"*Words can hurt*": The role of leadership in the passionate workplace of the twenty first century. A discussion about indivudal sensitivity and pathocratic influence in the academic (university) environment.

Dr Phillip Walden Bowen

Abstract: *The Office for National Statistics find that productivity in the UK remains sluggish. They describe this as a productivity puzzle. One reason many be associated with the accidental manager. These are people who are appointed to leadership positions with little or no leadership/ management skills and can drain productivity. This suggests that, not withstanding the development of leadership/ management theories, there continues to be a problem that needs to be addressed. This journal article, begins by comparing and contrasting the terms leadership and management and reflects upon a few of the main theories. The findings propose that there is no one right approach to leadership. However, the leader needs to have the requisite skills to adapt and adopt the appropriate leadership style for the situation. This requires the leader to make decisions that involve cognition, intuition and emotion. Therefore, the leader of the twenty first century needs to be able to influence and collaborate with others while recognizing that "words can hurt" and that some people can be more sensitive than others. It is, therefore important that leaders develop their emotional intelligence skills. The leader of the twenty first century also recognizes the damaging impact that passion killers and pathocratic influence can have on the organization. These factors can help build a high performing, passionate and healthy workplace in which people feel valued. In summing up, the role of leader and follower is increasingly blurred. It acknowledges the significance of allowing followers to take responsibility while recognizing leadership is a process not a position.*

Keywords— Accidental manager; emotional intelligence; healthy workplace; leadership style; passion; passionate workplace; passion killers; pathocratic influence; productivity puzzle; sensitive; sensitivity; toxic leadership; toxic environment; words can hurt; values.

1. INTRODUCTION

Even before the challenges faced by the impact of Corona virus, the Office for National Statistics (ONS) find productivity in the UK as sluggish (ONS, 2015, 2019). The ONS (2015) refer to this as the *productivity puzzle.* One reason may be associated with the accidental manager, someone who just happens to be in the right place at the right time (Bowen, 2021; CMI, 2015; Topchik, 2004). The Chartered Management Institute (CMI, 2015) suggest that these people may be technically highly skilled, however, they have little or no management/ leadership skills. They do not appear to have the required skills of leadership, supervision and coordination (Attar, Gupta and Desai, 2012). Some of these people think that there is no need for management training and yet in the UK, 2.4 million managers are not performing at their best as they do not have sufficient training. (CMI, 2015, 2017). Furthermore, managers appear to get much of their information and knowledge from the mass media that can develop into fads or fashions that are intertwined with assumptions and beliefs together with what is perceived as common sense (Linstead, Fulop and Lilley, 2009). As pointed out by Stanley (2006) the most experienced managers may not be the most effective. These can be accidental managers who drain productivity (CMI, 2017).

A further reason for the *productivity puzzle* could be due to those characterized with personality traits associated with the dark triad (narcissism, Machiavellianism, psychopathy) (Furnham, 2011). Those appointed to leadership/ management positions may be articulate and exude charm but they may also be emotionally cold, arrogant and destructive (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). These people can take advantage of others without feeling, conscience or consideration of others (Jones and Paulhus, 2011). They can rise to positions of leadership, using *pathocratic influence,* creating a toxic environment in which to work (Lipman-Blumen, 2006). They are passion killers extinguishing the intrinsic flame of passion (Bowen, 2020, 2021).

The findings suggest that there is a problem that needs to be addressed. It is, therefore, important that the person appointed to a position of leadership/ management should have the requisite skills, qualities and personality traits that commensurate with the role of leadership in the twenty first century. The leaders of the twenty first century should understand that "*words can hurt*" and that passion killing (people and things) can have a detrimental impact on the organization (Bowen, 2020, 2021). This journal article, therefore, identifies the importance of developing skills associated with emotional intelligence and intra/interpersonal relationships. The journal article also reinforces the importance of developing and maintaining the healthy and passionate workplace. It is a place where people want to go to work.

Whereas discussion is partly made over to findings from the higher education (university) perspective, the content could be extended to the wider context of the leader in the twenty first century. The discussion begins with the debate about the difference between leadership and management.

2. LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

There appears to be continued debate as to whether the terms leadership and management can be defined as separate terms or are the same. There also appears debate as to how management/ leadership can be measured. It is, therefore, helpful to consider the on-going debate.

2.1 The debate

Bohoris and Vorria (2008) suggest that the terms leadership and management are often seen as the same thing. Linstead, Fulop and Lilley (2009) consider that leadership is incorporated into management. Managers are those who work through others focusing on achieving organizational aims and objectives (Bloisi, Cook and Hunsaker, 2003). They are *middletons,* people who intercede between those who undertake the work and the executive authority (Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis, 2011). Bass and Bass (2008) suggest that there is an overlap between leadership and management. However, there is disagreement as to the degree of overlap (Yukl, 2012). It may just a matter of style (Kotterman, 2006). Bloisi, Cook and Hunsaker (2003) advises that a manager has authority to be in charge while a leader provides direction while influencing others. Rost (1993) adds that a manager is a person who holds a position of authority and should not be associated with leadership, whereas a leader is a person who may not hold position of authority. Drucker (1996) adds to the debate pointing out that without followers there is no leader. Therefore, a leader is a person who has followers and does the right thing (Drucker, 1996; Thakur, 1998). Drucker (1996) also states that the role of leadership is a *responsibility* and should not be necessarily be associated with rank, position, money or title. What is important is that leaders are *doers* (Drucker, 1996). They influence others to voluntarily commit themselves to the organization's goals and vision (Bloisi, Cook and Hunsaker, 2003; Robbins and Judge, 2013).

Mango (2018) identifies over 66 management/ leadership theories and it is apparent that there is no consensual agreed definition. Kotterman (2006) adds that if there is no consensus then it is not possible to compare, contrast, test, measure or assess the findings from different studies. The term management, therefore, remains a controversial topic as it continues to raise disagreement between academics and practitioners (Linstead, Fulop and Lilley, 2009). Notwithstanding the complexity of defining and measuring leadership and management, models and theories are put forward to try and explain what and who makes an effective leader. For the purpose of this journal article the terms leadership and management are considered to be interchangeable. The next section reflects on a few of the main leadership/ management theories.

3. LEADERSHIP/ MANAGEMENT THEORIES

The traditional leadership theory focuses on the role leaders have on influencing followers where there is an assumption that there is a degree of hierarchy in the organization (Getha-Taylor, 2008). The leader rises to their position because they performed well in their previous role(s) and are trained to deliver via traditional hierarchy (Getha-Taylor, 2008). This approach appears to continue into the twenty first century (Agranoff, 2003; Getha-Taylor, 2008). However, to be successful in the twenty first century, leaders need to be able to understand the importance of collaboration and building coalitions. This requires the leader to have three skills: 1) influencing, 2) partnering, and 3) being political savvy (Agranoff, 2003; Getha-Taylor, 2008). There is, therefore, a clear demarcation between the traditional hierarchical approach of leadership to one that focuses on the collaborative approach.

To help explain the background to leadership/ management theory, this section begins with the *great man/* trait theory (Carlyle, 1841, 2007) and concludes with the social change model, asking if leaders are really necessary in the twenty first century.

3.1 The "Great man"/ trait theory

Boring (1950) describes the *great man* theory as being old as history. However, it is popularized in the nineteenth century by Thomas Carlyle (Carlyle, 1841, 2007). This theory suggests that people are born with innate leadership and behavioral traits. They are born to lead while others are born to follow (Marquis and Huston, 2009). This theory assumes that people are born with already formed personality traits and behavioral characteristics. It does not consider that people can learn, develop and become great leaders. This theory, therefore, does appear somewhat dated (Bowen, 2021). Furthermore, the *great man* theory does appear be a sexist term as it doesn't account for the many women who may become leaders. It may, therefore, be helpful that it is retitled as great leader or great person (Bowen, 2021). The *great man* theory is developed in the twentieth century focusing on particular personality traits that differentiate the effective leader from one who is ineffective (Reed and Bogardus, 2012; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991).

3.2 The trait approach

As with the *great man* theory the trait theory assumes people are born with innate leadership skills. The weakness of the trait approach is that it singles out successful leadership as being inherited, neglecting other factors such as background, experience, situation, context and environment (Bowen, 2021; Drucker, 1996). To help explain this, Stogdill and Shartle (1948) undertake a study of USA naval officers with the purpose of developing a methodological approach for studying leadership that includes responsibility, authority and delegation (R.A.D. index). They find that leadership is an *interactive* process between those who participate in goal orientated group activity. Stogdill (1948) also undertakes a review of earlier literature and finds that a person does not necessarily becomes a successful leader because they have particular traits. He also suggests that leadership can be learned. This is supported by the findings from a study undertaken by Arvey, Zhang, Avolio and Krueger (2007) who

find that genetics accounts for 32% in leadership role. It therefore suggests that the remaining 68% can be learned. Other factors are at play (Bowen, 2021).

To try and rationalize the term leadership, other theories are put forward. This includes the classical theory of management/ scientific management.

3.3 The classical theory of management/ scientific management

Two of the theorists associated with the classical theory of management/ scientific management are Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol. Taylor (1911, 2009) refers to four core management principles: 1) management is a science, 2) harmony and removal of conflict, 3) cooperation- not individualism, and 4) development of each person to maximize efficiency.

The theory focuses on *one best way* of doing a job that involves efficiency, predictability and control (Taylor, 1911, 2009). Efficiency is associated with increasing output and reducing underworking. Predictability is associated with reducing tasks to standardized sub-tasks. Control is the establishment and recognition of a system in which management decisions are implemented (Taylor, 1911, 2009). Jobs are repetitive and can be quickly learned. Therefore, people can be easily replaced with less time spent on learning the job. However, there are significant drawbacks to this system. Standardizing systems and processes require organizing, supervision and planning. This can lead to increased levels of supervision adding to organizational time and costs. Furthermore, jobs can become boring quickly. This can lead to higher turnover, increasing the cost of recruitment and training to the organization (Bowen, 2021).

Henri Fayol publishes his theory of administrative management in 1916 but it is not until 1949 that his book *"General and Industrial Management"* is translated into English by Constance Storrs (Fayol, 1949, 2013). Fayol divides management of organizations into six primary activities and functions as summarized in the table below:

Table 1: Management activities and functions (Fayol, 1949, 2013).

	Activity	Function
1	Technical.	Production, manufacturing, adaptation.
2	Finance.	Search for optimal capital.
3	Commercial.	Buying, selling, exchange.
4	Accounting.	Statistics, stocktaking, costs, balance sheet.

5	Security.	Protection of people and property.
6	Managerial.	Plan, coordinate, organize, develop output, command, control.

Fayol (1949, 2013) also identifies abilities associated with qualities and knowledge. These are summarized in the table below:

Table 2: Qualities and abilities (Fayol. 1949, 2013).

	Qualities.	Abilities.
1	Physical.	Health, vigor.
2	Mental.	Learn, understand, adaptability, mental vigor, judgment.
3	Moral.	Energy, loyalty, dignity, tact, firmness, initiative, willingness to accept responsibility.
4	General education.	General acquaintance with matters, but not exclusively, belonging to the function being performed.
5	Special knowledge.	Financial, technical, commercial, managerial, etc.
6	Experience.	Knowledge arising from experience in the working environment, recollection.

Fayol (1949, 2013) also identifies fourteen principles of management summarized in the table below.

Table 3: Principles of management (Fayol, 1949, 2013).

	Principles.	Explanation.
1	Specialisation of labor	To encourage continuous improvement in methods and skills.
2	Authority.	The right to give orders and to exact obedience.
3	Discipline.	Obedience by all to the organization.

4	Unity of command.	Each member of staff reports to one person.
5	Unity of direction.	Single plan is followed by all.
6	Subordination of individual interests.	Interests should be to the organization, not to the individual.
7	Remuneration.	Fair pay for work.
8	Centralisation.	Decision making is made centrally.
9	Scalar chain.	Clear and unambiguous chain of command/ authority.
10	Order.	People and materials need to be in a prescribed place.
11	Equity.	Fair and equitable treatment of all members of staff.
12	Personal tenure.	Lifetime employment provided to those who perform well, limiting turnover.
13	Initiative.	Designing plans and doing what is needed to achieve the organization's aims and objectives.
14	Espirit de corps.	Cohesion, harmony and minimization of conflict.

As with Taylor (1911, 2009), Fayol (1949, 2013) assumes that the same management approach can be applied universally to a logically structured organization. However, organizations can be complex and made of diverse systems and processes. They include people with different, desires, expectations, needs, background and personality. It is, therefore, too simplistic to apply a mechanistic, universal model as it can ignore psychological, social and emotional factors (Drucker, 1974, 1996). People have feelings that influence their behaviour. People have emotions and are influenced by social and environmental factors that shape how they behave in the organizational context. The behavioral and human relations approach is put forward to help explain this.

3.4 Behavioral management approach and human relations approach

The behavioral approach centers on *actual* behaviour. It recognizes the importance of psychological and social factors that influence the way people perform in the workplace (Bowen, 2021). The human relations approach focuses on how people *relate* with each other and acknowledges the importance of well-being (Bowen, 2021; Griffin, 2008; Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba, 2007).

Mayo (1933) comments that human problems are universal and are experienced throughout the world. He undertakes a study at the Chicago's Western Electric Hawthorne Works between 1924 and 1927. He finds eight women to volunteer to work in a separate room and has one of his colleagues to observe them. The findings from this part of the study shows that output increases due to: 1) participation and consultation in decision making, 2) being selected for involvement in the study, 3) higher levels of mutual support and dependence between the members of the group, 4) reduced levels of stress due to less intensive supervision, and 5) the effect of being observed by one of Mayo's team. This last point suggests the unintended influence of being observed can affect behaviour. This is described as the *Hawthorne effect* (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2016; Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis, 2011). One of the most interesting findings from this study is that output remains higher when members of the team return to their normal role (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2016). The findings from this study, therefore, reinforce the importance of having members of a group that encourage and support each other helping to develop high cohesiveness and norms. To temper the findings from the study Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939) point out that the Hawthorne experiment does not carry out a systematic study of the social factors across the *whole* organization. Therefore, findings are limited. However, it is considered as an important study in the area of organizational behavior and interpersonal relationships.

Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) put forward their own theory/ model that identifies three leadership styles 1) authoritarian, 2) democratic/ participative, and 3) laissez faire. The authoritarian leader maintains control by using a dictatorial approach directing others with demands and commands. Communication is downwards and there is little consultation with followers. This leadership style is often seen in bureaucratic organizations that can include the armed forces. The democratic/ participative leadership style involves followers in decision making. Communication is upwards and downwards and there is less control. This type of leadership is effective in organizations where coordination and cooperation are necessary. The laissez faire leadership style involves even less control allowing and trusting followers to set goals, pace of work, direction, and deadlines. Support and guidance are provided by the leader when requested.

Interpersonal (human) relationships has become an important topic in effective leadership. This leads the discussion into situational leadership that includes the need to

choose the right leadership style, at the right time, for the right situation (Bowen, 2021; Hollander, 2013).

3.5 Situational leadership theory

Situations and circumstances may require the leader to adopt different leadership styles. Greater value is placed on the role of involving followers in decision making and the importance of human relations (Mayo, 1939). Reddin (1967) puts forward three dimensions of management style: 1) relationship, 2) task, and 3) effectiveness. Building on this theory, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) put forward their own theory that they initially call the *life cycle theory of leadership.* They subsequently rename it as the *situational leadership theory*. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) construct a matrix of four styles: 1) telling, 2) selling, 3) participating and 4) delegating. However, the overall theoretical robustness of Hersey and Blanchard model is challenged as there appear to be internal inconsistencies and confusion with multiple versions of the model (Graeff, 1997; Nicholls, 1985; Vecchio, Bullis and Brazil, 2006).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) reinforce the importance of moving away from the directive and stereotypical leadership style that has existed in previous generations. They add that that focus should be on the members of the group rather than on the leader. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) introduce the leadership continuum where at one end is the boss centred approach where they tell, sell, suggest and consult, while at the other end is the follower centered approach where the leader abdicates responsibility, delegates and joins. For a leader to be successful, they should be able to engage in difference leadership styles dependent on the situation and circumstances.

An advantage of the situational leadership style is that it can be straightforward in its application. However, a criticism of the situational leadership style is how the leader decides as to which style is required for a particular situation (Bowen, 2021). Factors such as background, ability, gender, competence maturity, age, culture and experience may influence what, and how a, leader style is applied. It also appears that limited research has been undertaken into situational leadership theory (Ardichvili and Manderscheid, 2008; Chemers, 1997; Papworth, Milne and Boak, 2009; Wright, 2017). It would be helpful if further studies are undertaken to build on existing findings. This leads the discussion to the transactional and transformational approach.

3.6 Transactional and transformational approaches to leadership

Burns (1978) refers to transactional leadership as a means of motivating staff performance in exchange for reward and reprimanding people for errors. Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis (2011) add that transactional leadership is about paper work and budgeting with a little psychological support and motivation thrown in for good measure. Hartley and Benington (2010) explain that transactional leadership can be successful where there are clear task objectives and in a hierarchical environment. However, emphasis is on day-to-day matters and on behavioral compliance rather than an environment that engages in building relations (Whittington, Coker, Goodwin, Ickes and Marray, 2009). Rost (1993) also points out that transactional leadership does not appear to refer to the term *morality.* Therefore, leaders could use immoral approaches to achieving aims and objectives. Furthermore, transactional leaders may find it challenging to cope with the change process and major changes and this could limit the ability of the organization to compete in the globalised marketplace (Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis, 2011). Fineman, Gabriel and Sims (2010) explain that this traditional approach to management begins to change in the 1980's. Rather than being someone who runs an organization smoothly, a manager is an agent of change and renewal (Fineman, Gabriel and Sims, 2010).

This leads the discussion to transformational leadership. Burns (1978) explains that transformational leadership is about leaders who raise morality and motivation in others. It is about team building, inspiring and encouraging others to engage in personal and professional growth (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2016; Burns, 1978; Yukl, 2012). This leadership approach is likely to more effective in organizations that are unstable and dynamic (Buchanan and Huczynski, 2016; Yukl, 2012).

Whereas Burns (1978) considers transformational leadership to be superior to transactional leadership, Bass (1985) suggests that the effective leader is associated with both approaches. Avolio and Bass (2004) support this view and identify five leadership dimensions associated with the effective leader: 1) intellectual stimulation, 2) idealized attributes/ influence (perception the leader is energetic, optimistic and open), 3) idealized behaviour/ influence (the leader leads with integrity and purpose, and is prepared to take risks), 4) individualized consideration (supports and mentors others and sensitive to others), and 5) inspirational motivation (The leader envisions change and inspires others to have a clearer understanding of the vision). The leader, therefore, becomes a change agent, facilitating organizational and social change, transforming followers' personal values to support the organization's collective vision while showing integrity and genuine concern for staff (Bass, 1985; Fineman, Gabriel and Sims, 2010; Groves and LaRocca, 2011; Alimo-Metcalf and Alban-Metcalf, 2001).

Transactional and transformational leadership assumes that decisions made by leaders are correct. If incorrect, it could lead to followers engaging in a direction that can have negative impact upon the organization. For example, the leader may encourage followers to work longer hours and have heavier workload. This could lead to increased levels of stress and anxiety and possible burn out (Bowen, 2019; Bowen, 2021). From an organizational point of view this could impact on levels of productivity and output. This also assumes that the leader is skilled, able and trained to deliver the organization's vision. This could also help to partly address the *productivity puzzle* identified by the ONS (2015, 2019).

Bryman (1992) suggests that transformational leadership is associated with personality characteristics. However, Kouzes and Posner (1990, 2008) suggest that it is more inclined to be associated with behaviour and not personality. If leadership is associated with personality, it may be difficult to change personality traits (Northouse, 2013). Northouse (2013) adds that there is lack of conceptual clarity associated with transformational leadership. There also appears to be an overlap with other models of leadership that includes laissez faire and transactional approaches (Tejeda, Scandura and Pillai, 2001). This suggest that there is *no one best way* of leading a team and it may be more appropriate to adopt a leadership style that is contingent on the situation and circumstances.

3.7 Contingency approach

Fiedler (1966) contingency theory suggests that the leadership style is fixed and that the leader adapts their natural leadership style to fit with the situation. Therefore, the leader needs to be in a position of responsibility that reflects their style and is contingent on the favorableness of the task and/ or situation. Fiedler (1966) identifies three factors associated with situational control: 1) leader/ follower relations (the degree of respect and trust between the leader and the team), 2) task structure (clarity and preciseness of tasks to be performed), and 3) position power (the degree of authority conferred by the organization on the leader). These factors may help to enhance leader and follower experience, skills and knowledge. This could be reflected in the degree of influence the leader has over followers. However, relationships may become strained and feelings of stress may emerge affecting performance (Fiedler and Garcia, 1987).

Fiedler (1966) acknowledges that there is *no one best way* of leading a team. It, therefore, suggests that different styles of contingency leadership are required dependent upon the situation and task (Schermerhorn, 2010). The leader may, therefore, need to adopt the appropriate effective leadership style that is *beyond* their own natural leadership style. It suggests that a new leadership approach is required. This may include self-leadership/ management (Bryman, 1996; Gordon, 2011; Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis, 2011; Manz, 1983,1986; Manz and Sims, 1980, 1986).

3.8 New leadership approach

Ideas continue to proliferate in the 1980's and 1990's (Bryman, 1996). In the 1980's the term *management* changed from someone who runs an organization smoothly to someone who is an agent of change and renewal (Fineman, Gabriel and Sims, 2010). Roles and responsibilities are increasingly being shared between leader and follower. Furthermore, followers may not want or need leadership (Blom and Alvesson, 2015; Hunter, Bedell and Mumford, 2007). Thus, there is a move away from the traditional management theories and a move towards self-leadership/ management (Bryman, 1996; Gordon, 2011; Clegg, Kornberger and Pitsis, 2011; Manz, 1983, 1986; Manz and Sims, 1980, 1986). To help address the challenges associated with the transactional, transformation and contingency leadership approaches discussed above, debate is made over to the new leadership approach where the boundary between leader and follower is becoming more blurred.

The new leader is described as being charismatic, visionary and inspirational and is associated with the common good of the organization rather than on self-interest (Barrett, 2010; Northouse, 2013). This new approach is creating a new *super leadership* where people lead themselves and roles and responsibilities are dispersed among the team (Manz and Sims, 2001). Bryman (1996) describes this as *dispersed leadership*. The leader is becoming less central to leadership theory and the role of the leader becomes *interactional* (Konradt, 2014). Treadway, Bentley, Williams and Wallace (2014) also point out that effective leaders need to be skilled politicians. However, Gordon (2011) advises that the literature does not appear to give enough focus to the political dynamics and the challenges that may exist with sharing power between the leader and the followers. Further research is recommended in this area.

There may, also, be wider social, economic and environmental factors that influence leadership skills including social, gender, disability and racial inequalities. This leads discussion to the social change model. It is a conversation about the wider responsibility of leadership in the twenty first century.

3.9 Social change model

Astin (2001) refers to a plague in America, where there is growing economic inequality, decline in civic engagement, disappearance of communities and excessive materialism. Thomas (2019), comments that the top 1% of society is accumulating greater power, wealth and control over the rest of society that in turn is undermining democracy. In their analysis of inequalities in the twenty first century, Joyce and Xu (2019) point out that the poor are being left behind by those who are rich; the young are left behind by the old; regions left behind by larger towns and cities and the unskilled worker is being left behind by the highly educated. To exemplify this, Levanon and Grusky (2016) refer to the persistence of extreme gender segregation in the twenty first century. The highest paid men earn significantly more than the highest paid women (Oh, 2020). Furthermore, only 5% of the top chief executives in the Financial Times Stock Exchange (FTSE) are women (Ohr, 2020). Stamarski and Son Hing (2015) add that the most harmful gender inequality is found in human resource practices that affect pay, training, promotion and hiring of women. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2017) report that there are inequalities in education, employment and health that start from a very young age. Inequality can no longer be treated as an afterthought (Thevenot, 2017). It is, therefore, helpful to create a society that is more equal and cohesive that engages in social change. This includes the role of leadership.

To rethink the term leadership, the Higher Education Research Institute (HERI, 1996) put forward the social

change model. This brings together individual, group and community values (Skendall and Ostick, 2017). Rather than leadership being based upon title or position, the social change model regards leadership as an *integrated process* that is purposeful, values driven and collaborative, and has become a widely used leadership model associated with student development programs (Astin, 1996; HERI, 1996; Kezar, Carducci and Contreras-McGavin, 2006; Komives, Wagner and Associates, 2017). It acknowledges that differences may occur, emphasizing the need for civility while building respect and trust (Astin, 1996; HERI, 1996). The Social Change Model raises the importance of cultivating leaders who are able to understand systematic social problems and advance community justice and well-being, especially for those who are marginalized (Museus, Lee, Calhoun, Sanchez-Parkinson and Ting, 2017).

Critiques of the social change model point out that it appears to be more aspirational when contrasted with organization realities (Skendall and Ostick, 2017). However, society continues to build a hostile environment for those less well off (Thomas, 2019). The Social Change Model may not be perfect however, it does challenge the existing perceptions of social dynamics (Summers-Effler, 2002). It also challenges the perceived role of the traditional leader. It can be described as a useful approach to consider in the toolbox of different leadership models and theories while helping to focus attention on the promotion of social change (Twemlow, Fonagy and Sacco, 2005).

Each of the above theories has its own strengths and each has its own drawbacks. Watson (1986) adds to the debate proposing that leadership is a mixture of four main areas: 1) science (leadership can be learned, 2) art (one is born with the skill), 3) politics (understanding the unwritten laws of life and playing the game to win), and 4) magic (recognizing that things just happen). However, Buchanan and Huczynski (2016) point out the complexity of identifying agreed common leadership attributes. They add that common successful and effective leadership attributes defy measurement and classification.

The challenges of defining and measuring leadership and the blurring of roles between leader and follower raises the question as to the role of the leader in the twenty first century.

4. THE ROLE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE TWENTY FIRST CENTURY.

Organizations continue to be pressurized by a challenging global market place. Demands may require people to perform and work harder while having to cope with tight deadlines and increased levels of workload and responsibility (Bowen, 2021). The role of leader and follower is becoming more integrated. It is, therefore, helpful if leaders and followers work cohesively. They work as a team that support each other. To facilitate this change, leaders need to recognize that it is not just a matter of *telling* followers what to do. It is moving well beyond the traditional and transactional approach. It is about allowing followers to take responsibility while recognizing leadership is a *process* and not a position. Thus, the leader and

follower need to want to change (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2008). A symbiotic and synergistic relationship between the leader and follower can help maintain a healthy and passionate organization (Marquis and Huston, 2009). It is one in which the leader understands their own emotions, understands emotions in others and manages these emotions effectively (Goleman 1995, 1996, 1998a, 1998b). In other words, they understand the role of emotional intelligence.

4.1 Emotional intelligence

The workplace is *"saturated with emotions"* (Ashforth and Humphrey, 1995:97). With an increase in those working in the service industry, staff are likely to be more emotionally engaged with the customer and this leads to greater interest in the role of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Bowen, Pilkington and Rose, 2016; Briner, 1999). Priyanka and Taranjeet (2016) go so far as to say that it is the most important factor that influences performance in organizations.

The term "*emotional intelligence*" first emerges in a German publication "*Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie*" (Leuner, 1966). It first appears in English in an unpublished dissertation by Payne (1986). In 1990, Salovey and Mayer bring the term to main stream academia. It becomes a more widely known term following the publication of Goleman's book *"Emotional intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ"* (Goleman, 1995). As pointed out by Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011, 2014), leadership is associated with emotions and emotional intelligence. They identify five levels of leadership and emotion as summarized in the table below.

Table 4: Multiple level perspective of leadership and emotion (Ashkanasy and Humphrey, 2011, 2014).

Level.	Explanation
Level 1.	Leaders generate and manage affective events that result in emotional states, leading to positive or negative behaviour/ attitudes.
Level 2.	Leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence. Leaders also demonstrate individual differences in their own ability so as to perceive and manage emotions.
Level 3.	Leaders engage in the right amount and type of emotion.
Level 4.	Effective leadership is associated with group emotion contagion.
Level 5.	Leadership and respective emotions are viewed from a wider organizational perspective.

There are three main approaches to defining and measuring emotional intelligence (ability, mixed and trait). Salovey and Mayer (1990) describe emotional intelligence as an *ability*. They explain that it is to reason emotions in oneself and others and how these emotions influence the thought process. The ability model focuses on the *actual* emotions and how they interact with thought (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey and Caruso, 2000, 2002; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, and Sitarenios, 2003; Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

Goleman (1995, 1996), refers to the *mixed model* of emotional intelligence. He associates his model with emotional and social competencies that contribute to management performance and leadership skills. Goleman (2000) identifies four dimensions of emotional intelligence: 1) self-awareness, 2) self-management, 3) social awareness, and 4) social skills. The mixed model includes mental abilities related to intelligence, emotions and personality traits and dispositions (Bar-On, 1997, 2002; Boyatzis, 2006; Boyatzis and Sala, 2004; Goleman, 1996, 1998a). The mixed model combines ability and trait theory that includes biological factors and is also not really substantiated by empirical data and research (Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts, 2002).

Petrides and Furnham (2000, 2001) put forward their own model of emotional intelligence that they associate with *traits,* behaviour and emotions. However, psychologists point out that *intelligence* is outside the scope of personality traits as it includes abilities (Costa and McCrae, 2006). There is a contradiction in terms, an oxymoron, as trait emotional intelligence is associated with personality (traits) and is also described as an intelligence (Bowen, 2019, 2021; Costa and McCrae, 2006). Thus, if it is an intelligence, it cannot be associated with personality. To try and overcome the confusion, Petrides and Furnham (2001) replace the term *traits* with *dispositions* and redefine *trait emotional intelligence* as *emotional self-efficacy*. Petrides (2011:657), therefore, defines trait emotional intelligence as a *"constellation of self-perceptions that are located at lower levels of personality hierarchy"*. This may help clarify the terminology. However, it does not resolve the differences of opinion regarding definition, methodological approach and theoretical foundation (Bowen, 2021).

The different approaches suggest that emotional intelligence could be associated with biology, cognition, non-cognition (patterns of behaviour and thought), competency, ability and personality. As Hunt and Fitzgerald (2013) explain there isn't a gold standard instrument to measure emotional intelligence; therefore, those undertaking studies in organizational behaviour and leadership should be mindful of this.

It is apparent that there is a lack of consensus as to the definition, theoretical foundation and methodological approach to measuring emotional intelligence (Bowen, 2019, 2021; Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2013). Notwithstanding the lack of consensus, numerous studies are undertaken on each of the models associated with emotional intelligence (for example:

Bowen, Pilkington and Rose, 2016; Goleman, 1996, 1998a, 2019a, b; Goleman and Boyatzis, 2008; Mayer and Salovey, 1993, 1997; Salovey, Brackett and Mayer, 2004; Salovey and Mayer, 1990). The table below provides a few examples of studies undertaken on each of the models.

Table 5: Examples of emotional intelligence studies.

	Model	Source
1	Ability model	Augusto Landa, Lopez-Zafra, Martinez de Antonana, and Pulido (2006). Brackett and Salovey (2006). Curci, Lanciano, Soleti, Zammuner and Salovey (2013). Delhom, Gutierrez, Lucas-Molina and Melendez (2017). Lanciano and Curci (2014). Ruiz-Aranda, Extremera and Pineda-Galan (2013). Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey and Palfai (1995). Salovey, Stroud, Woolery and Epel (2002). Sanchez-Alvarez, Extremera and Fernandez-Berrocal (2015). Zeidner and Matthews (2016).
2	Mixed	Bar-On, Brown, Kirkaldy and Thome (2000). Dehghan, Karimzadeh, Teymouri and Rostami (2019). Fernandez-Berrocal, Alcaide and Extremera (2006). Fry, Bennett and Caldwell (2006). Hemmati, Mills and Kroner (2004). Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski (2004). Parker, Taylor and Bagby (2001). Schutte, Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Bhullar and Rooke, (2006).
3	Trait	Bowen, Rose and Pilkington (2016). Chamorro-Premuzic, Bennett and Furnham (2007). Chirumbolo, Picconi, Morelli and Petrides (2019). Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl and Rindermann (2008). Mavroveli, Petrides, Rieffe and Bakker (2010). Mavroveli and Sanchez-Ruiz (2010). Petrides and Furnham (2003). Uva, de Timary, Cortesi, Mikolajczak, de Blicquy and Luminet (2010). Vernon, Villani, Schermer and Petrides (2008).

As exemplified above, a substantial number of studies has been undertaken on the ability, mixed and trait emotional

intelligence models suggesting that there is evidence to support the concept that emotional intelligence does exist. It is on this premise that emotional intelligence exists as an identifiable construct (Bowen, 2019, 2021).

Studies undertaken show that emotions are associated with physical and mental health suggesting that to mismanage negative emotions can cause illness (for example: Alexander and French, 1946; Bowen, 2019, 2021; Bowen, Pilkington and Rose, 2016a; Dunbar, 1954; Friedman, 1990, Gross, 1998). Examples of associated causes include: anger inhibition, heart disease, chronic hostility and hypertension (for example: Dembroski, MacDougall, Williams, Haney and Blumenthal, 1985; Jorgensen, Johnson, Kolodziej and Schreer, 1996; Julkunen, Salonen, Kaplan, Chesney and Salonen, 1994; Suls, Wan, and Costa, 1995). If people are unwell, they may not be able to perform at their best. They may take time off from work. They may leave the organization. They may cause stress and anxiety in others leading to increased levels of absence and attrition. This can impact on their ability to perform effectively. It can also impact of the ability of the organization to compete effectively in the global marketplace. It is, therefore, recommended that the organization provide training and development for all members of staff to develop their skills in emotional intelligence.

Being a leader incorporates the need for intuition that engages the unconscious mind to help understand that which is non-rational (Gardner, 1993). It is, therefore, of interest to reflect on the role of intuition in the role of leadership in the twenty first century and its relationship with emotional intelligence.

4.2 Intuition

Intuition is a gut feeling that just comes naturally and is considered to be an important skill that can help productivity. (Agor, 1989; Goodwin, 2006). It is described as knowing what has to be done, while reaching a conclusion, based on less explicit information than that usually needed to reach that conclusion. (Strick and Dijksterhuis, 2011; Westcott, 1968). Intuition incorporates acute sensitivity to inner feelings (Wanless, 2015). Chick (2013) explains that it is being critically aware of oneself as a thinker and as a learner. It is a heightened dimension of emotional intelligence that is considered to be a most sought-after quality of leadership (Wanless, 2015). Whereas intuition appears to be innate, learning how to tap into it can be helpful in enhancing life's experiences (Gawain, 2000; Walsh, 2013).

Each person has their own goals, aspirations and personality. These can be influenced by factors such as background, experience, gender, race, culture and age. Furthermore, there is a growing body of literature that supports the view that decision making involves cognition, emotion and intuition (for example: Akinci and Sadler-Smith, 2019; Hodgkinson and Sadler-Smith, 2018; Lerner, Li, Valdesolo and Kassam, 2015; Simon, 1987; Soosalu, Henwood and Deo, 2019). The findings from these studies suggest that developing

skills in emotional intelligence can improve intuition and decision making (Cholle, 2011; Dillard, 2010). It is, therefore, recommended that all members of staff should be given training and encouraged to develop skills helping them to connect to their intuitive side as well as building emotional intelligence skills.

One of the challenges faced by leaders is that some people may be more sensitive to external stimuli. They may arouse emotions that increase their levels of stress and anxiety and the feeling of being overwhelmed (Bowen, 2019; Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2016; Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2018). It is, therefore, helpful to discuss the role of sensitivity.

4.3 Sensitivity

Pluess, Lionetti, Aron and Aron (2020) explain that some people are more sensitive and others are less sensitive to their environment. They also find that sensitivity lies across a continuum where higher sensitivity is associated with high neuroticism and high openness to experiences. Granneman (2019) suggests that those who are highly sensitive are more inclined to have brains that process information more deeply and this includes thoughts, emotions and sensory input. Granneman (2019) adds that those who are more highly sensitive are highly alert and are able to tune in to those around them. To help explain this, Aron and Aron (1997) put forward the highly sensitive person scale that they associate with high levels of sensory processing sensitivity (SPS). Aron, Aron and Jagiellowicz, (2012) suggest that SPS is genetically determined and can lead to increase of sensitivity in the central nervous system while engaging the person in greater cognitive processing of physical, social and social stimuli. In a study undertaken by Grimen and Diseth (2016), they find that SPS relates positively with openness and neuroticism and negatively with extroversion. Acevedo, et al (2014) report that SPS is found in approximately 20% of the population and is associated with greater sensitivity and responsiveness to social stimuli and the environment. In this context, sensitivity can be described as an internal cognitive, emotional and/ or physiological reaction to external stimuli. Therefore, someone who is at the higher end of the sensitivity continuum, as described by Pluess, Lionetti, Aron and Aron (2020), is more prone to feeling stressed and feeling overwhelmed.

Within the university environment Smyth (2017:5) identifies the term *"pathological organizational disfunction"* that has enveloped universities in an audit culture associated with marketisation, metrification and competition. On the surface organizations may appear to show concern and compassion, however, underneath they are *"circuit boards of scientific rationality"* (Gatto, 2001:305). Smyth (2017) adds that these organizations lack conscience, blindly following the ideology of profitability. This kind of culture can encourage toxic leadership who can engage in impulsive and destructive behaviour together with emotional turbulence (Bowen, 2020; Goldman, 2009). Leaders, therefore, need to *care*. They need to care about others. This should extend to acknowledging that some people may be more sensitive than others. To investigate

this further, Bowen (2021) undertakes a study of university academics (one being a researcher, one who has retired and the others lecturers). The aims of the study are to find out academic's experience as to:

- *"How stress and pressure may impact on feelings of well-being."*
- *"The role emotional intelligence may have to play in helping academics cope with challenging intra and interpersonal relationships."*
- *"The role management theory has to play in the organization of the twenty first century."*

Semi structured interviews are undertaken of twenty academics ranging from ten minutes to one and half hours. The contributions from the participants provide interesting feedback that draw out and exemplify personal experiences supporting, illustrating and adding texture and colour to the discussion. To maintain confidentiality, and anonymity, means of personal identification are removed. Each person is invited to participate by e mail advising that participation is voluntary and that they can withdraw at any time, up until the final draft of the publication. Three people request that their information is not shared and withdraw, one before transcription and two after. They do not offer a reason and this is respected. Therefore, findings from a total of seventeen academics are included into the study. Findings from the semi structured interviews are discussed in *"Passion killers: the art of passion killing in the age of stress and anxiety"* (Bowen, 2021), however, the following extracts from an extended interview with Peter helps to exemplify the role sensitivity plays in intra and interpersonal relationships within the organizational context. It demonstrates how Peter's line manager appears to lack sensitivity as to how he is feeling and the impact that it is having on his work and personal life. Peter's experience also demonstrates how *"words can hurt".*

Peter is a retired university lecturer with fifteen years' experience. He provides discussion as to his experience. He states that his line manager *"called me in to her office and pointed out that what I was doing was confusing .... students don't understand, and that there may be complaints ..... I was totally shocked and all I could do was to keep apologizing .... When a colleague came in to drop a form off on the line managers desk, I rose to leave thinking that she had another appointment. My line manager said "I haven't finished with you yet...... We can fall out if you want to?" When I checked afterwards, I noted that the meeting went on for one and half hours. I was just shell shocked....* When asked to explain how he felt, Peter then says *"I was numb.... I felt anger, disappointment and fear.... all in one.... It just happened..... It came out of the blue..... I was unprepared....I made the decision that I couldn't stay and had to leave the university..... but I didn't want to.... I have friends, family here* (name of town provided) *.... I didn't want to leave.... even talking about it now it causes internal conflict .... it really causes pain .... I had worked so hard to achieve a lifetime goal of becoming a university lecturer. I felt so proud to say that I was a university lecturer....and then I am faced with...."*

Peter continues *"I am dyslexic....I have never been tested but know that I am dyslexic. I was asked if it would be ok for me to be referred for testing.... I didn't object..... but.... but.... I felt that I was being pressurized into it.... but I didn't want to face possible capability procedures .... I hate confrontation.... If demands were not met threats were made.... that capability procedures would be instigated, and action followed through. It created a feeling of .... fear. No single person was targeted. However, some felt it more than others. It really was a passion killer........some people just seem to have the art of passion killing don't they?"*

At a later date, Peter is *".... called back in to see my line manager and told again that what I was doing was unacceptable. She pointed out spelling and grammatical errors in a document that had hurriedly been put together. As in the previous meeting, she made it clear that errors were unacceptable and asked again if I had been checked for dyslexia. She said that "I have been in contact with HR to refer you for testing" and asked me if I had heard anything. I shook my head. She then asked again if I wanted to be referred .... I was feeling really low.... physically and psychologically.... this confrontation with my line manager really hurt.... Words can hurt.... They really hurt me...."*

Peter is then asked to provide more detail. He starts hesitantly. *".... I loved being a university lecturer..... When the new line manager came in, there appeared to be a period of about six months where things continued in a similar way.... The way they had with previous managers.... However, one day at a monthly team meeting, the new line manager said to us all, ".... if you think things are bad now, wait until next year".... She said.... "you haven't seen anything yet...." I had no idea what she meant.... I knew that there is ongoing pressure...but...."*

After a number of experiences with his line manager Peter feels that *".... that was it ..... no more ..... It was really demeaning, talked at in such a way by my line manager .... I just had enough .... I came home ..... spoke with my partner ..... and then drafted and forwarded my resignation to my line manager and the Dean .... I just had enough .... I was exhausted with all this ...."*

When asked about the emotions felt Peter responds by saying *"anger, ... I was very angry .... I internalized that .... In meetings with my line manager, I was shaking .... shaking with rage ..... but I controlled it .... I kept it in .... I wanted to .... I felt fear .... fear of what and when the next thing would be raised .... fear of meeting my line manager ..... fear .... It was causing me so much internal imbalance ..... I was being pulled in so many different directions. I tried to take my mind off things with gardening, running .... DIY, ... In hind sight, I can see how stressed I was .... all that effort and time given over to developing .... Mindfulness .... I spent years learning and developing mindfulness training..... and then.... it just*

went out the window .... it drained away quickly ..... I felt completely drained .... you know .... Exhausted .... there is only so much you can take .... I just couldn't do it anymore .... Something had to give .... I had to take action ...."

Reflecting on his experience (s) with his line manager, Peter acknowledges *".... I am sensitive ..... I know I am sensitive ..... That is why I don't like criticism. I was like it as a child .... It is who I am .... I feel other people's emotions. I have really tried to contain emotional engagement and internalize the emotion. Maybe I need to let go .... but I can't."*

It does appear that being highly sensitive is associated with increased feelings of distress (Brindle, Moulding Bakker and Nedelijkovic, 2015). This is demonstrated by the experience Peter has with his line manager. There is likely to be a point where, like Peter, enough can be enough. As Peter explains *"words can hurt…. some people just seem to have the art of passion killing"*. He does appear to be working with toxic leadership that suggests a culture of pathological organizational disfunction. Even having learned and developed skills in mindfulness, Peter is unable to cope with the stress caused and feels there is no other option other than to leave the organization. Peter may be more sensitive than others, however it does demonstrate the importance of leaders recognizing that some people can be more sensitive than others. Leaders need to *care*.

It would be helpful if further studies are carried out building on existing findings. However, leaders should understand that *words can hurt* and can act as a passion killer. As demonstrated by Peters experience it is important that organizations recognize the role of passion killers.

4.4 Passion killers

Passion killers can be things and people that include: conflict, lack of trust, intimidation, team dysfunction, threat and fear, feelings of uncertainty, destructive criticism, negative feedback, animosity, aversion, demotivation, demoralization and a repressive working environment (Bowen, 2020, 2021). People who are passion killers include those who use *pathocratic influence*. They create a cabal of like-minded individuals, while seeking to take advantage over others, to the detriment of well-being in others. These people can be destructive and behave unethically increasing feelings of stress and anxiety in an organization. At its worst, these dangerous personalities and disordered minds can destroy organizations (Hughes, 2018). Bowen (2020, 2021) compares passion killers (people and things) with a virulent pathogen that can quickly spread throughout the organization creating a toxic environment to work. If passion killers are not stopped their effect can be long lasting and possibly terminal for the organization and the individual (Bowen, 2020, 2021). It is, therefore, important that passion killers be identified and action taken to remove their influence.

Leaders should be encouraged to develop skills that complement a cohesive and healthy organization; one that can be described as a passionate workplace that emphasizes the role of passion as an added value and where people *want* to come to work.

4.5 The passionate workplace

There does not appear to be an agreed definition of the term *values* (Kirschenbaum, 2013; Tiempo, 2005). Furthermore, values are considered to be intangible and highly abstract (Xiao, 2001). However, Schwartz (2012) considers values as a central concept in social science that play a key role in shaping society, groups and individuals. These values are summarized in the table below.

Table 6: Values (Schwartz, 2012).

	Relationship between value items.	Value item.	Explanation.
1	Openness to change.	Self-direction.	Independent thought and action that involves choosing exploring and creating.
2		Stimulation.	Excitement, challenge, novelty.
3		Hedonism.	Pleasure, sensual gratification.
4	Self enhancement.	Achievement.	Personal success, competence, social approval.
5		Power.	Social status, control, dominance over others.
6	Conservationism.	Security.	Harmony, safety, inter and intrapersonal relationships.
7		Conformity.	Control of impulses and actions that may upset the social norms and expectations.
8		Tradition.	Respect, commitment and acceptance of cultural and religious traditions.

9	Self-transcendence.	Benevolence.	Enhancing and preserving the welfare of others in the "*in group*" (for example, honest, forgiving, thoughtfulness, loyalty, friendship).
10		Universalism.	Extending understanding, tolerance, appreciation and protection of welfare to all people and the environment.

Passion is associated with emotions such as sadness, hatred, love, joy and admiration (for example: Descartes, 1649, 1989; Dixon, 2003; Fleming, 2013, Frank, 1991, Frijda, 2007). These emotions contribute to micro politics, social bonds interpersonal relationships (Bloch, 2016). Passion can, therefore, be seen as an intrinsic value that can fuel the internal fire to perform (Bowen, 2021). It acts as an intrinsic motivator. Bowen (2020, 2021) also suggests that the term passion can be an added value that can influence other values as defined by Schwartz (2012).

Passion is an inherent emotional characteristic that exists in each person (Hardgrove and Howard, 2015). It comes from within that helps motivate and drive a person. It is a value that can help people to work effectively and efficiently to meet organizational aims and objectives (Bowen, 2020). To harness this passion, leaders need to engage people physically, emotionally and cognitively (Kahn, 1990; Morton, 2017; Stein, 2017; Thomas-EL, Jones and Vari, 2019). Therefore, followers do not need to be pushed, if passion already exists (Bennett, 2016). It is the skill of the leader to fan the fires of intrinsic passion that can enhance performance. It reinforces the need to recognize the impact that passion killers can have on individual, team and organizational performance.

If harnessed effectively, passion can help build the passionate and healthy workplace. It can help build high performing cultures in which leaders strike a sensible balance between leadership support and accountability of followers ensuring that people are productive as possible (Bowen, 2020; Melena, 2018).

The passionate workplace includes people who feel valued. This includes good intra and interpersonal relationships that creates a working environment that includes: meaningful work, variety, autonomy, collaboration, work/life balance and a connectedness with colleagues and leader (Zigarmi, Houson, Witt and Diehl, 2011). The passionate workplace is inclusive. It values people for who they are and what they offer the organization.

It is important to understand that not all passion is good (Ho and Pollock, 2014). It can be divided into a dualistic viewpoint of good and bad. For example, passion can be defined as harmonious and obsessive. Harmonious passion is a voluntary, but not an overpowering, urge to engage in higher job creation that is *positively* associated with mental health and increased performance (Ho, Wong and Lee, 2011; Patel, Thorgren and Wincent, 2015; Suchy, 2007; Vallerand, 2012; Vallerand and Houlfort, 2003). In contrast, obsessive passion is associated with an uncontrollable urge that is *negatively* associated mental health and performance (Forest, Mageau, Sarrazin and Morin, 2010; Hao, He and Long, 2018; Ho, Wong and Lee, 2011; Patel, Thorgren and Wincent, 2015; Siren, Patel and Wincent, 2016; Suchy, 2007; Vallerand, 2008, 2010, 2012; Vallerand and Houlfort, 2003).

It is, therefore, important that leaders recognize and understand the differences between harmonious and obsessive passion and the role they may have on well-being and performance. Furthermore, rather than seeing harmonious and obsessive passion from a dualist view point, leaders should see them along a continuum (Bowen, 2020, 2021). Organizations should, therefore, provide training and development to inform all members of staff the difference between harmonious and obsessive passion and to build policies and procedures that clearly demonstrate to all members that they feel valued. This can help develop the organization into one that is a healthy and passionate place to work.

5. CONCLUSIONS

Beginning with the concept of the *great man* notion, management theory has evolved through the twentieth century. The role of the leader and follower appears to be increasingly blurred. There is a symbiotic and synergistic relationship between the leader and follower can help maintain a healthy and passionate organization (Marquis and Huston, 2009). It is one in which the leader understands their own emotions, understands emotions in others and manages these emotions effectively (Goleman 1995, 1996, 1998a, 1998b). In other words, they understand the role of emotional intelligence.

Each organization should ensure that they have the right person, in the right place, doing the right thing at the right time (Bowen, 2021; Hollander, 2013). They need to bring out the passion in people creating a healthy and passionate workplace in which people *want* to come to work. The passionate workplace includes leaders who inspire colleagues to build and develop skills in emotional intelligence and fan the flames of intrinsic passion that can enhance organizational success. This requires the leadership styles to be adopted, adapted and flexible so as to reflect individual differences. Furthermore, leaders need to recognize that some people can be more sensitive than others and that "*words can hurt*". Therefore, organizations should identify and remove passion killers and

take action against those who use *pathocratic influence* (Bowen, 2020, 2021).

In summing up, it is important that leaders of the twenty first century have skills in emotional intelligence, intuition and to understand that some people can be more sensitive than others. Leaders need to have skills in influencing, partnering, and to be political savvy, underpinning the importance of collaboration between people in the organization (Agranoff, 2003; Getha-Taylor, 2008). It is recognizing leadership is a *process*, not a position.

In conclusion, the content of this paper may go some way to help explain the *productivity puzzle* as identified by the ONS (2015, 2019) and, the suggestions and recommendations made, can help build the passionate and healthy workplace that can differentiate itself from other organizations.

References

[1] Acevedo, B. P., Aron, E. N., Aron, A., Sangster, M-D., Collins, N. and Brown, L. L. (2014). The highly sensitive brain: an fMRI study of sensory processing sensitivity and response to other emotions. Brain and Behaviour, 4 (4), pp. 580-594.

[2] Agor, W. H (1989). Intuition in organizations: leading and managing productivity. Sage Publications.

[3] Agranoff, R. (2003). Leveraging networks: a guide for public managers working across organizations. Arlington, VA: IBM Endowment for the Business of Government.

[4] Akinci, C. and Sadler-Smith, E. (2019). Collective intuition: implications for improved decision making and organizational learning. British Journal of Management, 30 (3), pp. 558-577.

[5] Alexander, F. and French, T. M. (1946). Psychoanalytic therapy: Principles and applications. New York: Ronald Press.

[6] Alimo-Metcalf, B. and Alban-Metcalf, R. J. (2001). The development of a new transformational leadership questionnaire. Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 74 (1), pp. 1-27.

[7] Ardichvili, A. and Manderscheid, S. V. (2008). Emerging practices in leadership development: An introduction. Advances in developing human resources, 10 (5), pp. 619-631.

[8] Aron, E. N. and Aron, A. (1997). Highly sensitive person scale (HSPS) [Database record] APA PsychTests. APA PsycNet Direct.

[9] Aron, E. N., Aron, A., and Jagiellowicz, J. (2012). Sensory processing sensitivity: A review in the light of the evolution of biological responsivity. Personality and Social Psychology Review, 16 (3), pp. 262–282.

[10] Arvey, R. D., Zhang, Z., Avolio, B. J. and Krueger, R. F. (2007). Development and genetic determinants of leadership role occupancy among women. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92 (3), pp. 693-706.

[11] Ashforth, B. E. and Humphrey, R. E. (1995). Emotion in the workplace.A reappraisal. Human Relations, 48, pp. 97-124.

[12] Ashkanasy, N. M., and Humphrey, R. H. (2011). A multi-level view of leadership and emotions: Leading with emotional labour, in: A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson and M. Uhl-Bien (eds). Sage handbook of leadership. Sage Publications, pp. 365–379.

[13] Ashkanasy, N. M. and Humphrey, R. H. (2014). Leadership and emotion: a multilevel perspective, in: D. V. Day (ed). The Oxford Handbook of Leadership and Organizations. Oxford University Press, pp. 783-804.

[14] Astin, A. W. (2001). Forward, in: C. L. Outcalt, S. K. Faris and K. N. McMahon (eds). Developing non-hierarchical leadership on campus: case studies and best practices in higher education. Greenwood Press.

[15] Astin, H. S. (1996). Leadership for social change. About campus: enriching the student learning experience. College Student Educators International, 1 (3), pp. 4-10.

[16] Attar, A. A., Gupta, A. K. and Desai, D. B. (2012). A study of various factors affecting labour productivity and methods to improve it. Journal of Mechanical and Civil Engineering, 5 (9), pp. 11-14.

[17] Augusto Landa, J. M., Lopez-Zafra, E., Martinez de Antonana, R. and Pulido, M. (2006). Perceived emotional intelligence and life satisfaction among university teachers. Psicothema, 18 (Supplement.), pp. 152-157.

[18] Avolio, B. J. and Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire. Mind Garden. [Online] Available at: https://sage.figshare.com/articles/journal_contribution/sj -pdf-1-pms-10_1177_0031512520985760_-_Supplemental_material_for_Adolescent_Athletes_Perc eptions_of_Both_Their_Coachs_Leadership_and_Their _Personal_Motivation/13568112/files/26036904.pdf

[19] Bar-On, R. (1997). The Emotional Inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

[20] Bar-On, R. (2002). Bar-On emotional quotient inventory- short (Bar-On EQ-Is). Psychology Resource Centre, York University. [Online] Available at: https://psycentre.apps01.yorku.ca/wp/baron-emotional-quotient-inventory-short-baron-eq-is/

[21] Bar-On, R., Brown, J. M., Kirkaldy, B. D. and Thome, E. P. (2000). Emotional expression for occupational stress; an application of the Emotional Quotient inventory (EQ-i). Personality and Individual Differences, 28 (6), pp. 1107-1118.

[22] Barrett, R. (2010). The new leadership paradigm: a leadership development textbook for the twenty-first century leader. Lulu.com.

[23] Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectation. Free Press.

[24] Bass, B. and Bass, R. (2008). The Bass handbook of leadership: theory, research and managerial applications. 4th edn. Free press.

[25] Bennett, R. Y. (2016). The light of the heart: inspirational thoughts for living your best life. Roy Bennett.

[26] Bloch, C. (2016). Passion and paranoia: emotions and the culture of emotion in academia. Routledge.

[27] Bloisi, W., Cook, C. W. and Hunsaker, P. L. (2003). Management and Organizational behaviour. McCraw Hill Education.

[28] Blom, M. and Alvesson, M. (2015). Less followership, less leadership? An inquiry into the basic but seemingly forgotten downsides of leadership. Management, 8 (3), pp. 266-282.

[29] Bohoris, G. and Vorria, E. P. (2008). Leadership vs management: business excellence/ performance management view. Lund University, Campus Helsingborg. [Online] Available at: http://ndl.ethernet.edu.et/bitstream/123456789/79485/3/ecp0726076.pdf

[30] Boring, E. G. (1950). Great men and scientific progress. Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society, 94 (4), pp. 339-351.

[31] Bowen, P. W. (2019). Emotional intelligence does it really matter? A guide to coping with stgressful expereinces. Vernon Press.

[32] Bowen, P. W. (2020). Passion: an added value. The role of passion in the healthy workplace. International Journal of Academic Management Science Research, 4 (12), pp. 4-22.

[33] Bowen, P. W. (2021). Passion killers: the art of passion killing in the age of stress and anxiety. Vernon Press.

[34] Bowen, P., Pilkington, A. and Rose, R. (2016). The relationship between emotional intelligence and well-being in academic employees. International Journal of Social Science Studies, 4 (5).

[35] Bowen, P. W., Rose, R. and Pilkington, A. (2016). Perceived stress amongst university academics. American International Journal of Contemporary Research, 6 (1), pp. 22-28.

[36] Bowen, P. W., Rose, R. and Pilkington, A. (2018). Coping with international relationships within higher education (universities). International Journal of Academic Multidisciplianry Research (IJAMR)., 2 (4), pp. 1-11.

[37] Boyatzis, R. E. (2006). Using tipping points of emotional intelligence and cognitive competencies to predict financial performance of leaders, Psicothema, 18 (Supplement), pp. 124-131.

[38] Boyatzis, R. E. and Sala, F. (2004). Assessing emotional intelligence competencies", in: G. Geher (ed). The Measurement of Emotional Intelligence. Novas Science Publishers. Hauppauge, pp. 147-80.

[39] Brackett, M. A. and Salovey, P. (2006). Measuring emotional intelligence with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Psicothema, 18, pp. 34-41.

[40] Brindle, K., Moulding, R., Bakker, K. and Nedelijkovic, M. (2015). Is the relationship between sensory processing sensitivity and negative affect mediated emotional regulation? Australian Journal of Psychology, 67 (4), pp. 214-221.

[41] Briner, R. B. (1999). The neglect and importance of emotion at work. European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychcology, 8 (3), pp. 323-346.

[42] Bryman, A. (1992). Charisma and leadership in Organizations. Sage Publications.

[43] Bryman, A. (1996). Leadership in Organizations, in: S.R. Clegg, C. Hardy and W. R. Nord, (eds). Handbook of Organizational studies. Sage, pp. 276-292.

[44] Buchanan, D. A. and Huczynski, A. A. (2016). Organizational behaviour. 9th edn. Prentice Hall.

[45] Burns, J. M. (1978). Leadership. Harper and Row.

[46] Carlyle, T. (1841, reprint 2007). On heroes, hero-worship and the heroic in history. Echo Library.

[47] Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Bennett, E. and Furnham, A. (2007). The happy personality: mediational role of trait emotional intelligence. Personality and Individual Differences, 42 (8), pp. 1633-1639.

[48] (The) Chartered Management Institute (CMI) (2015). Watch: the curse of the accidental manager. [Online] Available at: https://www.managers.org.uk/insights/news/2015/september/watch-the-curse-of-the-accidental-manager

[49] (The) Chartered Management Institute (CMI) (2017). How accidental managers are draining productivity. [Online] Available at https://www.managers.org.uk/insights/news/2017/september/how-accidental-managers-are-draining-productivity

[50] Chemers, M. M. (1997). An integrative theory of leadership. Psychology Press.

[51] Chick, N. (2013). Metacognition: thinking about one's own thinking. Centre for Teaching. [Online] Available at: https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/metacognition/

[52] Chirumbolo, A., Picconi, L., Morelli, M. and Petrides, K. V. (2019). The assessment of trait emotional intelligence: psychometric characteristics of the TEIQue-full form in a large Italian sample. Frontiers in Psychology, 9 (2786).

[53] Cholle, F. P. (2011). The intuitive compass: why the best decisions balance reason and instinct. Jossey-Bass.

[54] Clegg, S. Kornberger, M. and Pitsis, T. (2011). Managing and Organizations: an introduction to theory and practice. 3rd edn. Sage.

[55] Costa, P. T. Jr. and McCrae, R. R (2006). Trait and factor theories, in: J. C. Thomas and D. L. Segal (eds). Comprehensive handbook of personality and psychopathology (vol. 1, personality and everyday functioning). Wiley and Sons, pp. 96-114.

[56] Curci, A., Lanciano, T., Soleti, E., Zammuner, V. L. and Salovey, P. (2013). Construct validity of the Italian version of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSEIT) V2.0. Journal of Personality Assessment, 95 (5), pp. 486-494.

[57] Dehghan, M. N., Karimzadeh, M., Teymouri, R. and Rostami, M. (2019). Prediction of perceived stress based on self-concept and emotional intelligence in females with HIV/ AIDS. Postmodern Openings/ Deschideri Postmoderne, 10 (1), pp. 1-20.

[58] Delhom, I., Gutierrez, M., Lucas-Molina, B. and Melendez, J. C. (2017). Emotional intelligence in older adults: psychometric properties of the TMMS-24 and relationship with psychological well-being and life satisfaction. International Psychogeriatrics, 29 (8), pp.1327-1334.

[59] Dembroski, T. M., MacDougall, J. M., Williams, R. B., Haney, T. L. and Blumenthal, J. A. (1985). Components of type A hostility and anger-in: Further relationships to angiographic findings. Health Psychology, 4 (2), pp. 137-152.

[60] Descartes, R. (1649, 1989). Les passions de l'ame (the passions of the soul). Tran: by: S. Voss. Hackett Publishing Company.

[61] Dillard, S. (2010). Love and intuition: a psychic's guide to creating lasting love. Llewellyn Publications.

[62] Dixon, T. (2003). From passion to emotions: the creation of a secular psychological category. Cambridge University Press.

[63] Drucker, P. F. (1974). Management: tasks, responsibilities, practices. Harper and Row.

[64] Drucker, P. (1996). Your leader is unique. Good news: there is no one "leadership personality". Christianity Today International /Leadership Journal, 17, pp. 54-55.

[65] Dunbar, F. (1954). Emotions and bodily changes. New York:Columbia University Press.

[66] Fayol, H. (1949, reprint: 2013). General and industrial management. Tran: C. Storrs. Martino Fine Books.

[67] Fernandez-Berrocal, P., Alcaide, R., Extremera, N. and Pizarro, D. A. (2006). The role of emotional intelligence in anxiety and depression among adolescents. Individual Differences Research, 4 (1), pp. 16-27.

[68] Fiedler, F. E. (1966). The effective leadership and cultural heterogeneity on group performance: a test of the contingency model. Journal of Experiemntal Social Psychology, 2 (3), pp. 237-264.

[69] Fielder, F. E. and Garcia, J. E. (1987). New approaches to effective leadership: cognitive resources and Organizational performance. John Wiley and Sons.

[70] Fineman, S., Gabriel, Y. and Sims, D. (2010). Organising and Organizations. 4th edn. Sage.

[71] Fleming, J. E. (2013). Passions and emotions: nomos LIII. NYU Press.

[72] Forest, J., Mageau, G. A., Sarrazin, C. and Morin, E. M. (2010). Work is my passion": the different affective behavioural, and cognitive consequences of harmonious and obsessive passion towards work. Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences, 28 (1), pp. 27-40.

[73] Frank, R. H. (1991). Passions within reason: the strategic role of the emotions. Norton.

[74] Freudenthaler, H. H., Neubauer, A. C., Gabler, P., Scherl, W. G. and Rindermann, H. (2008). Testing and validating the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) in a German speaking sample. Personality and Individual Differences, 45 (7), pp. 673-678.

[75] Fry, C. M., Bennett, R. and Caldwell, S. (2006). Team emotional intelligence and team interpersonal process effectiveness. American Journal of Business, 21 (1), pp. 49-58.

[76] Friedman, H. S. (1990). Personality and disease. New York: Wiley.

[77] Frijda, N. H. (2007). The laws of emotion. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

[78] Furnham, A. (2011). Managing people in a downturn. Palgrave MacMillan.

[79] Gardner, J. W. (1993). On leadership. The Free Press.

[80] Gatto, J. (2001). The underground history of American education: an intimate investigation into the prison of modern schooling. Oxford Village Press.

[81] Gawain, S. (2000). Developing intuition practical guidance for daily life. Nataraj Publishing.

[82] Getha-Taylor, H. (2008). Reconsidering leadership theory and practice for colloborative governance: examining the U.S. coast guard. In: R. Fleishman, C. Gerard and R. O'leary (Eds). Pushing the boundaries: new frontiers in conflict resolution and colloboration. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, pp. 151-173.

[83] Goldman, A. (2009). Destructive leaders and dysfunctional organizations: a therapeutic approach. Cambridge University Press.

[84] Goleman, D. (1995). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ. Bantam Books, New York.

[85] Goleman, D. (1996). Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ. Bloomsbury Publishing PLC.

[86] Goleman, D. (1998a). Working with emotional intelligence. Bantam Books: New York.

[87] Goleman, D. (1998b). What makes a leader? Harvard Business Review, 76 (6), pp. 93-102.

[88] Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. Harvard Business Review, 78 (2), pp. 78-90.

[89] Goleman, D. and Boyatzis, R. (2008). Social intelligence and the biology of leadership. Harvard Business Review.

September. [Online] Available at: https://hbr.org/2008/09/social-intelligence-and-the-biology-of-leadership

[90] Goodwin, N. (2006). Leadership in health care: a European perspective. Routledge.

[91] Gordon, R. (2011). Leadership and Power, in: A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson and M. Uhl-Bien (eds). The Sage book of leadership. Sage. pp.195-202.

[92] Graeff, C. L. (1997). Evolution of situational leadership theory: a critical review. The Leadership Quarterly 8 (2), pp. 153-170.

[93] Granneman, J. (2019). 21 signs you're a highly sensitive person. Highly sensitive refuge. 13th December. [Online] Available at: https://highlysensitiverefuge.com/highly-sensitive-person-signs/

[94] Griffin, R. (2008). Fundamentals of management. Houghton Miffin Company.

[95] Grimen, H. L. and Diseth, A. (2016). Sensory processing sensitivity: factors of the highly sensitive person scale and their relationships to personality and subjective health complaints. Comprehensive Psychology, 5, pp. 1-10.

[96] Gross, J. J. (1998). The Emerging Field of Emotion Regulation: An Integrative Review. Review of General Psychology, 2(3), 271-299.

[97] Groves, K. S and LaRocca, M. A. (2011). Responsible leadership outcomes via stakeholders CSR values: testing a values-centred model of transformational leadership, in: N. M. Pless and T. Maak (eds). Responsible leadership. Springer, pp. 37-55.

[98] Hao, P., He, W. and Long, L-R. (2018). Why and when empowering leadership has different effects on employee work performance the pivotal roles of passion for work and role breadth self-efficacy. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 25 (1), pp. 85-100

[99] Hardgrove, M. E. and Howard, A. P. (2015). Passion thrillers and passion killers: how to support and how to thwart employee passion. Journal of Business and Economic Policy, 2 (1), pp. 16-22.

[100] Hartley, J. and Benington, J. (2010). Leadership for health care. Policy Press.

[101] Hemmati, T., Mills, J. and Kroner, D. G. (2004). The validity of the Bar-On emotional intelligence quotient in an offender population. Personality and Individual Differences, 37 (4), pp. 695-706.

[102] Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1969). Life cycle of leadership. Training and Development Journal, 23 (5), pp. 26-34.

[103] (The) Higher Education Research Institute (HERI, 1996). A social change model of leadership development (version III). University of California, Los Angeles. [Online] Available at:

https://www.heri.ucla.edu/PDFs/pubs/ASocialChangeModelofLeadershipDevelopment.pdf

[104] Ho, V. T. and Pollock, J. M. (2014). Passion isn't always a good thing: examining entrepreneurs' network centrality and financial performance with a dualistic model of passion. Journal of Management Studies, 51(3), pp. 433-459.

[105] Ho, V. T., Wong, S. and Lee, C. H. (2011). A tale of passion: Linking job passion and cognitive engagement to employee work performance. Journal of Management Studies, 48 (1), pp. 26-47.

[106] Hodgkinson, G. P. and Sadler-Smith, E. (2018). The dynamics of intution and analysis in managerial and organizational decision making. Academy of Management Perspectives, 32 (4), pp. 473-492.

[107] Hollander, E. P. (2013). Organizational leadership and followership: the role of interpersonal relations, in: P. Collett and A. Furnham (eds). Social Psychology at work. Routledge, pp. 69-87.

[108] Hughes, I. (2018). Disordered minds: how dangerous personalities are destroying democracy. Zero Books. John Hunt Publishing Ltd.

[109] Hunt, J. and Fitzgerald, M. (2013). The relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership: an investigation and review of competing claims in the literature. American International Journal of Social Science, 2 (8), pp. 30-38.

[110] Hunter, S. T., Bedell, K. E. and Mumford, M. D. (2007). Climate for creativity a quantitative review. Creativity Research Journal, 19 (1), pp. 69-90.

[111] Jones, D. N. and Paulhus, D. L. (2011). Differentiating the dark triad within the interpersonal circumplex, in: L. M. Horowitz and S. Stack (eds). Handbook of Interpersonal psychology: theory, research, assessment and therapeutic interventions. John Wiley and Sons, pp. 249-268.

[112] Jorgensen, R. S., Johnson, B. T., Kolodziej, M. E. and Schreer, G. E. (1996). Elevated blood pressure and personality: A meat analytic review. Psychological Bulletin, 120, 293-320.

[113] Joyce, R. and Xu, X. (2019). Inequalities in the twenty first century: introducing the IFS Deaton Review. The Institute for Fiscal Studies.

[114] Julkunen, J., Salonen, R., Kaplan, G. A., Chesney, M. A. and Salonen, J. T. (1994). Hostility and the progression of carotid atherosclerosis. Psychosomatic Medicine, 56, pp. 519-525.

[115] Kahn, W. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. The Academy of Management Journal, 33 (4), pp. 692-724.

[116] Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R. and Contreras-McGavin, M. (2006). Rethinking the "L" word in higher education: the revolution in research on leadership. ASHE higher education report. Jossey-Bass.

[117] Kirkpatrick, S. A. and Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: do traits matter? Academy of Management Perspectives, 5 (2), pp. 48-60.

[118] Kirschenbaum, H. (2013). Values clarification in counselling and psychotherapy: practical strategies for individual and group settings. Oxford University Press.

[119] Komives, S. Wagner, W. and Associates (2017). Leadership for a better world: understanding the social change model of leadership. Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice, 55 (2), pp. 237-239.

[120] Konradt, U. (2014). Toward a theory of dispersed leadership in teams: model, findings, and directions for future research. Leadership, 10 (3), pp. 289-307.

[121] Kotterman, J. (2006). Leadership versus management: what's the difference? The Journal for Quality and Participation, 29 (2), pp. 13-17.

[122] Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (1990). The credibility factor: what followers expect from their leaders. Management Review, 79 (1), pp. 29-33.

[123] Kouzes, J. M. and Posner, B. Z. (2008). The leadership challenge. 4th edn. Jossey-Bass Publishers.

[124] Lanciano, T. and Curci, A. (2014). Does emotions communication ability affect psychological well-being? A study with Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) v2. Health Communication, 30 (11), pp. 1112-11121.

[125] Lerner, J., Li, Y., Valdesolo, P. and Kassam, K. (2015). Emotion and decision making. Annual Review of Psychology, 66, pp. 799-823.

[126] Lewin, K., Lippitt, R. and White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behaviour in experimentally created social climates. Journal of Social Psychology, 10 (2), pp. 271-301.

[127] Leuner, B. (1966). Emotionale Intelligenz und Emanzipation (Emotional intelligence and emancipation). Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatry, 15, 196–203.

[128] Levanon, A. and Grusky, D. B. (2016). The persistence of extreme gender segregation in the twenty first century. American Journal of Sociology, 122 (2), pp.573-619.

[129] Linstead, S., Fulop, L. and Lilley, S. (2009). Management and Organization: a critical text, 2nd edn. Palgrave Macmillan.

[130] Lipman-Blumen, J. (2006). The allure of the toxic leaders: why we follow destructive bosses and how we can survive them. Oxford University Press.

[131] Mango, E. (2018). Rethinking leadership theories. Open Journal of Leadership, 7 (1), pp. 57-88.

[132] Manz, C. C. (1983). Improving performance through self-leadership. National Productivity Review, 2 (3), pp. 288-297.

[133] Manz, C. C. (1986). Self leadership: toward an expanded theory of self-influence processes in Organizations. The Academy of Management Review, 11 (3), pp. 585-600.

[134] Manz, C. C. and Sims, H. P. (1980). Self-management as a substitute for leadership: a social learning theory perspective. The Academy of Management Review, 5 (3), pp. 361-367.

[135] Manz, C. C. and Sims, H. P. (1986). leading self-managed groups: a conceptual analysis of a paradox. Economic and Industrial Democracy, 7 (2), pp. 141-165.

[136] Manz, C. C. and Sims, H. P. (2001). The new super leadership. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

[137] Marquis, B. L. and Huston, C. J. (2009). Leadership roles and management functions in nursing: theory and application. 6th edn. Wolters Kluwer Health: Lippincott, Williams and Wilkins.

[138] Matthews, G., Zeidner, M. and Roberts, R. D. (2002). Emotional Intelligence: Science and myth. MIT Press.

[139] Mavroveli, S., Petrides, K. V., Rieffe, C. and Bakker, F. (2010). Trait emotional intelligence, psychological well-being and peer related social competence in adolescence. British Journal of Development Psychology, 25 (2), pp. 263-275.

[140] Mavroveli, S. and Sanchez-Ruiz, M. J. (2010). Trait emotional intelligence influences on academic achievement and school behaviour. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 81 (Part 1), pp. 112-134.

[141] Mayer, J. D. and Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In: P. Salovey, and D. Sluyter, (eds). Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence: Educational Implications. 2nd edn. Basic Books, pp. 3-31.

[142] Mayer, J. D. Salovey, P. and Caruso, D. (2000). Emotional intelligence, in: R. Sternberg (ed). Handbook of intelligence. Cambridge University Press, pp. 528-549.

[143] Mayer, J. D. Salovey, P. and Caruso, D. (2002). Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) user's manual. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health System. [Online] Available at: https://storefront.mhs.com/collections/msceit

[144] Mayer, J. D. Salovey, P. Caruso, D. and Sitarenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. Emotion, 3 (1), pp. 97-105.

[145] Mayo, E. (1933). The human problems of an industrialised civilisation. New York, Macmillan Co.

[146] Melena, S. (2018). Supportive accountability: how to inspire people and improve performance. Melena Consulting Group.

[147] Morton, G. (2017). Commanding excellence: inspiring purpose, passion and ingenuity through leadership that matters. Greenleaf Book Group.

[148] Museus, S., Lee, N., Calhoun, K., Sanchez-Parkinson, L. and Ting, M (2017). The social action, leadership, and

transformation (SALT) model. The Institute for Transformation and Equity. National Centre for Institutional Diversity. University of Michigan. [Online] Available at: https://lsa.umich.edu/content/dam/ncid-assets/ncid-documents/publications/Museus%20et%20al%20(2017)%20SALT%20Model%20Brief.pdf

[149] Nicholls, J. R. (1985). A new approach to situational leadership. Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 6 (4), pp. 2-7.

[150] Northouse, P. G. (2013). Leadership: theory and practice. 6th edn. Sage Publications.

[151] (The) Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2017). Preventing ageing unequally. OECD Publishing. Paris. [Online] Avaliable at: https://www.oecd.org/health/preventing-ageing-unequally-9789264279087-en.htm

[152] (The) Office for National Statistics (ONS) (2015). What is the productivity puzzle? 7th July. [Online] Available at: https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/labourproductivity/articles/whatistheproductivitypuzzle/2015-07-07

[153] (The) Office for National Statistics (ONS) (2019). Labour productivity, UK: October to December 2018. 5th April. [Online] Available at: https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/labourproductivity/bulletins/labourproductivity/octobertodecember2018

[154] Ohr, T. (2020). Discover the top female CEO's of the FTSE 100 index (sponsored). EU Startups. 3rd April. [Online] Available at: https://www.eu-startups.com/2020/04/discover-the-top-female-ceos-of-the-ftse-100-index-sponsored/#:~:text=In%202020%2C%20only%205%25%20of,IG's%20own%20CEO%20June%20Felix

[155] Papworth, M. A., Milne, D. and Boak, G. (2009). An exploratory content analysis of situational leadership. Journal of Management Development, 28 (7), pp. 593-606.

[156] Parker, J. D. A., Summerfeldt, L. J., Hogan, M. J. and Majeski, S. A. (2004). Emotional intelligence and academic success: examining the transition from high school to university. Personality and Individual Differences, 36 (1), pp 163-172.

[157] Parker, J. D. A., Taylor, G. J. and Bagby, R. M. (2001). The relationship between emotional intelligence and alexithymia. Personality and Individual Differences, 30 (1), pp.107-115.

[158] Patel, P. C., Thorgren, S. and Wincent, J. (2015). Leadership, passion and performance: a study of job creation projects during the recession. British Journal of Management, 26 (2), pp. 211-224.

[159] Payne, W. L. (1986). A study of emotion: Developing Emotional Intelligence; Self-Integration, Relating to fear, Pain and Desire. Disertations Abstracts International. The Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities. [Online] Available at: http://eqi.org/payne.htm

[160] Petrides, K. V. and Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. Personality and Individual differences, 29 (2), pp. 313-320.

[161] Petrides, K. V. (2011). Ability and trait emotional intelligence, in: T. Chamorro- Premuzic, S. von Stumm and A. Furnham (eds). The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of individual differences. Wiley-Blackwell, pp. 656-678.

[162] Petrides, K. V. and Furnham, A. (2001). Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies. European Journal of Personality, 15 (6), pp. 425-448.

[163] Petrides, K. V. and Furnham, A. (2003). Trait emotional intelligence: Behavioural validation in two studies of emotion recognition and reactivity to mood induction. European Journal of Personality, 17 (6), pp. 39–57.

[164] Pluess, M., Lionetti, F., Aron, E. and Aron, A. (2020). People differ in their sensitivity to the environment: an integrated theory and empirical evidence. [Online] Available at: https://psyarxiv.com/w53yc/

[165] Priyanka, J. and Taranjeet, D. (2016). The influence of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence on organizational commitment. Journal of Commerce and Management Thought, 7 (3), pp. 586-598.

[166] Reddin, W. J. (1967). The 3 -D Management style theory: a typology based on task and relationship orientations. Training and Development Journal. April, pp. 8-17.

[167] Reed, S. M. and Bogardus, A. M. (2012). Professional in human resources certification study guide. 4th edn. John Wiley and Sons.

[168] Robbins, S. P. and Judge, T. A. (2013). Organizational behaviour. 15th edn. Pearson.

[169] Roethlisberger, E. J. and Dickson, W. J. (1939). Management and the worker. Harvard University Press.

[170] Rost, J. C. (1993). Leadership for the twenty first century. Praeger.

[171] Ruiz-Aranda, D., Extremera, N. and Pineda-Galan, C. (2013). Emotional intelligence, life satisfaction and subjective happiness in female student health professionals: the mediating effect of perceived stress. Journal of Psychiatric and Mental Health Nursing, 21 (2), pp. 106-113.

[172] Salovey, P. and Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9 (3), 185-211.

[173] Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S., Turvey, C. and Palfai, T. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity and repair: exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta Mood scale, in: J. W. Pennebaker (ed). Emotion,

Disclosure and Health. American Psychological Association, pp. 125-154.

[174] Salovey, P., Stroud, L. R., Woolery, A. and Epel, E. S. (2002). Perceived emotional intelligence, stress reactivity, and symptoms reports: further explorations using the trait meta-mood scale. Psychology and Health, 17 (5), pp. 611-627.

[175] Sanchez-Alvarez, N., Extremera, N. and Fernandez-Berrocal, P. (2015). Maintaining life satisfaction in adolescence: affective mediators of the influence of perceived emotional intelligence on overall life satisfaction judgments in a two-year longitudinal study. Frontiers in Psychology, 6 (1892).

[176] Schermerhorn, J. R. (2010). Exploring management. 2nd edn. John Wiley and Sons.

[177] Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Thorsteinsson, E. B., Bhullar, N. and Rooke, S. E. (2006). A meta analytic investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and health. Personality and Individual Differences, 42 (6), pp. 921-933.

[178] Schwartz, S. H. (2012). An overview of the Schwartz theory of basic values. Online Readings in Psychology and Culture, 2 (1).

[179] Siren, C., Patel, P. C. and Wincent, J. (2016). How do harmonious passion and obsessive passion moderate the influence of a CEO's change-orientated leadership on company performance. The Leadership Quarterly, 27 (4), pp. pp. 653-670.

[180] Skendall, K. C. and Ostick, D. T. (2017). The social change model of leadership development for leadership educators, in: K. C. Skendall, D. T. Ostick, S.R Komives, W. Wagner and Associates. *Facilitating leadership development.* Jossey-Bass. John Wiley and Sons, pp. 4-10.

[181] Simon, H. A. (1987). Making management decision: the role of intuition and emotion. The Academy of Management Executive (1987-1989) 1 (1), pp. 57-64.

[182] Smit, P. J., Cronje, G. J., Brevis, T. and Vrba, M. J. (2007). Management principles: a contemporary edition for Africa. 4th edn. Jut and Co. Ltd.

[183] Smyth, J. (2017). The toxic university: zombie leadership, academic rock stars and neoliberal ideology. Palgrave Macmillan.

[184] Soosalu, G., Henwood, S. and Deo, A. (2019). Head, heart and gut in decision making: development of a multiple brain preference questionnaire. Sage Open, 9 (1), pp.1-17.

[185] Stanley, D. (2006). Role conflict: leaders and managers. Nursing Management (Harrow), 13 (5), pp. 31-37.

[186] Stein, S. J. (2017). The EQ leaders: instilling passion, creating shared goals, and building meaningful organizations through emotional intelligence. John Wiley and Sons.

[187] Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of literature. The Journal of Psychology, 25 (1), pp. 35-71.

[188] Stogdill, R. M. and Shartle, C. L. (1948). Methods for determining patterns of leadership behaviour in relation to Organization structure and objectives. Journal of Applied Psychology, 32 (3), pp. 286-291.

[189] Strick, M. and Dijksterhuis, A. (2011). Intuition and unconscious thought, in: M. Sinclair (ed). Handbook of intuition research. Edward Elgar Publishing, pp. 28-36.

[190] Suchy, S. (2007). Emotional intelligence, passion and museum leadership. Museum Management and Curatorship, 18 (1), pp. 57-71.

[191] Suls, J., Wan, C. K.,& Costa, P.T. Jr. (1995). Relationship of trait anger to resting blood pressure: A meta-analysis. Health Psychology, 14, pp. 444-456.

[192] Summers-Effler, E. (2002). The micro potential for social change: emotion, consciousness, and social movement formation. Sociological Theory, 20 (1), pp. 41-60.

[193] Tannenbaum, R. and Schmidt, W. H. (1973). How to choose a leadership pattern. Harvard Business Review.

[194] Taylor, F. W. (1911, reprint: 2009). The principles of scientific management. Cornell University Library.

[195] Tejeda, M. J., Scandura, T. and Pillai, R. (2001). The MLQ revisited psychometric properties and recommendations. Leadership Quarterly, 12 (1), pp. 31-52.

[196] Thakur, G. B. M. (1998). Management today: principles and practice. Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited.

[197] Thevenot, C. (2017). (The) Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Labour market structure and wages: policies to reduce inequality in OECD countries. [Online] Available at: https://www.un.org/development/desa/dspd/wp-content/uploads/sites/22/2018/06/celine-paper.pdf

[198] Thomas-EL, S., Jones, J. and Vari, T. J. (2019). Passionate leadership: creating a culture of success in every school. Corwin.

[199] Thomas, M. E. (2019). 99%: Mass impoverishment and how we can end it. Head of Zeus.

[200] Tiempo, A. (2005). Social Philosophy: foundations of values education. Rex bookstore.

[201] Topchik, G. S. (2004). The accidental manager: get the skills you need to excel in your new career. AMACOM, American Management Association.

[202] Treadway, D. C. Bentley, J. R. Williams, L. R. and Wallace, A. (2014). The skill to leadership dynamics, in: D. V. Day. The Oxford handbook of leadership and Organizations. Oxford University Press, pp. 505-523.

[203] Twemlow, S. W., Fonagy, P. and Sacco, F. (2005). A development approach to mentalising communicates: I.

A. model for social change. Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic, 69 (4), pp. 265-281.

[204] Uva, M. C. D., de Timary, P., Cortesi, M., Mikolajczak, M., de Blicquy, P. D. and Luminet, O. (2010). Moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the role of negative affect in the motivation to drink in alcohol dependent subjects undergoing protracted withdrawal. Personality and Individual Differences, 48, pp. 16-21

[205] Vallerand, R. J. (2008). On the psychology of passion: in search of what makes people's lives most worth living. Canadian Psychology/ Psychologie Canadienne, 49 (1), pp. 1-13.

[206] Vallerand, R. J. (2010). On passion for life activities: the dualistic model of passion, in: M. P. Zanna (ed). Advances in experimental social psychology. Elsevier, pp. 97-100.

[207] Vallerand, R. J. (2012). From motivation to passion: in search of the motivational processes involved in a meaningful life. Canadian Psychology/ psychologie Canadienne, 53 (1), pp. 42-52.

[208] Vallerand, R. J. and Houlfort, N. (2003). Passion for work: theory, research and applications. Oxford University Press.

[209] Vecchio, R. P., Bullis, R.C. and Brazil, D. M. (2006). The utility of Situational Leadership Theory: A replication of a military setting. Small Group Research, 37 (5), pp. 407-424.

[210] Vernon, P. A., Villani, V. C., Schermer, J. A. and Petrides, K. V. (2008). Phenotypic and genetic associations between the big five and trait emotional intelligence. Twin Research and Human Genetics, 11, pp. 524-530.

[211] Walsh, B. (2013). Learning to act on intuition instantly. Hay House UK Ltd.

[212] Wanless, J. (2015). Intuition @ work. ETC Publishing.

[213] Watson, T. J. (1986). Management, organization and employment strategy (RLE: organizations). New directions in theory and practice. Routledge.

[214] Westcott, M. R. (1968). Antecedents and consequences of intuitive thinking. Final report. Project no: 1919. Office of Education. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (DHEW). June. [Online] Available at: https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED021292.pdf

[215] Whittington, J. L., Coker, R. H., Goodwin, V. L., Ickes, W. and Murray, B. (2009). Transactional leadership revisited: self-other agreement and its consequences. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 39 (8), pp. 1860-1886.

[216] Wright, E. S. (2017). Dialogic development in the situational leadership style. Leadership Development (special issue), 56 (9), pp. 27-31.

[217] Xiao, H. (2001). Child rearing values in the United States and China: a comparison of belief systems and social structure. Praeger.

[218] Yukl, G. (2012). Leadership in Organizations. 8th edn. Pearson Ed.

[219] Zeidner, M. and Matthews, G. (2016). Ability emotional intelligence and mental health: social support as a mediator. Personality and Individual Differences, 99, pp. 196-199.

[220] Zigarmi, D., Houson, D., Witt, d. and Diehl, J. (2011). Employee work passion connecting the dots. Perspectives, 3. The Ken Blanchard Companies. [Online] Available at: https://www.kenblanchard.com/getattachment/Leading-Research/Research/Employee-Work-Passion-Volume-3/Blanchard-Employee-Passion-Vol-3-updated.pdf