

EXECUTIVES' ABILITY TO CONDUCT BOUNDARY SPANNING ACTIVITIES: THE ROLE OF PERSONALITY, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRUST

Uyi Lawani, Marshall University
lawani@marshall.edu

ABSTRACT

Several studies on the social ties of executives have focused on their effect on organizational strategy and performance. These studies highlight the benefits that accrue to a firm owing to the boundary spanning activities of executives. So far, researchers have paid minimal attention to the discreet, underlying personality factor(s) that may enable the successful initiation and sustenance of these inter-organizational relationships. This paper examines the role of personality factors on the ability of executives to forge ties and enhance their organization's overall performance. The suggestion is that affective and cognitive trust mediates the relationship between personality factors and positive social ties.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational theory and strategic management researchers have continuously focused on the study of strategic inter-firm alliances and networks for some time now. The tempo of research focus in this area has barely waned since it blossomed into something of an industry from the late 80s through the 90s (Koza & Lewin, 1998) and to the present. Sociologists have vehemently argued that the performance of markets and organizations is profoundly impacted by the embeddedness of economic behavior in networks of social ties or affective interpersonal relationships (Coleman, 1984; Turner, 1999). Gulati (1998) further emphasizes that structural sociologists suggest that "the most important facet of an organization's environment is its social network of external contacts" (p. 295). Networks are therefore very important because they build on the concept that economic actions are affected by social activities and by the position of actors in these networks.

For networks to be meaningfully sustained, they have to be driven by collaborative relationships. These relationships rely on relational forms of exchange characterized by high levels of trust (Dwyer, Schurr, & Oh, 1987). Network participants view trust as an explicit and primary feature of the relationship. Besides contextual exigencies (e.g. environmental uncertainties, transaction costs dynamics, etc.), personality traits can be drivers in the willingness and ability of individuals to forge and sustain trust-based relationships.

The big five personality dimensions originally defined by Norman (1963) and modified by Barrick & Mount (1991) suggest that affect based trust can be driven by extraversion, emotional stability, and agreeableness. Cognition-based trust, on the other hand, could be driven by

conscientiousness and openness to experience. According to Wong & Law (2002), the quality of interactions can be affected by emotional intelligence (EI) because it (EI) concerns the ability of leaders to be both emotionally aware and emotionally regulated. In effect, the level of EI could predispose the ability to forge trust-based relationships. EI should be expected to engender both affect and cognition-based trust. As a leadership quality, Salovey & Mayer (1990) define EI as the ability of people to deal with their emotions—the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions. It includes the ability, therefore, to discriminate among these feelings and emotions and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

This paper examines the relationship between personality and the ability of executives to network and conduct boundary spanning activities. The mediating role of trust in this relationship is also considered.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Boundary Spanning

The distinction between members and non-members of an organization serves as a minimal defining trait of the formality of that organization (Aldrich & Herker, 1977). Organizations, therefore, exist to the extent that some individuals and/or entities are admitted while others are not. In essence, boundaries can be drawn around an organization (Thompson, 1962). This definition of organizations in terms of boundaries also provides a lens for identifying the role of formal authority (Aldrich, 1971). Those charged with this role apply organizational rules in deciding who enters and exits the firm at different points in the life of the firm.

Given that organizational boundaries exist, spanning activities therefore suffice to maintain the integrity and sustainable survival of the organization. Aldrich & Herker (1977) posit that there are two classes of functions performed by boundary roles: “information processing and external representation” (p. 218). Whereas information flows into the organization through boundary spanning, external representation (via boundary spanning) exists through the links between organizations’ structure and environmental elements. Boundary role personnel may include sales persons, marketers, purchasing agents, recruiters, shipping and receiving agents, and so on and so forth. But the concern of this paper is with the role of organization executives as boundary spanners—as channels of information for and representatives of—the firm. Specifically, this paper dwells on the question: how does personality affect executives’ ability to forge ties, engage social networks, and conduct boundary-spanning activities?

Social Networks, Ties and Trust

Gulati (1998) informs that networks are crucial because organizations build on the logic that their economic actions are influenced by social contexts. Galaskiewicz (1996) has described the research in networks as a “handmaiden theory.” He describes it as such because the theory has often been used as a support for the amplification of other theories but rarely as a focus for its own development. The social network perspective evolved as a pattern that provides a theoretical framework for the guiding of data collection and analysis aimed at advancing the model of organizations as social entities beyond the metaphorical stage (Tichy, Tushman & Fombrun, 1979). Network data can presently be organized and tested to identify significant organizational processes at different levels of analysis. Social network theory is able to link the micro and macro approaches to organizational behavior (Crozier, 1972). The network perspective thus has a multi-level applicability.

Laumann, Galaskiewicz, and Marsden (1978) define a social network as “a set of nodes (e.g. persons, organizations) linked by a set of social relationships (e.g. friendship, transfer of funds, overlapping membership) of a specified type” (p. 458). Sociologists have vehemently argued that the performance of markets and organizations is profoundly impacted by the embeddedness of economic behavior in networks of affective interpersonal relationships (social ties) (Coleman, 1984). Further, Gulati (1998) emphasizes that structural sociologists suggest that “the most important facet of an organization’s environment is its social network of external contacts” (p. 295). These sociologists, he asserts, insist that “economic action—like any other form of social action—does not take place in a barren social context but rather, is embedded in social networks of relationships” (Gulati, 1998, p. 295).

This study adapts the definition of social networks from Mitchell (1969) – “a specific set of linkages among a defined set of persons, with the additional property that the characteristics of these linkages as a whole may be used to interpret the social behavior of the persons involved” (p. 2). The social network perspective views organizations as a system of objects, e.g., people, groups and organizations, joined by a variety of relationships. By applying the network approach at the inter-organizational level, the web of direct and indirect relationships between organizations could be made more explicit (Aldrich, 1977; Evan, 1966; Pennings, 1978).

Unlike a firm’s internal material resources, network resources are similar to social capital (Coleman, 1984) because they exist normally in the structure of relations between firms, rather than within the firms themselves. Inter-firm networks confer advantages in that firms learn about new opportunities through them (Gulati, 1999; Kogut, Shan & Walker, 1992), access information about environmental conditions, and augment their innovative capabilities (Ahuja, 2000). In the face of uncertainties, firms vicariously learn from the insights, experiences, or abilities previously accumulated by linked organizations (Darr, Argote & Epple, 1995; McEvily & Marcus, 2005). McEvily and Zaheer (1999) found that contacts’ diversity within a firm’s network, and participation in regional associations, expose the firm to new ideas, information, and opportunities which then lead to the acquisition of capabilities. One key insight obtained from the social networks literature is the idea that intermediaries (or organizational linkages) reduce search and other transaction costs associated with exchange (Galaskiewicz, 1985). These

intermediaries serve as go-betweens for potential exchange partners who would otherwise have been disconnected (McEvily & Zaheer, 1999).

According to Rowley (1997), researchers use social network analysis to extend the understanding of many behavioral and social phenomena. Rowley (1997) goes further to posit that relational systems, though often undervalued, are aspects of social life and have aided in the increase of “explained variance” in several social science models. Social actors are embedded in a relational system and this must be considered in order to understand their behaviors. Network analysis is therefore a necessary mode for examining relational systems in which actors thrive and to determine how these relationship structures impact behaviors. Social network analysis is primarily focused on the interdependence of actors and how their positions in networks influence their chances, limitations and behaviors (Wasserman & Galaskiewicz, 1994). For example, Wasserman and Faust (1994), in attempting to understand organizations’ propensities to adopt new technology, went beyond considering the typical examination of organizational attributes like size, age, structure, etc. that most social science researchers adopt. They adopted the network analysis approach exclusively in examining the pattern of relationships between members of the relevant network and argued that the structure of the network and the organization’s position in the network determined its propensity to adopt new technologies. Social network analysis should be regarded as a complement to studies involving other theories. This aligns with Rowley’s (1997) argument that network studies are not necessarily competing views, instead they are to be regarded as a complement. They are useful in describing structural elements and influences not captured by other theories.

The characteristic of networking or of relational exchanges that enables counterparts to concentrate on strategic benefits of the relationship is a high level of trust (Ganesan, 1984). This characteristic ultimately enhances organizational performance and reduces transactions costs (Noordewier, John, & Nevin, 1990). According to Uzzi (1997), trust is expressed as the belief that an exchange partner would not act in self-interest at another’s expense. Fukuyama (1995) posited that a critical manifestation of trust as a form of social capital is the spontaneous sociability such trust engenders. Social networks and ties are driven by interpersonal relationships and trust is thus the distinguishing characteristic of such relationships (Uzzi, 1997).

As a matter of importance, managers, as boundary spanners, develop and maintain trust relationships (McAllister, 1995). Trust is both affective and cognitive-based. It is affective-based in that it consists of emotional bonds between individuals (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985). People make emotional investments in trust relationships, express genuine care and concern for the welfare of partners, believe in the intrinsic virtue of such relationships, and believe that these sentiments are reciprocated (Pennings & Woiceshyn, 1987; Rempel, Holmes & Zanna, 1985). Trust is cognition-based in that individuals choose whom they will trust—in which respects and under what circumstances (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985).

Personality, Affective Trust, and Social Ties

In response to rapidly changing business environments, firms have resorted to seeking more creative and flexible means to ensure survival (Doney & Cannon, 1997). Prominent among the methods being adopted by organizations in response to these economic and business challenges is the forging of collaborative relationships with value chain members (suppliers, dealers, and customers). Dwyer, Schurr, and Oh (1987) insist that these collaborative relationships rely on relational forms of exchange characterized by high levels of trust. Collaborative relationships (or social ties) are therefore trust based and can be assumed to subsist for as long as the trust element is sustained. Trust should be expected to play a crucial role in engendering positive social ties.

However, research evidence contends that the foundation for trust-based relationships rests on the affective and cognitive judgment of individuals engaging in these interpersonal relationships. Lewis and Wiegert (1985) inform us that trust is affective-based in that it consists of emotional bonds between individuals. The cognitive component of trust stems from the notion that individuals choose whom they will trust, in which respects and under what circumstances (Lewis & Wiegert, 1985).

Personality traits should be expected to play a role in the extent to which individuals are able trust and ultimately sustain trust-based collaborative relationships. As acknowledged above, the dual perspective of trust (affect and cognition) helps to present a more holistic view of its mediating role in the personality–social ties relationship. This therefore presents the theoretical challenge of identifying the personality traits that relate separately with the affective and cognitive components of trust which in turn relates to positive social ties.

Despite the lingering disagreements about the precise meanings of the five factor personality model, studies have found that Norman's (1963) work appears to be significant because of the widespread use of his labels in the literature (Barrick & Mount, 1991). The five factors included in this model are extraversion, which is best considered through its two main facets: ambition and sociability (Hogan & Hogan, 1992); emotional stability; agreeableness; conscientiousness; and openness to experience. *Extraversion* will be used interchangeably with *sociability* in this study because the attributes of talkativeness and gregariousness which are germane to this study are better captured by the concept of sociability. A further discussion of this follows.

Extraversion has sometimes been referred to in the literature as “surgency” (Botwin & Buss, 1989). The traits frequently associated with it include being sociable, assertive, and talkative. Sociability augurs well for expressiveness and can thus engender emotional attachment between and among individuals who possess this trait. Sociability thus relates with the affective component of trust. Emotional instability, sometimes referred to as neuroticism (Borgatta, 1964), includes traits like anxiety, depression, and anger. Similar to the case of the sociability factor, the traits included in the emotional stability factor occasion affective tendencies. The level of anxiety, the manifestation of depression, and anger can determine the level of affective trust (positively or negatively) that an individual can generate in a relationship. This factor should thus be related to the affective component of trust. The agreeableness factor includes traits like courteousness, good-nature, forgivingness, and soft-heartedness. It is often referred to as

likability (Borgatta, 1964). These traits also straddle the affective component of trust: soft heartedness and courteousness tend to evoke affection; and when an individual possesses these traits, she/he is likely capable of trusting based on affection.

Proposition 1a: Sociability is positively related with affective trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

Proposition 1b: Emotional stability is positively related with affective trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

Proposition 1c: Agreeableness is positively related with affective trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

Personality, Cognitive Trust, and Social Ties

Conscientiousness or conscience (Botwin & Buss, 1989; Barrick & Mount, 1991) reflects dependability—being careful, thorough, responsible, and organized. Due to its relationship to a variety of educational achievement measures and its association with volition, this factor has also been referred to as “Will to Achieve” or just simply “Will” (Digman, 1989; Smith, 1967). Individual manifestations of these traits engender cognitive trust because these traits relate with the tendency to make choices on who to trust based on cognitive rationalizations. The openness to experience factor has been frequently interpreted as “Intellect” (Borgatta, 1964). A review of literature reveals the difficulty in identifying this factor. However, traits commonly attributed to it include being imaginative, curious, and intelligent. These are traits that also relate personality with trust by stimulating the cognitive element.

Proposition 2a: Conscientiousness is positively related with cognitive trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

Proposition 2b: Openness to Experience is positively related with cognitive trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

So far, it has been shown that all five personality factors relate with trust but that three of them—sociability, emotional stability, and agreeableness—relate with the affective component, while conscientiousness and openness to experience evoke the cognitive element of trust. Individuals are more like to trust affectionately when they possess the first three personality factors and cognitively when they possess the last two. It has also been shown that collaborative exchanges or interpersonal relationships are nurtured by trust.

Emotional Intelligence, Trust, and Social Ties

In recent times, scholars have increasingly argued that EI is critical to the performance of leaders (Wong & Law, 2002). It has been referred to as “a set of interrelated abilities possessed by individual to deal with emotions and when social interactions are involved, emotional awareness and emotional regulation become important factors” (Wong & Law, 2002). These factors, according to Wong & Law (2002), affect the quality of interactions. EI has its roots in the concept of social intelligence and, as mentioned earlier, social intelligence comprises of a person’s interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligences. While intrapersonal relates with one’s intelligence in dealing with oneself, interpersonal relates to one’s intelligence in dealing with others—it is the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions (Gardner, 1993; Wong & Law, 2002). Sternberg (1997) has provided examples to show that social intelligence may be more important than mental intelligence in insuring the success of managers and executives.

However, with relation to building trust-based relationships, EI becomes even more relevant in that it plays on both the affective and cognitive components of trust. The intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligences within the EI domain reflect the ability to regulate emotions within self (affective) and recognize emotions in others (cognitive) (Hooijberg, Hunt & Dodge, 1997). Gross (1998b) buttressed the simultaneous affective and cognitive nature of EI in his definition of emotional regulation. Emotional regulation refers to “the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them and how they experience and express these emotions” (p. 175).

Earlier the issue of emotions and their influence on trust was discussed. Here, the bearing of EI on emotions, both in the affective and cognitive perspective, has been highlighted. It can thus be safely inferred that the level of EI possessed by an individual would influence her/his ability to forge and sustain trust-based interpersonal relationships.

Proposition 3a: Emotional Intelligence is positively related with affective trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

Proposition 3b: Emotional Intelligence is positively related with cognitive trust which in turn relates positively with the ability to forge social ties and network.

A model depicting the linkages among the propositions mentioned above is presented on the next page.

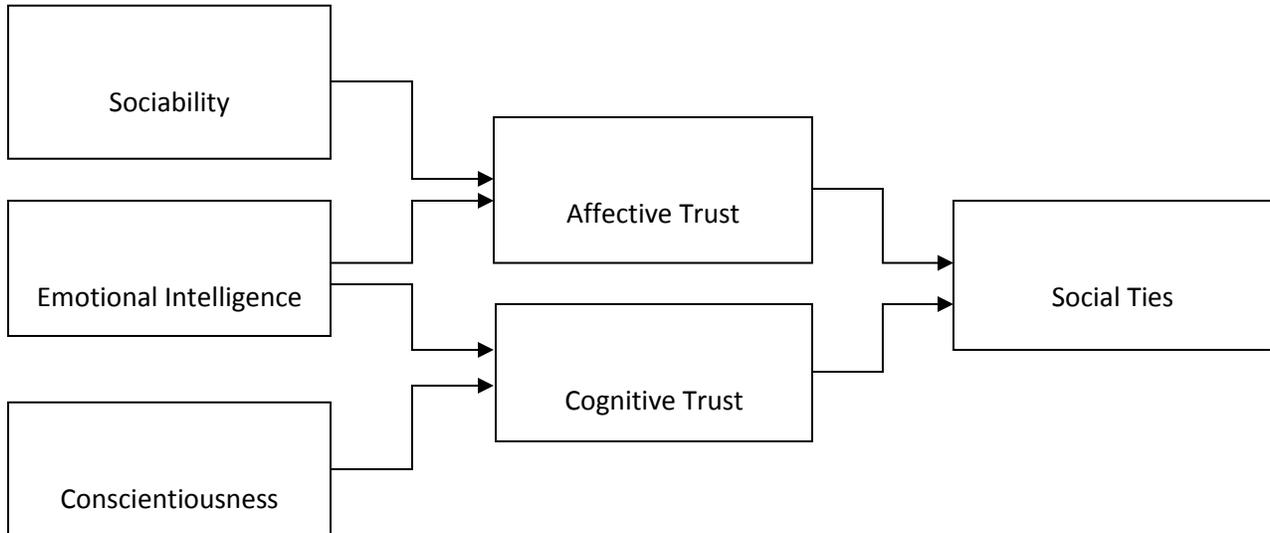


FIGURE 1: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF AFFECT AND COGNITION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERSONALITY, EI AND POSITIVE SOCIAL TIES.

CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEORY AND PRACTICE

I have adopted a multi-disciplinary approach to the subject by combining literature from strategic management, organizational theory, and organizational behavior. But there are also inherent implications for Human Resource practice because I have identified underlying precursors to executive management success at the firm level. On the one hand, the study connects personality factors and emotional intelligence with social network theory, and, on the other hand, it highlights strategic human resource management. The paper identifies factors germane in explaining the ability of executives to conduct boundary-spanning activities. It also presents an integration of these various facets—strategy, organizational theory and organizational behavior—of organization science.

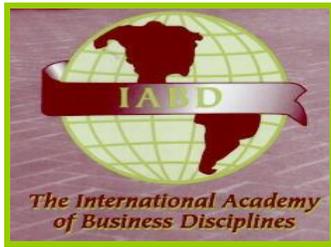
While there are legal and social issues involved in the hiring and firing of individuals based on personality traits, the usefulness of ensuring a proper match between a specific personality type and a particular type of job cannot be over-emphasized. For example, it is widely accepted that an extroverted person is better suited for a sales job than an introvert. This paper, therefore, has implications for HR practice and especially for selecting and deploying executives into roles that require intense levels of interpersonal relations and collaborative exchanges.

REFERENCES

- Ahuja, G. (2000). Collaboration Networks, Structural Holes, and Innovation: A Longitudinal Study. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 45(3), 425-455.
- Aldrich, H. (1971). Organizational Boundaries and Inter-organizational Conflict. *Human Relations*, 24: 279-287.
- Aldrich, H. (1977). Organization Sets, Action Sets, and Networks: Making the Most of Simplicity. In P. Nystrom and W. Starbuck (Eds.). *Handbook of Organizational Design*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Aldrich, H. & Herker, D. (1977). Boundary Spanning Roles and Organization Structure. *Academy of Management Review*, 2(2): 217-230.
- Barrick, M. R. & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five Personality Dimensions and Job Performance: A Meta-Analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(1): 1-25.
- Borgatta, E. F. (1964). The Structure of Personality Characteristics. *Behavioral Science*, 12: 8-17.
- Botwin, M. D. & Buss, D. M. (1989). Structure of Act-Report Data: Is the Five Factor Model of Personality Recaptured? *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 56: 988-1001.
- Coleman, J. S. (1984). Introducing Social Structure into Economic Analysis. *American Economic Review, Paper and Proceedings*, 74: 84-88.
- Crozier, M. (1972). Relationships Between Micro and Macro Sociology. *Human Relations*, 25: 239-251.
- Darr, E., Argote, L., & Epple, D. (1995). The Acquisition, Transfer and Depreciation of Knowledge in Service Organizations: Productivity in Franchises. *Management Science*, 41, 1750-1762.
- Digman, J. M. (1989). Five Robust Trait Dimensions: Development, Stability and Utility. *Journal of Personality*, 57: 195-214.
- Doney, P. M. & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An Examination of the Nature of Trust in Buyer-Seller Relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 61(2): 35-51.
- Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H. & Oh, S. (1987). Developing Buyer-Seller Relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 51(April): 11-27.
- Evan, W. M. (1966). The Organizational Set: Toward a Theory of Inter-organizational Relations. In J. Thompson (Ed.). *Organization design*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.
- Fukuyama, F. (1995). *Trust: The Social Virtues and the Creation of Prosperity*. New York: Free Press. p. 457.
- Galaskiewicz, J. (1985). Interorganizational Relations. *Annual Review of Sociology*, Vol. 11: 281-304.
- Galaskiewicz, J. (1996). The New Network Analysis and its Application to Organizational Theory and Behavior. In Iacobucci (Ed.). *Networks in Marketing*, 19-31. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. pp. 19-31
- Ganesan, S. (1994). Determinants of Long - Term Orientation in Buyer-Seller Relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 58(April): 1-19.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple Intelligences: The Theory in Practice*. NY: Basic Books.
- Gross, J. J. (1998B). Antecedent- and Response-Focused Emotion Regulation: Divergent Consequences for Experience, Expression and Physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(1): 224-237.

- Gulati, R. (1998). Alliances and networks. *Strategic Management Journal*, 19: 293-317.
- Gulati, R. (1999). Network location and learning: the influence of network resources and firm capabilities on alliance formation. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(5): 397-420.
- Hogan, R., & Hogan, J. (1992). *Hogan Personality Inventory manual*. Tulsa, Ok: Hogan Assessment Systems.
- Hooijberg, R., Hunt, J. G. & Dodge, G. E. (1997). Leadership Complexity and Development of the Leaderplex Model. *Journal of Management*, 23(3): 375-408.
- Kogut, B., Shan, W., & Walker, G. (1992). The Make-or-Cooperate Decision in the Context of an Industry Network. In Nohria & Eccles (Eds). *Networks and Organizations: Structure, Form and Action*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review. pp. 347-365.
- Koza, M. P. & Lewin, A. Y. (1998). The Co-evolution of Strategic Alliances. *Organization Science*. 9(3): 255-264.
- Laumann, E. O., Galaskiewicz, J., & Marsden, P. V. (1978). Community Structure as inter-organizational linkages. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 4: 455-484.
- Lewis, J. D. & Wiegert, A. (1985). Trust as a Social Reality. *Social Forces*, 63: 967-985.
- McEvily, B., & Marcus, A. (2005). Embedded Ties and the Acquisition of Competitive Capabilities. *Strategic Management Journal*, 26, 1033-1055.
- McEvily, B., & Zaheer, A. (1999). Bridging Ties: A Source of Firm Heterogeneity in Competitive Capabilities. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20, 1133-1156.
- McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and Cognition- Based Trust As Foundations For Interpersonal Cooperation in Organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(1): 24-58.
- Mitchell, J. C. (1969). The Concept and Use of Social Networks. In J. C. Mitchell (Ed.), *Social Networks in Urban Situations*. Manchester, England: University of Manchester Press.
- Noordewier, T. G., John, G. & Nevin, J. R. (1990). Performance Outcomes of Purchasing Arrangements in Industrial Buyer-Vendor Relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, 54 (October): 80-93.
- Norman, W. T. (1963). Toward an Adequate Taxonomy of Personality Attributes: Replicated Factor Structure in Peer Nomination Personality Ratings. *Journal of Abnormal & Social Psychology*, 66: 574-583.
- Pennings, J. M. (1978). Interlocking Directorates. Unpublished manuscript, Carnegie-Mellon Institute.
- Pennings, J. M. & Woiceshyn, J. (1987). A Typology of Organizational Control and its Metaphors. In S. B. Bacharach & S. M. Mitchell (Eds.). *Research in the Sociology of Organizations*, 5: 75-104. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Rempel, J. K. Holmes, J. G. & Zanna, M. D. (1985). Trust in Close Relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49: 95-112.
- Rowley, T. J. (1997). Moving Beyond Dyadic Ties: A Network Theory of Stakeholder Influences. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(4), 887-891.
- Salovey, P. & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3): 185-211.
- Smith, G. M. (1967). Usefulness of Peer Ratings of Personality in Educational Research. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 27: 967-984.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1997). Managerial Intelligence: Why IQ isn't Enough. *Journal of Management*, 23(3): 475-493.
- Thompson, J. (1962). Organizations and Output Transactions. *American Journal of Sociology*, 68: 309-325.

- Tichy, N. M., Tushman, M. L., & Fombrun, C. (1979). Social Network Analysis for Organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 4(4): 507-519.
- Turner, J. H. (1999). The Formation of Social Capital. In P. Dasgupta & Serageldin (Eds.), *Social Capital; A multi-faceted perspective*. Washington: The World Bank. pp. 94-146.
- Uzzi, B. 1997. Social Structure and Competition in Interfirm networks: The paradox of embeddedness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42: 35-67.
- Wasserman, S., & Faust, K. (1994). *Social Network Analysis: Methods and Applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wasserman, S., & Galaskiewicz, J. (1994). *Advances in Social Network Analysis: Research in the Social and Behavioral Sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Wong, C. & Law, K. S. (2002). The Effects of Leader and Follower Emotional Intelligence on Performance and Attitude: An Exploratory Study. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13: 243-274.



*Journal of
International Business
Disciplines*



Volume 11, Number 1

May 2016



Published By:

International Academy of Business Disciplines and Frostburg State University
All rights reserved

ISSN 1934-1822

WWW.JIBD.ORG