



THE JUXTAPOSITION OF DRIVE TO ACQUIRE AUTHORITY AND ABILITY TO LEAD IN U.S. BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Dr. George Bertrand

ABSTRACT

The current state and future prospect of effective leadership in U.S. business based on behavioral characteristics is examined in this study. Considering leadership style from the paradigm of socioanalytic theory, as opposed to the psychoanalytic postulate, these theorists posit that humans are simultaneously driven by the desire to get ahead, get along and find meaning in life as a function of communal interaction. Existing studies most typically examine these competing drives and competencies amongst business leaders independently when explaining behavioral characteristics. In this research they are examined interdependently, addressing a gap in the literature. The population sample for the study is from one retail company, one hundred and thirty managers, randomly selected by the subject company as participants. This archival data was analyzed to determine the predictive value of personality, characterized by the drive to acquire authority, on trait emotional intelligence. The synthesis of the data suggests that the ability to lead, predicated on emotional intelligence/transformational leadership style, was lower where drive to succeed was higher. A proffered conclusion is that because the drive for power and authority is inherently high amongst business leaders, their default behavior is less likely to include essential levels of emotional intelligence. Testing for emotional intelligence, character, and personality disorders are prescribed for practitioners to not only gauge competencies within the organization but to also avoid high risks of derailment for new management hires. Immersive emotional intelligence training for all leaders, current and future, is recommended.

Key words: acquiring power, personality, emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, socioanalytic theory.

BACKGROUND

Although U.S. industry would appear to be alive and well in the aftermath of the recent pandemic, there are prescient signs of future challenges for many companies. Market dominance and healthy financials can mask underlying risks of long-term failure in a hyper complex, increasingly competitive and more global marketplace (Clifton, 2022). When leaders fail to transform their organizations into employee-centric and engaged cultures, the risk of diminished performance increases exponentially (Clifton, 2022). Employee engagement has been described as employees' willingness to suspend their immediate self-interest for the long-term interest of themselves and company, unleashing discretionary effort above and beyond the minimum expectations of their job performance (Perrin, 2008). Discretionary effort,

which has been demonstrated to be as much as 12% over 'normal' expenditures can make or break companies (Sorenson, 2023). Employee engagement levels are inextricably tied to job satisfaction, retention, employee productivity and ultimately company performance (Hongal & Kinange, 2020).

Companies that are financially successful in both the short and long term have superior metrics indicative of emotional engagement within their organization. These include 20% growth, 10% increase in customer satisfaction, 41% less absenteeism, 15% less theft, 17% more output with higher quality levels and 24% improvement in retention. (Sorenson, 2023; Harter & Mann, 2017). Companies that score in the top quartile for employee engagement *double* the chances of success in all the key metrics mentioned as compared to those

companies in the bottom quartile (Harter & Mann, 2017).

Gallup makes the bold assertion that 70% of the variance in individual and team engagement is predicted solely by the immediate manager (Clifton & Harter, 2019). The alarming statistics that follow illustrate a stark contrast with 30 plus years of informed theory and empirical evidence in support of emotionally intelligent and transformational leadership as the *sine qua non* for competent leaders (Clifton & Harter, 2019). This study seeks to provide possible insight on why such a curious juxtaposition of theory and practice exists in U.S. business leadership.

Seventy percent of U.S. workers report that they are unhappy in their jobs (Gitnux, 2023). More than a third of all employees would forego a raise if their boss was fired (Hougaard & Carter, 2018). Other statistics suggest that the reason for this disenchantment is that leadership is out of touch with their constituency and their emotional needs. Seventy-seven percent of leaders believe they are doing a good job of connecting with their organization while 88% of employees think there should be more engagement (Hougaard & Carter, 2018). The breadth of this chasm is further characterized by the discovery that 89% of employers think that employees leave for financial reasons when this is true only 12% of the time (Gitnux, 2023)! Statistics on trust in management, another essential component for creating employee engagement, are found to be troublesome, as 58% of employees are more likely to trust a stranger than they are their boss (Gitnux, 2023).

Gallup has determined that incompetent and disengaged leadership is clearly the source of worker discontent and loss of productivity, threatening long-term firm performance (Gallup, 2022). Only one in ten managers are suitably equipped with talent and skills to be effective leaders while only one in three are engaged (Gallup, 2022). Bad management is much more pervasive than generally believed. Estimates range from 65 percent to 75%, primarily due to ‘flawed interpersonal strategies’ (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). Meaning that the inability to actualize human capital through emotionally connecting with the organization, often leads to toxic environments rife with employee rancor, loss of productivity and performance sabotage (Hogan & Sherman, 2022).

Amazon, for instance, one of the ‘Magnificent Seven’ companies as coined by Wall Street, is perhaps an example of a company elevating long term risks by failure to make a transformation to employee centricity. It has been reported that Amazon’s annual turnover is tracking 150% (three fourths voluntary) in recent years and showing no signs of abatement (Sainato, 2022). According to an

internal memo, at this rate of attrition, the company could churn through the available labor pool by 2024 (Sainato, 2022). These results are perhaps emblematic of a culture that considers employees to be fungible components (Sainato, 2022). Jeff Bezos, the founder, and recently retired chief executive, has been quoted as saying, “long-term employees will ultimately slack-off and foster a march to mediocrity”. A paradoxical yet revealing statement from the leader of a company that by any financial measurement has been wildly successful.

However, the cultural callousness regarding the value of human capital, as historical rates of turnover will attest, suggests that their performance is unsustainable long term (Sainato, 2022). Amazon is not alone in allowing the ‘intoxication of power’ to undervalue employee emotional engagement and organizational commitment that may threaten long term firm performance (Laker, et al., 2021). Recently, manifestations of these disengagement trends have been characterized by popular media and academia as catalyzed by the recent pandemic. Much has been made of the ‘great resignation’ where an unprecedented 47 million U.S. workers quit their jobs in 2021 (Kuzior, et al., 2022). Quiet quitting has been a topic of much discussion, meaning workers don’t leave their jobs but remain doing the bare minimum required to avoid reprimand, meaning that in essence they have quit...emotionally (Smith, 2022).

The pandemic, however, has been spuriously attributed to causing the great resignation and an onslaught of quiet quitting, when an argument can be made that the pandemic exposed disengaged leadership that has been minimized for decades (Clifton, 2022). Loss of loved ones, loss of freedom, fear of disease, and as consequence a burgeoning awareness that a meaningful life was not being fulfilled at work was given voice (Aydin & Azizoglu, 2022). The seeds of employee discontent blossomed during the pandemic but had been germinating for at least three decades prior (Clifton, 2022).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Accelerating levels of employee disengagement have prompted pundits to question why the practice of management has not kept up with the pace of science in management. “While the science of management has advanced significantly in the last three decades, the practice of management hasn’t” (Clifton & Harter, 2019, pp. 2). Given that employee-centric, transformational, and emotionally intelligent leadership has been trumpeted by the icons of effective leadership theory since the seventies (Nelson & Hogan, 2009), why are we not moving forward exponentially (Clifton & Harter, 2019)?

A paradox is perhaps better understood when considering the tenets of socioanalytic theory. This

theory characterizes human behavior according to the drive to get ahead, get along and find meaning in life in a communal environment (Hogan & Holland, 2003). As opposed to psychoanalytical theory, leadership behavioral characteristics should be evaluated from the standpoint of ‘actor’ and observer, leader, and follower. Vociferous followership is predicated on the reputation forged by the actor/leader and the authenticity of the emotional engagement fostered to create organizational commitment (Hogan & Holland, 2003).

As opposed to leading based on self-identity, assuming perception of self and perception of others being synonymous, effective leaders vigorously forge a reputation in fulfillment of the employees’ need for trust and meaning in their work lives, creating a transformational culture (Brown & Keeping, 2005). Finding meaning according to socioanalytic theory is one of the three core drivers of human behavior and the foundational premise of why employees will passionately follow certain leaders and merely endure others (Winsborough et al., 2009). Getting along is also a basic need of humans according to socioanalytic theory. For leaders this means galvanizing an organization based on suspending immediate self-interest and ego for the welfare of the individual stakeholders while insuring superior long-term firm performance. This style of leadership is identified as transformational, steeped in the tenets of emotional intelligence (Gorgens-Ekermans & Roux, 2021). Getting ahead, the final defining dimension of human behavior based on socioanalytic theory, is what drives certain personalities to seek more sway over their environment, deriving, status, power, or both.

To summarize, the conceptual ideal of this study queries whether the instinctive drive to get ahead in business leadership has some asynchronous behavioral characteristics with getting along and helping stakeholders find meaning. If this theory proves to have merit based on the study, the juxtaposition of acquired authority/power to lead and leadership ability may shed light on the dichotomy of effective leadership theory and ineffective practice.

The research questions posed in this study are:

RQ1: Is there a statistically significant effect of personality traits that drive acquisition of power/authority amongst business managers on their level of emotional intelligence?

RQ2: Is there a statistically significant difference in the means of personality traits that drive acquisition of power/authority across hierarchical levels attained?

RQ3: Is there a statistically significant difference in the means of emotional intelligence scores across

hierarchical levels of business manager’s power/authority?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Effective Management Theory

A recent book, widely acclaimed best-seller on leadership, tells us that to solve the recent leadership crisis organizations need to put people at the center of their strategy (Hougaard & Carter, 2018). According to multiple reviews of the book (e.g. Harvard Business Review, 2018), this is a new radical redefinition of what it takes to be an effective leader. Perhaps not so new and not so radical. One of the seminal works on leadership was written in 1978 by the esteemed historian James Macgregor Burns who posits that it is the transformational leader rather than transactional who is immoderately more potent.

The transformational leader who goes beyond the transaction of fulfilling the material needs of followers, appealing to higher needs for recognition, trust, loyalty, purpose and meaning that galvanizes organizations in quest of a higher mission, perhaps even a transcendent one (Burns, 1978). The catalyst of this transformation is creating a relationship between leaders and followers that fully blossoms when cultivated, nurtured, and cherished. Progress can only be achieved when there is a shared vision. A shared vision is only possible when there is a relationship, relationships are only feasible if the core tenets of strategy are grounded in the emotional engagement with employees (Burns, 1978).

Tom Peters, in an interview regarding his legacy of iconic authorship during which he wrote 20 books about business leadership, offers further insight on the lineage of effective theory. Beginning with *In Search of Excellence* (1982) to *Excellence Now: Extreme Humanism* (2021), Peters states that he has been espousing the same principles for 40 years (Barbour, 2021). Borrowing from his much often quoted maxim, ‘a blinding flash of the obvious’, he summarizes his leadership philosophy, “make products that are cool instead of cheap, take care of people incredibly well, focus on your community and sustainability and be a caring, compassionate and inclusive leader” (Barbour, 2021, page 5).

Peters has written that business success is not an abstruse venture, have happy people, their engagement being the key to happy customers, both of which are the primary criteria for making money (Peters, 2021). The outcome of this focus on ‘soft skills’, echoed by reams of extant literature espousing similar postulates for 40 years is bewildering (Peters, 2021). According to Peters, only 3 of 10 Fortune 500 companies have embraced this transformational style to an appreciable extent. A result far short of the widespread cultural adoption might be expected given the long history of validated theory (Barbour, 2021).

Socioanalytic Theory, Personality, Power

Perhaps part of the answer to comprehending the dichotomy of theory and practice is provided by understanding the innately asynchronous personality drives according to socioanalytic theory. The default behavior of ‘bad bosses’ is a function of being myopic in the drive to get ahead at the expense of getting along and creating an environment where the stakeholders can find meaning in their work (Shaw, 2019). ‘Good bosses’ are transformational considering they tend to create a genuine sense of appreciation for those in their charge, build trust, and motivate others to suspend immediate gratification for the pursuit of greater meaning and long-term personal reward in their work lives (Johnson, 2023). By emotionally engaging with the workforce, effective leaders get emotional engagement and organizational commitment in return, which presupposes emotional intelligence skills (Johnson, 2023).

There are several underlying factors that may contribute to the perpetuation of incompetent leadership. Because of overconfidence in their abilities, hubristic leaders make wrong-headed and equally incompetent decisions about who to promote. Thus, creating generational dysfunction (Dunning, 2015; Sheldon, et al., 2013). Leadership ‘hubris’ contributes to organizational dysfunction in a myriad of ways including ‘recreating in one’s own image’, leadership that lacks humility. Humility being an antecedent to emotional intelligence and subsequent to transformational leadership (Laker et al., 2021; Morris, et al., 2005). This brings contemplation to the question of, ‘who gets promoted to management positions and why?’. It is the most ambitious and politically astute, particularly those that can effectively manage reputation with their bosses that get promoted, reputation with their subordinates being a lesser priority if any (Dietl et al., 2016).

It is a common misconception that career advancement, the attainment of power/authority, is predicated on the demonstrated ability to lead (Nayar, 2013; Van Vugt, et al., 2008). There is no known evidence that there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between attaining power/authority and ability to wield in a fashion beneficial to the individual contributors and team performance (Van Vugt, et al., 2008; Ellemers et al., 1998). The dimensions of personality that manifest in behavioral characteristics of dominance, independence, competitiveness, and resiliency, combined with political astuteness, are primary contributors to ‘career success’ (Nelson & Hogan, 2009). Although mindfulness and empathy can be acquired, raw ambition unbridled in default behavior can serve to inhibit the ability to be self-aware or aware of the emotional needs of others, the absence of which predicting management derailment (Nelson &

Hogan, 2009).

Emotional and Social Intelligence

Since Daniel Goleman’s groundbreaking book (1995), there has been a plethora of literature on defining the dimensions and relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership style (e.g., O’Boyle, et al.; 2011; Cavazotte, et al., 2011; Kim & Kim, 2017). Intelligence pertains to the cognitive ability to comprehend, internalize, and synthesize information into patterns of practical application while emotional intelligence relates to the ability to perceive emotions, both your own and others, and to process in behavior that is synchronous with a desired outcome (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In applying these principles to leadership, emotional intelligence is the ability to continually expand self-awareness with openness to different perspectives, respond to stimulus strategically as opposed to reacting emotionally, recognizing the emotional triggers and needs in others while adapting one’s own behavior.

Through vigilant use of these skills, better relationships are created (Boyatzis et al., 2019). Because leadership and followership are relational, the greater the ability to understand emotions and their impact, the more adaptable the leader’s style becomes in providing effective leadership (Day & Carroll, 2004). Unlike IQ and personality which are essentially crystallized before adulthood by physiology and environment, emotional intelligence is a skill and can therefore be learned (Bradberry, 2023). This is a powerful insight for those wishing to improve their relationships, leadership abilities and life/job performance. People can become more than what their genetic and early developmental influences have randomly instilled to create cognition and personality (Bradberry, 2023). Social intelligence is a ‘cascading’ ability built upon the core emotional intelligence skills of self-awareness, self-management, perspective taking and relationship building that allows leaders to discern group dynamics, internal leadership and navigate developmental pathways for all stakeholders (Joesph & Newman, 2010).

Social intelligence is therefore linear but also circular in that the pattern for growth requires that the effective leader be in a constant state of adaptation (Bariso, 2023). The way one becomes more self-aware is to tune into the feedback from stakeholders, subsequently altering approach to achieve greater alignment between one’s objectives and behavior (Bariso, 2023). In the simplest terms, emotional/social intelligence as applied to institutional leadership is the ability to identify and understand the emotional needs of followers and find ways of meeting those needs in the context of fulfilling organizational objectives (Boyatzis, 2018). For leaders, emotional and social intelligence are the fulcrum tools for developing a

transformational leadership style (Connelly & Ruark, 2010). Emotional intelligence skill has been identified as the single most reliable predictor of transformational leadership (e.g., Kim & Kim, 2017). Transformational leadership, the greatest predictor of employee engagement, organizational commitment, and team performance (Gorgens-Ekermans & Roux, 2021).

Transformational Leadership

The seminal definition of transformational leadership comes from the earlier works of Bass and Avolio, reiterated and expanded in their subsequent research and publications (e.g., Bass et al., 2003). The four dimensions of transformational leadership according to these pioneering authors are idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Idealized influence connotes the respect and trust followers associate with their leaders, considering the welfare of the employee above self, and consistent authenticity in thoughts, words and deeds that convey virtue.

By creating a compelling vision of what is possible in the context of individual and organizational alignment of values, the leader inspires discretionary effort, commitment and esprit de corps. Intellectual stimulation means providing an open and trusting environment where new ideas are welcomed, creativity is encouraged and supportive leadership to empower stakeholders embraced. Individualized consideration is characterized by adaptive behavior on the part of the leader to identify the emotional needs of the employee, respond accordingly and act as a mentor, coach and steward for that individual's welfare and development (Bass, et al., 2003). Iterations since Bass and Avolio echo the theories and efficacy of their seminal work.

Examples of recent literature describe transformational leadership as a manifestation of the leader's intent and ability to influence and inspire followers to embrace a collective purpose, align individual values with those of the organization and create a culture where commitment to employees invites reciprocation (Gorgens-Ekermans & Roux, 2021). This is a key departure from transactional leadership. Transformational leadership transcends external motivation, creating an elevated state of internal stimulus where the individual becomes self-actualized (Lee, et al., 2023). Once trust is established between leader and follower, the synergistic force of shared values and objectives is unleashed. This is the hallmark of employee emotional engagement, leadership through transformational influence, exchange of value, shared objectives and creation of an organizational culture steeped in commitment, job satisfaction, greater productivity, and firm performance (Lee, 2023).

Summary of Literature

The extant literature presented reveals the following. Effective leadership is predicated on emotionally engaging with the workforce to create a relational dynamic where the constituency is given a reason to put forth their best effort beyond transactional rewards. Emotionally engaging with the workforce requires emotional intelligence skills. Where emotional and social intelligence skills exist, leadership can transform the organization into one where followers identify their own welfare with the welfare of the organization. This is the central tenet of forty years of employee-centric literature. Employees will do more if they feel appreciated, secure, inspired, and have a reciprocal relationship with leadership.

Socioanalytic theory posits that competing drives of humans in a communal setting may challenge leaders to instinctually provide what is needed to galvanize an organization to a higher purpose. The drive to get ahead can conflict with the innate ability to get along and help others find meaning. Additionally, it is not the emotionally intelligent that are most likely to be given accelerating levels of authority/power but the most ambitious and politically savvy who are presumptively afforded the greatest opportunity to lead. Cumulatively, these theories provide a potential foundation for comprehending the bifurcation of theory and practice, perhaps serving as a fulcrum for solving our current leadership crisis.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This is a quantitative study that allows for the emergence of theory based on data analysis. The body of the literature presented, and the illustrated gaps guide the query. The paradigm or worldview is pragmatic, analysis of results and emerging theory are intended to serve practitioners. The study is designed to be replicable under similar circumstances, reinforcing validity. Archival data from one company, using testing from 130 managers stratified based on levels of authority, was used for comparison of results.

Assumptions to be analyzed in the study via the research questions are 1) that assessment scores measuring drive for acquisition of power/authority indicate a positive and inverse effect on emotional intelligence. 2) personality drive for authority/power will be reflected in attainment of those hierarchical levels. 3) the greater the level of attained authority/power will be reflective of higher levels of both personality drive for acquisition of power/authority and emotional intelligence.

Sample Population

Participants were drawn from one small (2400 employees), niche market (furniture rental),

U.S. company with 50 financial and distribution center locations throughout the country. Headquartered in Washington, D. C., the target company is owned by a mega market capitalization holding corporation. There are 400 managers in the company. The target for the study was 130 manager participants, 50 coming from line management, 50 from middle management, and 30 from senior management. The target numbers were achieved for the study.

This is a convenience sampling as all participants were employees of a single company with archival data provided for this analysis. This approach was chosen for several reasons. It is known that both professionally administered personality assessments and emotional intelligence skill measurements exist for these potential participants. Integrity of measurement instruments, responsibility levels of participants and criteria for selection have a high degree of credibility as they are company rather than self-reported. The breadth of the emotional intelligence measurement is of particular importance. In addition to self-reports, the most common sources of data for surveys, the Emotional Intelligence Cumulative Assessment (EICA) provides feedback from bosses, employees, and collaborative peers in other departments.

Participants chosen for the study must have had a minimum of 10 direct reports. Have taken both the personality evaluation and emotional intelligence assessments within the last two years. This study was a collaborative process with the vice president of human resources for this company who made these selections without regard to any criteria except those mentioned. The results were shared for this study as archival data. The names of the participants or any identifying information are known only to the company, anonymous to this study, except for level of responsibility identified.

The criterion for the line management grouping was large market distribution managers and small to mid-size market district managers. This group may oversee 10-50 employees but rarely more than 3 managers. The middle management group was comprised of large market district managers and directors. This group may have as many as 100 employees and typically 5 to 10 managers reporting directly to the middle manager. Senior manager participants were vice presidents and above, including C-suite. This level of hierarchy manages middle managers and project specialists almost exclusively. This group also functions as a strategy development team, recommending and implementing company policy and making higher level personnel decisions.

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Tools and Results RQ1

A simple linear regression with SPSS was used to examine the effect of the independent variable of personality drive for power/authority on the dependent variable of emotional intelligence. The result as illustrated was ($F(1,128) = 12.01, p < .001, R^2 = .086$). This means that although 8.6% of the variance was explained by the analysis it was nonetheless statistically significant. The effect of personality drive for power/authority was negatively associated with emotional intelligence ($B = -.229, p < .005$). This means in effect that for every one-point increase in personality drive, emotional intelligence score goes down an average of .229. This analysis is indicative of a statistically significant effect, in this case an inverse relationship as indicated in Figure 1.

Table 1

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.293 ^a	.086	.079	8.709

a. Predictors: (Constant), PI Score

Table 2

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	910.951	1	910.951	12.010	< .001 ^b
	Residual	9708.441	128	75.847		
	Total	10619.392	129			

a. Dependent Variable: EI Score

b. Predictors: (Constant), PI Score

Table 3

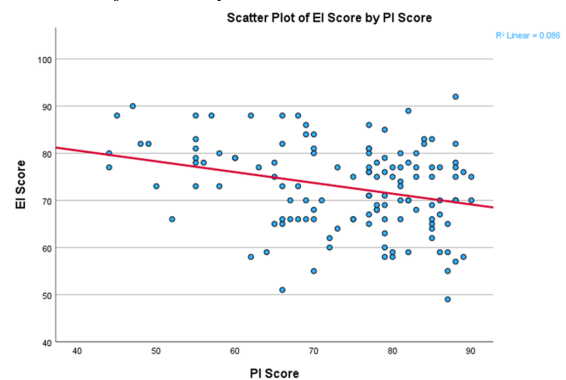
Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	89.716	4.943		18.151	< .001
	PI Score	-.229	.066	-.293	-3.466	< .001

a. Dependent Variable: EI Score

Figure 1

Scatter Plot of EI Score by PI Score



Tools and Results RQ2

A one-way ANOVA using SPSS was conducted for this analysis. The relationship between the dependent variable of dominance personality and the independent variable of hierarchical levels of authority was analyzed. The result was that there was not a statistically significant difference at $p < .05$. in the mean scores of line, middle, and senior levels of authority ($F(2, 127) = 2.045, p = .134$). However, it is noteworthy that the linear pattern expressed in Figure 2 demonstrates an accelerating level of personality dominance.

Table 4

Accelerating Level of Personality Dominance (Descriptives & PI Score)

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min.	Max.
Line Mgmt.	50	72.02	11.774	1.665	68.67	75.37	44	88
Middle Mgmt.	50	73.90	10.647	1.506	70.87	76.93	47	89
Senior Mgmt.	30	77.40	12.483	2.279	72.74	82.06	44	90
Total	130	73.98	11.617	1.019	71.97	76.00	44	90

Table 5

Accelerating Level of Personality Dominance (ANOVA & PI Score)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	543.289	2	271.645	2.045	.134
Within Groups	16866.680	127	132.809		
Total	17409.969	129			

Figure 2

Means of PI Score



Tools and Results RQ3

The results of the SPSS program one-way ANOVA used here reveal there was a statistically significant difference in the means at $p < .05$ of hierarchical levels and emotional intelligence ($F(2, 127) = 30.179, p < .001$). Figure 3 provides a clear visual that emotional intelligence increases up to the level of middle management and declines precipitously with senior management.

Figure 3

Means of EI Score



Table 6

Accelerating Level of Personality Dominance (Descriptives & EI Score)

	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min.	Max.
Line Mgmt.	50	68.64	8.238	1.665	66.30	70.98	51	88
Middle Mgmt.	50	79.28	6.078	.860	77.55	81.01	66	92
Senior Mgmt.	30	68.90	8.434	1.540	65.75	72.05	49	88
Total	130	72.79	9.073	.796	71.22	74.37	49	92

Table 7

Accelerating Level of Personality Dominance (ANOVA & EI Score)

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3421.092	2	1710.546	30.179	<.001
Within Groups	7198.300	127	56.680		
Total	10619.392	129			

Analysis

RQ1. The effect of personality traits that drive acquisition of authority/power amongst business managers on their level of emotional intelligence was demonstrated. Specifically, the higher the level of personality drive, the lower emotional intelligence is likely to be. The degree of impact at 1 point increase in dominance drive equaling approximately a quarter of a point decrease in emotional intelligence is particularly insightful.

RQ2. There appears to be NO statistically significant association of the personality traits that drive acquisition of authority/power and hierarchical levels of business manager’s authority based on a small sample size. However, upon further examination of the scale analysis, Figure 2, middle management shows higher dominance personality mean scores than line management and senior management scores are higher than both line and middle management.

RQ3. The results of the research for this question indicate that emotional intelligence increases from line management up to the level of middle management and decreases beyond that level. Consequently, the question of whether there is difference in hierarchical levels of authority and emotional intelligence is confirmed.

Summary

Consistent with the literature cited, the first analysis shows that emotional intelligence is inversely related to personality that drives acquisition of power/authority in this study. The second analysis demonstrates that authority levels rise with the levels of personality that drive acquisition of power/authority as suggested by the literature. Since emotional intelligence, according to the literature, is the fulcrum skill for effective leadership, it would be expected that emotional intelligence would be linearly related to increasing levels of authority (Gottlieb et al., 2021).

In the third analysis it is demonstrated that emotional intelligence was elevated from line management to the middle management level but showed a significant decrease with senior management. This is in contradiction to the third assumption that leaders with the greatest responsibility are predicted to have the highest levels of emotional intelligence.

DISCUSSION

The problem of inadequate leadership in U.S. business is identified and the background of the problem explored in the preceding segments. Current manifestations are cited and possible reasons for the inadequacy, which all point to leadership. The framework of the study, to empirically validate/invalidate the literature regarding the relationship of leadership behavior to socioanalytic theory, is proffered. Potentially serving as a foundational premise for demonstrating the significance of the study. Literature cited ties the principles of socioanalytic theory with competent leadership theory and its various components.

The empirical study, explained in Methodology and evaluated in Results and Analysis, supports the cited literature in certain respects and is mixed in other aspects. The first analysis supports the premise that where higher dominance personality is prevalent, equivalent trait emotional intelligence is less likely. This data analysis bolsters the theory that the ability to lead is not predicated on authority acquisition. Also, further credence is lent to the idea that emotional intelligence as a critical source of competence, the ability to lead in a transformational style, may be innately inharmonious with the personality drive to acquire power/authority.

Further insight into the potential source of declining employee engagement and organizational commitment is demonstrated in the second analysis. The study shows that personality drive to acquire power/authority accelerates with title bestowed, predicting success of the individual, conceivably to the detriment of the organizational success. Also noteworthy, the ascendancy of emotional intelligence from line to middle management in the study is

perhaps contrary to the theory that higher emotional intelligence is not a conduit for getting promoted, at least not to middle management.

The acquired ability, over the course of a career, to balance the competing dynamics of human nature, getting ahead, getting along, and finding meaning, for oneself and for others, is demonstrated in the literature as the sine qua none of leadership competency. Given the ascendancy to power/authority to the highest levels and the magnitude of senior leadership responsibility, it might be expected to find this balance at the top of this organization in the study. The third analysis does not support this premise. Seemingly in contradiction, the analysis shows that dominance personality at the senior level is the highest amongst all three groups, but emotional intelligence equivalent to the lowest levels of authority.

Cited literature links the worrisome problem of emotional engagement and organizational commitment in U.S. business to the ranks of corporate leadership being populated by ambitious managers who lack adequate levels of emotional intelligence skills and instinct to lead in a transformational manner. Evidence to support this premise has emerged in this study with an analysis of one company's management.

LIMITATIONS

The study was conducted in a small U.S. business (\$600 million in revenue and 2400 employees) in a niche retail industry, \$1 billion annual revenue, owned by a mega corporation, \$245 billion annual revenue. Participants could come from any part of the country and demographics were not considered. The target company has many unique characteristics including a very decentralized culture that is heavily reliant on local management for 'ownership' allowing for adaptations to individual market nuances. Senior leadership culture has remained very constant over the 50-year history of the company with only three CEOs, all of which came from within the organization. Based on the emphasis on decentralization (not common in the retail industry) smaller size, fixed culture and iconic parent, this company may not be representative of the greater population.

Delimiting factors include tacit assumptions made about leadership performance results. It has not been empirically demonstrated that personality drivers which create acquired, maintained, and promotable authority, combined with emotional intelligence skills produce verifiable performance improvements in the organization. This is a weakness in the studies cited, not addressed in this research effort, but certainly a gap that merits future consideration.

Demographics are not integrated into the study. There are many facets that merit inquiry, however. For instance, women have been shown to have more trait and learned emotional intelligence

than men and more apt to lead in a transformational manner (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Further consideration is the absence of any information on participants regarding years of experience or previous training in emotional intelligence. Consequently, what is being measured as trait or default behavior may be at least partially reflective of acquired skills.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The default attitude of many organizations is that if someone forges the reputation of being a goal oriented, high achiever who shows consistent initiative to take on tasks beyond their prescribed role that they are a management candidate (Jones & York, 2016; Luthans et al., 2019). As illustrated in the study, those demonstrating behavioral characteristics for getting ahead are most apt to acquire and maintain authority. However, as has also been pointed out, it is these very characteristics that propel one to achieve recognition and acquire greater responsibility that can preempt the inclination to get along (Gottlieb et al., 2021). Getting along in socioanalytic theory translates to leadership as being the innate or learned ability to focus on galvanizing the organization through emotional connection, employee advocacy and common purpose (Miao et al., 2018).

For organizational leadership this means that the premise that driven individuals will ‘figure it out’, that over time they will learn how to lead effectively in an emotionally intelligent and transformational manner, is deeply flawed (Jones & York, 2016). Not only an erroneous assumption, but a perilous one (Hogan & Sherman, 2020). If the powerful manager ultimately incorporates emotional intelligence into their skill set by trial and error, it could take years of incompetent leadership, leaving demoralized and departing employees in their wake (Jones & York, 2016).

This speaks to a potential paradigm shift in how organizations evaluate new hires, promotions, and existing leadership. Typically, unless the ambitious manager, to become leader, is assumed to need development to lead in a transformational manner, their chances of doing so are determined by commitment to self-development, randomness, and time (Goleman, 2011). An alternate approach for organizations might be considered based on the recognition that the opportunity to acquire authority was most likely forged via drive and political savvy, in juxtaposition to the ability to lead (Gottlieb et al., 2021). The strategy implied is much more than sharing a few books, an occasional podcast or webinar, or even a week’s worth of training every few years (O’Connor et al., 2019).

More of a core value internalization rather than a tactical event should be considered, embracing the idea that ‘if we don’t train them in emotional

intelligence and transformational leadership the default result is likely to be very costly’ (Bagshaw, 2000). Costs of litigation, low morale, turnover, stress, and accidents incurred are potentially catastrophic (Bagshaw, 2000). In equal or even greater measure will be the rewards of employee engagement and organizational commitment with proper training (Bagshaw, 2000).

Training and Development

Interventions to improve emotional intelligence have been proliferating since the pioneer studies of the 90s (e.g., Goleman, 1995). Although the predictive value and statistical significance of the short to intermediate training is mixed, there is discernible value in all the training approaches (Hodzic et al., 2018; Kotsou et al., 2019). The most effective are immersive and up to a year in length (Hodzic, et al., 2018; Kotsou, et al., 2019). These programs are launched with classroom training, robust discussion of theory and application techniques, followed by field application, organizational feedback, retesting and recycling back to field application (Gilar-Corbi et al., 2019).

There is compelling evidence that a longer-term commitment to leadership development yields a higher positive relationship to skill improvement with more consistent and sustainable results (Kotsou, et al., 2019). The rationale is intuitive. Time and repetition have an impact on learning retention. Specific to emotional intelligence, the patterns of external stimulus effect on processing neurons in the brain, whether trait or learned, essentially require a ‘re-wiring’ that allows for alternative pathways (Lim & Lau, 2021). Consequently, knowledge acquired through short-term training may demonstrate a change in perception but not translate into altered behavior unless the participant internalizes the concepts through practice, appraisal, additional adjustments, re-testing and eventually a modified version of personality for the committed participant (Kotsou et al., 2019).

Selection

Organizations may benefit by requiring at least two assessments in evaluating new hires and promotions. One for emotional intelligence and the other for personality traits. For instance, the EICA and Predictive Index used in this study have been shown to be insightful and particularly useful when considered in tandem. There are also screening tools for qualities conducive to transformational leadership (Morris, et al., 2005), character and ethical virtue (Riggio et al., 2010), and dysfunctional dispositions of ‘dark side’ personality (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Without these formal tools, which are uncannily not the norm, the hiring manager, who invariably thinks they have superior skills in reading people, fails 82% of the time

(Gallup, 2015, 2022).

There are multiple potential reasons for these failings. One is that 'dark side' tendencies in personalities predict the ability to create favorable impressions. Machiavellians, narcissists, and psychopaths are adept at forging reputations that mask their dysfunctional personalities and nefarious objectives (Palmen et al., 2020). Secondly, the interview classically focuses on whether the candidate has the drive to succeed rather than the ability to lead (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). There are interview techniques that are designed to vet those skills but navigating beyond the interviewee facade requires a highly skilled practitioner (TalentsmartEQ, 2022). Finally, the best indicator of who to hire and who should be promoted is to query the people that work(ed) for them (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005).

It is ironic that the classic reference technique is to ask someone's current or previous boss for a reference, from someone who we know to be on average incompetent, and even perhaps contributors to a Machiavellian or narcissistic culture (Brown, 2014). An alternative approach might be to interview employees and peers from other departments requiring collaboration. (Brown, 2014). Without taking these critical steps, companies risk hiring and promoting people with the very characteristics, or imbalance of characteristics, that insure derailment (Kaiser et al., 2008).

FUTURE RESEARCH

Rather than considering the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality drive, emotional intelligence as the predicted variable, it is dismissed in some circles as simply a component of personality (e.g., van der Linden et al., 2017) or based in cognitive abilities (Antonakis et al., 2009). By examining personality drive and emotional intelligence interactively, rather than independently or as 'mixed model' (Mayer, 2004), behavioral tendencies and developmental strategies emerge when considering in tandem. What this means to the future of leadership development literature makes this study a unique contribution to the body of knowledge, addressing a gap in the literature.

Future research could prove valuable by incorporating demographics as additional variables. For instance, women have been shown to have greater trait and learned emotional intelligence than men (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Considering that in this study females represent only 28% of management, it would be of interest to evaluate their dominance personality levels to vet for discrimination in promotions. Examining tenure in a management role could also prove to be an insightful variable when considering that literature has shown that experience when combined with training, can be a predictor of

higher emotional intelligence (Sharma, 2017). Although training in emotional intelligence has been demonstrated to increase emotional intelligence and subsequently transformational leadership, company performance improvements have not been statistically validated. This is certainly a research gap that merits future inquiry.

CONCLUSION

The study shows that the personality drive for power/authority acquisition affects emotional intelligence positively and inversely. It also shows that higher rates of ambition relate positively to higher levels of authority. The implications are as follows. High power/authority personalities who aspire to greater control of their environment, do what is necessary to be recognized as high achievers, get promoted and continue to garner the positive recognition they seek as they acquire more authority. However, as shown in the analysis, the higher their drive to get ahead, the lower the intuitive capacity to get along. This means that building effective teams, the most essential part of transformational management is not innate.

Without at least a modicum of emotional intelligence, the unaware manager will not recognize the need for improvement and will also likely resist intervention (Gottlieb, et al., 2021). At first blush, a simple remedy might be to hire and promote those with the highest EI, ignoring personality, knowing that employee advocacy, trust, transparency, selflessness, humility, and organizational cohesiveness are assured. Unfortunately, an abundance of EI without personality drive to succeed is just as perilous as the opposite of ubiquitous deference (Ames & Flynn, 2007). Dominance, assertiveness, nondeference, aggressiveness, competitiveness and resilience are essential components of effective leadership (Ames & Flynn, 2007).

Without sufficient levels of these drives, leaders are perceived to be weak, indecisive, and ineffectual by employees (Ames & Flynn, 2007). In addition, the drive to get ahead by leaders relates directly to meeting organizational objectives (Colbert et al., 2014). The compelling conclusion, based on the literature and the study, is that the ambitious personality, competitive, independent, confident, and undaunted by failure, is not optional for corporate success. Consideration must therefore be given to these behavioral tendencies in selection and promotion for leadership.

The dominating value of competitiveness in organizations may risk individual and collective derailment, however, unless balanced by incorporating the values of team building, perspective taking, compassion and mutual advocacy (Gottlieb et al., 2021). In short, good leaders are driven to succeed on

behalf of all stakeholders (e.g., shareholders, employees, customers, and society at large). True leaders are molded by learning how to incorporate and balance these *getting along* objectives with behavioral tendencies linked to *getting ahead* (Gottlieb et al., 2021). Too much getting along can lead to collective deference and stagnation, too much getting ahead to egocentric behavior and power grabbing (Hogan & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2011).

The personality drive to acquire power/authority and political savvy create the opportunity to lead, emotional connection is required to lead effectively (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Because dominance personality is ‘fixed,’ and emotional intelligence can be learned, hiring based on personality while training leaders for emotional intelligence skills makes the most sense (Kaiser & Curphy, 2013). Promotion to greater authority should show clear evidence of both, recognizing that without emotional intelligence acumen, it is highly probable that the ambitious manager is inherently prone to have less interpersonal skills than he/she needs to lead effectively (Hogan & Hogan, 2007).

REFERENCES

1. Antonakis, J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dasborough, M. T. (2009). Does leadership need emotional intelligence? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(2), 247–261.
2. Ames, D. R., & Flynn, F. J. (2007). What breaks a leader: The curvilinear relation between assertiveness and leadership. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 92(2), 307–324.
3. Aydin, E., Azizoglu, O., (2022). A new term for an existing concept- quiet-quitting- a self-determination perspective. *Researchgate*, October.
4. Bagshaw, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence – Training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(2), 61–65.
5. Barbour, H., (2021). Extreme humanism is excellence: The Tom Peters Interview. *HILTONBARBOURBLOG*, May.
6. Bariso, J., (2023). Personal communication with the author of *EQ Applied*. October 28, 2023.
7. Bass, B., Avolio, B., Jung, D., Berson, Y., (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Vol. 88, No. 2, 207-218.
8. Beck, R., & Harter, J. (2014). Why great managers are so rare. *Gallup Business Journal*, 25.
9. Boyatzis, R. E., (2018). The behavioral level of emotional intelligence and its measurements. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 9, 1438.
10. Boyatzis, R., Smith, M. L., Van Oosten, E., (2019). *Helping people change*. Harvard Business Review Press.
11. Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(9), 1147–1158.
12. Bradberry, T., 2023. *Emotional intelligence habits*. TalentSmart.
13. Brown, D. J., Keeping, L. M., (2005). Elaborating the construct of transformational leadership: The role of affect. *Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 245-272.
14. Brown, C. (2014). The effects of emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership style on sales performance. *Economic Insights-Trends & Challenges*, 66(3), 1–14.
15. Burns, J. M., (1978). *Leadership*. Harper-Collins.
16. Cavazotte, F., Moreno, V., Hickmann, M., 2012. Effects of leader intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and managerial performance. *The Leadership Quarterly* 23, 443-445.
17. Clifton, J. (2022). *Blind spot. The global rise of unhappiness and how leaders missed it*. Gallup Press.
18. Clifton, J., Harter, J., (2019). *It's the manager: Moving from boss to coach*. Gallup Press.
19. Colbert, A. E., Barrick, M. R., & Bradley, B. H. (2014). Personality and leadership composition in top management teams: Implications for organizational effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 67(2), 351–387.
20. Connelly, S., Ruark, G., (2010). Leadership style and activating potential moderators of the relationships among leader emotional displays and outcome. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(5), 745-764.
21. Day, A. L., Carroll, S. A., (2004). Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behavior. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 36(6), 1443-1458.
22. Dietl, E., Meurs, J., Blicke, G., (2016). Do they know how hard I work? Investigating how implicit/explicit achievement orientation, reputation, and political skill affect occupational status. *European Journal*

- of Work and Organizational Psychology.
23. Dunning, D., (2015). On identifying human capital: Flawed knowledge leads to faulty judgements of expertise by individuals and groups. *Advances in Group Processes, Volume 32, 149-176.*
 24. Ellemers, N., de Gilder, D., Van den Heuvel, H., (1998). Career-oriented versus team-oriented commitment and behavior at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83, 717-730.*
 25. Gallup. (2015). Business journals. Survey employee engagement. *Gallup.com*
 26. Gallup, Inc., (2022). State of the global workplace. *Gallup.com.*
 27. Gilar-Corbi, R., Pozo-Rico, T., Sanchez, B., & Castejon, J. (2019). Can emotional intelligence be improved? A randomized experimental study of a business-oriented EI training program for senior managers. *PLoS ONE, 14(10).*
 28. Gitnux Market Data, 2023. The most surprising unhappy employees statistics and trends in 2023.
 29. Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than iq.* Bantam.
 30. Goleman, D. (1998). What makes a leader. *Harvard Business Review, November.*
 31. Goleman, D. (2011). *Leadership, the power of emotional intelligence, selected writings.* Key Step Media.
 32. Gorgens-Ekermans, G., Roux, C., (2021). Revisiting the emotional intelligence and transformational leadership debate, how does emotional intelligence matter to effective leadership? *SA Journal of Human Resource Management. 1683-7584.*
 33. Gottlieb, T., Furnham, A., & Klewe, J. B. (2021). Personality in light of identity, reputation and role taking: a review of socioanalytic theory. *Psychology, 12(12), 2020–2041.*
 34. Harter, J., Mann, A., (2017). *Gallup workplace, Business Journal.*
 35. Harvard Business Review (2018). Review of the mind of the leader. *HBR Store.*
 36. Hodzic, S., Scharfen, J., Ripoll, P., Holling, H., & Zenasni, F. (2018). How efficient are emotional intelligence trainings: A meta-analysis. *Emotional Review, 10(2), 138–148.*
 37. Hogan, J., Holland, B., (2003). Using theory to evaluate personality and job-performance relations: A socioanalytic perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 88, No. 1, 100-112.*
 38. Hogan, R., & Hogan, J. (2007). *Hogan personality inventory manual* (3rd ed.). Hogan Assessment Systems.
 39. Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2005). What we know about leadership. *Review of General Psychology, 9(2), 169–180.*
 40. Hogan, R., & Chamorro-Premuzic, T. (2011). Personality and the laws of history. In T. Chamorro-Premuzic, S. von Stumm, & A. Furnham (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of individual differences* (491–511). Wiley Blackwell.
 41. Hogan, R., & Sherman, R. A. (2020). Personality theory and the nature of human nature. *Personality and Individual Differences, 152, 109561.*
 42. Hongal, P., Kinange, U., (2020). A study on talent management and its impact on organization performance-an empirical review. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research. 10(1).*
 43. Hougaard, R., Carter, J., (2018). *The mind of the leader.* Harvard Business Review Press.
 44. Johnson, R., (2023). What’s new about quiet quitting (and what’s not). *Transdisciplinary Journal of Management.*
 45. Jones, A. M., & York, S. L. (2016). The fragile balance of power and leadership. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership, 9(2).*
 46. Joseph, D. L., Newman, D. A., 2010. Emotional Intelligence: an integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of applied psychology 95(1), 54.*
 47. Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist, 63(2), 96–110.*
 48. Kaiser, R. B., & Curphy, G. (2013). Leadership development: The failure of an industry and the opportunity for consulting psychologists. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research, 65(4), 294–302.*
 49. Kim, H., Kim, T., (2017). Emotional Intelligence and transformational leadership: A review of empirical studies. *Human Resources Development Review, 16(4), 377-393.*
 50. Kotsou, I., Mikolajczak, M., Heeren, A., Grégoire, J., & Leys, C. (2019). Improving emotional intelligence: A systematic review of existing work and future challenges. *Emotion Review, 11(2), 151–165.*
 51. Kuzior, A., Kettler, K., Mylonas, Rab, L., (2022). Great resignation-ethical, cultural, relational, and personal dimensions of generation x and z employees. *Employees’ Engagement Sustainability, 14(11), 6764.*
 52. Laker, B., Cobb, D., Trehan, R., (2021). *Too*

- proud to lead: how hubris can destroy effective leadership and what to do about it.* Bloomsbury Publishing.
53. Lee, C., Yeh, W., Yu, Z, Lin, X., (2023). The relationships between leader emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership and job performance: A mediator model of trust. *Heliyon* 9, e18007.
 54. Lim, M. D., & Lau, M. C. (2021). Can we “brain-train” emotional intelligence? A narrative review on the features and approaches used in ability EI training studies. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12, 569749
 55. Luthans, F., Hodgetts, H., Rosenkrantz, F., & Ashton, S. (2019). *Real managers revisited*. Hogan Press.
 56. Mayer, J. D. (2004). Leading by feel. Be realistic. *Harvard Business Review*.
 57. Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2018). Emotional intelligence and authentic leadership: A meta-analysis. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 39(5), 679–690.
 58. Morris, J. A., Brotheridge, C. M., Urbanski, J. C., (2005). Bringing humility to leadership: antecedents and consequences of leader humility. *Human relations* 58 (10), 1323-1350
 59. Nayar, V., (2013). Three differences between managers and leaders. *Harvard Business Review*.
 60. Nelson, E., Hogan, R., (2009). Coaching on the dark side. *International Coaching Psychology Review*. 4(1).
 61. O’Boyle, E. H., Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J. M., Hawver, T. H., Story, P. A., (2011). The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(5), 788-818.
 62. O’Connor, P. J., Hill, A., Kaya, M., & Martin, B. (2019). The measurement of emotional intelligence: A critical review of the literature and recommendations for researchers and practitioners. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1116.
 63. Palmen, D. G., Derksen, J. J., & Kolthoff, E. (2020). High self-control may support ‘success’ in psychopathic leadership: Self-control versus impulsivity in psychopathic leadership. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 50,
 64. Perrin, T., (2008). Closing the engagement gap. A roadmap for driving superior business performance. *Global Workforce Study*.
 65. Peters, T., Waterman, R. (1982). *In search of excellence*. Harper & Row.
 66. Peters, T., (2021). *Excellence now: Extreme humanism*. NetWorlding Publishing.
 67. Riggio, R. E., Zhu, W., Reina, C., & Maroosis, J. A. (2010). Virtue-based measurement of ethical leadership: The Leadership Virtues Questionnaire. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 62(4), 235–250.
 68. Sainato, M., (2022). Amazon could run out of workers in two years. *The Guardian*.
 69. Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., 1990. Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition, and personality*. 9(3), 185-211.
 70. Shaw, K. L., (2019). Bosses matter: The effects of managers on workers’ performance. *IZA Institute of Labor Economics*.
 71. Sharma, D. (2017). Impact of age on emotional intelligence and its components. *International Journal of Research and Innovation in Social Science*, 1(1), 13–20.
 72. Sheldon, O. J., Dunning, D., Ames, D. R., (2013). Emotionally unskilled, unaware, and uninterested in learning more: Reactions to feedback about deficits in emotional intelligence. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(1), 125-137.
 73. Smith, R. A., (2022). Quiet quitters make up half the U.S. workforce, gallup says. *Wall Street Journal*.
 74. Sorenson, S., (2013). How employee engagement drives growth. *Gallup Business Journal*, 1, 1-4.
 75. TalentsmartEQ. (2022). Institutional research and analytics. *Talentsmart Inc*.
 76. Van Vugt, M., Hogan, R., Kaiser, R. K., (2008). Leadership, followership, and evolution. *American Psychologist*, 63(1), 182-196.
 77. van der Linden, D., Pekaar, K. A., Bakker, A. B., Schermer, J. A., Vernon, P. A., Dunkel, C. S., & Petrides, K. V. (2017). Overlap between the general factor of personality and emotional intelligence: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 143(1), 36–52.
 78. Winsborough, D., Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., (2009). An evolutionary view what followers want from their leaders. *Leadership in Action. Center for Creative Leadership and Jossey-Bass*, 29(3).