

EMOTIONS, PERSONALITY, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP IN THE WORKPLACE: THE PREVAILING ATTITUDE

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Abstract

This paper examined personality traits, emotional intelligence (EI), emotions and leadership in the workplace. Personality refers to the thoughts, emotions and behavioural patterns unique to an individual. The paper discussed the Big Five or the five factor model (FFM) of personality traits, including conscientiousness and agreeableness. Emotional Intelligence refers to an individual's ability to consciously choose his or her feelings, thoughts and actions to obtain optimal results in the individual's relationship with himself and others. The paper discussed the Goleman Competency Model and the Mayer and Salovey four-branch ability model of EI. The Goleman model comprised five competencies, including self-awareness, self-motivation and relationship management. The four branches of Mayer and Salovey's ability model were also discussed. The paper also discussed the concept of "The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace." Personality and EI have significant impact on individual outcomes. These outcomes include health, psychological well-being, career, academic and life. Emotions are an integral and inseparable part of an organisational life. Employees who are emotionally adept, who artfully and consciously select and manage their own thoughts, feelings and actions well and who read and deal effectively with other employees' feelings, are at an advantage in the workplace. Emotions, when used effectively by employees could result in improved thinking, reasoning and problem solving skills, as well as result in enhanced creativity and efficiency. Emotions and emotional intelligence lie at the very core of effective leadership. Research suggests that individuals with high level of EI experience more workplace success than those with low EI. Emotionally intelligent employees are able to make correct assumptions about their colleagues in the workplace, know the right thing to say to their colleagues, make good prediction about

what their colleagues may feel, understand that there are conflicting emotions and have sophisticated emotional knowledge and rich emotional vocabulary to deal with day-to-day emotional issues. Finally, emotionally intelligent leaders want to work for emotionally intelligent organisations. Emotionally intelligent organisations are organisations that have coordinated and cohesive people, who interact effectively and share knowledge and ideas. An organisation that lacks integrity and trust is likely to lack EI because integrity and trust are the hallmark of a super “performer” organisation’s culture.

Keywords: Emotions, Emotional Intelligence, Emotional Quotient, Personality, Personality trait, Leadership, Five Factor Model, Big Five, Empathy, Self-Awareness

INTRODUCTION

Emotions are complicated collections of chemical and neural responses that evolve and manifest over relatively short periods of time (Damasio, 1999; Fredrickson, 2003). According to Robbins and Judge (2013), emotions are intense feelings that are directed at someone or something. Emotional illiteracy is still prevalent in most workplaces. In an emotionally illiterate work environment, employees are neither aware of their own emotions nor emotions in others. In some work environment, emotion is viewed as a phenomenon that should be detached from day-to-day workplace activities. Hence, expressions such as “don’t bring emotions into this,” “you are being too emotional about this” and “Oh, you are just being emotional” are often expressed by employees in the workplace. The prevailing attitude and philosophy in some workplace is that of “emotional detachment” in decision making. After all, organisational leaders are supposed to keep their emotions at home and be unemotional at work. Not too long ago, emotion was a myth of rationality. Many organisations did not allow employees to express love, fear, contempt, envy, pride, surprise, shock, happiness, hope, jealousy, anger, joy, hate, grief, enthusiasm, sadness, frustration or similar feelings thought to be antithesis of rationality. The concept of emotion was generally viewed as dysfunctional, disruptive, unprofessional and irrational to the workplace. Although many organisations’ owners, leaders and managers new emotions were an inseparable part of the work environment and everyday life, but they worked venomously to create organisations that were emotion-free. Of course, that was not just possible. Some even argued that emotionality is bad for business and they tried so hard to suppress it in the workplace.

However, Goleman (1995) posited that the problem is not with emotionality, but with the appropriateness of emotion and the manner in which it is expressed. Emotions are inevitably involved in the conscious and unconscious day-to-day acting and thinking of employees

(Hoffmann, 2010). In fact, emotions are an integral and inseparable part of an organisational life (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Cure, n.d.). Robbins and Judge (2013) posited that since employees do bring their emotions to the workplace on a daily basis, the positive or up-side of emotions that contributes to workplace performance and enhances employees' ability to work more effectively should not only be expressed, but also encouraged. The findings in the work of Damasio (1994) and Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) suggested that feelings are necessary to make good decisions in the workplace. Scholars have widely acknowledged that employees who are emotionally adept, who artfully and consciously select and manage their own thoughts, feelings and actions well, and who read and deal effectively with other employees' feelings, are at an advantage in the workplace (Freedman & Jensen, 2005; Goleman, 1995, 1998a).

Personality can be defined as the ways in which individuals differ in their attitudinal, interpersonal, emotional, experiential and motivational styles (Costa & McCrae, 1992a, 1992b; McCrae & Costa, 1990). Personality is composed of the distinctive and enduring patterns of feelings, thoughts and behaviours unique to an individual (Van Wagner, 2008). Personality could also be described as the sum total of the ways in which an individual reacts to and interact with others (Robbins & Judge, 2007). Personality theorists have posited that personality influences an individual's tendencies, such as a preference for agreeableness or disagreeableness, extroversion or introversion, open to new experiences or closed-mindedness, conscientiousness or negligence and nervousness or calmness (Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1997). Personality has certain relationship with career aspirations (Roberts & Robins, 2000) and workplace success. Hirschi, Niles and Akos (2010) posited that there is a significant relationship between an individual's personality type and his or her career choices, but in practice wrong career choices are made due to lack of understanding of personality type of the individual. Career success is highly dependent on the compatibility of an individual's personality and his or her career choice (Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, & Barrick, 1999). An individual with a 'good' personality may be outgoing, energetic and social. However, having a good personality does not necessarily equate to success in the workplace or in an individual's chosen career. Individuals with good personality can make errors in judgement due to lack of understanding when making decisions within their own biases. It ultimately boils down to an individual's ability to make clear and sound judgement in those situations that present themselves on a daily basis, and that takes the author into the realm of emotional intelligence.

The concept of emotional intelligence ("EI") or emotional quotient ("EQ") is not new. Thorndike (1920) identified a dimension of intelligence and called it social intelligence and defined it as the ability to understand and manage women and men, girls and boys to act wisely in their relations with one another and with others. Gardner (1983) referred to intrapersonal

intelligence and interpersonal intelligence and that intrapersonal intelligence is an individual's ability to identify, understand and manage his or her own goals, emotions and intentions, while interpersonal intelligence is an individual's ability to work effectively with and through other people and to understand them and recognise their motivations, temperaments, moods, goals and intentions. However, Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the first to use the term emotional intelligence in their article "Emotional Intelligence." In this article they defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (p. 189). Later, Mayer and Salovey (1997) modified the definition of EI and they defined EI as "the abilities to perceive, appraise, and express emotion; to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 10). This definition gave birth to the four-branch ability model of EI (Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002). This model is one of three dominant models of EI (Goleman, 2011). This approach has given rise to the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale ("MEIS") and its successor, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test ("MSCEIT"); which are ability-based EI measures (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004).

Another renowned researcher of the EI construct is Reuven Bar-On. He coined the term "Emotional Quotient" ("EQ") in 1985 to explain his approach to assessing EI (Singh, 2006; Nadler, 2011). Bar-On (1997) defined EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (p. 14). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient (EQ) is one of the dominant models of EI and is centred on psychological well-being (Bar-On, 1997; Caruso et al., 2002; Goleman, 2011). This approach has also given rise to the Emotional Quotient Inventory ("EQ-I"), which is a 133-item self-report measure of EI (Bar-On, 1997).

It was Daniel Goleman who popularised the concept of emotional intelligence through his best-selling book *Emotional Intelligence* that was published in 1995. Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathise and to hope" (p. 34). Goleman (1998a) modified his earlier definition of EI and defined emotional intelligence as the capacity of individuals to recognise their own feelings and those of others, for motivating themselves, and for managing emotions well in themselves and in their relationships. This definition lays the foundation for the five components of Daniel Goleman EI (i.e. emotional competency) model. Emotional intelligence describes competencies distinct from, but complementary to, cognitive abilities measured by "Intelligent Quotient" or IQ (Goleman, 1998a; Singh, 2006). Goleman

(1995, 1998b) described five domains or components of EI as self-awareness, knowing one's emotions; Self-management, managing one's emotions; self-motivation, motivating oneself; social awareness, recognising emotions in others (empathy); and relationship management, managing emotions in others. The Goleman competency model is the last but not least of the three dominant models of EI (Goleman, 2011). This approach has also given rise to the Emotional Competence Inventory ("ECI") which is a 360-degree assessment of emotional competencies (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000).

PERSONALITY AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

Personality can be defined as a dynamic and organised set of traits possessed by an individual that uniquely influences the individual's motivations, cognition and behaviours in diverse situations (Udoudoh, 2012). Personality refers to the behaviours, emotions and thought patterns unique to an individual (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Personality measures could be reduced or classified under five dimensions of personality, which has been labelled the "Big Five" (Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1990, 1992; McCrae & John, 1992). The dimensions which comprised the five factor model (FFM) of personality are openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Goldberg, 1990). The five dimensions of the Big Five model is referred to as OCEAN, representing openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism. The Big Five has been found to generalise at a systemic level (Costa, & McCrae, 1992a; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Salgado 1997). Researchers have posited that the Big Five traits have a genetic element and that the hereditary component appears to be substantial (Costa & McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1989; Jang, Livesley, & Vernon, 1996). Salgado (2002) posited that personality traits predict different facets of job performance and affects job outcomes such as organisational commitment and job satisfaction. The Big Five personality test measures the five dimensions of personality, including neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience (Costa & McCrae, 1985; Mount & Barrick, 1995). The next paragraph would be used to explain a hypothetical score of the BIG Five personality test.

The Big Five measures an individual's percentile scores in relation to the scores of others in the comparison sample of the Big Five personality test for neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. The Big Five personality test was explained using a hypothetical individual called Pilate who recorded hypothetical scores of 1 percentile, 95 percentile, 97 percentile, 98 percentile and 96 percentile for neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience respectively. Pilate's neuroticism percentile score of 1 means that about 99 percent of the individuals in the

comparison sample of the specific Big Five test taken experienced more nervousness and insecurity than Pilate. The low percentile score recorded in the test for neuroticism may well mean that Pilate is characterised by a high level of calmness, even in a tense situation. In contrast, an individual who has a high percentile score on neuroticism may well mean that he or she is characterised by depression and a high level of anxiety. Pilate's extraversion percentile score of 95 means that about 95 percent of the individuals in the comparison sample are less extraverted than Pilate. The high percentile score attained in the test for extraversion may well mean that Pilate is sociable, friendly, warmth, assertive and fun loving. Pilate's agreeableness percentile score of 97 means that about 97 percent of the individuals in the comparison sample are less agreeable than Pilate. The high percentile score attained in the test for agreeableness may well mean that Pilate is courteous, sympathetic, good natured, forgiving, supportive and trusting. Pilate's conscientiousness percentile score of 98 means that about 98 percent of the individuals in the comparison sample are less conscientious than Pilate. The high percentile score attained in the test for conscientiousness may well mean that Pilate is well organised, self-disciplined, careful, and reliable. Pilate's openness to experience percentile score of 96 means that about 96 percent of the individuals in the comparison sample are less open to new experiences than Pilate. The high percentile score attained in the test for openness to experience may well mean that Pilate is creative, original, intellect and like seeing things in new ways. This hypothetical assessment was done to demonstrate how the Big Five personality test is interpreted, as well as to give the readers of this paper a broader and systematic approach to understanding the Big Five personality test. However, the author is also mindful of the fact that knowing the strength of Pilate's personality in itself is not enough, but that Pilate has to consciously develop a better understanding of himself and the people in his environment, including his colleagues at work, and that takes the author into the domain of emotional intelligence.

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There are almost as many different definitions of emotional intelligence as there are researchers on EI, and researchers continue to explore ways to improve on the existing definitions. Some of these definitions are very scientific. The author has carefully chosen the definition by Freedman and Jensen. Freedman and Jensen (2005) defined emotional intelligence as an individual's ability to consciously and artfully choose his or her feelings, thoughts and actions to get optimal results in his or her relationship with himself and others. Although various researchers have viewed EI from diverse perspectives, the author has chosen to explore the concept of emotional

intelligence from the Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) competency model and Mayer and Salovey (1997) four-branch ability model.

Goleman Competency Model

Goleman (1998a) posited that the rules for work are rapidly changing and that people are being judged by a new standard. Not just by how brilliant and smart people are or by the training and expertise they have acquired, but also by how well people handle themselves and others. This new yardstick has little to do with academic abilities, intellectual capabilities and technical knowhow; but rather, it is focused on personal qualities such as empathy, trustworthiness, initiative, influence, adaptability and persuasiveness (Goleman, 1998a). The five components of emotional intelligence by Goleman (1995, 1998b) are self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, social awareness (empathy) and relationship management. These are further discussed below.

Self Awareness

Self-awareness is the foundation upon which the other components of EI are built. Goleman (1995) posited that self-awareness serves as the foundation for the psychological and emotional advancement needed to achieve success. Self-awareness is the ability of an individual to identify and understand his or her needs, emotions, moods, drives, strengths and weaknesses, as well as their effect on other people (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b). Simply put, to be self-aware is to “know thyself” (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman (1998a, 1998b) stated that there are three emotional competencies that make up self-awareness, which are: emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence. Emotional awareness is about how the emotions of an individual affect his or her performance and the ability of the individual to utilise his or her values to aid decision making, while accurate self-assessment is about an individual having a deeper understanding of his or her abilities, limits and inner resources (Goleman, 1998b). Self-confidence is about decisiveness, self-assurance, making decision in the midst of uncertainties and pressures, and having right judgement (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b). Self-confidence is imperative for superior performance in one’s career (Goleman, 1998a).

Self Management (Self-Regulation)

Self-management is the ability of an individual to manage or redirect disruptive impulses and moods, as well as distressing feelings (Goleman, 1998b). There are five competencies under self management, including emotional self-control, conscientiousness, trustworthiness, adaptability, and innovation. An individual with the competence of emotional self-control is able

to effectively manage his or her distressing emotions and impulsive feelings, stay positive and composed even in moments of pressure, while an individual with the competence of conscientiousness is likely to be more careful, punctual, self-disciplined and scrupulous. An individual who has mastered the competence of trustworthiness behaves in an ethical manner and confront unethical conducts in others, builds trust with authenticity, admits own mistakes and highly principled. Adaptability and innovation are competencies that entail being flexible in responding to change and open to new ideas.

Self Motivation

Self-motivation is the passion that an individual has to work for reasons that transcend beyond money or status (Goleman, 1998b). Individuals who possess this competency have a passion first for the job itself and every other thing follows. There are three motivational competencies that typify outstanding performance, including achievement, commitment, initiative and optimism. Achievement is the driving force to consistently improve a good standard to an excellent standard (Goleman, 1998a). An individual with the competence of achievement is result oriented, sets challenging goals and takes calculated risk (Goleman, 1998a). Commitment describes individuals who are good at making sacrifices to meet larger organisational or group goals (Goleman, 1998a). Goleman (1998a) asserted that employees who experience a high level of organisation's commitment would put up with highly stressful job conditions, including working late hours, working long hours and working during weekends, if need be. People with this competence are more committed to their organisations. Individuals with the competence of initiative are more ready to pursue goals to the end, seize opportunities, bend the rules when necessary to get the job done, and influence and mobilise others to perform (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who lack initiative are more likely to experience hopelessness and give up on themselves. Optimism hinges on how individuals interpret their setbacks. Individuals with the competence of optimism are more likely to view a setback as an opportunity to refocus strategies.

Social Awareness (Empathy)

Social awareness (empathy) is an individual's ability to accurately perceive the emotions of other people and understand what is actually going on with them (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Empathy is an individual's ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and is the foundation upon which all other social competencies are built (Goleman, 1998b). The ability for an individual to sense what other people feel without them saying so captures the essence of empathy (Goleman, 1998a, 2011). There are five competencies under social awareness,

including understanding others, service orientation, developing others, leverage in diversity and political awareness (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals with the competence of understanding others are more likely to sense the perspectives and feelings of other people, while individuals with the competence of service orientation understand customers' needs and match these needs to products or services (Goleman, 1998a).

Individuals with competence in service orientation always seek ways to improve customer satisfaction and loyalty (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who possess the competence of developing others offer useful feedback, acknowledge and reward people's achievements, identify people's needs for development, give timely coaching and provide mentorship (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who possess the competence of strengths in diversity respect and relate to people from a diverse and varying background; are sensitive to group differences; understand the context-based approach to life; and see diversity as opportunity (Goleman, 1998a). Political awareness is about reading the key power relationships at play in an individual's environment. Individuals with this competence understand the forces that shape actions and views of clients, customers and competitors (Goleman, 1998a).

Relationship Management

Relationship management is an individual's ability to use the awareness of his or her emotions and those of others to manage interactions effectively (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Research has shown that people who manage relationships well are able to see the benefit of connecting with people from varying backgrounds (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Researchers have provided much evidence that testifies that trust can lead to cooperative behaviour amongst employees (Jones & George, 1998; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; McAllister, 1995). On the other hand, employees who experience anger frequently are more likely to experience difficulty in building good relationships with colleagues and engendering their trust (George, 2000; Jones & George, 1998). There are eight competencies under relationship management, including the act of influence, communication, conflicts management, inspirational leadership, leading change, teamwork and collaboration, building bonds, and collaboration and cooperation (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who possess the competence of influence can handle emotions effectively in other people, while individuals who possess the competence of communication are able to listen well, welcome sharing of information and seek mutual understanding with relevant stakeholders (Goleman, 1998b).

Individuals with competence in conflicts management are able to handle difficult people and situation with tact, while inspirational leaders have the ability to influence others to follow (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who possess the competence of leading change are more likely

to recognise the need for change and remove impediments. Individuals with this competence are good at challenging the status quo and they are generally referred to as change agents (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals who possess the competencies of teamwork and collaboration and building bonds are able to work well in teams, work with and through people, make and maintain personal friendship, seek out relationships that are mutually beneficial, and cultivate and maintain informal networks (Goleman, 1998a). Collaboration and cooperation involves working together to achieve a common or agreed goal (Goleman, 1998a).

Mayer and Salovey Ability Model

Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model of emotional intelligence is organised around an ability-based approach to emotional competencies. This model comprised four branches arranged in a hierarchical manner (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2004; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The four branches are: identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions. The four branches are further discussed hereunder.

Identifying Emotions

This relates to an individual's ability or capacity to perceive or recognise emotions in others, and be able to express and convey emotions precisely to others (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004). It starts with emotional awareness. Self-awareness or awareness of others' emotions is the essential building block for EI. It also includes the ability to accurately express emotions and read people, including workplace colleagues. The ability of a leader to accurately read the facial expressions of colleagues and accurately identify the emotions expressed by those faces is a critical EI skill.

Using Emotions

This relates to an individual's ability to use emotion as a catalyst to facilitate thought (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). In other words, emotion is used to help thinking. This branch of EI can be simply described as the capacity of emotions to support thinking (Mayer et al., 2004). It also includes an individual's ability to utilise emotions to redirect attention to worthwhile events and harness different emotions to encourage a context approach to problem solving (Caruso et al., 2002). Emotions, when used effectively by workplace leaders, could result in the following outcomes: improves thinking, aids reasoning, empathises, inspires, enhances problem solving and motivates. Employees' ability to use emotions intelligently could create conducive work

environment for the employee and his or her colleagues. Such an environment would enhance thinking, creativity and efficiency.

Understanding Emotions

This relates to an individual's ability to analyse and understand emotions; appreciate the probable trends of these emotions over time; and be able to predict their outcomes (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004). Understanding emotions is at the heart of EI because emotions convey meaning. Understanding emotions in oneself and in others is the first step to understanding people fully and the causes of their emotions. Leaders who have this ability are able to make correct assumptions about their colleagues in the workplace, know the right thing to say to their colleagues, make good prediction about what their colleagues may feel, understand that there are conflicting emotions and have sophisticated emotional knowledge and rich emotional vocabulary to deal with day-to-day emotional issues. Caruso and Salovey (2004) posited that the ability to understand emotions is the most thinking-related or cognitive of the four branches of Mayer and Salovey's ability model. Leaders with mastery of this skill are good at managing conflicts as well as excellent team motivators.

Managing Emotions

This involves the ability of an individual to incorporate emotions intelligently into his or her reasoning, judgement, behaviour and his or her problem solving process (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). It also includes being open to emotions, whether they are welcome or not (Caruso & Salovey, 2004). Leaders who have this competency would most likely be emotionally intelligent. If a leader could accurately identify emotions (in himself or herself and in others), uses emotions brilliantly well, understands the length and breadth of emotions, but fails to manage his or her emotions, then, such a leader is emotionally unintelligent. A leader who has mastered the art of managing emotions would most likely inspire colleagues, be empathetic and open to colleagues' feelings, take informed decisions, energise and cheer colleagues up, and leads emotionally rich life and lifestyle. The next paragraph would be used to explain a hypothetical score of the Queendom emotional intelligence test for Pilate.

The Queendom emotional intelligence test measures an individual's ability on EI. The Queendom emotional intelligence test was explained using a hypothetical individual called Pilate. Pilate took the Queendom emotional intelligence test prior to the commencement of this study. The test comprised 146 self-report and ability type questions on emotional intelligence. Pilate scored 85/100 (i.e. 85%), which signifies he is aware of his own emotions and those of others, he has self-confidence and able to motivate himself, he is able to control his emotions,

he is conscientious, trustworthy, innovative and has the ability to adapt to change, he is sympathetic, empathetic, service oriented and aware of his environment, he has the ability to influence people to follow, he is a transformational leader and good at developing others, he is a change agent and good at managing conflicts and building bonds, he has a team spirit, collaborate with others to get jobs done and communicate effectively. Although all these competencies are tenable, Pilate might not possess them in the same proportion, or worse still, some of these competencies might be elusive. This hypothetical assessment was done to demonstrate how the Queendom emotional intelligence test is interpreted as well as to give the readers of this paper a better understanding of the Queendom emotional intelligence test.

EMOTIONS AND LEADERSHIP

A growing body of literature suggests that emotions and emotional intelligence lie at the very core of effective leadership (Goleman, 1998b; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2003). Leadership has long been viewed by scholars as an emotional process in which leaders express emotions and make concerted efforts to arouse emotions in their subordinates in the workplace (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; George, 2000; Lazanyi, 2009). There are a number of behaviours exhibited by employees that have emotional implications, such as exhibiting moral integrity, encouraging organisational learning, practising shared decision making, providing safety, developing trusting relationships, fostering collaboration and offering intellectual stimulation (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach, 1999).

Goleman (1998a) argued that less effective leaders were harsher, distinctly irritable, more disapproving, uncooperative and more likely to produce subordinates with the same kinds of traits. For example, a former colleague of the author once told him of the experience he had with his former boss who did not understand how to analyse and control her own emotions. In other words, she was emotionally unintelligent. For the purpose of this paper, the name of the author's former colleague would be Pilate. According to Pilate, he had the experience with his former female colleague who was the head of the Finance department of the company; she did not care about the feelings of her subordinates. She treated her subordinates as if they were tools and consistently kept them in the office till late night without remorse. More often than not, she goes out during the day while members of her team were working and she comes back in the evening only to want to catch up with everybody by meeting with them one after the other. Worst still, during each evening's conversation, her voice is usually tensed and subordinates speak in quivering and trembling moods. In fact, everybody in the team felt that she had no emotions and they usually described her as someone who was "emotionally flat." She was completely out of tune with the subtle undercurrent emotions that pervaded the department and

could not read the impact of her actions on those currents. She could not sense the collective unspoken feelings of the team and she never tried to understand those feelings. She was the one that was always speaking, always right and every encounter with her encapsulate to an “emotional toxicity.” Within one year of her working with the team, all the members of the team, including the author’s former colleague had resigned.

In contrast, research has shown that leaders who manage relationships well are able to see the benefit of connecting with their subordinates (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). An effective leader is the source of an organisation’s emotional tone and the emotional tone set by the leader trickles downward with remarkable precision. The excitement radiating from a leader can move the entire organisation in that direction (Goleman, 1998a). Some leaders exhibit a high level of positive energy and instil in their teams and organisations a sense of enthusiasm, optimism and excitement as well as an atmosphere of trust, honesty and cooperation through their ability to develop high quality interpersonal relationships with their subordinates and colleagues. Such leaders are not only interested in their subordinates’ office life but also with their lives outside the work environment. Such leaders would make conscious efforts to be empathetic to the challenges faced by their subordinates in and outside the workplace and on many occasions would inspire their subordinates to seek and achieve greatness. Subordinates who work under such leaders are willing to work even late hours to ensure that the team succeeds. In other words, subordinates are always ready to work for such leaders or go the extra mile for such leaders.

THE IMPORTANCE OF PERSONALITY AND EI TO WORKPLACE SUCCESS

The importance of personality and EI to workplace success cannot be over-emphasised. There is a relationship between personality and choice of career (Roberts & Robins, 2000; Udoudoh, 2012) and workplace success. Personality and emotional intelligence have significant impact on individual outcomes (Joseph & Newman, 2010). These outcomes include optimism, joy, happiness, health, psychological well-being, career, academic and life (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2007; Singh, 2006). Holland (1997) posited that an individual is attracted to work environments that conform to his or her personality orientation. Holland (1997) used the word congruence to refer to the alignment between personality and work environment. Researchers have posited that an individual’s ability to identify his or her career choice depends on the individual’s personality traits and how he or she perceives a particular career (Bradberry, 2007; Engler, 2009). Research has shown that when an individual’s personality is poorly matched to his or her work environment, that individual is more likely to change career and move to a more congruent environment (Holland, 1997).

Holland (1976) observed that people are more interested in working for organisations that are likely to boost their personality characteristic than those that would retard and hamper them.

Research suggests that individuals with high levels of EI experience more workplace and career success than those with low EI (Dulewicz & Higgs, 1998; Weisinger, 1998). Researchers have posited that IQ accounts for only about 20% of an individual's success in life; the other 80% has been attributed to EI (Goleman, 1995, 1998a; Singh, 2006). The big idea behind EI is that success in life, work and career depends on more than just the basic cognitive abilities, which are typically assessed by IQ tests and related measures; it also depends on a number of personal attributes that relate to the identification, understanding, usage and management of emotions in others (Cherniss, 2010; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). According to Goleman (1998a), EI would teach employees to be consistently intelligent with their emotions when dealing with themselves and with others. This is the difference between employees who are star performers and the average ones (Goleman, 1998a). Lynn (2005) asserted that EI increases an individual's capacity to discover and express his or her greatness and to build genuine relationships and bonds. Emotional intelligence has been described as the best predictor of success in the life of an individual (Goleman, 1995, 1998a; Gibbs, 1995). Lam and Kirby (2002) asserted that emotional intelligence can bring about general improvement in quality of work life and can enhance career success. Research suggests that emotional intelligence is what gives an individual a competitive edge and not IQ (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998a, 1998b, Lam & Kirby, 2002; Singh, 2006). Cooper and Sawaf (1998) posited that an individual's ability to control his or her emotion is sine qua non to success in the personal, work and professional life of the individual.

THE EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT WORKPLACE

According to Goleman (1998a), emotionally intelligent leaders want to work for emotionally intelligent organisations. Just as individuals have profile of strengths and weaknesses in the different areas of competencies and have a certain level of awareness of these, so do organisations. The quest to make organisations more emotionally intelligent is something that many, if not most organisations are embarking on, whether they use the term or not (Goleman, 1998a). One of the ways to achieve this is to create an effectively knitted workforce. The relationship of the people within an organisation is paramount to an organisation's EI success. Goleman (1998a) posited that "An organisation's collective level of emotional intelligence determines the degree to which that organisation's intellectual capital is realised and, so, its overall performance" (p. 299). Thus, organisations that have coordinated and cohesive people,

who interact effectively and share knowledge and ideas, would have a greater chance to enhance the organisation's collective intelligence.

On the other hand, if the people lack cohesion, initiative and connection and cannot work well together, the organisation's collective intelligence would likely suffer. An organisation that lacks integrity and trust is likely to lack EI because integrity and trust are the hallmark of a super "performer" organisation's culture. Ultimately, emotionally intelligent organisations build with integrity.

CONCLUSION

This paper explores the concepts of personality, personality traits, emotional intelligence, emotions and leadership in the workplace. The author discussed personality and personality traits using the Big Five or the five factor model (FFM). The five factor model measures the five dimensions of personality, including openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism ("OCEAN"). The author used a hypothetical test score to explain the five factor model.

Emotional Intelligence is the ability of individuals to consciously and artfully choose their feelings, thoughts and actions to get optimal results in their individual relationships with themselves and others (Freedman & Jensen, 2005). Emotional Intelligence was explored using the Goleman competency model and the Mayer and Salovey ability model. The Goleman competency model consists of five components, including self-awareness, self-management, self-motivation, social awareness (empathy) and relationship management. Competencies embedded in each of the five competencies were also highlighted and discussed. The author also discussed Mayer and Salovey's ability model which comprised four branches, including identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

The paper also explores the relationship between emotions and leadership, the importance of personality and EI to workplace success and the concept of emotionally intelligent workplace. The author concluded by stating that organisations that have coordinated and cohesive people, who interact effectively and share knowledge and ideas, would have a greater chance to enhance the organisation's collective intelligence. However, if the people lack cohesion, initiative and connection and cannot work well together, the organisation's collective intelligence would likely suffer.

FURTHER RESEARCH

The author intends to conduct empirical research in the areas of emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, personality traits and workplace success. Specifically, the empirical

studies would be on “An Empirical Study of the Role of Personality and EI to Workplace Success: Evidence from the Telecommunications Industry in Nigeria” and “An Empirical Study of the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership: Evidence from the Banking Industry in Nigeria.” The author would also encourage other researchers to empirically investigate some of the topics covered in this paper.

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