INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL PREDICTORS OF LEADER SUCCESS IN THE MILITARY: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

by

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Declaration

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Alma Grundlingh   December 2012

Abstract

The contemporary military environment characterised by new technologies, advanced capabilities, novel knowledge and skills sets, and an increased participation of non-state actors is leading to a rapidly expanding, non-linear, multi-dimensional battle space. Military operations are becoming more distributed in time, space, and purpose. The military arena is becoming progressively more joint, multinational and interagency in nature. Military leaders have a mounting responsibility to teams and groups and their organisations to accomplish a variety of very diverse missions. Furthermore, military operations other than war have emerged as a fundamental approach to warfare, increasing dispersion of forces across wider areas of influence and rapidly changing situations. Scholars and strategists are of the opinion that militaries are in an era of "new wars". The latter are contextual elements evident in current conflicts and are likely to be seen in future conflicts as well. Unquestionably, the landscape in which military leaders must operate has affected the competencies and training needed to be successful.

The aim of this study was to explore the possible relationships between emotional intelligence (EI), psychological capital (PsyCap), sense of coherence (SOC) and leader success of junior officers in the South African National Defence Force (SANDF). The researcher argues that these intrapersonal and interpersonal skills (EI, PsyCap and SOC) are necessary for any contemporary leader to successfully fulfil his role in his military position and to fit the leadership profile set out by the organisation. The existence of relationships between the variables for this study was statistically investigated and the necessary conclusions were drawn.

All the challenges discussed in this study for the SANDF link with each other and "cry" for education in EI, PsyCap and SOC. Future officers of the SANDF need to have the potential, skills, knowledge, education and competency to be specialists in the challenges of the next decade. Education in these variables can possibly assist leaders in their daunting tasks and ultimately contribute to leader success.

A sample of 170 (n=170) junior officers, from the rank of Candidate officer (CO) to full Lieutenant (Lt), was drawn from the South African Military Academy (SAMA), Faculty of Military Science, Stellenbosch University. Participants completed existing valid and reliable instruments measuring their EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success levels. Leader success was measured in terms of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction of the leader. Correlation analysis was done to determine the relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable.

Multiple regression analysis was done to determine which of the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors contributed to leader success of junior officers in the SANDF.

The results revealed significant positive relationships between the different components of EI, especially interpersonal EI skills, and the different components of PsyCap and leader success. Significant but low correlations were found for the intrapersonal EI skills, resilience (a component of PsyCap) and leader success. Significant but very low correlations and insignificant correlations were found between SOC and leader success. The multiple regression analysis was in line with the correlation results showing that total PsyCap (the strongest predictor) and total EI significantly made contributions to explaining and predicting leader success. The multiple regression analysis, in line with the correlation results, showed that SOC did not make a contribution to predicting leader success. The conclusion that was drawn from this study was that total EI and total PsyCap contribute to leader success.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

AA	affirmative action
ANC	African National Congress
AU	African Union
BFRL	Basic Full Range Leadership
BMIL	bachelors degree
CEMAC	Economic and Monetary Community of Central African States
CO	Candidate officer
DoD	Department of Defence
DPKO	Department of Peacekeeping Operations
DRC	Democratic Republic of the Congo
ECI	Emotional Competency Inventory
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
EI	emotional intelligence
EQ	equal opportunities
EQ-I	Emotional Quotient Inventory
ESCI	Emotional and Social Competency Inventory
EU	European Union
HR	human resource
IC	individualism-collectivism
IISS	International Institute for Strategic Studies
Lt	Lieutenant
MEIS	Multifactor EI Scale
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MSCEIT	Mayer Salovey Caruso EI Test
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organisation
NCO	non-commissioned officer
OLQ	Orientation to Life Questionnaire
P-P	probability plot
PsyCap	psychological capital
PTSD	post traumatic stress disorder
SA	South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SADF	South African Defence Force

SAMA   South African Military Academy

SANDF   South African National Defence Force

SAPS   South African Police Service

SOC   sense of coherence

SUEIT   Swinburne University EI Test

UN   United Nations

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

What you carry into war is not all on your back. It is in your mind, your spirit, and in your family. The challenges of our current wars are tremendous and on-going. We are going to have to attend to the capability gaps – to build both our internal and external capacities. Even the tough are affected. You can't put armour around the psyche or the heart. You have to build its resilience. That requires a total approach to the whole person and community.

Dr. Wayne Jonas – Samueli Institute's President and Chief Executive Officer.

1.1   INTRODUCTION TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The strategic nature of war has changed. The strategies implemented by armed forces in today's wars seek battles to be more instantaneous and more systematic, bringing the battle more to the core of civilian populations. Armed conflict today is more flexible and unpredictable, making it less easily defined. The changing nature of warfare implies that most countries are no longer betrothed in inter-state warfare, but host several armed conflicts involving non-state actors, such as rebellions movements. The nature of contemporaneous armed conflicts might yield less military battle deaths, but they exact a high human cost. The nature of war today includes many more actors such as armed groups, states, and other non-state actors, resulting in these groups employing an array of irregular means to achieve their goals (Shultz, Godson, Hanlon, & Ravich, 2011). The end of the Cold War in 1989 brought much debate about the utility of military force and that of military forces in particular. The use of conventional force strategies, structures, doctrine and governments associated with the incidence of state-on-state wars declined and increased armed forces' participations in missions that they were unaccustomed to in terms of equipment and training. These tasks included peace support, state-building, humanitarian aid, counter-insurgency and counter-terrorism (Angstrom & Duyvesteyn, 2011). This makes for a far more complex field of engagement.

Militaries and governments are striving to adapt to fight and win in this new environment. Military operations place emphasis on military leaders. Success for militaries today cannot be guaranteed without adequate leadership at all levels. Consequently, militaries are focussing on leadership and on diverse techniques to prepare and develop effective and successful leaders. Successful training programmes must develop a comprehensible perception of the dynamics that contribute to good leadership (Tian, Miao, Xu, & Yang, 2009). Militaries stand at the risk of not understanding the nature of the war soldiers are fighting.

A war characterised as "a war of intelligence and a war of perceptions" - this dilemma should be confronted and the militaries' mindset should shift to "a new strategic level in this era to understand strategic approaches required creating victory in this very different 21st century environment" (Barno, 2006, p. 15). Warfare has changed fundamentally and today's war is not just a "war amongst the people" but war is "a war of the people" (Barno, 2006, p. 15). Rupert Smith (as cited in Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008) posited that "a war amongst the people" will include a war that is non-linear (unpredictable), complex, over hearts and minds, and seeks conditions for political solutions. Phelan (2011) stated that for soldiers to assume their role successfully in modern wartimes, they need a paradigmatic shift in their mindsets. Future conflicts will become more multifaceted and will involve more ethnic groups which can lead to state failures and result in peace operations to become more intricate (Banerjee, 2005). A multi-dimensional security strategy has to be implemented by all militaries to protect their security interest in these new strategic environments. Tasks such as the prevention of conflicts, peacekeeping operations, responses to disasters and humanitarian aid will be included in such a security strategy.

Unquestionably, the landscape in which military leaders must operate has affected the competencies and training needed to be successful and effective. A successful leader can diminish and ease ambiguity in situations such as life-threatening hazards, rapidly unfolding events, and high-risk negotiations, by providing unity, regulation orderliness, structure and meaning to uncertain events. Strassman (as cited in Connaughton, Shuffler, & Goodwin, 2011) stated that an often-cited example of military leader success is that of Lt. Colonel Chris Hughes. On the morning of 3 April 2003, Hughes and his troops stood outside the holiest Shia mosque in Iraq. Hughes led his troops into the city to liberate it, but some Iraqi agitators spread a lie averring that the Americans were going to sequester the mosque. Hughes quickly assessed and construed the intentions of a very intense crowd surrounding the mosque. Making sense of the situation and ordering an appropriate action (ordering his soldiers to take a knee and point their weapons downward) prevented a violent massacre and potentially saved lives. Hughes and his troops approaching a consecrated part of the city did not have an understanding of the cultural context surrounding the situation. Despite the unambiguousness of the cultural setting of the situation, Hughes and his troops were still able to refer to the contextual cues of the setting and determine an appropriate response.

Bartone, Eid, Johnsen, Laberg, and Snook (2009) stated that the selection and development process of successful leaders is a matter of great consequence for organisations. Research into the personal characteristics tied to successful leadership is authenticated practical significance. Degeling and Carr (as cited in Amagoh, 2009) also added the importance of certain individual attributes necessary for leader success.

They stated that cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural skills form the foundation of leader development and leader traits such as self-awareness, openness, trust, creativity, practical, social and general intelligence, which provide the basis for leadership. Literature illustrates and proves that it is imperative for any organisation to focus special attention on development of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills needed by future leaders in order to sustain long-term effective leadership and high organisational performance. Leader success is important for the attainment of organisational success in the long term. Leadership is the most essential element necessary for progress as well as for the development and survival of organisations, especially in a changing environment such as the military. According to Fallesen, Keller-Glaze, and Curnow (2011, p. 462), "leadership is the process of influencing others by providing purpose, motivation and direction to accomplish missions and improve the organisation".

Leader success is about how well leaders manage themselves and others (see par 2.4). Leader success is about personal characteristics and human qualities such as empathy, compassion, flexibility, influence and not just intellectual or technical abilities. The ever-changing workforce necessitates leaders to have human abilities to adjust and be flexible, setting them apart as successful leaders. Alston (2009, p. 2) pointed out that "successful leaders are defined by inspiring and motivating others, promoting a positive work environment, perceiving and understanding emotions, and fostering an organisational climate in which people turn challenging opportunities into successes". Goleman (1998a) stated that interpersonal skills became a vital, indispensable constituent of successful leadership (see par 2.5.4).

Leadership means different things to different researchers. Leadership can be described in terms of personality, position, responsibility, influence, an instrument in achieving goals, and behaviours. Generally leadership definitions have a universal theme of directing a group towards a goal. Leaders with a transformational leadership style encourage subordinates to put in extra effort and exceed their (subordinates) expectations. Transformational leaders' subordinates have high levels of trust, admiration, loyalty and respect for their leaders and are motivated to put in these extra efforts. Transformational leaders inspire their subordinates to improve their capabilities for success and develop their innovative problem solving skills. This leadership style has also proved to increase organisational commitment and is associated with greater organisational performance (Bass & Bass, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008). Leadership factors used to measure transformational leadership style are from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio and are based on the theory of transformational leadership. The MLQ measures Laissez-faire factors, transactional leadership factors, transformational leadership factors and leadership outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 1995) (see par 3.5.4).

The leadership outcomes are the outcomes from leadership quality and consist of three measurable factors: *effectiveness* (leaders who are able to be efficient; effectiveness reflects the leader's efficacy in achieving organisational outcomes, objectives, goals and subordinates' needs in their job); *satisfaction* (reflects the degrees to which subordinates are satisfied with their leader's behaviour and the leader works with others in a satisfactory way, leaders being able to generate satisfaction in their followers); and *extra effort* (reflects the degrees to which the leader can increase subordinates' desire to succeed and subordinates exert effort higher than their normal rate, these leaders are able to generate extra effort in their followers). There are nine additional statements in the MLQ for measuring leadership outcomes. Three statements are for measuring extra effort level, four statements for measuring effectiveness level and two statements for measuring satisfaction level. For the purpose of this study these subscales will be used to measure leader success (see par 3.5.4).

The military environment becoming more complex in nature necessitates a competent, skilled leader that will be able to successfully function as an expert in the contemporary militia. Sun Tzu stated that "knowing others and knowing oneself, in one hundred battles, no danger. Not knowing the other and knowing oneself, one victory for one loss. Not knowing the other and not knowing oneself, in every battle certain defeat" (Latour & Hosmer, 2002, p. 27). Sun Tzu asserted that a soldier with self-knowledge and knowledge of the opponent would win, in essence a person with emotional intelligence (EI) (see par 2.5.1). Almost all highly effective leaders possess the critical ability of EI. Leaders will more likely get the results they want if they know, understand and manage themselves better and if they know, understand and manage others better. "The most valuable element in building and maintaining successful relationships, individual or team, is EI" (Sewell, 2009, p. 93). Leaders necessary for this new strategic environment will need the skill of being aware of their own emotions and how these affect those around them as they undertake daily missions and tasks.

Goleman (1998b) strongly asserted that a successful leader is the one that knows how to exercise and be aware of his emotions and how his emotional competence influences his leading and impacts on others. All military leaders can benefit from a better understanding of their emotions and the emotions of others.

> "An army leader is anyone who, by virtue of assumed role or assigned responsibility, inspires and influences people to accomplish organisational goals. Army leaders motivate people both inside and outside the chain of command to pursue actions, focus thinking, and shape decisions for the greater good of the organisation" (Sewell, 2009, p. 94).

Avey, Luthans, and Mhatre (2008) suggested that future research is necessary in psychological capital (PsyCap) (see par 2.5.2) in contexts that typify danger and extremis situations such as military combat. Effective leadership has been linked with hope, optimism, confidence and resiliency as instrumental abilities. PsyCap created awareness amongst leadership researchers because it is open to development and can have an influence on performance. Current leadership research closely focuses on behaviours such as optimism, hope and resilience as they may be highly predictive of successful leadership. These dimensions being positively oriented strengths can be measured, developed and managed to improve performance. "According to Luthans and Avolio, this should come as no surprise since it would be hard to imagine a leader who could inspire and motivate others without these ingredients" (Peterson, Balthazard, Waldman, Thatcher, & Fannin, n.d., p. 3).

A leader with a strong sense of coherence (SOC) (see par 2.5.3) will also be needed for the current challenges of future wars (see par 2.2 and Figure 2.1). SOC is assumed to be a useful concept when assessing an individual's orientation and internal strengths. SOC entails whether a person will successfully cope with stressors. SOC is the way an individual sees the world and himself within the world. An individual with a strong SOC possesses a feeling of confidence that all will work out well. A strong SOC promotes healthy behaviours and a weak SOC will lead to individuals not having the cognitive basis to successfully deal with stressors (Moerane, 2005). SOC will enable the leader to make cognitive sense of the environment. This leader will see work as holding challenges which he can successfully meet by using both personal resources and those that are under his control, such as his subordinates. Leaders with a high SOC level will make motivational sense of work difficulties. They will engage and invest personal energy into challenges (Strümpher & De Bruin, 2009). SOC deals with the manner in which employees handle change. The higher and stronger the level of an individual's SOC, the better the individual's ability to cope with change.

Given the limited research on intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in relation to leaders and the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), this study will contribute to enriching the literature by bringing new perspectives of research on these dimensions of leadership in the SANDF. The study will create awareness in the SANDF that EI, PsyCap and SOC are necessary for any leader to be successful to ultimately ensure organisational success. The study will highlight the possible gap in the definition of leadership the SANDF incorporates, and will stress the importance of EI, PsyCap and SOC for future leaders in the military. The explicit concentration on the SANDF will bring a new perception and viewpoint to the literature. The study aspired to fill the gap in the literature by determining whether there is a link between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success for leaders in the SANDF. The researcher expected a significant relationship between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success.

1.2   RESEARCH PROBLEM

As a result of the global egression of the defence environment military officers are faced with intricate, multifaceted and interrelated security challenges. The postmodernist prototype for a soldier means that he will be part of a militaristic shift toward a volunteer force and missions that are more multipurpose in nature. Now and in future peacekeeping and humanitarian tasks are centre to a military identity. Leaders effectively performing in these areas will need to have the intrapersonal and interpersonal skills to effectively perform with the challenges of these tasks. Despite the increased attention EI, PsyCap and SOC receive internationally in the workplace, very little is known and reported about the phenomena within the SANDF work context. More research is needed to ascertain if these are accounted for when the SANDF selects future leaders for this convoluted military arena. Therefore, the researcher sees a research gap to gather data about the prevalence of the phenomena in the SANDF.

The need to determine the levels of these phenomena in officers is a relevant research challenge and in view of the limited research on it in the SANDF, this study can make a significant contribution. Intrapersonal and interpersonal skills can help leaders resolve versatile problems, make improved decisions, plan how to use time effectively, adjust behaviours to certain situations and manage crises leading to leader success. Recommendations which can be utilised on selection boards will also be made to the SANDF. Recommendations can be made on training and educating officers to better perform in the new strategic environment in which the SANDF finds itself and to ultimately enhance the overall leadership and organisational success of the SANDF.

The study aimed to show a potential relationship between intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and leader success for military leaders. The researcher hypothesized that high levels of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills will correlate with high levels of leader success. Multiple regression analysis could potentially show a relationship between the predictors and leader success. Regression analysis includes any techniques for modelling and analysing several variables, when the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Regression analysis is widely used for prediction and forecasting.

Regression analysis is also used to understand which among the independent variables are more powerful related to the dependent variable, and to explore the forms of these relationships. Regression analysis can be used to infer causal relationships between the independent and dependent variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). Underlying correlations are expected in the different dimensions of the different subscales of the measuring instruments to potentially prove relationships.

The researcher predicted that correlational and regression analyses would reveal that higher EI, PsyCap and SOC would be associated with higher leader success. The empirical results can also serve to facilitate the formulation of intervention strategies and recommendations to the SANDF on successful, effective leaders and leadership development.

1.3   RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

1.3.1   Main objective

The main objective of this study was to do research and empirically test the nature of the influence of EI, PsyCap and SOC on leader success (Cheah & Ken, 2012; Toor & Ofori, 2010; Muller & Rothman, 2009; Van der Colff & Rothman, 2009; Rothman, Jackson, & Kruger, 2003; Cilliers, 2001) (see par 2.5.4) among employees in the SANDF. Scientific research methodology was used to determine the validity of predicting relationships among the selected independent variables on leader success. In this study EI, PsyCap and SOC are the independent variables. Also in this study, there are seven factors that define EI: emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others and emotional self-control. PsyCap includes the following dimensions: self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience. SOC's dimensions include comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. Leader success defined by extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction is the dependent variable. The conceptual model outlined in Figure 1.1 depicts the possible relationships among the variables.

Independent variables   *Dependent variable*

Intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors

Emotional intelligence

-emotional self-awareness
-emotional expression
-emotional awareness of others
-emotional reasoning
-emotional self-management
-emotional management of others
-emotional self-control   **Leader success**

Psychological capital   -extra effort
                                                              -effectiveness
-self-efficacy   -satisfaction
-optimism
-hope
-resilience

Sense of coherence

-comprehensibility
-manageability
-meaningfulness

Figure 1.1. **Intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors and leader success conceptual model**

1.3.2   Theoretical objective

The theoretical objective of this study was to conduct a broad and in-depth literature study of EI, PsyCap and SOC in order to examine the possible relationships between these constructs and leader success. The aim was to use the theoretical background to indicate the existence of relationships between these intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors and leader success (Cheah & Ken, 2012; Toor & Ofori, 2010; Muller & Rothman, 2009; Van der Colff & Rothman, 2009; Rothman et al., 2003; Cilliers, 2001) (see par 2.5.4) of military leaders in the SANDF.

1.3.3   Empirical objective

The empirical objective of this study was to make use of exploratory research methodology to test relationships between the variables of interest (e.g. EI, PsyCap, and SOC) and their influence on leader success. The empirical aim was to reflect the relationships between the independent and dependent variables statistically (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

1.4   RESEARCH PROCESS OVERVIEW

The research was conducted in seven phases, namely the literature review, the empirical research, reporting of the results, discussion of the results, the conclusion, the limitations and the recommendations of the research.

1.4.1   Phase 1: Literature review

The focus of the literature review is to delineate the current military environment and the challenges contained in this environment. The literature review discusses the international challenges of militaries and the challenges the SANDF face, not only now, but also in future. Leader success is defined for armed forces according to Bass and Avolio (1995) (see par 2.4) and the SANDF's army leadership definition together with the profile, role and selection of officers are discussed. Intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors (EI, PsyCap and SOC) (see par 2.5) are discussed as possible predictors of leader success for the military.

Specific areas of the literature review include:

- International challenges for armed forces
- National challenges for the SANDF
- Leader success for armed forces
- Intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors of leader success.

1.4.2   Phase 2: Empirical research

Various questionnaires were used to gather data for this research. The questionnaires were all paper-and-pencil evaluation tools. EI was measured by using the Genos EI self-assessment inventory (Gignac, 2008) (see par 3.5.1). PsyCap was measured by using the PCQ-24 self rater inventory (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007a; Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007b) (see par 3.5.2). SOC was measured using the Orientation to Life Questionnaire (OLQ-13) (short form) inventory (Antonovsky, 1987) (see par 3.5.3). Leader success was measured using the MLQ leader form (5x-Short) (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Only the items relevant for leader success were used for the study (items 37-45). Items referring to extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were used (see par 3.5.4). These questionnaires were administered to junior officers from the rank of Candidate officer (CO) to full Lieutenant (Lt) at the South African Military Academy (SAMA). The sample comprised of 170 junior officers.

1.4.3   Phase 3: Reporting of results

A discussion on the various statistical techniques that were used to analyse the data are discussed in this section. Summary statistics were reported using frequency tables (and percentages), means, minimums, maximums and standard deviations. Reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach's alpha. For univariate comparison of variables, Pearson correlations were calculated. Multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate combined effects of predictor variables on the dependent variable. All analyses were done using STATISTICA 10. A five percent significance level ($p<0.05$) was used as guideline for significant relationships.

1.4.4   Phase 4: Discussion of results

The main results, the explanations of the research, and the statistical outcomes of the empirical research are discussed.

1.4.5   Phase 5: Conclusions

The conclusions of the research are discussed.

1.4.6   Phase 6: Limitations

The general limitations to the research as well as the limitations of the measuring instruments are discussed.

1.4.7   Phase 7: Recommendations

Recommendations with regards to future research are discussed. Recommendations on how the results of the research can be used and recommended intervention strategies for the SANDF are discussed.

1.5   CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The chapters of the research will be presented in the following sequence:

- Chapter 1: Introduction
- Chapter 2: Literature review
- Chapter 3: Research design and methodology
- Chapter 4: Results
- Chapter 5: Discussion of results

- Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The importance and motivation for the study was discussed in this chapter. Military conflict today is more flexible and erratic making it less easily defined. Adequate and successful leadership at all levels is necessary for the success of militaries today. Contemporary militia necessitate different competencies and training to ensure leader success. Leaders will need intrapersonal and interpersonal skills such as EI, PsyCap and SOC to effectively perform in this milieu with its diverse challenges. The literature in this chapter has pointed out why certain intrapersonal and interpersonal skills (EI, PsyCap, and SOC) are necessary for successful leadership in the SANDF.

The research problem as well as the research objectives and the phases of this study were also discussed. The study aimed to show a potential relationship between intrapersonal and interpersonal skills, namely EI, PsyCap and SOC and leader success for military leaders. Figure 1.1 outlines the main purpose of the study. The next chapter will present the literature review where the main concepts of the study are discussed in detail.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is to investigate the relationship between the intrapersonal and interpersonal predicators, EI, PsyCap and SOC and leader success. Chapter 2 reviews the literature in the following order: international challenges for armed forces, national challenges for the SANDF, leader success for armed forces, and intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors, namely EI, PsyCap and SOC. This chapter summarises contemporary challenges and opportunities faced by military leaders. International challenges for armed forces and national challenges for the SANDF are discussed to illustrate the change in military arenas globally and to highlight the importance of specific intrapersonal and interpersonal skills needed by military leaders to be successful leaders in the irrevocable "battlefield" of militaries today. The researcher proposes the type of leader necessary for the changing military environment.

2.2   INTERNATIONAL CHALLENGES FOR ARMED FORCES

According to Carl von Clausewitz, war is an act of force to compel the enemy to do the will of the opposing force (Cochrane, 2008; Strachan, 2007; Gray, 2006). New kinds of warfare force scholars to move beyond the traditional Clausewitzian paradigm. Clausewitz wrote, "No one starts a war - or rather, no one in his senses ought to do so - without first being clear in his mind what he intends to achieve by that war, and how he intends to conduct it" (Strachan, 2007, p. 3). Clausewitz was lucid both on the character of war and on warfare's prospectivity for change. He argued that war has two natures, which include both an objective and subjective nature. The objective nature of war consists of universal elements that distinguish war from all other activities. He argues that the objective nature of war is permanent. He stated that war is a tool of policy or politics performed for the principle of imposing one's will on the enemy by force and the ambience of war's distinctive elements include danger, exertion, uncertainty and change. "Clausewitz found war, all war that is, to be a 'remarkable trinity', composed of violence and hatred, chance and probability, and reason or policy" (Gray, 2006, p. 31). Clausewitz argued that the objective nature of war does not change regardless of technological advances.

Howard (as cited in Gray, 2006, p. 32) explained that:

> "After all allowances have been made for historical differences, wars still resemble each other more than they resemble any other human activity. All are fought, as Clausewitz insisted, in a special element of danger, fear and confusion. In all, large bodies of men are trying to impose their will on one another by violence; and in all, events occur which are inconceivable in any other field of experience".

The subjective nature of war, Clausewitz argued, is subject to frequent change. He insisted that war is the realm of uncertainty and chance. The character of war is always prone to change but its nature is fixed. He also insisted that war is an instrument of policy and should be waged not only for the ultimate goal of victory but rather for securing an advantageous peace. War comes with perplexity and that will not change, war will always involve mystification and ambiguity. Gray (2004) stated that war is a permanent feature of the human condition and will always be ubiquitous. He argued that war has an enduring, unchanging character but is in its very sense highly variable. One of the principles Gray stressed that drives the character of war is the political context. Warfare is political behaviour conducted by strategic means. Warfare also includes social and cultural behaviour and exhibits the characteristics of the people that wage it.

Scholars and strategists are of the opinion that militaries are in an era of "new wars", contrasting "old wars" that appear to follow the Clausewitzian paradigm (Gray, 2004; 2006). A concept such as "new wars" forces militaries to make a distinction between wars of the past and those of the future. Militaries must undertake the responsibility of retooling and transforming to adjust to contemporary wars. Nations today need to prepare for future security challenges and its military and political leaders must come to grips with the changing meaning of war. The dynamics behind these "new wars" include processes such as globalisation, integration and fragmentation, homogenisation, diversification and localisation. "New wars" typically involve the dissolution of states by opposing groups who are trying to inflict their own definition of the national identity of the state and its population (Kaldor, 2001; 2007).

Scholars are witnessing that these "new wars" might require militaries to combine conventional struggles with insurgencies and civil wars, such as those conflicts in Iraq and the Second Lebanon war waged by Israel in 2006 (Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008). These conflicts are dispersed in place and time, because of the uncertainty of who the warriors are, and blurred because of unclear boundaries. Countries will face momentous problems in terms of structure, training and investment for their armed forces and leaders fighting these "new wars".

The term "new wars" involves conflict taking place in areas where the collapse of one or more states is a reality. Conflicts in these areas are fought between groups that consist of people who had no previous military training. This directly influences the way the battle is fought. The fighters in these wars wear no uniform, thrive on killing, looting and raping and disregard any stipulations of the Geneva conventions and humanitarian law (see par 2.2.4.2). "New wars" comprise of non-combatants, legitimate violence and criminal behaviour where the conventions of "old wars" are intentionally violated (Verweij, 2012). Kaldor (2007) explained that "new wars" will be a combination of large scale human rights violations and organised crime. Kaldor described that "new wars" require a new approach in which the rights of the individuals are put above that of the whole nation.

Undoubtedly, the end of the Cold War brought about a shift away from strategic military studies towards the study of security (Esterhuyse, 2007; Metz & Cuccia, 2011). National security conventionally has in effect been a synonym for national military defence. A popular argument today is that threats to a nation's security lie in the realms of environmental poverty, health, economic stability and cultural identity (Gray, 2006). Militaries find themselves in an era where major wars are declining and threats to political, economic, social and environmental security studies are increasing. Security forms the buzzword to understanding complex, multinational threats armed forces face in the milieu of the contemporary arena (Van Dyk, 2008).

Metz and Millen (2003, p. 14) quoted what they regard as the character of new warfare for the future:

"As states themselves are constrained from overt military aggression, the armed forces of all nations will be involved in promoting internal stability and confronting internal enemies, whether separatists, militias, insurgents, terrorists, armed criminal cartels, or something similar. The first two decades of the 21st century will be dominated by protracted, complex, ambiguous armed conflicts rather than short, politically and ethically clear ones leading to decisive outcomes."

Recent examples, such as the internal instability in Egypt and the civil war in Libya, indicate the environment soldiers will operate in and highlight the character of future warfare. During the 2011 Egyptian revolution the military was ordered to deploy internally in order to maintain and promote internal stability, after mass demonstrations and protests, characterised by violence by the Egyptian people. The Egyptian people demanded that the 30 year dictator President Hosni Mubarak step down due to grievances such as police brutality, state of emergency laws, lack of free elections, freedom of speech, and uncontrollable corruption.

As the public demonstrations increased in dynamism and violence, the police were simply unable to contain the internal instability. The military deployed in order to assist the police to gain control over the situation, however, the military's responsibilities grew systematically as the situation deteriorated. Soldiers deployed to cities across Egypt in order to protect specific government buildings and strategic assets. The military soon became involved in separating clashes between pro-Maburak and anti-government supporters. As a result the military became the primary body responsible for internal security. Throughout the revolution the military exercised restraint by not engaging civilians with live ammunition even though it was apparently ordered to do so. The revolution ended when President Mubarak resigned after 18 days of continuous protest and violence. The military was deemed as the heroes of the revolution due to their restraint and conduct (Wahba, 2011).

In the 2011 Libyan civil war, the military was ordered in a statement by President Colonel Muammar al-Gaddafi on national television to quell the uprising by any means possible. This included the use of excessive force on the civilian protestors. The military had split into separate groups, those loyal to Gaddafi and those who sided with the revolution. As a result, the military as a whole, could not deal with the internal instability as a cohesive fighting institution that was supposed to protect the state. Instead, the loyalist forces were responsible to fight the revolutionaries across Libya. These loyalist forces used armour, air and artillery assets on the revolutionaries and in the process killed innocent civilians in urban areas. In March of that year the United Nations approved Security Council Resolution 1973, which authorised the establishment of a no-fly zone and to protect civilians by all necessary measures. Consequently, the US, France, Britain and Canada conducted operations in support of the revolutionaries to stop the advancing of the loyalist forces. On 31 March 2011, the North Atlantic Treaty Organisation (NATO) took over command of all military operations under the name "Operation Unified Protector" (Vira & Cordesman, 2011). NATO's involvement in Libya indicates the propensity for governments to act on issues such as internal instability which occur in their sphere of influence.

According to Hammes (2004) future warfare will use all available networks – political, economic, social and military- sources to influence the enemy's political leaders that their premeditated strategic objectives are unattainable or they will damage the perceived benefit. Previous warfare focused on defeating the enemy's military forces. Future warfare will focus more on attacking the minds of enemy decision makers to obliterate the enemy's political will. This will require of future leaders to possess critical social and interpersonal skills needed to interact with a wide range of personalities and motives of the enemy's decision makers. Interpersonal skills are an important skill set for any future military leader as they will interact with a variety of internal and external entities.

For example, regarding internal entities, leaders should have the skill to foster agreement and to bargain in order to shape or manipulate their environment. Externally, leaders may occupy the role as a member of policy formulation teams that aid in establishing state interests and objectives. In situations such as these leaders need to rely on their social and interpersonal skills in communicating, persuading, and building consensus. The cognitive challenge for the leader and decision maker will be integrating logical and rational thinking on the one hand, while at the same time employing creative, generative thinking on the other. This will increase the leader's understanding and anticipation on how the situation might change and the ability to recognise how to manoeuvre for a superior position in the situation. This ultimately enhances the leader's flexibility to deal with instability and being ahead of the enemy or strategic counterpart. It will also embrace a persistent intuit of moral responsibility providing the military of the future with warriors who are equipped to deal with diverse people and cultures, tolerate ambiguity, and take initiative in their responsibilities (Micewski, 2005).

Today's contemporary warfare warrior will need to be a warrior that is not only physically fit but will have to have a high level of psychological fitness (Bates, Bowles, Hammermeister, Stokes, Pinder, Moore, Fritts, Vythilingam, Yosick, Rodes, Myatt, Westphal, Fautua, Hammer, & Burbelo, 2010). The operating environment the soldier finds himself in, in the 21st century necessitates a psychological fitness that can classify him as a "wise warrior" (see par 2.2.4.5). Psychological fitness refers to the soldier integrating and optimising his mental, emotional (see par 2.5.1) and behavioural abilities (such as coping) (see par 2.5.3) along with his capability to enhance his performance and resilience (see par 2.5.2). The mechanisms of psychological fitness for the warrior will include mental components, emotional components and behavioural components. The mental component will include the way the soldier thinks and processes his information, such as his flexibility, attention control, self-efficacy, self-confidence, mastery, engagement and cognitive ability. The emotional component will include how the soldier feels about himself, others and his environment (in essence EI) (see par 2.5.1) and will include concepts such as composure, optimism (a component of PsyCap) (see par 2.5.2), sense of humour, hope (a component of PsyCap), love, perseverance (a component of SOC) (see par 2.5.3) and self-regulation (see par 2.5.4). The behavioural component will include the way people act in response to their thoughts and emotions such as coping (see par 2.5.3), positive emotions, mastery, behavioural regulation, altruism, knowledge, humour, mental processes and agility (Bates et al., 2010; Real warriors, 2012). Psychological fitness will require from the leader to build his mental, emotional and behavioural abilities to successfully manage the unique and changing challenges of serving in the military.

The contemporary operating environment's character and demands provide comprehensible guidelines for the performance requirements needed by military personnel and military leaders. These requirements shape training, leader development and the leadership doctrine of the military. Literature proves continuous changing technologies, social forces, and political interests in concurrence with the military operating environment which shows a continuously accelerating and changing pace spanning through history. Military forces today "need leadership to help them overcome their limitations, unite their efforts, maintain their focus, and accomplish their missions. Military leaders must be equipped to execute diverse missions in novel and rapidly changing conditions. They must be able to quickly make sense of situations, reach decisions, formulate plans, and adjust to unexpected outcomes" (Morath, Leonard, & Zaccaro, 2011, p. 456). Armed forces should include in their leadership doctrines leader development that emphasises leader qualities such as adaptability, dexterity, malleability, flexibility, creativity and ingenuity, and the motivation, impetus and aptitude to engage in continuous learning, indispensable for success in the contemporary and future operating environments.

In the continuous evolvement of the modern battlefield soldiers need to be prepared to rapidly transform "from brutal kinetic combat one minute to complex, non-kinetic (e.g., negotiations or psychological operations) interactions the next (and back again) with agility, intelligence, and an exceptional level of emotional self-control" (Hannah, Jennings, & Nobel, 2010, p. 413). An exceptional level of emotional self-control is vital for any contemporary soldier.

Rosenberg (2011a), one of the authors of the magazine Psychology today, had an interview with a Special Forces officer of the US army named Major Fernando Lujan, who stated that in addition to the tough physical demands of training, psychological education is a big part of what soldiers should experience. Military psychologists should form part of the evaluating team to assist in identifying each soldier's psychological vulnerabilities to increase the soldier's self-awareness (which links to emotional awareness a critical EI ability) (see par 2.5.1.1). This increases the soldier's emotional knowledge that he needs to maintain composure and function adequately. Emotional knowledge will help the soldier push through his barriers of pain tolerance, hopelessness, fear and shame and give him the ability to mentally regroup to complete his mission. He will be able to withstand the mental aspects of situations such as interrogations, he will become mentally stronger and more resilient (see par 2.5.2); he will know how to regulate his emotions when "his buttons get pushed". It is through training like these that soldiers will master self-control and emotional self-regulation. It will provide the soldier with the ability to control his actions, to act in planned, intentional ways and not impulsively, and give him the ability to shift his emotional states.

Having the skill to calm down after a hostile situation is an example of emotional regulation and self-control (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000), such as explained in the example where Lt. Colonel Chris Hughes ordered his troops not to shoot at the Iraqi agitators causing havoc at the Shia mosque (see par. 1.1).

When one look at the multidimensionality of military missions which incorporate a prolonged mix of traditional tasks such as intelligence gathering, threat assessment, and tactical war fighting in combating insurgency as well as non-traditional tasks such as broad nation-building responsibilities, peace-making, civil affairs administration, infrastructure improvement and developing local security organisations (Lindsay, Day, & Halpin, 2011; Connaughton et al., 2011; Fallesen et al., 2011; Halpin, 2011; Hannah et al., 2010; Jennings & Hannah, 2011; Morath et al., 2011), it becomes imperative that soldiers are equipped with the underlying components of EI, PsyCap and SOC. These non-traditional tasks bring new challenges in terms of intra- and interpersonal abilities for future military leaders.

Examples of soldiers participating in non-traditional roles include internal conflicts in Africa. Regional groupings such as the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), Economic and Monetary Community of Central African States (CEMAC), the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the African Union (AU) have, with or without the United Nations (UN) or European Union (EU) aid, deployed peacekeeping soldiers to numerous conflict regions in the recent past and will do so in the future. According to the International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS), peace agreements in Angola, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Eritrea-Ethiopia and Sierra Leone, still do not succeed in fostering regional peace. There continues to be violence in Burundi, Congo, Liberia, Somalia, Uganda, Chad and Sudan. This raises the reality that soldiers will still deploy on missions such as peacekeeping in the foreseeing future (Omoigui, 2005).

The US military continue responding to crises in places like Somalia, Bosnia, Rwanda, Cambodia, and Liberia. As these complex crises situations appear, threatening international stability, the US military will continue its involvement in such operations. Hall (2010) also illustrated an example where future military leaders will continue to be part of non-traditional tasks. Since 2002, the Philippine armed forces together with some US troops have joined in operations in Mindanao where their tasks included non-traditional responsibilities such as disaster relief, reconstruction and civic action outside and within known conflict areas, environmental protection, assistance to the police for anti-crime, post disaster rehabilitation, basic service delivery (e.g. education and health) and targeted (village-level) infrastructure projects. The Philippine military is currently re-defining their definition of armed forces to include a new skill set that will enable soldiers to perform successfully across diverse missions such as humanitarian aid, disaster relief, stabilisation and reconstruction, or peace support operations.

These examples illustrate the arenas future military leaders will operate in, stressing the fact that intra- and interpersonal skills become a vital part in the "toolbox" the soldier needs to be a successful leader. EI, PsyCap and SOC then become vital tools that the leader will have to put in his toolbox before embarking on his journey to the modern "battlefield". International challenges faced by armed forces in the next decade are depicted in Figure 2.1.
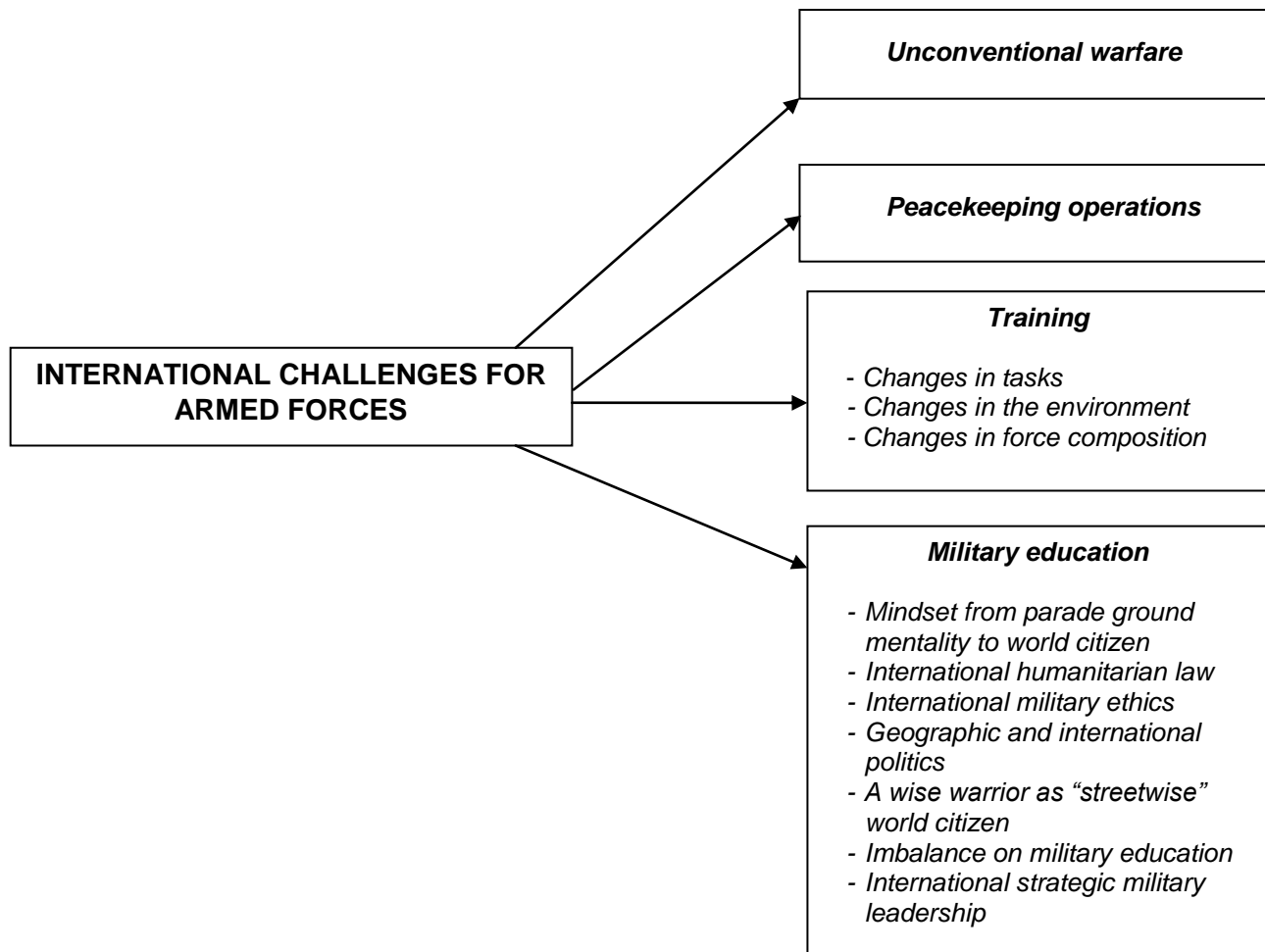
Figure 2.1. **International challenges for armed forces**

2.2.1 Unconventional warfare

The strategic character of war has changed and militaries and governments are striving to adjust to fight and win in this new environment, typified by engagement in global counterinsurgency. Militaries are at risk of failing to understand the nature of the war the 21st era armed forces will fight. A war characterised by "a war of intelligence and a war of perceptions". "Counterinsurgency poses a unique challenge that necessitates a level of innovative strategic thought and depth of understanding" (Barno, 2006, p. 15). The evolution of warfare, or the fourth generation warfare some researchers refers to, outlines the construct global insurgency.

Global insurgency, according to the Department of Defence dictionary of military and associated terms of the US Department of Defence (2005, p. 264) is "an organized movement aimed at the overthrow of a constituted government through use of subversion and armed conflict". For example, when US marines and Afghan soldiers participate in counterinsurgency operations in Marjah, Afghanistan, against the Taliban. A challenging topic for contemporary forces is asymmetrical warfare.

Asymmetric warfare, according to Tomes (2004), is war between groups whose military power, strategy and tactics differ significantly. These groups attempt to exploit each other's characteristic weaknesses. Strategies and tactics normally involve unconventional warfare that includes acquiescence, capitulation or clandestine support for one side of an existing conflict. These strategies and tactics also consist of terrorism and insurgencies.

Terrorism violence is directed mainly against non-combatants (unarmed civilians), rather than the military, which includes acts such as assassinations, bombings, arson, torture, mutilation, hijacking and kidnapping. The purpose of terrorist attacks is to change the political community, political system, authorities or policies. Terrorism erodes psychological support by instilling fear into civil servants and their domestic and international supporters (Pham, 2010; Harmon, 2001; O'Neill, 1990). The most common strategies of contemporary terrorism include spreading chaos, discrediting and destroying existing government, economic damage, and military damage (Harmon, 2001). Attacks have a general purpose of altering the behaviour and attitudes of specific groups (O'Neill, 1990). Insurgencies have been prevalent in underdeveloped state system areas such as Africa, Asia and Latin America. Of 55 on-going conflicts in 2001, 40 percent were in Africa and insurgents remain a crucial challenge in the contemporary world (Beckett, 2005).

The US army recognised the developing security challenges of the 21st century and is transforming accordingly to become more strategically and tactically agile and adaptive. They are reorienting priorities to continue their relevance and readiness for any challenges in the Global War on terrorism and other requirements. The army is transforming into a modular, capability-based unit design within joint networks, facilitated by a joint and expeditionary mindset (MILTECH, 2005). New civil wars, recently, can be seen as also forming part of the new era armed forces will have to operate in. Civil wars are apparent internationally, seen in Afghanistan, Libya, Ivory Coast in West Africa which is very near to a civil war, and Yemen in the Middle East which is also on the brink of a civil war.

Another important example of how complex the operating environment is for armed forces of the 21st century includes the instance of US soldiers working in coalition with Afghan soldiers against the Taliban.

Rosenberg (2012) reported that a US soldier was killed when an Afghan soldier opened fire on US soldiers playing volleyball at a base in Afghanistan. The Afghan attacker was gunned down in an instant shot. A 70 page coalition report entitled "A crisis of trust and cultural incompatibility" shows pervasive feelings of animosity and distrust between the US and Afghan soldiers. Afghan soldiers complain that US troops are killing civilians, they are urinating in public and they use excessively foul language. One Afghan soldier said that the Americans don't listen and they are very arrogant. American soldiers equally have complaints against the Afghan soldiers saying that they are dishonest and use drugs even while on patrols. The Americans also said that they are suspicions about some of the Afghan soldiers possibly being in league with the Taliban. High intrapersonal and interpersonal skills can possibly aid in better interrelationships between groups of different backgrounds and cultures.

2.2.2   Peacekeeping operations

Current operational environments demand from soldiers to deal face-to-face with aid workers, other military personnel, irregular forces and civilians. These environments force soldiers to make rapid decisions with grave strategic consequences and little opportunity to consult their military superiors. Fletcher (as cited in Micewski, 2005) stated that the need for optimal preparedness to effectively perform in these environments extends to corporals as well as officers.

Martin Fedor, Minister of Defence of the Slovak Republic, commented on this new strategic arena for militaries by stating that militaries now should apply a multi-national security strategy that includes tasks such as prevention of conflicts, peacekeeping operations, responses to disasters and humanitarian aid. The initial stage of a reform process for armed forces should mainly focus on the human dimension (MILTECH, 2006).

According to the United Nations Peacekeeping Operations (2010), there are currently 15 UN peace operations deployed on four continents. These include 14 peacekeeping operations, and one special political mission in Afghanistan. The United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) leads all these. America is involved with a stabilisation mission in Haiti. African deployments include missions in Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Darfur, Sudan, Cote d'Ivoire, Liberia and Western Sahara. Currently there is also a military observer group in India and Pakistan and a UN assistance mission in Afghanistan. The Middle East also sees peacekeeping operations in Lebanon. Peacekeeping has demonstrated to be one of the most successful and valuable tools available to the UN to aid host countries navigating the difficult path from conflict to peace.

Peacekeeping operations can include the administration of elections; the retraining of judges, lawyers and police officers; the nurturing of indigenous political parties and non-governmental organisations; the reorganisation of governmental institutions and the delivery of emergency humanitarian and financial assistance (Persson, 2009).

Literature on peace building highlights the significance of having a long-term perspective, but peace building should entail both short-term and long-term frameworks. The former concentrates on emergency relief and control of violence, while the latter is more directed towards development, conflict transformation and social change (Persson, 2009). Peacekeeping has distinctive advantages, which include authenticity, problem and responsibility sharing, and a facility to deploy and uphold soldiers around the world, joining these soldiers together with civilian peacekeepers to advance multidimensional mandates. UN peacekeepers provide security, political and peace building support to help countries make the complex transition from conflict to peace. Peacekeeping has been deployed in many configurations over the past two decades, showing the flexible power of peacekeeping.

"Today's multidimensional peacekeeping operations are called upon not only to maintain peace and security, but also to facilitate the political process, protect civilians, assist in the disarmament, demobilization and reintegration of former combatants; support the organisation of elections, protect and promote human rights and assist in restoring the rule of law" (United Nations Peacekeeping Operations, 2010, p. 1).

Soldiers entering peacekeeping missions engage in the most physically and politically difficult environments. Peacekeeping intervenes in the most difficult cases (Fortna, 2008) and functions within a changing physical, social, economic and political environment. Soldiers need to be flexible to address such changing sets of issues. Armed forces of the coming decades would be turned into forces capable of responding to challenges of peacekeeping missions (Mijatović, 2010). Conflicts these days tend to be more intra-state than inter-state, where neighbouring countries might be involved only by providing support. The cause of conflict recently has been due to ethnic unrest, a consequence perhaps of the sudden realisation of new identities. The focus of security today is on the people and not the state. Development, empowerment, meeting legitimate objectives and meeting basic human needs are central issues (Banerjee, 2005). Without doubt the peacekeeping arena also shows that tomorrow's leaders will be faced with complex challenges (Banerjee, 2005; Fortna, 2008; Heineken, 1998, 2005; Malan, 2008; Micewski, 2005; Mijatović, 2010; MILTECH, 2006; Neethling, 1997, 2003; Persson, 2009; Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008; Van Dyk, 2008, 2009; Van Dyk & Bruwer, 2005).

Abbe, Gulik, and Herman (as cited in Halpin, 2011) proclaimed that research done by the army research institute of the US found that specific region knowledge and cultural-general skills appear vital for all military personnel conducting patrols or interacting with local or host-nation leaders. Recent research data on personnel who served as advisors in Iraq and Afghanistan showed how essential interpersonal and cultural characteristics are in order to perform the advisory role as a peacekeeper soldier. The operational environment in Iraq or Afghanistan, for example, shows a dispersion of relatively junior officers who are expected to take initiative and respond to local events with nominal guidance from senior officers or officers higher in the chain of command.

The change in the context of military leadership, as the devolution of authority to lower organisational levels, shows the fundamental importance of increasing military education and training (such as increased responsibility, cultural knowledge and related skills) to junior officers or those lower in the ranks.

2.2.3   Training

The global egression of the defence environment challenges military officers with intricate, multifaceted and interrelated security challenges (Micewski, 2005). The postmodernist prototype soldier of the armed forces means that he will be part of a militaristic shift toward a volunteer force and missions that are more multipurpose in nature.

Callaghan and Kernic (2003) stated that militaries assume new missions and take on new tasks such as peacekeeping, humanitarian and multinational operations, anti-drug trafficking missions, border control and environmental protection. Modern militaries will be androgynous in nature and ethos, with a greater permeable character towards civilian societies (Moskos, Williams, & Segal, 2000). The traditional image of a soldier being a fighter, attributing the management and submission of violence, will change during this era to an image of being a protector, with peacekeeping and humanitarian tasks forming the core of a military identity. "The core missions of military organisations shift from primarily war fighting or war deterrence to military deployments for peace and humanitarian purposes" (Micewski, 2005, p. 1). The modification of this identity necessitates a change in the armed forces' self-awareness. Exterritorial missions with the goal of global stabilisation and humanitarian aid initiate the development of the citizen in uniform to become a world-citizen in uniform.

General Schoomaker of the US army said that everybody has to be a soldier first (MILTECH, 2005). Armed forces, however, should refocus their efforts to producing flexible, adjusted and competent soldiers.

Soldiers need to have the warrior culture of being organised, trained and equipped to fight wars and win peace. New kinds of warfare discussed above are continuously enhanced by better strategies, more inventive and creative tactics and state-of-the-art technologies. Although all of these advancements help to increase combat effectiveness the success of any military still hinges upon the skills, abilities and expertise of the fighting force, or how well the fighting force is trained.

Literature shows that militaries are continuously undergoing transformation processes which indicate flatter organisations, joint integration at low levels, automated traditional human functions, and increased task loads. These changes would certainly pose significant training challenges for any defence force (Soon, Lip, & Yuh, 2003). Soon et al. (2003) stated that trends such as the changes in tasks of militaries, changes in the external environments the military is operating in and changes in the composition of military forces show that current training systems possibly would surface to be inadequate in the near future.

Training in "old wars" meant that the soldier was trained for the sole purpose to kill. When one looks at the Clausewitzian paradigm war was ultimately about fighting, the purpose was to overthrow the enemy by using force. "Old wars" entail the combat between two warring parties, when one looks at the definition of war again according to Clausewitz, "an act of violence intended to compel the opponent to fulfil our will" (Clausewitz, 1997, p. 5), one sees that the inner nature of "old wars" accompanied violence. "New wars" have a different inner nature and this stresses the fact that the nature of training for these "new wars" also has to change. Violence was the means of "old wars". The ultimate purpose of "old wars" was the enforced disarmament of the opponent and this explains why the "old wars" led to extreme uses of violence. According to the Clausewitzian paradigm, fighting and combat were the core components of war. "New wars", however, aim at creating a state of war in which a particular group benefit. "New wars" are characterised by little violence if at all, and if violence occurs it is mainly directed at civilian populations. The most significant difference between "new" and "old wars" is the absence of direct combat. Where training in "old wars" focussed on the depersonalisation of the soldier to kill, training in "new wars" is needed to make the soldier aware that he now needs to become "friends" with the enemy, such as building relations with local governments, armies and civilian populations on peacekeeping missions. During "new wars" soldiers turn themselves into protectors as contemporary conflicts include situations such as looting, pillage, kidnapping, criminal activities like drug smuggling or human trafficking, and humanitarian assistance (Kaldor, 2007; 2010).

Seligman and Fowler (2011) are of the opinion that militaries do not place enough emphasis on the importance of psychological fitness training for soldiers for future warfare. They stated that training soldiers in psychological fitness will decrease statistics of soldiers suffering from post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), depression, and anxiety.

Psychological fitness training can also improve soldiers' performance and morale, and their mental and physical well-being. The contemporary military environment necessitates an army which is just as psychologically fit as it is physically fit. They state that the US army should possibly look at future possibilities of including psychological training in their doctrines. This training will include: training all members in resilience and positive psychology; and expanded online and in-person courses for the military in emotional, social, family, and spiritual fitness. Seligman and Fowler further stated that developing emotional, social, family and spiritual fitness among young soldiers can possibly reduce morbidity, mortality, and mental illness.

The return on investing in training programmes such as these can produce soldiers who have more positive emotions, engagement and more meaningful relationships. Soldiers given this training can possibly perform better in their jobs, will have more meaning in their lives and will enjoy more productive and successful employment (Bates et al., 2010; Seligman & Fowler, 2011). Fundamentally, soldiers receiving education and training in the various components of EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly perform better in their roles as soldiers fighting in a new and modern "battlefield" and being successful leaders in their diverse quests.

Soldiers are trained to kill. The main purpose of a soldier in battle is to kill the enemy. Cole (2012) wrote about the staff sergeant who killed 16 Afghan villagers near Qandahar, Afghanistan. The situation spiralled out of control and due to the staff sergeant's inability to contain the situation, innocent people were killed. Militaries need to train and educate soldiers in different emotional competencies on how to successfully function in stressful situations such as these.

2.2.3.1 Changes in tasks

The events of September 11, have changed the security paradigm radically, not only for the US but also globally (Soon et al., 2003; Gray, 2006). "Terrorists, who had lived in Western countries for years, received indoctrination and military training in Afghanistan, funded by radical organisations and networked to terrorist cells in dozens of countries, were able to crash civilian airliners deliberately into the landmarks of the most powerful nation in the world to destroy the symbols of its dominance" (Soon et al., 2003, p. 1). These events show the other than conventional threats militaries have to deal with; the enemy today includes non-state organisations with covert militants. To cope with these new trans-national asymmetric terrorist threats militaries need to expand their mission statements to include operations protecting their national interests and the well-being of their citizens. The question lures, how can soldiers that trained to fight conventionally using fire and movement, taking proper cover and doing a right or left flank on the enemy, be ready to fight an enemy who does not wear a military uniform, adopts asymmetric strategies and avoids open battle?

The current training system simply does not train them adequately for this non-conventional role. Soldiers today undertake peacekeeping operations. Present training systems train soldiers to act as mean war machines whose most important role is to conquer the enemy. During peacekeeping missions, soldiers now have to protect civilians, be sensitive to their feelings and take up community projects, such as building schools, teaching and assisting in building essential infrastructure. Clearly, there is a gap between what soldiers are trained to do and what they do on the ground.

The closure of the Soviet Union and end of the Cold War allowed the US to focus its attention on a broader array of national interests globally. US trepidation over regional stability and genocide resulted in US forces deploying to Bosnia, Saddam Hussein's incursion of Kuwait resulted in the first Gulf War, and US response to the terrorist attacks of 9/11 ultimately resulted in the US invasions of Afghanistan and Iraq, and numerous other counterterrorism operations nationally and internationally. A remarkable aspect of these operations is that they were not characterised by conventional combat between opposing forces, but are rather characterised by a variety of other operational types of combat such as peacemaking, peacekeeping, peace enforcement, counterinsurgency, combating terrorism, foreign internal defence, and training.

These operations took place among the local populations of the different countries involved and soldiers were forced to interact with the citizens. In many of these operations the success of the operation hinges on gaining trust and willing cooperation from the local population for improved stability. If one looks at the example mentioned of the staff sergeant who killed 16 Afghan villagers near Qandahar, Afghanistan (see par 2.3.3), one cannot help to wonder whether the US then is completely successful in their interventions in Afghanistan. If the staff sergeant had any psychological skills training and education, in for example EI, PsyCap and SOC, would the results of the situation have been different? Are the training soldiers receiving the correct training for these situations? Militaries today should maybe focus on restructuring their training to include these skills in order for the conventional "killing machine" to successfully function in situations like these.

Many of the missions require a versatile combination of combat actions to destroy and defend rebels but also include non-combat actions to generate psychological gains with the local population. Military leaders today must possess cultural awareness and proficiency for operating in these culturally diverse areas. Leaders at all levels should understand, respect and adjust to these cultural differences to establish durable relationships for successful mission accomplishments. Morath et al. (2011, p. 457) stated that "operating within a foreign culture can greatly increase the uncertainty and ambiguity of the situation. This is especially true when the military operation is against an insurgent or irregular force that does not wear uniforms, ignores international laws of warfare, and seeks to blend with the local non-combatant population".

Soldiers confronting uncertain situations in which it is hard to distinguish between enemy combatants and innocent bystanders are faced with tremendous psychological stress.

Karrasch, Riedel and Karrasch (as cited in Halpin, 2011) illustrated the change in military tasks and leadership and highlighted the importance of education in interpersonal skills. They stated that the US involvement in Bosnia and Kosovo raised significant concerns about the need for greater preparation in interpersonal skills. "First, these operations required large numbers of military officers and senior non-commissioned officers to work with allied forces on a daily basis. Limitations in cross-cultural communication skills based on a lack of cultural understanding seemed to reduce US military efficiency and effectiveness in this environment. Thus, the process of exerting influence on others to achieve a common goal is not only important when working with subordinates but also comes into play when working with peers and superiors from allied nations" (Halpin, 2011, p. 484). Laurence (2011) stated that the shared responsibility of modern military leaders for their troops and the local population requires from them to modify and alter their interpersonal relationship skills and leadership styles as the situation demands. Military leaders engage across cultures in different military operations and need the abilities to fabricate trust, form alliances, interpret intentions, and influence and understand people and their motivations.

2.2.3.2 Changes in the environment

Armed forces moving into the 21st century will see that military technology continues to play an integral role in facilitating the forces to overcome security challenges. Armed forces today are exposed to new and revolutionary military technology operated by soldiers, who often are not necessarily prepared for this new type of warfare (Callaghan & Kernic, 2003). Soldiers should possess a higher level of technical understanding in handling sophisticated weaponry. Armed forces need to pay attention and embrace the new war-fighting concepts brought about by the technological advances (Gray, 2006). Constant uncertainty in the economy is a lurking challenge that demands from commanders to be innovative in conducting training and to maintain and improve training efficiency with reduced resources.

Development in technological advances makes military operations today more lethal, complex, and more rapidly paced and continuous. Morath et al. (2011) stated that one of the most noteworthy forces of change for militaries today has been the technological fulmination. Technology has given military forces globally more enhanced capabilities with greater technological advances in military equipment and military systems. Technological developments in the public sector have changed the environment in which armed forces operate and have given sophisticated facilities at low expenditure to almost anyone.

Weapon systems such as individual arms, artillery and missile systems, have become more lethal, are lighter and more compact, are easily transported and deployed, are more accurate and deliver more destructive power. The rapid propagation of information is now handled with more reliable communication systems which operate over greater ranges. Forces located considerable distances from the operation now have improved situational awareness of the operation with these new communication systems. Improved intelligence systems are used to amalgamate information from a wide variety of sources such as national level assets, sensors, unmanned aerial vehicles, satellites and forces on the ground.

These advances seen in different areas in the military such as the development and advances in transportation, weapon, sensor, computing, and communication technologies have reduced decision making and made the rapidity of operations to a great extent faster. Technological advances frequently lead to task organisation, mission planning, and command and control exercises without face-to-face contact between leaders and subordinates. Technologies such as night vision and global positioning facilitate day and night time operations where soldiers sometimes operate without any rest in-between, leading to military operations becoming more physically and mentally demanding.

Technology has also given the media power of visibility of any military operation worldwide. The news media today can gather any information or news from nearly any location and transmit this news instantaneously. This news information brought into the homes and workplaces of citizens globally also shapes public opinions of military operations, which can have negative impacts on tactical, operational and strategic levels. The omnipresent "aura" of the media recording events independently and transmitting them worldwide places more demands on soldiers to be able to assess situations and have the skills to rapidly make difficult judgments and judicious decisions (Morath et al., 2011). This demands from the soldier to invest in the underlying components of EI, PsyCap and SOC to successfully make these judgments and decisions. A study done by Koen, Van Eeden, Wissing, and Koen (2011) showed that emotional competency training such as resilience training and enhancing EI will lead to people having more emotional stability (see par 2.5.1), positive emotions that will minimise stress (SOC) (see par 2.5.3), higher self-esteem and self-efficacy (component of PsyCap) (see par 2.5.2) and a sense of personal control. If soldiers can successfully apply these skills it can possibly lead to them experiencing situations as less mentally demanding and also help them in rapid decision making.

2.2.3.3 *Changes in force composition*

In 1948, American President Truman integrated blacks into the military and Congress began in 1976 to nominate women to serve in the US military.

The integration of blacks and women into the military proved to be successful and these previously banned classes now serve successfully in the military. In 1974, six US allies – Australia, Canada, Germany, Israel, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom – started integrating homosexuals into their militaries and the US also moved toward greater acceptance of homosexuality (Segal, 2003). Dunham (2011) reported that on Tuesday, 20 September 2011, President Barack Obama hailed the end of the policy banning gays from serving openly in the armed forces, as the Pentagon vowed "zero tolerance" for harassment of homosexuals in the military. The implementation of these classes brought warring threats such as social cohesion and unit effectiveness, but years later the expansion of the military social aperture made militaries more inclusive and gave previously disadvantaged classes of citizens equal social status (Allsep, Levy, & Parco, 2011). These changes can influence all training systems militaries incorporate to successfully prepare their soldiers for future strategic challenges. Increases in the number of recruits coming to militaries will also place strain on current training systems (Soon et al*.,* 2003).

Africa being an affluent, vibrant and diverse continent continues to play an ever-increasing strategic significance in today's global security environment. The Department of Defence (DoD) displays a long history of supporting other government agencies and international relief organisations in providing humanitarian aid, medical care and synchronising disaster reinforcement. Lessons learned during the 21st century threat environment highlight the changing nature of defence forces' roles. The significance of developing security relationships with like-minded nations throughout the world, and the value of a holistic approach to security issues become important in the new era of warfare. The security challenges of the 21st century demand that Africa be an integral element of the world in a security milieu, as well as political and economic milieus (Whelan, 2010). Human security rather than military security would deliver peace and security to Africa (Salih, 2010), initiating a total new role for soldiers aiming to reach this type of human security. The combat environment discussed with its cultural differences impedes the progress of trust relationships between soldiers and their leaders, compromising leadership success and in turn organisational effectiveness.

This calls for development in interpersonal relationships and attention to relationship quality to accommodate for changes in force composition. Leaders of the future will need strong communication and diplomatic skills incorporating also underlying skills such as social, emotional, cultural and intelligence dexterity. These concepts will provide the leader with the ability to recognise, scrutinise, supervise, understand, and utilise social, emotional, and cultural information to direct interpretation of situations and appropriate actions to these situations (Goleman, 1998b; Laurence, 2011; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008).

The success of military operations operating cross culturally and having soldiers employed from different cultural backgrounds lies in the traits and skills embedded in these soldiers. Traits and skills such as empathy, respect, interest in other people, behavioural flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, initiative, open-mindedness, and sociability are all needed to ensure interpersonal relationship success between soldiers. Globalisation and multinational operations emphasise the need for soldiers to be trained in interpersonal relationship skills. Laurence (2011) stated that the development and promotion of relationship skills is necessary not only for external situations but for internal dynamics as well.

As has been noted throughout the literature, conducting international operations will be one of the main roles for militaries worldwide. This necessitates that soldiers of all ranks be trained and prepared in intercultural awareness. Zecha (2011, p. 294) explained that "in an international environment soldiers have to be aware of the history, values, religions and behaviour of the region and the different peoples living in it". Therefore soldiers have to be trained in awareness of the "culture of the area of operations". This will provide the soldier with skills that will enable him to deal with different cultures of the different countries in multinational operations. Cultural awareness will be necessary for all parties participating in multinational operations to co-operate in successful, effective ways. International operations' preparation and training need to include training on how to act in an international military environment and how to act towards local populations in appropriate ways. Officers and key personnel have to be trained and educated on negotiation skills and cultural awareness of the different environments that they will be acting in. Zecha (2011) stressed the fact that the key and most important factor for successful international operations will be preparation and training in different cultural aspects for different cultures.

Recent examples on how important cultural awareness training is for soldiers include the instance where US soldiers burnt the Quran in Afghanistan. US soldiers burnt a cache of Qurans at the Bagram airbase during February 2012, setting of massive riots across the whole country. The unrest caused 30 deaths and aggravated attacks on the US forces. NATO started with refresher training for the troops on how to handle the Quran, but experts say this might not stop future similar instances. Montgomery McFate, an anthropologist working with the US Defence Department, said "the Bible is not considered itself a holy object, and unless you'd grown up in a religious tradition where that was true, you wouldn't understand the way that Muslims feel about the Quran" (Duncan, 2012, p. 1). Lt. Col. George Robison, a senior officer in the US military, saw the cultural training programme instituted to train troops on cultural awareness and stated that the programme is too simplistic. The Quran is sacred for the Muslims and is the word of God revealed to the prophet Muhammad. Problems with the Quran and US troops are not a new crisis for the US military leaders. In 2005 a Quran was flushed down a toilet in a US prison in Cuba, and in 2008 a soldier in Iraq used a Quran for a target to practise his shooting.

Cultural awareness training becomes vital when one looks at such instances and the military needs to put more emphasis on these types of training. Rochelle Davis, who is currently writing a book on cultural training in the military, stated that the military wanted to achieve much more up until now in Iraq and Afghanistan and they thought this could happen through culture and interacting with the local populations of the country. However, all has not been completely successful when burning of Qurans and disrespecting the sacred book of the Muslims becomes the norm for US troops.

Mahir Ibrahimov, an army advisor on culture, said that the burning of the Quran could affect the army's training and could possibly be because of a lack of cultural training and should be kept in mind for future training of soldiers. Training in EI, PsyCap and SOC can be linked with cultural awareness training as being sensitive towards cultures will necessitate being sensitive to different emotions of different groups. "Globalisation has shrunk the business world, making multicultural emotional intelligence a must" (Bowles, 2011, p. 63). Rosenberg (2012) reported that there have been successes between Afghan commandos and US special operation forces, all of whom have undergone training in cultural aspects, but there is still contempt luring between the coalition parties.

Anthony Cordesman, a defence specialist at the Centre for Strategic and International studies in Washington and advisor to the US military on its strategy in the Afghanistan coalition, claimed that US forces should not be surprised if these two cultures clash. He used the example that if you put two different cultures of young adults together in New York there certainly will be a gang fight. He said that Afghan soldiers and US soldiers are two very different cultures with different values; it is therefore possible that they will treat each other with contempt (Rosenberg, 2012).

2.2.4   Military education

The contemporary military environment places new educational demands on armed forces for the future. The nature of warfare has changed which means that the nature of military education should also change. Soldiers need new skills and expertise to successfully function in this era. Malan (2008) stated that it is evident from the security challenges facing Africa that there is a need for military education. He concluded that "greater exposure to higher educational offerings could empower the military officer to manage these challenges in such a manner that peace and security, as well as sustainable development are promoted" (Malan, 2008, p. 160).

Van Dyk (2008) stated that military leaders need to be renovated to be the most esteemed military force in their country not only in conventional warfare but also peacekeeping operations. He used the SANDF as an example and stated that "the SANDF needs future military leaders who will be experts in understanding the complex security challenges of the next decade; who are technology experts; who have the skills to manage diversity; men and women who have the ability to see into the future" (Van Dyk, 2008, p. 313). Moskos and Burke (as cited in Van Dyk, 2008) stated that future officers must be capable and flexible to adjust from the conventional pre-Cold war era to the modern post-Cold war era. This requires from soldiers a shift in their mindset to be able to successfully function in this era.

2.2.4.1 Mindset from parade ground mentality to world citizen

Micewski (2005) stated that the environment of globalisation and humanitarian aid missions requires that the soldier takes on a new mindset in terms of not only being a citizen in uniform but a world citizen (see par 2.2.3). The contemporary military arena requires soldiers to be able to shift their mind form the parade ground mentality of strict rules and conformity to a world citizen operating in complex, unstable environments. In today's warfare environment, soldiers find themselves operating in missions that do not only require of them to run in and shoot but also requires from them a deeper knowledge of the mission dynamics for them to be effective and complete the mission successfully.

De Coning (as cited in Malan, 2008) said that the current international responses to conflict will entail soldiers being involved in conflict prevention, peacemaking through negotiations, peacekeeping through monitoring cease-fire, peace enforcement while stabilising the situation and peace building by removing the root causes of the conflict and preventing it from occurring again. The modern soldier does not only need to be "parade ground wise" and "rifle wise" but he needs a deeper understanding of the world he is now operating in. The small minded, autocratic parade ground mentality soldier should become sensitive to the different cultures that he is operating in and needs a high level of resilience to adjust in other countries. Resilient soldiers will have more emotional stability accompanied by a positive mindset spilling over to positive emotions and minimising stress (Koen et al., 2011) in foreign environments.

2.2.4.2 International humanitarian law

Van Dyk and George (as cited in Van Dyk, 2008) stated that future SANDF officers should have skills, knowledge and attitude in developing human potential. They require skills to be able to lead joint operations in Africa, together with developing a vision for their country and the continent.

The future SANDF officer needs to have the skills to deal with modern security challenges that the military faces on a strategic level. This necessitates from the officer to understand and become highly skilled in human rights and international and humanitarian law.

International law may be defined as "a body of rules and principles which are binding upon states in their relations with one another" (Dugard, 2000, p. 1). International humanitarian law "distinguishes between the *jus ad bellum* – the right to go to war- and the *jus in bello*- the law governing the waging of war and the treatment of combatants and civilians in time of war" (Dugard, 2000, p. 431).

Verweij (2012) stated that although militaries are known as a "machine of violence" or "killing machines", soldiers of armed forces are no machines and should be able to and are expected to make ethical moral decisions in diverse missions. Soldiers should think before they pull the trigger and act in unethical ways because that is what society expects from army members. Kaldor (as cited in Verweij, 2012) stated that "new wars" are wars where human rights are violated. Soldiers should receive more education on human rights and the dynamics of humanitarian law. Future warfare needs soldiers who are "wisdom wise" in protecting the rights of the populations they are interacting with. Humanitarian law must become more of a priority than just to fight war, soldiers should not only go in and kill, they should be wise in their decisions to fight and they should be sensitive towards human rights. Latour and Hosmer (2002) pointed out that EI education for military leaders offers a sophisticated approach to obtain the ability to be aware of others and yourself. EI education will bestow soldiers the ability to be sensitive towards others and thus they will be sensitive toward others' human rights.

An example that shows how important humanitarian law is for militaries includes the US in coalition with Afghan soldiers fighting against the Taliban. A classified report by NATO showed that between May 2007 and May 2011, 58 western service members were killed in attacks by Afghan soldiers. An Afghan military colonel said that the sense of hatred among the groups is growing at an intense rate. He acknowledged that his troops are thieves, liars and drug addicts but also added that the American soldiers are rude, arrogant bullies using very foul language. The colonel exclaimed that he fears this will turn into a major problem in the near future for both the armies (Rosenberg, 2012).

2.2.4.3 *International military ethics*

Steyaert (2008) affirmed that the legal and justifiable exploitation of violence has a fixed number of moral considerations. When militaries decide to use violence they should take the responsibility of showing self-control toward using such violence.

Militaries sometimes have to make difficult decisions vis-à-vis conflicting ideals that require firm ethical competencies. A future military leader should be able to recognise and define moral questions; he also must be able to deal with difficult moral dilemmas while still acting according to his professional values and norms.

According to Verweij (2012, p. 25), "military ethics is a form of applied ethics, like medical ethics". Verweij stated that military ethics take place on three levels. The first level is the micro or individual level and relates to the military force as individual. The second level, the meso or organisational level, relates to the army as a governmental institution. The third level, the macro or (inter)national political level, relates to international relations between states. It is important to note that on all of these levels values, norms, moral issues and dilemmas are present.

In order to act morally responsible, a soldier needs moral professionalism which includes a number of abilities such as:

> "Recognising the moral dimension, moral discretion means that you are able to make a moral decision, when you have the ability to communicate on moral awareness and discretion, showing that human rights can be violated in certain situations, the ability and willingness to act mean that you are, on the basis of your moral conscience, your moral discretion and your communication of them, willing and able to act or, more important, refrain from acting, the ability and willingness to shed your responsibility mean that you are able and willing to explain why you have, for instance, carried out (or refrained from carrying out) certain actions, and spiritual resilience means that you not only do act morally, but you can also defend the radical and often tragic choices that need to be made" (Verweij, 2012, p. 27).

Soldiers should recognise that they will need to have sensitivity towards the coalition forces they interact with and also the local populations of the areas they operate in. A competent leader will be one who is sensitive toward a broader world ethic. An instance of soldiers not displaying respect for their coalition parties or the hostile party includes the recent event in Afghanistan where a video emerged of one of the US marines urinating on dead Taliban fighters. This caused a high level of antipathy in the war and American commanders promptly took action and condemned the act. However, on Facebook, posts by fellow marines and supporters praised the desecration (Rosenberg, 2012). This example shows that there is still a vital need for armed forces to concentrate on ethics training. Empathy, an important interpersonal component of EI, is crucial for ethical behaviour. Ethics equals EI as one need to understand and judge how others think and how they feel (Latour & Hosmer, 2002).

A soldier needs moral courage and empathy to place himself in the shoes of the opponent. Military education in ethics links with education in EI, PsyCap and SOC and this is why the researcher wants to make the SANDF aware of how important these types of education to soldiers and leaders of the future are.

2.2.4.4 International politics

Part of being a "wise warrior" will include having sensitivity towards diverse political frameworks. Armed forces being part of missions where the aim is to seek stabilisation have to win the hearts and minds of the populations in which they operate in, which is not an easy task for the military. The value of the soldier's attitude, behaviour and discipline will be more important than the value of his equipment in future conflicts. Neethling (as cited in Dasseville, 2008) stressed how important political sciences education is at SAMA. He stated that officers these days are challenged with multifaceted environments, societies, cultures and religions which are foreign to them. Soldiers need to unravel local relations and they need to develop an awareness and appreciation of the local relationships and the political set up. He further stated that officers and soldiers are confronting risky and dangerous tasks while being operational in secluded strategic settings. Soldiers' reactions to certain situations may influence the course of the entire peace mission. Erroneous actions by soldiers, such as shooting where it was not necessary to shoot, may have a crucial effect on the entire operation leading to converted violence between the parties involved. Therefore, Neethling stressed the need for political sciences education which will involve (as cited in Dasseville, 2008, p. 20):

- understand thoroughly the geopolitical situation of the considered region;
- be critical towards strategy, objectives and intentions of the parties involved in the conflict;
- know how to read and to analyse the mandate and a UN Security Council Resolution; and
- understand how a peace operation is managed and how international organisations such as the UN, the AU and NATO are functioning.

Soldiers will need a high level of resilience (component of PsyCap) (see par 2.5.2) to function in diverse political arenas. They will need a high level of SOC (being able to handle stress) (see par 2.5.3). Sewell (2009) also stated that self-awareness (a component of EI) (see par 2.5.1) will aid military leaders to better adjust and be more effective in complex environments they operate in. EI will offer a holistic view on how soldiers function in a system. These systems include the environment, culture, politics and society in which they operate. The researcher wants to sensitise the SANDF that EI, PsyCap and SOC are vital for soldiers operating in complex political environments.

2.2.4.5 A wise warrior as a "streetwise" world citizen

The SAMA's vision includes that soldiers need to be "wise warriors". This refers to the fact that these professional soldiers receive education and at the same time improve their leadership capacity, insight and ability to judge. The mission of the SAMA reads as follows "a kraal of intellectual innovation and wise warriors". This implies the soldiers getting education in relevant studies and being socialised and groomed with wisdom and knowledge (Faculty of Military Science, n.d.). If the SANDF ultimately wants to be successful in creating "wise warriors" it is time that the organisation dos not only innovate "sparkling" missions like these but starts operationalising the mission. South Africa (SA) does not only need soldiers who are "rifle wise" but needs soldiers who have wisdom in being sensitive towards international humanitarian law, international military ethics and the international political environment. The Faculty of Military Science mentioned the characteristics that students need to develop human potential or be a "wise warrior" (as cited in Malan, 2008, p. 158):

- understand the socio-political and geo-spatial environment within which the DoD operates;
- understand the organisational environment within the DoD;
- be able to interpret the contemporary security environment and react appropriately to it;
- be able to function as leaders within the security environment in Africa, and;
- practise values, norms and behaviour that are commensurate with the prevailing understanding of military professionalism.

Hundt and Zinsmeister (as cited in Van Dyk, 2008) said that future officers of the SANDF should display intra- and interpersonal qualities such as:

- absolute impartiality;
- being visible in the eye of the public and community instead of being camouflaged;
- communication skills to negotiate and debrief conflict;
- to carry on with daily routines, while all around them there are styles of guerrilla warfare;
- not to fight only a military war, but also a psychological war for peace and rebuilding state of mind to the population;
- to go and listen to the population, get insight into their culture and secure the area and prevent riots.

When one looks at the different components of EI, PsyCap and SOC (see par 2.5) and takes into account the characteristics the Faculty of Military Science mentioned for future leaders together with the qualities Hundt and Zinsmeiter emphasised, it becomes imperative that soldiers display EI, PsyCap and SOC skills if they want to be successful leaders.

2.2.4.6 Imbalance on military education

Literature in the future nature of warfare serves as a guideline for the necessary education military officers should receive in preparing them for the contemporary military environment (Dasseville, 2008; Esterhuyse, 2007; Malan, 2008; Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008; Van Dyk, 2008; Visser, 2004). Future warfare defines and makes armed forces aware of the military and socio-political milieu soldiers must be prepared to function in. Visser (2004) stated that officers should be provided with specialised and sound analytical, decision making skills taught to them in a liberal, open-minded and non-interventionist type of education. He further laid emphasis on the fact that the SANDF, as a guardian, protector and peace supporter on the African continent, needs to institutionalise education for officers to promote their understanding of the socio-political environment they will operate in. University education, he exclaimed, has to become crucial for all future officers of the SANDF.

Van Dyk (2008, p. 318) proposed a model for SAMA for educating future officers in the SANDF. Part of this model includes the following dimensions:

- *Intellectual ability* is the ability to think, to analyse a problem/situation, to view a problem in its context, to understand and to judge the problem with insight.
- *Aptitude* is an inborn ability to master specific content, skills and knowledge in the future with high performance.
- *Interest* is an attitude to favour specific activities and objects more than others.
- *Personality* means how a person responds with integrated and dynamic organisation of his individual psychic, social, moral, and physical characteristics in the interaction with his environment and other people.
- *Leadership* is the execution of authority to give direction to the task and influence the attitudes, opinions and behaviour of followers.
- *Absence of psychopathology* means that the officer will not present with abnormal behaviour or other psychiatric disorders.

EI, PsyCap and SOC education will make a contribution to military education and all armed forces should consider to include it in their military educational profiles. Soldiers educated in these types of skills will be adequately prepared for the 21st century military environment as these intra- and interpersonal skills link to the proposed education mentioned throughout the discussion on military education.

2.2.4.7 *International strategic military leadership*

Shamir and Ben-Ari (2008) stated that military leaders in today's missions find themselves in very contentious situations. They stress the fact that military leaders should be educated in leadership abilities such as communication, mediation, conflict resolution and persuasion skills for them to perform successfully in their civilian tasks working in inter-organisational frameworks. Vreÿ (as cited in Malan, 2008) pointed out that the current military-strategic paradigm should shift from a national to a more co-operative global security paradigm. Military leadership should reflect the environment that it is defending. Flowers (2004) stated that military leadership in the contemporary operational environment should be able to negotiate, understand globalisation, build consensus, analyse complex and ambiguous situations, think innovatively and critically, and communicate effectively. He exclaimed that strategic leadership requires in-depth knowledge and appreciation of all the levels of warfare and the function of the military's entirety partaking in all these levels.

Wong, Gerras, Kidd, Pricone, and Swengros (2003) wrote about which strategic leadership competencies soldiers should display in the 21st century. They identified six metacompetencies which include: identity, mental agility, cross-cultural savvy, interpersonal maturity, world-class warrior, and professional astuteness. These metacompetencies, according to the authors, illustrate the necessary strategic leadership for the future armed forces. Identity will include the leader having the ability to alter his self-perception and self-concept as the situation demands. The leader's self-awareness should aid him in recognising his strengths and weaknesses and to adjust these in the operational environment. The leader should have an understanding of his own self-concept as an officer in the army. Identity will provide the leader with the skill to appreciate his own values and match these with the values of the army. Identity will make the leader aware that his role as strategic leader goes beyond his own personal contributions but that he is functioning as a channel for success to subordinates.

Mental agility will enable the strategic leader to recognise change in his environment and provide him with the ability to adequately adjust to this change. Strategic leaders function in highly ambiguous and uncertain environments and being a mental agile leader will provide the leader with cognitive skills in navigating in these milieus.

Cross-cultural savvy refers to the strategic leader being successful in future coalition warfare where leaders and their soldiers are interacting with cultures outside their national borders. Future armed forces clearly need to be knowledgeable in interacting with diverse cultures. Cross-cultural savvy includes the skill to understand the dynamism of cultures' underlying aspects, such as economic, religious, societal, geographical, and political aspects.

Strategic leaders having cross-cultural savvy will feel secured and content to interact with and lead joint, international, interagency, or inter-organisational units. Future strategic leaders should be able to predict and comprehend the values, ethics, morals and norms of other groups, organisations, and nations (Wong et al., 2003).

Interpersonal maturity will require that the strategic leader will have compassion and empathy for his subordinates. Interpersonal maturity skills for strategic leaders also include skills such as empowerment (sharing power with subordinates, peers and constituents), ability to involve others and elicit their participation, persuasion skills, consensus building and negotiation skills. The strategic leader needs the capability to analyse, challenge and change the culture of his organisation to align it with the changing environment his organisation is participating in. Strategic leaders with high interpersonal maturity must also make it their responsibility to develop future strategic leaders for their armies. They need to teach, coach, and mentor upcoming leaders and create environments for developing strategic leaders. A strategic leader as a world-class warrior must move beyond only having knowledge about the tactical and operational environment but also needs to incorporate a holistic understanding of the entire theatre that he is operating in. The ability of being a world-class warrior rests on the tactical and technical competence in grasping the art of the full spectrum of strategic operations. Professional astuteness refers to the leader understanding that he is no longer just a member of a profession but that he is a leader in the profession and serves the army and his whole nation (Wong et al., 2003).

The underlying principles of strategic leadership discussed by Wong et al. (2003) and Van Dyk and Van Niekerk (2004) such as self-concept, self-perception, self-awareness, adjustment, resilience and interpersonal maturity, empathy and care all link to the principles of EI, PsyCap and SOC discussed in this study (see par 2.5). Future militaries and particularly the SANDF should be made aware of how important EI, PsyCap and SOC are for future military leaders and invest in education in these skills.

2.3   NATIONAL CHALLENGES FOR THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEFENCE FORCE

The international security environment characterised by constant change and turbulence caused all armed forces, including the SANDF, to reassign their military. The ever prevailing theme that armed forces and their leadership can expect from the 21st century will be constant change. Militaries and their leadership should all be trained and educated to successfully accomplish the diverse spectrum of operational environments looming on their "doorsteps" (Van Dyk & Van Niekerk, 2004). The SANDF also faces transformation due to changes in warfare.

The end of the Cold war held far-reaching implications for the SANDF (Heinecken, 2005; Ferreira, 2009). SA plays a major role in the growth of the continent and is considered one of the main regional power players. SA has an important responsibility to facilitate cooperation between the EU and the AU in promoting peace and security. Peace and security are vital conditions for the development of the continent (Dasseville, 2008).

Future operations for the SANDF will not include only the classical conventional type of conflict but rather low-intensity and counterinsurgency types of conflicts (see par 2.2.1). The challenge for the SANDF will be to transform their focus on the actual tasks at hand needed for this new generation's warfare. The expectations of the UN and the AU are enormous for the SANDF. The demand and tempo of operations will be escalating in the future, resulting in an increased requirement for the SANDF, under the mandate of the UN and AU, to partake in these operations. Cilliers (2007) stated that the SANDF should prepare itself to participate in various types of peacekeeping missions and also assisting in disaster relief and humanitarian assistance. The SANDF are going to participate and operate in environments where they will protect civilians, disarm combatants, act against smaller groups of insurgents and bandits, help with the organisation and conduct of elections, provide security during these elections, protect key political leaders, support disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration projects, train the armed forces of a new government, assist with smaller reconstruction projects, and provide basic services. Brazzoli (2007) said that the SANDF should constantly be aware of current development and trends that impacts the future of armed forces. This will ensure a future orientated SANDF that remains successful in their preparation in meeting the challenges of the future. Challenges the SANDF should focus on include political, role clearing, management of cultural diversity, peace support operations, educational, gender and resources challenges. These challenges are presented in Figure 2.2.
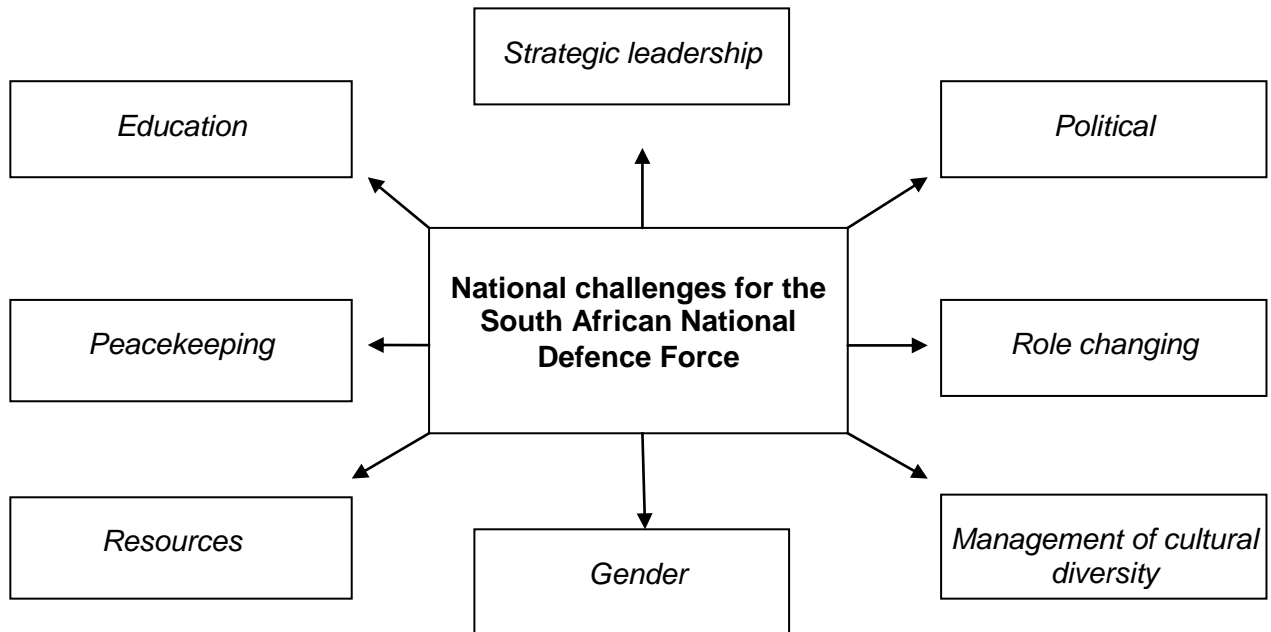
Figure 2.2. **National challenges for the South African National Defence Force**

2.3.1   Political challenges

The unbanning of the African National Congress (ANC) began a new political dispensation and the military was forced to adjust to not only the new security environment but also the newly forged Constitution of the Republic of SA. The military had to redesign its forces to cope with the new security environment and adjust to the new political climate. Conforming to the constitution meant that the SANDF had to redesign the role and functions of the military, recognise and acknowledge civilian control over the military and transform the culture of the organisation. The SANDF, strongly influenced to become more representative, had to incorporate equality leading to more diversity in terms of race and gender (Heinecken, 2005). Former president Nelson Mandela legislated the policy on labour equity. The policy states that all racial groups of SA have a fair opportunity into labour positions regardless of their race, gender, age and creed. Affirmative action was also instituted to redress the imbalances of the past. The SANDF, conforming to the Constitution of SA, must also comply with this policy (Makgati, 2000).

Similar to other armed forces the SANDF is a foreign policy instrument. In the last few years a comeback of the military instrument in SA's foreign policy has been seen. The absence of the military instrument in the SA foreign policy was seen in the post-1994 policy, but Neethlingh (2006) stated that the use of the military is now becoming more important in the foreign policy. The use of the military instrument is now more prominent especially in the field of peace support operations.

After the 1994 political transformation SA took on the responsibility of playing the regional leader in creating a stable and secure continent. SA as the regional economic powerhouse now needed to put much more effort into multilateralism, consultation and peace building. Malan (as cited in Neethlingh, 2006) stated that international peacekeeping will provide SA with an international respectability and an esteemed authority on deliberating future international conflict management. SA today plays a leading role in international peace missions and its role in the international community progressively developed over the past years. Neethlingh stated that SA is responsible and obliged under the Charters of the UN and AU in interacting in the international community in operations such as peacekeeping. This makes it vital for SA's decision makers to be attentive and conscious of the international expectations that are placed upon the country. Decision makers of the country now need to understand the important political military role that SA plays in the international peacekeeping arena.

The former Chief of the SANDF, General Siphiwe Nyanda, made a clear statement on the involvement of the SANDF in international peacekeeping operations. He stated that "South Africa and the SANDF are unquestionably going to play an (even more) important role in peace missions in Africa over the next decade… South Africa could become one of the foremost contributors of forces for peace missions" (as cited in Neethling, 2006, p. 9). The SANDF's commitment to peace support internationally can be seen in its involvement in peace support efforts in for example Burundi, the DRC and Sudan.

Vreÿ (2005) said that in this regard the AU is forcing African military leaders to adjust the profile of their military forces to sustain and maintain the aspiration of peace and security with more constructive ingenuity in their military schemes. Vreÿ (2005, p. 82) stated that:

> "The political realisation that defence diplomacy remains relevant increases the need for legitimate African military forces in terms of their readiness to assist African democratisation. The need is thus political, but satisfying it is partly the responsibility of military leaders who have to effect the conceptual, organisational and material adjustments. African military leaders are required to shift African military forces past *ad hoc* cooperation for short robust peace missions by adjusting the reigning paradigm within the African military psyche. Legitimacy, continental integration and eventual interoperability are longer-term requirements to furbish the desired military policy instrument required by the AU".

The SANDF should develop a consciousness in its military "psyche" for training and education in skills such as EI, PsyCap and SOC that will be necessary for its future military leaders to successfully contribute in the future.

2.3.2   Role changing challenges

It is noteworthy to mention that throughout the literature review the researcher can see that the roles of armed forces today are significantly changing. The literature review places ample evidence on the type of roles soldiers will play in the contemporary warfare arena. The SANDF spends a great deal of their resources to deploy soldiers internally to support the South African Police Service (SAPS) with crime prevention, border control and rendering services to other government departments such as the department of Health and Agriculture. Internally, the SANDF is consigned to internal border patrols and crime fighting activities like rhino poaching in the Kruger National Park and pirate activities along the SA borders. These internal border patrols include patrolling the borders of Zimbabwe, Mozambique, Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana and Namibia.

The SANDF also became involved in peace support operations and humanitarian disaster relief missions, making SA the single largest contributor of peacekeeping troops in Africa (Heinecken, 2005; Schoeman, 2010). This provision of external support entails sub-regional, regional or international peace support operations (Neethling, 2003). The SANDF is extensively deployed in operations other than war. Neethling also stated that one of the tasks the SANDF must give attention to is training, educating and developing skills in soldiers required to embark successfully on peace missions. Traditionally soldiers are trained for conventional warfare but there is a growing emphasis to train soldiers for operations other than war. The emphasis the SANDF places on tactical skills rather than academic empowerment places SA behind most Western countries in terms of the educational profile of its workforce. A great challenge facing the SANDF is "the shortage and inability to recruit and retain suitably skilled personnel" (Heinecken, 2005, p. 83).

Task descriptions for the current SANDF include activities such as observing and monitoring peace support missions, preventative deployment, peace building, post-conflict involvement and humanitarian assistance (Vreÿ, 2004). Changing tasks for the SANDF such as border control (where they need to build relationships and win the hearts and minds of the local populations) mentioned above make it imperative for the SANDF to review its policies on training, education and selection to ensure the development of young officers who are good "world citizens" in successfully achieving their tasks. The SANDF should become cognisant of the fact that these new "world citizens" will require different skills than just the normal conventional type of skills necessary for a soldier. Skills such as EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly become exceedingly fundamental and essential competencies needed by SANDF soldiers to master role changing challenges.

2.3.3   Management of cultural diversity challenges

The emphasis on racial representivity also received much attention, given the racial inequalities the SANDF experiences and its importance to render the SANDF a representative force. Racism and discrimination fuelled by incidences of racial shootings, ill discipline and rightsizing continue to be priority in the SANDF (Heinecken, 2005). The impact of affirmative action, cultural differences, and different leadership styles are strains that cause a great deal of racial tension within the ranks. A high degree of social segregation among different racial groups challenges the SANDF to be fully functional as role player in operations other than war.

When the ANC became the ruling party in 1994 one of the major changes SA saw was the introduction of laws that would correct past social and economic inequalities caused by decades of apartheid. Laws that were implemented included the affirmative action (AA) and equal opportunities (EO) programmes which were meant to change the racial profile of SA armed forces in the next decade. The racial profile of SA constituted of 79,6 percent Africans, 9,1 percent Whites, 8,9 percent Coloureds and 2,4 percent Asians (Heinecken, 2009). The early nineties South African Defence Force (SADF) racial profile included mostly whites which was to change significantly by 1994. The newly formed SANDF saw the integration of the former Transkei, Bophuthatswana, Venda and Ciskei (TBVC) defence forces in 1994 which changed the racial profile of the SANDF tremendously. According to Heinecken (2009), the Defence review's quotas are set out that the SANDF's racial profile should include 64,5 percent Africans, 25,4 percent Whites, 10,2 percent Coloureds and 0,75 percent Asians. By October 2007, the SANDF met these targets and was now deemed a uniformed component. These statistics showed that a crucial issue for the SANDF became diversity management. A lack of sensitivity to diversity can have dire consequences for the SANDF as this can have an impact on the overall effectiveness of the force. Mismanagement of diversity can lead to increased misconceptions, underperformance by employees, discrimination, ill-discipline and poor work relations. These issues can then have a spill-over effect on the civil-military relations and political stability of SA.

In an organisation with a highly diverse workforce, such as the SANDF, the failure to pass through one's own cultural filters to understand the behaviour of others will result in austere consequences for the organisation. Failures to pass through one's own cultural filters will result in more diversity related problems and power struggles. Soldiers in the newly formed SANDF should be able to manage the cultural diverse environment, and gain respect and appreciation for their different ethnic counterparts. Van Dyk and De Kock (2004) reckoned that if cultural diversity is managed successfully, forces will display positive variables such as work satisfaction, productivity and preparedness of forces in the SANDF.

Van Dyk and De Kock mentioned a crucial element for the SANDF and that is that education plays an imperious role in shaping and grooming future officers to successfully deal with cultural diversity in the SANDF.

Heinecken (2007) stressed that culturally diverse problems lead to soldiers having problems not only with discipline but also low morale. These problems create tension and disrupt cohesion in groups that should ultimately function successfully together. Education in EI, PsyCap and SOC can lead to various positive outcomes in terms of managing diversity. Education such as these can lead to a reduction in interpersonal conflict, increase soldiers' knowledge on multicultural issues, create a shared vision in the organisation to overcome interpersonal clashes and promote racial tolerance. This will result in mutual respect, recognition and acknowledgement of different behaviours in culturally different groups.

2.3.4   Gender challenges

The SANDF also sees gender and the accommodation of homosexual rights to be included in policy guidelines, meaning that these groups now have equal opportunities to be trained and employed in all ranks and positions (Schoeman, 2010; Harries-Jenkins, 2006; Heinecken, 2005). Women receive the same training as men and the real issue for female soldiers in combat roles is whether they operate in a gender friendly environment. This issue raises doubts about military leadership, deployability and the personal security of female soldiers when serving in isolated environments. African deployments showed that women frequently are the victims of abuse, not only physical but sexual making them more prone to HIV/AIDS (Heinecken, 2005; Akokpari, 2001).

The gender profile of the SANDF also saw a transition in October 2007 when the percentages of women serving in the SANDF significantly increased. The statistics showed that in 1994 11 percent women served in the SANDF and this increased to 19.5 percent in October 2007. During the SADF period women only served supportive roles such as finance, personnel, logistics, intelligence and medical services. Today the SANDF sees women in all spheres of the organisation, some women even forming part of the combat corps which include armour, artillery and infantry. Women receive the same training as men with only few adaptations due to physiological differences. Heinecken (2009) reported that there is an existence of high gender prejudice towards women in the SANDF. Literature on gender issues in the SANDF shows that men are pessimistic about women having enough endurance, courage, mental strength, physical strength and abilities to operate in combat roles.

Women in the SANDF experience issues such as disempowerment, role ambiguity, sexual harassment and discrimination (Heinecken, 2009), gender violence, abuse of power and victimisation (Stott, 2002).

Sexual harassment and abuse experienced by women in the SANDF continues to be a major problem for the organisation. Policies regarding the treatment of women in the SANDF now prohibit any discrimination, gender violence, sexual harassment, abuse of power and victimisation towards women and these are punishable under the new military disciplinary code (Stott, 2002). What is distressing about these issues is that they are mostly underreported as women fear even more discrimination and fear that reporting these issues will have grave influences on future career prospects in the SANDF (Heinecken, 2009). The social make-up of gender, gender differences and the cultural understanding and analysis of gender is an issue the SANDF should still embark on with increased attention and awareness.

The SANDF joined countries such as Australia, Israel, the Netherlands and the US in integrating homosexuals into the organisation (see par 2.2.3.3) (Stott, 2002). Homosexual soldiers in the SANDF experience physical and psychological torture, sometimes even referred to as having a "disease". Stott (2002) reported on a study that was done on homosexuality in the SANDF that showed that 46,9 percent survey respondents felt that homosexuals will decrease the SANDF's military effectiveness and 42,6 percent stated that homosexuality will lead to impaired social cohesion. This shows a strong incidence of homophobia suffered by soldiers in the SANDF.

Although the policy of AA and EO also declare that there will be no discrimination against gays and lesbians, this discrimination promptly still features in the SANDF. Although soldiers are aware that homosexuality is legally permitted in the SANDF there remains silent prejudice, stereotypes and discrimination towards soldiers and their sexual orientation (Belkin & Canaday, 2010). Soldiers and especially leaders in the SANDF should become emotionally mature in dealing with gender issues. EI, PsyCap and SOC intelligence can possibly lead to the development of behaviour which respects others regardless of their gender.

2.3.5   Resources challenges

Leaders in the SANDF have to battle with balancing financial resources, strategic defence priorities, human resource policies and political imperatives. New missions in the SANDF force soldiers to perform a multifaceted combination of tasks such as peacekeeping, peace operations abroad, humanitarian missions, rendering support to police in controlling mass immigration, racial and cultural conflicts, urban terror and criminal activities within the SA borders.

Dandeker (as cited in Heinecken, 2005, p. 92) raised the question "whether armed forces are adequately trained, equipped and prepared for these roles, where they are asked not to fight, but to protect, help and save?" Neethling (2006, p. 59) opinionated the following concerning the SANDF's budget:

"The extensive reduction of defence expenditure for post-apartheid South Africa has created challenges for force development and preparation as well as the ability of the armed forces to deliver on expectations. This decline in financial resources also manifested itself in the human resources element, reducing the 93,000 posts declared in 1999 to the projected 70,000. The defence budget was at 4.6 per cent of the gross domestic product (GDP) in 1989/1990, defence spending was reduced to less than 3 per cent of GDP by the mid-1990s, that is, less than 10 per cent of total government spending. The declining budget is widely believed to have had serious implications in terms of the maintenance of bases and equipment, and on the ability of the military to perform its primary and secondary functions. However, some analysts and commentators continue to consider South Africa 'relatively highly militarised' with a relative 'large military strength.'"

Challenges facing the SANDF budget include variables such as the high percentage expenditure on personnel. Grievances in salaries, overtime, promotion policies, and retrenchment plans in turn also lead to low morale and ill-disciplined soldiers. Additional demands were placed on the SANDF since 1994 to assist the SAPS internally and to conduct peace-support operations externally in regions such as Burundi and DRC. These deployments are mainly funded from the defence budget (Le Roux & Boshoff, 2005). Peacekeeping missions by their very nature are expensive and the extent of such missions are not only limited for the SANDF by political will of the nation but also by the accessibility of funds for such missions. Peacekeepers in these missions "make do" with the available scarce resources they have and Neethlingh (2003) stated that the reality facing the SANDF is that African peacekeeping will stay underfunded for some time in the future. Stability issues and pressures within the African region and the international community will remain a priority for SA to increase its political military role in Africa and the international community.

Shelton (2003, p. 31) stated that "ongoing modernisation will require increased training costs and escalating equipment maintenance bills, making the SANDF progressively less affordable to SA. Defence budgets are set to keep growing, making them unsustainable over the longer term". Financial strains and defence budget cuts place restrictions on the maintenance of infrastructure and equipment, training and force preparation and general support for the SANDF. SA can learn lessons from other countries in terms of defence budgets and how to successfully manage the defence budget.

When looking at countries such as the US (defence budget of 2008 was $696 billion) (Howorth, 2010), China (defence budget of 2010 was 532 billion Yuan) and in its own region, Botswana, SA can learn valuable lessons from these countries in terms of financial resources to its defence force. Botswana is regarded today as victorious in its economic and development profile and is seen, as reported by the World Economic Forum, as the most economically competitive nation in Africa. The Botswana government achieved this by supplying an open, secure and translucent investment environment (Throup, 2011). The SANDF will need future officers that will be able to deal with resources challenges in a successful manner. Underlying dimensions of EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly provide leaders with the necessary psychological skills needed to deal with an environment of financial and human resources tension.

2.3.6 Peacekeeping challenges

Johnstone and Nkiwane (as cited in Van Dyk, 2009, p. 114) defined peacekeeping as "the deployment of military and sometimes civilian personnel under international command and control, usually after cease-fire has been achieved and with the consent of the parties". The purpose of peacekeeping operations is to restore and maintain peace. The SANDF is involved in peacekeeping deployments and peace support operations in numerous countries on the African continent, such as Burundi, DRC, Sudan, and Somalia, to name but a few (Heineken, 1998; Neethling, 1997). Peacekeeping soldiers of the SANDF these days are more involved in violent attacks, for example when being deployed in the DRC, they are involved in intra-state conflicts, and face new psychological challenges that necessitate a new kind of mindset (Van Dyk, 2008, 2009; Van Dyk & Bruwer, 2005). In Angola, the Congo, the DRC, Liberia, Sierra Leone and Sudan intra-state conflicts have assumed an extremely violent magnitude and the intensity and frequency of these conflicts appear to increase rapidly (Akokpari, 2001).

Ferreira (2009) stated that peacekeeping soldiers often face responsibilities other than only to protect themselves and also need to protect the local communities. A common tendency is to expect more from these soldiers than what they are mandated to do. Soldiers need new types of skills to operate in these operations and education in EI, PsyCap and SOC can help soldiers function successfully in these operations. "The ultimate end of the spectrum of peace operations is to perform challenging tasks, even including warfare, for which they are not equipped or trained" (Ferrreira, 2009, p. 32).

The changing nature of war (see par 2.2) has also lead to the reality that civilian populations are now much more coupled to violent conflict than in the past (Cochrane, 2008).

Peacekeepers also face exposure to the suffering of civilian populations in deployment areas such as DRC and Sudan, and need to deal with factors such as damaged infrastructures. Peacekeepers often function in operations where they have to provide care for wounded people and people dying, while being under fire.

"In dealing with these adverse conditions, the peacekeeping soldier usually has to utilize unsophisticated equipment and technical skills instead of military skills" (Van Dyk, 2009, p. 115). Actions of soldiers at lower levels should receive greater attention. They need training with the intellectual and leadership ability to address a variety of ill-defined threats and challenges. Highly trained professional leaders with a new mind-set are required for these new missions forcing the SANDF to restructure its education, training and development processes. Esterhuyse (2007) stated that officers would not be able to function effectively on the African continent if they do not have a firm understanding of Africa's military and security problems. The environment also expects from soldiers to use diplomatic skills, to search for conciliation and to be tolerant of different people from different nations and civilian personnel of international assistance organisations.

Van Dyk (2009) stated that peacekeeping soldiers are confronted with psychological challenges such as unexpected emotions of fear, anger, depression, hectic states and apathy. Harries-Jenkins (2006) stated that combat troops need strength, psychological and emotional stability, bravery under fire and willingness to risk capture. Noting these credible challenges soldiers have to face today stresses the fact that operations in this less controllable and predictable era require a different role of soldiers than what they were initially trained for. Clausewitz said that war is "a true chameleon, because it adapts its nature to meet each case" (Strachan, 2007, p. 194). The leaders of the SANDF should perhaps strive to be "strategic chameleons".

The following DRC case study shows peacekeeping challenges that soldiers have to face. These challenges link with specific challenges mentioned throughout the section (political, role changing, cultural diversity, gender, and resources challenges) and show how important education in intra- and interpersonal skills becomes for leader success in the SANDF.

2.3.6.1 DRC case study

The first DRC peacekeeping deployment for SANDF soldiers was during 2001. This first peacekeeping experience served as an immense learning platform for soldiers who were introduced to an environment predominantly unknown to them. Soldiers became aware that the peacekeeping environment required a different role than what they were initially trained for during basic military training. They also learned that the peacekeeping environment is very unpredictable and less comfortable than the normal conventional warfare arena they were trained for.

Bruwer and Van Dyk (2005) did a study on the stressors experienced by peacekeeping soldiers during their deployments to the DRC. The researchers found that during the first months of deployment soldiers described the communication or flow of communication to be a stressor as this leads to uncertainty about what is happening or what will happen. This can possibly lead to intra-psychic conflict as to whether it is worth the personal sacrifice of being on deployment, what one's role is on the mission and the importance of the mission. Soldiers who do not know the purpose of the mission or are uncertain about particular issues around the mission can possibly suffer from frustration, bitterness and depression.

Every peacekeeping mission is unique in nature and each mission will differ from another mission. The ambiguousness of the peacekeeping environment and the challenges associated with the environment can lead to high levels of stress for soldiers. Each deployment experience is different as well as the peacekeeping environment which leaves little room for soldiers to prepare adequately for these missions. Soldiers on the DRC deployment also reported instances of heavy workload and long hours of work which led to them experiencing even more stress. This in turn can have a negative effect on the morale of soldiers and in some instances even lead to mental health problems (Van Dyk, 2009).

Lloyd and Van Dyk (2007) reported on the main cognitive challenges experienced by soldiers in peacekeeping missions. Soldiers experience role conflict in these missions because they are naturally trained to fight the enemy and ultimately defeat the enemy. During peacekeeping missions soldiers need a new kind of mindset to make the right decisions in a peacekeeping mission framework and working towards peaceful conditions. Peacekeepers also experience the cognitive stressor of danger and threat. They fear about the political consequences of their actions taken when they are, for example, confronted, humiliated or even attacked by civilians, and parties to the opposing forces. The rules of engagement in these types of operations restrict peacekeepers from taking offensive actions and they sometimes have to deal with these challenges without any retaliation.

Emotional stressors suffered by peacekeepers include the fact that they have to adjust to death and human suffering on a daily basis in peacekeeping areas. They witness deaths, human remains, atrocities against local populations and violent attacks against innocent people on a regular basis. Their inability to sometimes not react to situations like these leaves them with feelings of powerlessness which have a huge impact on their emotions. It is crucial, according to Lloyd and Van Dyk (2007), to have emotionally stable officers that will be able to adjust and cope with the stressors experienced in these multifaceted peacekeeping missions.

In order to maintain the morale and mental health of soldiers during peacekeeping missions they need to understand the nature and type of stressors they can possibly experience to learn how to successfully act as peacekeepers for the SANDF. According to Van Dyk (2009), the Canadian armed forces conduct psycho-education with their members to prepare them in stress management to optimally function in the peacekeeping milieu. The United States (US) use a soldier peer monitoring care and support programme to ensure their soldiers stay mentally fit during peacekeeping missions.

The DRC case study shows that soldiers experience various stressors during deployment operations in different regions. The SANDF should take the responsibility and follow examples such as those of the Canadian armed forces and the US and build policies and procedures for educating soldiers going on these complex, multifaceted missions. The SANDF expects of its soldiers to successfully function in peacekeeping missions but naturally soldiers will experience severe challenges in these environments. If the SANDF keeps on sending soldiers on these deployments without any prior education in how to deal with an array of diverse challenges, they will have to face possible grave consequences of troops suffering from depression, high levels of stress, low morale and possible mental health problems. The onus is on the SANDF and its leaders to prepare soldiers adequately for these types of environments. Education in intra- and interpersonal skills such as EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly prepare soldiers better for these environments or at least give them the enhanced capability to deal with stressors that they are not normally used to in their conventional roles and training. Psycho-education (Van Dyk, 2009) becomes extremely fundamental for peacekeeping operations in the next decade.

2.3.7   Educational challenges

Officers in the 21st century serving in the SANDF need to understand the role that education plays in areas such as politics and politically-related issues. The SANDF, as a foreign policy instrument, functions and operates internationally and nationally, and needs officers who will be successful in these environments. The purpose of education will prepare future officers for positions of responsibility and strategic decision-making in a constantly changing international and national military environment (see par 2.2.4) (Faculty of Military science, n.d.).

One of the educational challenges that the SANDF faces is the fact that only 4,7 percent of the DoD personnel have some form of higher education. Heinecken (2007) stated that this extensively influences managing problems such as diversity challenges. Poor education leads to people feeling incompetent and inferior to those who have some form of education. Feelings of incompetence and inferiority in turn lead to self-confidence problems and feelings of disempowerment which impede, for example, decision-making skills.

Esterhuyse (2006) is of the opinion that the SANDF is still far from a professional, educated force. He stated that the educational challenges that the SANDF faces still need to be addressed for accomplishing its dream of becoming a professional force. There is a culture of anti-intellectualism in the SANDF which stands in the way of bringing this dream to fruition. Esterhuyse (2006a, p. 39) stated that "this current anti-intellectual institutional climate impedes the transformation of the SANDF into a real learning organisation". The SANDF needs to understand and become aware of the fact that education will be the main "actor" in its dream of successful transformation and creating a professional force. The SANDF should start to pursue a vision of creating and maintaining an educated officer corps to deal with the contemporary military environment. Esterhuyse stated that the first step of this vision is to start at the lowest levels and enhance the function, resources and input of SAMA.

Junior officers in the SANDF normally go through introductory military training, some military socialisation development and minimal educational excellence. The training and education that junior officers undergo include preparing them to act and think like soldiers and officers, to facilitate a military mindset (which usually involves equipping them with military fighting skills) and junior officers need to comprehend their role in the military profession in a modern democratic society (Esterhuyse, 2006a).

Junior officers of the SANDF have the opportunity to further their education by attending SAMA. The following schools of education with their different focus areas (programmes) are presented at the Faculty of Military Science at SAMA. A holistic picture is given to the reader of the contents of each of these schools (Faculty of Military Science, n.d.; Heinecken & Visser, 2008):

- *Science and technology* – this school provides junior officers with education in technology as applied in the military environment. The programme focuses mostly on natural sciences and includes subjects such as aeronautical sciences, mathematics, military technology, nautical science and physics.
- *Human resource development* – this school provides education in themes such as leadership development, operational psychology, industrial psychology, criminal and military law, public development management, English studies, research methodology and statistics, and critical reading, thinking, speaking and writing skills. The school equips junior officers with expertise and abilities to efficiently operate in the fields of human and organisational development.
- *Security and Africa studies* – this school equips junior officers with education in military strategy, military history and political science. The themes presented in this school will prepare officers to function successfully in the combat and historical environments the SANDF operates in.

- *Geospatial studies and information systems* – officers attending this school will receive education in military geography and computer information systems. The school aims at producing officers with knowledge in computer technology and contextual military geographic education.

- *Defence organisation and resource management* – this school provides education in economics, military management, accounting and auditing.

- Officers are equipped with skills in broader managerial skills to increase effective and transparent use of resources in their areas of responsibility.

The SANDF has the responsibility to provide its leaders with specialised education to ensure that "the human component in the military machine is well equipped to contribute to successful operations" (Brazzolli, 2007, p. 230). Education in EI, PsyCap and SOC skills becomes imperative for the SANDF if it wants its leaders to successfully operate in the environment they have to function in (see par 2.2.4).

2.3.8   Strategic leadership challenges for the SANDF

According to Yukl (2010), the continued existence and success of an organisation are contingent on adjustment to the environment and the attainment of essential resources. Aspects to strategic leadership according to Yukl (2010, p. 37) include: "gathering and interpreting information about the environment, identifying threats and opportunities, developing an effective strategy for adapting to the environment, negotiating agreements that are favourable to the organisation, influencing outsiders to have a favourable impression of the organisation and its products, and gaining cooperation and support from outsiders upon whom the organisation is dependent". A strategic leader is one who is able to cope with issues such as globalisation, increasing international interactions and more rapid technological and social change (Daft, 2002; Yukl, 2010).

Daft (2002) states that strategic leadership is the responsibility of the leader to fully comprehend the relationship between the external environment and if this environment is in line with the organisation's vision, mission, strategy and the implementation of these. Hesselbein and Sinseki (2004) described strategic leadership challenges to include the following aspects: the strategic leader operates in an uncertain environment with intricate complex problems; he has to have in-depth knowledge of global politics and understand assigned responsibilities of the force for each geographic area; he is concerned with the total environment the military functions in and his role cannot be delegated; and, he has an authoritative responsibility to explain things to his people.

The complex national and international security environment requires from SANDF leaders to comprehensively gain knowledge, understanding and awareness of the political, economic, informational and security elements, nationally and internationally and the interrelationships between them. Officers should learn how to endure ambiguity, cautiously scrutinise events and choose when to make a decision, be innovative, accept risk taking, gain maturity and wisdom, operate flexibly to manage change, be proactive, and not reactive towards change, fight complexity by encompassing it, understand the environment themselves and decipher their understanding to others. "Strategic leaders create a vision of what's necessary, communicate it in a way that makes their intent clear, and vigorously execute it to achieve success" (Hesselbein & Sinseki, 2004, p. 119).

SANDF leaders have to cope with a military environment that is characterised by constant change. The SANDF leader faces challenges such as interpreting these environments, the threats and opportunities contained in these environments and how to successfully operate with these threats and opportunities, not only as leader, but also influencing followers to function successfully. The officer is faced with challenges to understand the increasing international environment, such as peacekeeping missions (see par 2.3.6) and more rapid technological and social change, such as diverse cultures in these interactions.

Shamir and Ben-Ari (2008) stated that military operations at present are much more cognitively, socially and emotionally intricate and this increases the challenges for leaders. The convoluted military arena centres on issues such as the diversity of agents, the diversity of operations and the interconnectedness between all of these factors. Military leadership now and in future will be characterised by internal pressures, conflicting demands and comprehensive and versatile responsibilities. Van Dyk and George (2006) who wrote on the process of military leadership development for Africa highlighted that Africa needs a leader with a new mindset. This mindset should include variables such as mental agility, flexibility, prompt decision making, innovation and globalised strategic thinking. Military leaders in Africa should rid themselves of the typical parade ground mentality described as a mindset of rigidity, stubborn behaviour, only giving commands, not listening to other people and following strict doctrines.

Leaders for the SANDF should be developed as strategic leaders from a very early stage in their military education and training. African armed forces should employ policies and set guidelines that will rid "Africa of its AK-47 and minefield state of mind that destroy its human resources to one that applies its military apparatus in protection of its resources (minerals, oil, fish, iron and human resources) to develop the African continent" (Van Dyk , 2008, p. 314). African military leaders must have an urgency to change Africa to peace, to change the AK-47 mind set and culture to a culture of development, a culture of building Africa's potential and the potential of its people.

Africa's "mind" must be changed to a "mind" that incorporates growth, development and a vision of hope for the continent (Van Dyk & George, 2006). Africa should be constantly aware of these "new wars" (see par 2.2) and unshackle its culture of rebels destroying each other, destroying human capital, destroying infrastructure and land, and the misuse of child soldiers and should rise up in developing a continent which has respect for its human capital and its affluent resources.

Harrison (2011) stated that armed forces in Africa should train and educate the entire force aimed at developing a mindset, skills and abilities mandatory to function effectively under an environment of uncertainty and complexity (see par 2.2.4.7). The SANDF should be sensitised and be made aware that the military requires officers who will be able to be "world class citizens" in meeting the diverse and complex demands of the contemporary military arena. Officers will need intra- and interpersonal psychological skills such as emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others, emotional self-control, self-efficacy, optimism, hope, resilience, comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness in their "make-up" to function successfully as leaders in the SANDF.

2.3.9   Conclusion of the national challenges for the SANDF

National challenges for the SANDF (Figure 2.2) were discussed to raise awareness that a new type of leader is necessary to successfully operate and function in today's military milieu. The SANDF should take cognisance of these challenges and be aware that these challenges will not be addressed successfully without taking the necessary proactive steps. AA and EO instituted by the government of the day to correct the imbalances of the past will lead to organisations, such as the SANDF, to incorporate more diverse cultures.

Leaders should have the necessary skills and knowledge on how to deal with these diverse cultures. SA as a foreign policy instrument is more involved in peacekeeping operations and in future will still be greatly involved in missions such as these. This necessitates leaders who have education and skills in how to operate in these complex operations. Leaders have to be educated in facilitating peace which necessitates a role changing mindset of fighting war. Leaders will have to pass through their cultural filters to manage cultural diversity effectively and gain sensitivity, insight and respect towards others and their sexual orientations.

Leaders will need more education in balancing resources and specialised strategic leadership skills to ensure they can adjust to the unpredictable contemporary military environment. All the challenges discussed for the SANDF link with each other and "cry" for education in EI, PsyCap and SOC.

Future officers of the SANDF need to have the potential, skills, knowledge, education and competency to be specialists in the challenges of the next decade. Education in these variables can possibly assist leaders in their daunting tasks and ultimately contribute to leader success.

2.4   LEADER SUCCESS FOR ARMED FORCES

Daft (2002, p. 5) defined leadership as "an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes and outcomes that reflect their shared purpose". Yukl (2010, p. 20) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives". Leadership can be defined as taking into account a number of things that will determine the success of a combined effort by members in an organisation to complete and achieve evocative tasks. The effort referred to does not only include influencing and facilitating the current work of the group or organisation but also ensuring preparedness to meet future challenges. Leadership is frequently viewed as the glue that binds organisations, the building blocks to effectiveness and the catalyst to changes that facilitate organisations to accomplish success.

Halpin (2011, p. 483) argued that "success in the future army environment will be measured by the leader's ability to build relationships with various governmental intra-agency, military multinational and non-governmental organisations". Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, and Harms (2008) noted that contemporary leaders constantly have to deal with unprecedented challenges as the working environment today struggles to adapt to the rapidity of change internally and externally to the organisation. Leadership involves the individual leading other people and his capabilities in his leadership role. It involves the leadership capabilities of the leader enabling individuals to perform leadership functions and the leadership process by which behaviours are performed to lead others.

Numerous studies in the literature show that leader success is linked with emotional stability, optimism, intelligence, analytical ability, intuition, and the ability to relate interpersonally. Gardner (1999) stated that social skills are a distinctive form of intelligence and are essential for leader success. Amagoh (2009) purported that leadership success may include characteristics such as intelligence, dominance, gender role, generalised self-efficacy, self-monitoring, emotional intelligence, conscientiousness, emotional stability, and extraversion. Self-regulatory, self-motivational and empowering skills and behaviours have an effect on leader success (Manz & Sims, 2001). Leader success can also be assessed by focusing on follower feelings, behaviour, satisfaction, and followers' acquiescence of the leader (Amagoh, 2009). Chen and Silverthorne (as cited in Amagoh, 2009) posited that the style of leadership that matches the readiness, ability and willingness of subordinates also has an effect on leader success.

A positive relationship between the leader's leadership style and the subordinate's readiness will result in the subordinate having higher levels of satisfaction and performance. Higher levels of readiness will increase the subordinate's responsibility for task direction.

Leader success according to Densten (2003) includes the following: the followers' satisfaction with the job behaviours and activities of the leader as well as with the leader's reputation; leadership success is influenced by the leader's management of his impression and image; leadership success is moderated by the followers' dependence on the leader to provide direction and resources; and leadership success is moderated by the leader's dependence on followers to complete activities in order for success to be achieved. Boonzaier (2008, p. 11) quoted Yukl by stating that leadership success can be defined "according to the effect of the leader's actions on the followers and/or organisation's stakeholders. These outcomes can include performance and growth of the group or organisation; the group's ability to deal with change and crises; follower commitment to the group's objectives; commitment to the organisation; organisational citizenship; the psychological well-being and development of followers; the leader's retention of high status in the group; the leader's advancement of higher positions in the organisation; and follower satisfaction with the leader".

Differences in people, resources and the environment all demand different sets of skills and abilities from the leader to be competent and successful. Leadership traits and principles taught to all service members are nearly identical (Shriberg, Shriberg, & Kumari, 2005). Successful leaders understand the stresses of training, combat and inevitable change, and care for soldiers as they accomplish their missions under pressure. Successful leadership is the ability to successfully integrate and maximise available resources within the internal and external environment for the attainment of organisational or societal goals. Trait research points out that some of the specific traits related to leadership success include high energy and stress tolerance, self-confidence, internal locus of control orientation, emotional maturity, personal integrity, socialised power motivation, moderately high achievement orientation and low need for affiliation (Yukl, 2010). The role of leadership in armed forces is becoming increasingly important as the challenges laid out above (see par 2.3) become more multifaceted. Military effectiveness relies on the ability of leaders to respond effectively to these challenges and to manage others efficiently. Numerous studies of leadership have been conducted over the years in an attempt to understand what leadership is and what skills, attributes and factors make an outstanding leader. This information has been used to shape leadership development and organisational performance. Organisational leaders are the cornerstones of the organisation who make possible the attainment of goals and objectives (Calloway, 2010).

Bartone (2010, p. 123) defined military leadership in "broad terms as both a social influence process as well as a particular, specialized role of the leader. Leaders provide leadership by influencing the choice of objectives and strategies, organising tasks and activities, developing skills, committing and motivating people in an organisation or group, and, most importantly, by influencing how events get interpreted". "Military leadership is unique and differs from corporate leadership or leadership in higher education. The military is grounded in a clear understanding of ranks and relationships among those ranks" (Calloway, 2010, p. 2). Livingston, Nadjiwon-Foster, and Smithers (2002) stated that leaders in the military are actively engaged in developing to become more dynamic, high-quality decision makers, to be proactive and to be competent to function successfully in high-stress combat situations. Micewski (2005) asserted that in current operational environments soldiers deal face-to-face with aid workers, other military personnel, irregular forces and local civilians, which all demand rapid decision making with no opportunity to consult their superiors and which have rigorous strategic consequences. This stresses the need for ethical and cognitive preparedness that extends to junior leaders as well as superiors. Leadership necessary for daily challenges will be a type of leadership that will be integrating both logical and rational thinking that is creative and generative at the same time. The military of the future needs soldiers who will be able to deal with diverse people and cultures, tolerate ambiguity, take initiative, ask questions and question authority (Micewski, 2005). Micewski further stated that in dealing with human life one has to cope with the unpredictability of human behaviour that necessitates tact of judgement, intuition and intellect.

The aim of leadership is to motivate and encourage a person or a group of people to accomplish a goal or the intended objectives of the organisation. "Leaders want the hearts and minds of others directed toward some purpose, some result desirable for the group or organisation" (Calloway, 2003, p. 3). General Colin Powell (as cited in Daft, 2002. p. 19) stated that "the day soldiers stop bringing you their problems is the day you have stopped leading them. They have either lost confidence that you can help them or concluded that you do not care. Either case is a failure of leadership". Livingstone et al. (2002) stated that the success and effectiveness of armed forces relies on the capability of the leader to respond to ongoing demands and to manage followers successfully and efficiently. This requires leadership which is adjustable, and which can manage multiple priorities. Leaders should be able to develop an ambience of trust and mutual support with followers. The abilities and skills of leaders will ultimately hinge on the overall performance of the organisation.

Mullin (as cited in Shriberg, Shriberg, & Lloyd, 2002) believed that desired character traits of leaders include dependability, bearing, courage, decisiveness, endurance, enthusiasm, initiative, integrity, judgement, justice, knowledge, loyalty, tact and unselfishness.

Shriberg et al. (2005) also pointed out that these traits are the 14 traits any military leader should use as their building blocks for leader success. "Every newly minted lieutenant, ensign, cadet, midshipman, and non-commissioned officer (NCO) commits these core values to memory in an effort to ensure that the very best people lead the young men and women in the armed services" (Shriberg et al., 2005, p. 230). Kouzes and Posner (1990) also list character traits that leaders ought to display and which form an important part of leadership in military environments. The list includes concepts such as ambitious, broad-minded, caring, competent, cooperative, courageous, dependable, determined, fair-minded, forward-looking, honest, imaginative, independent, inspiring, intelligent, loyal, mature, self-controlled, straightforward and supportive. Sun Tzu has prophesied about the importance of EI in the military (Latour & Hosmer, 2002). EI, PsyCap and SOC have shown over the past few years to be useful and valuable tools to predicting performance (Story, 2011; Moerane, 2005). The military and its role have evolved immensely in the past and continue to evolve which makes it pivotal for leaders to incorporate EI, PsyCap and SOC in the equation of leadership and overall performance.

Leader success for this study will be defined by using the MLQ that was developed by Bass and Avolio (see par 3.5.4). The MLQ has been revised over the years and is shown to be a widely used leadership measure. It is a reliable measure that can show the level of leader success by the extent to which the leader exerts extra effort, the degree to which the leader perceives himself as an effective leader, and the degree to which followers are satisfied with the leader. The MLQ is made up of two versions, namely the self-rater questionnaire, the leader version, where the leader rates himself and the rater version where a subordinate rates the leader. The version used for this study will be the self-rater version where the leader rates himself and his perceived leader success (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Bass & Bass, 2008; Boonzaier, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008). Figure 2.3 provides the reader with a schematic picture of leader success for this study.
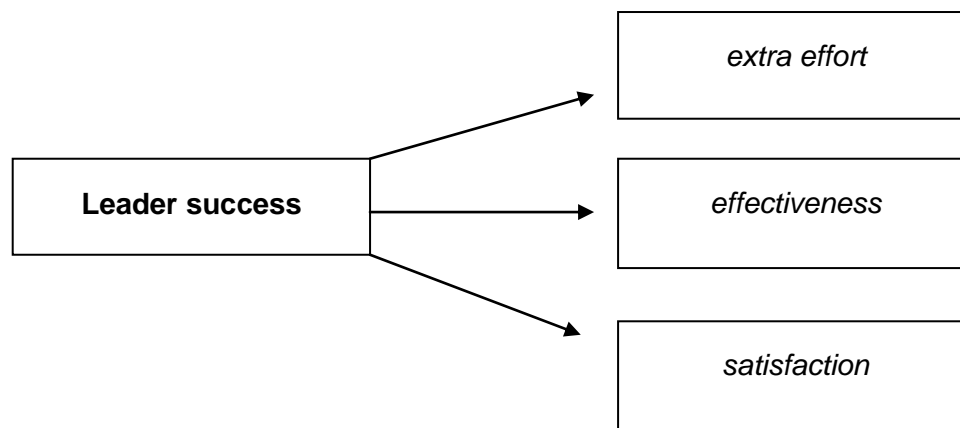
Figure 2.3. **Model of leader success**

Leader success for junior leaders in the SANDF will be measured by the three subscales in the MLQ which indicate leader success. The three subscales depicted in Figure 2.3 that make up leader success, according to Bass and Avolio, are discussed in the following section (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008) (see par 3.5.4).

- *Extra Effort*

Extra effort is the extent to which the leader believes that he can influence and motivate followers to more than is expected from them. It refers to the leader heightening others' desire to succeed (creating hope, self-confidence and optimism). Extra effort shows the leader's ability to increase others' willingness to try harder. Extra effort consists of three items on the MLQ scale (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Boonzaier, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

- *Effectiveness*

Effectiveness of leader is measured by his ability to effectively meet others' needs, how he effectively represents his followers or group to higher authorities, and the degree to which the leader successfully and effectively meets the requirements and goals of the organisation. Effectiveness indicates whether the leader leads a group that is effective. Leader effectiveness consists of four items on the MLQ scale (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Boonzaier, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

- *Satisfaction*

Satisfaction indicates if the leader uses methods of leadership that are satisfying, and if he is working with others in a satisfactory way. Satisfaction consists of two items on the MLQ scale (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Boonzaier, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

The extra effort, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader scores form the overall leader success score. The reliability of the MLQ has been tested and confirmed in numerous studies (see par 3.5.4).

Leader success refers to leaders having high qualities of being good motivators, as having competent interaction skills with different organisational levels and as reproducing satisfaction with work processes. Extra effort, being one of the explicit effects of a successful leadership style, implicates the aspiration of followers to endeavour superior performance philosophies by deploying additional efforts. These induced supplementary efforts positively exceed legitimate behavioural expectations of their leaders, their group and their organisation.

Successful leaders meet organisational objectives and commonly produce a higher efficiency in all the structures they are involved with. Satisfaction with leadership identifies with its higher scores leaders who create interpersonal satisfaction in their followers and colleagues. These leaders are warm, nurturing, open, authentic, honest persons, with good interpersonal and social skills, capable of developing feelings of satisfaction in their followers (Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008).

Boonzaier (2008) did a study and used extra effort, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader as dimensions of leader success, and all yielded acceptable reliability scores. The leader success construct was therefore deemed reliable for the purpose of the study (see par 3.5.4) Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) also used the three subscales of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (named leadership outcomes in the MLQ) in their study to test leadership outcomes on subordinate success and found significant relationships in all three of the subscales. The researcher therefore deemed it appropriate to use the MLQ extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction subscales to test junior officers' leader success.

Leader success for this study will be defined as the leader having high levels of extra effort, effectiveness and leader satisfaction. The researcher predicted that leaders (junior officers in the SANDF) with high levels of EI, PsyCap and SOC will show leader success in their ability to exert extra effort in their tasks and roles in the organisation, they will be able to influence subordinates' desire to also exert extra effort in their tasks and heighten their desire to succeed in organisational objectives. High levels of EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly enhance the leader's ability to effectively meet others' and the organisations' needs and improve satisfaction levels not only in the leader himself but also in peers and subordinates.

2.4.1   Army leadership defined for the SANDF

The SANDF, as all other military services, is a unique organisation in terms of leadership and leader success. The SANDF does not hire leaders outside the organisation but instead leaders are bred within the organisation. Leader positions are filled by individuals promoted within the organisation. This characteristic of the SANDF highlights why it is principally significant and vital for the SANDF to assign and allocate valuable resources to developing leaders.

The junior leaders of today will be developed into the future's leaders that stand for the responsibility of leading the organisation successfully. The Chief of the South African army commanded the Change Management Section of the Directorate Management and Renewal Services to employ what is termed as the Full Range Leadership Development Programme at all levels of the SA army.

The Programme includes a manual on the South African army's leadership, command and management principles to be used by young military leaders as a field guide in practice, as well as a residential course on what the army names Full Range Leadership (South African army leadership, command and management) (South African army, 2000; Basic Full Range Leadership (BFRL) Manual, n.d.). The South African army uses the Clover model to distinguish between leadership, command and management. Leadership is defined as "unleashing the potential of people to respond to all challenges in extraordinary ways" and involves activities such as visualising, inspiring and counselling. Leaders in the SANDF can find themselves in situations where the important skill of military leadership becomes a necessity. Situations as mentioned above (see par 2.2 and 2.3) that challenge the new era military leader, such as conditions of battle, danger, chance, exertion, uncertainty, apprehension and frustration, call for the leader to be extraordinary.

The character traits or qualities the South African army considers being important for a leader or a person aspiring to becoming a leader include courage, judgement, willpower, flexibility, knowledge and integrity (South African army, 2000). The South African army states that the art of leadership can be taught and learned by young upcoming leaders. It states that it is not necessary to be a born leader but an individual must display certain qualities, which can be developed to make him a leader. The SANDF Corporate Communications (2008) stated that values applied to leadership include making ordinary people do extraordinary things, such as:

- Visionary qualities – creating and inspiring common goals and objectives;
- Teamwork – to harness the abilities of individuals in a combined effort;
- Caring – to be concerned and have interest in and respect for others;
- Exemplary – to lead by example;
- Empowerment – enablement and trust;
- Communication – to share information to promote common understanding.

The model shows strengths, in that the SANDF stresses that the leader must have visionary qualities which are necessary for dealing with diverse challenges (see par 2.3). Teamwork is important for any military leader to work as part of a team to achieve organisational goals. The officer must care and attend to the welfare of his subordinates effectively. The officer must lead by example and enable trust in his subordinates. The officer should be able to share information to promote understanding of organisational goals to his subordinates. Vermaak (2006) stated that these strengths refer to activities conducted by the organisation to ensure the effectiveness or optimal performance of the organisation.

The weaknesses, however, noted by the researcher are that in this leadership definition and values that the SANDF set out for leadership for the organisation, there are no traces of mentioning any emotional component to leadership or any traces of positive psychological capital or stress coping abilities. The literature review (see par 2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5) makes it clear that skills such as EI, PsyCap and SOC become vital for any individual in the 21st century workplace to function successfully. The SANDF does not in this leadership definition take into account the necessity of EI, PsyCap and SOC for future leader success. The strengths and weaknesses of this model to satisfy the challenges mentioned (see par 2.2 and 2.3) give theoretical content to the research gap identified by the researcher and create the need for EI, PsyCap and SOC to be included in a leadership definition for the SANDF.

2.4.2 Officer profile, role and selection in the South African army

The officer commands, establishes policy, plans the work of the army; concentrates on collective training which will enable the unit to accomplish its mission; is primarily involved with unit operations, training, and related activities; concentrates on unit effectiveness and unit readiness; and pays particular attention to the standards of performance, training, and professional development of non-commissioned officers. The officer leads his subordinates by example.

The purpose of the post and role of the SA army junior officer is to effectively and efficiently prepare command and control subordinates at sub-sub unit level for and during combat, operations other than war and non-combat situations. The Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012) outlines the following key performance areas required from the individual:

- The officer must command, lead and control his/her subordinates effectively and efficiently.
- The officer must manage and administer the resources allotted to him/her effectively and efficiently.
- The officer must educate, train and develop himself/herself before doing the same for subordinates in order to ensure combat-ready soldiers.
- The officer must attend to the welfare and administration of his/her subordinates effectively and efficiently.

According to the Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012), the main instructions guiding the execution of these key performance areas are all regulatory frameworks that influence the functioning of their position and include the Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996) and the Defence Act, 2002 (Act No. 42 of 2002) (South African army assessment centre, 2012).

The Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers points out that the work stressors that the junior officer can experience include environmental/ergonomical stressors related to the external environment and include variables such as his fitness and extreme weather conditions. Operational stressors include physical danger operating in potentially hostile environments. Interpersonal stressors include stressors related to relations with other people directly or indirectly related to the work-situation. The junior officer needs to be able to work with people from different backgrounds and cultures. During operations other than war the junior officer needs to liaise with people speaking unknown languages from different cultures, education levels and different religions and in some cases manage conflict between hostile groupings.

Intrapersonal stressors experienced by the individuals within themselves due to work related situations include uncertainty and lack of confidence. The junior officer needs to be able to work and make decisions based on incomplete information, clear direction or without knowing whether the decision is the right one and still inspire confidence from his/her subordinate. A junior officer needs to establish confidence from his subordinates with strong mental and direct decisions with confidence (South African army assessment centre, 2012).

According to the Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre , 2012), the behavioural competencies necessary for the junior officer to successfully perform key performance areas include competencies such as initiative, team player, sense of urgency, self-discipline, integrity, adaptability, assertiveness, problem-solving ability, military professionalism, command (leadership and managerial skills), communication skills, physical fitness and hygiene, resilience, decisiveness, achievement motivation, bravery and being adventurous.

The selection process for junior military leaders of the SA army is representative of the process in the broader SANDF. The selection boards are driven by the SANDF Human Resource (HR) Acquisition branch at the SANDF Headquarters level, and the chairperson of a selection board is a representative from the same SANDF HR Acquisition (Pebble as cited in Erasmus, 2009). Civilians cannot apply to come into view in front of the Officer Selection Board. They can only apply to join the SANDF as recruits, and even for this application, they need to pass a general selection board to determine if they match the profile of a soldier. Recruits then are assigned to different training corps throughout the country and undergo specific basic military training without leadership content. A paper selection identifies recruits who comply with the minimum requirements, that is university exemption and healthy medical records, at the various training units and these recruits may appear before the Selection Board. The board relies heavily on the outcome of the candidates' psychological test for its decision if the candidate can attend the Formative Course.

The decision is based on the consensus of the board. It is, however, a norm that a candidate who passes the psychological tests will be selected for officer training.

Dr Johnny O'Neil, Head of the SA army assessment centre and Industrial Psychologist, Salisha Singh working at the SA army assessment centre (personal communication, 29 May 2012), mentioned that the assessment battery that junior officers undergo include psychometric evaluation on personality factors, motivational factors, learning potential, problem solving ability and a behavioural exercise to test leadership (psychometric instruments' names cannot be mentioned in the study as these are confidential information pertaining to be restricted and confidential information for the SANDF).

As officers, junior officers need to do planning which forms part of the planning processes of the SANDF. Potential junior officers' problem solving ability is tested to make sure that they will be able to fulfil their planning role. They are given a scenario during the selection process and have to determine the problem in the scenario, and give solutions to the determined problems. The results on how adequately they identified the problem and solutions to the problem, will determine their problem solving abilities. They undergo a leader exercise, also called a behaviour exercise, where they are taken out into the field and must walk several kilometres while carrying equipment. While they are walking an industrial psychologist records their behaviour during the exercise and their leadership role during the exercise. The psychologists only look at how they behave in that environment and do not interfere during the exercise. The exercise is important to test their leadership and behavioural skills as they are in the actual environment in terms of warfare (in the field, carrying equipment, walking far for long hours). The psychologists can also see the behaviour of the individual in terms of interacting in the group as the potential junior officers do this exercise in a group of seven to ten people (S. Singh, personal communication, 29 May 2012).

After the assessment battery the industrial psychologists working on the project go into a work session where they discuss each potential candidate and the results of the candidate on the assessment battery. The panel of industrial psychologists determines if the person fits the junior officer profile laid out by the SA army assessment centre and makes a decision to recommend the person for the junior officers' course. A person that does not fit the profile is not recommended for further development as a junior officer (S. Singh, personal communication, 29 May 2012).

After selection any employee in the SANDF who aspires to become a junior leader needs to undergo a 19-week training course and complete this leader training successfully. Only a certain number of chosen individuals can undergo junior leadership training, thus the SANDF needs to be selective in its choice of who these chosen individuals will be.

"The organisation needs to determine which candidates have the potential to reach a certain level of success at the end of the junior leader-training programme. Only the best candidates will therefore be allowed to continue with the junior leader-training programme" (Muller & Schepers, 2003, p. 90). Test batteries that need to be included in these selection processes should include tests that measure stress tolerance (both physical and mental stress), and measure the individual's empathy, tact, emotional sensitivity, and people development skills. Any leader lacking empathy, tact, emotional sensitivity, and people development skills is destined to be unsuccessful.

The literature shows that there is a possible gap in the officer profile and officer selection in the SANDF. Intrapersonal and interpersonal skills needed by officers for being successful future leaders to face the mentioned future security challenges (see par 2.2 and 2.3) are not properly addressed by the SANDF in the profile and selection of officers.

The mission of the SANDF is to provide, manage, prepare and employ defence capabilities commensurate with the needs of SA as regulated by the Constitution, National legislation, and Parliamentary and Executive direction. Leadership in the SANDF is about serving this mission. "The conclusion can be made that, for the SANDF to observe a significant improvement in organisation results, SANDF Top management should re-address the entire value chain, which arguably includes: a change of leadership style and approach to leadership in the SANDF" (Vermaak, 2006, p. 200).

The following section will investigate the theoretical foundation of intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors necessary for junior officers in the SANDF to successfully function in their role and profile that the SANDF sets out for junior officers, and to successfully be leaders for the future SANDF.

2.5   INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL PREDICTORS

According to Hogan (2007), intrapersonal skills refer to characteristics that develop in the early life stages of an individual. Intrapersonal skills have important consequences on individuals' career development in their adulthood. The four natural components of intrapersonal skills are core self-esteem, attitudes toward authority, self-control and core values. The first component refers to a person's emotional security, in essence his resiliency. People high on this component will display behaviours such as self confidence, stable and positive moods, they are not easily frustrated or upset and they can bounce back quickly and easily from setbacks. The second component refers to a person's attitude towards authority. A person with a positive attitude towards authority will follow rules and respect procedures and will be compliant and socially appropriate. A person with a negative attitude towards authority will be rebellious and will ignore rules.

The third component refers to a person's self control. This will enable the person to restrain from negative impulses, to stay focused and to follow routines. The last component refers to a person's core values. These values are also developed in the early stages of life and develop contemporaneously with other intrapersonal skills. Intrapersonal predictors occur within the individual's mind or self. Intrapersonal skills include self-awareness, self-regulation, self motivation, self-control, emotional maturity and integrity.

Hogan and Kaiser (2005, p.173) define intrapersonal skills as "internalised standards of performance; able to control emotions and behaviour (courage and willingness to take a stand; career ambition and perseverance; integrity, ethics, and values; core self-esteem and emotional stability; patience; tolerance of ambiguity)."

Hogan and Kaiser (2005, p.173) defined interpersonal skills as "social skill role-taking and role-playing ability; talent for building and maintaining relationships (political savoir faire, peer and boss relations, self-presentation and impression management, listening and negotiating, oral and written communications, customer focus, approachability)." Hogan (2007) asserted that interpersonal skills also consist of four components. The first component is the disposition to put oneself in the place of the other and try anticipating what the other person expects during an interaction (taking the role of the other, a classical saying of "putting yourself in the other person's shoes"). The second component is getting it right when one tries to anticipate the other person's expectations (the accuracy of interpersonal perception). This component is related to cognitive ability and social experience. The third component is incorporating the information about another's expectations into one's own subsequent behaviour. The last component is having self-control to stay focused on the other person's expectations and this component overlaps with intrapersonal skills. Interpersonal skills refer to the initiating, maintaining and building of relationships with diverse people who might differ from oneself.

Interpersonal predictors relate to the interactions between individuals and groups and their interpersonal skills. These predictors exist or occur between individuals. Interpersonal competence refers to the ability to socialise, to fit with group norms, to comply with authority, to manage conflict, and to be polite and mannerly. It involves empathy, insight, heightened awareness, the ability to give and receive feedback, openness to discussions about one's feelings, and the development of commitment to actions (Bass & Bass, 2008). Interpersonal skills for leader success include social skills, empathy, and relationship development. Interpersonal skills are essential leadership skills in the workplace as managerial settings are becoming more multifaceted with higher expectations mandatory for the workforce.

Kotter (1982) showed in his studies of leadership success that emotional stability, optimism, intelligence, analytical ability, intuition, and the ability to relate interpersonally and professionally are particularly vital for any leader. Gardner (1999) considered social skills, such as interpersonal skills to be vital to successful leadership. Pfeffer (1992) proclaimed that interpersonal influence used by a leader will increase his ability to change behaviours necessary for cooperation from others to attain organisational goals. The leader needs to understand which interpersonal skills to use to ensure a positive influential impact within the work setting. Pfeffer's study proposed that employees who have a strong interpersonal influence, which includes the ability to shape decision making and to gain power through influence will be successful leaders.

Officers in the SANDF, as leaders, must demonstrate intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in technical, tactical and leader tasks under ambiguous and constantly changing conditions. Major General Fred Gordon (as cited in Geraghty & Collins, 2000) stated that future armed forces are in the area of leadership including peacekeeping roles, which assumes interpersonal skills. Edwards and Morrison (as cited in Geraghty & Collins, 2000, p. 24) pointed out that "as an officer progresses through the ranks, the knowledge, skills and abilities involving day-to-day operations become less important, and planning and interpersonal abilities become more important". These skills are becoming increasingly important noting the national challenges the SANDF are facing (see par 2.3). The new leaders of tomorrow are visionary, imaginative and creative. Leaders of tomorrow are both learners and teachers. Leaders of tomorrow will have a strong sense of ethics and will exert extra effort to build integrity in their organisations. A pioneer in personality assessment, Raymond Cattel, developed an equation in 1954 which outlines specific variables needed for leader success. His study was based on military leaders and included the following intrapersonal and interpersonal traits that classified successful leaders (Business wealth, 2012, p. 1):

- *Emotional stability*. Good leaders must be able to tolerate frustration and stress. Overall, they must be well-adjusted and have the psychological maturity to deal with anything they are required to face.
- *Dominance*. Leaders are often times competitive and decisive and usually enjoy overcoming obstacles. Overall, they are assertive in their thinking style as well as their attitude in dealing with others.
- *Enthusiasm*. Leaders are usually seen as active, expressive, and energetic. They are often very optimistic and open to change. Overall, they are generally quick and alert and tend to be uninhibited.

- *Conscientiousness*. Leaders are often dominated by a sense of duty and tend to be very exacting in character. They usually have a very high standard of excellence and an inward desire to do one's best. They also have a need for order and tend to be very self-disciplined.

- *Social boldness*. Leaders tend to be spontaneous risk-takers. They are usually socially aggressive and generally thick-skinned. Overall, they are responsive to others and tend to be high in emotional stamina.

- *Tough-mindedness*. Good leaders are practical, logical, and to-the-point. They tend to be low in sentimental attachments and comfortable with criticism. They are usually insensitive to hardship and overall, are very poised.

- *Self-assurance*. Self-confidence and resiliency are common traits among leaders. They tend to be free of guilt and have little or no need for approval. They are generally secure and free from guilt and are usually unaffected by prior mistakes or failures.

- *Compulsiveness*. Leaders have been found to be controlled and very precise in their social interactions. Overall, they are very protective of their integrity and reputation and consequently tend to be socially aware and careful, abundant in foresight, and very careful when making decisions or determining specific actions.

- *High energy*. Remaining alert and staying focused are two of the greatest obstacles leaders have to face.

- *Intuitiveness*. Rapid changes in the world today combined with information overload result in an inability to "know" everything. In other words, reasoning and logic will not get a leader through all situations. In fact, more and more leaders are learning to the value of using their intuition and trusting their "gut" when making decisions.

- *Maturity*. To be a good leader, personal power and recognition must be secondary to the development of your employees. In other words, maturity is based on recognising that more can be accomplished by empowering others than can be by ruling others.

- *Team orientation*. Leaders today put a strong emphasis on team work. Instead of promoting an adult/child relationship with their employees, leaders create an adult/adult relationship which fosters team cohesiveness.

- *Empathy*. Being able to "put yourself in the other person's shoes" is a key trait of leaders today. Without empathy, leaders cannot build trust. And without trust, you will never be able to get the best effort from your employees.

- *Charisma*. People usually perceive leaders as larger than life. Charisma plays a large part in this perception. Leaders who have charisma are able to arouse strong emotions in their employees by defining a vision which unites and captivates them. Using this vision, leaders motivate employees to reach toward a future goal by tying the goal to substantial personal rewards and values.

Bedwelli, Fiore, and Salasi (2011) identified the significant qualities of successful military leaders. They characterised three explicit types of knowledge that will identify an effective military leader from an ineffective military leader, namely (1) intrapersonal skills, (2) interpersonal skills, and (3) teamwork and organisational behaviour. The intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors that will be discussed for this study include EI, PsyCap and SOC and are illustrated in Figure 2.4.

Intrapersonal skills	**Interpersonal skills**
Emotional intelligence	***Emotional intelligence***
-emotional self-awareness -emotional expression -emotional reasoning -emotional self-management -emotional self-control	- emotional awareness of others - emotional reasoning - emotional management of others
Psychological capital	
-self-efficacy -optimism -hope -resilience	
Sense of coherence -comprehensibility -manageability -meaningfulness	

Figure 2.4. **Intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors (EI, PsyCap and SOC)**

These intrapersonal and interpersonal skills will be discussed in the next section. These skills are the predictors of leader success for this study and their relationship with leader success will be theoretically discussed. EI models will be discussed. The EI model used for this study is the seven factor Genos EI model of which the seven factors include emotional self-awareness, emotional awareness of others, emotional expression, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others and emotional self-control (see par 2.5.1.1). PsyCap will also be discussed as an intrapersonal skill necessary for leader success. PsyCap includes self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience (see par 2.5.2). Lastly, SOC will be discussed as an intrapersonal skill in terms of comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness (see par 2.5.3).

2.5.1   Emotional intelligence

The publication of Daniel Coleman's book, "Emotional Intelligence" (Goleman, 1995), rewarded EI with immense popularity in the past decade. Goleman (1998a, p. 317) defined EI as the "capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships". Salovey and Mayer (as cited in Calloway, 2010, p. 28) introduced the concept of EI by defining it as "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and repress emotion; the ability to access or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth". Bar-on (as cited in Calloway, 2010, p. 28) defined EI as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures". Goleman, Salovey and Mayer, and Bar-on acknowledged the role EI plays in leadership and supported the fact that EI is a key factor in leader performance. Goleman (1998a) stated that the difference between a good leader and an excellent leader is due to the level of EI. Gignac (2008, p. 1) defined EI in general terms, and stated that EI may be defined as "the capacity to identify, use, and manage emotions".

Genos has taken a different approach to the conceptualisation and measurement of EI. The Genos EI concentrates on measuring the frequency or typicality with which a person may possibly demonstrate EI behaviours. For the purpose of this study the researcher used Gignac's (2008) definition of EI as the study focused on measuring junior officers' frequency of displaying appropriate EI behaviours. These EI behaviours are extremely important for future junior leaders (junior officers) to adequately and successfully deal with the challenges ahead for the SANDF and to ultimately be successful leaders (see par 2.3).

EI comes from the concept that emotions are one of the necessary mental operations along with motivation and cognition. Emotions act as signals as the consequences to reactions in changing circumstances (e.g. a threat posed to an officer may elicit a response of fear or anger). Emotions affect behavioural responses to situational cues. Individuals high on EI engage in intelligent thoughts and have the ability to be intelligent about their emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). Calloway's (2010) study proved that the underlying core of military leader performance and success centres around the influences of EI.

Numerous studies showed that EI plays an important role in military leader success (Calloway, 2010; Sewell, 2009; Abrahams, 2007; Latour & Hosmer, 2002; Livingstone et al., 2002). Bachman (as cited in Calloway, 2010) observed that the most successful naval leaders were warmer, more outgoing, emotionally expressive, dramatic and sociable. This shows that the study of EI and its application could be useful when considering the challenges facing the SANDF (see par 2.3).

Previous research indicates a positive relationship between EI and successful leaders (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b). Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006) found that EI scores were a strong predictor of leader success.

2.5.1.1 Emotional intelligence models

EI models fall into two categories, namely the ability-based model and the mixed model. The ability-based model focuses on the relationship of intelligence and emotions. The mixed model focuses on a combination of emotions and personality characteristics (Calloway, 2010). The ability-based model explains EI as the ability to process emotional information (Livingstone et al., 2002). The ability-based model resulted from the work of Mayer and Salovey and the mixed model from the work of Bar-on and Goleman (Calloway, 2010).

Mayer and Salovey (1990) created the ability-based model and developed the Multifactor EI Scale (MEIS). The scale was designed to measure emotional perception, emotional facilitation of thought, emotional understanding and emotional management. The test taker carries out a sequence of specific tasks testing their emotional ability. The MEIS, however, was later updated and is known today as the Mayer Salovey Caruso EI Test (MSCEIT). The updated test measures the ability to perceive emotions, facilitate thought, understand emotions and manage emotions (Calloway, 2010).

Bar-on developed the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I), which is a self-report inventory measuring five areas that include intrapersonal functioning, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management and general mood. Participants respond on a 5-point Likert scale to 133 items. The subscales measure areas such as self-awareness, self-expression, social awareness, interpersonal relationships, emotional management and regulation, change management and self-motivations.

Goleman developed the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) which was later updated and renamed as the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) which focuses on competencies using a 360-degree feedback tool. Test takers rate themselves and receive a rating from their peers, subordinates and leaders. The test measures four areas, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Calloway, 2010).

Palmer and Stough (as cited in Van der Nest, 2010) developed the Swinburne University EI Test (SUEIT), which is a uni-dimensional model of EI that consists of five factors. These factors signify a set of interrelated abilities that illustrate how well emotions are dealt with in the working environment.

The factors include emotional recognition and expression, understanding emotions, emotions direct cognition, emotional management, and emotional control.

A revised psychometric measure came after the SUIET, namely the Genos EI inventory. The Genos EI model was used for this study. The Genos EI focuses on the measurement of the frequency with which individuals exhibit EI behaviours. Organisations, typically, are more interested in how an individual characteristically behaves. The inventory consists of 70 items designed to measure the frequency of EI behaviours displayed by the individual. The items are scored on a five-point Likert scale. The inventory consists of seven subscales, namely emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others and emotional self-control (Gignac, 2008). In the function of measuring the rate of recurrence with which individuals display EI behaviours, the researcher used the Genos EI model in this study to measure junior officers' frequency of displaying EI behaviours (see par 3.5.1).

The Genos EI was used in this study to explain to the reader the necessary EI competencies future officers will need in successfully functioning in the contemporary world of combat. The seven factors discussed here are relevant for new generation officers. Recent military examples mentioned in the literature review are here also linked with the compatible EI factor.

According to Gignac (2008), EI should display factors such as:

- *Emotional self-awareness,* refers to the individual consciously identifying their emotions at work. It also represents the frequency with which an individual is aware that their emotions may motivate or affect their thoughts and behaviours at work. Cole (2012) wrote about the staff sergeant who killed 16 Afghan villagers near Qandahar, Afghanistan. The situation spiralled out of control and due to the staff sergeant's inability to contain his emotions and the situation, innocent people were killed. Militaries need to train and educate soldiers in different emotional competencies on how to successfully function in stressful situations such as these (see par 2.3.3).

- *Emotional expression,* refers to the individual expressing their emotions in an appropriate way at work. Appropriate, in this context, implies the right way, at the right time, and to the right people. The appropriate expression of an emotion may be verbal or non-verbal in nature (or a combination of the two). A good example of non-verbal emotional expression includes Lt. Colonel Chris Hughes and the incident in Iraq. On the morning of 3 April 2003, Hughes and his troops stood outside the holiest Shia mosque in all Iraq. Hughes led his troops into the city to liberate it, but some Iraqi agitators spread a lie averring that the Americans were going to sequester the mosque.

Hughes quickly assessed and construed the intentions of a very intense crowd surrounding the mosque. Making sense of the situation and ordering an appropriate action (ordering his soldiers to take a knee, smile and point their weapons downward (non-verbal)) prevented a violent massacre and potentially saved lives. Hughes and his troops approaching a consecrated part of the city did not have an understanding of the cultural context surrounding the situation but Hughes was still able to refer to the contextual cues of the setting and determine an appropriate response (Connaughton et al., 2011) (see par 1.1).

- *Emotional awareness of others,* refers to the individual identifying the emotions expressed by others in the workplace. The emphasis is on the awareness of both verbal and non-verbal expressions of emotions by others. Further, there is also an emphasis on understanding the nature of the emotions that may motivate or affect the behaviours of others at work. The SANDF, being a very diverse organisation, needs people who are aware of others' emotions and feelings to ensure harmonious unity among its people (see par 2.3.3). A lack of sensitivity to diversity can have dire consequences for the SANDF as this can have an impact on the overall success of the organisation (Heinecken, 2009).

- *Emotional reasoning,* refers to an individual incorporating emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work. Emotional reasoning refers to problem solving that incorporates some consideration of one's own emotions and the emotions of others when making decisions at work. Emotional reasoning becomes important for situations where negotiations for peace are sought in areas such as Burundi, DRC, Sudan and Somalia, to name but a few (Heineken, 1998; Neethling, 1997) (see par 2.3.6).

- *Emotional self-management*, refers to an individual successfully managing their own emotions at work. It involves moving on from an emotional set-back, rather than dwelling or ruminating over the situation. Rosenberg (2011b), one of the authors of the magazine, Psychology today, stated that psychological education is a big part of what soldiers should experience. Military psychologists should form part of the evaluating team to assist in identifying each soldier's psychological vulnerabilities to increase the soldier's emotional self-management. This increases the soldier's emotional knowledge that he needs to maintain composure and function adequately. Emotional knowledge will help the soldier push through his barriers of pain tolerance, hopelessness, fear and shame and give him the ability to mentally regroup to complete his mission. He will be able to withstand the mental aspects of situations such as interrogations; he will become mentally stronger and more resilient; and he will know how to regulate his emotions when "his buttons get pushed" (see par 2.2).

- *Emotional management of others*, refers to an individual successfully managing the emotions of others at work. It involves creating a positive work environment for others and helping individuals resolve issues at work that are causing them distress.

Scholars are witnessing that new wars might require militaries to combine conventional struggles with insurgencies and civil wars, such as those conflicts in Iraq and the Second Lebanon war waged by Israel in 2006 (Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008). If officers are to participate in wars such as these they will need the ability to recognise the emotions of others (see par 2.2).

- *Emotional self-control*, refers to the individual controlling their strong emotions appropriately in the workplace. A substantial focus is placed on the demonstrable maintenance of focus or concentration on the task at hand in the face of emotional adversity. In the continuous evolvement of the modern battlefield officers need to be prepared to rapidly transform "from brutal kinetic combat one minute to complex, non-kinetic (e.g., negotiations or psychological operations) interactions the next (and back again) with agility, intelligence, and an exceptional level of emotional self-control" (Hannah et al., 2010, p. 413) (see par 2.2).

Emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others and emotional self-control become important characteristics if junior leaders of the SANDF want to successfully carry out their role, fit their profile (see par 2.4.2) and ultimately be successful leaders in dealing with the challenges the SANDF faces (see par 2.3). EI is a core competency necessary for leader success (see par 2.5.4).

2.5.2   Psychological capital

The field of positive psychology was introduced by Martin Seligman in 1998. Peterson (2000) described positive psychology as a growing movement within psychology which recently received much attention. Normally when studying psychology, researchers look at what is wrong with people and tune into their human weaknesses. The notion of positive psychology states that studying humans is much more than only studying their weaknesses or their dysfunctions. Positive psychology states that studying humans includes much more than just trying to fix what is wrong with them.

Positive psychology identifies and nurtures strong qualities in people and helps them in developing their strengths and how to best out live these strengths. The aim of positive psychology is to shift the focus from what is wrong with people to focus on what is right with people. Positive psychology focuses on variables such as resiliency and enhancing and developing mental and physical soundness, prosperity and a good life. Positive organisation behaviour is a proactive, positive approach that focuses on emphasising positively oriented human resources such as a person's strengths and psychological competencies.

These strengths can be measured, developed and managed effectively for performance and success in the workplace (Avey, Luthans, & Jensen, 2009; Luthans, 2002; Luthans, Luthans, & Luthans, 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Story 2011). Drawing from positive psychology and positive organisational behaviour, four distinct variables have been projected to signify strengths and positive capacities, and these include hope, efficacy, resiliency and optimism (Luthans, Norman, Avolio, & Avey, 2008c). Together these four constructs describe PsyCap as a higher order construct and open to development. PsyCap explains who employees are and what they can become (Luthans, Avey, Clapp-Smith, & Li, 2008a; Luthans, Avey, & Patera, 2008b).

PsyCap is defined as "an individual's positive psychological state of development that is characterised by (1) having confidence (self-efficacy) to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks; (2) making a positive attribution (optimism) about succeeding now and in the future; (3) persevering toward goals, and when necessary, redirecting paths to goals (hope) in order to succeed; and (4) when beset by problems and adversity, sustaining and bouncing back and even beyond (resilience) to attain success" (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010, p. 20). PsyCap includes four dimensions, namely self-efficacy, optimism, hope and resilience that can forecast a proclivity to accomplish goals and be successful. These dimensions are state-like and have been demonstrated as a higher order core construct (having a cognitive nature) which can predict desired employee outcomes in an organisation. The dimensions are also developmental in nature and can be learned with institutionalising specific interventions.

For this study, PsyCap is defined as a person having self-efficacy to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks, having optimism about succeeding in these tasks now and in the future, having hope to persevere through difficulties toward achieving goals and redirecting paths in the event of obstacles in the way of achieving goals, and lastly to have the resilience to rebound from challenges and attain success (Avey et al., 2010).

The dimensions of PsyCap include:

- *Self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy refers to the sense of having control over events that affect individuals' lives. It reflects personal judgement of the capacity of using skills effectively, referring to "what am I capable of doing with my skills". Wood and Bandura (as cited in Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011, p. 263) defined self-efficacy to "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilise the motivation, cognitive resources and courses of action needed to meet given organisational demands". Self-efficacy is the "individual's conviction about his or her abilities to successfully execute a specific task within a given context" (Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004).

Self-efficacy is having confidence to take on specific challenging tasks and put in the required effort to succeed at these challenging tasks (Luthans et al., 2008b; Luthans et al., 2008c). Stajokovic and Luthans (as cited in Avey et al., 2010, p. 20) explained that efficacy is having confidence to "successfully execute a specific task within a given context". Bandura (1997) stated that mastering a task successfully, explicit learning and modelling, shared influence, and psychological or physiological stimulation could develop self-efficacy.

- *Optimism*

Seligman (as cited in Avey et al., 2010, p. 20; Youssef & Luthans, 2007, p. 778) defined optimism as "attributions one makes and the explanatory style one uses in response to events". Optimists base the results of their success on internal cues and their possible failures on external cues which were perhaps unavoidable. Optimistic individuals show tendencies of positive emotional states. Previous research shows that optimism correlated positively with job performance (Lau & Shaffer, 1999). Optimistic people view adverse and unpleasant events as being temporary. People that tend to be more pessimistic interpret events such as these as permanent. Optimists attribute permanent acknowledgement to successes whereas pessimists see success as only a temporary provenance (Luthans et al., 2004). Optimists take credit for successful events in their lives and this result in elevated self-esteem and morale. This allows them to distance themselves from inauspicious events in their lives guarding them against depression, guilt and self-blame (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). Optimists have a positive air of expectancy hanging over them in relation to outcomes of specific events. This allows for more positive expectations of outcomes in work environments, which are these days characterised as fast-paced and ever changing (Luthans et al., 2008a).

- *Hope*

Youssef and Luthans (2007, p. 778) defined hope as a "positive motivational state based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal directed agency) and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)". Hope drives people to achieve goals. If pathways to achieving goals have been blocked hope will create new pathways to replace those pathways. Hope is driven by three factors, namely goals, agency and pathways. "People are driven to accomplish their goals by their sense of agency, which provides them with an internalised determination and willpower to invest the energy necessary to achieve their goals" (Luthans & Youssef, 2004, p. 153). People with hope are motivated by the awareness of their abilities to develop means to achieve the things they want. If there is a pathway that has been blocked toward the success of their goals they will generate alternative ones. Willpower of hopeful people provides them with the psychological resources necessary to generate these alternative pathways (Luthans et al., 2008a).

- *Resilience*

According to Schreuder and Coetzee (2011), survival in the present working milieu requires that individuals develop resilience to be able to adjust to 21st century changing circumstances. Luthans (2002, p. 702) defined resilience as "the capability of individuals to cope successfully in the face of significant change, adversity, or risk. This capability changes over time and is enhanced by protective factors in the individual and environment". Resilience is the individual's ability to bounce back from failure, conflict, uncertainty and adversity. Resiliency allows people to succeed through difficulties and challenges with even higher levels of performance after rebounding from these challenges. This process permits meaning and value in resilient people's lives. Resiliency composes of the staunch acceptance of reality, a deep rooted belief that life is meaningfully armoured by strongly held values and an eerie capability to manage with and adjust to significant change (Luthans & Youssef, 2004). It is dynamically influenced by both internal characteristics of the individual and various external life contexts, circumstances and opportunities. Avey et al. (2010) asserted that the heart of resilience is adaptability. Youssef and Luthans (2007) theorised that resilience facilitates proactive learning and personal growth through experiencing and conquering challenges.

Fallesen et al. (2011) indicate the importance of resilience in all soldiers. Soldiers need resilience to have the ability to persevere when facing challenges and to bounce back from harsh situations. Bressler's (2011) study among US soldiers showed that optimism can help soldiers to adjust and accept the reality of a challenge quickly, such as being sent on deployments. Optimistic soldiers appeared to display less signs of disengagement. Optimism could play an important role for soldiers when they need to perform efficiently under a great deal of stress. Bressler found that there were positive relationships between hope and optimism among soldiers' affective commitment.

Benight and Bandura (2004) studied the general function of perceived coping self-efficacy in recovery from various types of traumatic experiences. They included terrorist attacks and military combat. They found that perceived coping self-efficacy appeared important for post traumatic recovery. Casey (2011) stated that militaries should incorporate psychological resilience training as soldiers today face intense stress of repeated combat deployments and multiple missions. Suicide rates and soldiers suffering from post traumatic stress are at an all-time high necessitating resilience programmes to be incorporated. Resilience will be the inner drive that compels soldiers to continue in their tasks even though cold, wet, hungry, exhausted and afraid. The literature above shows that high levels of PsyCap will be advantageous for SANDF soldiers.

For this study PsyCap was measured by using the Psychological Capital Questionnaire (PCQ-24) developed by Luthans and his colleagues to measure the levels of self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience (see par 3.5.2) (Luthans et al., 2007a; Luthans et al., 2007b). The overall score on the questionnaire represents the individual's level of positive PsyCap. Self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience become important qualities if junior leaders of the SANDF want to successfully carry out their role, fit their profile (see par 2.4.2) and ultimately be successful leaders in dealing with the challenges the SANDF faces (see par 2.3). PsyCap has shown in numerous research studies that it enhances critical components concurrent with leader success (see par 2.5.4).

2.5.3   Sense of coherence

Antonovsky (as cited in Schreuder and Coetzee, 2011, p. 261) defined SOC as "a global orientation that expresses the extent to which one has a pervasive, enduring though dynamic feeling of confidence that (1) the stimuli deriving from one's internal and external environments in the course of living are structured, predictable and explicable, (2) the resources are available to one to meet the demands posed by these stimuli and (3) these demands are challenges, worthy of investment and engagement". A person with a strong SOC believes that he or she can meet the demands posed by their environment. SOC promotes general health and strengthens resilience while developing a positive subjective state of health (Eriksson & Lindström, 2006). According to Antonovsky (1987), SOC is the tendency to see the world as comprehensible, manageable and meaningful. SOC influences an individual's response to different types of stressful situations. In this study, the definition of Antonovsky (1987) for SOC is used.

According to Braun-Lewensohn and Sagy (2011, p. 301), "individuals with a strong SOC will be less likely to feel threatened by events of war and missile attacks and less vulnerable after these have occurred". Soldiers with weak SOC may react with more stress symptoms and maladaptive coping to stressful situations than soldiers with a stronger SOC. SOC is subject to the flexibility individuals apply to approaching and responding to new demands (Antonovsky, 1987). SOC directs the detection and development of the personal and social resources and adjustment tendencies, relating to the individual's character, allowing for appropriate selection of suitable strategies to deal with stressors.

High SOC signifies an inclination and motivation to take advantage of these resources which is at the individual's potential disposal, leading the individual to gain cognitive and emotional appraisal of the world, and then ultimately leading to effective coping.

SOC consists of the following three dimensions (Antonovsky, 1987; Hutchinson, 2005; Cilliers, 2001; Moerane, 2005; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011):

- *Comprehensibility*

Refers to the extent to which the individual perceives confronting stimuli deriving from the internal and external environments, as making cognitive sense, as information that is ordered, consistent, structured and clear, rather than as noisy, chaotic, disordered, random, accidental and inexplicable.

- *Manageability*

Refers to the extent to which the individual perceives that resources at his/her disposal are adequate to meet the demands posed by the bombarding stimuli; events are perceived as bearable that can be coped with and that challenges can be met.

- *Meaningfulness*

Refers to the extent to which the individual feels that life makes emotional sense. In terms of motivation, problems and anxieties posed by life are seen as challenges, providing stimulation to invest energy and in turn elicit commitment and engagement. The individual sees life as meaningful, and problems / events are viewed as challenges worthy of emotional investment and commitment.

As the OLQ measures the behaviour described in Antonovsky's (1987) definition and the definition used for the study, the 13-item, short form of the OLQ was used to measure SOC of junior officers in the SANDF. The overall score on the questionnaire represents the individual's level of SOC (comprehensibility, meaningfulness, manageability) (see par 3.5.3) (Antonovsky, 1987). SOC becomes important for junior officers in the SANDF if they aspire to successfully carry out their role, fit their profile (see par 2.4.2) and ultimately be successful leaders in dealing with the challenges the SANDF faces (see par 2.3). Research studies have shown that SOC is positively related to job satisfaction, work engagement, life satisfaction, general well-being and coping with stressors. This study aimed to show that SOC is important for leader success (see par 2.5.4).

2.5.4 Emotional intelligence, psychological capital, sense of coherence and leader success

The following section will describe how research has shown that EI, PsyCap and SOC can possibly lead to leader success, in terms of effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction (not only in the leader himself but also his peers and followers).

This section intends to show the reader that these intrapersonal and interpersonal skills are vital for any junior officer, as a leader part of an organisation (the SANDF), to successfully achieve his role and find a deep rooted meaning in his profile for the contemporary world of work (as the SANDF forms part of this contemporaneous environment).

Morath et al. (2011) stressed that the responsibilities, challenges and roles which today's military leaders face necessitate intrapersonal and interpersonal skill development for successful leadership. Soldiers today still lead fellowmen into harm's way, "they must prepare, train, and lead their units to face a wide range of missions and must balance the welfare and safety of their units with the need to achieve success in missions that hold inherent dangers" (Morath et al., 2011, p. 454). Leaders in the military not only protect the welfare (physical and emotional) of their fellow comrades in arms but also of their families, while they themselves face high risks of the outcomes of demanding conditions, such as post-traumatic stress disorder, traumatic brain injuries, and suicide. Morath et al. (2011, p. 454) stated the following in terms of today's military leadership:

"Leaders are responsible for creating environments that foster the learning, development, and retention of service members during a time of war. They must also create a tone within their units that fosters ethical decision making in often ambiguous situations for which the rules of engagement are not always crystal clear. Military leaders must develop and maintain technical and tactical expertise required of their professions as leaders of soldiers, marines, sailors, and airmen. They must possess the capability to lead across an ever broadening spectrum of missions and operational environments (i.e., contexts) in which the forces under their control are becoming more distributed across time and space. Leaders must also be skilled in the use of technology-mediated communication as they lead this highly distributed force. These challenges represent only a portion of the responsibilities faced by today's military leaders".

The environment of armed forces has endorsed a necessity for leaders who have a confidence in their capabilities, their ability to lead, and their skills to motivate and accomplish organisational goals (Calloway, 2010). As a result, the military is focusing on higher order leadership dexterity, such as EI, to cultivate leaders who are and will be proficient to meet the diverse challenges of the 21st century and inspire positive organisational performance.

EI can be used to select and develop successful leaders (Goleman, 1998a) and appear to be important for successful leadership (Yukl, 2010). Goleman (1998a) stated that leaders need to be aware of their own emotions and how these emotions affect the people around them while operating in daily tasks and carrying out responsibilities assigned to them.

To be a successful leader, the leader must be aware of how his emotional competency affects the way he leads and influences his followers. EI is proficiency harnessed to influence subordinates and the ambience of an organisation in a positive manner (Abrahams, 2007). Sewell (2009) explained that a person, even when receiving first class training, and having a perceptive mind and an incessant contribution of ideas, may still not make an excellent leader.

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) found that leaders who possessed high levels of emotional self-regulation maintained composure under stress situations, highlighting the importance of emotional skills in soldiers. EI has two basic important components for military leaders. These are interpersonal skills such as perceiving and expressing emotions and intrapersonal skills which comprise the ability to use emotions in support of social control. To develop skills like understanding, compassion, relationship skills and creativity encourages significant development of social skills such as social control.

The SA army defines leadership as "unleashing the potential of people to respond to all challenges in extraordinary ways" and involves activities such as visualising, inspiring and counselling (South African army, 2000). What is missing from this definition is a holistic emphasis on the emotional side of leadership. This entails how leaders should be aware of their own emotions and how these emotions affect those around them as they undertake the daily missions and tasks assigned to them. In the officer selection process of the SA army there is no evidence or traces of EI being considered as a crucial skill for any type of leader. Coutu (as cited in Erasmus, 2009) quotes De Vries, Professor of Leadership Development at Insead, France, who said that the first thing he looks for in a leader is EI. The most effective leaders all have a high degree of EI. The absence of testing future officers for EI becomes problematic when literature suggests that EI is an important leadership skill. Shouldn't it then be a crucial element to test junior officers for EI to assure that they will have the necessary ability to deal with contemporary challenges (see par 2.2 and 2.3) faced by armed forces?

Gardner and Stough (2002) found significant correlations between extra effort, effectiveness, satisfaction and EI. Extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (see par 2.4 and Figure 2.3) produced a strong positive correlation with EI ($r=0.572$, $p<0.01$). Bass (1997) stated that extra effort will show the leader being successful in enabling others to get them to do more than they expected to. Extra effort shows the leader will not only himself try harder and desire success but he will influence his peers and followers also to desire success. Effectiveness transpires when work-related needs are met and the leader is leading an effective group. Satisfaction is accomplished when the leader is working with his team members in a satisfying way.

Gardner and Stough (2002, p. 76) suggested that "the ability of a leader to be able to identify and understand the emotions of others in the workplace, to be able to manage their own and others' positive and negative emotions, to be able to control emotions states in the workplace effectively, to utilise emotional information when problem solving and to be able to express their feelings to others, is integral to the leader being effective, putting in extra effort, and being satisfied". Cheah and Ken (2012) did a study to explore the relationship between the EI of leaders and their leader success (outcomes of leadership, namely extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction). They found a positive significant correlation (r=0.647, p<0.01) between EI and satisfaction with leadership. They also found a positive significant correlation (r=0.662, p<0.01) between EI and extra effort.

Research shows a positive relationship between EI and leader success (extra effort, effectiveness, satisfaction) (see par 2.4 and Figure 2.3). Noting the diverse challenges (see par 2.3) junior officers will face not only in their role now as leaders, but also in future, it becomes important that these officers display high levels of EI to ensure they are effective as leaders, to exert extra effort in themselves to meet challenges, and to ensure a high level of satisfaction in their own abilities and in their peers and subordinates.

Recent research has shown that leaders high on PsyCap are higher performing leaders than those low on PsyCap. Research shows that leaders' PsyCap also has an impact on their followers' attitudes, emotions and performance. Successful leadership in organisations includes leaders spreading positivism, being inspirational, motivational and having high levels of confidence. "High PsyCap leaders are able to do this through the process of emotional contagion or what Daniel Goleman in his book Primal Leadership has termed emotional resonance" (Peterson et al., n.d., p. 7). Peterson, Walumbwa and colleagues (as cited in Peterson et al., n.d.) did a study in a police organisation and revealed that leaders' PsyCap positively influenced their subordinates' emotions and performance over time. Interviews with the sergeants showed the effects of a high PsyCap leader (the Lieutenant) from their positive testimonials about their leader. These testimonials made it apparent that PsyCap will facilitate inspiration in followers and sustain their motivation. The LCAMPS definition of leadership for leaders in the SANDF explicitly states that leaders need to be inspiring (South African army, 2000). This necessitates that officers' levels of PsyCap be determined to make sure that they will be able to inspire followers when interacting in the adverse militant environment of this era (see par 2.2).

Psychological states such as hope, optimism, resiliency and confidence are critical for leaders. These states become important for leader well-being and also influence the positivity of the followers of the leader (Luthans et al., 2007a). Sinclair and Tucker (as cited by Hannah et al., 2010, p. 435) showed in their study that "respondents also spoke of being positive related to emotional displays (i.e. positive affectivity).

Positive, as opposed to negative, affectivity is a general propensity in a leader to produce energetic and cheerful emotional responses that then provide a resource to mitigate stress". Positivism in leaders will also lead to followers being positive which is necessary in different peacekeeping operations in areas such as Sudan (see par 2.2, 2.2.2 and 2.3.6).

Toor and Ofori (2010) did a study on positive PsyCap as a source of sustainable competitive advantage for organisations and found the following correlations between PsyCap and extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (leader success) (see par 2.4). PsyCap and three of its components are significantly and positively correlated to effectiveness (PsyCap: $r=0.49$, $p<0.01$; PsyCap self-efficacy: $r=0.54$, $p<0.01$; PsyCap resiliency: $r=0.40$, $p<0.05$; PsyCap optimism: $r=0.40$). The study also found that the manifestation of transformational leadership is necessary for leaders with higher PsyCap to experience better extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction. A recent study done by Luthans and Youssef (2004) found that hope had a significant positive impact on satisfaction and performance. Luthans et al. (2008a) stated that in a rapidly changing environment (such as the environment the SANDF is facing (see par 2.4)) the alternate pathways dimension of hope will let individuals make a greater contribution (extra effort) to attain their desired goals and be more effective (effectiveness) in achieving these goals. PsyCap symbolises the leader's positive appraisal of situations and possibility for success rooted in motivated effort and diligence.

Research literature has indicated that individuals who have been exposed to terror and war tend to be vulnerable to different psychological and social problems (Braun-Lewensohn & Sagy, 2011). Irrespective of an individual's coping mechanisms to his disposal or the extent to which he has a disposition to respond with anxiety, there are certain stressors that are likely to induce apprehension. However, evidence exists showing that high levels of SOC facilitate lucrative psychological and physiological coping with stressful situations. Antonovsky (as cited in Cilliers, 2001, p. 15) added that "it is the strength of the SOC of the person experiencing such events that will determine whether the outcomes will be noxious, neutral, or salutary". He emphasizes that "the strength of an individual's SOC is central to the regulation of emotional tension generated by confrontation with stressors" like in peacekeeping operations (see par 2.2, 2.2.2 and 2.3.6). Cilliers (2001) did a study showing that groups high on SOC will invest emotional energy into potentially stressful situations, showing commitment (extra effort) and increased engagement, showing that the experience of emotional sensibility leads to a sense of empowerment, trusting their own resources to deal with challenges, and having more confidence in venturing on their own interpretations of working with complex challenges.

If one looks at the current military environment outlined above (see par 2.2 and 2.3) it becomes imperative that a military leader possesses a high level of SOC, given the traits associated with someone high on SOC.

The capability of finding meaning and purpose in stressful situations and to have a sense of control over events becomes important for soldiers who operate in very stressful environments. Soldiers need to see these stressful events as opportunities for personal growth and development. Bartone (1999) found that these abilities inherent in soldiers will buffer the negative consequences of combat on soldiers' well-being.

Muller and Rothmann (2009) did a study on SOC and found that SOC was positively related to job satisfaction, work engagement, life satisfaction, general well-being and actively coping with stressors. An employee's level of SOC also contributes to his professional efficacy in the workplace (Rothmann et al., 2003). Van der Colff and Rothmann (2009) did a study on registered nurses in SA and found that a strong SOC predicted lower levels of emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation. A strong SOC predicted higher levels of personal accomplishment and work engagement. The researcher expects that a person with a high level of SOC will better deal with the stressors presented by contemporary military environments. A high level of SOC in junior leaders in the SANDF will lead to them exerting extra effort to deal with these stressors which possibly can lead to them being effective in their role as leaders and finally lead to leader success.

The current research gap identified by the researcher is that the SANDF in its current leadership definition does not holistically address the importance of these intrapersonal and interpersonal traits of leadership. The SANDF needs to place emphasis on them as qualities of leadership to ensure officers can deal with militaristic challenges. Success of the leader can be measured by how often the leader perceives himself as being a motivating force, how effective he perceives himself as being a leader at different levels of the organisation and how satisfied those around him are with his leadership. For the purpose of this study the researcher accepts that leader success will entail that the leader shows high levels of the underlying dimensions of the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors discussed in the literature review. Extensive literature in terms of the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors used in this study shows that these skills become vital for leader success in organisations, especially organisations such as the SANDF, who deem leader success essential for organisational success. The literature on challenges faced by armed forces and the SANDF, leader success for armed forces and the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors discussed for leader success resulted in the following proposition: a significant positive relationship is expected between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success.

2.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

Various factors have been identified as challenges that face the contemporary soldier in militaries internationally and nationally for the SANDF. Theoretically reviewing the literature shows that a new kind of soldier with new types of skills is necessary for this environment.

The SANDF needs to place more emphasis on reviewing their selection processes and needs to redefine the profile of a junior leader to be in line with the modern military environment. Intrapersonal and interpersonal values were defined as criteria for leader success in the SANDF. These values included EI, PsyCap and SOC as vital predictors of leader success. The literature study was dedicated to theoretically substantiating the relationship between leader success and intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors, namely EI, PsyCap and SOC. A proposition was formulated from the literature to explain the possible significant relationships between the variables.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature review in Chapter 2 will be the theoretical foundation and framework for the hypotheses delineated in this chapter. A discussion on the explanation of the research design, sampling design, measuring instruments and statistical analysis will be provided.

The introduction on the discussion of the hypotheses, research design, sampling design, measuring instruments and statistical analysis necessitates an understanding on why research is done. Research is a scientific method used to make sense of the world and to provide answers to formulated questions (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). Most research is intended to examine the relationship between variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011). The research design described by Babbie and Mouton (1998) is the plan or structured framework of how the researcher intends conducting the research process in order to solve the research question. The research design can be classified as either empirical or non-empirical studies. Research methodology is "the methods, techniques, and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing the research design or research plan, as well as the underlying principles and assumptions that underlie their use" (Babbie & Mouton, 1998, p. 647). Research can be qualitative, quantitative or a combination of both (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011).

This study is a quantitative research design as an emphasis is placed on the quantification of certain constructs and the researcher has measured these constructs. Quantitative research is used when the relationship between variables is measured. Quantitative research involves taking a systematic approach to the study of social issues (Calloway, 2010). Quantitative research focuses on the analysis of more variables and makes provision for the use of statistical analysis to determine the significance of results (Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). Through quantitative research the researcher does not affect or influence the results.

Respondents' answers on inventories are coded, categorised and manipulated for statistical analysis. As the subject of the study is relatively new the researcher has embarked on an exploratory type of study (Babbie & Mouton, 1998). Exploration as the type of study serves to gain empirical evidence to prove a possible existence of the relationship (causality) between variables. The lack of empirical evidence to prove the existence of a relationship between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success in the SANDF serves as another venturing point for using exploratory research.

3.2   HYPOTHESES

The defence environment and its contemporary challenges (see par 2.2) discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2 accentuate the need for a deeper rooted intrapersonal and interpersonal skill set (see par 2.5) for future officers in militia. The need to determine the relationship between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success is a relevant research challenge for the SANDF. Theorising the challenges the SANDF faces (see par 2.3) now and in future, the study aimed to present a theoretical proposition that will serve to conceptualise EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success. The study aimed to establish a theoretical relationship and an empirical relationship between the variables. The necessity to provide answers to the research problem (see par 1.2) and in order to satisfy the research objectives (see par 1.3), the following proposed hypotheses were formulated (see Figure 1.1):

H1:   There is a significant and positive relationship between total EI and leader success.

H2:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-awareness and leader success.

H3:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional expression and leader success.

H4:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional awareness of others and leader success.

H5:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional reasoning and leader success.

H6:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-management and leader success.

H7:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional management of others and leader success.

H8:   There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-control and leader success.

H9:   There is a significant and positive relationship between total PsyCap and leader success.

H10:   There is a significant and positive relationship between self-efficacy and leader success.

H11:   There is a significant and positive relationship between optimism and leader success.

H12:   There is a significant and positive relationship between hope and leader success.

H13:   There is a significant and positive relationship between resilience and leader success.

H14:   There is a significant and positive relationship between total SOC and leader success.

H15:   There is a significant and positive relationship between comprehensibility and leader success.

H16:   There is a significant and positive relationship between manageability and leader success.

H17:   There is a significant and positive relationship between meaningfulness and leader success.

3.3   RESEARCH DESIGN

A non-experimental research design was used to explore the relationships between the variables. Non-experimental research entails observation of relationships between variables without controlling or manipulating them in any way (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). The researcher aimed to determine how two or more variables are related to each other. The study was exploratory with the aim to indicate a relationship between the various variables. The lack of control over the research variables in this study permitted the research to adopt ex-post-facto correlation design study. Ex-post-facto designs investigate the relationships between independent and dependent variables in situations where variables are not controlled or manipulated. The dependent variable is the factor that the researcher observes and measures to determine how it is affected by the independent variable (Field, 2009; Welman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005). The dependent variable of this study is leader success. According to Welman et al. (2005), the independent variable is the factor the researcher selects to determine the effect it has on the observed phenomenon. This variable is considered to be independent because the researcher is concerned with how it affects the other variable being studied. The independent variable can also be called the predictor variable as it is the variable thought to predict an outcome variable (dependent variable) (Field, 2009). The researcher is trying to seek a cause and a resultant effect relationship between the variables if present. The independent variable of this study is the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors discussed (see par 2.5) which include EI, PsyCap and SOC.

3.4   SAMPLING DESIGN

According to Babbie and Mouton (1998) and Field (2009), the population is the group being studied. It is the group from which conclusions will be drawn. The population can be described as a collection of research subjects who share the same characteristics that are of interest to the researcher. The population of this research study is SANDF soldiers.

The SANDF consists of the army, navy, air force and the SA medical health services. Only junior officers from the army service were used for this study. Data was collected from junior officers from the army service population from which the necessary conclusions were drawn. The sample serves as a small subset of the population and data of the sample was used to infer things about the population as a whole (Field, 2009). Consequently, the sample is junior officers.

The unit from which the sample was drawn is SAMA. SAMA is an educational unit that offers tertiary education for officers from the different divisions of the SANDF such as the army, navy, air force and the SA medical health services. SAMA forms part of Stellenbosch University and its off campus offices are situated in Saldanha in the Western Cape. SAMA provides officers with specialised education in different areas of study (see par 2.2.4.5 and 2.3.7) on certificate, bachelors degree (BMIL) and on post-graduate level for members of the SANDF.

Before embarking on this research study, ethical clearance was obtained from Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee. As the study was being conducted in the military (SANDF), permission to commence with the research was required from relevant authorities. The permission was obtained from all authorities necessary in the SANDF. Permission was obtained from Defence Intelligence by means of formal letters.

After permission had been granted for the study, participants were approached to explain the purpose of the research. Participants were also ensured about the confidentiality of the research. The research was kept confidential, strictly adhering to the ethical standards of research. All ethical requirements stipulated by the Stellenbosch University Ethics Committee and the Health Professions Council of SA (Chapter 10) were strictly adhered to. Participation was voluntary, and any withdrawal at any stage of the study was accepted. Freedom of participation required subjects to complete a consent form that explicitly stated that they could withdraw anytime they felt uncomfortable to carry on.

A sample of 170 was drawn from SAMA (n=170) using the convenient sampling method. Convenient sampling is a non-probability sampling technique where subjects are selected because of their convenient accessibility and proximity to the researcher (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012; Babbie & Mouton, 1998). Convenient sampling is the most common sampling method used in behavioural sciences research.

The advantages of the convenient sampling method include the availability and willingness to respond to questionnaires of the sample. Convenient sampling method is an easier, less expensive and a timelier technique (Gravetter & Forzano, 2012). The sample consists of junior officers from the army service of the SANDF. The junior officers included both male and females from the rank of Candidate officer (CO) to the rank of full Lieutenant (Lt) across race and age.

Participants were gathered in lecturing rooms where the purpose of the research was explained and written consent was obtained by using consent forms. After consenting to partake in the study, questionnaires were distributed for completion which took a maximum of 60 minutes. A total of 170 questionnaires were administered and 170 were completed. The response rate for the sample was 100 percent due to the fact that questionnaires were administered in a classroom type setting where all participants completed the questionnaire and consented to partake in the study.

3.5   MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The research set of questionnaires consisted of two sections. The first section focused on biographical information where participants were asked to provide information that relates to their age, gender, racial group, marital status, highest educational qualification, mustering, rank, years in service and years in rank. The next section consisted of the different scales used to measure the various variables.

EI was measured by using the Genos EI self-assessment inventory (Gignac, 2008). PsyCap was measured by using the PCQ-24 self rater inventory (Luthans et al., 2007a; Luthans et al., 2007b). SOC was measured using the OLQ-13 (short form) inventory (Antonovsky, 1987). Leader success was measured using the MLQ leader form (5x-Short) (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Only the items relevant for leader success were used for the study. Items referring to extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were used (see par 3.5.4) (Boonzaier, 2008).

3.5.1   Genos EI self-assessment inventory

The Genos EI inventory was used to measure EI (see par 2.5.1). The questionnaire measures the frequency with which a subject may exhibit emotionally intelligent behaviours.

The Genos EI inventory consists of 70 items designed to measure this frequency across seven dimensions. The items are scored on a five-point Likert scale, from "almost never" to "almost always". The inventory is considered to be applicable to adults (18+) in the workplace. The Genos EI inventory shows respectable levels of internal consistency reliability. At total scale level the reliability estimates exceed α= .90 while at subscale level estimates exceed α= .70 (Gignac, 2008). The internal consistency reliability of the Genos EI inventory has also been investigated with large workplace samples across a selection of nationalities. Gignac (Palmer, Stough, Harmer & Gignac, in press) reported mean subscale reliabilities (α) ranging from .71 to .85 across five nationalities (American, Australian, Asian, Indian and SA). The mean Genos EI total score internal consistency reliability (α) was estimated at .96. High Genos EI percentile scores indicate that the individual engages in emotionally intelligent behaviours on a relatively frequent basis. Low Genos EI scores indicate that the individual engages in emotionally intelligent behaviours relatively infrequently (Gignac, 2008).

The Genos EI inventory was specifically designed for the workplace as a learning and development tool for human resource professionals and occupational psychologists in identifying, selecting and developing employees (Palmer et al., in press). The seven subscales of the Genos EI include: (i) Emotional self-awareness (measures the relative frequency with which an individual consciously identifies their emotions at work); (ii) Emotional expression (measures the relative frequency with which an individual expresses their emotions in an appropriate way at work); (iii) Emotional awareness of others (measures the relative frequency with which an individual identifies the emotions expressed by others in the workplace); (iv) Emotional reasoning (measures the relative frequency with which an individual incorporates emotionally relevant information in the process of decision making or problem solving at work); (v) Emotional self-management (measures the relative frequency with which an individual manages their own emotions at work); (vi) Emotional Management of others (measures the relative frequency with which individuals manage the emotions of others at work), and (vii) Emotional self-control (measures the relative frequency with which an individual controls their strong emotions appropriately in the workplace) (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Genos EI brief subscale high score interpretations

Subscale	
Emotional self-awareness (esa)	High scores indicate frequent awareness of one's emotions at work, their causes, as well as the impact of emotions on one's thoughts, decisions and behaviour at work.
Emotional expression (ee)	High scores indicate a frequent demonstration of effective emotional expression at work, such as feelings of happiness, frustration, as well as feedback to colleagues.
Emotional awareness of others (eao)	High scores indicate a frequent and accurate identification of the emotions of others at work, as well as their causes.
Emotional reasoning (er)	High scores indicate a frequent consideration of one's own and others' emotions when making decisions at work, as well as expressing that such consideration has taken place.
Emotional self-management (esm)	High scores indicate a frequent engagement of activities that facilitate the positive development of emotions in oneself, as well as a relative absence of dwelling on negative emotions.
Emotional management of others (emo)	High scores indicate a frequent engagement in the creation of emotionally positive work environments for others, as well as effectively helping colleagues resolve issues that may be affecting their performance adversely.
Emotional self-control (esc)	High scores indicate a frequent demonstrated capacity to remain focused when anxious or disappointed at work, as well as the demonstrated ability to not loose one's temper.

(Gignac, 2008, p. 37)

3.5.2 Psychological capital (PsyCap) questionnaire (PCQ-24) self rater version

PsyCap (see par 2.5.2) was measured by the PCQ-24. The PCQ-24 has undergone extensive psychometric analyses and support from samples representing service, manufacturing, education, high-tech, military and cross cultural sectors. The questionnaire consists of four subscales, comprised of six items each with a total of 24 items. The subscales include hope, efficacy, resilience, and optimism. All items are measured using a 6-point Likert scale with response options ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Each of the four subscales was drawn from previously published scales that were already established scales. The subscales were tested and used in contemporary workplace studies (Avey et al., 2010). The hope items were adapted from Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, Borders, Babyak, and Higgens' (1996) State hope scale. The optimism subscale was adapted from Scheier and Carver's (1985) Measure of optimism. The self-efficacy subscale items were adapted from Parker's (1998) Measure of self-efficacy in the workplace. Resilience items were adapted from Wagnild and Young's (1993) Resilience scale.

Reliability estimates of the four scales of the PsyCap questionnaire range from $α=.72$ to $α=.87$. The total PsyCap coefficient alpha reliability estimated at $α=.91$, which shows strong internal reliability for the scale. The resulting score represents an individual's level of positive PsyCap (Luthans et al., 2007a; Luthans et al., 2007b).

3.5.3 Sense of coherence (SOC)/Orientation to life questionnaire (OLQ) (short form 13 items)

SOC (see par 2.5.3) was measured by using the OLQ questionnaire. Antonovsky (1987) described the OLQ questionnaire as a self-report instrument assessing people's tendencies to apply successful coping mechanisms to situations. The scale consists of 13 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "total disagreement" to "total agreement". The scale has three components, namely comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. The 13 items in the scale include four items for measuring meaningfulness, five items for measuring comprehensibility and four items for measuring manageability. A high score on each item indicates a high level of meaningfulness, comprehensibility and manageability.

Antonovsky (1993, p. 728) stated that the three components, namely meaningfulness, comprehensibility and manageability are "inextricably intertwined, although they can be distinguished theoretically". He further claimed that the subscale scores can be interpreted individually to determine the degree to which each of the separate components is present. It is likely that some respondents will be high on one component and low on another. The OLQ can be used cross culturally which made the questionnaire ideally suited for this study as the population of the study is culturally diverse (see par 2.3.3). "The OLQ best supports Antonovsky's established depiction and explanation of the sense of coherence concept, as the OLQ and sense of coherence concept developed in conjunction with one another" (Hobkirk, 2003, p. 67). Antonovsky found internal consistency and reliability ranges from $α=.86$ to $α=.95$. A high score represents a strong or high SOC.

3.5.4 Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) Leader form (5x-short)

Leader success (see par 2.4) was assessed using the MLQ Form 5X. The MLQ is a self-report questionnaire consisting of 45 items relating to the frequency with which the participant displays a range of leader behaviours. Items are rated on a five-point Likert scale ("not at all" to "frequently, if not always"). Five sub-scales assessed transformational leadership behaviour (idealised attributes, idealised behaviours, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration), while three assessed transactional leadership behaviour (contingent rewards, management by exception (active), and management by exception (passive)).

The MLQ also measures non-transactional leadership or laissez-faire behaviour as well as three outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction). Reliabilities for the total items and for each subscale range from $\alpha=.74$ to $\alpha=.94$. The MLQ explains and reveals the key factors that are necessary for truly exceptional leaders and differentiates effective and ineffective leaders at all organisational levels (Muenjohn & Armstrong, 2008).

Leader success, for this study, was measured by the three outcomes of leadership scales: "extra effort", "effectiveness" and "satisfaction". Extra effort refers to the leader's perceived thinking that he can get others to do more than is expected from them and whether he is able to heighten others' desire to succeed and willingness to try harder. Effectiveness relates to the leader's perceived thinking that he can meet others' job-related needs, that he can effectively represent others to higher authority, that he is effective in meeting organisational requirements, and that he is leading a group that is effective. Effectiveness deals with the question of whether the leader is successful in reaching personal and organisational goals. Satisfaction relates to the leader's perceived thinking that he is using leadership methods that are satisfying and that he is working with others in a satisfactory way. There are nine additional statements in the MLQ for measuring these leadership outcomes. Three statements are for measuring extra effort level, four statements for measuring effectiveness level and two statements for measuring satisfaction level (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Reliabilities for each subscale range from $\alpha=.74$ to $\alpha=.94$.

3.6   STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Summary statistics were reported using frequency tables (and percentages), means, minimums, maximums and standard deviations. Reliability analyses were conducted using Cronbach's alpha. For univariate comparison of variables, Pearson correlations were calculated. A multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate combined effects of predictor variables on the dependent variable. All analyses were done using STATISTICA 10. A five percent significance level ($p<0.05$) was used as guideline for significant relationships.

3.7   SUMMARY

This chapter presented a detailed discussion on the proposed theoretical hypotheses, the research methodology that was used, and an overview of the research design, and the sample and measuring instruments that were used. An overview of the statistical analysis was provided in this chapter. The next chapter will report the statistical analysis results for the study.

CHAPTER 4
RESULTS

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The study has dealt with the theoretical relationship (Chapter 2) and assessed the empirical relationship between the variables. The necessity to provide answers to the research problem (see par 1.2) and to satisfy the research objectives (see par 1.3) resulted in hypotheses that were formulated (see par 3.2). The results of the various statistical analyses are presented in this chapter. The results of the study are presented by reporting the descriptive statistics for the sample, followed by the internal reliability analysis of the different scales. Inferential statistics for the study include correlations of the different hypothesised relationships by using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, followed by multiple regression analysis to obtain a significant model (see Figure 4.4). All analyses were done using STATISTICA 10.

4.2   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SAMPLE

According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2011, p. 6), descriptive statistics "are statistical procedures used to summarize, organize and simplify data". Babbie and Mouton (1998) stated that the descriptive statistics of a study include statistical computations describing the characteristics of the sample. Participants in this study included 170 junior officers from the SA army service of the SANDF. The sample comprised of 103 (61%) males and 67 (39%) females. Participants were aged between 19 years and 33 years with a mean of 23.2, a median of 23, a standard deviation (measuring variability of scores from the mean) (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011) of 2.2, and a minimum and maximum of 19 and 33 respectively. The majority of the participants were African (71%), followed by White (19%), Coloured (9%) and Indian (1%). Most participants had a single marital status constituting 91 percent of the sample, followed by life-partner (5%) and married (4%). The educational qualifications of the majority of the participants were matriculation qualification (89%) followed by participants with a diploma (11%). Participants' ranks included only the rankings of junior officers which included Candidate officer (66%), second Lieutenant (15%) and Lieutenant (19%).

The corps and mustering of the participants included fields in technical, mechanical, protection, catering, personnel, military police, armour, infantry, intelligence, artillery, electronic warfare and logistics, air defence artillery, engineers, and signallers.

4.3   INTERNAL RELIABILITY ANALYSIS OF SCALES

Each of the four instruments (Genos EI, PCQ, OLQ, MLQ) (see par 3.5) were documented in the research literature to have acceptable internal consistency ratings to suggest a potential for a high level of confidence in the study's overall research validity. The instruments used in this study were selected specifically to measure the variables of interest which further supports a high level of validity of the research. Internal consistency reliability (Cronbach's alpha) is a measure of how highly correlated questions are on a particular subscale. Alpha measures whether the questions of a subscale test the same variable. A large alpha (>0.70) is considered acceptable for research purposes (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Pallant, 2007; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). However, Pallant (2007) noted that Cronbach alphas values are sensitive to the number of items in a scale (particularly for scales with fewer than ten items) and it is common to find lower Cronbach values such as .50.

Item analyses were performed on the different scales as a measure to test the reliability of the scales. Item analyses are internal consistency analyses which measure the extent to which the items in the scale measure the same construct (consistently reflecting the construct that it is measuring) (Field, 2009). The different scales were item analysed to identify items that lack contribution to the internal consistency of the scale and to eliminate these items if deletion yielded higher Cronbach alphas. The following results were found:

- Item 13 ('When I have a setback at work, I have trouble recovering from it, moving on') and item 16 ('I usually take stressful things at work in stride') in the resilience subscale of the PCQ were flagged as poor items. The possible reason for item 13 being poor could be that it was a negative item and needed to be reversed scored. The content of item 13 matches the resilience scale but statistically showed it was a poor item. Item 16 could have been poor due to the phrasing of the item not being clear to the participants.

- The statistical item analysis of item 16 showed that it was a poor item and deleting the item would artificially increase the reliability of the scale. There was a substantial increase in the Cronbach alpha of the subscale if these items were deleted. The alpha increased from .57 to .63 if the items were deleted; as a result items 13 and 16 were deleted from the resilience subscale to subsequently increase the subscale's internal consistency.

- Item 20 ('If something can go wrong for me work-wise, it will') on the optimism subscale of the PCQ was also flagged as a poor item. This item could have been poor due to it being a negative item and needed reverse scoring. Although the content of the item fits the optimism subscale, deleting the item artificially increased the Cronbach alpha. Deletion of item 20 resulted in the Cronbach alpha increasing from .54 to .61.

- Item 2 ('Has it happened in the past that you were surprised by the behaviour of people whom you thought you knew well?') on the comprehensibility subscale of the OLQ was flagged as a poor item. The possible reason for item 2 being flagged as a poor item could be due to the fact that it was a negative item and needed reverse scoring. Another possibility for item 2 being poor could be that the content of the item did not fit the subscale comprehensibility description. Comprehensibility refers to the extent to which the individual perceives confronting stimuli deriving from the internal and external environments, as making cognitive sense, as information that is ordered, consistent, structured and clear, rather than as noisy, chaotic, disordered, random, accidental and inexplicable (see par 2.5.3). It could be that the content of item 2 did not match this description of the comprehensibility subscale. It was decided to delete the item as it increased the Cronbach alpha for the subscale from .55 to .64.

- Item 5 ('Do you have the feeling that you're being treated unfairly?') on the manageability subscale of the OLQ was also flagged as a poor item and it was decided to delete the item as it increased the Cronbach alpha for the subscale from .39 to .50. The possible rationale of item 5 being a poor item could be due to the fact that the content and the phrasing of the item did not fit the manageability scale's description. Manageability refers to the extent to which the individual perceives that resources at his/her disposal are adequate to meet the demands posed by the bombarding stimuli, events are perceived as bearable and can be coped with and that challenges can be met (see par 2.5.3) and the content of item 5 could possibly not have matched this description of the manageability scale.

The internal reliability of the scales and subscales are presented in Table 4.1 and show the Cronbach alphas for all the scales. Table 4.1 is followed by a discussion on the reliability coefficients for the scales.

Table 4.1

Internal reliability of scales and subscales

Scale	Cronbach's alpha
Genos emotional intelligence (total)	.93
Emotional self-awareness	.68
Emotional expression	.65
Emotional awareness of others	.72
Emotional reasoning	.59
Emotional self-management	.63
Emotional management of others	.75
Emotional self-control	.63
Psychological capital questionnaire (total)	.80
Self-efficacy	.80
Hope	.82
Resilience	.63
Optimism	.61
Orientation to life questionnaire (total)	.69
Comprehensibility	.64
Manageability	.50
Meaningfulness	.53
Multifactor leadership questionnaire (total)	.87
Effectiveness	.70
Satisfaction	.60
Extra effort	.72

According to the results, the different subscales of the Genos EI (esa, ee, eao, er, esm, emo, esc) used to measure EI yielded significant reliability coefficients from .59 to .75, with a total scale reliability coefficient of .93. Although er (α=.59), esm (α=.63) and esc (α=.63) yielded lower alphas it was still decided to keep these scales for further statistical analyses. Cronbach alphas on the other scales yielded good reliability coefficients. Lower alphas such as the resiliency subscale with α=.63, optimism subscale with α=.61, manageability subscale with α=.50, meaningfulness subscale with α=.53 and the satisfaction subscale of the MLQ with α=.60 were all kept for subsequent statistical analyses.

These alphas were kept while bearing in mind what Pallant (2007) noted, namely that scales with fewer than ten items commonly have lower Cronbach values such as .50.

4.4   INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

Inferential statistics are defined by Gravetter and Wallnau (2011, p. 7) as "techniques that allow us to study samples and then make generalizations about the populations from which they were selected". Field (2009) stated that inferential statistics help confirm or reject hypotheses.

4.4.1   Correlations

This section focuses on the results of the study by reviewing the results of the correlations as hypothesised in par 3.2 and Figure 1.1. The relationships between the constructs were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient is defined by Field (2009, p. 791) as "a standardized measure of the strength of relationship between two variables". The correlation coefficient also indicates the direction (positive or negative) between variables (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Pallant, 2007; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 2008). Correlations of .80 to 1 are regarded as high correlations and are most preferred; .60 to .79 is moderately high and acceptable; .40 to .59 are regarded as moderate correlations and also acceptable; .20 to .39 are regarded as low correlations; and correlations below .20 are regarded as insignificant (Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Pallant, 2007). For the purpose of this study hypotheses with moderate correlations and higher were accepted and hypotheses with correlations below .40 (low correlations .20 to .39) were rejected.

Correlations between the independent variables, EI, PsyCap and SOC and the dependent variable, leader success, are discussed in the next section (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2

Correlations between the independent variables (EI, PsyCap, SOC) and the dependent variable (leader success)

Independent variables	Dependent variable (leader success)	Pearson r	Pearson p-value
EI(esa)	MLQ(total)	0.28	<0.01
EI(ee)	MLQ(total)	0.35	<0.01
EI(eao)	MLQ(total)	0.38	<0.01
EI(er)	MLQ(total)	0.41	<0.01
EI(esm)	MLQ(total)	0.32	<0.01
EI(emo)	MLQ(total)	0.47	<0.01
EI(esc)	MLQ(total)	0.27	<0.01
EI(total)	MLQ(total)	0.44	<0.01
PCQ(self-efficacy)	MLQ(total)	0.45	<0.01
PCQ(hope)	MLQ(total)	0.47	<0.01
PCQ(resilience)	MLQ(total)	0.33	<0.01
PCQ(optimism)	MLQ(total)	0.40	<0.01
PCQ(total)	MLQ(total)	0.52	<0.01
OLQ(ME)	MLQ(total)	0.26	<0.01
OLQ(MA)	MLQ(total)	0.09	0.25
OLQ(C)	MLQ(total)	0.25	<0.01
OLQ(total)	MLQ(total)	0.26	<0.01

Notes: EI – emotional intelligence; esa – emotional self-awareness; ee – emotional expression; eao – emotional awareness of others; er – emotional reasoning; esm – emotional self-management; emo – emotional management of others; esc – emotional self-control; PCQ – Psychological capital questionnaire; OLQ – Orientation to life questionnaire; ME – meaningfulness; MA – manageability; C – comprehensibility; MLQ – Multifactor leadership questionnaire.

- H1: There is a significant and positive relationship between total EI and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but six responses were removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 164 responses were analysed for total EI and leader success. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderate significant positive correlation between total EI and leader success (r=0.44; p<0.01). H1 was accepted.
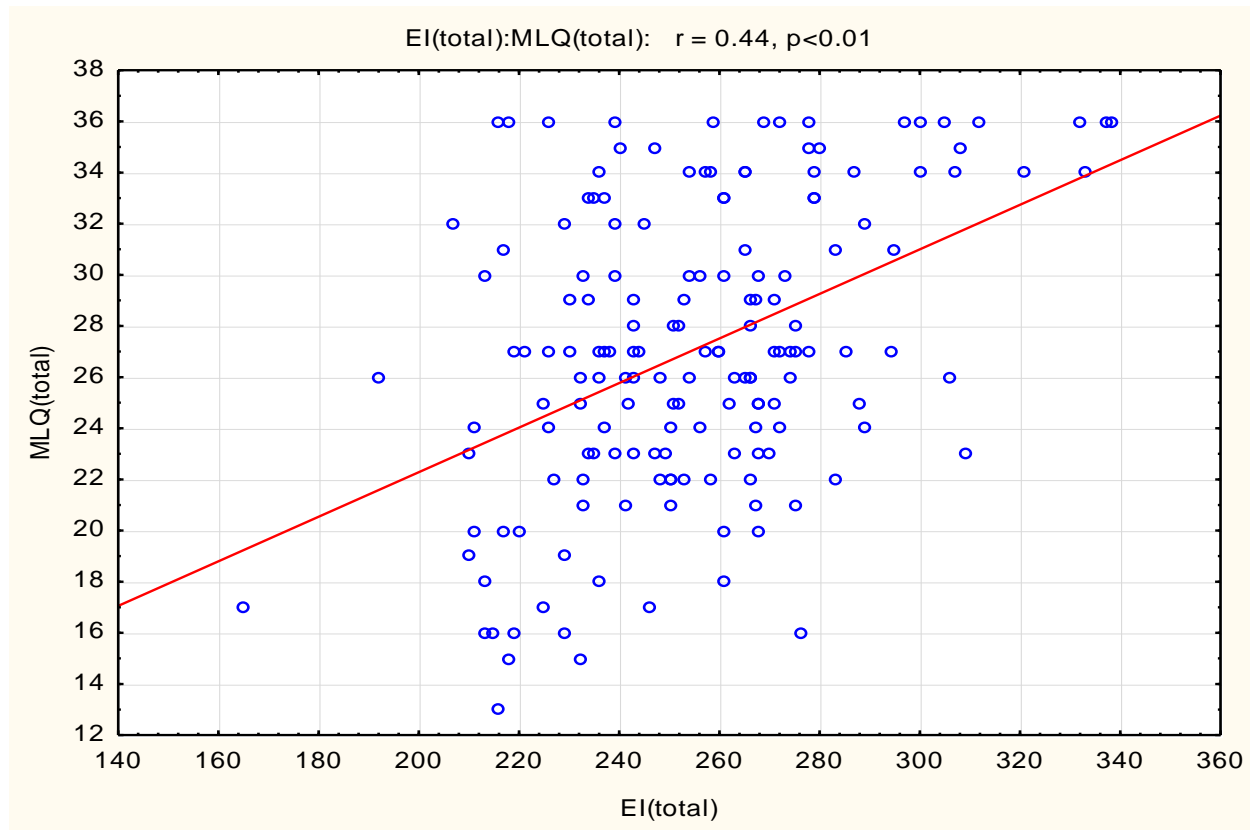
Figure 4.1. The relationship between total EI and leader success

- H2: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-awareness and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but one response was removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 169 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between emotional self-awareness and leader success ($r=0.28$; $p<0.01$). H2 was rejected.

- H3: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional expression and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but one response was removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 169 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between emotional expression and leader success ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$). H3 was rejected.

- H4: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional awareness of others and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but one response was removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 169 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between emotional awareness of others and leader success ($r=0.38$; $p<0.01$). H4 was rejected.

- H5: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional reasoning and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but one response was removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 169 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderate significant positive correlation between emotional reasoning and leader success ($r=0.41$; $p<0.01$). H5 was accepted.

- H6: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-management and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but three responses were removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 167 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between emotional self-management and leader success ($r=0.32$; $p<0.01$). H6 was rejected.

- H7: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional management of others and leader success.
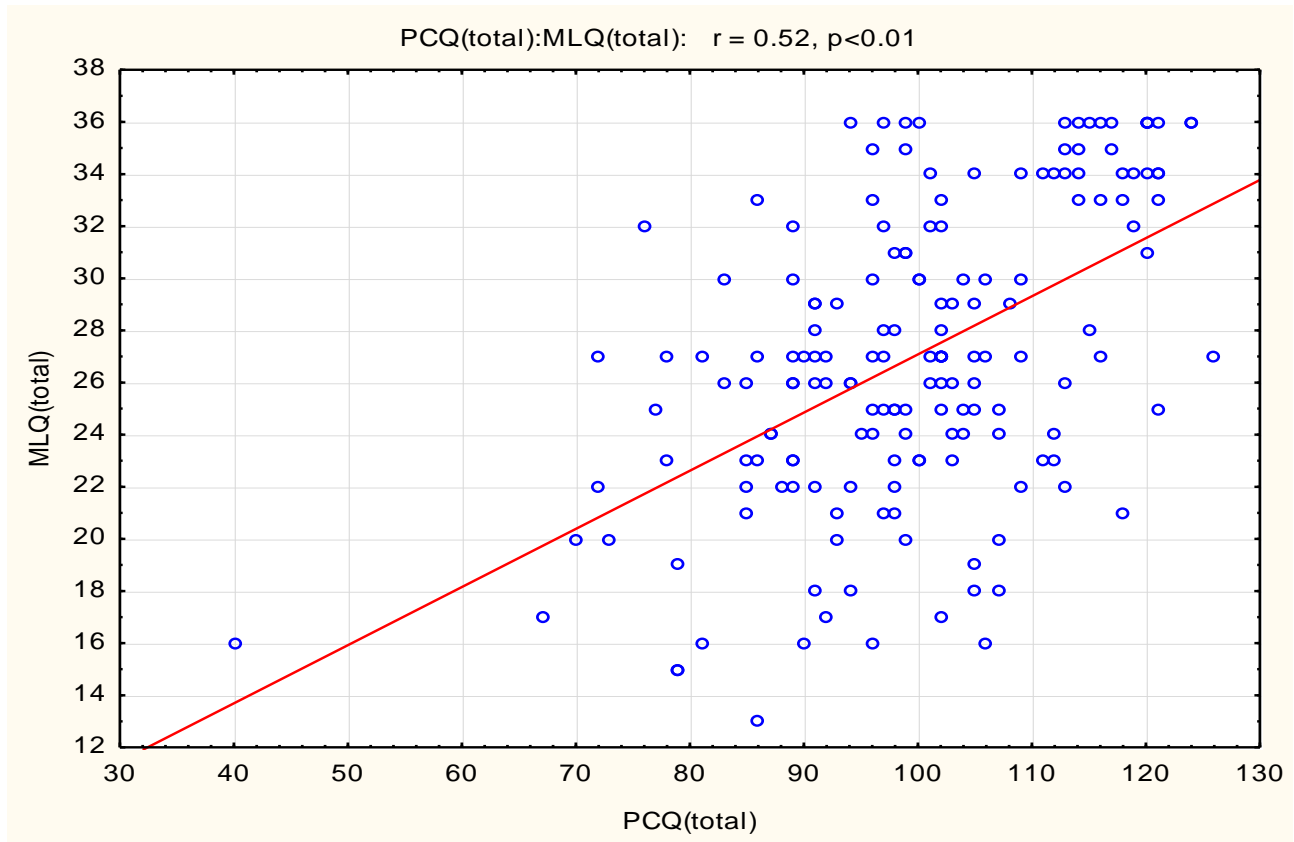
The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderate significant positive correlation between emotional management of others and leader success ($r=0.47$; $p<0.01$). H7 was accepted.

- H8: There is a significant and positive relationship between emotional self-control and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170, but two responses were removed as a result of incomplete data. Accordingly, 168 responses were analysed for this hypothesis. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between emotional self-control and leader success ($r=0.27$; $p<0.01$). H8 was rejected.

- H9: There is a significant and positive relationship between total PsyCap and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderated significant positive correlation between total PsyCap and leader success (r=0.52; p<0.01). H9 was accepted.

Figure 4.2. **The relationship between total PsyCap and leader success**

- H10: There is a significant and positive relationship between self-efficacy and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderated significant positive correlation between self-efficacy and leader success (r=0.45; p<0.01). H10 was accepted.

- H11: There is a significant and positive relationship between optimism and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderated significant positive correlation between optimism and leader success (r=0.40; p<0.01). H11 was accepted.

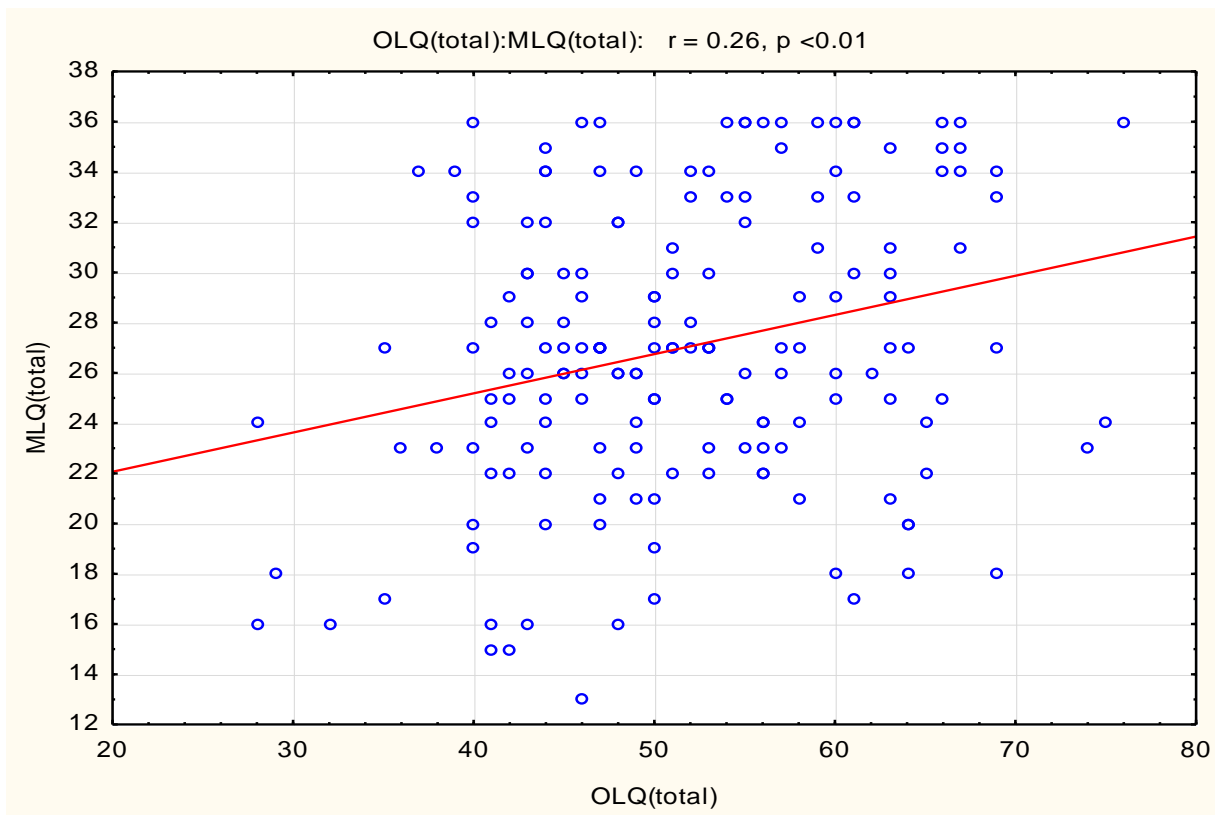- H12: There is a significant and positive relationship between hope and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a moderated significant positive correlation between hope and leader success (r=0.47; p<0.01). H12 was accepted.

- H13: There is a significant and positive relationship between resilience and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between resilience and leader success (r=0.33; p<0.01). H13 was rejected.

- H14: There is a significant and positive relationship between total SOC and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between total SOC and leader success (r=0.26; p<0.01). H14 was rejected.

Figure 4.3. **The relationship between total SOC and leader success**

- H15: There is a significant and positive relationship between comprehensibility and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between comprehensibility and leader success (r=0.25; p<0.01). H15 was rejected.

- H16: There is a significant and positive relationship between manageability and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show an insignificant correlation between manageability and leader success (r=0.25; p=0.25). H16 was rejected.

- H17: There is a significant and positive relationship between meaningfulness and leader success.

The returned responses totalled 170. The results of Table 4.2 show a low significant positive correlation between meaningfulness and leader success (r=0.26; p=0.25). H17 was rejected.

4.4.2   Multiple regression analysis

The general purpose of multiple regression analysis is to obtain more information about the relationship between several independent (predictor) variables and a dependent (criterion) variable. This statistical technique allows for the prediction of the score of the dependent variable on the basis of scores on several independent variables and it identifies the best set of predictor variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011; Pallant, 2007). Pallant (2007) also stated that multiple regression can show how well a set of variables is able to predict a particular outcome. For the purpose of this study, the independent variables (EI, PsyCap and SOC) were observed to evaluate their contribution in explaining leader success (the criterion).

Summary statistics (see Table 4.3) for the whole regression model (Figure 4.4) was provided followed by the regression summary for the independent variables (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.3

Summary statistics for the dependent variable

Summary statistics	
Statistic	**Value**
Multiple R	0.55
Multiple R^2	0.30
Adjusted R^2	0.29
F (3, 160)	22.66
p	<0.01
Std. Err. of Estimate	4.86

The summary statistics in Table 4.3 revealed that the multiple coefficient of determination (R^2) of the variation in the dependent variable (leader success) accounted for by the independent variables (EI, PsyCap and SOC) is 0.30 meaning that approximately 30 percent of the variability of leader success is accounted for by all combined predictor variables in the model (see Figure 4.4).

Resultantly, 30 percent of the variance in leader success can be accounted for by EI, PsyCap and SOC. R^2 is used as a measure of goodness of fit of the linear regression and indicates how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the model (which includes the variables of EI, PsyCap and SOC) (Field 2009; Pallant, 2007). The adjusted multiple coefficient of determination (Adjusted R^2) of 0.29 gives an indication that about 29 percent of the variability of leader success is accounted for by the model (see Figure 4.4) after taking into account the number of predictors in the model. The p-value which explains the confidence of each variable in relation to the dependent variable for the whole regression was statistically significant (p<.001), resulting in the significance of the overall model (see Figure 4.4).

Evaluating each of the independent variables (EI, PsyCap and SOC) indicated which of the variables included in the model (see Figure 4.4) contributed to the prediction of the dependent variable (leader success). When comparing the contribution of each independent variable beta values were used (see Table 4.4). Beta (standardised regression coefficients) is a measure of how strongly each predictor variable (independent variable) influences the criterion variable (dependent variable). The higher the beta value, the greater the impact of the predictor variable on the criterion variable.

Table 4.4

Standardised coefficients

N=164	Standardised coefficients			
	Beta (β)	Std Err. Of Beta (β)	t	p-value (sig.)
EI (total)	0.21	0.09	2.46	0.01*
PCQ (total)	0.41	0.08	4.84	0.00**
OLQ (total)	-0.02	0.08	-0.31	0.75

Notes: *   Indicates that correlations is significant at 0.05 level (p<0.05)
           **   Indicates that correlations is significant at 0.01 level (p<0.01)

The smaller the value of p and the larger the value of t of a predictor, the greater the contribution of that predictor to the prediction of the dependent variable. If the p-value (sig.) is less than .05 (.01, .0001, etc.), the variable is making a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable. If greater than .05, the variable is not making a significant unique contribution to the prediction of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2007). The standardised coefficients (see Table 4.4) indicated that PsyCap's (PCQ) beta value is the largest with a p-value of almost near zero. This means that this variable makes the strongest contribution to explaining the dependent variable (leader success), when the variance explained by all the other variables in the model is controlled for. The beta value for EI was lower (0.21), indicating that it made less of, but still a significant contribution with a p-value of less than .05.

SOC (OLQ) with beta value of -0.02 and a p-value of 0.75 (p>0.05) showed a very low value and was regarded as insignificant. This means that SOC did not make a contribution to explaining leader success.

For this model (see Figure 4.4), EI (β=0.21, t=2.46, p<0.01) and PsyCap (β=0.41, t=4.84, p<0.01) are significant predictors of leader success. This indicates that EI and PsyCap have a comparable degree of importance in the model (see Figure 4.4). SOC (β=-0.02, t=-0.31, p=0.75) showed no significance in predicting leader success.

This is also aligned with the correlation results for total SOC and subscales, where significant but very low correlations were found (see Table 4.2).
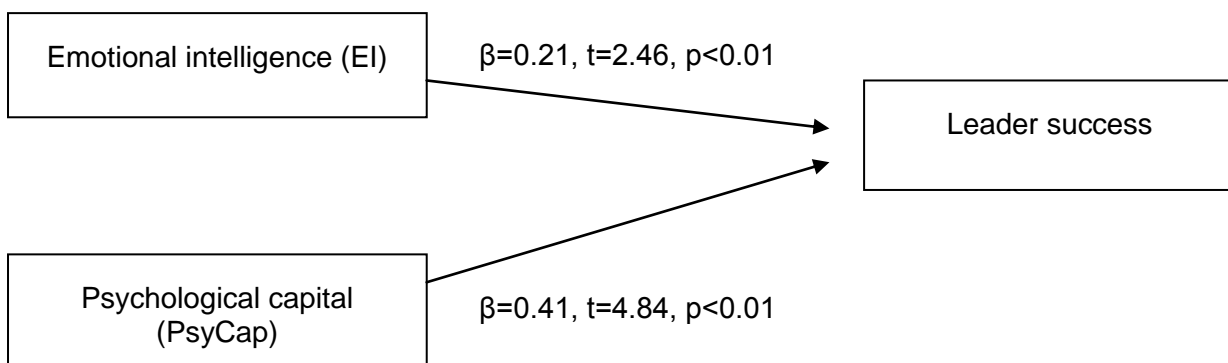
Figure 4.4. **Predictors of leader success**

4.4.2.1 Mulitcollinearity

Inferences drawn from the conclusions based on the regression analysis done on the sample require certain assumptions to be true. One of these assumptions according to Field (2009) is that there must be no perfect multicollinearity. This means that "there should be no perfect linear relationship between two or more of the predictors" (Field, 2009, p. 220). The predictor variables should not correlate too highly with each other. When the independent variables correlate high with each other it means that they are explaining the same part of the variation in the dependent variable. Multicollinearity of the independent variables is explained in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Redundancy of independent variables

Variables	Redundancy of independent variables			
	Tolerance	R-square	Partial Cor.	Semi partial Cor.
EI (total)	0.60	0.40	0.19	0.16
PCQ (total)	0.62	0.38	0.36	0.32
OLQ (total)	0.74	0.26	-0.02	-0.02

Exploring whether the model (see Figure 4.4) and the results in Table 4.3 and Table 4.4 are relevant, the correlation between independent variables is an important consideration. The tolerance level of the different independent variables was examined. Tolerance is an indicator of how much of the variability of the specific independent variable is not explained by the other independent variables in the model (Pallant, 2007). Menard (as cited in Field, 2009) stated that tolerance values below 0.1 indicate serious problems and values above 0.2 are significant. Looking at values above 0.2 tolerance value, all independent variables exceeded 0.2 by far (see Table 4.5). This means that all the independent variables explain various aspects of leader success. Values ranging from 0.60 to 0.74 indicate that there is no multicollinearity problem, dismissing the condition of multicollinearity from the model (see Figure 4.4).

4.4.2.2 Normality

Another assumption that needs to be tested is normality. The normal probability plot (P-P) is a graphical technique for normality testing; assessing whether or not a data set is approximately normally distributed (Field, 2009). If the points on the normal P-P plot lie in a reasonably straight diagonal line it suggests that there are no major deviations from normality (Pallant, 2007).
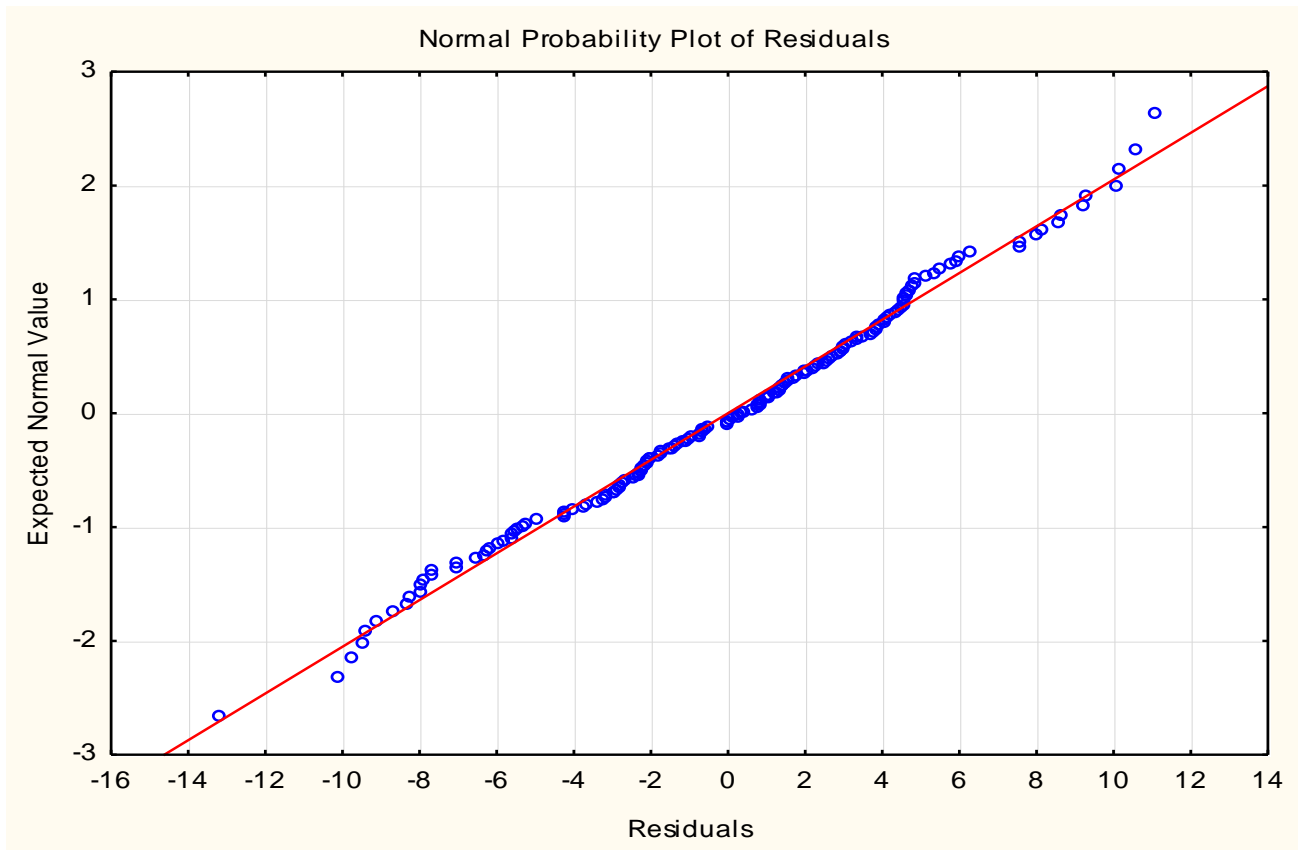
Figure 4.5. **Normal probability plot (P-P)**

Data in Figure 4.5 shows that there is no major deviation from normality as can be seen by the straight diagonal line. This indicates a normal distribution.

4.5   SUMMARY

The purpose of the chapter was to report the different statistical analyses that were performed on the data obtained from the sample in this study. The descriptive statistics were reported for the sample to show the demographics of the sample. The statistical analysis included item analysis of the different scales to determine whether they incorporate internal validity. Correlations done through the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient revealed the significant relationships of the different variables. Significant moderate correlations were found between EI(er) ($r=0.41$, $p<0.01$); EI(emo) ($r=0.47$, $p<0.01$); EI(total) ($r=0.44$, $p<0.01$) and leader success.

Significant lower correlations were found between EI(esa) ($r=0.28$, $p<0.01$); EI(ee) ($r=0.35$, $p<0.01$); EI(eao) ($r=0.38$, $p<0.01$); EI(esm) ($r=0.32$, $p<0.01$) and EI(esc) ($r=0.27$, $p<0.01$). Significant moderate correlations were found between PCQ(self-efficacy) ($r=0.45$, $p<0.01$); PCQ(hope) ($r=0.47$, $p<0.01$); PCQ(optimism) ($r=0.40$, $p<0.01$); PCQ(total) ($r=0.52$, $p<0.01$) and leader success.

A significant but lower correlation was found for PsyCap(resilience) (r=0.33, p<0.01). Very low but significant correlations were found for total SOC (r=0.26, p<0.01) which included SOC(ME) (r=0.26, p<0.01) and SOC(C) (r=0.25, p<0.01). SOC(MA) with r=0.25 and p=0.25 indicated an insignificant correlation (p>0.05). Resultantly the following hypotheses were accepted: H1, H5, H7, H9, H10, H11, and H12.

Multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate combined effects of predictor variables on the dependent variable. Multiple regression analysis showed that 30 percent of leader success could be accounted for by EI, PsyCap and SOC. The standardised coefficients of the independent variables showed that PsyCap with a beta value of .40 was the strongest predictor variable for leader success followed by EI with a beta value of .21. SOC with a beta value of -0.02 did not make any contribution in explaining leader success. PsyCap and EI, resultantly, were used in the model of leader success (see Figure 4.4). Tolerance levels of all predictors were > 0.3, indicating no multicolinearity. The data also showed to be normally distributed.

The statistical analysis showed that the intrapersonal predictors which prove to have a relationship with leader success include emotional reasoning, total EI, total PsyCap, in particular, self-efficacy, optimism and hope (see Figure 2.4 and Figure 4.1). The interpersonal predictors which statistically showed to have a relationship with leader success again include emotional reasoning and emotional management of others (see Figure 2.4).

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to discuss the research results of Chapter 4. The chapter will proceed with a discussion on the correlations results between the intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors of leader success (see par 4.4.1). Further discussions on the multiple regression analysis (see par 4.4.2) between the predictors (EI, PsyCap and SOC) and the dependent variable (leader success) will conclude.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF CORRELATIONS RESULTS

The study aimed at showing potential significant relationships between intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and leader success. In an attempt to potentially show possible relationships, hypotheses were formulated (see par 3.2). Although not all hypothesised relationships were accepted the study brought some insight into understanding that possible intrapersonal and interpersonal skills are needed and play a role in leader success.

In the early work of Clausewitz, he proclaimed warfare's prospectivity for change. He stated that the elements of war included danger, exertion, uncertainty, change, fear and confusion (Cochrane, 2008; Gray, 2006; Strachan, 2007) which necessitate a certain skill set for a soldier. Gray (2004) stated that war is highly variable and exhibits the characteristics of the people who wage it. He stated that militaries are in an era of "new wars" and must undertake the responsibility of retooling and transforming to adjust to contemporary wars.

Conflicts in Iraq and Israel in 2006 (Shamir & Ben-Ari, 2008), and internal stability problems in Egypt and Libya (Wahba, 2011) include examples of new warfare for the future. Future warfare will focus more on attacking the minds of enemy decision makers to obliterate the enemy's political will. This will require of future leaders to possess critical social and interpersonal skills needed to interact with a wide range of personalities and motives of the enemy's decision makers. Leaders should have the skill to foster agreement and to bargain in order to shape or manipulate their environment (Hammes, 2004). Interpersonal skills will provide future warriors with the ability to deal with diverse people and cultures, tolerate ambiguity, and take initiative in their responsibilities (Micewski, 2005) (see par 2.2).

Kotter (1982) showed in his studies on leader success that emotional stability (an aspect of EI), optimism (an aspect of PsyCap) and the ability to relate interpersonally were vital for any leader. Gardner (1999) also showed interpersonal skills to be important for leader success. Cattel (as cited in Business Wealth, 2012) also found emotional stability as a vital component for leader success (see par 2.5).

5.2.1   Emotional intelligence and leader success

H1, stating that there is a significant positive relationship between total EI and leader success, was accepted. The results showed a moderate significant positive correlation (r=0.44, p<0.01) (see Table 4.2) and is acceptable to the standards stipulated by Field (2009), Gravetter and Wallnau (2011) and Pallant (2007). These findings are in line with results of previous research studies that showed that EI skills play an important role in military leaders (Goleman et al., 2002). Gardner and Stough (2002) found significant correlations between extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (leader success) and EI (see par 2.5.4). Cheah and Ken (2012) found a positive significant relationship between EI and leader success which supports the hypotheses with significantly moderate correlations (H1, H5 and H7) (see Table 4.2).

These findings hold potential benefits for leader success and ultimately the SANDF. The nature of warfare for the contemporary military was explained in Chapter 2 (see par 2.2 and 2.3). Junior officers with moderately high EI can possibly perform better as leaders as they will know how to operate in unpredictable and complex environments. They will be able to win the hearts and minds of their counterparts. This will also enable them to diminish and ease ambiguity in life-threatening and high risk situations, such as peacekeeping missions (Mijatović, 2010). They will be able to provide unity, regulate order, structure and give meaning to uncertain events (see par 1.1) which are all skills the SANDF regards as necessary for an officer (South African army assessment centre, 2012). Officers with these qualities will inspire and motivate others, promote a positive work environment, perceive and understand the emotions of others and will foster a climate in the SANDF that turns challenging opportunities into successes (South African army assessment centre, 2012).

The greatest contributors to total EI were the moderate significant positive relationships of H5 (emotional reasoning) (r=0.41; p<0.01) and H7 (emotional management of others) (r=0.47; p<0.01) (see Table 4.2). It is important to note that these components were both regarded as interpersonal EI skills (see Figure 2.4). Higher correlations in the interpersonal EI skills of the sample could possibly be attributed to the sample being exposed to different interpersonal relationships at SAMA. They frequently participate in group exercises in classes where team work is essential.

Another possible reason for higher correlations in these two fields could be that the SANDF Corporate Communications (2008) places high value on teamwork.

Teamwork, according to this model (see par 2.4.1), is considered as one of the values of extraordinary leadership for the SANDF. It is possible that during junior officers' training and the junior officer formative course (this training is done before they reach SAMA) (see par 2.4.2) more emphasis is placed on teamwork, resulting in better developed interpersonal skills. Teamwork, according to the SANDF (see par 2.4.1.), is important for any military leader in order to work as part of a team to achieve organisational goals (South African army, 2000; Basic Full Range Leadership (BFRL) Manual, n.d.; SANDF Corporate Communications, 2008).

Emotional reasoning (H5) which is an intra- and interpersonal EI skill will empower the junior officer to use emotional information in reasoning and decision making. This will lead to good quality decisions which will result in successful relationships (Rosenberg, 2011a). Current military environments force leaders to make rapid decisions and leaders need EI to be optimally prepared to successfully perform in these environments (Micewski, 2005). Emotional reasoning will empower the junior officer with emotional knowledge needed to maintain composure and function successfully. This emotional knowledge will enable the junior officer to overcome hopelessness, pain and fear and provide him with the ability to mentally regroup to complete missions. Emotional reasoning will lead to self-control and emotional self-regulation (Rosenberg, 2011a), which will facilitate leader success.

Emotional management of others (H7), as an interpersonal EI skill will empower the junior officer to withstand the mental aspects of situations and help to regulate his emotions when faced with intricate interpersonal relationships. It will provide him with the ability to control his actions and to shift his emotional states in situations such as peacekeeping operations (Rosenberg, 2011a). Psychological fitness in terms of emotional management of others will empower the junior officer with the EI abilities to feel emotionally composed about himself, others and his environment (Bates et al., 2010). Recent research on peacekeeping soldiers in Iraq and Afghanistan showed the importance of interpersonal characteristics needed by the soldier to successfully perform his role as a peacekeeping soldier during interpersonal interactions (Halpin, 2011). Emotional management of others will empower the junior officer to successfully manage those he is affiliated with during training and in operations. This will enhance his ability to effectively lead his group resulting in a possible increase in his leader success. Training in "old wars" focussed on the depersonalisation of the soldier to kill, training in "new wars" teaches soldiers to become "friends" with the enemy, such as building relations with local governments, armies and civilian populations, when on peacekeeping missions (Kaldor, 2007; 2010). Emotional management of others will empower the junior officer to successfully lead positive relations during "new wars".

The moderate correlations of H1, H5 and H7 (see Table 4.2) are advantageous for the SANDF as the Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers states that junior officers will primarily be involved in unit activities and operations which require strong teamwork (see par 2.4.2). Higher correlations on the interpersonal EI skills might also be because of the leader exercise that these junior officers undergo when chosen to be junior leaders. They undergo a leader exercise or also called a behaviour exercise where they are taken out into the field. This exercise is important to test their leadership and behavioural skills as they are in the actual artificial environment in terms of warfare. This exercise is done in groups of seven to ten people, where their interaction with the group and interpersonal skills are vital (S. Singh, personal communication, 29 May 2012) (see par 2.4.2).

Low Genos EI scores indicate that the individual engages in emotionally intelligent behaviours relatively infrequently (Gignac, 2008). Although these correlations were low they were still statistically significant (p<0.01). These low correlations could possibly indicate other factors that play a role in diluting the correlations.

It is necessary to mention, referring back to Figure 2.4 showing the different intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors, that the EI components that were identified as intrapersonal all had low correlations. Low significant positive correlations were found for H2 (emotional self-awareness) (r=0.28 p<0.01), H3 (emotional expression) (r=0.35, p<0.01), H4 (emotional awareness of others) (r=0.38, p<0.01), H6 (emotional self management) (r=0.32, p<0.01), H8 (emotional self-control) (r=0.27, p<0.01) and leader success. This resulted in H2, H3, H4, H6, and H8 to be rejected. These results differ from previous research that showed EI (especially intrapersonal EI skills) is essential for leader success. Calloway (2010) proved that the underlying core of leader success centres around the influences of EI. Numerous research studies proved that EI plays an important role in military leader success (Calloway, 2010; Sewell, 2009; Abrahams, 2007; Latour & Hosmer, 2002; Livingstone et al., 2002). These results are also not in line with preceding research that indicated a positive relationship between EI and successful leaders (Goleman, 1998a, 1998b). Kerr et al. (2006) found that EI scores were a strong predictor of leadership success (see par 2.5.1).

Factors which possibly influenced the intrapersonal EI components in this research could include the fact that young people (like this sample) do not have a lot of experience as leaders which negatively impacted their leader success. The sample had a mean age of 23, which is still very young. Age can possibly have an influence on an individuals' leader success. The sample was drawn from junior officers at SAMA who are currently busy with their tertiary studies. These junior officers are not at the moment emotionally active in leader positions, or dealing with operational leadership challenges. Junior officers also do not receive a lot of training exercises to develop their intrapersonal EI skills.

Their intrapersonal EI skills are not evaluated during their selection and intake into the SANDF. It is a component in leadership development that is not receiving a lot of attention during training.

The low correlations on the intrapersonal EI components could also possibly be an indication of the influence the military training philosophy has on soldiers. The military training philosophy primarily centres around a negative intermission on soldiers' self esteem (Glad, 1990). Breaking down the self-esteem of soldiers could possibly have a destructive influence on their intrapersonal EI competencies.

Another possible reason is that these junior officers are forced to fit into culturally diverse environments which result either in higher interpersonal EI. Soldiers are forced to function successfully in teams and to cope with different gender and racial issues which focus more on interpersonal EI skills. Junior officers are also aware that if they do not comply with the labour law guidelines set out by the Constitution it could result in them being discharged from the SANDF which could be a possible indication that they are more eager to focus their attention on their interpersonal EI skills. This was confirmed by the individualism-collectivism (IC) factor of Van Dyk and De Kock (2004) (see par 2.3.3).

5.2.2   Psychological capital and leader success

Strong correlations were found for PsyCap and leader success. H9, stating that there is a significant and positive relationship between total PsyCap and leader success (r=0.52, p<0.01) (see Table 4.2) was accepted. This correlation showed the strongest relationship for the study. H10 (self-efficacy) (r=0.45, p<0.01), H11 (optimism) (r=0.40, p<0.01) and H12 (hope) (r=0.47, p<0.01) showed significant moderate relationships with leader success (see Table 4.2), resulting in these hypotheses to be accepted. These results support previous research stating that significant positive relationships exist between PsyCap and leader success (see par 2.5.4) (Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Luthans et al., 2007a; Luthans et al., 2008a; Bressler, 2010; Hannah et al., 2010; Toor & Ofori, 2010). Higher correlations for total PsyCap, self-efficacy, optimism and hope are advantageous for the SANDF. High levels of PsyCap will empower the junior officer with leader qualities such as motivation, impetus and aptitude to engage in continuous learning which is an indispensable intrinsic value needed for leader success (Morath et al., 2011). Junior officers would be able to inspire and motivate others to successfully perform in extremis situations set out in the SANDF environment. High PsyCap levels could empower junior officers with the needed self-efficacy, hope, and optimism to facilitate leader success in coping with political issues, role changing issues, cultural diversity issues, gender issues, and resources issues. The junior officer will be a hopeful, optimistic wise warrior with strong strategic leadership abilities in his current environment but also when he forms part of peacekeeping missions.

The acceptance of H10 is in line with previous research of Toor and Ofori (2010) who found a positive correlation (r=0.54, p<0.01) between self-efficacy and leader success. Higher levels of self-efficacy will empower the junior officer in believing that he can perform his role as an officer stipulated by the Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012) (see par 2.4.2). Benight and Bandura (2004) studied the general function of perceived coping self-efficacy in recovery from various types of traumatic experiences. They included terrorist attacks and military combat. They found that perceived coping self-efficacy appeared important for posttraumatic recovery. Self-efficacy is important for peace building missions to develop human capital in junior officers. The significant moderate correlation between self-efficacy and leader success indicates that these junior officers will possibly be able to take on and put in the necessary effort to succeed at challenging tasks. Self-efficacy will enhance the junior officer's confidence in his leader success abilities. As the SANDF is involved with numerous peacekeeping missions (see par 2.3.6) in areas such as Burundi, DRC, Sudan and Somalia, self-efficacy will provide junior officers forming part of these operations the necessary confidence to successfully lead their teams.

Toor and Ofori (2010) also found a positive correlation between optimism (r=0.40, p<0.01) and leader success which supports the acceptance of H11. Higher levels of optimism will empower the junior officer with succeeding in the tasks laid out in the Job analysis and competency design for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012) (see par 2.4.2) not only at present but also in the future. Bressler's (2011) study among US soldiers showed that optimism can help soldiers better adjust and accept the reality of change. He found that there were positive relationships between optimism and soldiers' affective commitment. The environment laid out in Chapter 2 (see par 2.2 and 2.3) shows the constant change militaries are experiencing at present. Higher optimism levels could contribute to the junior officer of the SANDF's adjustment and acceptance of environmental changes. Although these junior officers are still studying at SAMA, they are still soldiers in the SANDF and need to be able to perform efficiently under stress. Optimism could play an important role in helping junior officers be successful leaders in stressful situations. Optimistic junior officers will display less signs of disengagement when faced with hardships and will be more committed to leader success (Bressler, 2011). Junior officers will heighten others' desire to success by creating optimism to put extra effort into tasks.

H12 (hope) was also accepted and is in line with previous research (Toor & Ofori, 2010; Bressler, 2011). Higher levels of hope will result in the commitment of junior officers' effectiveness and extra effort in their tasks. Bressler (2011) found positive relationships between soldiers' hope levels and their commitment to tasks. Successful leadership has been linked with hope as instrumental ability that has an influence on performance levels (see par 1.1).

Hope could empower junior officers to perform better in the challenges that the SANDF currently faces (see par 2.3) by accomplishing the goals set out by the organisation. Hope will drive the junior officer to achieve these goals even if pathways to achieving these goals have been blocked. Hope will also create greater levels of enthusiasm in junior officers for lifelong learning and education in current and future military matters (Bressler, 2011).

A lower correlation was found for the relationship between resilience and leader success. H13 was thus rejected. This result differs from previous research which showed that significant and positive relationships exist between resilience and leader success. Youssef and Luthans (2007) theorised that resilience facilitates proactive learning and personal growth through experiencing and conquering challenges. Fallesen et al. (2011) indicated the importance of resilience in all soldiers. Soldiers need resilience to have the ability to persevere when facing challenges and to bounce back from harsh situations, such as difficult conditions on deployments. Van Dyk (2009) stated that peacekeeping soldiers are confronted with psychological challenges such as unexpected emotions of fear, anger, depression, hectic states and apathy. These challenges make it essential for the SANDF junior officer to have resilience.

A possible factor contributing to the lower correlation of resilience may be due to the fact that most of these junior officers have not been exposed to harsh battlefield situations. They have not been on deployment or peacekeeping operations such as soldiers from the US army (see par 2.2), where most resilience research has been done. The fact that they have not had the opportunity to show their leadership abilities in handling operational traumatic (see par 2.5.2) challenges faced by the SANDF could also contribute to lower resilience levels. The absence of resilience training may also have an influence on their resilience scores. Lack of education on what the new militia environment entails for contemporary soldiers could also possibly have a spill-over effect on resilience. The junior officer studying at SAMA might not fully comprehend or might have a lack of knowledge about this environment, or about resilience knowledge and skills.

It is, however, important for the SANDF to note the low correlation between resilience and leader success as this can be identified as a vulnerability in the leadership profile of the sample for specific operational purposes. Numerous previous studies showed strong positive relationships between resilience and leader success and the significant important of resilience and resilience training for successful leadership (Seligman & Fowler, 2011; Avey et al., 2008; Peterson et al., n.d). A study done by Koen et al. (2011) showed that emotional competency training such as resilience training and enhancing EI will lead to people having more emotional stability (see par 2.5.1). Resilience training can possibly enhance the low correlations of the intrapersonal EI skills (see par 5.2.1).

Principles of strategic leadership discussed by Wong et al. (2003) and Van Dyk and Van Niekerk (2004) included resilience and interpersonal maturity, which link to the principles of EI (see par 2.5). Verweij (2012) stated that resilience is also needed to act morally as currently high emphasis is placed on international military ethics (see par 2.2.4.2).

According to the Job analysis and competency design model for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012) (see par 2.4.2), the behavioural competencies necessary for the junior officer to successfully perform key performance areas in his role include resilience. Resilience will ensure a psychologically fit junior officer who will be able to integrate and optimise his mental, emotional and behavioural abilities to enhance leader success. This will ensure that the junior officer will be able to successfully manage the unique and changing challenges of serving in the SANDF. Resilient junior officers will decrease the likelihood of PTSD, depression and anxiety disorders (Seligman & Fowler, 2011). Training and education in resilience incorporated in the SANDF's doctrines can ensure that junior officers will experience military challenges as less demanding which will improve their leader success.

5.2.3   Sense of coherence and leader success

H14 (total SOC) ($r=0.26$, $p<0.01$), H15 (comprehensibility) ($r=0.25$, $p<0.01$) and H17 (meaningfulness) ($r=0.26$, $p<0.01$) (see Table 4.2) all showed very low statistically significant correlations. According to the stipulated standards used in this study (see par 4.4.1) (Pallant, 2007; Field, 2009; Gravetter & Wallnau, 2011), these low correlations resulted in the rejection of the hypotheses. These results were not in line with previous research done on SOC.

Previous research done on soldiers and SOC showed significant positive relationships between a soldier's SOC and his ability to deal with stressful situations (see par 2.5.3 and 2.5.4) (Antonovsky, 1987; Bartone, 1999; Cilliers, 2001; Hutchinson, 2005; Moerane, 2005; Braun-Lewensohn & Sagy, 2011; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011). The overall meaning of SOC is to be able to deal with stressful demands (Antonovsky, 1987) (see par 2.5.3). Dealing with stressful demands is an ability considered essential for leader success. Eriksson and Lindsröm (2006) (see par 2.5.3) stated that SOC strengthens resilience while developing a positive subjective state of health. Education in SOC can possibly enhance the resilience levels of junior officers. Braun-Lewensohn and Sagy (2011) did a study on SOC and individuals experiencing events of war and missile attacks. They found that individuals with a stronger SOC felt less threatened by these events (see par 2.5.3). The possible low SOC levels of junior officers might be due to the fact that none of them have experienced any events such as war. Their inexperience and lack of knowledge on how to effectively develop and select suitable strategies for coping with stressors might be due to their lack of education in SOC.

The SANDF deploys its soldiers on a frequent basis outside the borders of the country and will continue to do so in future. During these deployments soldiers experience a host of diverse stressors such as role conflict, separation from loved ones, heavy workload, long working hours, stressful duties and exposure to human loss (Bruwer & Van Dyk, 2005; Lloyd & Van Dyk, 2007) (see par 2.3.6.1). Given the nature of the military environment it was expected that there would be a significant correlation between SOC and leader success. SOC expresses the extent to which the individual has confidence in using the resources at his disposal in order to meet the demands posed by the environment.

H16, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between manageability and leader success showed no statistical significant correlation ($p > 0.05$; $p = 0.25$) (see Table 4.2). Manageability refers to the extent to which the individual perceives that resources at his/her disposal are adequate to meet the demands posed by the bombarding stimuli, that events are bearable and can be coped with and that challenges can be met (Antonovsky, 1987; Cilliers, 2001; Hutchkinson, 2005; Moerane, 2005; Schreuder & Coetzee, 2011) (see par 2.5.3).

According to Yukl (2010), the continued existence and success of an organisation and its leaders are contingent on adjustment to the environment and the attainment of essential resources (see par 2.3.8). SOC directs the detection and development of personal and social resources. High SOC signifies the inclination and motivation to take advantage of these resources which are at the individual's potential disposal, leading the individual to gain cognitive and emotional appraisal of the environment, and then ultimately leading to effective coping. Junior officers at SAMA are not directly involved in working with unit resources. They only have to concentrate on the completion of their studies and are not confronted with bombarding stimuli where the use of these resources is necessary. Higher ranking personnel at SAMA make decisions, plans and guidelines for unit activities. The junior officer at SAMA is not exposed to opportunities to work with resources. This impacts their exposure to thinking and experiencing strategic military issues supposed to be experienced by developing officers. This might possibly have an effect on their strategic military leadership which flaws their current leader success.

Hesselbein and Sinseki (2004) (see par 2.3.8) described strategic leadership challenges to include aspects such as the strategic leader operates in an uncertain environment with intricate complex problems; he has to have in-depth knowledge of global politics and understand assigned responsibilities of the force for each geographic area; he is concerned with the total environment the military functions in and his role cannot be delegated; and, he has an authoritative responsibility to explain things to his people. The environment at SAMA is a certain environment with no intricate, complex problems or ambiguity for junior officers.

The complex national and international security environment requires from SANDF leaders to comprehensively gain knowledge, understanding and awareness of the political, economic, informational and security elements, nationally and internationally and the interrelationships between them. The different programmes at SAMA do not all provide teaching on global politics and this might result in some of the junior officers' lack of knowledge in global politics. SOC refers to the flexibility individuals apply to approaching and responding to new demands (Antonovsky, 1987) (see par 2.5.3). The bureaucratic nature of the military structure, also exercised at SAMA, prohibits junior officers' authoritative power and flexibility, limiting the junior officers' respondence to new demands in the environment. The SANDF leader faces challenges such as interpreting these environments, the threats and opportunities contained in these environments and how to successfully operate with these threats and opportunities (see par 2.3.8).

The lack of exposure of these junior officers to the complexity of future challenges for the SANDF (see par 2.3) as a result of them studying at SAMA might have an influence on their current SOC levels. They also have no opportunities to prove their leader success which manipulates their leadership ability development which possibly spills over on their SOC. However, a strong argument that the researcher poses is that these junior officers, after completion of their time at SAMA, will be performing their role in different units in the SANDF (specifications set out for their role as a junior officer in the Job analysis and competency design model for SA army junior officers (South African army assessment centre, 2012) (see par 2.4.2)) and need these important skills to successfully fulfil their role as leaders in the SANDF (see recommendations, par 6.3). They then become employees in the broader SANDF where the possibility of them going on deployments and peacekeeping missions becomes part of their work role.

It is possible that the theoretical content of the SOC questionnaire and the MLQ questionnaire (used to measure leader success) did not overlap and inherently does not have a natural theoretical correlation. The MLQ questionnaire's subscales of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were used to measure leader success as this use supported previous studies. Boonzaier (2008) did a study and used extra effort, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader as dimensions of leader success, and all yielded acceptable reliability scores.

The leader success construct was therefore deemed reliable for the purpose of the study (see par 3.5.4). Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) also used the three subscales of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction (named leadership outcomes in the MLQ) in their study to test leadership outcomes on subordinate success and found significant relationships in all three of the subscales. The researcher therefore deemed it appropriate to use the MLQ extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction subscales to test junior officers' leader success.

However, it appears from the results of this study that the MLQ questionnaire's subscales used to test leader success were possibly not the best choice to test the sample's SOC levels in correlation to their leader success (see par 6.2 and 6.3). The danger of designing a questionnaire to measure leader success due the risks involved in development and validation of designing questionnaires was considered for this study. Restricted resources also limited the possibility of buying a more appropriate questionnaire to measure leader success. It is possible that if a more suitable leader success questionnaire was used the expected results between SOC and leader success could improve.

Another reason for the low and insignificant correlations between SOC and leader success could be due to the fact that the SOC questionnaire was one of the last questionnaires the participants had to fill in and it is possible that they had lost interest by this stage which flawed the results of the correlations.

5.3   DISCUSSION OF MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

Multiple regression analysis was performed to clarify the question whether individual variables significantly explained variance in the dependent variable proposed by the model (see Figure 4.4). Multiple regression analysis presents the unique contribution that each variable of interest makes to the dependent variable to which it is linked. The correlations results yielded significant relationships between total EI and total PsyCap. This is in line with the multiple regression analysis which showed that total EI and total PsyCap made significant contributions to leader success.

The multiple regression analysis was done on total EI, total PsyCap and total SOC. The summary statistics in Table 4.3 revealed that 30 percent of the variability of leader success could be accounted for by the predictors.

The beta values showed that the greatest contributor to leader success was total PsyCap followed by total EI (see Figure 4.4). This means that total PsyCap was the strongest contributor to leader success for this study. This is in line with previous research that PsyCap can be measured, developed and managed effectively for success in the workplace (Avey et al., 2009; Luthans, 2002; Luthans et al., 2004; Luthans & Youssef, 2004; Story, 2011) (see par 2.5.2). Luthans et al. (2007a) stated that PsyCap is vital for any leader to be successful in his/her role. PsyCap becomes an important contributor to leader well-being and leader success in the organisation. Toor and Ofori (2010) found that PsyCap significantly and positively correlated with effectiveness, extra effort and satisfaction (leader success) (see par 2.4). This result holds potential advantages for the SANDF in terms of future challenges (see par 2.3).

PsyCap will assist junior officers to cope with the new strategic environment and to adjust to the new political climate faced by the SANDF. Junior officers will be successful in their role and functions which will have a positive advantage for the culture of the organisation. Junior officers will be able to sustain and maintain the hope of peace and security with more positive resourcefulness.

PsyCap will enhance team cohesion and levels of morale in junior officers. PsyCap as a strong predictor of leader success will possibly provide junior officers with the necessary psychological skills needed to deal with an environment of financial and human resources tension in the SANDF (see par 2.3.5). PsyCap promotes positive mental health which will sustain the mental health of junior officers during experiencing intricate peacekeeping challenges (Lloyd & Van Dyk, 2007).

Total EI was the second strongest predictor of leader success (see Figure 4.4). Numerous previous research showed that EI is a vital component of leader success (Cheah & Ken, 2012; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Goleman, 1998a; Goleman et al., 2002). EI proved to be an important skill for selection and development of leaders. Gardner and Stough (2002) found strong significant positive correlations between EI and leader success (see par 2.5.4). Cheah and Ken (2012) also found significant positive correlations between EI and leader success. Previous research shows that EI is a strong contributor to leader success which is in line with the results of this study (Cheah & Ken, 2012; Gardner & Stough, 2002).

The potential advantages for the SANDF include junior officers who will be emotionally intelligent decision makers who are attentive and conscious of the international expectations that are placed upon the organisation. The SANDF will employ young officers who are good "world citizens" in successfully achieving their leadership roles. An emotionally intelligent junior officer will be sensitive to a culturally diverse environment which will decrease discrimination, ill-discipline, poor work relations and interpersonal conflict (Heinecken, 2009). The SANDF will experience positive variables such as satisfaction, extra effort, effectiveness, productivity and preparedness of its forces. This will strengthen civil-military relations and political stability of the force. High emotionally intelligent junior officers will treat each other with mutual respect in a gender friendly environment. Emotionally stable officers will be able to adjust and cope with stressors experienced in multifaceted peacekeeping missions (Van Dyk, 2009) (see par 2.3.6.1).

The results of the multiple regression analysis of this study showed that total EI and total PsyCap were the only significant contributors in predicting leader success. Total EI and total PsyCap could possibly be linked with each other. Positive psychological states such as hope, optimism, resilience and self-efficacy could have a spill over effect on the individual's EI. Sinclair and Tucker (as cited by Hannah et al., 2010) showed in their study that respondents' PsyCap was positively related to their emotional displays (see par 2.5.4).

Positive affectivity is a general propensity in a leader to produce emotional responses that are in line with his/her positively embedded EI behaviours. The reason for total EI and total PsyCap to be the only two contributors to predicting leader success could possibly be that these two predictors have a mediating and/or moderating effect on each other.

SOC with a beta value of -0.02 and a p-value of 0.75 (p>0.05) (see Table 4.4) was regarded as insignificant. This means that SOC did not make a contribution to explaining leader success. The multiple regression analysis is also in line with the correlation results (see Table 4.2), where significantly low and insignificant relationships were found between SOC and leader success. The possible reasons for SOC not contributing to the junior officers' leader success could be due to the fact that they are not involved in dangerous operational situations at the moment. They are also not actively involved in leadership roles which necessitate strong SOC in life threatening circumstances. Research shows that high levels of SOC facilitate lucrative psychological and physiological coping with stressful situations.

To be a successful leader one has to have the ability to deal effectively with stress, not only for oneself to contain the situation, but also for the whole group. Most of the SOC literature researched for this study explains SOC in events of war, missile attacks, and terror (Braun-Lewensohn & Sagy, 2011) (see par 2.5.3 and 2.5.4). The sample candidates of this study have possibly never been exposed to situations such as these and also at the moment they are not involved in any such type of hostilities.

5.4   SUMMARY

The significant and mentionable results of this study include the contribution of total EI and total PsyCap in predicting leader success. Significant correlations were found for the interpersonal EI skills, PsyCap and leader success which were in line with numerous previous research studies. Total EI and total PsyCap could possibly make significant contributions to explaining and predicting junior officers' leader success in the SANDF. Junior officers' leader success could possibly enhance the overall success of the SANDF. The results of these significant positive correlations will provide the junior officer with the cognitive, social and emotional skills to successfully deal with the future challenges of the SANDF.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1   CONCLUSIONS

The global egression of militaries worldwide demands a different stimulation of military officers to enrich them with the potential to deal with intricate, multifaceted and interrelated security challenges. The shift towards a volunteer force and missions that are more versatile in nature requires a different officer profile. Present and future warfare will centre on peacekeeping and humanitarian tasks. As shown through the in-depth literature review (see Chapter 2), leaders effectively performing in these areas will need to have the intrapersonal and interpersonal skills to ensure leader success. The increased attention of EI, PsyCap and SOC in the international workplace and industrial psychology research yielded a strong foundation for researching these skills within the SANDF work context. The researcher saw a research gap of the prevalence of the phenomena in the SANDF and saw a need to ascertain if these skills are accounted for when the SANDF selects future leaders.

The study aimed at exploring the relationships between EI, PsyCap and SOC and leader success of junior officers in the army service of the SANDF. Possible exploration of these relationships could make a significant contribution to enrich the SANDF with knowledge on EI, PsyCap, SOC and their contribution to leader success in the contemporary militia. The main objective of this study was to develop and empirically test the relationships of EI, PsyCap and SOC on leader success. Scientific research methodology was used to determine the validity of relationships among the selected independent variables on leader success (see Figure 1.1). The aim of the theoretical background was to indicate the relationships between these intrapersonal and interpersonal predictors and their influence on leader success. The empirical aim was to reflect the relationships between the variables statistically.

The significant contribution of this study is rooted in the different outputs produced by the research. The study enriched literature by creating innovative perspectives in the research of EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success. The study created a new body of knowledge and a contemporary awareness of the possible predictors that could contribute to officers' leader success. This could potentially have a spill-over effect on the organisational success of the SANDF. The gap ascertained by the researcher in the literature, whether there is a relationship between the predictors and leader success for junior officers in the SANDF, created a specific focus on the SANDF leading to a new perspective in the literature on these issues. The study determined the existence of possible relationships between EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success.

The research revealed that there is a significant positive relationship between total EI and leader success explained by the significant correlations found between total EI, emotional reasoning and emotional management of others and leader success (see Figure 4.1 and Table 4.2). The strongest correlations were found between the interpersonal skills of emotional reasoning and emotional management of others and leader success. The significant positive correlation between total EI and leader success indicates that EI plays a significant role in the leader success of junior officers in the SANDF. The intrapersonal EI skills yielded low positive significant correlations (see Table 4.2). These lower correlations of the intrapersonal EI skills should create awareness in the SANDF for possible future education and training in EI (see par 6.3). Statistical evidence concluded that there is a relationship between EI and leader success for junior officers in the SANDF.

The strongest correlation results for the study were PsyCap (see Figure 4.2 and Table 4.2). Statistically, there is a significant positive relationship between total PsyCap and leader success explained by the significant positive correlations between total PsyCap, self-efficacy, hope, optimism and leader success. Although resilience yielded a lower correlation, there was still a significant positive correlation. The lower correlation for resilience can possibly lead to recommendations on resilience training for the SANDF (see par 6.3). The correlation results indicate that PsyCap plays a significant role in the leader success of junior officers in the SANDF. As a result, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between PsyCap and leader success for junior officers in the SANDF.

Significant, but very low correlation results were found between SOC and leader success (see Figure 4.3 and Table 4.2). An insignificant correlation was found between manageability and leader success (see Table 4.2). Given these low correlation results, the researcher cannot with confidence conclude that there is a relationship between SOC and leader success for junior officers in the SANDF.

The results of the multiple regression analysis (see Figure 4.4 and Table 4.4) revealed that only EI and PsyCap could be used to explain leader success of junior officers in the SANDF. These results together with the correlations' results prove relationships between EI, PsyCap and leader success. This research proposes from these results that the predictors of the leader success conceptual model (see Figure 4.4) for junior officers in the SANDF could be used as a platform to create awareness of these types of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills necessary for future military leadership. This model conversely should be tested to facilitate possible generalisation and application of the model in the military environment.

6.2   LIMITATIONS

Recognition of the limitations of this study is important because it qualifies and tempers the findings. The limitations also provide raison d'être for areas recommended for future research. The results of this study should be viewed in light of the following limitations:

- The sample studied (junior officers in the army service, rank CO to lieutenant, stationed at SAMA, in the SANDF) represents a small subset of the military population of the SANDF. A replication of the study, in other military settings and areas would enhance the generalisability of the findings of this study.

- This study was based on the perceptions of army service junior officers, rank CO to lieutenant. It may be desirable to elicit the perceptions of higher ranks of army service officers in leadership positions.

- This study was limited to army service personnel. An extension of this study to other military services (such as the navy and air force) could lead to a better understanding of leader success from the viewpoint of multiple stakeholders.

- The exploratory nature of this study limits causality. It is not safe to conclude that the independent variables directly influence the dependent variable. Cautious interpretation and presentation of results should be warranted as other extraneous variables, which were not observed in this study, could have impacted the results.

- The question could be posed if the sample was fit for the study.

- SAMA's environment dictates educational properties and is not an operational environment which necessitates and demands operational military leader success. The participants in this study are not actively involved in leadership roles.

- The relatively small sample size in this study limits the generalisability of the results to the larger SANDF population. The size of the data set used (n=170) also limits the use of various different statistical analyses. A larger sample size could have contributed a greater degree of confidence in the results of the study. Low and insignificant correlations could have improved with a larger sample size.

- Data for the study was collected by means of self-report measurement instruments. Self-report data can artificially inflate the results as a spill-over effect of response biases from respondents, where they create more favourable impressions of themselves.

- A convenience sampling method was used in this study which limits the generalisation of the results. This sampling method can also confound the utility of the research results for this study.

- Unless the model is entirely tested it cannot be effusively applied in the SANDF.

- The results of SOC and leader success could possibly indicate that the MLQ subscales of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were not the best suited questionnaire to measure leader success.

Although the study revealed some limitations, the research still provided new information to the literature on EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success. The researcher views the study as making a vital contribution to the research in leader success, supporting the lack of literature on this subject, especially in the SANDF.

6.3   RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for future research and how the results of this study could be used for recommended intervention strategies are discussed. Future research in the area of leader success might aid in the development of a more robust theory of the phenomenon. Research in leader success involving the investigation of other equally interested ramifications of leader success could develop a more comprehensive and cohesive body of knowledge regarding the skills needed for successful military leaders. The researcher suggests a growth and developmental expansion of the scope of this study through replications with the different stakeholders of the SANDF in order to reinforce the study's generalisability. An expansion of this study might involve the integration of other significant and related variables of interest to military leaders needed for leader success. The examination of other variables of interest to military stakeholders could include specific demographic characteristics such as race, gender, age, arms of service, corps and mustering or rank. Variables pertaining to issues such as exposure to leadership opportunities, leadership roles, type of leadership, military experience, deployment experience and peacekeeping experience might yield additional information and add to the findings of this topic.

The researcher suggests that although there was a significant relationship between total EI and leader success the topic should be explored in more detail to understand why the intrapersonal EI skills did not make strong contributions to leader success. The researcher also suggests that the relationship between SOC and leader success should be explored more in detail to ascertain the reasons why SOC did not make a contribution to leader success. Future research efforts such as these might pilot an incorporated research stream with action-orientated and goal-achievement inferences. These will provide for a superior and more cohesive concentration and application on leader success. Optimistically, this study would provide an impetus to further research on intrapersonal and interpersonal skills, leading to a detailed investigation of the specific skills set needed by military leaders as a viable resource in successfully achieving the goals of the SANDF. Scrutinisation of these topics could possibly assist in the accumulation of a knowledge base on leader success.

Measurement of EI might prove to be advantageous for the selection and training of military leaders. EI might be an important prediction of leader success. Future research should test these propositions at different levels within the military. Determining whether EI skills are important for leader success in military leaders through, for example, job analysis procedures might aid in the SANDF gaining a greater understanding whether and which EI constructs would be useful for selection and training. The SANDF should examine the utility and practicality of using EI, PsyCap, SOC and leader success instruments for selection and training of military leaders upon additional investigation of the definition and measurement of these variables. It would be interesting to use other instruments to measure the variables of this study or to use several instruments at the same time and compare the results of the different studies. Enriched literature and research could also be gained from gathering data from other organisations than the SANDF, which have a different nature of work in order to determine if there is a fit between leader success and nature of work. It is also well known in the literature that leadership is an interaction of the person with the situation.

Research describes numerous indications about which skills are needed in particular competency areas. Future research on this topic could perhaps use a sample of participants who are actively engaged in military leadership roles. The SANDF could provide training aimed at educating its personnel about what makes a leader successful in a variety of situations. Typical situations that face the military environment currently would be a good example. Future research in the SANDF is needed to explore the complex interplay between intrapersonal and interpersonal skills and the situation. The focus should be on the relevancy of these skills and why these skills become so important for future military leaders. The SANDF could design a model and a portfolio on what the organisation deems as leader success and this could serve as a vital tool to SANDF leaders. This model could include the competencies the SANDF values for leader success. The SANDF could aspire and possibly include EI, PsyCap and SOC competencies in this leader success model. The model that was developed in this study based on the variance explained by total EI and total PsyCap as contributing factors in explaining leader success should be tested. It is recommended that future research should test the proposed model (see Figure 4.4) against the data to possibly develop a leader success model for the SANDF and the broader military.

It is recommended that this study also be expanded to a larger sample incorporating multiple diverse military stakeholders. Although the MLQ subscales of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction were considered safe to use to measure leader success for this study, it is recommended that a different and more suitable instrument should be used in future research. A more suitable questionnaire could yield different results between the interpersonal and intrapersonal predictors and leader success. A suitable questionnaire could also improve the expected results between SOC and leader success. The results show a research need for the military to standardise a questionnaire to measure leader success.

It is recommended that a 360° measurement be used to measure leader success in leaders who are actively involved in leadership roles in the SANDF, to gain the perspective of the leader himself/herself and his superiors, peers and subordinates. The incorporation of different valid and reliable instruments to measure intrapersonal and interpersonal skills in young upcoming officers could be included in the selection process at the SA Army Assessment Centre. This will ensure the selection of a "wise warrior" who successfully will be able to fulfil the role and profile of a junior officer in the SANDF.

Psycho-education is recommended to the SANDF for military leaders. This will enable military leaders to effectively and successfully manage themselves, their relationships and the environment in which they are expected to be successful leaders. Psycho-education could include education in areas such as intrapersonal EI training and resilience training. Samueli institute's president and chief executive officer stated that one cannot put armour around the psyche or the heart but one can develop and build its resilience. Resilient leaders will be more emotionally stable with positive mindsets and emotions. Psychological fitness training could enhance leaders' mental, emotional and behavioural abilities. Education and training such as these will provide the SANDF with the competitive advantage of having "wise warriors" leading the organisation. Training leaders in psychological fitness will decrease statistics in the SANDF of soldiers suffering from PTSD, depression and anxiety disorders.

Psychological fitness training could improve leaders' performance, morale and physical well-being. This could lead to a psychologically and physically fit SANDF which will positively influence the readiness of the force. This training should be incorporated throughout the whole SANDF and on a frequent basis. Frequent psycho-educational training will colour the goal of understanding and better dealing with the presented challenges of the contemporary military environment. Military leaders should be educated and trained how to use intrapersonal and interpersonal skills to confront any situational threats which will benefit the SANDF in achieving not only leader and mission success but also organisational success.

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