’s Personal Intelligences”.

(b) According to Goleman model (1998) “Emotional Intelligence is the group of various competencies and skills that contribute to successful managerial performance”. Goleman (1995) defined EI as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions effectively in ourselves and in others”.

c) The Bar-On model (1997b) defined EI as “an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies and skills that impact intelligent behaviour”. Bar-On (1997) would associate transformational leaders' superior work performance to high EQ-i scores.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) expanded Gardner’s idea of Personal Intelligence in 5 domains, they are: “knowing One’s emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others and handling relationships”.

Managing Emotions intelligently helps people adapt and motivate them by focusing their thoughts in ways that are beneficial. Almost every modern theory on emotions describe that emotions are data about the environment around and it is wise to learn to use that data in interactions (Freedman, 2007). Emotional Intelligence is a sign of inner wisdom.

**Knowing one’s Emotions**

Emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of the way they behave and this awareness guides the person to function within the norms that are recognized for each particular role (Averill 1980: 305-339). Scheff (1983) describes emotions as being exclusive to a culture and individuals are required to be aware of the cultural expectations of certain emotional displays and act fittingly. Goleman (1995) postulates that, “the basis of emotional competency is self-awareness, which includes knowing one’s emotions, one’s abilities and limitations, as well as a solid understanding of factors and situations that
evoke emotion in one’s self and others”. This competency includes recognizing a feeling as it happens (Goleman 1995).

Self-awareness allows individuals to prioritize the concerns, which in turn help them to address the issues, that are more demanding and deeper (Abraham 1999:209-219; George 2000: 1027-1055). Meeting followers’ emotional needs is the best method to assess their feeling accurately.

Appraising and expressing emotions accurately is the vital component of EI. The first step of EI begins when information loaded with emotions enter the perceptual system. At that point, EI requires that the feelings are appraised accurately and expressed appropriately. The accurate appraisal determines the appropriate expressions of emotions (Roseman 1984; Smith & Ellsworth 1985: 813-838; Weiner 1985: 548-573). The person can quickly observe and react to his/her own emotions, and express those emotions in a better fashion to others. Verbal language is one channel through which emotions are appraised and expressed. To be able to accurately appraise and express emotions, it is necessary to learn and speak about emotions in social situations, e.g. in terms of pleasant-unpleasant and arousal-calm (Mayer & Gaschke 1988: 102-11; Watson & Clark 1984: 465-490). There are very few psychological literatures on individual differences in the styles of appraising and expressing emotions. Alexithymia is a term that refers to psychiatric patients who are not able to appraise and express their emotions verbally due to blocking of impulses (Sifneos 1972). Many times, the appraisal and expression of emotions take place on a nonverbal level and is likely to be overlooked, as it cannot be measured accurately. Since Darwin’s study of facial expressions (Darwin 1872/1965), many researchers have studied nonverbal appraisals and expressions of emotion (Ekman 2016: 31-34) as a lot of emotional communication happens through nonverbal mediums. Emotionally intelligent individuals perceive their feelings accurately and react appropriately. This skill is emotionally intelligent, because they need competence in processing the emotional information from within the system, and is essential to adequate social functioning.
Several experimental studies have shown that self-awareness, which is a part of EI, is related positively to achievement (Atwater and Yammarino 1992, 1993; Caruso, Mayer and Salovey 2002; Moshavi et al. 2003: 407-418).

Managing Emotions

The persons who accurately assess emotions can quickly see and react to their emotions and better express those emotions to others (Salovey & Mayer 1990: 185-211). This skill helps the individual to be conscious of the way one behaves (verbal and nonverbal) and implications of one’s behaviour on self and others, and exercise choice in the display of emotions. Regulation of emotion may lead to more adaptive and reinforcing ‘mood-states’ that enables them to meet particular goals (Salovey & Mayer 1990; 185-211). Eisenberg & Fabes (1992) observed that, self-regulation helps individuals to reduce their tension and enable them to react to the problems in a controlled constructive manner. Handling feelings appropriately is an ability that builds on one’s self-awareness (Goleman 1995).

Lewis (2000) established that the display of negative emotions by a leader influences the followers and forces them to rate the leader as a less effective one. According to Caruso et al. (2002) the leader who can successfully manage emotions can also easily manage job stress, frustrations, disappointments and joys. Managing emotions is about intentionally choosing one’s reactions and behaviours (Freedman 2007).

Regulation of emotion in self shows a willingness and ability to monitor, evaluate and regulate emotions and moods (Salovey & Mayer 1990: 185-211). This skill is about directing certain behaviours to bring about moods. If dancing produces a pleasant, acceptable mood, then the cause of the mood (dancing) could be used in future to elicit that mood again. Moods could also be regulated by choosing our connections or contacts, as emotions are contagious. Connections that do not threaten us generally result in positive feelings of pride, although sometimes envy can arise when we associate with people whose success are important to us as well (Salovey & Rodin 1984: 780-792). Also, when individuals help others, it aids in terminating a negative spiral of moods. Positive evaluation of negative moods will help the negative mood to change for the better or a feeling that things are under control which help individuals to
overcome the effects caused by negative moods and improve their future moods as well (Mayer & Gaschke 1988: 102-111). Moods can be directly modified by self-regulation through observations that the impact of negative moods weakens the memory recall, in comparison to positive moods. Individuals are motivated to prolong pleasant moods and attempt to attenuate the unpleasant ones (Isen & Daubman 1984: 1206). This process is called ‘mood maintenance’ and ‘mood repair’. During this process, the individuals use skillful mechanisms to stall associations created by negative moods (Clark & Isen 1982: 73-108; Fiske & Taylor 1991) and take control of their mind’s tendency to jump from negative thought to positive thought by looking for the silver lining or counting blessings or recollecting favourite things.

Regulation and alteration of the emotional reactions of other persons is one of the major characteristics of Emotional Intelligence. For example, an emotionally intelligent speaker can uplift the moods and emotions of audience so as to invite strong and positive responses.

**Motivating Oneself**

Moods may be used to motivate tenacity at challenging tasks (Salovey & Mayer 1990: 185-211). Self-Motivation is finding inner reasons and commitment to succeed and progress. This skill helps the person to persist despite obstacles or challenges along the way. Self-Motivated, Emotionally Intelligent individuals are more confident in their knack to control and influence life events. Emotionally Intelligent leaders are motivated to face different circumstances with confidence and motivate followers. Sosik and Mergerian (1999) stated, “Emotional Intelligence has an influence on Self-Motivation”.

**Recognizing Emotions in Others**

“Empathy is the sensitivity of an individual to the feelings and concerns of other social members” (Krebs 1975: 1134-1146; Thoits 1989: 317-342; Abraham 1999; George 2000: 1027-1055). It is the ability to identify feeling of other people and to experience them oneself. Empathy is a core component of Emotional Intelligent behaviour (Salovey & Mayer 1990). Empathy is defined as “the sensitivity of an individual to the feelings and concerns of other social members” (Abraham 1999:209-219; George 2000: 1025-
The people who empathetically relate to another, experience greater life fulfilment and lower level of stress. As a team rule the empathetic behaviour will cause relationships to be developed and social support setup of the team to be formed (George, 2000). Empathy is one of the most powerful and most challenging leadership competencies (Freedman 2007). According to Freedman (2007), empathy is the understanding of someone’s feelings and synchronizing with them on an emotional level so that the person feels understood, safe and respected.

It is important that individuals are able to perceive emotions in those around them. Such abilities help in enhancing interpersonal skills. This skill requires interpretation of emotions through facial expressions and non-verbal body languages. This skill is related to empathy. To strive to empathize with other people and understand them helps them to grow and is a priceless gift to another (Rogers 1961). Empathy is a core characteristic of Emotionally Intelligent behaviour. A person’s well-being is contributed to a large extent by his/her relatives, friends and neighbours (Thoits, 1989). The positive interaction of the people with one another help them in lowering their stress and achieving greater life satisfaction. The empathy of an advice-giver is a significant factor of whether the advice is seen as good (Mayer et al, 1990). People who are emotionally intelligent possess adequate social competence to develop a network of interpersonal relationships. A more supportive and empathic social structure will surround a person if he/she has a great number of emotionally intelligent relatives, friends and co-workers. Researchers have highlighted that empathy stems from appraising and expressing emotions (Batson &Coke 1981: 167-211; Wispe 1986: 314-321) and comprises of a variety of skills such as understanding others’ point of view, accurately identifying other’s emotions (Buck 1984), experiencing the same or appropriate emotion in response to them (Mehrabian & Epstein 1972: 523-543; Batson & Coke 1981: 167-211) and communicate or act on this internal experience (Batson et al, 1983; Krebs, 1975). According to multiple studies on empathy, appraisal of one’s own emotions and those of others are greatly interrelated so that one cannot exist without the other. Empathy helps leaders to assess accurately the emotional responses of their followers and choose socially adaptive behavioural responses. Such leaders are perceived as genuine and
warm by their followers. The empathy constituent of emotional intelligence is shown to be an important distinctive necessity for team cohesiveness (Thoits 1989: 317-342).

Handling Relationships
According to Salovey and Mayor (1990) “the ability to regulate and alter the affective reactions of others is one of the prominent characteristics of emotional intelligence”. They continued by stating that dispositional affect, which allows a continuous influence on attitudes and behaviour may be a good predictor of organizational performance. Again in their journal in 1993 they suggested that people having higher emotional intelligence might be more unguarded to internal experience and better able to name and express those experiences with others. The art of handling relationships is the skill in managing emotions of others (Goleman 1995).

Using EI in Real life:
When people approach life with EI, they are at an advantage to solving problems. The way they identify and frame problems would be related to their internal emotional experience. People having good moods wish positive events to happen than negative events, and the opposite is true for people with unpleasant moods (Bower 1981: 129-148; Johnson & Tversky 1982; Mayer & Bremer 1985: 95-99; Mayer & Volanth 1985: 261-275; Mayer et al. 1988; Salovey & Birnbaum 1989: 539-551). The people who are able to influence mood swings are able to generate more number of future plans and are in a better position to explore the advantage of future opportunities (Mayer 1986). Emotionally intelligent people are able to comprehend and express their emotions, recognize emotions in others, manage feelings and moods and use emotions to motivate behaviours. Peculiar characteristics of these individuals include awareness of their feelings and those of others, openness to positive and negative experiences and ability to label these experiences and communicate them appropriately. This awareness will allow them to regulate emotions within themselves and others. He/she leaves others feeling better by attending to emotion while in the process of growth. The emotionally intelligent leaders will perceive emotions accurately and regulate them using integrated approaches as they move towards important goals. Individuals who do not regulate their emotions become slaves to them. People who cannot identify emotions in self and
others may have challenges in healthy relationships and are unable to plan fulfilling lives.

An emotionally intelligent team player understands that certain behaviours like promptness and pro-activeness help in creating a favourable impression in the organization (Jones 1964). Emotionally Intelligent leaders are especially skillful at this process of controlling emotion in others as well as self and do so to meet particular goals.

Goleman (1998) popularized empathy and self-knowledge as important components of leadership today. He claimed that leaders could actually influence their followers to mirror their emotions and actions. When people feel good, they perform better because they are more receptive to information and respond more creatively.

“People with positive dispositions, which are stable, tend to make more accurate decisions and enhance interpersonal performance”, Staw and Barsade (1993).

Barsade (2002) found that the spread of positive emotions in a group could increase cooperation and reduce conflict in a group.

2.3. **Transformational Leadership (TL)**

There are broadly two types of leadership processes: transactional leadership and transformational leadership (Burns 1978).

After reviewing the literature, Podsakoff et al (1990) proposed seven conceptualizations of transformational leadership behaviour which are as follows- articulate a vision of the future, foster group-oriented work, set high expectations, challenge followers thinking, support followers’ individual needs and act as a role model. According to Bass (1990b) Multiple Intelligence, Social and Emotional intelligence are the prime factors that should be possessed by transformational leaders. These factors are important because they excite the leader’s ability to stimulate employees and build relations. Caruso et al. (2002) supports this view of Bass. The transformational leader uplifts followers to a state which enable them to gaze beyond their own interests and, towards the interests that will be of value to the larger group/organization.
Intellectual stimulation is also utilized by transformational leaders for challenging the usual ways of doing tasks by their followers and in return motivating in them innovative means of working and resolving difficulties (Bass & Avolio 1994, 1997). Such leaders thus coach and mentor followers to take up more authority (Bass 1985; Yukl 1998).

According to Bass (1997) compared to transactional leaders, transformational leaders attained accomplished levels of success in the workplace, were promoted more regularly, produced better financial results and were evaluated to be more effective by their employees.

Transformational Leaders have the ability to uplift people from lower levels of needs (survival) to higher levels of needs on the Maslow’s Need Hierarchy (Yukl 1989; Kelly 2003). They motivate their followers to surpass their own interests for the overall purpose of the organization (Feinberg, Ostroff & Burke 2005: 471-488). In order to achieve this type of leadership qualities, the leader should involve with their followers as whole people rather than just as an employee. Thus in effect Transformational Leaders encourage actualization of the followers (Rice 1993).

Transformational Leadership is a process of self-reflective shifting of beliefs and values by both the leader and the followers. The leader and the follower raise each other’s achievement, motivation and morality to levels that otherwise might not be possible (Chekwa 2001; Barnett 2003; Crawford, Gould & Scott 2003: 1-12)

However, the morality of the transformational leadership was questioned by Development Consultants and Libertarians (Rafferty & Griffin 2004: 329-354). One of the key criticisms is that, transformational leadership has the possibility to abuse power (Hall et al. 2002). In the absence of moral integrity, transformational leadership might result in undesirable social ends (Bass 1997). This is the “dark side of charisma”. Transformational leaders with good positive charismatic qualities can be contradicted by the leaders having equally opposite qualities (Yukl 1989). The criticisms regarding the morality of the Transformational Leader are countered by the argument that moral foundation is an inevitable factor needed for any person to become a true transformational leader. Hence, “to bring about change, authentic Transformational
Leadership fosters the values of honesty, fairness and loyalty, as well the end values of justice, equality and human rights,” (Rafferty & Griffin 2004: 329-354).

**Leadership styles related to Transformational Leadership styles**

During literature survey, it was found that Transformational Style is related to many other leadership styles such as charismatic leadership, democratic leadership, participative leadership and task oriented or relation oriented leadership.

**Transformational and Charismatic Leadership**

Burns theory mentions 5 types of Transformational Leaders:

a) Intellectual leaders - leaders who have clear vision to transform society,
b) Revolutionary leaders – leaders who bring out sweeping changes and widespread transformation in the society,
c) Reform/moral leaders – leaders who address a single moral issue and thereby influence change in the society,
d) Charismatic leaders – leaders who bring about change through the use of personal charm,
e) Ideological leaders – leaders who are dedicated to specific goals that require a substantial social change.

Qualities of Transformational Leadership that overlap with Charismatic Leadership include idealized influence, role modeling, high ethical and moral conduct and emphasis on the needs of others (Bass 1985, 1998; Bass & Avolio 1988). From this overlap of qualities between the two leadership styles, it can be considered that Charismatic Leadership Style is part of Transformational Leadership Style, for this research study.

**Transformational Leadership and participative, democratic, task or relation centred leaderships**

Transformational Leadership Style is directive, participative, task or relation oriented based on the situation or their characteristics (Bass, Avalio and Goodheim 1987).

According to Fernando et al. (2007) there exist a correlation between transformational leadership style and other leadership styles. These correlations are between (a) transformational and relation oriented leadership styles (r=0.85) (b) transformational
and democratic leadership styles \((r=0.81)\) (c) transformational and task oriented leadership styles \((r=0.77)\).

From the above views and results, it can be concluded that Participative, Democratic, Task Oriented or Relation Oriented Leadership Styles can be considered under Transformational Leadership Style.

**Characteristics of Transformational Leadership**

Bass, 1985, summarized the characteristics of transformational leadership as- i) idealized influence, ii) individualized consideration, iii) inspirational motivation and iv) intellectual stimulation.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) highlighted the features of transformational leadership as i) Idealized influence (leader becomes a role model), ii) Inspirational motivation (motivation), iii) Intellectual stimulation (creativity, innovation), iv) Individualized consideration (mentoring).

Schein (1985) found Transformational Leadership to have the characteristics such as, i) focus of attention, ii) goal directed activity, iii) modeling of positive behaviour and iv) emphasis on human resources.

Followers who work with leaders who role model integrity, optimism, high moral standards and communicate high expectations, feel empowered and comfortable to perform the work required for successful completion of tasks (Bass & Avolio 1994; Avolio 1999; Walumbwa et al. 2004).

Podsakoff et al. (1996) found the traits of Transformational Leaders to be i) vision, ii) role model, iii) cooperation, iv) leader’s expectation, v) individual support and vi) intellectual stimulation.

Lowe et al (1996) contended that aspirations, needs, identities, preferences and values of followers is transformed by Transformational Leaders so as to make the followers able to expand to their complete potential.
Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) found that Transformational Leaders should be i) charismatic, ii) intellectually stimulated and iii) individually considerate.

According to Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) characteristics of Transformational Leaders include i) vision and goal ii) intellectual stimulation, iii) individualized support, iv) symbolized professional practices and values, v) demonstration of high performance expectations and vi) development of structures to foster participation in decision making.

The study by Wofford, Whittington and Godwin (2001) examined whether the follower motive pattern will influence the effectiveness of TL. The sample consisted of managers and their subordinates from an engineering services agency in US. The results showed that the Transformational Leaders were rated with higher level of self-satisfaction by followers with high growth need and strength, than their counterparts having low growth need and strength. Followers who rate their leaders as more transformational have higher autonomy needs. They are considered as more effective units by the leader than the followers who have low needs for autonomy. Better performance could be expected by the leaders from subordinates who have high needs for autonomy or who have high growth need and strength, when they use transformational behaviours as compared to use of these behaviours by such leaders with subordinates who are low on this motive patterns.

From this research, it is also seen that both individual analysis and multi-level analysis are involved in TL. The TL behaviour does become obvious with some firmness to all members in a group and also certain behaviours are more used with only some followers than others. This suggests that leaders should examine the pattern of motive of each subordinate and should adjust their behaviour so as to match the features of subordinates. Instead of treating all the same, they can behave in such ways that are persuasive for each subordinate.

It was believed by Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) that, "Transformational Leaders are sensitive to needs of their followers, show empathy and are able to understand how
others feel. Building strong supportive member relationships and trust helps accomplish this”.

By resolving conflicts constructively and establishing cooperation and faith among members, the leader provides to the team member’s collective motivation (George 2000).

The study by Gardner and Stough (2002) backed the presence of a powerful relationship between Transformational Leadership and overall Emotional Intelligence. The leadership consequences like extra effort, influence and contentment; all were significantly correlated with the Emotional Intelligence components as well as with total Emotional Intelligence.

A study with bank employees was carried out by Kark, Shamir and Chen (2003) in which they found that Transformational Leaders, who are caring and thoughtful, motivate followers to become empowered at work by forming a more social recognition with the group. To experiencing empowerment trust in the leader was found to have an important relationship. This finding proved that a trusting and supportive relationship with one’s leader is important for employees to experience empowerment at work. Relationships matter for empowerment.

Transformational Leaders’ followers are motivated to recognize with their leaders who stimulate feelings of impact and enhance their psychological empowerment (Laschinger et al. 2004: 527-545). Transformational Leaders make their followers imagine an appealing future and motivate them to stay committed in achieving it. Also, via the enthusiasm of role modeling, moral standards of high value, principle, idealism these leaders develop team spirit, and provide sense and challenge to the work that the followers do, and during this process they improve the self-efficacy, meaning, certainty and self-determination of followers.

Transformational Leaders encourage higher levels of commitment to organizational objectives among their followers. They also foster capacity development among their followers. Transformational Leadership happens “when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they generate awareness and acceptance of the
purposes and mission of the group, and when they stir employees to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group” (Bass, 1990b). In addition to this, heightened capacity and commitment lead to greater productivity and more effort (Barbuto 2005: 26-40; Leithwood & Jantzi 2000: 112-129; Spreitzer, Perttula & Xin 2005: 205-227).


Brown et al (2006) looks at the possibility of relationships between and among Emotional Intelligence (EI), leadership, and desirable outcomes (DO) in organizations. Using a sample of 2,411 followers assessing the leadership behaviours of 161 leaders, the results show a strong positive relationship between TL and organizational outcomes, thereby confirming the great power of TL in predicting organizational outcomes. However, the above study finds no evidence of a relationship between EI and TL, and/or the relationship between EI and DO.

Hay (2007) confirmed the traits of Transformational Leaders as i) idealized influence, ii) inspirational motivation, iii) intellectual stimulation and iv) individualized consideration.

Researches show the leadership factors, which enhance empowerment, are:

1. Leaders who encourage the participation of the team in making decisions (Jermier & Berkes 1979: 1-23; Rhodes & Steers 1981: 1013-1035)
2. Leaders who treat their teams with consideration (Bycio et al. 1995; Decotiis & Summers 1987: 445-470)
3. Fairness of leaders (Allen & Meyer 1990: 1-18)
2.4. **Empowerment (Emp)**

Empowerment has been defined by the scholars from structural and psychological perspectives. Structural Empowerment focuses on practices like delegation of decision making from upper to lower levels of organization and increasing access to information and resources for individuals at lower levels.

According to Kanter’s (1977) Structural Theory of Power, the Organizations should have factors such as i) access to information ii) appropriate resources iii) support to perform task at high achievement level and iv) access to programs that enable individuals to enhance their work experience for empowerment. Pareek and Rao (1981) argue that people in an organization are a valuable resource for the organization and deserve to be treated differently. Effective management of human resources is basic to the survival of organizations.

Following leadership practices have been recognized as empowering:

a) Showing confidence in subordinates along with expectations for high performance (House 1977; Neilsen 1986; Burke 1986: 51-77; Conger 1986)

b) Promoting chances for subordinates to contribute in decision-making (House 1977; Strauss 1977: 297-363; Kanter 1979: 65-75; Burke 1986; Conger 1986; Neilsen 1986; Block 1987)

c) Offering independence from political pressure (Block 1987; Kanter 1979; House 1977)

d) Providing motivating and/or meaningful goals (McClelland 1975; Bennis & Nanus 1985; Burke 1986; Tichy & Devanna 1986; Block 1987).

For entrusting co-workers and subordinates, the managers, leaders and group members often utilize various forms of social enticements like words of encouragement, verbal feedback, and many such other types (Conger 1986).

Burke (1986) identified the following factors as important for employee empowerment:
i) Giving employees independence and chances so that they can participate in making decisions.

ii) Setting inspiring and disputed performance objectives (Bennis and Nanus 1985)

iii) Having performance based reward systems and job enrichments that give opportunities for career advancement, task meaningfulness, task identity, autonomy and control (Hackman & Oldham 1975: 159-170; Strauss 1977; Kanter 1979).

iv) Providing technical skills during selection and employee training programs; developing a culture of self-determination and collaboration instead of competition (McClelland, 1975)

v) Along the process of Empowerment the employees need to be aided. Manager, as a coach, are those who help employees solves problems in the organization; who empower their subordinates by assigning responsibilities and assisting them when they face challenges. Then there will be a level of more than satisfied subordinates, who will perform up to their manager’s expectation.

Employees who understand that they do meaningful work show higher levels of organizational engagement and energy to perform (Kanter 1983; Wiley 1999).

In Bandura’s theory of self-efficacy (1977, 1986), it clearly says that Empowerment would enhance motivation for better performance.

Srivastava (1986) makes a clear link between Empowerment and Organizational Performance. “Organization with significant numbers of powerless members will have difficulty in achieving high performance. To be more explicit, there is likely a direct relationship between the degree of experienced powerlessness by organizational members and the degree of overall organizational performance—the antidote to powerlessness is obviously, Empowerment”. One of the key advantages sought by organizations today is the ability to respond to change. As environmental instability increases, so does the need for positive and creative influence from wider and wider sections of the staff. This could be achieved by empowerment
Empowerment is a concept, which is on the rise and used by theorists to explain organizational effectiveness. Because of this popularity, Cogner & Kanungo (1988) critically examined the construct of empowerment in terms of the nature, processes, and appropriate context that foster Empowerment. From a relational and motivational construct, they described Empowerment “as a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among employees, by identifying and removing conditions that foster powerlessness through formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information”. Empowering is not just raising the hopes of subordinates’ in order to get favorable performance outcomes; rather it is the process of increasing their own effectiveness. Individuals may feel empowered if their efficacy belief is reinforced by their leader's recognition of their performance even when the outcome is not achieved.

Cogner and Kanungo (1988) were among the first to investigate the subject of Empowerment. They found 3 reasons for the growing interest in Empowerment: -

1. The tradition of empowering subordinates is an essential factor of organizational effectiveness as is suggested by certain studies on skills of leadership and management
2. On the analysis of potential and authority within organizations it was observed that the total beneficial forms of power and effectiveness of an organization enhanced when leaders shared control and power with their subordinates.
3. Within organizations the experiences of team formation shows that empowerment plays an important role in development of a group.

Supporting the above view, Staples (1990) concluded, “Empowerment strengthens the ongoing capacity for successful action under changing circumstances.”

Empowerment is a multidimensional process that involves many elements in an organization (Vogt and Marrel 1990). Viewing employee empowerment as a one-dimensional approach is very limiting.
Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggest that employees who are empowered have greater concentration, take initiative and are resilient, which in turn increase their level of commitment to the organization. According to them, Psychological Empowerment occurs when there is:

- Clarity of roles and responsibilities
- Understanding the purpose and value of their work in the entire organizational context
- Power to select and retain work behaviours
- Competence building

Wellins et al. (1991) stated that, the organization, which empowers its employees, will be able to survive in the free economy.

Christopher, Payne and Ballantyne (1991) wrote, “Strategic vision dies when it is not implemented as a strategy, that is, when it is not actioned”. They described the importance of empowering employees by diffusing the strategic vision throughout an organization rather than it being bolted on.

"Empowerment will lose its fad status within a couple of years. Instead of being viewed as a nice-to-do human resource gimmick that is being pushed on organizations, empowerment will be pulled by a strategic need to become more competitive to survive, or to do more with less” (Ginnodo 1997).

Slocum and Woodman (1992) define Empowerment as a skill of sharing power with employees.

Alcorn (1992) demonstrated that empowered culture can improve productivity. Describing one company, ‘Lawler Valey Power and light’, Alcorn wrote, “performance results comparable to these did not happen by accident, nor are they the result of any quick fix solutions. Rather, they occurred naturally as part of a value driven process emphasizing the dignity of each employee and customer satisfaction. Leaders enthusiastically embraced the philosophy of excellence through empowered employees”.

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Bowen and Lawler (1992) described that the core element of Empowerment is giving employees the discretion power to do certain task related activities. Leader behaviours that increase feelings of self-efficacy encourage higher creativity in subordinates (Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993).

Kanungo (1992) suggests Empowerment as the ‘antidote to alienation’, to make quality of work more rich, dynamic and active. He examined the issue of an organization’s social responsibility towards its employees as one of its stakeholders.

Empowerment is increased motivation concerning work due to the individual’s positive feeling with regard to his/her role at work. Some researchers synonymously use the term Empowered Teams and Self-Managing Teams (Fisher 1993; Manz and Sims 1993; Ford & Fottler 1995: 21-29). Focus on the concept of Empowerment and related management practices have been on the rise among both management researchers and practitioners (McClelland 1975; Kanter 1979; Bennis and Nanus 1985; Burke 1986; Neilsen 1986; Block 1987).

The subordinates are oriented by their Leaders towards performance beyond set standards and objectives by stressing on Employee Empowerment rather than dependence (Yammarino and Dubinsky 1994).

According to Dobbs (1993) empowerment is the sharing of responsibility and power at all levels of the organization; helping people to develop, innovate, take initiative and independent decisions to satisfy customer requirements.

Snyder (1994) is of the view that Empowerment is giving the individual the authority to plan and do the work that he/she is capable of.

Michael Armstrong (1994) defines Empowerment as “the process of giving more scope or power to exercise control over and take responsibility for their work”. With the help of this the individuals can use their abilities by enabling and encouraging them to take decisions close to the point of influence.
Joiner (1994) says, “An empowered workforce is not only committed to serving customers but is also able to act on that commitment. It is in this path that we delight all our stakeholders: customers, employees, shareholders, suppliers and communities.”

Bowen and Lawler (1995) define Empowerment as sharing of four organizational ingredients with front-line employees. These ingredients are i) information about organization’s performance, ii) rewards based on organization’s performance, iii) knowledge that helps employees to contribute to the organization’s performance and iv) power to make decisions that influence organization’s performance and direction.

Rothstein (1995) observed that Empowerment is the process to be tried when everything else fails. The notion that every employee is unique, with a specific set of capabilities and weaknesses which must be taken into account, has gained momentum.

Lowe (1995) defines Empowerment as “a process, which results in individual employees having autonomy, motivation and skills necessary to perform their jobs”. This provides a sense of ownership and fulfillment in employees, while achieving shared organizational goals.

Luthans (1998) defines Empowerment as “the authority to make decisions within one’s area of operation without having to get consent from anyone else”.


According to Menon (1995) “the empowered state is defined as a cognitive state of perceived control, perceived competence and goal internalization. Empowerment significantly relates to a number of outcomes such as:

- Job satisfaction
- Job involvement
- Organizational commitment
Just having the freedom to act is not what Empowerment is all about, but it also includes having a high level of accountability and responsibility (Blanchard et al. 1996).

Natarajan (1996) says, “Empowerment is the cornerstone of an organization.”

Spreitzer (1996) states that employees can be authorized psychologically through supportive strategies such as building abilities, sharing knowledge, enhancing motivation and giving employees control of their workplace destiny.

Michael and Reynolds (1996) stressed that if employees are offered the ability to achieve recognition and responsibility, they will learn at an optimum level.

Gupta and Murari (1996) define Empowerment as “the process of making the organization responsive and flexible, providing a climate for continuous learning, developing a culture which values initiative, honesty and achievement, and encouraging the employees for taking more responsibility through sharing of power and responsibility by working together”. They explained that leadership transformation is essential to empower the employees. For managers, releasing of control does not necessarily mean releasing of responsibility. They have to find out new ways to influence people so that they use their new freedom wisely.

According Linda (1997) in order to achieve the effective employee empowerment, the organizational management should consider it as a part of the system. The employee empowerment is deliberate act of developing increasing the power by working with others. The six core dimensions to empower employees in an organization are i) educating, ii) leading, iii) mentoring/supporting, iv) providing, v) structuring and vi) incorporating all of the above.

The work environment performance, organizational culture performance and leadership performance are visibly linked with employee empowerment (Sigler 1997).

A relationship between empowering leadership and team innovation and approach of fairness by the team was also found (Keller & Dansereau 1995: 127-146; Burpitt & Bigoness 1997: 414-423).
Kirkman & Rosen, 1997 explained four dimensions of team empowerment, which are: potency, meaningfulness, autonomy and impact. They also identified 4 predecessors of empowerment: behaviour of external leader, responsibilities of production/service, human resources policies which are team-based and social structure. They included productivity, pro-activity and service of customer as performance outcome and job satisfaction; and commitment towards organization and team as an attitudinal outcome.

Based on the above description of dimensions, antecedents, and consequences of empowered teams, Kirkman & Rosen (1999) examined the team empowerment in 111 work teams across 4 organizations. The results showed that teams, which are highly empowered, were more effective than teams, which are less, empowered. Among the 4 dimensions of team empowerment, autonomy emerged as a significant component of team empowerment. The results also indicated that the 4 antecedents worked to improve the team empowerment experiences. They found that more empowered teams were also more productive and proactive than less empowered teams and had higher levels of customer service, job satisfaction and organizational and team commitment.

When people are empowered, they are allowed to have control over the conditions that make their action possible, and hence, more is accomplished (Kanter 1977).

According to Cogner and Kanungo (1998) said that Empowerment is a concept, which is on the rise and used by the theorists to organizational effectiveness.

Koberg et al. (1999) stated that an accessible team leader who builds faith and common influence among the group members nurtures feelings of empowerment in team members. Koberg et al. (1999) reported that empowerment of team members can be linked to increased intrinsic value of work team outcomes, higher job satisfaction of team members, lower determination to quit and overall increase in team potential and achievements.

Gupta (1999) defined Empowerment as the “process of sharing power and providing an enabling environment (by removing hurdles) in order to encourage people to initiatives and decisions, to take actions at all levels, to achieve organizational and individual
goals”. This definition is holistic in view of Self-Empowerment and Empowerment of others.

Gupta (1999) identified ten variables of empowerment such as (i) Respect for team members, (ii) Top-Management Attitude iii) open communication, iv) opportunities for learning application, v) organizational support for innovation, vi) responsive superiors, vii) opportunities for self-development, viii) degree of formalization, ix) performance linked feedback and x) autonomy and five consequences such as, a) self-efficacy, b) organizational commitment, c) work environment satisfaction, d) role satisfaction and v) job involvement.

By giving followers greater opportunities, responsibilities, challenges and choice, they are likely to be more committed to their organizations (Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne 2000: 407-416).

A qualitative study was performed by Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, and Drasgow (2000) to find out important roles for leaders of empowered teams. It was found in the study that empowering team leaders (1) instruct, (2) intimate, (3) present them as an example, (4) show responsibility, and (5) motivate decision-making, which should be participative.

Fragoso (2000) says “Empowerment is a win - win situation- customers benefit from sharp employees; organization benefit from satisfied customers and sharp employees; and employees benefit from improving their confidence and self-esteem”. Employee empowerment benefits an organization by developing personnel, attaining objectives and goals and overcoming challenges.

Employee Empowerment is critical for the survival and success of organizations in the current context of globalization. Employee Empowerment provides significant benefits to both the individual and the organization as shown below (Ongori 2009: 9-15):

1. Employees feel that they are essential to the organization’s success
2. Employees feel confident about their capacity to highly contribute to the objectives of organization.
3. Rather than placing on the fringes, employees are placed at the centre of the circle. This makes the employee committed to achieve the organizational objectives.

4. When they are especially involved in the organization’s decision making process, employees feel most valued.

5. It forms a sense of commitment and belonging

6. The employee feels accepted and takes complete ownership

7. Employees work towards forming their own fate, work becomes creative, enjoyable, motivating and meaningful

8. It forms faith and enhances effective communication

9. The various jobs of the leader includes delegation, empowerment, education

10. It enhances effectiveness of organization and wellbeing of employee. Employee’s empowerment boosts efficiency and decreases costs on the assembly line in a transmission plant.

11. It causes job content, job involvement, higher accomplishment, faithfulness, and faster delivery of service to customers (Fulford and Enz, 1995).

12. Quick decisions are made by Empowered employees and suggestions are also given by them for improving quick delivery of service which saves organization’s money and time.

13. Employees provide exceptional customer service and through repeated business helps in improving the profits of organizations.

14. Empowerment encourages a good relation between the customer and employee, resulting in good branding for the organization.

15. Reduced workload for the top management and improved training for the employees are the other benefits of Empowerment.

16. Employee Empowerment facilitates change in the organization and fosters a competitive climate. A high degree of self-efficiency is found in Empowered employees and is given a lot of responsibility and authority in their jobs (Cogner & Kanungo 1988: 471-482; Ford & Fottler 1995: 21-29; Quinn and Sprietzer 1997).
Employees with a better-developed relationship with their leader, with their team members and with customers, report more empowerment (Corsun & Enz 1999:205-225; Liden, Sparrowe & Wayne 2000: 407-416; Chen & Klimoski 2003: 591-607; Aryee & Chen 2006 793-801; Chen et al. 2007: 331-346).

According to Duke and Russel (2001) what the empowerment requires is the delegation of more responsibility to employees by recognizing the potential of employees in effective problem solving. This encourages workers to be involved in decisions that affect them. Empowered employees would know what to do in an empowered business without expecting to be told.

In an empowered organization, the primary role of the management is to encourage and support employees. In reality, however, many supervisors oppose employee empowerment because they fear of losing their authority and eventually their jobs. In majority of the cases middle level management will put an obstacle to the empowerment of employees. They argue that not all employees are skilled to make decisions and do not understand the big picture of the organization (Duke and Russell 2001: 29-30).

The theorists like Fracaro (2001) pointed out that, the essence of Empowerment is to release (rather than underutilize or ignore) the employees’ experience, knowledge, initiative, and wisdom. Empowered employees develop their skills and performance, and it is a key factor which influences the success or failure of a business.

Randolph and Shashkin (2002) looked at the challenges of Empowerment in a multinational setting. They explored the interaction between Hofstede's four cultural dimensions (power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, and masculinity-feminity) against Blanchard’s three keys to creating structural empowerment in organizations (sharing accurate information widely, creating autonomy via boundaries, and replacing hierarchical thinking with self-managed teams). The paper reveals that every cultural dimension has both advantages and disadvantages while creating a culture of Empowerment. No culture dimensions is clearly the most favorable or most unfavorable for Empowerment. Leaders who propagate Empowerment should be aware of the cultural influence on Empowerment and must draw from the advantages
offered by various cultural dimensions and offset the disadvantages provided by other
cultural dimensions. The implementation of Empowerment is more challenging when
cultural dimensions are seen in the same team/organization because of rapid
globalization in a multinational setting.

Ozaralli (2003) describes that Discretionary Empowerment gives employees a decision
making power. Primary Discretionary Empowerment is closely associated to Structural
Empowerment. Structural Empowerment includes the delegation of decision making
authority and power to those lower in the hierarchy, from those who hold the power.

Ozaralli (2003) discusses that whenever there is an obligation for making a change,
empowerment of employee becomes a Transformational Leadership function. There
arises a sense of mission, trust, dignity, enthusiasm, admiration and obligation, under
such a leadership. The following factors of Transformational Leadership are essential to
empowerment:

i) providing formative learning
ii) delegating responsibility of projects which has appropriate learning experiences
iii) encouraging creative ways to work
iv) approach of critical reasoning while making decision
v) creating a vital vision for organization

Leadership transformation is essential to empower the employees. For a manager,
releasing control does not equate to releasing responsibility. It is necessary to find new
ways of influencing people so that they are equipped to use their new freedom wisely.
Gupta (2003) stated that a leader has to travel the path: Telling—Selling---Coaching---
Enabling ----Empowering.

May et al. (2004) explains that Empowerment happens when employees experience
their job as valuable or important.

According to Samad (2007) factors for Empowerment include i) self-esteem, ii) power
distribution, iii) knowledge, iv) information sharing v) leadership, vi) rewards and
organizational culture.
Bagali (2008) identified the following employee Empowerment traits at Polyhydron Private Limited:

- Open and transparent
- Positive approach
- Empathy
- Free from bias
- High commitment
- Disciplined
- Trustworthy
- Visionary
- Enjoys the work
- Loyal and truthful

Bagali (2008) also identified different conditions necessary for empowerment, some of which are: right kind of leadership, autonomy to work, participation at all levels, way for innovation, open lines of communication, open relationships, etc.

The following outcomes of Empowerment were identified by Bagali (2008) at Polyhydron Private Limited:

- High productivity
- Consistent growth
- Nil employee turnover
- High level of job satisfaction
- No conflicts/disputes
- Intrinsic motivation
- Seeking outright responsibility
- Staying for long with the organization
- Working extra hours
- Accepting outright responsibilities
Chan, Taylor and Markham (2008) defined Empowerment, as driven social exchange whose success depends on the mutual effort between managers and employees, with one of the key component be trust. This study has given experimental support with regard to actions taken by managers to change factors of social structure, which could positively affect the trust development of subordinates. Another thing shown by this study was that employees who are psychologically empowered are intrinsically motivated (by choice) to reciprocate the organization with extra role behaviours because they observe meaning, self-determination, ability and effect in their work.


Murari (2011a) identified certain specific outcomes of empowerment such as:

i) Trust
ii) Commitment
iii) Competitiveness
iv) Employee involvement
v) Quality of work-life

The focus of Empowerment studies has shifted from managerial interventions that would make employees empowered effectively to the psychological process employees go through in the process of Empowerment. Today, companies can ensure customer satisfaction only when their employees are satisfied. The employees’ lower and higher level needs in the Maslow’s Need hierarchy should be taken care of. This way, a company ensures full utilization of the employees’ potentialities. In the present era of frequent layoffs, poor job security and downsizing, building enduring relationships with the employees could be a major factor in achieving sustainable competitive advantage.
From the above literature, it is evident that Empowerment is a process of sharing power and providing an enabling environment. It deals with processes like delegation, autonomy, authority and freedom for employees to achieve organizational objectives. Thus, industries are seriously thinking about empowering their employees to gain a competitive edge.

2.5. Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Transformational Leadership (TL)

Riggio (1986, 1987, and 1998) explained that Emotional Intelligence is both an essential and necessary component of the personal charisma displayed by leaders. Charisma is a well-developed social and emotional skill.

The EI team’s cooperative environment boosts positive moods and feelings (Jones & George 1998), which refine creative thought and also improve innovative ability of solving problems (Islen et al 1987: 1121-1131). Attention is directed to new problems of greater immediate importance from an on-going problem when powerful emotions occur. Individuals learn to focus their attention on the stimuli, which is most important in their environment when they gain on the capacity of emotional processes.

It was found by Eagly & Johnson (1990) that women have exceptional social skills and were more “interested in other people”. When compared to male leaders as a group, female leaders as a group, were found to be more friendly, polite, and socially sensitive. Leaders who are capable of precisely identifying emotions are more skilled to find out whether there is a connection between emotion and opportunities or problems, and hence utilize those emotions in the decision-making process (Schwartz 1990).

While handling stress and conflict, transformational leaders display an internal understanding of self-control, self-acceptance, and self-confidence. Transformational Leaders motivate and inspire their followers, to go beyond expectations, by giving significance and ambition to the work being done by them, (Shamir 1991; 81-104).

Scott and Bruce (1994) contended that a ‘climate for innovation’ is provided by the work team relationship, which influences individual team member’s creativity. According to them individuals who are creative, look for support from inter team and
teams with high level of EI provide this support to them. A sense of belonging and faith is provided by an emotionally intelligent team that encourages understanding and open interaction with others. For creative expressions such factors are essential. Creative problems can also be solved via moods. The categorization of problem as either related or unrelated becomes easier for the individuals who experience positive mood (Isen & Daubman 1984: 1206). Creative problem solving gets positively affected by this clarity in information categorizing (Isen et al 1987: 1122-1131). Isen et al exhibited that a mood which is positive can cause more creative responses to Duncker’s candle task (Isen et al 1987). Creative cues are more likely to be given by those subjects who experience positive moods (Isen et al 1985: 1-14).

It is women who practice more behaviours related transformational leadership (Bass and Avolio 1994; Sarros et al. 2001) as compared to men, more transformational leadership behaviours such as being interpersonally oriented (Carless 1998: 353-358).

For a leader who is having high skills of emotional management the needs of others are more important than his or her own personal needs (Goleman 1995).

Dubinsky et al (1995) explored the relationships between personal characteristics and TL dimensions using sales managers and their subordinates as the sample. The four characteristics of TL: charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual effort (Bass 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio 1989) were compared with seven personal characteristics which were coping with emotional behaviour, coping with behaviour, orientation of abstract, ability of taking risk, novelty, use of experience and humour. These characteristics were chosen out of the previous research work (Bass 1990: 19-31) in organizational behaviour, suggesting that effective managers may possess certain personal characteristics which are related to TL. The results showed that the relationships between TL and the seven personal characteristics were not significant, except abstract orientation which showed a negative relationship with all 4 dimensions of TL. Though the findings were not significant and as expected, it is still an area that is worth further research. One of the limitations in the current study was, when a small sales sample (34 managers) from one company was used, the 7 personal characteristics
were not an exhaustive list and it applied to managers in general and not specifically to a sales manager.

Leaders who have high EI show transformational behaviors and this relationship is there because of an obvious healthy emotional relationship between the leader and the follower, in this style of transformational leadership. (Goleman 1995; Megerian and Sosik 1996: 31-48; Cooper 1997).

According to Conger and Kanungo (1998), Transformational Leaders may use strong emotions to produce similar feelings in their audience. Transformational Leaders who can recognize and manage their own and others' emotions will be more competent at making their followers accept, believe and follow their vision.

The role of emotions at the workplace has gained popularity due to the increasing research on Transformational Leadership (Maddock and Fulton 1998).

Butler (1999) stressed that the level of trust among individual team members helps to define the bilateral climate of the team. Trust built among EI team members provides them the liberty to suggest new innovative ideas and contradictory opinions with freedom and without fear, both of which are essential for innovation.

The four points at which there occurs intersection between EI and TL were suggested by Sosik and Mergerian (1999). Transformational Leadership style and Emotional Intelligence are based on relationships and affect, and therefore related to one another. A team gets affected by their leader’s emotional expression as proposed.

- **Sticking to professional standards of behaviour and synergy**, which they linked to Idealized Influence or Charisma component of TL.
- **Self-Motivation**, the capacity to supervise and impact life events, which they linked to the Inspirational Motivation component of TL.
- **Encourage the follower’s intellectual and professional development**, which they related to Intellectual Stimulation component of TL.
- **Focus on others at Individual level**, which they linked to Individualized Attention component of TL.
Leaders with emotional intelligence have been found to perform exceptionally well in the workplace (Goleman 1998a,b; Watkin 2000: 89-92), achieve more success (Miller 1999: 25-26), be cheerful and more devoted to their organization (Abraham 2000: 169-184), take benefit of emotions and utilize them to anticipate major developments in functioning of organization; utilization of emotions for improving forming of decisions; have problem solving abilities; install a sense of zeal, excitement, faith and mutual effort among other employees via mutual relationships; and utilize emotional claim as a component of inspirational motivation, which is feature of both emotionally intelligent individuals and transformational leaders (George 2000: 1027-1055).

Lewis (2000) observed that when a leader (male and female) at a higher organizational level, specifically a CEO, expressed negative emotions, it altered the observer's intuitive state and also the evaluation of the effectiveness of leader. The results showed that sadness seemed to lower arousal, while leader’s anger increased follower awakening. This suggests that a leader's anger may motivate the follower for working hard or improving the situation, while the sadness expressed by leader might cause simple acceptance of the situation rather than efforts for making the things better. Lewis (2000) justifies that positive influence and zeal are essential for raising the follower’s emotional state. The emotions transmission concept is usually linked with Idealized Influence and Inspirational Motivation aspects of TL behaviours. The leader who is Emotionally Intelligent follows the rules of the organization and motivates team members to grasp these rules.

Barling et al. (2000) by examining the Leadership Styles and Emotional Intelligence of 49 managers concluded that Emotional Intelligence is related positively to three components of Transformational Leadership i.e. idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration). Highest correlations between Emotional Intelligence and Inspirational Motivation were reported by them, indicating that the dimension of Emotional Intelligence in understanding emotions is essentially important in effectiveness of leadership. They suggested that leaders are predisposed by Emotional Intelligence for utilizing transformational behaviours.
An empirical justification was provided by both Barling et al. (2000) and Palmer et al. (2001) regarding emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership’s relationship. But, these two studies tested small samples (49 and 43 participants respectively) and were methodologically limited, as they never used an Emotional Intelligence measure particularly designed for workplace use.

A leader’s ability to stimulate, inspire and lead an individual is thought to be closely connected to EI of the leader (Riggio & Pirozzolo 2002: 241-250).

Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) also indicate that emotional labor constitutes an important component of employees' everyday work life. Successful management of emotional labor and emotional contagion by employees plays a crucial role in the customer holding, recovery, and contentment process. Emotional labor can also be harmful to the employee and can affect him/her either psychologically or physically. The article identifies four preventive techniques, which are: evaluating the emotional effect of jobs; via role modeling, forming a positive and friendly emotional climate; enhancing a positive emotional climate, through systems of giving rewards and compensation; based on a positive emotion, selecting employees and teams. Emotionally Intelligent managers can utilize these issues to transform an emotionally unhealthy organizational environment into one that is emotionally healthy.

Utilizing their own measure of EI, the study by Gardner and Stough (2002) backed the presence of a healthy relationship among Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence. The leadership outcomes like extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction, all were found to associate visibly with the emotional intelligence components along with total emotional intelligence. Every consequence of leadership associated the strongest with the aspect of accepting external emotion.

It was argued by Caruso, Mayer and Salovey (2002) that precise recognition of emotions in others is essential for the ability of leaders for motivating and forming relationships.
Mandell and Pherwani (2003) looked at the predictive relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership in a sample of 32 managers/supervisors (13 male and 19 female). The results showed a significant predictive relationship between Transformational Leadership style and Emotional Intelligence. The Transformational Leadership style of managers could be predicted from their Emotional Intelligence scores. No significant relationship between gender and EI while predicting TL was found. No gender differences were found in the TL scores of male and female managers. However, it was found that in case of females, the total scores of Emotional Intelligence were visibly higher than scores of males.

Downey et al (2006) studied 176 female managers from different industries in Australia. They found that female managers displaying Transformational Leadership behaviours were more likely to display higher levels of EI and intuition than female managers displaying less Transformational Leadership behaviours. Analysis revealed that the ability to manage one’s emotions and the emotions of others was the best predictor of Transformational Leadership behaviours. Intuition correlated significantly with Emotional expression and recognition. This means that the ability to identify and express one’s emotions and the skill to use the emotional data in decision-making relates to higher usage of intuition in decision-making.

Around 145 managers of a biotechnology/agricultural firm were studied by Rubin et al (2005). They tested that how TL behaviour got influenced by leaders’ personality features and emotional recognition. The results indicated that there was a positive link between TL behaviour and leader’s emotional recognition, positivity and agreeableness. Emotional recognition includes the skill to precisely recognize others’ emotional expressions which are being revealed nonverbally. Those leaders were rated more highly on Transformational Leadership behaviour that were more able to accurately recognize others emotions. What is especially important for the TL behavior is recognizing emotions. A combination of accurate emotional recognition and high extraversion in leaders positively influenced leader performance of transformational leadership behavior.
Barbuto and Burbach (2006) surveyed 388 leader-member dyads to explore the relationship between emotional Intelligence and transformational Leadership. The participants were 80 elected public officials in the United States and their direct-reports. They found that Emotional Intelligence (including all components of EI) shared positive relationships with each self-reported subscale of transformational leadership. In all cases, stronger correlations between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership were found in leader self-reports than in rater reports. There is seen a positive relationship between interpersonal skills of leaders and inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, along with idealized impact. Empathetic response shared significant positive relationships (both self-reported and later-reported) with each subscale of Transformational Leadership. More the level of empathy by leaders more will be the level of individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation.

Cavallo, K. (2006) assessed the importance of Emotional Intelligence among leaders at J&J Consumer Companies. The sample involved more than fourteen hundred employees (358 managers, their supervisor and 4 reportees/peers) from thirty-seven countries. The study revealed a strong relationship between high performing (HiPR) leaders and emotional competence. The findings in this study is also consistent with conclusions reached by McClelland (1998) in a study of leaders in thirty different organizations, and found the most powerful leadership differentiators to be Self-Confidence, Achievement Drive, Developing Others, Adaptability, Influence and Leadership. J&J Consumer Companies’ study also showed higher scores for females in several of the interpersonal, empathy and social competencies measured.

A number of previous research studies have shown that leaders who have high score on any one of the two constructs (TL and EI) show many common features. The relationship among the two constructs could have various positive associations for training and evaluating people for becoming effective leaders. Knowledge of this relationship would help organizations identify and train potential leaders. If Emotional Intelligence scores can predict Transformational Leadership, organizations may find Emotional Intelligence measures to be valuable tools in the hiring, promotion and development of organizational leaders.
2.6. Emotional Intelligence and Empowerment

Interestingly, there has been very little research in understanding the interaction between Empowerment and EI.

Four different ways of delivering empowering information to others was identified by Bandura (1977) which are: (1) providing positive emotional support when stress and anxiety is experienced, (2) using encouraging words and positive persuasion, (3) having role - models of success (4) by experiencing the mastering of a task with success. Providing emotional support relieved tension by encouraging a fun environment and helped subordinates to take control of challenging tasks and made them feel confident.

Block (1987) explains Empowerment as a state of mind and a result of position, policies and practices. Managers become more powerful when they delegate power to their subordinates. Becoming a role model is one way by which subordinates are nurtured. For Empowerment to happen, apart from sharing information, a leader has to create a mindset where each one feels responsible for the success of the organization.

According to Cogner & Kanungo (1988), employees feel inadequate and less empowered if they don't have a sense of confidence in their abilities. Self-determination is largely related to self-perception. How the employee perceives the autonomy given causes the person to either act empowered by making appropriate choices and actions or otherwise.

Psychologically, Empowerment affects the employees’ inner nature/attitudes; their expressed behavior, or both (Wilkinson 1998: 40-56). This kind of Empowerment is basic motivation’s internal state (Cogner and Kanungo 1988: 471-482; Wilkinson 1998). The psychological state of the employee is very important in the empowerment process (Lee and Kol 2001: 684-695).

Empowerment is also described as intrinsic task motivation and internalized commitment to the task. It reflects an individual’s orientation to his or her role with respect to meaning, competence, self-determination and impact (Thomas and Velthouse 1990: 666-681). They explain that Empowerment can be interpreted in terms of the
emotional response to work rather than feelings evoked by the management or management practices. It is the employee’s perception of what occurs in the organization, which is fundamental to any theory of Empowerment.

Nick et al. (1994) explains that the organizations that are committed to employee empowerment are in a position to motivate and retain their employees, but it needs to be handled with a lot of care.

Sprietzer (1995) defines Psychological Empowerment as a motivational construct. He defines Empowerment as increased intrinsic motivation towards work, with respect to impact, meaning, competence and self-determination. He emphasizes that the above four factors reflect one’s active orientation towards one’s work role.

Negative emotions lead to a greater likelihood of feeling frustrated and dissatisfied at work (Watson and Clark 1984: 465-490). Fogarty et al. (1999) concluded that traits such as openness, conscientiousness, and so on, are positively correlated to job satisfaction while negative emotions are negatively related to job satisfaction.

Moods are used to motivate people to persist at challenging tasks. Some people use anxiety to motivate them to prepare more thoroughly (Alpert & Haber 1960: 207-215), some imagine negative situations to motivate performance, some use good feelings to enhance their confidence and face obstacles. (Salovey & Birnbaum 1989: 539-551; Bandura 1986; Kavanagh & Bower 1985: 5-7-525). Individuals with positive attitude create social experiences that give improved results and awards for others and themselves.

Emotional arousal from stress, fear, anxiety, depression, and so forth, both on and off the job, can lower self-efficacy expectations. Individuals are more likely to feel competent when they are not experiencing strong aversive arousal. Empowerment techniques and strategies that provide emotional support for subordinates and create a supportive and trusting group atmosphere can be more effective in strengthening self-efficacy beliefs (Neilsen 1986).
Managers who understand how empowerment integrates with an organization’s culture are motivated to lead, and help employees internalize the values and traditions of empowerment. These managers help create a work environment where employees take action more for intrinsic reasons than for extrinsic reasons (Mallak and Kurstedt 1996: 8-10).

Empowerment involves the practice of including making of decisions at all organizational levels. People with positive dispositions, which are stable, tend to make more accurate decisions and enhance interpersonal performance (Staw & Barsade 1993: 303-331). Cooper (1997) projected that another important characteristic of Emotional Intelligence is trust and it boosts many of the finest decisions.

Internal commitment is necessary for Empowerment. Internal commitment comes from a personal choice of reasons or motivations towards a particular program (Argyris 1998: 98-105). Sosik and Mergerian (1999) stated that self-motivation also gets influenced by Emotional Intelligence

Empowerment is a state of mind is what is said by Mohammed and Pervaiz (1998). Following feelings are experienced by individuals having an empowered state of mind:

- Control on the performing job
- Work framework awareness
- Accountability for personal work outcomes
- Shared responsibility for unit and organizational performance
- Equality in the rewards for individual and collective performance

Previous studies have found links between a person’s positive emotional state and both creativity and innovation, as positive emotions broaden individuals’ thinking styles (Fredrickson 2001, 2003).

Douglas et al. (2003) studied whether the relationship between conscientiousness and performance is stronger for individuals with high Emotional Intelligence. They found that for people with high Emotional Intelligence, high conscientiousness resulted in increased performance. For people with low Emotional Intelligence, it was found that high conscientiousness related to low performance.
In a number of studies that have been performed over the last decade, EI has firmly displayed a highly visible relationship with occupational performance (Bar-On 1997b, 2004, 2006; Bar-On, Handley, & Fund 2006: 3-19; Ruderman & Bar-On, 2003).

Individuals with high emotional self-awareness, accurate and positive self-regard, self-actualization, and effective reality testing also possess an enhanced sense of well-being (Brackett & Mayer 2003: 1147-1158).

An increasing number of experimental studies shows that different types of human performances and behaviour are significantly affected by EI for e.g., social interaction (Bar-On 1997b, 2000, 2006b) and the capability to recover and be flexible in the middle of dangerous health conditions (e.g. Bar-On 2004, 2006, 2007; Bar-On & Fund 2004; Krivoy, Weyl Ben-Arush & Bar-On 2000).

Intuition correlated significantly with emotional identification and explanation, and emotions with direct understanding. This means that the capability to identify and express one’s emotions and the skill to use the emotional data in decision-making relates to high utilization of instinct in making decisions (Downey et al 2006: 250-264).

Justice (2009) claimed that without well-developed Emotional Intelligence, Empowerment models are just concepts without a complete follow-through. According to him, EQ and Empowerment go hand in hand, for there is no greater component to Empowerment (skill to make the best decisions) than having high levels of EQ. He called the notion of mastering performance by appreciating the role of emotions as EQpowerment.

2.7. **Major findings from Literature review**

- The discussed research in the above literature review shows that Emotional Intelligence inspires Transformational Leaders towards building empowered teams.
- Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership and Empowerment depend on relationships and affect, and are thus linked with one another.
• The best predictor of Transformational Leadership and Empowerment is the ability to control emotions of self and others.

• Understanding and managing emotions is seen as the most constant component of Transformational Leadership. A team does get affected by a leader’s emotional expression.

• Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership encourage innovative ways of working and solving problems.

• Trust and auxiliary relationship with the leader is essential for experiencing Empowerment.

2.8. **Gaps Identified**

• There is minimal research in understanding the interaction among the three processes of Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership and Empowerment.

• There are comparatively more studies relating Emotional Intelligence to Transformational Leadership; but very few studies relating Emotional Intelligence to Empowerment.

• The lack of a holistic framework and studies relating these processes (EI, TL and Emp) does not allow researchers and practitioners to relate these important psychosocial concepts and put them into practice for the purpose of synergistic improvement of leaders and organizational performance.

• The study on the impact of Emotional Intelligence on Transformational Leadership and Empowerment will facilitate the researchers and practitioners to use this synergistic relationship for the benefit of the leader and the organization.