2016

Relationship between emotional intelligence and the ability to influence

Tammy Hong

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THE ABILITY TO INFLUENCE

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Tammy Hong

November, 2016

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Tammy Hong

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of:

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

Doctoral Committee:

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D., Chairperson

Leo Mallette, Ed.D.

James DellaNeve, Ed.D.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

LIST OF TABLES

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

DEDICATION

To my first child, who pushed me into completing my final defense.

To my second child, who pushed me into finishing APA.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

> We don’t accomplish anything in this world alone... and whatever happens is the result of the whole tapestry of one’s life and all the weavings of individual threads form one to another that creates something.
>
> —Sandra Day O’Connor

There are individuals in my life to whom I owe a lifetime of gratitude for their support throughout my journey. These are people who have watched me grow, made sacrifices to better my education, and supported me during my time in this program.

First and foremost, I thank my parents for instilling in me my love for education. Without them, I would not have had this opportunity. Thank you for investing in me.

To my grandparents, who never failed to review my homework, regardless of how poorly written or how late in the evening.

To my dissertation chair, Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez, for not allowing me to give up even when I wanted to. Thank you for the constant check ins, encouragement, and guidance. Most of all, thank you for making this process fun for me. To my committee members, Drs. Leo Mallette and James DellaNeve, for your patience and support. I wouldn’t have had the perseverance to move forward without you all.

Thank you to all the wonderful Pepperdine professors, most especially Dr. Tom Granoff. Without you, I would still be drowning in numbers and my own insecurities. To Drs. Farzin Madjidi, Kent Rhodes, Robert Barner, Linda Purrington, and Paul Sparks, and Judge John Tobin who always made a point to ask me about my progress when we ran into each other. Thank you for the hallway smiles, high fives after every step, and the fail proof pick-me-ups. Thank you to Dr. Doug Leigh who helped me find extra participants for my surveys and always checked in with me.

To the members of my cohort, my Pepperdine colleagues, my family, and my friends for walking with me in my journey; I thank you all. Thank you to my friends in my cohort who never allowed me to take extended breaks. Your e-mails and text messages pushed me more than you know. Thank you to my Pepperdine colleagues who allowed themselves to be my guinea pigs. A huge thanks to Christie Dailo. I’m so grateful for all your help! Thank you to my friends and family for your words of encouragements, meals and snacks, prayers and thoughts, and (most of all) your friendship.

To my date for life, Ryan. Thank you for “joining” this program with me. You entered my life during the week of my orientation and you never left. Thank you for giving me the two best reasons to complete this program. As of August, I am yours again.

VITA

Tammy Hong

Education

Doctor of Education, Organizational Leadership
Pepperdine University, 2016

Master of Arts, Psychology
Pepperdine University, 2009

Bachelor of Arts, Psychology and Communication
University of Southern California, 2006

Professional Experience

Manager of Outreach and Recruitment
Pepperdine University, 2012-2016

Admissions Manager
Pepperdine University, 2013, 2014-2015, 2016

Professional Development Consultant
University of Southern California, 2010-2011

Event Coordinator
The International Therapist Leadership Institute, 2008-2010

ABSTRACT

Much attention has been paid to the study of leaders and their ability to influence followers. A comprehensive study by Humphrey (2002) found that leadership is a process of social interaction by which the leader's ability to influence the behavior of his or her employees can strongly influence the employees' performance outcome. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) hypothesized that leaders who rate high in the ability to accurately perceive, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to influence and motivate their employees. Taking the lead of prior research, this dissertation investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and the ability to influence followers. The sample was composed of 72 fully employed adults working 40 hours a week in a corporate or education setting. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), an ability-based test designed to measure the four branches of Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's EI model, was administered to the sample. The MSCEIT measures individuals' overall level of EI as well as their ability levels with regard to the four branches of the model: (a) perceiving emotions, (b) using emotions, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). For the purpose of this dissertation, participants' total EI scores were examined. Additionally, this study used an Influence Quiz, a test designed by Cialdini and Goldstein (2004) to measure awareness and understanding of the Six Principles of Influence. Through researching professionals in sales, Cialdini (2009; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004) found 6 strategies to be highly effective when attempting to influence an outcome or followers: (a) authority, (b) consistency and commitment, (c) liking, (d) reciprocity/reciprocation, (e) scarcity, and (f) social proof. This is the first study that combined the works of Cialdini with that of Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004). This study used a quantitative approach; specifically surveys administered to 72 participants were used to gather EI and influence sophistication scores. Based on the data gathered in this study, the results were significant at the $p = .01$ level. The research established that the total level of EI is directly related to the ability to understand and identify influence strategies. Further, results also indicate that individuals had the highest comprehension of the principle of reciprocity over any other strategies and possessed the lowest understanding of the authority principle. The conclusions and recommendations for further research address the possibility of expanding the sample population. The implications for leaders and employers include understanding the importance of interpersonal relationships in the organizational context.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction to and overview of the dissertation proposal. The chapter begins with the background of the problem, followed by the statement of the problem and the purpose of the study. Then the research questions, significance of the study, overview of the research methods, limitations, and definition of terms are presented. The chapter concludes with a presentation of the organization of the remainder of the proposal.

Background of the Problem

Leadership is a process of social interaction by which the leader's ability to influence the behavior of his or her employees can strongly influence the employees' performance outcome (Humphrey, 2002). Leadership is intrinsically an emotional process whereby leaders recognize followers' emotional states, attempt to evoke emotions in followers, and then seek to influence followers (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2005). Leaders' ability to influence the emotional climate in the workplace can strongly influence employees' performance (Humphrey, 2002).

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a key factor in an individual's ability to be socially effective (J. George, 2000). It is viewed in leadership research as a primary determinant of effective leadership (Ashkanasey & Tse, 2000; J. George, 2000). A leader's EI plays an important part in the quality and effectiveness of social interactions with his or her employees. Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2000) hypothesized that leaders who rate high in the ability to accurately perceive, understand, and appraise others' emotions would be better able to influence and motivate their employees.

More recent theories of leadership have implicitly or explicitly recognized the role of emotions in leader-follower interactions. Yukl (2009) defined leadership as a process of social interactions in which leaders attempt to influence the behavior of their followers. Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2002) stated that leadership is an intrinsically emotional process in which leaders display certain emotions and attempt to evoke and control other emotions in their followers.

Leader-Member exchange (LMX) theory views leadership as a process that focuses on the positive or negative relationships between leaders and followers (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Bass (1990) defined charismatic leaders as individuals who inspire their followers and secure their trust and support, whereas transformational leadership involves the use of emotions to motivate and influence followers (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000). Further, Boyatzis and McKee (2005) stated that the main aspect of resonant leadership is the ability to recognize, control, and use emotions to inspire and influence followers. Without a doubt, the ability to influence followers is crucial to successful leadership and creating a positive workplace experience.

Cialdini (2009) put forth six fundamentals of influence and persuasion that demonstrate how compliance can easily be accomplished: (a) reciprocation: a person’s willingness to comply with requests (e.g., for favors, services, information, concessions) from those who have provided for them first; (b) consistency and commitment: a person’s willingness to comply if he/she sees it as consistent with an existing or recent commitment; (c) social proof: a person’s willingness to comply by following the directions or recommendations of the masses; (d) liking: a person’s willingness to comply with those he or she knows and likes; (e) authority: a person’s willingness to comply with people to whom he or she attributes relevant authority or expertise; and (f) scarcity: a person’s willingness to comply when the objects and opportunities are scarce, rare, or dwindling in availability.

Research on leadership has traditionally focused on official/designated leaders in organizations (Kickul & Neuman, 2000). Most approaches and theories on leadership center on what personality traits and characteristics are typical of a good leader. For example, intelligence, personality, value, and skills are some of the many attributes examined within leaders (Bass & Bass, 2008). Further, the traits are explored in relation to behaviors in leadership theories, e.g., transformational and transactional leadership, dyadic exchange, adaptive leadership, and ethical leadership (Yukl, 2009).

The role of leadership emergence (LE) is becoming increasingly important for team success (Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002). Lord, De Vader, and Allinger (1986) highlighted LE as “a major component of the social fabric of many organizations” (p. 146). Existing LE research is focused more on trait predictors, such as gender and personality (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002), and less on the underlying motivational processes, which are considered more proximal predictors of performance (Chen, Whiteman, Gully, & Kilcullen, 2000).

Many researchers posit that one primary aspect of resonant leadership is the ability to recognize, control, and use emotions to inspire and influence followers and create resonance among self and others beyond short-term task completion (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). Despite the theoretical relevance of emotions to leadership, very few empirical studies have found a direct relationship between EI and LE.

Ultimately, the study of leadership is about understanding and improving how leaders can motivate their followers to achieve desired outcomes (Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2005). Emerging EI concepts are focusing on the relationship among dispositional characteristics, leadership, and outcomes (Bono & Judge, 2004). However, most of the researchers who have investigated the relationship of EI and leadership have conducted their studies under laboratory conditions using student sample populations (Lopes et al., 2004).

The researchers of studies that exist within organizational contexts have found mixed results. For instance, when using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and multifactor leadership questionnaire, Weinberger (2002) found no significant correlation between EI and transformational leadership. Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) found that higher EI scores were associated with higher leadership effectiveness after studying 41 Australian public service managers and exploring the relationship between the ability-based EI (MSCEIT), personality (16PF), cognitive intelligence (WASI), and leadership effectiveness. Additional research pertaining to EI and leadership is necessary to further understand their connection.

Problem Statement

EI is a key factor in an individual’s ability to be socially effective and is viewed in the leadership literature as a key determinant of effective leadership (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000). Humphrey (2002) asserted that leadership is intrinsically an emotional process, whereby leaders recognize followers’ emotional states, attempt to evoke emotions in followers, and then seek to manage their emotional states accordingly. Pescosolido (2002) argued that leaders increase group solidarity and morale by creating shared emotional experiences. J. George (2000) postulated that emotionally intelligent leaders can promote effectiveness and generate successful outcomes at all levels in an organization.

Given that EI is widely accepted as a key characteristic of a successful leader, most of the published research investigating this topic has shown mixed results. Studies conducted in a laboratory found effective leadership and the leader’s ability to influence positive outcomes to be highly correlated with the leader’s EI (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005), whereas other studies found no relationship between EI and effective leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Weinberger, 2002).

With these mixed results, it is clear that more research is needed on this topic in order to gain a deeper understanding of how to influence followers and create positive outcomes in the workplace.

As with individual leaders, each organization has its own systemic approach to lead (or supervise) teams of workers. In many companies, the methods that leaders employ to influence compliance from their employees are not documented and are often subjective. Further, leaders are unaware of the methods they are using to influence their employees to comply. Even though leaders are interested in leading teams successfully, little information is provided to new or existing leaders on the characteristics necessary to influence their employees.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to gain a better understanding of the relationship between leaders' EI and leadership effectiveness, and in so doing contribute to existing research. The present study sought to compensate for the lack of concrete research focusing on the relationship among EI, leadership effectiveness, and leaders' ability to influence followers and create successful outcomes in the workplace.

Building on prior research on EI and leadership effectiveness, this study explored the relationship between a leader's EI and his or her influence sophistication. For the purpose of this study, influence sophistication refers to an individual's ability to successfully employ Cialdini's (2009) six fundamental influence strategies to inspire followers. The second purpose of this study was to further explore the relationship between a leader's level of EI and influence sophistication when taking into account an individual's demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, education, and level in organization.

Research Questions

The following research questions were created to achieve the goals of this study:

- RQ1: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score?
- RQ2: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study is its contribution to leaders and literature in the areas of principles of influence and persuasion, leadership relationships and development, EI, and leadership theory. The results of this study have the potential to help organizational leaders, employees, and scholars gain a deeper understanding of the relationship between the religion and religiosity of organizational leaders and their leadership practices. In addition, the relationship between organizational leaders' EI and level of influence sophistication will be of value to leaders in all types of organizations.

Principals of influence and level of EI must be evaluated to enable administrators and instructors to determine the effectiveness of training that individuals receive when appointed to leadership positions. Katz and Kahn (1978) stated that social influence is pivotal in encouraging employees to adopt organizationally prescribed work behavior. Since results of this study indicate a correlation between EI and the ability to influence, training provided to individuals who are preparing for a leadership role should be reevaluated and readjusted. Ultimately, this study will provide a learning experience for individuals on their path to success in leadership roles.

Overview of the Research Method

This research study used a quantitative design, which is generally classified as descriptive experimental or causal comparative (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). The descriptive approach is used to explore a situation as it exists in the status quo. Descriptive research involves identifying attributes of a particular phenomenon based on an observation or the exploration of a correlation between two or more phenomena (Creswell, 2010).

This research was a descriptive quantitative study that did not employ any manipulation of variables (Creswell, 2010). Firstly, the research was intended to determine the relationship between EI and influence sophistication, based on Cialdini's (2009) influence strategies. Secondly, this study aimed to explore the relationship between the respondent's level of EI and his/her influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics.

As noted, the purpose of the study was to determine the relationship between leaders' EI and their influence sophistication in using Cialdini's (2009) six fundamental influence strategies of reciprocation, consistency and commitment, social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity. EI was measured with the MSCEIT, and level of influence sophistication in using the six fundamental influence strategies was measured via Cialdini's Influence Quiz. Pearson's correlations were used to determine the relationship between leaders' EI and their influence sophistication.

Demographic variables—including gender, age, and level within the organization—were also considered in terms of this relationship. Participants were sampled from different levels within an organization, including entry, intermediate, senior (lead level or middle management), and lead (upper middle management or top management). Multiple regressions were used to determine if there was a relationship between the respondent's level of EI and his/her influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics mentioned previously.

Limitations of the Study

A number of limitations should be taken into consideration when evaluating the results of this academic work and the interpretation of any data collected. Two, in particular, are especially relevant. The first limitation is that the instruments used were self-report measures that present questions about participants' own influence sophistication. Self-report measures are subject to biases, such as the desire to present oneself in a certain light. Further, the accuracy of such responses is difficult to determine. The second limitation is that convenience sampling was used to select participants. The sample population of this study cannot accurately represent the general population. Since this process may be viewed as biased sampling, there was no guarantee that the sample population would hold a mix of views and opinions. Furthermore, a convenience sampling had the potential to cause the population to contain an uneven mix of individuals of different ages and sexes.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined for the purpose of this study.

Authority: Principle that states that people will be more willing to comply with individuals to whom they attribute relevant authority or expertise.

Consistency and commitment: Principle that states that people will be more willing to comply if they see it as consistent with an existing or recent commitment.

Emotional intelligence (EI): The ability to identify, assess, and control the emotions of oneself, of others, and of groups.

Employees/subordinates: Individuals who are under the supervision of another individual. The words subordinates and employees are used interchangeably in this study.

Employer(s): Individuals in a leadership role who supervise other individuals in the organization.

Extrinsic motivation: Motivation that comes from factors outside an individual, such as currency, public recognition, and other external rewards.

Feminine traits: Characteristics and behaviors usually associated with being a girl or woman (e.g., dependent, emotional, passive, sensitive, quiet, graceful, innocent, weak, flirtatious, nurturing, self-critical, soft, sexually submissive, accepting).

Influence: The capacity or power of persons or things to be a compelling force on or produce effects on the actions, behavior, and opinions of others.

Influence sophistication: The extent to which an individual is able to influence outcomes and create followers by using Cialdini’s (2009) six fundamental influence strategies.

Influence strategies: Cialdini’s (2009) six fundamental influence strategies (reciprocation, commitment and consistency, liking, authority, social proof, and scarcity).

Intrinsic motivation: Motivation that is driven by internal factors, such as inherent satisfaction.

Leader(s): An individual in a supervising position who leads a group of employees.

Leader-member exchange (LMX) model: A theory of leadership that focuses on the dyadic, or two-way, relationship between leaders and employees.

Leadership: A skill requiring competence in strategic visioning, mobilizing commitment to the vision, and leading change with personal passion, competence, integrity, and humility.

Leadership style: Patterns of behavior that are relatively stable, and are manifested by leaders (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Liking: Principle that states that people will be more willing to comply with those they know and like.

Masculine traits: Characteristics and behaviors usually associated with being a boy or a man (e.g., independent, non-emotional, aggressive, tough-skinned, competitive, experienced, strong, active, self-confident, hard, sexually aggressive, rebellious).

Motivation: The act or an instance of motivating, or providing with a reason to act in a certain way.

Power: The ability to influence people's behavior.

Professional or career levels: The level held by an individual in a workplace. At the most basic, there are early, mid, and senior level employees. Career level also refers to the type of position such as entry level, middle management, or executive.

Reciprocation: Principle that states that people will be more willing to comply with requests (e.g., for favors, services, information, concessions) from those who have provided for them first.

Reward: Something given or received in return or recompense for service, merit, or hardship.

Scarcity: Principle that states that people will more be more willing to comply when the objects and opportunities are scarce, rare, or dwindling in availability.

Social influence: Occurs when one's emotions, opinions, or behaviors are affected by others.

Social proof: Principle that states that people will be more willing to comply by following the directions or recommendations of the masses.

Transactional leadership: This type of leadership is also known as managerial leadership. It focuses on the role of supervision, organization, and group performance.

Transformational leadership: Individuals with this type of leadership have the ability to get people to want to change, improve, and be led. It involves assessing associates' motives, satisfying their needs, and valuing them.

Organization of the Remainder of the Proposal

Chapter 1 contained discussions of the background and the problem and purpose of this study. Chapter 1 included and briefly explained the research questions as well as the significance of the research. The chapter also contained a review of the limitations and assumptions of the research, providing specific examples of the limitations and why the study should be reviewed with discretion. Chapter 1 concluded with definitions of key terms.

Chapter 2, the literature review, is an exploration of different leadership theories and styles. Using the leadership theories and styles selected, leaders will be categorized based on their behavioral and personality styles. Next, the literature review examines the topic of EI and its relationship with individuals' ability to influence outcomes and create followers. The subsequent focus of the literature review is an exploration of relevant studies about the different demographic characteristics that affect leadership. The following demographic characteristics will be discussed and reviewed: gender, age, education, professional experience, number of employees, and salary.

Chapter 3, the methodology of this quantitative study begins with a restatement of the research questions, followed by an introduction and description of the nature of the study. This chapter includes a brief description of the population that was used to collect data for analysis. The nature of human subjects and a description of the data collection instruments and data collection methods are included. The analytical techniques used are also described.

Chapter 4, the results, explores the findings of this research. In this chapter, the researcher describes the process of data collection and reviews the results gathered from the surveys. This chapter offers an overview of the findings, structured according to the survey questions the researcher gave to the participants. The chapter also addresses the study findings in relation to research questions 1 and 2.

Chapter 5, the discussion, provides an overview of relevant literature. A discussion of the major findings of this research is presented, as well as findings in relation to research questions 1 and 2. Finally, study limitations and suggestions for future research are discussed.

Summary

Chapter 1 served as an overview for the dissertation. This study focused on the relationship between individuals' EI and influence sophistication after controlling for individuals' demographics. The subsequent chapter will review relevant research pertaining to this dissertation topic.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter is a presentation of literature that creates the framework for understanding the concepts that are significant to the study of EI and influence. Both have been a unifying theme for many years in the research on the leadership and design of organizations.

The first area of this literature review will be an overview of different leadership theories relevant to this study. The second area will present a review of previous research conducted on EI. The third area will be an exploration of the significance of influence and motivation in organizations. The fourth area of the literature review will present how specific demographic characteristics affect leadership styles. Lastly, Cialdini's (2009) methods of influence will be addressed. This review will present not only Cialdini's techniques but also examples of their use.

Five Bases of Power

Social psychologists French and Raven (1959) conducted a notable study of power and contended that different forms of power affect an individual's leadership and success. They divided power into five separate and specific forms, i.e., coercive, reward, legitimate, referent, and expert. Each of these forms of power is defined in the following paragraphs.

Coercive power is based on the idea of using coercion to achieve compliance. An individual is forced to do something he or she does not necessarily desire to do. The primary goal of coercive power is continual compliance (French & Raven, 1959). This power has been shown to be analogous with punitive behavior that may be outside a normal role expectation; however, coercive power also has been positively associated with generally punitive behavior and negatively correlated to contingent reward behavior. Coercive power can often lead to problems, and, in many organizations and circumstances, it involves abuse (Raven, 1990). Leaders often use threats that involve job stability as a form of coercion.

According to French and Raven (1959), reward power involves reciprocity. By granting favors to an individual or having the ability to remove unwanted things, a leader's chance of receiving compliance is increased. This type of power is based on the idea that people in society are more prone to comply, and to do them well, when they are receiving something they want. The most popular forms of reward power in the workforce involve raises, promotions, small tokens of appreciation, and compliments (Raven, 1990).

Legitimate power encompasses the ability to administer to another individual certain feelings of obligation or the idea of responsibility. The capacity to reward and punish employees is generally seen as a legitimate part of the formal or appointed leadership duty (French & Raven, 1959). People traditionally comply with the person who holds this power and, to some degree, even come to expect it from people in leadership positions and those who hold specific titles.

Referent power is the ability to administer to another individual a sense of personal acceptance or personal approval. Referent power may be so strong that the holder of such power is often automatically considered to be a leader and looked upon as a role model. This power is often regarded as admiration or charisma (French & Raven, 1959) and takes place most commonly in the political and military arenas.

Expert power is the ability to provide another individual with information, knowledge, or expertise (French & Raven, 1959). Professionals such as doctors, lawyers, and professors are examples of individuals who often hold automatic expert power. Because people tend to have faith in experts, people who hold such power have the ability to convince subordinates to place their trust in them (Raven, 1990).

The Big Five Personality Traits

The Big Five model is a comprehensive theory that encompasses the broad dimensions of traits used to describe human behavior. Several researchers identified and defined this model, studying known personality traits and then factor-analyzing hundreds of measures of those traits. The personality traits studied include: openness (inventive/curious versus consistent/cautious); conscientiousness (efficient/organized versus easy-going/careless), extraversion (outgoing/energetic versus solitary/reserved), agreeableness (friendly/compassionate versus cold/unkind), and neuroticism (sensitive/nervous versus secure/confident; Matthews, Deary, & Whiteman, 2003).

Many behavioral psychologists believe that the Big Five personality traits are directly correlated with leadership qualities. Where an individual appears on the spectrum in each of the personality traits determines whether he or she is a leader. However, because the Big Five model is broad and comprehensive, others believe the model is not nearly as powerful in predicting and explaining actual behavior (L. George, Helson, & John, 2011). L. George et al. (2011) hypothesized that individuals, more notably women, differ in the way they interact with their environment depending on where they appear under the Big Five personality dimensions.

Openness. The first trait, openness, describes a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, ideas, imagination, and curiosity. Individuals who score low in openness tend to have more conventional, traditional interests and gravitate toward the straightforward and obvious over the creative and abstract. In addition, they prefer familiarity over novelty and are resistant to change (L. George et al., 2011).

Scoring high in openness indicates an individual's originality and complexity, and the manifestation of these internal experiences in goals, attitudes, and behaviors is shown by traits such as curiosity, adventurousness, broad interests, and progressiveness. L. George et al. (2011) posited that individuals who are more open are more likely to become leaders. They prefer a work environment in which they can demonstrate creativity in their product and perform well in creative aspects of their work, or in jobs that permit creative expression. This personality trait enhances an individual's ability to visualize him or herself in leadership roles and taking on new challenges.

Conscientiousness. The second trait, conscientiousness, is the tendency to show self-discipline and aspire to achievement against outside expectations. Individuals who score high in conscientiousness are planners and tend to shy away from spontaneous activity and behavior. Highly conscientious people are not only dutiful and careful, but also cautious and practical. They exercise prudent judgment and are associated with a responsible, hardworking orientation and good performance, regardless of the type of job (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003).

Extraversion. The third trait, extraversion, is characterized by positive emotions and the tendency to seek out simulation and prefer the company of others (L. George et al., 2011). Individuals who score low in extraversion appear to be quiet, low-key, and less involved socially. Introverts are not necessarily shy; rather, they simply need less outside stimulation and prefer more time alone. Introverts have lower social engagement and activity levels than do their extraverted counterparts.

Individuals who score high in extraversion are engaging to the external world. Extraverts enjoy being with people and are often perceived as full of energy and outgoing. They tend to be action oriented and gravitate toward excitement. Individuals who experience more pleasure and feel less inhibition socially are more likely to take on the challenge of leadership positions and seek out higher status in the workplace (L. George et al., 2011). Extraversion is directly related to an interest in work that is entrepreneurial and social and involves interaction and influence with others (Barrick et al., 2003; Costa, McCrae, & Holland, 1984; Watson & Clark, 1997). In sum, extraverts prefer work that allows them to assert their will and to interact with their environments.

Agreeableness. The fourth trait, agreeableness, reflects individual differences in general concern for social harmony. Individuals who score high in agreeableness have a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic toward others. Their characteristics can be described as considerate, friendly, generous, helpful, and willing to compromise with others regarding their interests. Notably, whereas individuals who score high in agreeableness may have excellent team work skills, behavioral psychologists believe that they make poor leaders (Barrick et al., 2003).

Neuroticism. The last trait in the Big Five model, neuroticism, is the tendency to experience negative emotions and sometimes be emotionally unstable. Individuals who score high in neuroticism are emotionally reactive and vulnerable to stress. They are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as negative and personally threatening. Individuals who score low in neuroticism are less likely to be emotionally reactive and tend to be calm, emotionally stable, and free from negative feelings.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

According to Humphrey (2002), leadership is a process of social interaction in which the leader’s ability to influence the behavior of his/her employees can strongly influence results in the workplace. Leadership is an emotional process, one whereby leaders acknowledge their employees' emotional state, attempt to evoke emotions, and then seek to manage them. Leaders' ability to influence employees' emotional state can strongly result in positive outcomes.

Goleman (1998) defined EI as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317). EI is a key factor in an individual's ability to be socially effective (J. George, 2000), and a leader's EI plays an important role in the quality and effectiveness of social interactions with other employees. Mayer et al. (2000) hypothesized that employees who have high levels of EI may have smoother interactions with members of their work teams. Mayer et al. found that individuals who rated highly in the ability to accurately perceive, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive networks. Mayer et al. stated that a high level of EI might enable a leader to be better able to monitor the feelings of work group members.

Fortner (2013) attempted to find a relationship among EI, job satisfaction, and motivation by focusing on four constructs, i.e., perceiving emotions, facilitating emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions. However, not only were the results of this study insignificant, but also a negative relationship was found between the construct of perceiving emotions and both variables of job satisfaction and motivation. (Fortner, 2013).

Kerr et al.(2005) intended to compensate for the relative shortage of research that focused on the relationship between EI and team performance outcomes within an actual workplace setting. Kerr et al. used the MSCEIT as a measure to study 38 supervisors (37 males and one female) and 1,258 employees from one organization. Supervisor participants took the MSCEIT in a pencil-and-paper format. Employee participants were asked to rate their supervisor on a

Likert scale, with questions such as: (a) I feel at ease with my supervisor when asking questions; (b) My supervisor asks me how I am doing on a regular basis; (c) I feel I am treated in a fair manner; (d) My supervisor supports me when I need help; and (e) Keeping my supervisor informed, I can take initiatives. The goal of the study was to determine the relationship between supervisory EI (as measured by the MSCEIT) and a rating of supervisor effectiveness (employees' rating). The overall results of the data analysis showed that individuals' EI may be a key determinant of effective leadership. Employees' perceptions of their supervisor effectiveness were strongly tied to their supervisors' EI.

Dissertation studies on EI and leadership styles in various professional arenas found direct relationships between the two. Chancler (2012) explored EI and leadership styles of public school principals, and results indicated that public school principals possessed a prevailing leadership style, team leadership, which was relatively high on both people and task dimensions of leadership concerns. These findings further indicate that the majority of public school principals surveyed in this dissertation demonstrated relatively high EI, exhibiting fairly high concern for both people and task. Additionally, Weiszbrod (2012) found EI and leadership competencies in health care to be directly related. Using a quantitative, correlational method, Weiszbrod examined the EI of managers within specific healthcare organizations, professional associations, and graduates of health administration programs. Not only was there a correlation between the individuals' EI and leadership competencies, but also the relationship persisted when controlling for the co-variables of gender, years of management experience, and level of education.

Ability to influence others and outcomes. Studies have indicated that EI is associated with various job-related outcomes, including job performance and a leader's ability to influence followers (Bradberry & Greaves, 2002). Based on Goleman's EI model, Bradberry and Greaves (2002) defined EI based on a connection between what a person sees and what he or she focuses on with regard to the self and others.

Focus on self includes (a) self-awareness: the ability to accurately perceive one's own emotions and remain aware of them as they happen. This includes keeping on top of how one tends to respond to specific situations and people; and (b) self-management: the ability to use awareness of emotions to stay flexible and positively direct one's own behavior, including managing emotional reactions to all situations and people (Bradberry & Greaves, 2002).

Focus on others includes (a) social awareness: the ability to accurately pick up on emotions in other people and grasp what is really going on. This often means understanding what other people are thinking and feeling even if one does not feel the same way; and (b) relationship management: the ability to use awareness of one's own emotions and the emotions of others to manage interactions successfully. This includes clear communication and handling conflict effectively (Bradberry & Greaves, 2002).

Many scholars have contributed to the definition and model development of EI, and studies have shown that EI is related to transformational leadership. Further, an effective leadership style is a crucial characteristic of managers, with the most effective leadership style being identified as transformational rather than transactional (San Lam & O'Higgins, 2010). Burns (1978) identified transformational leaders as individuals who look for potential motives in their followers, seek to satisfy higher needs, and engage followers' full selves. Bass (1985) further indicated that transformational leaders can influence their followers to accomplish more than they were originally expected to do.

Rouche, Baker, and Rose (1989) defined transformational leadership in terms of a leader's ability to influence the values, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors of others by working with and through them to accomplish the organization's mission and purpose. Bass (1997) established four clear components of transformational leadership:

1. Idealized influence (charisma). Leaders display conviction, emphasize trust, take a stand on difficult issues, present their most important values, and emphasize the importance of purpose, commitment, and the ethical consequences of decisions. Such leaders are admired as role models by generating pride, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around a shared purpose.
2. Inspirational motivation. Leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards, talk optimistically with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done.
3. Intellectual stimulation. Leaders question old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs, stimulate new perspectives and ways of doing things, and encourage the expression of ideas and reasons.
4. Individualized consideration. Leaders deal with others as individuals, consider their unique needs, abilities, and aspirations, listen attentively, further their development, advise, teach, and coach. (p. 131)

San Lam and O'Higgins (2010) stated that positive employee outcomes are greatly influenced by transformational leadership. In their study, the indicators to measure employee outcomes included work performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job stress. Figure 1 describes a model proposed by San Lam and O'Higgins, which encompasses the relationships among EI, leadership style, and effects on employee outcomes (employee performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job stress). San Lam and O'Higgins further indicated that out of all the transformational leadership behavior components (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation), inspirational motivation demonstrated the highest correlation with EI.

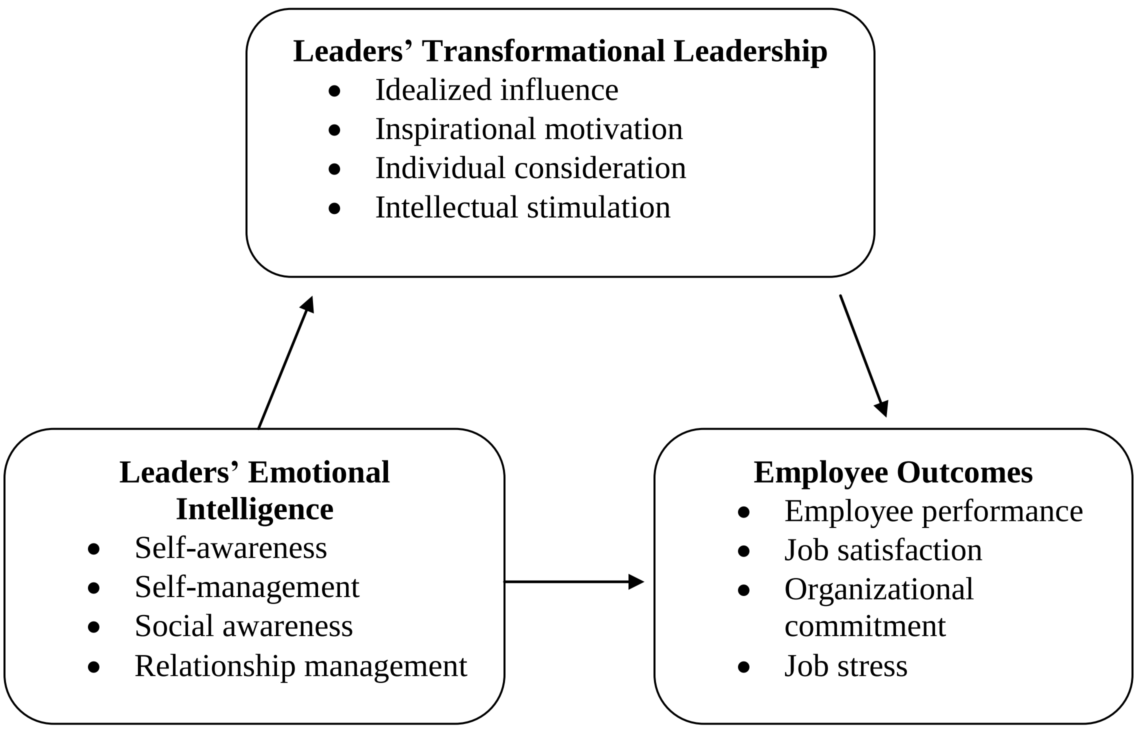

Figure 1. Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership model.

Negative Affect of Emotional Intelligence

Several studies indicate that EI provides an array of benefits, such as academic achievement, job performance, professional success, mood and emotional management, and decision making (Goleman, 1995; Sevdalis, Petrides, & Harvey, 2007). However, there is a negative side to EI. EI is associated with risk taking. Having high EI allows individuals to recognize moods and emotions, which may interfere with rational choice, and accordingly decreases their sensitivity to these factors. More specifically, an emotionally intelligent decision maker recognizes negative mood and anticipated fear triggered by risky situations, and consequently takes into account such elements during decision making processes (Sevdalis et al., 2007).

Social and personality research has also shown a relationship between EI and negative mood (Sevdalis et al., 2007). Individuals higher with EI are more skillful in recognizing the source that triggers negative mood or emotion. Decision making research has shown an effect of negative mood, as well as fear, on risk perception and risk taking (Lerner & Keltner, 2001; Yuen & Lee, 2003).

In a more recent study conducted by Panno, Donati, Chiesi, and Primi (2015), the findings demonstrate that people's trait EI is indirectly related to risk-taking via naturally occurring negative mood and anticipated fear. In comparison to an earlier study (Sevdalis et al., 2007), this study is the first to show a relationship between trait EI and risk-taking through negative mood and anticipated fear.

Cialdini's Fundamental Influence Methods

To have the best chance of influencing and persuading an individual effectively, leaders must provide psychological motivators by communicating and making requests properly. After many years of field research, Cialdini (2009) identified six universal principles of human decision making: reciprocation, consistency and commitment, social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity. Among these principles, only a small change is required for an individual to comply with a leader's request. The principle of *reciprocation*, presented first in Cialdini's *Influence: Science and Practice*, is a powerful influence and persuasion method. It states that individuals will try to repay what another individual has provided. For example, a business may request patrons to purchase their product after providing free samples. Because people generally feel indebted after receiving a free item or a favor, the level of compliance will generally increase (Jensen & Osborne, 1992).

The principle of *consistency and commitment* indicates that, if an individual takes a stand or goes on record, he or she has a stronger tendency to behave consistently with that declaration (Jensen & Osborne, 1992). Cialdini (2009) examined businesses that employ precisely this tactic during Christmas. Toy stores often will advertise an attractive toy near the holiday that parents will promise to buy for their children at Christmas. The toy, however, will be unavailable or sold out in stores, forcing parents to purchase another item as a replacement gift. Once the holiday is over, the toy will be widely available in the stores, and the parents will buy it, having previously committed to the purchase.

The principle of *social proof* postulates that people frequently discover the perceived correct behavior by asking what other people think or watching what they do (Jensen & Osborne, 1992). According to Cialdini, Goldstein, and Martin (2009), towel reuse in a hotel increased by 26% because a sign was posted in the rooms that stated, "The majority of guests reuse their towels during their stay". However, when the sign read, "The majority of guests who previously stayed in the same room reused their towels, the amount of towel reuse rose by 33%."

The principle of *liking* states that compliance is more likely to follow a request from someone who is friendly, has similar values, and is socially skilled and cooperative. Once a person is liked, the principle of *authority* comes into effect (Jensen & Osborne, 1992). This principle states that titles, status, and perceived competency influence people to comply with requests. Cialdini et al. (2009) tested this theory in a series of real estate offices that had sales and leasing departments. When a customer called, a receptionist not only told the customer to whom he or she was being transferred, but also mentioned the colleague's credentials and expertise by saying, for example, *I'll connect you with Sandra, who has over 15 years' experience in leasing property in this area,* or *I'll put you through to Peter, who is our head of sales and has 20 years of experience in selling properties.* The agency quickly reported a 20% rise in both number of quotations and subsequent appointments after the receptionist simply mentioned the credentials of her or his colleagues. The two aforementioned principles often complement each other, as people generally comply with an expert who is also likeable (Jensen & Osborne, 1992).

The principle of *scarcity* asserts that people like rare things and will take action to have them (Cialdini, 2009). Scarcity often is used to sell sporting or concert tickets, baseball cards, or antique furniture. Additionally, persuasion researchers believe that, when presented with too many options or choices, people often find the decision-making process frustrating (Cialdini et al., 2009). Cialdini et al. (2009) studied supermarket shoppers who were offered samples of a variety of jams that were all made by a single manufacturer, with the number of different flavor of jams varying from time to time. Their results showed that people were 10 times more likely to make a purchase when offered fewer choices.

Gender and Leadership

A review of the literature showed that gender is the most influential demographic characteristic that determines how an individual will behave as well as be perceived as a leader. Many research studies point to previous gender stereotypes and women's involvement in the workplace throughout history as reasons for the different ways they behave as leaders as compared to men.

Historically, women were expected to marry and have children with little delay. Even though some women thought they might enter the workforce during young adulthood prior to having children, they still believed their main responsibility would be to their husbands and children. Indeed, they were expected to stop working if they were employed, bear an average of four children, and be devoted to their families (Helson, Mitchell, & Moane, 1984). In the late 1930s, women started going to college, but this was still a gender-traditional era . By the 1960s, more women were becoming educated and working, but this was still a time when young women were told that their place was in their homes and their job was to stand by their husbands and care for their children. They were often not welcome in graduate school or higher positions in the workplace. It was not until the early to mid-20th century that women entered the workforce; however, even women who received higher education or achieved high-ranking employment positions eventually stayed home to care for their families (L. George et al., 2011).

In a society that expected women to stay home upon marrying, there was no room for females in the workforce, even if they wanted to work (L. George et al., 2011). Even women who held a Master's degree in business administration from Harvard were told by recruiters that their companies did not have any positions higher than a secretary for them. In the 21st century, for the first time in the United States, women are slowly surpassing men with regard to education and employment. Women are better educated than ever before and comprise the majority of undergraduate college enrollments in industrialized countries. In addition, women are steadily catching up to men in numbers in the workplace in developing countries (Cheung & Halpern, 2008).

A review of the literature found that high levels of specific personality traits in women correlated with participation in work, specifically with regard to the traits of extraversion, openness, and conscientiousness. On the Big Five dimensions, extraversion indicates an energetic approach and gravitation toward the social and material world. An individual who is thought to be an extravert would hold traits such as sociability, energy, assertiveness, and positive emotionality (Costa & McCrae, 1992). As society began to open its door to women, extraverted women began to develop a commitment to their work lives sooner than introverted women (L. George et al., 2011). In addition, extraverted women experienced more enjoyment and felt less inhibition in the social interactions required in many work environments, particularly in leadership positions. In addition, these women were more likely to seek out and enjoy interactions and activities that led to leadership and higher status in the workplace.

Pertaining to the nature of work, and consistent with literature review findings, extraversion is related to an interest in work that is entrepreneurial, is social, and involves interaction and influence exerted on others (Barrick et al., 2003; Costa et al., 1984; Watson & Clark, 1997). In sum, extraverted women prefer work that allows them to assert their will and interact with their environments. Women who score high in extraversion would select themselves into work environments and leadership positions that provide opportunities for initiative, as opposed to introverted women, who may prefer to remain within their gender-traditional boundaries (L. George et al., 2011).

Extraversion also affected aspects of retirement, producing conditions under which personality traits would influence how long and how much women worked, how important work was to their identity, and what activities they turned to as they made work less central (L. George et al., 2011). Due to their higher energy levels and their interest in leadership, status, and social interactions, L. George et al. (2011) expected extraverts to remain engaged in the workplace longer than introverted women. Many extraverted women eventually become involved in volunteer work upon retirement from their paid occupation.

Before women in the workforce became commonplace, doing well at work was not generally admired in women; therefore, a female would have had to be high in openness to embark upon a position in the labor force (L. George et al., 2011). Openness to new experiences describes a person's mental state and experiential life, such as his/her interest, imagination, and aesthetic reactions. Being high in openness indicates an individual's originality and complexity and the manifestation of these internal experiences in goals, attitudes, and behaviors as shown by traits such as curiosity, adventurousness, broad interests, and progressive, rather than conventional, values.

As the workplace became more accessible to women during the late 1960s and 1970s, women who were high in openness were more likely to embrace a lifestyle that society formerly discouraged them from pursuing (McCrae, 1996; McCrae & John, 1992). This personality trait would have enhanced a woman's ability to visualize herself in a man's world, seek congenial areas of work, and take herself seriously in her newfound endeavors. Women who are high in openness are generally interested in intellectual work that requires advanced education or allows self-expressiveness. They are thought to be uninterested in routine, detail-oriented, and highly structured work. These women also are resistant to gender-role expectations that would create boundaries for them (Barrick et al., 2003; Costa et al., 1984) and prefer the autonomy of working for themselves than for others (Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, & Knafo, 2002). In addition, they prefer a work environment in which they can demonstrate creativity in their product and perform well in creative aspects of their work, or in jobs that permit creative expression. Women who are high in openness are self-starters; therefore, embarking upon the labor force in a society that discourages women from working is not daunting for them. In contrast, women who are low in openness are more conventional and tend to be more resistant to entering the labor force (L. George et al., 2011).

The trait of conscientiousness involves socially prescribed impulse control that facilitates task and goal-directed behavior, requiring an individual to think before acting, delay gratification, follow norms and rules, and be mindful of planning, organizing, and prioritizing tasks (L. George et al., 2011). L. George et al. (2011) stated that, during a time when society was not open to women in the workforce, conscientious women showed a high level of adherence to societal norms and the traditional responsibilities of being a wife and mother. Further, highly conscientious women in modern times had a lower likelihood of divorce. Between 1966 and 1976, the divorce rate in the United States doubled (Cherlin, 1981), and divorced women were more likely to join the labor force than were married women. However, highly conscientious women tended to select their partners more prudently and were more practical about family matters; thus, the likelihood of divorce was lower for women who scored high in conscientiousness (L. George et al., 2011).

As society opened the workplace to women, highly conscientious women transferred their sense of duty from their homes to a place of employment. However, L. George et al. (2011) did not find conscientiousness to be correlated with seeking employment. Instead, they asserted that it was the change in times that caused women, both high and low in conscientiousness, to enter the labor force.

Although women today were obtaining higher education and more were entering the workforce, Field and Wolff (1995) demonstrated a pay gap that favored men. They stated, “Even after adjusting for productivity related characteristics of work, there still remains a substantial wage gap at the industry level between genders” (p. 10). The wage gap ranged from

54% to 96% throughout the last 20 years (Ostroff & Atwater, 2003). Researchers continue to demonstrate industry and occupational segregation effects whereby women tend to be disproportionately concentrated in lower-paying jobs (Fields & Wolff, 1995; Ostroff & Atwater, 2003). Some have speculated that, due to women's anticipated child bearing, companies are less willing to invest in female employees and even less willing to promote them to leadership positions, leading to women's acquiring less human capital (i.e., professional competencies, specialized knowledge, and social and personality attributes, including creativity and cognitive abilities) and fewer firm-specific skills to perform labor in order to produce economic value (Goldin & Polachek, 1987).

Another assumption made is that women have been hired not because of their qualifications or talent, but due to specific internal efforts to hire from a demographic group; hence, their qualifications are discounted, and they are viewed as incompetent at their jobs compared to their male counterparts. However, research has demonstrated that there are no commitment differences or productivity differences between men and women to explain the wage disparity (Ostroff & Atwater, 2003).

Statistics show a steady increase in the number of women who are seeking education and employment (Ostroff & Atwater, 2003). Despite women's success in education and employment, according to Cheung and Halpern (2008), very few make it to the officer's level. Coined by Cheung and Halpern, the term *O level* refers to the CEOs, CFOs, CIOs, and CTOs in the corporate world. For example, whereas women currently make up 46% of managers and administrators in the United States (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2008), only 5% are top corporate officers, and only 1% are CEOs or another comparable position. Based on literature, it can be speculated that the discrepancy between women and men in an O level position is the result of how differently they behave as leaders.

As women gain greater access to leadership and managerial roles in organizations, it is increasingly important to understand the nature and extent of the similarities and differences between male and female leaders. One can assume that, if men and women were equally effective in leading and managing, then discriminatory barriers would not exist; however, literature proves the contrary. Quantitative and qualitative research indicates conflicting views on the different ways in which men and women lead (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995).

Several social and organizational psychologists have discussed the effectiveness of male and female leaders. For example, Hollander (1992) stated, “Women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favor women and others favor men” (p. 125). Although several social and behavioral researchers have acknowledged that there is some evidence of differences in leadership styles, many others agreed that men and women who occupy leadership roles in organizations do not differ significantly in the way they lead their employees (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

There are several reasons to suspect that there are no gender differences in leadership styles. For instance, even though gender-stereotypical findings are generally produced in research of social behavior and psychology, similar results would not necessarily be obtained for leaders and managers. First, studies that pertain to gender differences in leadership styles were conducted in experimental laboratories, and, to a lesser extent, in field settings not embedded within organizations, for example, on street corners or other public settings not in a company (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Consequently, there is often considerable ambiguity about how one should behave, and people may react and behave globally.

Second, the majority of leadership research and studies have been conducted in large organizations or corporations. In such environments, subjects tend to perform and behave uniformly due to specific regulations and trainings enforced by their respective companies and employers. Feldman (1976), Graen (1976), Terborg (1977), and Wanous (1979) indicated that both male and female leaders have presumably been selected by the organization as well as selected the role themselves, according to the same set of organizationally relevant criteria. This factor will likely decrease the chances that men and women who occupy these roles will differ substantially in their styles of leadership.

However, despite the aforementioned researchers' indicating a lack of gender differences in leadership, Eagly and Johnson (1990) established the presence, rather than the absence, of overall differences between men and women leaders. First, women as leaders are treated differently than are their male counterparts. Although there is encouraging data that indicates that the number of females in management positions is on the rise (United Nations Development Program, 2008), women continue to face significant barriers when trying to climb the corporate ladder (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Second, even though women increasingly occupy roles in the lower echelons of management, they continue to be underrepresented at senior levels of the corporate management hierarchy (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011).

Schein (1973) developed a Descriptive Index that consisted of 92 adjectives and descriptive terms, such as creative, intelligent, and emotionally stable. The descriptions were presented to male middle manager participants who were asked to indicate how characteristic each term was of (a) women in general, (b) men in general, and (c) successful middle managers. Of the 92 descriptors used, 60 were seen as characteristics of both managers and men, including aggressive, objective, and forceful. Of the 92, only eight descriptors (e.g., understanding, helpful, aware of other's feelings, intuitive) were seen as being shared by managers and women. The results not only described managerial and gender stereotypes, but also revealed expectations of the way people should act, according to their gender. Conclusively, Eagly and Karau (2002) identified at least two forms of prejudice: (a) less-favorable evaluation of the potential for women to take on leadership roles in comparison to men, and (b) less-favorable evaluations of the actual behavior of female leaders as results of these stereotypes.

Any pressures that favor behavior congruent with one's gender role could be problematic for women who occupy leadership or managerial positions due the alignment of social roles with stereotypical male qualities and, therefore, with male gender roles (Eagly et al., 1995). For instance, women are viewed as the nicer, kinder sex: traits not valued in an effective leader (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). Further, gender stereotypes specify that women should behave communally, exhibiting nurturing and socially sensitive attributes that demonstrate care for others, such as being kind, empathetic, and understanding; characteristics that are not viewed as important in an assertive and effective leader. Stereotypes also specify that women should not engage in behaviors typically prescribed for men; behavior that demonstrates dominance, competitiveness, and achievement orientation is generally considered out of bounds for females (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007).

Although characteristics relating to effective leadership are valued within a male leader, it was frowned upon for women to behave with aggression in the workplace (Eagly et al., 1995). To the extent that women violate gender expectations, e.g., not being nice or kind, they may be subjected to prejudiced reactions, which may include biased performance evaluations and negative preconceptions about future performance (Eagly et al., 1995; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Other penalties include social rejection and personally directed negativity by their peers as well as detrimental consequences for career-relevant organizational rewards, such as being passed over for a promotion or a raise (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007).

Heilman and Okimoto (2007) reported that, when research participants were asked to describe successful female managers, participants characterized these managers as possessing masculine qualities and lacking feminine qualities. The participants described female managers as lacking interpersonal skills and social sensitivity and possessing traits such as selfishness, deceitfulness, deviousness, and coldness. Participants also predicted that these female managers would be less liked by their peers versus their male counterparts.

Heilman and Okimoto (2007) explored this view with a study of 75 male and female undergraduates recruited from an introductory psychology course. The experimenter notified the participants that the study involved reading and evaluating three managers, randomly selected from among a group of 10, by rating them on a likeability scale. The results further revealed gender stereotypes about female leaders. When reading anecdotes on successful female managers, participants reported a dislike for the managers and believed them to be disliked by their subordinates.

The same leadership behavior, when performed by a female leader, may be considered less favorably than when performed by a male. For example, while an assertive male manager is seen as displaying proper leadership qualities, a female leader who behaves in a similar fashion is considered unacceptably pushy. Consistent with the findings of several researchers, men are generally viewed more favorably in leadership roles (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). Given the traditional beliefs about leadership and gender roles, women face more formidable barriers to achieving positions of leadership than do their male counterparts. Eagly et al. (1995) found that men were favored for first-level or line leadership, whereas women were favored for second or middle-level leadership, further showing that men are preferred for top-tier leadership positions, or positions that are traditionally considered to be masculine. Interestingly, neither gender was favored for the levels of leadership that were ambiguous or of an unknown level.

As such attitudes and beliefs raise questions about women's competence, ability to lead, and potential for advancement and promotion, women managers often face a less-supportive environment than do their male counterparts. For example, the results of a survey of 705 women at the vice-president level and above in Fortune 1,000 corporations showed that 72% agreed or strongly agreed that stereotypes about women's roles and abilities are a barrier to women's advancement to the highest levels. Reflecting the more common subordinate status of women in society, several studies and works of literature have shown that people are often reluctant to have a female supervisor and believe that women are somehow less qualified to occupy such leadership roles. Moreover, men reported having more to lose by approving women in leadership roles, thus displaying a stronger tendency to devalue female leaders (Wellington, Kropf, & Gerkovich, 2003).

Male evaluators, more than female evaluators, may experience female leaders as more threatening intrusions into their professional environment because leadership is traditionally a male prerogative (Eagly et al., 1995). Further, it is commonly believed that a woman supervisor would have negative effects on morale and negative public views of the role (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

However, research reveals that the mere presence of women leaders can change the perception of leadership roles in organizations. In researching women's occupancy of the chief village councilor role in West Bengal, where the villages were mandated by the government to elect a woman for a leadership role, Beaman, Chattopadhyay, Duflo, Pande, and Topalova (2009) found that the public viewed that role as more androgynous than a traditional woman.

Further, Dasgupta and Asgari (2004) showed that female college students with more women professors as role models reduced their implicit association of leadership qualities with men and communal qualities with women, which demonstrated that an increase in the number of women leaders can produce a more androgynous concept of leadership that was traditionally viewed as masculine. For instance, the six occupations most commonly occupied by women in the United States are secretary and administrative assistant, registered nurse, elementary and middle school teacher, cashier, retail sales associate, and home health aide (U.S. Department of Labor, Women’s Bureau, 2011). Due to the number of women who occupy these positions, it is not surprising that those roles are seen as less masculine. As a result, women who enter male-dominated roles can encounter resistance and difficulty from men (Koenig et al., 2011).

The interview process is an important instrument for screening and hiring job candidates. Research has led to the conclusion that interviewers’ hiring decisions are affected by stereotypical beliefs about the job requirements and the attributes of the applicant. Researchers have concluded that typically masculine skills or genetic traits (i.e., dominance, competitiveness, and achievement) are essential for performing a typical masculine job, typically seen in the corporate arena; whereas typical feminine skills, such as interpersonal and social sensitivity, are more important for typical feminine jobs, typically within health care, education, and retail (Reinhard, Schindler, Stahlberg, Messner, & Mucha, 2011).

Reinhard et al. (2011) studied how participants evaluated a female candidate for an entry-level position in public relations versus IT/software engineering (i.e., feminine versus masculine job). Participants were asked to evaluate women on several dimensions, including their suitability for the job. The posting for the IT/software engineering job stated that the position required candidates to have an interest in and possess skills for technical work and to be analytical and decisive—in other words, typical masculine characteristics. In contrast, the public relations job posting described the position as requiring the candidate to have an interest in public affairs and be communicative and verbally skilled—typical feminine characteristics. Results indicated that women were favored for the position in public relations.

Role theory assumes that sex differences in social behavior are caused, in part, by people's tendency to behave according to their gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 1991). According to this theory, men should engage in proportionally more task activities. Further, because men are not so constrained or concerned by attitudinal bias by their colleagues and employees, they are freer to lead in an autocratic and non-participative manner, should they so desire. Transactional leaders aspire to achieve solid, consistent performance that meets established goals by handing down either rewards or punishments (Bryant, 2003). Blackwell (2004) further described transactional leadership as a relationship in which followers' needs can be met if their performance measures up to their contracts with their leader.

Transactional leaders influence others through instrumental compliance. This compliance is achieved by using two specific behaviors: contingent reward or contingent punishment. Encouraging performance by using rewards and punishments makes the leader-follower relationship essentially an economic transaction, possessing three basic characteristics. First, leaders must work with their team members to develop clear, specific goals and guarantee that meeting these goals ensures rewards for the team members. Second, leaders exchange rewards and promises of rewards for group member effort. Lastly, transactional leaders respond to the immediate interests of workers if their desires can be met while accomplishing the task

(Bryant, 2003). Rosner (1990) found that men were more likely than women to adopt the styles of a transactional leader, as men tend to use power that comes from their organizational position and formal authority. Moreover, men were found to operate from a power base, using position and coercion (Chow, 2005).

Behaviorists and social psychologists in the field of business stated that women were more likely than men to adopt a transformational style of leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, Alban-Metcalfe, & Bradley, 2003). Further, Alimo-Metcalfe et al. (2003) found that women related directly to this value-based concept of transformational leadership. This type of leadership has emerged as a more effective and advanced method of motivating followers. Whereas transactional leadership is based on a person's ability to initiate contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued items, transformational leadership is described as a leader-follower relationship that goes beyond such ephemeral transactions.

Burns (1978) stated that transformational leadership "occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p. 10). Transformational leadership also may be referred to as uplifting, preaching, exhorting, elevating, mobilizing, and inspiring; it "ultimately becomes moral in that it raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus has a transforming effect on both" (p. 10). Transformational leaders empower followers to achieve greater results and, in the process, transform the social values of the group, turning followers into leaders.

Fine, Johnson, and Ryan (1990) stated that a transformational leader possesses qualities of an interactive leader, which includes empathy, attention to non-verbal behavior, cooperation, collaboration, and listening. Fine et al. stressed the importance of this leadership style and deemed it necessary as organizations move toward continuous quality improvement and employee empowerment. According to their studies, women in the workforce utilize the style of an interactive leader by encouraging participation, sharing power and information, enhancing people's self-worth, and building mutual trust and respect.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) stated that, on average, female leaders, including managers in organizations, adopted a relatively democratic and participative style consistent with the female gender role. Eagly and Johnson further indicated that women leaders have a tendency to internalize society's reservations about their competence and capability for leadership. Several female leaders—in the arenas of education, business, government, and miscellaneous—asserted that they gained confidence as leaders by making collaborative decisions for the purpose of determining that they were in line with their fellow colleagues' and employees' expectations. Although competent female managers may eventually win over skeptics and overcome any lack of self-confidence, male leaders may still have an advantage over female leaders and may be viewed as more effective on average (Eagly et al., 1995). Eagly and Karau (1991) stated that women engage in proportionally more social activity, whereas men engage in proportionally more task activity.

Research has shown that men and women exhibit sex differences within their leadership roles (Eagly et al., 1995). Undoubtedly, the differences also extend to the styles with which they specifically seek compliance from their employees. Cialdini (2009) asserted that men and women differ greatly in their leadership styles and in their influence and persuasion tactics. The following section focuses on gender differences in influence and persuasion tactics, as well as on gender differences in leadership.

Gender differences in motivating employees. Leadership and power have been defined as a person's ability to influence another toward a goal, influence decision-making, and get tasks accomplished the way a person wants them done (Langford, Welch, & Welch, 1998). Men and women both manage their behavior and personal characteristics in the presence of others to create a specific impression on their audience. An individual will seek to create an impression based on his or her goals for the interaction. Such goals may include, but are not limited to, appearing competent or successful. Impression management is usually strategic (i.e., people typically present desirable aspects of themselves) and involves influencing and persuading the audience to perceive a situation positively. For example, an individual who wishes to appear likeable to his or her audience will utilize ingratiation tactics; however, an individual who wants to be seen as competent will be more likely to use self-promotion tactics (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007).

The focus on gender differences in influence styles is relevant, as women made up a substantial portion of the workforce (46%) by the early 2000 (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, 2005). Research noted several styles relevant to influencing employees. The literature revealed 10 acquisitive/direct impression management tactics: favor-doing, self-enhancement or promotion, entitlement or acclaiming, charm, modesty, opinion conformity, flattery and compliments, ingratiation, exemplification, and other enhancements, including praising others through a third party (Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007). According to Guadagno and Cialdini (2007), men engage in self-promotion or enhancement more than women do. However, women engage in more modesty, opinion conformity, and providing flattery and compliments than do men. Guadagno and Cialdini found no gender differences in exemplification, charm, and other enhancements. By examining the results, one can conclude that men tend to employ the influence and persuasion tactic of authority, whereas women tend to use social proof. Both genders appear to use liking equally.

People are both rational and emotional beings. According to Callahan, Hasler, and Tolson (2005), the evolution of the human brain has resulted in a complex and intricate system in which emotion influences cognition in areas such as learning, attention, and memory. However, cognition influences emotion in areas such as attributions and appraisals. Leaders are consistently required to balance their emotional needs and health with the needs of the organization. Using their Leadership Profile and presenting various demographic questions to 1,453 participants, Callahan et al. found significant differences in emotional expression between male and female leaders. The researchers asked participants to rate statements such as, “I show I care about others,” “I express appreciation when people perform well,” “I show concern for the feelings of others,” and “I communicate feelings as well as ideas.” It was found that not only do men and women differ in emotional expression, but also leaders in different tiers of hierarchy varied in their expression as well.

Based on several questions, including the samples listed previously, Callahan et al. (2006) revealed a significant difference in self-reported levels of expressiveness by male and female executives in four of the six positions studied. The researchers discovered that men reported higher levels of expressiveness in the CEO, COO, VP, and other executive positions, but no difference for the positions of CFO and EVP. Overall, the study found that male executives believe that they are more expressive than females. Specifically, male executives in other positions reported themselves to be significantly more expressive than female VPs.

Callahan et al. (2006) attributed their findings to the stereotypical view of management and leadership. The researchers asserted that leadership within organizations has typically been viewed as a masculine domain; thus, female executives may be responding based on their perceptions of what their role dictates. Additionally, the researchers stated that women who have been successful in a male-dominated environment, which historically does not value emotional expression, have learned to suppress their expressiveness. Because successful leadership has been equated with masculine characteristics, female leaders may be reacting to that belief and managing their expressiveness according to traditional norms. Even as women slowly become more visible in the workforce, laboratory experiments have found that many women have difficulty becoming leaders, even when their personalities are well-suited for the role (Carbonell, 1984). A Sex Role Inventory test has generally found a strong relationship between leadership status and a masculine identity (Powell & Butterfield, 1979).

Age and Leadership

Even though the aging of the workforce has led to increasing research among organizational scholars in the areas of age and employment (Zacher, Henning, Rosing, & Frese, 2011), little research exists in the developmental psychology literature investigating leadership. Zacher et al. (2011) posited that the combination of age and age-related developmental tasks may importantly influence leadership and create successful outcomes in the workplace. They hypothesized that leadership success declines with increasing age unless leaders accomplish these developmental tasks.

Researchers have assumed that older leaders, in comparison to their younger counterparts, show more generative behavior at work that contributes to the establishment and success of the organization. Erickson (1950) and McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) conducted generativity theory research and concluded that individuals strongly desire to be needed and to achieve symbolic immortality, which increases as individuals age. This concern may translate into a variety of behavioral expressions to accomplish such immortality, such as taking over leadership roles, improving surroundings, and creating a personal legacy. Moreover, socioemotional selectivity theory states that perceiving one's remaining life leads to a prioritization of emotionally meaningful and generative life goals (Grant & Wade-Benzoni, 2009).

In contrast, it can be assumed that older leaders invest less time and effort into building their own careers and striving for success than do their younger counterparts. The importance of goals related to personal autonomy and self-enhancement diminishes with increasing age, whereas younger leaders want to move up the career ladder and excel. Given the differences in motivation, older leaders are expected to be different than younger ones in the way they lead based on differences in goals and motivation (Zecher et al., 2011).

Education and Leadership

Recently, there has been an increasing interest for management educators to pay more attention to leadership development in their programs. The Council for Excellence in Management and Leadership (2002) questioned whether current MBA programs provide effective education for leadership and management and recommended that business schools increase and strengthen the application of knowledge and the development of practical leadership skills within the curriculum. Moreover, the Council stated that, despite the growing popularity of management and leadership education over the past decade, there are still shortages in the quality and quantity of people with leadership abilities.

Little research exists about how education affects leadership. While there is no simplified or concrete definition of organizational learning, the idea exists that leadership and innovation thinking foster change and a positive transformation within the organizations

(Atwood, Mora, & Kaplan, 2010). Leaders create change by taking part in reinforcing growth processes that promote change in the organization. Successful leaders are able to tap into the motivation and dedication of their employees to shape a common future (Senge et al., 1999).

Professional Experience Level and Leadership

Organizations consider capacity for leadership to be a source of necessary, competitive advantage and invest heavily in its development (R. McCall, 1986). Organizations spend approximately $56 billion on organizational learning and development; roughly half of the $56 billion is spent on leadership education (O'Leonard, 2007), including coursework, training, assessments, and mentor programs. Despite the resources and time spent on leadership development, there is a growing belief that field work experience is the most effective way to improve individual leadership skills. Further, organizational scholars have estimated that 70% of all leadership development manifests through informal field experiences, whereas training, coursework, and other formal programs contribute less than 10% to an individual's development in becoming a leader (Robinson & Wick, 1992).

Cognitive theories of learning posit that knowledge structures grow and develop when they are challenged by novel information obtained through experience. DeRue and Wellman (2009) stated that challenging situations facilitate skill development by motivating individuals to exert additional effort to acquire the needed skills. Further, M. McCall and Hollenbeck (2002) interviewed diverse samples of top-level executives and found that challenging work experiences that involve novel responsibilities are viewed as more developmental and memorable than training and leadership development programs.

Leadership scholars have considered challenging work experiences to be significant in improving one's propensity to lead and developing individuals' leadership skills (M. McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). Challenging professional situations place individuals in dynamic settings wherein they must solve complex issues and make appropriate recommendations under the conditions of risk and uncertainty. Such instances further highlight the gap between an individual's current leadership capacity and the requirements of the role, thus motivating the individual to learn through such experiences (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

There are several reasons to expect a relationship between experience and leadership skills. Developmentally challenging professional experiences should facilitate the development of an individual's cognitive and strategic reasoning, thus effectively enhancing his or her ability to think critically about situations, identify the underlying causes and consequences of the issues at hand, and successfully process new and ambiguous information. Moreover, developmentally challenging experiences should enhance an individual's interpersonal leadership skills by enabling experimentation with influence strategies according to different situations and populations from varying demographic backgrounds. Lastly, developmentally challenging experiences that require the facilitation of organizational change processes should enhance an individual's business and strategic leadership skills by forcing him or her to identify critical drivers of and barriers to change and to consider how organizational resources should be allocated (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

Activation theory posits that an individual's activation level increases when he or she is unfamiliar with a task or situation, or when the individual is under stress or exposed to intense stimuli. Activation theory states that the benefits of increased activation and arousal are most optimal at intermediate levels of activation. When arousal increases beyond the intermediate level, individual performance and learning are stunted by an over-arousal of cognitive processes that stems from anxiety and uncertainty in how to respond in such situations (Scott, 1966). Adult learning theories further maintain that the uncertainties regarding performance and success that come with overly challenging occupations can be overwhelming, resulting in hindering the learning processes and eventually decreasing the developmental value of experience (Boud, Keogh, & Walker, 1985).

Number of Employees and Leadership

Undoubtedly, high-quality relationships between leaders and subordinates have their advantages. Researchers assert that organizations benefit when their employees are willing to contribute above and beyond the formal definition of their job requirements. In particular, when they display organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), individuals, along with the organizations, improve. In the increasingly competitive workforce, OCBs are considered a highly valuable contribution to the organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006).

In addition, researchers have discovered that high-quality Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), which focuses on the quality of dyadic relationships between employer and employee, is directly related to OCBs (Graen, 2003). Graen (2003) noted that tangible benefits, such as decision-making latitudes and salary progress, and intangible benefits—including a trust-based relationship, greater growth opportunities, and higher levels of support—are found when leaders are able to establish and build high-quality relationships with employees. Employees who experience a high-quality relationship with their leader are more likely to reciprocate by going above and beyond in their work.

Over time, leaders develop distinct and unique relationships with their employees. Specifically, leaders typically have special relationships with an inner circle of professional individuals, including immediate subordinates, other employees, and, sometimes, advisors (Schnys, Maslyn, & van Veldhoven, 2012). Ilies, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007) have confirmed the importance of LMX in organizations, indicating a positive relationship between LMX and work outcomes.

Based on prior studies of employer-employee relationships, it is recommended that leaders aim for as many high-quality LMX relationships as possible with members of their team (Graen, 2003). However, the size of the team calls into question whether establishing such a relationship with everyone is possible. Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975) stated that leaders at all levels have resource constraints that do not necessarily permit them to become close to all of their employees. Particularly in large teams and groups, establishing high-quality and in-depth relationships with all employees is a difficult, perhaps impossible, task.

Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) added that leaders in large organizations may not be able to spend adequate time with all employees, and the time they do spend is not sufficient to establish a meaningful relationship. As cultivating and maintaining relationships in the workplace is resource intensive and time consuming, leaders often target key employees, usually depending on their professional proximity, with whom to have quality exchange relationships rather than trying to achieve this level with everyone (Schnys et al., 2012).

Based on social exchange theory, Dienesch and Liden (1986) distinguished three dimensions of LMX: affect, loyalty, and contribution. Affect describes the emotional connection between employer and employee, loyalty is the degree to which support is shown by both parties, and contribution is what each brings to the table. Liden and Maslyn (1998) later included an additional dimension, professional respect, which indicates how much each party is valued with regard to their professional knowledge and contribution. Schnys et al. (2012) posited that some of the dimensions require stronger or more intensive reinforcement and are less likely to be consistent in large organizations. They stated that there will be a negative relationship between span of control and average LMX quality regarding affect and contribution within groups (Schnys et al., 2012).

The relationship between personality and social ties in general has been shown in many studies. Using the Big Five Personality Traits, Wu, Foo, and Turban (2008) asserted that extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeableness are related to intimate relationships and necessary in building interpersonal comfort and emotional closeness. Other researchers also displayed consistent findings regarding the Big Five, in which extraversion was found to be specifically related to the propensity for creating connections with others (Totterdell, Holman, & Hukin, 2008).

Further, Schnys et al. (2012) explained that qualities likely to be related to the development of high-quality LMX relationships include behaviors associated with extraversion, such as being socially engaging, assertiveness, and possessing great number of friends; agreeableness, such as high motivation toward interpersonal relationships, caring, and interest in others; and conscientiousness, such as being dependable, trustworthy, and more inclined to ensure the success of the group. Based on prior studies, it can be expected that, in a larger span of control, leaders who possess behaviors associated with extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness will yield a greater number of attempts and successes in building high-quality relationships. Conclusively, it can be assumed that leaders with higher levels of extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness will be more likely to show greater effort in developing relationships and, thus, will be more successful in establishing positive LMX relationships.

Salary and Leadership

Salaries for senior executives increased rapidly during the 1980s. According to reports in America's Economic Policy Institute (EPI; Mishel, Bivens, Gould, & Shierholz, 2012), CEOs of the 350 largest U.S. public companies were paid an average of 24 times the wage of the typical U.S. worker. The ratio increased steadily, though not dramatically, over the next decade, to reach roughly 35 times the pay of the late 1970s. The ratio then doubled to 71 in 1989, and rose sharply to 298 in 2000. EPI reported that, in 2007, a CEO earned more in 1 work day than the typical worker earned all year. Using data from the International Labour Organization (ILO), Pryce, Kakabadse, and Lloyd (2011) examined executive pay in 2007 for the 15 largest companies in six countries. Although the ILO showed the discrepancy to be less extreme in other countries, Pryce et al. revealed that CEOs and other executives in the United States earned between 71 and 183 times the pay of the average employee.

The literature does not directly address the potential correlation between salary and leadership, and includes little about how individuals in different socioeconomic statuses lead. Newman and Bannister (1998) attempted to address whether factors such as performance and CEO power over boards or attributes such as firm size and industry-type have the same proportional effect on average non-CEO pay as they do on CEO compensation. It was eventually discovered that firm size and performance were significantly related to cross-sectional variation in the ratio of CEO to non-CEO pay.

The ILO (Rodgers, Lee, Swepston, & Van Daele, 2009) stated that rising executive income can be a method to reward enterprise, effort, and innovation: the key drivers of economic growth and wealth creation. However, in instances in which income differentials reach extremes, social stability can be threatened. It was found that the greater the income discrepancy between CEOs and non-CEOs, the greater the chances of organizational crime by non-CEOs (Fajnzyiber, Lederman, & Loayza, 2002), low life expectancy of non-CEOs (Wilkinson &

Pickett, 2009), and high mortality rates experienced by non-CEOs (Kaplan, Pamuk, Lynch, Cohen, & Balfour, 1996).

Summary

This chapter presented leadership theories and styles of leaders from different demographic backgrounds. It included a description of the Five Bases of Power and Big Five Personality Theory, which revealed how leaders are often driven by their traits and behavior.

Secondly, the chapter presented the relationship between EI and effective leadership. Although some studies showed mixed results, much of the literature tied EI to leadership effectiveness and leaders' ability to influence and motivate followers.

This chapter further presented the concept of *influence* by examining Cialdini's (2009) six fundamental influence strategies (reciprocation, consistency and commitment, social proof, liking, authority, and scarcity). Cialdini stated that the aforementioned influence strategies are extremely powerful in influencing results.

The literature on how leaders are affected by their demographic characteristics also was presented. Historically, women were expected to stay at home and bear and raise children. Their male counterparts were expected to be educated, enter into the workforce, and obtain leadership roles. However, by the 1930s, women were becoming more educated and prominent in the U.S. workplace.

Chapter 2 further presented the progression of women in the workforce through each decade. Even as a greater number of women were working over the changing times, they faced challenges and discrimination, and often fought stereotypes pertaining to women being the kinder sex. Given these obstacles, it is not surprising to find that women differ greatly as leaders in contrast to their male counterparts. The section also presented literature on leadership in terms of age; multiple studies show conflicting results pertaining to age and leadership. Several studies show that older leaders invest less time and effort into building their own careers and achieving success than do their younger counterparts, whereas other studies' results indicate that the desire to achieve immortality will motivate older leaders.

Education was another demographic characteristic covered. Although little is known about how education is connected to leadership, the literature presents a strong interest in strengthening the application of knowledge and development of leadership and management skills in MBA programs. This finding is the result of the idea that education will lead to innovative thinking, which will foster change and a positive transformation within organizations. Years of experience was also examined in relation to leadership. Countless resources are used on leadership training, and, despite the coursework, training, assessments, and mentor programs, it is sometimes believed that field work experience is the most effective way to develop leadership skills.

Literature on cognitive theories of learning found that work experience involving responsibilities is viewed as more developmental and memorable than are leadership curriculum and training programs. However, it was reported that overexposure or activation can stunt performance and learning. Adult learning theories support this finding by stating that professional uncertainties can be overwhelming.

The effects of workforce size were reviewed. This chapter presented literature on the advantages of high-quality relationships between leaders and employees. With time, leaders are able to develop relationships with their employees and form special bonds with their inner circle by covering the three dimensions of LMX: affect, loyalty, and contribution. The deeper a leader is able to achieve the three dimensions with more employees, the greater the benefit. Lastly, this chapter reviewed of the relationship between income and leadership. Since the 1980s, income for executives has increased disproportionately with that of the average worker. Literature findings indicate contradictory effects of such pay discrepancies; for example, income is the reward of enterprise, effort, and innovation, but discrepancies also promote higher crime, lower life expectancy, and higher mortality rates.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology used in the study, beginning with a restatement of the research questions, followed by a presentation of the nature of the study, population and sample, data collection, procedures, and data analysis plan. The chapter concludes with a summary.

Restatement of the Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study was designed to answer the following questions as they relate to EI and Cialdini's (2009) six fundamental influence strategies of reciprocation, consistency and commitment, liking, social proof, authority, and scarcity.

- RQ_1: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score?
- HO_1: There is no relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score.
- HA_1: There is relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score.
- RQ_2: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background?
- HO_2: There is no relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background.

- HA_2: There is relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background.

Nature of the Study

This descriptive quantitative study did not employ any manipulation of variables (Creswell, 2010) and used a sample of 85 participants. The research was intended to determine the relationship between EI and influence sophistication, based on Cialdini's (2009) influence strategies. To achieve this, the participants were asked to complete a demographic survey and two instruments: the MSCEIT and Cialdini's Influence Quiz.

Population and Sample

This population of this research was a convenience sample of full-time working professionals of least 21 years of age. Working professionals of any level in their organizations were eligible to participate in the proposed study. To determine the needed sample size for a multiple regression model, the G*Power 3.1 software program (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2009) was used. With four independent variables, based on a medium effect size (f2 = .15), an alpha level of $\alpha = .05$, the needed sample size to achieve sufficient power (.80) was 85 respondents.

Protection of Human Subjects

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) exists for the purpose of protecting human subjects while conducting research. It works to ensure that human subjects are protected and unharmed during the research process pursuant to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2009) regulation 45 CFR § 46.10, which states the probability and magnitude of harm or discomfort anticipated in the research should not be greater than any ordinarily encountered in daily life, or during the performance of routine physical or psychological examinations or tests. Participation in the surveys was optional and could be stopped at any time during the process. Each participant will be given an informed consent form approved by the Pepperdine University IRB committee (Appendix A). The informed consent form contained information on the participants' right to withdraw or discontinue their participation at any time, noted that their participation is strictly voluntary, and contained a list of measures to ensure confidentiality. Participants were also made aware of their rights and were provided with the researcher's contact information as well as that of Pepperdine's IRB.

Confidentiality and Security of the Data

All responses and the identity of the participants and their supervisors were kept confidential. The researcher took the following measures to ensure confidentiality and security of the data:

- The names of interviewees and all participants' information were stored separately, as the consent document was the only form that linked the subject to the research;
- Hard copies of the results of the survey questionnaire were locked in the researcher's residence;
- Electronic data were stored on the researcher's personal and backed up on her work laptop; both laptops were password protected and locked in her residence or in her office;
- Only the researcher and the statistician had access to the data; and
- Upon completion of the research, the researcher stored all materials in a secure location, and, after 3 years, the hard-copy documents will be destroyed. Electronic

data from both laptops were destroyed permanently immediately after completion of the study.

Completed survey questionnaires arrived as hard copies to Pepperdine University. Incoming materials consisted of hard copies of signed consent form and a completed demographic survey, MSCEIT, and Cialdini's Influence Quiz in sealed envelopes. Only the principal researcher and statistician of this dissertation reproduced the survey questionnaires, read the survey results, communicated with the participants, and managed the data. The researcher employed the assistance of one statistician to provide data analysis support. Additionally, the statistician provided appropriate recommendations pertaining to the narrative of data results and discussion. The principal researcher and the statistician had access to the quantitative data stored on and compiled through SPSS. Only the researcher and statistician had access to the quantitative data.

Data Collection

Participants were given a hard-copy packet containing four documents in a stamped envelope addressed to the researcher's place of employment. The documents included:

- IRB Informed Consent Form (Appendix A)
- Demographic survey: gender, age, and level in their organization (Appendix B)
- MSCEIT
- Cialdini's Influence Quiz (Appendix C)

IRB consent form. Participants were asked to read and sign two copies of the consent forms prior to starting the study. The first copy remained in the envelope and the second was for their records.

Demographic survey. The first part of the research study asked the participants to complete a self-report demographic survey. The survey asked for their gender (e.g., male or female), age (e.g., 21-27, 28-37, 38-47, 48-57, 58-67, 68-77, or 78 years of age or older), education (e.g., high school graduate, diploma or the equivalent, some college credit, no degree, trade/technical/vocational training, associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, professional degree, or doctorate degree), and current level in their workplace. Levels were categorized as entry level, intermediate, senior (lead level or middle management), or lead (upper middle management or top management).

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test. The third part of the packet was the MSCEIT. As described by Table 1, the MSCEIT measures individuals' overall level of EI as well as their ability levels with regard to the four branches of the model: (a) perceiving emotions; (b) using emotions; (c) understanding emotions; and (d) managing emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002).

Table 1

The Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

Branch 1: Perception of Emotion	Branch 2: Use of Emotion to Facilitate Thinking	Branch 3: Understanding of Emotion	Branch 4: Management of Emotion
Task 1: Faces Participants view photographs of faces and identify the emotions in them	*Task 3: Sensation* Which tactile, taste, and color sensations are reminiscence of a specific emotion?	*Task 5: Blends* Which emotions might blend together to a more complex feeling?	*Task 7: Emotion management* How effective alternative actions would be in achieving a certain outcome, in emotion-laden situations where individuals must regulate their feeling
Task 2: Pictures Participants view photographs of faces and artistic representation and identify the emotions in them	*Task 4: Facilitation* How moods enhance thinking, reasoning, and other cognitive processes	*Task 6: Changes* How emotions progress and change from one state to another	*Task 8: Relationship management* Test-taker evaluate how effective different actions would be in achieving an emotion-laden outcome involving other people

The *perceiving emotions* branch consists of two tasks concerned with the ability to perceive and identify the emotional content of four different faces and six images and photos. The *using emotions* branch measures how much of the respondent’s thoughts and other cognitive activities are informed by his or her experience of emotions. This branch consists of two tasks: the facilitation task, which involves identifying which emotion may be beneficial in performing five different activities, and the sensations task, which requires the participant to relate emotions to other mental sensations, such as taste and color.

The *understanding emotions* branch consists of two tasks: changes and blends. The changes task takes into account the progression of emotions and measures the ability to understand how emotions may change over time. The blends task measures a respondent’s ability to identify the individual emotional constituents of complex feelings.

The *managing emotions* branch consists of two tasks: emotional and social management. The emotional management task measures the respondent’s ability to incorporate his or her own emotions into decision making. The test taker is required to rate the effectiveness of alternative actions in achieving a certain result in five situations wherein a person must regulate his or her own emotions. The social management task measures the respondent’s ability to incorporate emotions into decision making.

The MSCEIT also generates two domain scores: experiential emotional intelligence (EEI) and reasoning emotional intelligence (REI). EEI assesses an individual’s ability to experience emotions, and REI assesses an individual’s ability to strategize about emotions (Mayer et al., 2002).

Cialdini's Influence Quiz. Finally, the research concluded with Cialdini's Influence Quiz. Cialdini's Influence Quiz is an application used within his organization, *Influence at Work*, to assess individuals' knowledge of his six fundamental influence strategies as described in Table 2.

Table 2

Cialdini's Six Fundamental Influence Strategies

Value	Definition
Reciprocation	Reciprocation is a principle stating that people will be more willing to comply with requests (for favors, services, information, concessions, etc.) from those who have provided for them first
Consistency and commitment	Principles stating that people will be more willing to comply if they see it as consistent with an existing or recent commitment
Social proof	People will be more willing to comply by following the directions or recommendations of the masses
Liking	Principle stating that people will be more willing to comply with those they know and like
Authority	Principle stating that people will be more willing to comply with individuals whom they attribute relevant authority or expertise
Scarcity	Principle stating that people will more be more willing to comply when the objects and opportunities are scarce, rare, or dwindling in availability

Individuals' influence savviness was determined by 10 questions, as presented in Appendix D. Participants were presented with a scenario and given four options, one of which best reflects Cialdini's influence strategies. For example, some of the questions asked included:

- Upon first entering the office of the purchasing manager of a company with whom you would like to do business, you notice a picture of the team mascot of your alma mater on the wall. You should:
- You are attempting to persuade the Board of Directors of your company that it is in your company's best interest to implement a costly revision to your back-office

functions. You know that the Board is very concerned about costs, so you have also formulated two alternate plans that are less costly and less comprehensive. When it comes time for your presentation, which of the following strategies should you use to obtain the optimal results (the greatest degree of change the Board will support)?

- Your company is launching a new product and your boss asks you to make a marketing decision. Your boss is considering two options to generate initial interest from the public: offering a price reduction on the product for a limited-time or offering a price reduction for a limited number of the product. Which approach should you recommend to get the greatest interest from the public?
- Your have an important meeting with a prospective client later today. You know from your previous discussions that the prospect is impressed with your proposal, but does not believe that implementing your ideas at this particular time is a top priority. Which of the following approaches to the meeting would provide you with the greatest chance of persuading the prospect to approve your proposal in the shortest period of time?
- Imagine you are the (unlucky) campaign manager of a political candidate who has recently lost the public’s trust. Now imagine that the candidate wants to rebuild his reputation through profiling himself as a tough crime fighter. Even though his opponent has a credible track record in this regard. Of the following choices, which represents the best way for your candidate to start his next ad?
- Imagine you are a financial advisor, and you believe that a young client of yours is investing too conservatively. In order to persuade her to invest in riskier, high-return investments, you should concentrate on describing:

Four options were provided for each question, one of which was the best answer according to Cialdini (2009). It should be noted that Cialdini's Influence Quiz has not been validated. However, this is a widely used quiz on his website www.influenceatwork.com.

Procedures

The following steps and procedures were incorporated in this study:

1. Researcher enlisted participants through her place of employment, school, family and friends, and secondary acquaintances, such as friends of family and friends.
2. Researcher provided a self-addressed and stamped envelope. The envelope contained:
    a. Informed consent forms
    b. Demographic survey
    c. MSCEIT
    d. Cialdini's Influence Quiz
3. Researcher instructed the participants to sign both copies of the consent form and maintain one copy for their records, complete the survey and the two instruments, and return the documents in the sealed envelope. Participants were given the option of hand delivering or mailing the packets to the researcher.
4. Participants signed both copies of the consent form, maintained one copy for their own records, and returned a copy in the envelope.
5. Participants completed the demographic survey, MSCEIT, and Cialdini's Influence Quiz.
6. Participants were given 7 days to complete and return the packet.
7. Research reconnected with remaining participants who had not completed their packet after 7 days.

8. Researcher gathered all packets and input scores into Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS).
9. With the guidance and assistance of the statistician, the researcher analyzed the data and generated scores through SPSS.

Data Analysis

The primary independent variable for this study was the respondents' level of EI. Cialdini's (2009) six fundamental influence strategies were the dependent variable. A series of demographic characteristics was gathered for each participant, including their gender, age, education, and level within their organization.

The relationship between the respondent's level of EI and his/her influence sophistication (Research Question 1) was determined by using Pearson's correlations to assess the relationship between scores on the MSCEIT and Cialdini's Influence Quiz. The relationship between the respondent's level of EI and his or her influence sophistication, after controlling for the respondent's demographics, was determined by using multiple regressions to assess the relationship between scores on the MSCEIT and Cialdini's Influence Quiz. The significance level was set at p =.05.

Table 3

Analytical Techniques Used to Answer Research Questions

Research Questions	Scales/Survey Items	Statistical Approach
What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score?	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)	Pearson's correlation
What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics?	Cialdini's Influence Quiz	Multiple regressions

Summary

This chapter described the research design, population sample and participants, characteristics studied, information regarding data collection procedures, instruments, and analytical techniques. This research design is consistent with the objectives as stated in Chapter 1, and strengthened by the literature review in Chapter 2. The data were collected through a survey and two instruments.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to gain a better understanding of the relationship between leaders' EI and leadership effectiveness and contribute to existing research. Data included surveys gathered from 72 respondents. Data sources included male and female participants of varying ages, educational backgrounds, and professional levels in their organizations. Moreover, the findings of this research are presented within the context and structure of this study's research questions:

- RQ_1: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score?
- RQ_2: What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background?

Data Collection

This study generated quantitative data by collecting surveys from 72 participants. The packets of surveys distributed consisted of the following items:

1. Informed consent forms
2. Demographic survey
3. MSCEIT
4. Cialdini's Influence Quiz

The process of recruiting participants and distributing the packets of surveys was simple. Participants were recruited by text messages, phone calls, and e-mails, as well as in-person solicitations by the researcher. Once individuals agreed to participate, the researcher distributed a recruitment letter via e-mail. Participants consisted of a convenient sample population as outlined in Chapter 3. The letter was created by the researcher.

Throughout the process, the researcher gathered relevant consent forms, in addition to sending out and collecting surveys from all study participants. The location in which the surveys were completed varied, but primarily took place at participants' homes or offices. Upon completing of the surveys, participants would submit them to the researcher in hardcopy packets. Table 4 displays the frequency counts for selected variables. The demographics survey asked the participants to identify their gender, age range, education, and organizational level. The length of time it took to complete this portion of the study ranged between 30 seconds and than 2 minutes.

Table 4

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables

Variable	Category	*n*	%
Gender	Male	34	47.2
	Female	38	52.8
Age [a]	21-27 years	9	12.5
	28-37 years	40	55.6
	38-47 years	16	22.2
	48-57 years	2	2.8
	58-67 years	5	6.9
Education	High school	1	1.4
	Some college	3	4.2
	Associate's degree	2	2.8
	Bachelor's degree	23	31.9
	Master's degree	37	51.4
	Doctorate degree	6	8.3
Organizational Level	Entry	10	13.9
	Intermediate	22	30.6
	Senior (lead level or middle management)	27	37.5
	Lead (Upper middle management or top management)	13	18.1

Note. $N = 72$.
[a] Age: $Mdn = 32.50$ years.

As displayed in Table 4, there were slightly more females (52.8%) than males (47.2%) in the sample. Ages ranged from 21-27 years (12.5%) to 58-67 years (6.9%), with the median age being 32.50 years old. Most of the participants are in the 28-37 years of age range. Ninety-two percent of the sample had at least a bachelor's degree, with 59.7% having also earned at least one advanced degree. Only four people had not earned a degree. Level of responsibility in the organization ranged from entry (13.9%) to lead (18.1%). The majority of the participants were at the senior level in their organization.

According to Cialdini (2009), there are six fundamental influence strategies:

- Reciprocation: People will be more willing to comply with requests (for favors, services, information, concessions, etc.) made by those who have provided for them first.
- Consistency and commitment: People will be more willing to comply if they see it as consistent with an existing or recent commitment.
- Social proof: People will be more willing to comply by following the directions or recommendations of the masses.
- Liking: People will be more willing to comply with those they know and like.
- Authority: People will be more willing to comply with individuals to whom they attribute relevant authority or expertise
- Scarcity: People will more be more willing to comply when the objects and opportunities are scarce, rare, or dwindling in availability.

In Cialdini's Influence Quiz, presented in Appendix C, each question corresponded with one of the influence strategies. The questions included:

1. Upon first entering the office of the purchasing manager of a company with whom you would like to do business, you notice a picture of the team mascot of your alma mater on the wall. You should…
2. You are attempting to persuade the Board of Directors of your company that it is in your company's best interest to implement a costly revision to your back-office functions. You know that the Board is very concerned about costs, so you have also formulated two alternate plans that are less costly and less comprehensive. When it comes time for your presentation, which of the following strategies should you use to obtain the optimal results (the greatest degree of change the Board will support)?
3. Your company is launching a new product, and your boss asks you to make a marketing decision. Your boss is considering two options to generate initial interest from the public: offering a price reduction on the product for a "limited time" or offering a price reduction for a "limited number" of the product. Which approach should you recommend to get the greatest interest from the public?
4. You have an important meeting with a prospective client later today. You know from your previous discussions that the prospect is impressed with your proposal but does not believe that implementing your ideas at this particular time is a top priority. Which of the following approaches to the meeting would provide you with the greatest chance of persuading the prospect to approve your proposal in the shortest period of time?
5. Imagine you are the (unlucky) campaign manager of a political candidate who has recently lost the public's trust. Now imagine that the candidate wants to rebuild his reputation through profiling himself as a tough crime fighter, even though his

opponent has a credible track record in this regard. Of the following choices, which represents the best way for your candidate to start his next ad?

6. Imagine you are a financial advisor, and you believe that a young client of yours is investing too conservatively. To persuade her to invest in riskier, high-return investments, you should concentrate on describing:
7. You are attempting to sell your professional services to a medium-sized software company. They have never done business with you before and are uncertain as to whether they should select your company as a service provider. You will increase your persuasiveness the most by:
8. If you have a new piece of information, when should you mention that it is new?
9. You have the responsibility for motivating your company's sales force to increase its annual performance. You were told by your supervisor to set goals for the sales people and hold them accountable. Which of the following strategies would be the most effective?
10. You are having difficulty with employee attrition, so you organized a retreat for your office to energize your employees. You want to give each a gift for attending that will enhance the employee's commitment to give back to the organization. Which of the following strategies is likely to produce the best results?

The questions followed with multiple choice answers, one of which is the correct influence strategy that would go best with those specific scenarios. For example, providing a gift to employees to enhance commitment corresponded with the strategy of reciprocity, Winning new business with alumni from your university corresponded with liking, and so forth. Table 5 represents participants' responses to each question.

Table 5

Individual Responses to the Influence Sophistication Items Sorted by the Percentage Correct

Sophistication Item	Principle	*n*	%
10. Providing a gift to employees to enhance commitment.	Reciprocity	55	76.4
1. Winning new business with alumni from your university	Liking	49	68.1
8. Sharing a new piece of information	Scarcity	48	66.7
7. Selling your services to a new company	Consensus	43	59.7
2. Persuading the Board to implement a costly revision.	Reciprocity	34	47.2
4. Persuading a client to implement your idea	Scarcity	26	36.1
6. Persuading your client to invest riskier.	Scarcity	26	36.1
3. Offering limited time or limited number on a new product.	Scarcity	14	19.4
9. Motivating your sales force to increase its performance.	Consistency	13	18.1
5. Rebuilding the public's trust of a political candidate	Authority	12	16.7

Note. $N = 72$.

Table 5 displays the individual responses to the influence sophistication items sorted by the highest percentage correct. The item that was most frequently answered correctly was item 10, Providing a gift to employees to enhance commitment (76.4%). The item that was least frequently answered correctly was item 5, Rebuilding the public's trust of a political candidate (16.7%).

To assess participants' EI, a hard copy of the MSCEIT was included in the survey packets. Participants had the option of circling their answers directly in the booklet or using the scoring sheet. Regardless of the method, their answers were entered manually into the online form provided by the Multi-Health Systems, Inc. The EI percentile was used to determine the EI of the participants.

Table 6 displays the frequency distributions for the EI and influence sophistication scores. For EI, the scores ranged from 0 to the 97th percentile ($M = 45.57$, $SD = 26.85$). For influence sophistication knowledge questions, out of a possible 10 correct answers, the scores ranged from 1 to 8 correct ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.59$).

Table 6

Frequency Distributions for the Emotional Intelligence and Influence Sophistication Scores

Score	Category	*n*	%	*M*	*SD*
Emotional Intelligence				45.57	26.85
	0 to 24th percentile	20	27.8		
	25th to 49th percentile	21	29.2		
	50th to 74th percentile	19	26.4		
	75th to 97th percentile	12	16.7		
Influence Sophistication				4.44	1.59
	1 or 2 correct	10	13.9		
	3 or 4 correct	25	34.7		
	5 or 6 correct	31	43.1		
	7 or 8 correct	6	8.3		

Note. $N = 72$. The influence sophistication score had a possible of 10 correct points.

Answering the Research Questions

Research Question 1 asked, What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score? The related null hypothesis predicted that, $H_0 1$: There is no relationship between the respondent's level of EI and their influence sophistication score. To answer this question, Table 7 displays the results of the Pearson product-moment correlation between the respondent's EI score and their influence sophistication score.

Table 7

Correlations for Emotional Intelligence and Influence Sophistication with Selected Variables

Variable	1	2
1. Emotional Intelligence	1.00	
2. Influence Sophistication	.30***	1.00
Gender [a]	.03	-.19
Age	-.27**	.21
Education	-.06	.09
Organizational Level	-.25**	.24**

Note. $N = 72$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.
[a] Gender: 1 = *Male* 2 = *Female*.

The correlation was positive and significant ($r = .30$, $p = .01$). This finding provided support to reject the null hypothesis. Additional correlations displayed in Table 7 compared the EI and influence sophistication scores with the respondents' demographic variables. EI was negatively related to both age ($r = -.27$, $p = .02$) and organizational level ($r = -.25$, $p = .04$), whereas the influence sophistication score was positively related to organizational level ($r = .24$, $p = .04$).

Research Question 2 asked, What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background? The related null hypothesis predicted that, $H_0 2$: There is no relationship between the respondent's level of EI and their influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background. To answer this question, Table 8 displays the relationship between EI and influence sophistication after controlling for selected variables. The overall model was significant ($p = .003$) and accounted for 23.7% of the variance in the dependent variable.

Table 8

Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Influence Sophistication after Controlling for Selected Variables

Variable	*B*	*SE*	β	*p*
Intercept	1.60	1.24		.20
Gender [a]	-0.13	0.39	-.04	.75
Age	0.35	0.21	.22	.09
Education	0.00	0.15	.00	.99
Organizational Level	0.41	0.21	.24	.06
Emotional Intelligence	0.02	0.01	.42	.001

Note. $N = 72$. Full Model: F (5, 66) = 4.09, $p = .003$. $R^2 = .237$.
[a] Gender: 1 = *Male* 2 = *Female*.

The second research question investigated the relationship between EI and the ability to influence, but also examined factors of gender, age, education, organizational level, and EI. Results showed no significance between individuals' EI and influence sophistication when accounting for their gender. Results showed a weak correlation between EI and age. Even though the correlation was weak, results indicated that the older an individual, the higher the influence sophistication. Results indicated no significant correlation between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for education. Results showed a weak correlation between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for level in organization. This finding shows that the level in the organization is related to an individual's EI and influence sophistication.

Influence sophistication was significantly and positively related to EI ($\beta = .42$, $p = .001$) and tended to be higher for older respondents ($\beta = .22$, $p = .09$) and for those who worked at higher levels in their organization ($\beta = .24$, $p = .06$). This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Summary

This study used survey data from 72 respondents to gain a better understanding of the relationship between leaders' EI and leadership effectiveness, contributing to existing research. Hypothesis 1 (relationship between EI and influence sophistication) was supported (Table 7). Hypothesis 2 (relationship between EI and influence sophistication with control variables) was also supported (Table 8). In the final chapter, these findings will be compared to the literature, conclusions and implications will be drawn, and a series of recommendations will be suggested.

Chapter 5: Discussion

The purpose of this study was to gain understanding of the relationship between EI and the ability to influence others. Furthermore, this study focused on the personal and professional characteristics affecting an individual's EI and his/her ability to influence others.

EI of full-time, working professionals was studied. Factors included the ability to: (a) perceive emotions, (b) use emotions, (c) understand emotions, and (d) manage emotions. Other characteristics examined were an individual's aptitude in influencing followers, as demonstrated in Cialdini's Influence Quiz.

This chapter presents an overview of the study, conclusions drawn relative to each research questions as cited in Chapter 1, and implications of this study. Recommendations for future research are also highlighted and discussed.

Overview of the Study

Leadership is a process of social interaction by which the leader's ability to influence the behavior of his or her employees can strongly influence the employees' performance outcome (Humphrey, 2002). Kerr et al. (2005) stated that leadership is intrinsically an emotional process, whereby leaders recognize followers' emotional states, attempt to evoke emotions in followers, and then seek to influence followers. Leaders' ability to influence the emotional climate in the workplace can strongly influence employees' performance (Humphrey, 2002).

EI is a key factor in an individual's ability to be socially effective (J. George, 2000). It is viewed in leadership research as a primary determinant of effective leadership (Ashkanasey & Tse, 2000; J. George, 2000). The EI of a leader plays an important part in the quality and effectiveness of social interactions with his or her employees. Mayer et al. (2000) hypothesized that leaders who rate high in the ability to accurately perceive, understand, and appraise others' emotions were better able to influence and motivate their employees.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher examined the relationship between EI and influence sophistication. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) initially described the four branches of EI, discussed subsequently.

Emotional Intelligence

Perceiving emotions. Perceiving emotions refers to the ability to detect and decipher emotions in faces, pictures, voices, and cultural artifacts, including the ability to identify one's own emotions. Perceiving emotions represents a basic aspect of EI, as it makes all other processing of emotional information possible.

Using emotions. Using emotions refers to the ability to harness emotions to facilitate various cognitive activities, such as thinking and problem solving. The emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully upon his or her changing moods in order to best fit the task at hand.

Understanding emotions. Understanding emotions refers to the ability to comprehend emotion language and to appreciate complicated relationships among emotions. For example, understanding emotions encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, as well as to recognize and describe how emotions evolve over time.

Managing emotions. Managing emotions refers to the ability to regulate emotions in both oneself and in others. Therefore, the emotionally intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve intended goals.

Influence

Cialdini (2009) identified and described Six Principles of Influence through experimental studies and by immersing himself in the world of what he called *compliance professionals,* which included salespeople, fund raisers, recruiters, advertisers, marketers, etc. He believed these people are skilled in the art of convincing and influencing followers. His six principles of influence strategies are:

- Authority: People will be more willing to comply with individuals to whom they attribute relevant authority or expertise.
- Consistency and commitment: People will be more willing to comply if they see it as consistent with an existing or recent commitment.
- Liking: People will be more willing to comply with those they know and like.
- Reciprocation: People will be more willing to comply with requests (e.g., for favors, services, information, concessions) from those who have provided for them first.
- Scarcity: People will be more willing to comply when the objects and opportunities are scarce, rare, or dwindling in availability.
- Social proof: People will be more willing to comply by following the directions or recommendations of the masses.

This chapter culminates the study by summarizing the research findings, comparing those findings with relevant aspects of the literature review, and offering recommendations, should this study be replicated. The next section addresses each research question, conclusions drawn from the study, and implications for future research.

Summary of Findings

Surveys for this dissertation were completed by 72 participants. Out of the 72 individuals, 34 were males and 38 were females. Ages ranged from 21-27 years (9 participants) to 58-67 years (5 participants), with the median age being 32.50 years old. The majority of participants fell within the 28-37 range: a total of 40 participants. An overwhelming majority (92%) of the sample had at least a bachelor’s degree. Level of responsibility in the organization ranged from entry level (13.9%) to lead (18.1%).

Research Question 1. What is the relationship between the respondent’s level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score? A positive correlation was found between EI and influence sophistication ($r = .30$, $p = .01$). In the sample population, individuals with a higher EI score showed higher influence sophistication.

Furthermore, study results showed that the sample population had a better understanding of and widely used certain influence strategies more than others. Based on the results shown in Chapter 4, the strategies can be ranked in descending order of use and familiarity: reciprocity, liking, social proof, commitment and consistency, and authority. Scarcity, as an influence strategy, showed mixed results. Participants answered some questions on scarcity correctly but also incorrectly on other questions pertaining to the same topic.

Although not a major focus of this study, it was interesting to note that certain influence strategies were more widely used and accepted than others. For instance, the influence strategies of reciprocity and liking were widely understood and used more frequently than the influence strategies of scarcity and social proof. In the 10 questions used to study influence, four were associated with scarcity, two with reciprocity, one with liking, one with social proof, one with authority, and one with commitment and consistency. When examining the different influence strategies, the sample population showed the highest understanding related to reciprocity. More than half of the sample population, around 76%, answered the question on reciprocity correctly. This high number indicates that the majority of participants understood that the strategy of reciprocity was at play when an employer provides gifts to employees. The high understanding of the reciprocity strategy indicates that people are more likely to employ the reciprocity strategy when attempting to be influential. This is no surprise as people are well versed in the concepts of quid pro quo and give and take in any given setting, whether it is personal or professional.

The liking strategy had the second highest ranking, about 68% of the population; this was also not a surprise as this strategy is widely used in all settings. People tend to gravitate towards commonality in people and are attracted to people who are perceived as similar. Our friends and the individuals we tend to enjoy working with are like us. In the influence question associated with liking, most of the participants recognized the importance of finding and pointing out commonality when attempting to win someone over.

The strategy of social proof had the third highest ranking. Once again, this finding was not surprising, as many of us highly value others' opinion and have a strong desire to fit in with the crowd. Almost 60% of the participants understood social proof to be a powerful and influential tool when attempting to convince a new organization to engage in business.

It is interesting to note that the strategies of commitment and consistency and authority are not widely understood and used within the sample population of the study. This would indicate that the two strategies are much more subtle and require more sophistication to understand the methods and employ them correctly. Around 18% of the sample population scored correctly on the question regarding commitment and consistency. Lastly, only about 16% of the sample population scored correctly on the question associated with authority.

The influence strategy of scarcity showed mixed results. Two factors may have contributed to this finding. First and foremost, a total of four questions were associated with the scarcity strategy. With four times the questions as the other influence strategies, participants' scores showed mixed results rather than simply correct or incorrect. In one question associated with scarcity, participants were asked how they would share a new piece of information. More than 66% of the sample population understood that sharing a new piece of information first is more influential than sharing the information at another time. However, in another question on scarcity, more than 80% of the sample population did not understand the concept of using limited time and limited number to generate interest and motivate action.

Research Question 2. What is the relationship between the respondent's level of emotional intelligence and his or her influence sophistication score after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background? A significant positive correlation was found between EI and influence sophistication after controlling for demographics and background. Demographics and background are organized into four characteristics.

Gender. Results showed no significant relationship between individuals' EI and influence sophistication when accounting for their gender. One explanation for this lack of significance is the sampling. The convenience sample of 47.2% males and 52.8% females was gathered from similar environments, either from a professional setting or from an educational institution, which may result in the sample population having similar perspectives.

This result is consistent with literature findings. Hollander (1992) stated, "Women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favor women and others favor men" (p. 125). Many also agreed that men and women who occupy leadership roles in organizations do not differ significantly in the way they lead their employees (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Age. The characteristic of age was divided into five categories: 21-27 years, 28-37 years, 38-47 years, 48-57 years, and 58-67 years. Results showed a weak correlation between EI and age. Although weak, results also indicated that the older an individual, the higher the influence sophistication. This result indicates that as an individual ages, the levels of EI and influence sophistication increase. This finding was not surprising as it was expected that EI and influence sophistication require maturity and time to develop. The weak correlation may be attributed to the convenience sampling. Since most of the participants were recruited from an educational setting, they are like minded, which may result in similar outcomes in terms of EI and influence sophistication scores. The weak correlation can once again be attributed to the convenience sampling. Around 55% of the participants fall under the 28-37 years and less than 10% of the participants were between the ages of 48-67 (under 3% between 48-57 years and under 7% between 58-67 years). With the majority of the participants in their late 20s to late 30s, it is to be expected that age would have a weak relationship with EI.

Although survey results showed a correlation between EI and age, literature findings on age show mixed results. On the one hand, older literature indicates that older leaders, in comparison to their younger counterparts, show more generative behavior at work that contributes to the establishment and success of the organization (Erickson, 1950; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). On the other hand, other researchers state that older leaders invest less time and effort into building their own careers and striving for success than do their younger counterparts. The importance of establishing goals related to personal autonomy and self-enhancement diminishes with increasing age (Zecher et al. 2011), whereas younger leaders want to continue working and also move up the career ladder.

Education. The characteristic of education was divided into eight categories: high school, some college, trade/technical/vocational training, associate’s degree, bachelor’s degree, master’s degree, and doctorate degree. Results showed no significant relationship between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for education. One may attribute this result to the convenience sampling. More than half of the sample holds a bachelor's and/or master's degree, which may have skewed the results of this study.

One would expect education level to be related to EI and influence sophistication, whereby people who are highly educated are more emotionally intelligent and will score higher in influence sophistication. However, this was not the case in this study. When looking at all 72 participants, over 80% held a bachelor's degree and/or a master's degree. Since the researcher recruited most of the sample population from an educational institution, the participants were mostly moderately to highly educated individuals. Only around 5% of the sample population did not attend a college or university, which does not produce nearly enough responses to show whether education is a factor of level of EI and influence sophistication. Since the participants were extremely biased in favor of educated individuals, this likely impacted the results of this study.

Very little attention has been paid to the topics of education and leadership. Although there is no concrete stance, there is an idea that leadership and innovation thinking foster change and a positive transformation within the organizations (Atwood et al., 2010).

Level in organization. The characteristic of an individual's level in his/her organization was divided into four categories: entry, intermediate, senior, and lead. Results showed a weak correlation between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for level in organization. This finding shows that the level in organization is related to an individual's EI and influence sophistication. The weak correlation was not unexpected due to the convenience sampling. Slightly more than 20% of the sample population held entry level or lead level (i.e., upper middle management or top management) positions, whereas around 31% held intermediate level positions and around 38% held senior level (i.e., lead level or middle management) positions.

Since the participants were moderately stacked with participants in the middle levels of their organization, it is expected that the result would only show a moderate relationship. However, this study supports the notion that the higher the EI, the higher the influence.

This result is consistent with literature findings. DeRue and Wellman (2009) stated that developmentally challenging professional experiences should facilitate the development of an individual's cognitive and strategic reasoning, thus effectively enhancing his or her ability to think critically about situations, identify the underlying causes and consequences of the issues at hand, and successfully process new and ambiguous information. Thinking critically and processing ambiguous information are two of the key factors in possessing EI (Mayer et al., 2000). Moreover, developmentally challenging experiences should enhance an individual's interpersonal leadership skills by enabling the experimentation of influence strategies according to different situations and populations from varying demographic backgrounds (DeRue & Wellman, 2009).

Future Implications

There are numerous implications for leaders and organizations based on this study. First, in assessing the literature from Chapter 2, leadership is a process of social interaction in which the leader's ability to influence the behavior of his/her employees can strongly influence results in the workplace (Humphrey, 2002). Mayer et al. (2000) hypothesized that employees who have high levels of EI may have smoother interactions with members of their work teams. The current study's findings reinforced the literature; those who ranked higher in EI also scored higher on the influence quiz.

It can be concluded that individuals who are more emotionally intelligent are more influential. This concept can lead to appropriate strategies for future training of employers and leaders. Additionally, the need exists to teach interpersonal communication that incorporates awareness of differences in non-verbal cues and environments. For those who take leadership classes, there is currently an emphasis on cultural sensitivity and understanding. To evaluate a curriculum, questions should be raised as to whether the curriculum is designed to further deepen students' understanding of emotions.

Recommendations for Future Research

Given the findings of this study and the literature review, the researcher found that EI and influence sophistication are related. Furthermore, the two are related even after accounting for an individual's gender, age, education, and level in his/her organization. However, the topics of EI and influence can be explored further; therefore, future research should address additional factors. Recommendations for future research include the following:

- The results of this study were limited to the population sample. The small sample size is not statistically representative of the general population. In order to expand this research to the entire U.S., a minimum of 1,000 participants would be required.
- The results of this study were also limited to the convenience sampling. Most of the participants were gathered from an educational institution. As a result, the sample population was mostly young, educated professionals, which may have caused the insignificant findings when accounting for education level. Future study should include a wide range of demographics, most notably age and education.
- Dividing the sample population into different categories according to their professional arena (e.g., education, corporate, military, etc.) would allow the research to go deeper into the relationship between individuals' EI and the ability to influence pertaining to their profession.

- Further, in addition to recruiting from different professional arenas, a future study should also recruit from different levels within those organizations. The majority of the participants recruited for this study fall under the intermediate level within their organization, which may have contributed to the weak correlation. Including a wider range of levels would provide a better picture of this relationship.
- Along the lines of recruiting a wider range of participants, a future study should recruit a more diverse group in terms of age. More than 55% of the participants fell under the 28-37 age range, which may have contributed to the weak relationship between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for age.
- It would be worthwhile to explore other characteristics beyond gender, age, education, and level in an organization. One characteristic in particular is the relationship between EI and the ability to influence between up and coming professionals versus professionals who are concluding their careers. How are they different from each other? What can be learned from individuals who are near the end of their employment?
- A selection of a more diverse ethnic group could yield more specific findings about the implications of minorities in supervising positions.
- Further research could specifically compare male versus female supervisors, exploring the differences in their EI and their ability to influence.
- Cialdini’s Influence Quiz was heavily focused on the influence strategy of scarcity. Future study should attempt to touch upon all six strategies evenly to achieve a better assessment.

Summary

This chapter provided a summary of findings regarding the relationship between EI and influence sophistication. Findings were discussed in relation to previous research of literature and implications for future employers, as well as recommendations for future research.

This study provided valuable insight into EI and how an individual's level of EI is directly related to his/her ability to influence followers. The second major part of this study examined the relationship between EI and influence sophistication when accounting for an individual's demographic characteristics and background. Characteristics explored included gender, age, education, and level in their respective organizations. The overall relationship between EI and influence sophistication after controlling for the respondent's demographics and professional background was found to be significant.

Concluding Thoughts

This study focused on EI and the ability to influence followers. The central premise was that effective leadership is a result of the leader's ability to recognize followers' emotional states, evocation of emotions in followers, and then seeking to influence followers (Kerr et al., 2005). The EI model proposed by Mayer et al. (2004) served as the theoretical foundation of the analysis, which employed the MSCEIT, an ability-based test designed to measure the four branches of the EI model.

Research question 1 asked if a relationship exists between an individual's level of EI and his or her influence sophistication. Research question 2 asked the same question but controlled for the respondent's demographics and professional background. As explained in Chapter 3, the sample that was investigated completed a set of hardcopy surveys containing a survey on their demographics and professional background, the MSCEIT, and Cialdini's Influence Quiz. Using the MSCEIT and Cialdini's Influence Quiz, the researcher discovered a significant positive correlation between EI and influence sophistication. After controlling for respondents' demographics and professional background, the researcher also found a significant positive correlation.

This chapter concluded with possible explanations for the research findings. Recommendations for future research included increasing the sample to comprise a wider range of demographics and professional backgrounds. Recommendations also included suggestions on enhancing the study by using professionals from diverse professional arenas.

It is hoped that this research will expand the current understanding of leadership. More specifically, the researcher hopes that this study will inspire leaders to understand their EI and the methods by which they influence their followers. It was surprising to learn that so few people understood and recognized the influence of authority. It was especially apparent, through literature findings and the study's results, that there is a great need for additional leadership training in the workplace. Hopefully, future leaders will focus on creating a positive environment for their employees.

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APPENDIX A

Consent Form

You are being asked to take part in a study of the different leadership styles, for which we are asking you to complete a survey questionnaire. Please read this form carefully and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to take part in the study.

What the study is about: The purpose of this study is to examine whether a relationship exists between emotional intelligence (EI) and the ability to influence. You must be working at least 40 hours a week for pay to take part in this study.

What we will ask you to do: If you agree to be in this study, you will be requested to complete a survey. The survey will include questions about your demographic characteristics and background, your EI, and level of influence sophistication. The survey will take approximately 45 minutes to complete.

Risks: There is the risk that you may find some of the questions about your superior to be sensitive. However, I do not anticipate any risks to your participating in this study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

Confidentiality: Your answers to the survey will be confidential. The record of this study will be kept private on the investigator's personal and work laptops. Hard-copy survey questionnaires will be kept in a locked file; only the researcher will have access to the records.

Participant's Rights: Taking part in this study is completely voluntary. You may skip any questions that you do not want to answer. If you decide not to take part or to skip some of the questions, it will not affect your current or future relationship with Pepperdine University. If you decide to take part, you are free to withdraw at any time without penalty.

If you have any questions regarding the information that I have provided above, please do not hesitate to contact me at the address and phone number provided below. If you have further questions or do not feel I have adequately addressed your concerns, please contact my faculty advisor, Dr. June Schmieder-Ramirez via email: June.Schmieder@pepperdine.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact: Dr. Thema Bryant-Davis, Chairperson of the Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPSIRB) at Pepperdine University via email at: gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

The researcher conducting this study is Tammy Hong. Please ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you may contact Tammy at [redacted].

You will be given a copy of this form to keep for your records.

APPENDIX B

Demographics Survey

1. Gender
    - ☐ Male
    - ☐ Female

2. Age
    - ☐ 21-27 years old
    - ☐ 28-37 years old
    - ☐ 38-47 years old
    - ☐ 48-57 years old
    - ☐ 58-67 years old
    - ☐ 68-77 years old
    - ☐ 78 years or older

3. Education: What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed? If currently enrolled, highest degree received.
    - ☐ High school graduate, diploma or the equivalent (for example: GED)
    - ☐ Some college credit, no degree
    - ☐ Trade/technical/vocational training
    - ☐ Associate degree
    - ☐ Bachelor’s degree
    - ☐ Master’s degree
    - ☐ Professional degree
    - ☐ Doctorate degree

4. Level in organization
    - ☐ Entry
    - ☐ Intermediate
    - ☐ Senior (lead level or middle management)
    - ☐ Lead (Upper middle management or top management)

APPENDIX C

Cialdini's Influence Quiz

1. Upon first entering the office of the purchasing manager of a company with whom you would like to do business, you notice a picture of the team mascot of your alma mater on the wall. You should:

   A. Mention that you went to the same university prior to discussing business.
   B. Mention that you went to the same university after discussing business.
   C. Not mention this personal similarity in a business meeting.
   D. Discuss the fact that you went to the same university only if the client brings up the topic.

2. You are attempting to persuade the Board of Directors of your company that it is in your company's best interest to implement a costly revision to your back-office functions. You know that the Board is very concerned about costs, so you have also formulated two alternate plans that are less costly and less comprehensive. When it comes time for your presentation, which of the following strategies should you use to obtain the optimal results (the greatest degree of change the Board will support)?

   A. Describe the least expensive revision first.
   B. Describe the mid-range revision first, and then ask the Chairperson if s/he would like to hear the alternate plans.
   C. Describe the most expensive revision first, then mid-range, and then the least costly plan.
   D. Ask the Chair which plan s/he is most interested and then describe that plan only.

3. Your company is launching a new product, and your boss asks you to make a marketing decision. Your boss is considering two options to generate initial interest from the public: offering a price reduction on the product for a "limited time" or offering a price reduction for a "limited number" of the product. Which approach should you recommend to get the greatest interest from the public?

   A. "Limited time."
   B. "Limited number."
   C. Either option will produce the same positive results.
   D. Neither option will produce positive results.

4. You have an important meeting with a prospective client later today. You know from your previous discussions that the prospect is impressed with your proposal but does not believe that implementing your ideas at this particular time is a top priority. Which of the following approaches to the meeting would provide you with the greatest chance of persuading the prospect to approve your proposal in the shortest period of time?

A. Emphasize what the prospect will lose if he does not implement your ideas at the present time.
B. Emphasize the positive features and benefits of your proposal.
C. Ask the prospect to outline his objections to your proposal.
D. Begin with a request for a commitment and then try to close the sale.

5. Imagine you are the (unlucky) campaign manager of a political candidate who has recently lost the public's trust. Now imagine that the candidate wants to rebuild his reputation through profiling himself as a tough crime fighter, even though his opponent has a credible track record in this regard. Of the following choices, which represents the best way for your candidate to start his next ad?

   A. "My opponent has not gone far enough in fighting crime . . ."
   B. "Many have supported my ability and willingness to fight crime . . ."
   C. "Although my opponent has a good record of fighting crime . . ."
   D. "Fighting crime is a critical issue . . ."

6. Imagine you are a financial advisor, and you believe that a young client of yours is investing too conservatively. To persuade her to invest in riskier, high-return investments, you should concentrate on describing:

   A. How others like her have made similar mistakes. (Appeal to consensus.)
   B. What she stands to gain if she invests in riskier options. (Appeal to greed.)
   C. What she stands to lose if she does not invest in riskier options (Appeal to loss.)
   D. The importance of the two of you working as a team on this issue.

7. You are attempting to sell your professional services to a medium-sized software company. They have never done business with you before and are uncertain as to whether they should select your company as a service provider. You will increase your persuasiveness the most by:

   A. Providing them with a testimonial from Microsoft, who currently utilizes your services.
   B. Providing them with a master list of all of your clients.
   C. Talking about other clients' experiences with your company in general ways, without providing any specific testimonials.
   D. Providing them with several testimonials from other medium-sized software companies who are your current clients.

8. If you have a new piece of information, when should you mention that it is new?

    A. Before you present the information.
    B. In the middle of the presentation of the information.
    C. After the presentation of the information.
    D. You should not mention that it is new information.

9. You have the responsibility for motivating your company's sales force to increase its annual performance. You were told by your supervisor to set goals for the sales people and hold them accountable. Which of the following strategies would be the most effective?

    A. Set a goal for each employee based on his or her prior year's performance and inform each of his or her goal.
    B. Have each employee set a reasonable private goal for him or herself.
    C. Have each employee publicly state a reasonable goal for the year.
    D. Have each employee set an unrealistically high personal goal, and keep it private.

10. You are having difficulty with employee attrition, so you organized a retreat for your office to energize your employees. You want to give each a gift for attending that will enhance the employee's commitment to give back to the organization. Which of the following strategies is likely to produce the best results?

    A. Give them all the same, expensive gift with your company's name engraved on it.
    B. Give them no gifts, but thank them for attending.
    C. Give each employee a personalized gift that is meaningful, even if it is not expensive.
    D. Give gifts only to those employees who completed the evaluation forms for the retreat.

APPENDIX D

Cialdini's Influence Quiz Approval

Cialdini's Influence Quiz has not been validated. However, this is a widely used quiz on his website influenceatwork.com.

From: Robert Cialdini <[redacted]>
Sent: Wednesday, November 27, 2013 10:59 PM
To: Hong, Tammy
Subject: Influence quiz

Tammy--
I have no objections to your use of the IAW Influence quiz in your dissertation research. Feel welcome
to employ it. However, because the quiz has not been validated as a sensitive measure of influence skill
or knowledge, you would be well advised to interpret any results involving it with caution.
Cordially,
--Bob Cialdini

APPENDIX E

Pepperdine Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exemption Approval

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

November 10, 2014

Tammy Hong

Protocol #: E0914D08
Project Title: Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and the Ability to Influence

Dear Ms. Hong:

Thank you for submitting your application, *Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and the Ability to Influence*, for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your faculty advisor Dr. Schmieder-Ramirez, have done on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations (45 CFR 46 - http://www.nihtraining.com/ohsrsite/guidelines/45cfr46.html) that govern the protections of human subjects. Specifically, section 45 CFR 46.101(b) (2) states:

> (b) Unless otherwise required by Department or Agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the following categories are exempt from this policy:
>
> **Category (2) of 45 CFR 46.101**, research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: a) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and b) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

In addition, your application to waive documentation of informed consent has been **approved**.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a **Request for Modification Form** to the GPS IRB. Because your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* (see link to "policy material" at http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/).

6100 Center Drive, Los Angeles, California 90045 • 310-568-5600