

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF A STRUCTURAL MODEL REFLECTING  
THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON  
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

**By**

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**APRIL 2006**

## **DECLARATION**

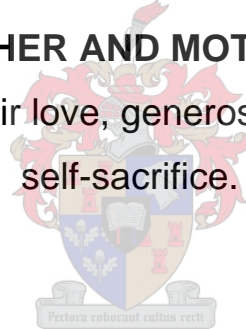
I, the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part, submitted it at any university for a degree.



Wilmarié Beyers

Date: 23.11.2005

This thesis is dedicated to my  
**FATHER AND MOTHER,**  
for their love, generosity and  
self-sacrifice.



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**ABSTRACT**

BEYERS, WILMARIÉ, MA (INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY), UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

**THE DEVELOPMENT OF A STRUCTURAL MODEL REFLECTING THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

In most organisations worldwide, the magnitude of change is ever increasing. In the midst of these uncertainties, there is an increasing need for leaders who can provide structure, meaning and security within their teams. Dynamic and transformational leaders become a sought after jewel in organisations.

Emotional intelligence has gained immense popularity in the last few years. Extravagant claims have been made regarding the impact of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership, as some researchers claim that emotional intelligence accounts for up to 90% of leadership success.

The primary goal of this study was therefore to research the influence of emotional intelligence on leadership, and to develop a structural model to determine the relationships between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. If the dimensions of the emotional intelligence construct that have a positive influence on leadership could be established, this would provide a valuable tool to organisations. Recruitment, selection, training and development procedures could be structured in a way that focuses on identifying and developing these dimensions of emotional intelligence in leaders.

A literature study of the theories and models of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence was conducted. A short overview has also been given of “Primal Leadership” – discussing the emotional role of a leader as the first and foremost function of any leader. Hypotheses, based on the theoretical background, have subsequently been developed in order to establish the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and leadership.

The sample in this study is compiled of 118 managers within a financial institution in the Western Cape. A questionnaire consisting of three sections was compiled to collect information in order to provide an answer to the research problem. Section A of the questionnaire was designed to give an overview of the demographic variables of the participants. Section B measured emotional intelligence by making use of the Rahim/Minors emotional intelligence questionnaire. Section C employed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire by Bass & Avolio to measure transformational leadership.

A detailed statistical analysis was conducted. Correlations between the constructs of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership were determined by means of Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. Positive and significant correlations have been found for all hypotheses. Structural equation modelling (SEM) and the partial least squares (PLS) method were applied to test the hypothesised structural model. Although the model did not provide a good fit, most of the predicted hypotheses have been confirmed by the model. To investigate the unique contribution that each variable of interest makes to the dependent variable to which it is linked, standard multiple regression analyses have been performed on the data.

A positive and significant relationship has been found between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Support has also been found for most of the hypotheses that have been developed in order to explain the relationship between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership. The study also succeeded in determining the emotional intelligence dimensions that are the best predictors of leadership success, and these criteria can be utilised for the selection, training and development of leaders. Conclusions are drawn from the results obtained, the implementation value of the study is discussed, and recommendations for future research are made.

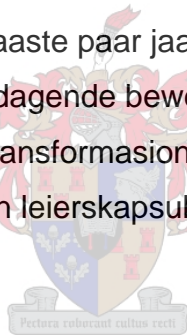
## **OPSOMMING**

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## **DIE ONTWIKKELING VAN 'N STRUKTURELE MODEL OM DIE IMPAK VAN EMOSIONELE INTELLIGENSIE OP TRANSFORMASIONELE LEIERSKAP AAN TE DUI**

Wêreldwyd vind daar groot en vinnige veranderinge in organisasies plaas. In hierdie onsekere omstandighede is daar 'n toenemende behoefte aan leiers wat struktuur, betekenis en sekuriteit in hul spanne kan skep. Dinamiese en transformasionele leiers is dus in groot aanvraag.

Emosionele intelligensie het die laaste paar jaar baie mediablootstelling gekry en het groot gewildheid verwerf. Uitdagende bewerings is gemaak oor die impak van emosionele intelligensie op transformasionele leierskap, aangesien sommige navorsers beweer dat tot 90% van leierskapsukses deur emosionele intelligensie bepaal word.



Die primêre doelwit van hierdie studie was dus om navorsing te doen oor die impak van emosionele intelligensie op leierskap, en om 'n strukturele model te ontwikkel om die verwantskap tussen die dimensies van emosionele intelligensie en transformasionele leierskap te bepaal. Indien bepaal kan word watter dimensies van emosionele intelligensie 'n positiewe invloed op leierskap het, kan dit 'n baie handige instrument vir organisasies wees. Werwing- en keuringsprosedures en opleiding- en ontwikkelingsintervensies kan sodoende fokus op die identifisering en ontwikkeling van hierdie konstrakte in leiers.

'n Literatuurstudie wat fokus op die modelle van transformasionele leierskap en emosionele intelligensie is uitgevoer. 'n Kort oorsig oor die konsep van Primêre Leierskap is ook gegee, wat die emosionele rol van leiers as die eerste en belangrikste funksie bespreek. Hipoteses, wat op die teoretiese agtergrond

gebaseer is, is vervolgens ontwikkel om te bepaal wat die verwantskap tussen die dimensies van transformasionele leierskap en emosionele intelligensie is.

Die steekproef in hierdie studie bestaan uit 118 bestuurders in 'n finansiële instelling in die Wes-Kaap. 'n Vraelys bestaande uit drie afdelings is opgestel om inligting in te samel om sodoende 'n antwoord op die navorsingsprobleem te verkry. Afdeling A van die vraelys is ontwikkel om 'n oorsig van die demografiese veranderlikes van die deelnemers te bepaal. Afdeling B meet emosionele intelligensie deur gebruik te maak van die Rahim/Minors emosionele intelligensie vraelys. Afdeling C maak gebruik van die MLQ leierskapsvraelys van Bass en Avolio om sodoende transformasionele leierskap te meet.

Die statistiese analise is in drie fases uitgevoer. In die eerste fase is die korrelasies tussen die dimensies van emosionele intelligensie en transformasionele leierskap bepaal deur middel van Pearson se korrelasie koëffisiënte. Positiewe en statisties beduidende korrelasies is vir al die hipoteses gevind. In die tweede fase is 'n strukturele model ontwikkel om die voorspelde strukturele model te toets. Alhoewel die model nie goed gepas het nie, is die meeste van die hipoteses bevestig. Standaard meervoudige regressie ontledings is in die derde fase op die data uitgevoer, om sodoende te bepaal wat die bydrae is van elke veranderlike op die afhanklike veranderlike waarmee dit verbind word.

'n Positief en beduidende verwantskap is gevind tussen emosionele intelligensie en transformasionele leierskap. Steun is ook gevind vir die meerderheid hipoteses gestel t.o.v die verwantskappe tussen die dimensies van emosionele intelligensie en die dimensies van transformasionele leierskap. Die studie het daarin geslaag om te bepaal watter emosionele intelligensie dimensies die beste voorspellers vir leierskapsukses is en hierdie insig kan gebruik word in die werwing, keuring en ontwikkeling van leiers. Gevolgtrekkings is vanuit die resultate gemaak, die implementeringswaarde van die studie is bespreek en aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is gemaak.

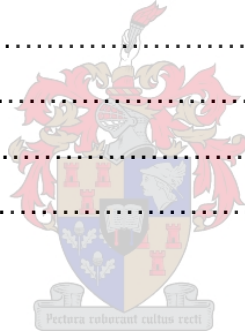
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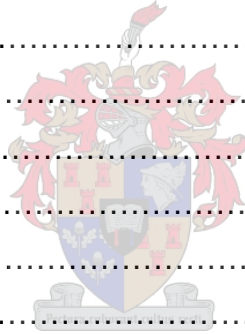
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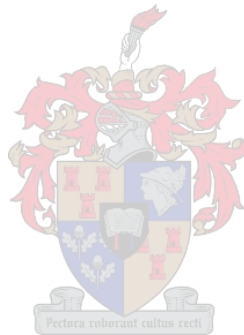
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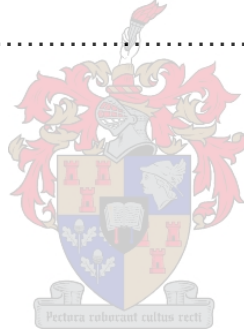
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## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES**

#### **1.1 INTRODUCTION TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY**

In many countries world wide, the business landscape has changed (Valdes, 2001). In South Africa this change is being magnified by the incredible political, social and economic transition, which started in the 1990's and is continuing in the new century (April, Macdonald & Vriesendorp, 2000). In the midst of these changes, a lot of companies struggle for survival. Some executives talk of being in a crisis. In some companies, employees have been laid off, and this has fostered an increased anxiety and fear in the workplace. Restructuring and downsizing are both common phenomena in the world of work today. Many companies go through multiple changes and transformations. In difficult situations like these, all eyes are focused on the leaders and their ability to create an inspiring, compelling vision and to guide the people around them out of the chaos (Valdes, 2001). The magnitude of the changes taking place will demand not only more leadership, but also new approaches to leadership. It is crucial that leaders are open to new, innovative ways of doing things (April et al., 2000). Valerie Stewart (1990, p. 120) explained this in the following way, "It can't have escaped anybody's attention that there is a new kind of leader about. Leaders who can take their organisations into uncharted waters, who change what is done and the way it is done; who have an ability to reach out and touch people, inspire trust, try to make their part of the world a better place."

Coutu (2004) calls leadership the global obsession. Literally thousands of books have been written on this subject, and even more definitions have been developed for this subject. In an unpublished review, Bentz listed 130 definitions of leadership obtained in a sampling of the literature prior to 1949 (Bass, 1960). Yukl (2002) maintains that researchers usually define leadership according to

their individual perception and the aspect of the phenomenon of highest interest to them. The Handbook of Leadership defines leadership as the relations between members of a group. Leaders are agents of change, persons whose behaviour influences other people more than other people's behaviour influences them. Leadership occurs when one group member amends the motivation or competencies of others in the group (cited in Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly, 2000, p. 272). Leadership involves a reordering or organising of a new way of acting, as well as the need to overcome resistance to change (Bass, 1960).

Effective leaders are crucial to any company. According to the foregoing definitions of leadership, leaders are held responsible for the performance of the individual members of the organisational unit they head. On an individual level the Path-goal theory was developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates (Yukl, 2002). According to House (1971), "The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route" (cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 212). According to this theory, a leader has an important impact first and foremost on the motivation of subordinates, and ultimately also on the satisfaction of the subordinates, which in turn will impact on their performance as well as the performance of the work unit in total.

The responsibility for the performance of the whole organisational unit also ultimately lies with the leadership of the unit (Theron & Spangenberg, 2002) and not only the performance of the individual unit members. The multiple-linkage model was developed to describe in a universal way the interacting effects of managerial behaviour and situational variables on the variables that determine the performance of a work unit. According to this theory, leaders can make vast improvements in group performance by modifying the situation to make it more favourable. Effective leaders act to reduce constraints, increase substitutes, and

reduce the importance of intervening variables that are not amenable to improvement (cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 220). The importance of effective leadership is, therefore, undeniable, and it will be to the advantage of any organisation to determine what traits or competencies determine the effectiveness of a leader.

According to an article in the Harvard Business Review entitled "What makes a leader", Daniel Goleman (1998b) spoke of the importance of emotional intelligence in leadership success, and cited numerous studies that confirmed that emotional intelligence is often the distinguishing factor between great leaders and average leaders. Philpott (2003) spoke of the ability-performance paradox that exists in some organisations: highly talented individuals do not always deliver as leaders. Some fail because their emotional intelligence allegedly does not match their cognitive intelligence (IQ).

LeRoy Malouf, chairman of the leadership firm, LMA Inc, made the following claim regarding leadership, "While some have said emotion has no place in business or in government, in fact, emotions are a key ingredient to creating success in an organisation and in a single human life. It is only when leaders discover how to make their feelings work for them that they spark growth and change in themselves and in the organisation" (cited in Noyes, 2001, p. 1). Humphrey (2002) went further by arguing that leadership is essentially an emotional process through which leaders identify their followers' emotional states, attempt to encourage emotions in their followers, and then attempt to manage their followers' emotional conditions accordingly (cited in Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003, p. 19). This, however, is no new thought. David Gergen (2004) takes this idea many centuries back by stating that what we have been told since the time of the Greeks, is that every leader must try to control his own passion before he can hope to direct the passions of other people.

Emotional intelligence is a relatively new and fast growing subject of behavioural investigation, having matured recently as a result of lavish international media attention (Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002). The influence of emotional intelligence on popular culture and the academic community has been fast and extensive, ever since its origin in the late 1980s (Emmerling & Goleman, 2003; Matthews et al., 2002). This term was born out of the consideration that factors other than cognitive intelligence lead to successful leaders. At best, IQ contributes about twenty percent to the factors that determine life success, which leaves about eighty percent to other factors (Goleman, 1995). In his book, *Emotional Intelligence*, Goleman (1995, p. 34) states that his “concern lies with a key set of these “other characteristics”, namely emotional intelligence: abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope”.

With this widespread interest in emotional intelligence, interpersonal relationships and social skills have become increasingly important to effective leadership (Goleman, 1998a). Where leaders were once seen to plan, organise and control the overall management of an organisation, in today's more customer-oriented companies, leadership roles now also include so called “soft skills,” for example the ability to inspire and encourage others, to advance an optimistic work culture, and to create a sense of contribution, ownership and importance with and among employees (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, cited in Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001, p. 5). Research is increasingly focusing on emotional intelligence as the competitive advantage to companies and individuals. McBride and Maitland (2002) call emotional intelligence the hidden advantage. Goleman (1998b) and Ravi (2001) call it the sine qua non of leadership, seeing it as the indispensable condition or requirement of leadership.

## 1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The role of emotions in the leadership process is not considered very often in leadership literature. This relative neglect is not a surprise, as organisational literature has been dominated by a cognitive orientation, with feelings being either ignored or seen as something that hinders logical thinking and effective decision making (Albrow, cited in George, 2000, p. 1028). McDowelle agrees with this by asserting that most people believe that “thought is most appropriate when not clouded by emotions, and that strong emotions make it difficult to think straight” (cited in Macaleer & Shannon, 2002, p. 10). Therefore, it is clear that leadership research has not adequately considered the impact of leaders’ emotions on their effectiveness as leaders.

With the prevalent focus on emotional intelligence, researchers have intentionally made important endeavours toward understanding its character, constructs, determinants, developmental path, and means of modification. Popular interest notwithstanding, scientific studies of a clearly identified construct of emotional intelligence are not found very often (Matthews et al., 2002), and extreme claims have been made specifically regarding the influence of emotional intelligence on leadership. In one of his studies, Goleman claimed that emotional intelligence accounts for close to ninety percent of leadership success (1998a). Various researchers agree with Goleman that leaders with high emotional intelligence are better able to manage their own and their followers’ emotions to facilitate performance more effectively (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003; Book, 2004; Boyatzis, 2004; Gardner & Stough, 2002; George, 2000; Macaleer & Shannon, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001; Vitello-Cicciu, 2003; Weissman, 2003). However, exactly how, and to what extent emotional intelligence accounts for effective leadership is uncertain. Therefore, despite much interest in relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership, there is little scientific research that explicitly examines this relationship. Popular claims regarding the extent to which emotional intelligence accounts for effective leadership can be misleading

(Palmer et al., 2001), and these findings are of little scientific value (Matthews et al., 2002). These claims have been criticised as being vague from a statistical perspective, highly ambiguous and not backed by any scientific facts (Antonakis, 2004). The media consideration devoted to the topic often considers findings from these fields in an uncertain way, rather than dealing directly and scientifically with the topic as defined by its constructs (Matthews et al., 2002). Riggio, Murphy and Pirozzolo (2002) believe that it will no longer be sufficient to say that a leadership position requires a high level of emotional intelligence; one will also have to specify the specific competencies or skills required by the position. This study will therefore aim to determine the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership, and more specifically, to establish what emotional intelligence competencies are necessary for effective leadership.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

#### **1.3.1 MAIN OBJECTIVE**

The main objective of this study is to develop and empirically test a structural model that explicates the nature of the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership. The aim is therefore to make use of a scientific research methodology in order to determine the validity of the extreme popular claims regarding the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership.

#### **1.3.2 THEORETICAL OBJECTIVE**

The theoretical objective of this study is to do a thorough literature study on the concepts of emotional intelligence and leadership, in order to examine the relationship between the constructs of emotional intelligence and leadership by means of logical reasoning. The aim is therefore to make use of sound theoretical research and logical reasoning to develop a structural model indicating the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership.

### 1.3.3 EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVE

The empirical objective of this study is to make use of explanatory research methodology to test specific hypotheses on the causal linkages between emotional intelligence and leadership. The aim is therefore to develop and empirically test a structural model which reflects the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. The research study will be conducted at a major financial institution in South Africa. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5-45 (Bass & Avolio, 1995), adapted by Engelbrecht (2001, personal communication) and the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) (Rahim & Minors, 2003) questionnaire, which measure leadership and emotional intelligence respectively, will be the instruments used to determine the correlations between the two constructs.

The following sub-objectives can be set:

- The development of a structural model to indicate the sub-correlations between the constructs of emotional intelligence and leadership.
- The development of a structural model to indicate the interdependent correlations between the constructs of emotional intelligence.
- To add to existing knowledge by determining which constructs of emotional intelligence are the most accurate predictors for effective leadership.
- By drawing on the outcomes of the previous objective, to generate criteria for the effective recruitment, selection, training and development of leaders.

## 1.4 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

This study is structured as follows:

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the concept of leadership, with a strong focus on transformational leadership, as the main focus will be on transformational leadership in the remainder of the study.

Chapter 3 provides an overview of the concept of emotional intelligence. The chapter will reflect on different models of emotional intelligence.

Chapter 4 integrates the previous two chapters by providing an overview of primal leadership: a term used to describe the utilisation of the power of emotional intelligence in leadership.

Chapter 5 provides more information regarding the research design, the sample, the measuring instruments that were used and the statistical analysis.

Chapter 6 reveals the data analysis and results of the study.

Chapter 7 offers the final conclusions and some suggestions for further research.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **LITERATURE OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to define the constructs of leadership, transformational leadership and transactional leadership. As is evident from the leadership literature, there is a lot of ambiguity in the definition of leadership. Therefore, this chapter will investigate the subject of leadership by drawing on the most prevalent theories regarding leadership.

#### **2.2 LEADERSHIP**

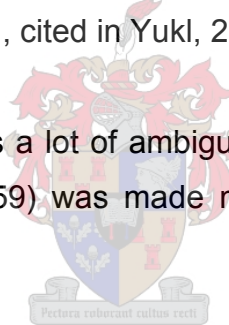
The word leadership is a sophisticated, modern concept. In earlier times, words meaning “head of state”, “military commander”, “prince”, “proconsul”, “chief”, or “king” were familiar in most societies; these words differentiated the ruler from the other members of society. A preoccupation with leadership, as opposed to headship based on birthright or appointment, occurred primarily in countries with an Anglo-Saxon heritage. Scientific research on the topic did, however, not begin until the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Yukl, 2002).

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Bass, 1990). To illustrate the multiplicity of leadership definitions, Yukl (2002, p. 3) quotes representative definitions over the last half a century as follows:

- ❑ Leadership is “the behavior of an individual...directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal” (Hemphill & Coons, cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).

- ❑ Leadership is “a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose” (Jacobs & Jaques, cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).
- ❑ Leadership is about “articulating visions, embodying values and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished” (Richards & Engle, cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).
- ❑ Leadership is “the process of influencing the activities of an organised group toward goal achievement” (Rauch & Behling, cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).
- ❑ Leadership is “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization” (Katz & Kahn, cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).
- ❑ Leadership is “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisation...” (House et al., cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 3).

It is therefore clear that there is a lot of ambiguity in the meaning of leadership. An observation by Bennis (1959) was made many years ago, but is still true today:



“Always, it seems, the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. So we have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it...and still the concept is not sufficiently defined” (cited in Yukl, 2002, p. 2).

It is therefore clear that there is no single, globally accepted definition of leadership, and that the definition might depend on the nature of the research or the purpose of the researcher (Yukl, 2002).

## **2.3 TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

As the introduction illustrated, transformational leaders are critical in the introduction and management of change in the workplace in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Transformational leadership seems to be more emotion-based compared to transactional leadership and involves heightened emotional levels. This might be because of the charismatic element involved in transformational leadership. Literature agrees on the fact that transformational leadership and charismatic leadership are closely intertwined (Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Gibson et al., 2000). Charismatic leadership theory has gradually advanced into transformational leadership theory and therefore transformational leadership can be seen as an extended version of charismatic leadership. Transformational leaders are charismatic in that they articulate a persuasive vision and form close relationships with followers, while charismatic leaders do so in order to achieve their own needs and goals (Hughes, Ginnet & Curphy, cited in Krafft, 2002, p. 10). It is predicted that there will be a stronger relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership than between emotional intelligence and transactional leadership (Palmer et al., 2001). Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the focus will remain on transformational leadership. It should be kept in mind, however, that transformational leadership cannot be effective if it stands alone. As Tosi (1982) correctly notes, supporting most successful charismatic/transformational leaders is their ability to effectively manage, by transacting with followers, the day-to-day routine events that obstruct most leaders' schedules (cited in Hunt, Baliga, Dachler & Schriesheim, 1988, p. 33). Different models of transformational leadership will consequently be discussed (adapted from Krafft, 2002).

### **2.3.1 BASS & AVOLIO**

This model attempts to explain how leaders draw the attention of their subordinates to an idealised goal and inspire them to reach beyond their grasp to achieve that goal. The original formulation of the theory (Bass, 1985) included

three types of transformational behaviour: idealised influence (or charisma), intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. A revision of the theory added another transformational behaviour, namely inspirational motivation (Bass & Avolio, cited in Yukl 2002, p. 254).

*Idealised influence* refers to the behaviour of leaders that result in their being role models for their followers. These leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them. One of the things the leader does to earn this recognition is considering the needs of others over his personal needs. The leader shares risks with the followers and is consistent rather than random. This leader displays strong ethical principles and high standards of moral conduct, and can therefore be trusted to do the right thing. He or she uses power only when needed and will not abuse their power for personal gain.

*Inspirational motivation* refers to the behaviour of leaders that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. This leader displays optimism and enthusiasm, and he arouses team spirit. He ensures his followers' involvement by envisioning attractive future states. The leader creates clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrates his own commitment to the goals and shared vision.

*Intellectual stimulation* refers to the way in which leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing challenges, and approaching old situations in original or different ways. Innovation is encouraged. The leader does not criticize individual members' mistakes in the public. Original ideas and innovative problem solutions are requested from followers, who are included in the process of problem identification and problem solving. Followers are encouraged to try new

approaches, and if their ideas differ from the leaders' ideas, they are not criticized for it.

*Individualised consideration* is reflected when a leader pays special attention to each individual's needs for self-actualisation, growth and performance by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to grow and reach higher levels of potential. This leader is a very good listener. He delegates tasks as a technique of developing followers. These delegated tasks are then monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to measure the progress. Ideally, it is done in such a way that followers do not feel they are being checked on (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

### **2.3.2 BENNIS & NANUS**

Bennis and Nanus (1985) define transformational leadership as leaders who can form and elevate the motives and goals of followers, and turn them into agents of change. They believe that transformational leadership achieves significant change that reflects the communal interests of both leaders and followers, and that it gathers the whole team's efforts in pursuit of a common goal. Their transformational leadership theory is based on how organisations should adjust to the ever-changing external environment, and is based on a study that concentrated on leaders directing the new style. Their results indicated that change is brought about by leaders who embody the following four strategies: attention through vision, meaning through communication, trust through positioning, and the deployment of self through positive self-regard and the Wallenda factor (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

Management of *attention through vision* is the creating of focus. These leaders all have an agenda and clearly formulated goals, and they are very much results-oriented. Their visions or intentions are convincing and draw people toward them, and seem to bring a confidence on the part of the followers that instils in

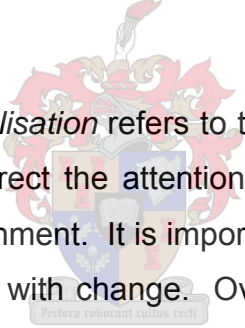
them a belief that they are capable of performing what is necessary to achieve the goals. The leader's vision transforms the purpose into action. Another important factor in leadership is the capacity to influence and *communicate meaning* for the members of a group or organisation. Every successful leader is aware that an organisation functions according to shared meanings that define roles, responsibilities and authority. This leader's communication creates meaning for people by establishing the design that interprets situations, so that the actions of employees are guided by the way the leader defines the reality. The management of *trust through positioning* is another important strategy of leaders. Trust is the glue that makes it possible for organisations to work, and it implies accountability, predictability and credibility. Positioning implies that a leader is constant, and that he or she creates, challenge and changes. Trust through positioning can only be achieved when a leader acts congruently with his or her vision. The *deployment of self through positive self-regard* is the final strategy in this model. In order to reach a positive self-regard, leaders need to recognise their strengths, be honest and compensate for their weaknesses. Bennis and Nanus (1985) found the most astonishing results of a positive self-regard. These leaders induced positive other-regard in their followers. Positive self-regard seems to apply its force by creating in others a sense of confidence and high expectations, not very different from the legendary Pygmalion effect. The Pygmalion effect is the term used to describe how people perform in ways that are consistent with the expectations they have picked up from their leaders. The deployment of self through the Wallenda factor refers to leaders' response to failure. Like Karl Wallenda, the great tightrope aerialist – whose life was at stake each time he walked the tightrope – these leaders put all their energies into their mission, and they simply do not think about or even use the word failure. They continuously improve the knowledge gained through past failures and successes.

Bennis and Nanus' focus on how leaders shape and raise their followers' motives and goals through change is clearly both significant and relevant in the fast-

changing 21<sup>st</sup> century (Bennis & Nanus, 1985), and it can be used advantageously by leaders that need to implement transformational strategies.

### 2.3.3 TICHY & DEVANNA

Tichy and Devanna (1990) believe that leadership “is a behavioural process that is systematic, consisting of purposeful and organised search for changes, systematic analysis, and the capacity to move resources from areas of lesser to greater productivity” (Tichy & Devanna, 1990, p. xii). They conducted a study with CEO’s in which they tried to identify the processes that occur when leaders transform organisations. Based on these results, they see corporate transformation as a three-step strategy that entails revitalisation and recognising the need for change, the creation of a new vision, and the institutionalisation of change.



*Recognising the need for revitalisation* refers to the challenges the leader meets when he or she attempts to direct the attention of the organisation to growing threats from the external environment. It is important for transformational leaders to understand how people deal with change. Overcoming resistance to change is much more than just giving orders that things have changed. People must be given a way to work out the psychological change of closing off what has been and taking up new beginnings. *Creating a new vision* involves the leader’s attempts to focus the organisation’s attention on a vision of the future that is stimulating and encouraging. *Institutionalising change* is the final strategy where the leader seeks to institutionalise the transformation so that it will survive in a specified position. This involves the institution of a new culture that is in line with the revitalised organisation (Tichy & Devanna, 1990).

Tichy and Devanna provide a model that shows that transformational leadership can be thought about and acted on within a framework that is easy to understand. They do not see true leadership as a talent that is only available to

a few selected individuals. Rather, they see it as an everyday way of performing that is available to all individuals. Their model therefore addresses the intricacy of change by empowering leaders with a set of conventional steps to enhance competitive advantage (Tichy & Devanna, 1990).

### 2.3.4 KOUZES & POSNER

*The leadership challenge* was a research project conducted by Kouzes and Posner (1987) to specify what leaders did when they did their personal best at leading others. From an investigation of the personal best cases, a model of leadership was developed. This model reflects five fundamental principles that enable leaders to get extraordinary things done. When they were performing at their best, the leaders in the study challenged the process, inspired a shared vision, enabled others to act, modelled the way and encouraged the heart.

Although the unique competencies of a person may fit the needs of the moment, those who lead others to improved performance *seek challenge*. All the cases collected about leadership personal best involved some kind of challenge. Leaders need to be creative and take risks. Kouzes and Posner stated that an individual needs to be brave enough to fail as a leader. This argument was also found in the theory of Bennis and Nanus (1985), which was discussed earlier. The job of a leader is to *create a vision*. The vision is the force that directs people to the future. But leaders also encourage a shared vision. They encourage followers to reach for their dreams and hopes and assist them to see the exciting possibilities that the future holds. This can only be achieved if leaders are passionate and enthusiastic about the vision of their group. Leaders can also only achieve success by *enabling others to act*. Commendable leaders solicit the support and input of all those who must help to achieve the vision. These followers are empowered, and through this they take responsibility and feel a sense of ownership. *Modelling the way* is the process in which the leader models the behaviour that he or she wishes to elicit from the followers. These

leaders need to be clear on their business beliefs and principles, so that they can lead by example. Leaders must also *encourage the heart* of their followers to carry on and persist in the face of threats or failures. These leaders give ample recognition to their followers for their accomplishments, and through this provide encouragement to them (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Kouzes and Posner have further elaborated on this subject in a recent publication, called “Encouraging the Heart.” In this book, they convey what they believe to be the key to exemplary leadership: giving recognition to followers and acknowledging exceptional performance (Kouzes & Posner, 1999).

Like Tichy and Devanna (1990), Kouzes and Posner (1987) believe that leadership is a visible, learnable set of practices or steps, and not something mystical that can only be understood by a selected few.

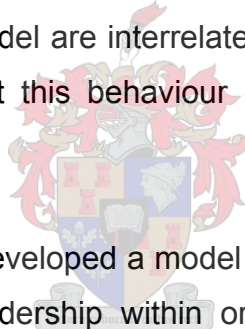
### 2.3.5 CONGER & KANUNGO

Most researchers agree that the two formulations of charismatic and transformational leadership in the organisational context are highly complementary and study the same phenomenon only from different vantage points (Conger & Kanungo, 1994). The charismatic behaviour that is discussed below is indicative of and closely intertwined with transformational leadership, and is therefore included in the discussion.

Conger (1989) defines charismatic leaders as change agents who are dissatisfied with the status quo, and this dissatisfaction elevates restlessness within the charismatic leader. He developed a four-stage model for charismatic leadership by comparing a group of charismatic leaders with a group of non-charismatic leaders.

In the first stage, charismatic leaders *sense opportunity and formulate a vision*. The leader identifies unexploited opportunities and inadequacies in the present

situation. He remains sensitive to followers' needs, and when opportunities are identified, an idealised strategic vision is formulated. The second stage involves an *articulation of the vision*. Here, charismatic leaders can be distinct from other leaders in their profound sense of strategic vision. The leader expresses the status quo as undesirable and holds the vision as the most attractive alternative. He or she will also articulate a motivation to lead the followers. This motivation will include words reflecting self-assurance, passion, competence, and dedication to the vision. The third stage involves the *building of trust in the vision*. The leader builds trust through success, capability, personal risk-taking, self-sacrifice, and unconventional behaviour. In this stage, the leader must empower his followers so that they can take ownership of the opportunity. In the last stage, the *vision is achieved*. Here the leader demonstrates the means to achieve the vision through modelling and unconventional tactics. Conger (1989) believes that these four steps in this model are interrelated, and he calls it a constellation of behaviour. He believes that this behaviour can successfully transform any organisation.



Conger and Kanungo (1994) developed a model that identifies some behavioural dimensions of charismatic leadership within organisations. According to the model, charismatic leadership is an attribution based on followers' perceptions of their leader's behaviour. The leader's observed behaviour is interpreted by subordinates as expressions of charisma in the same way that a leader's behaviour mirrors that individual's participative, people and task orientations. In stage one, the *environmental assessment* stage, the model distinguishes between charismatic leadership and other leadership roles by followers' perception of the leader's desire to change the status quo and by a sensitivity to external opportunities, restrictions and followers' needs. In stage two, *vision formulation* stage, the followers' perception of the leader's formulation of a common future vision and the effective articulation of this vision in an inspirational manner distinguishes the charismatic leader from other leadership roles. Finally, in stage three, the *implementation* stage, leaders who are

perceived as charismatic are seen to be engaging in admirable acts that subordinates interpret as involving great personal risk and sacrifice. Leaders in the charismatic leadership role are seen as trustworthy and are seen to make use of revolutionary and original means for achieving their vision. A reliable and valid questionnaire was developed that measures the perceived behavioural attributes identified by the Conger-Kanungo model (Conger & Kanungo, 1994).

### 2.3.6 SASHKIN & FULMER

Sashkin and Fulmer (1988) identified five specific executive leadership behaviours that include the following: focusing attention, taking risks, communicating skilfully, demonstrating consistency and expressing active concern.

*Attention must be focused* refers to the concentration of leaders on specific issues of anxiety. The leader concentrates on these key issues of anxiety and gets the participation of others in the planning and problem-solving process. *Calculated risks must be taken* in ways that create opportunities for others to participate. The leader must also *communicate skilfully*, with understanding and empathy; ensuring that effective two-way communication takes place through the use of active listening and feedback skills. *Consistency and trustworthiness must be demonstrated* by the leader's behaviour. He or she must display honesty and reliability by communicating openly and must keep with positions taken earlier and commitments made. The leader must also *express an active concern* for people and him or herself, thus modelling self-regard, and highlight feelings of self-worth in others.

Sashkin also developed an instrument to measure these behaviours, the Leader Behaviour Questionnaire (LBQ). The LBQ includes a separate measure of charismatic affect toward the leader. A positive relationship was found between the incidence of the five leadership behaviours and the extent to which the leader was seen to be charismatic (Sashkin, 1988).

## 2.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the main characteristics and different models of transformational leadership have been highlighted. The next chapter will investigate the construct of emotional intelligence.



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **LITERATURE OVERVIEW OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to define the construct of emotional intelligence, by representing different models, theories and definitions of emotional intelligence.

#### **3.2 ORIGIN OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

Emotional intelligence is a relatively new construct that complements the familiar notion of cognitive intelligence (commonly measured as IQ). Emotional intelligence can be seen as the intelligence that determines how people interact with themselves and others, and what their potential for success is, beyond their level of cognitive intelligence. Broadly speaking, emotional intelligence deals with the emotional, social, personal and survival dimensions of intelligence, which are often more important for daily performance than the more cognitive aspects of intelligence (Bar-On, 1997; Academy Personal, Executive and Life Coaching, "undated"). However, a fundamental problem and point of criticism is that definitions of emotional intelligence often appear over-inclusive, touching on existing constructs that mirror a mystifying range of theoretical ideas (Matthews et al., 2002).

Emotional intelligence has originated from the early theories of intelligences. General intelligence refers to "a person's overall capacity for adaptation through effective cognition and information processing" (Matthews et al., 2002, p. 59). It can be seen as a universal competence or ability of the mind, or of higher-order facilities such as comprehending, reasoning, problem-solving, and learning, especially of multifaceted material. However, the concept of general intelligence

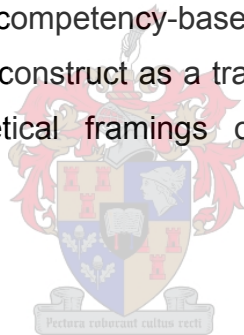
says little about the more specific competencies that comprise it. Thus, psychologists have endeavoured to divide the domain of intelligence into more manageable parts, including less narrow categories of intelligence or more specific abilities (Gardner, cited in Stanford, 2003, p. 8). When psychologists began to write about intelligence, they focused on the cognitive aspects. However, there were researchers who recognised early on that the non-cognitive aspects were also noteworthy. As early as 1940, David Wechsler referred to “non-intellective” elements, by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors. He proposed that these non-intellective abilities are vital for predicting one’s ability to succeed in life. Robert Thorndike also researched these non-intellective abilities, which he called “social intelligence” in the late thirties (cited in Ravi, 2001, p. 2). In 1983, this research received renewed attention when Howard Gardner began to write about “multiple intelligence” (Gardner, 1983). He challenged the notion that intelligence is something that can be objectively measured and reduced to a single quotient (cited in Stanford, 2003 p. 80). He insisted that our culture has defined intelligence too narrowly, and proposed the existence of at least seven basic intelligences, and since then an eighth has been added. He therefore believed in multiple intelligences, which included verbal/linguistic intelligence, logical/mathematical intelligence, visual/spatial intelligence, bodily/kinaesthetic intelligence, musical/rhythmic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence and naturalistic/existential intelligence (Gardner, 1983; Gardner, 1993). Gardner proposed that interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence are as important as the traditional intelligence typically measured by IQ. Therefore it is clear that there was a long history of research on the role of non-cognitive factors in helping people to succeed in both life and the workplace. The work on emotional intelligence builds on this groundwork (Ravi, 2001).

Cooper and Sawaf (1997, p. xiii) define emotional intelligence as “the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.”

Weisinger (1998, p. xvi) defines emotional intelligence as “the intelligent use of emotions. In this way you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance your results.”

### 3.3 DIFFERENT MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

From the literature there appears to be a lot of debate about what constitutes the domain of emotional intelligence, about terminology used to describe the construct and about the measurement of the construct. There is also a strong debate about the theoretical framing of the construct (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004). Salovey and Mayer (1990) view emotional intelligence as an ability, Goleman (1998a) sees the construct as competency-based, and others, like Bar-On (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) define the construct as a trait. Following is a brief overview of the main different theoretical framings of the construct of emotional intelligence.



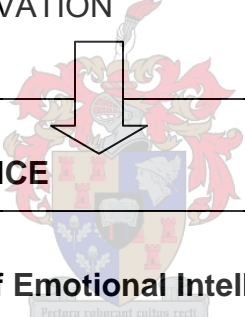
#### 3.3.1 BAR-ON

Bar-On, a clinical psychologist, has done research since 1980 in more than 12 countries to develop a cross-cultural approach to describing and measuring the emotional, personal and social components of intelligent behaviour. He started his research by looking at why some individuals have greater emotional well-being and greater success than others. Further, he was equally interested in why some individuals with proven superior intellectual abilities seemed to fail in life. He coined the term ‘EQ’ (Emotional Quotient) in 1985 to describe his approach to assessing this aspect of general intelligence. In defining emotional intelligence, Bar-On described this type of intelligence as the collection of abilities, competencies and skills representing the collection of knowledge used to cope effectively with life. This model does not determine one’s success, but

rather one's potential for success, whether professional or personal (cited in Dann, 2001, p. 10).

Bar-On depicts emotional intelligence by dividing it into five realms or sections, and 15 subsections. As indicated in fig 3.1, he proposes that if an individual develops his or her emotional intelligence competencies following the flow from 1 to 6, then he or she will achieve greater success in life than an equivalent person of the same IQ (cited in Dan, 2001, p. 11).

1. INTRAPERSONAL	2. INTERPERSONAL
3. ADAPTABILITY	4. STRESS MANAGEMENT
5. GENERAL MOOD & MOTIVATION	
6. EFFECTIVE PERFORMANCE	



**Figure 3.1: Bar-On's model of Emotional Intelligence**

(cited in Dann, 2001, p. 11)

Following is a short discussion of the 5 sections and 15 subsections.

### **3.3.1.1 The Intrapersonal Realm**

This realm determines an individual's competence in knowing and identifying his feelings. It determines how good his self-image is and how he feels about what he is doing in life. An individual who is successful in this area is able to express his feelings, live and work independently, feel powerful and has confidence in expressing his ideas or values (Stein, 2001).

### *Emotional self-awareness*

This subscale of the intrapersonal realm indicates the ability of an individual to recognise feelings and to discriminate between them. It also indicates the extent to which the individual knows what he is feeling, why he is feeling it and what caused the feeling (Stein, 2001).

### *Assertiveness*

This subscale indicates an individual's ability to articulate his feelings, thoughts and beliefs and to defend his rights in a non-destructive manner (Bar-On, 1996). Assertiveness is composed of three basic components: (1) the ability to express feelings, (2) the ability to express beliefs and thoughts explicitly, and (3) the ability to stand up for personal rights. Assertive people are not over-controlled or shy, nor are they aggressive or abusive, but they are able to express their feelings (Stein, 2001).

### *Independence*

An individual who is independent is free of emotional dependency, and is able to be self-directed and self-controlled in his thinking and actions. Independent individuals are able to function autonomously – they do not need others in order to satisfy their emotional needs (Stein, 2001).

### *Self-Regard*

This subscale indicates the ability to respect and accept yourself as basically good. To respect yourself is essentially to like the way you are. Self-regard refers to the ability to appreciate your apparent positive characteristics and possibilities as well as to accept your negative characteristics and limitations and still feel good about yourself. People with good self-regard feel fulfilled and satisfied with themselves (Stein, 2001).

### *Self-actualisation*

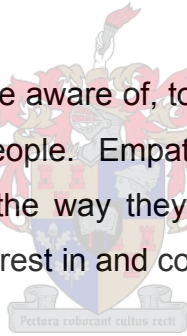
Self-actualisation is the ability to realise your potential capabilities, and is indicated by becoming involved in pursuits that lead to a meaningful and rich life. Self-actualisation is an ongoing, dynamic process of striving toward the maximum development of your abilities and talents, of persistently trying to do your best and to improve yourself (Stein, 2001).

#### **3.3.1.2 The Interpersonal Realm**

This realm of emotional intelligence concerns what are known as people skills. Individuals who function well in this area tend to be responsible and dependable, and they understand and interact well with others in different situations. These individuals inspire trust and are good team players (Stein, 2001).

### *Empathy*

Empathy indicates the ability to be aware of, to understand and to appreciate the feelings and thoughts of other people. Empathy is to be sensitive to what, how and why people feel and think the way they do. Empathetic individuals care about other people and show interest in and concern for them (Stein, 2001).



### *Social Responsibility*

This subscale indicates an ability or tendency to demonstrate that you are a co-operative, contributing and helpful member of your social group or team. It involves acting in a responsible manner, even when you might not benefit personally, doing things with and for others, accepting others, acting in accordance with your conscience and upholding social rules (Stein, 2001).

### *Interpersonal relationships*

Excellence in this subscale includes the ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships. These relationships are characterised by intimacy and by giving and receiving affection. This skill is characterised by sensitivity toward

others, and is associated with the ability to feel at ease and comfortable in social relations (Stein, 2001).

### **3.3.1.3 The Adaptability Realm**

This realm of emotional intelligence concerns an individual's ability to assess and respond to a wide range of difficult situations. Success in this area means that the individual can seize problems and devise effective solutions, deal with and resolve family issues and meet conflicts within his social group and in the workplace (Stein, 2001).

#### *Problem-solving*

Problem-solving is the ability to identify and define problems and to address these problems by generating and implementing potentially effective solutions. It is also associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical and systematic in persevering and approaching problems. Problem-solving is also related to a desire to do your best and to confront your problems, rather than avoid them (Stein, 2001).



#### *Reality Testing*

Reality Testing refers to the ability to assess the association between what is experienced and what objectively exists. It involves “tuning in” to the immediate situation. It also refers to the capacity to see things objectively, the way they are, rather than the way we wish or fear them to be. This component is associated with a lack of withdrawal from the outside world, a tuning in to the immediate situation and lucidity in perception and thought processes (Stein, 2001).

#### *Flexibility*

Flexible individuals are able to adjust their emotions, thoughts and behaviour to changing circumstances and conditions. They are not rigid, but agile, synergistic and capable of reacting to change. These individuals are open to and tolerant of different ideas, orientations, ways and practices (Stein, 2001).

#### **3.3.1.4 Stress Management Realm**

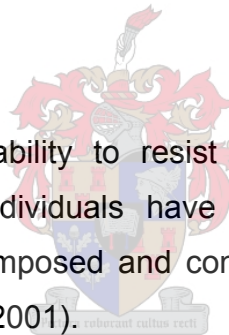
This realm of emotional intelligence concerns an individual's ability to withstand stress without giving in, falling apart or losing control. Success in this area means that the individual is usually calm, rarely impulsive and copes well under pressure (Stein, 2001).

##### *Stress Tolerance*

Stress Tolerance refers to the ability to withstand adverse events and stressful circumstances without falling apart by actively and positively coping with stress. These individuals have a repertoire of suitable responses to stressful situations. It is also associated with the capacity to be relaxed and composed and to calmly face teething troubles without getting carried away by strong emotions (Stein, 2001).

##### *Impulse Control*

This subscale concerns the ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act. These individuals have a capacity for accepting their aggressive impulses, being composed and controlling aggression, hostility and irresponsible behaviour (Stein, 2001).



#### **3.3.1.5 General Mood Realm**

This realm of emotional intelligence concerns an individual's outlook on life, his ability to enjoy himself and others and his overall feelings of contentment or dissatisfaction (Stein, 2001).

##### *Happiness*

Happiness refers to the ability to feel satisfied with your life, to enjoy yourself and others and to have fun. This is a combination of self-satisfaction, general contentment and the ability to take pleasure in life. Happiness is also associated with a general feeling of cheerfulness and enthusiasm (Stein, 2001).

### *Optimism*

This subscale indicates the ability to look at the brighter side of life and to maintain a positive attitude even in the face of adversity. It is a positive approach to daily living, and assumes a measure of hope in an individual's approach to life (Stein, 2001). Optimism is a predisposition to seeing the proverbial glass half full, instead of half-empty.

### **3.3.2 SALOVEY AND MAYER**

Even though emotional intelligence has its roots in the earlier research of “social intelligences” (Thorndike, 1920), it was Salovey and Mayer (1990) that first termed the construct as emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was proposed as a general framework that enables us to identify specific skills needed to understand and experience emotions more adaptively. It is defined as the form of social intelligence that involves the “ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to direct one's thinking and actions” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 189). This definition was revised later and reads as follows:



“Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/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” (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

Mayer and Salovey's conceptualisation of emotional intelligence include four major components, namely the appraisal and expression of emotion, the use of emotion to enhance cognitive processes and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and regulation of emotion to promote growth. Each of these components will be described respectively.

### **3.3.2.1 Perception, Appraisal, and Expression of Emotion**

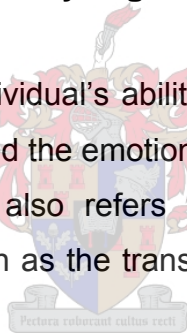
This component includes the ability to recognise emotion in one's physical states, feelings and thoughts; the ability to identify emotions in other people; the ability to express emotions appropriately, and also the ability to differentiate between accurate and inaccurate expressions of feelings.

### **3.3.2.2 Emotional facilitation of thinking**

This component refers to the way in which an individual's emotions prioritise his thinking by guiding attention to key facts. It also refers to the way emotional states differentially stimulate particular problem approaches, for example when joy facilitates inductive reasoning and innovation.

### **3.3.2.3 Understanding and analysing emotions; employing emotional knowledge**

This component indicates an individual's ability to label emotions and recognise associations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving. It also refers to the ability to recognise likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction, or from anger to shame.

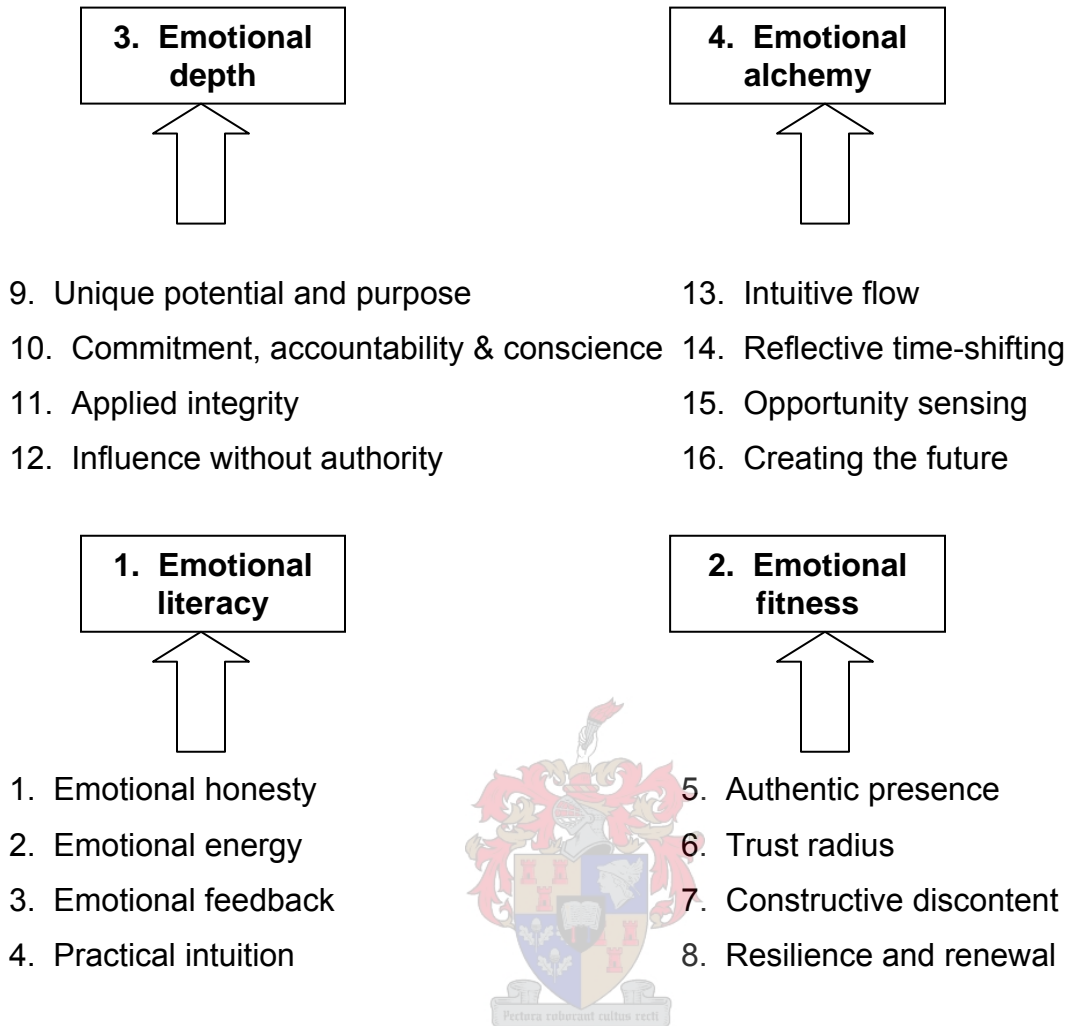


### **3.3.2.4 Reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth**

This component refers to an individual's ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasing and those that are unpleasant. This also refers to the ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without holding back or exaggerating information that may be conveyed by them (Mayer and Salovey, 1997).

### 3.3.3 COOPER & SAWAF'S FOUR CORNERSTONE MODEL

This model was designed to encourage emotional intelligence in an individual's occupation and life by moving emotional intelligence out of the realm of psychological and philosophical theories and into the realm of knowing, exploration and application. This model, which bases emotional intelligence on four cornerstones, begins with the cornerstone of *emotional literacy*, which builds a locus of personal worth and confidence through emotional integrity, energy, awareness, feedback, intuition, conscientiousness and connection. *Emotional fitness* is the second cornerstone, and it builds an individual's authenticity, believability and resilience by increasing his or her circle of trust and capacity for listening, managing disagreements, and making the most of constructive dissatisfaction. The third cornerstone is *emotional depth*, where the individual investigates ways to align his life with his destiny and to support this with honesty, dedication, and responsibility, which, in turn, increase his influence without authority. From this the individual progresses to the fourth cornerstone, *emotional alchemy*, through which his creative instincts and capacity to flow with problems and pressures are extended. The individual also contends for the future by structuring his capacities to discern more easily the widest range of concealed solutions and promising opportunities (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). Please see figure 3.2 for an outline of the four cornerstone model of Cooper and Sawaf (1997).



**Figure 3.2. Cooper & Sawaf's Four Cornerstone Model of Emotional Intelligence**

(Cooper & Sawaf, 1997, p. xxix)

### 3.3.4 GOLEMAN'S EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE FRAMEWORK

Daniel Goleman (1995, p. 34) defined emotional intelligence as “the ability to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathise and to hope.” He goes further to define an emotional competence as a learned capacity based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance. He claimed that an individual’s

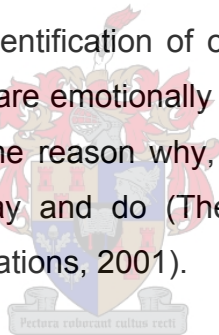
emotional intelligence determines his potential for learning the practical skills that are based on five elements: self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy and adeptness in relationships. An individual's emotional competence subsequently shows how much of that potential he has translated into practical capabilities (Goleman, 1998a). Following is a brief overview of Goleman's emotional competence framework:

### **3.3.4.1 Self-Awareness**

Self-awareness is defined as "knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources, and intuitions" (Goleman, 1998a, p. 26). Self-awareness includes the following three competencies:

#### *Emotional awareness*

This competence involves the identification of one's emotions and their effects (Goleman, 1998a). People who are emotionally aware are able to recognise the emotions they are feeling and the reason why, and they realise links between their feelings and what they say and do (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).



#### *Accurate self-assessment*

This competence involves having a thorough knowledge about one's strengths and limits. People with this competence know and are conscious of their strengths and weaknesses, they are open to feedback and are able to show a sense of humour and perspective about themselves (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).

#### *Self-confidence*

Self-confidence entails a confidence about one's self-worth and abilities. People with this competence are generally self-assured, they can voice their view in the open even if it is unpopular, and they are able to make decisions even if under

pressures or in the presence of uncertainties (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).

### **3.3.4.2 Self-Regulation**

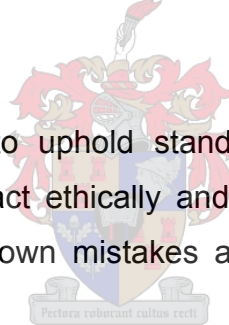
Self-regulation is the ability to “manage one’s internal states, impulses, and resources” (Goleman, 1998a, p. 26). It refers to an ability to deny an impulse in the service of an objective (Goleman, 1995). Self-regulation includes the following five competencies:

#### *Self-control*

This competency involves the ability to manage distressing emotions and impulses. People with this competency manage their feelings and emotions well, stay in control of themselves and think clearly under pressure.

#### *Trustworthiness*

Trustworthiness is an ability to uphold standards of integrity and reliability. People with this competence act ethically and build trust through authenticity. They are open to admit their own mistakes and take tough stands even if it makes them unpopular.



#### *Conscientiousness*

This competence involves the taking of responsibility for personal performance. People with this competence keep their promises and they hold themselves accountable for meeting their objectives. These individuals are organised and cautious in their work.

#### *Adaptability*

Adaptability refers to an individual’s flexibility in managing change. People with this competence handle multiple demands easily, they adapt their responses and tactics to changing circumstances, and they are flexible in how they perceive events.

### *Innovativeness*

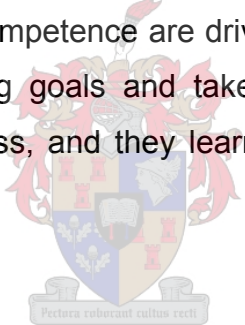
Innovativeness is being comfortable with and receptive to new ideas and information. People with this competence seek out fresh ideas, entertain innovative solutions to problems, generate original ideas and take fresh perspectives and risks in their philosophy (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).

### **3.3.4.3 Self-Motivation**

Self-motivation embraces emotional tendencies that guide an individual to reach his goals (Goleman, 1998a). It involves the following four competencies:

#### *Achievement drive*

This competence refers to an individual's drive to improve or meet a standard of excellence. People with this competence are driven to meet their objectives and standards, they set challenging goals and take calculated risks, they pursue information to reduce vagueness, and they learn how to continuously advance their performance.



#### *Commitment*

Commitment involves the aligning of goals of the group or organisation. People with this competence gladly make personal sacrifices to meet larger organisational goals, find a sense of purpose in the larger assignment, and do active research for ways to fulfil the group's mission.

#### *Initiative*

This competence entails an enthusiasm to act on opportunities. People with this competence are ready to grab hold of opportunities, pursue goals beyond what is required of them, bend the rules where necessary to complete an assignment, and organise others through unusual, innovative endeavours.

### *Optimism*

Optimism refers to persistence in pursuing goals despite barriers and delays. (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001). It means having a strong expectation that things will turn out positively in life, despite setbacks and delays (Goleman, 1995). People with this competence persevere in seeking goals, they operate from belief in success rather than fear of failure, and they see setbacks as due to manageable circumstance rather than a personal imperfection (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).

#### **3.3.4.4 Social competence**

This competence determines how individuals handle relationships (Goleman, 1998a). Social competence entails the following five competencies:

##### *Empathy*

Empathy entails sensing others' feelings and perspective, and actively addressing their fears. People with this competence are attentive to emotional signals and listen well, they show compassion and sympathy to others' perspective and they help other people because of their understanding of their needs and feelings.

##### *Service orientation*

This competence refers to anticipating, identifying and meeting customers' needs. People with this competence can see things from the customer's perspective, they understand customers' needs and they match them to services or products. They look for ways to increase customer's satisfaction and they gladly offer appropriate assistance.

##### *Developing others*

This entails sensing what others need in order to develop and encourage their abilities. People with this competence acknowledge and reward people's

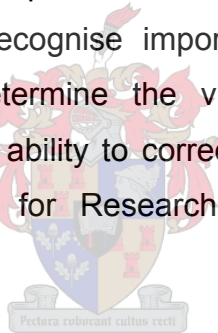
strengths, achievements and development, they offer useful feedback and they mentor and offer assignments that challenge an individual to grow and develop a specific skill.

#### *Leveraging diversity*

This competence refers to cultivating opportunities through diverse people. People with this competence value and relate well to people from different backgrounds and they see diversity as an opportunity. Therefore, they usually create an environment where diverse people can flourish, and at times they will challenge prejudice and narrow-mindedness.

#### *Political awareness*

This entails the reading of a group's emotional cues and power relationships. People with this competence recognise important social networks and they understand the forces that determine the views of clients, customers or opponents. They also have the ability to correctly read situations and realities from outside (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).



### **3.3.4.5 Social skills**

Social skills refer to “an adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others” (Goleman, 1998a, p. 27). This skill involves the following eight competencies:

#### *Influence*

This competence refers to the exercising of effective strategies for persuasion. People with this competence are skilled at influencing others, they fine-tune presentations to appeal to the audience, they use intricate strategies like direct influence to build harmony and support, and they devise dramatic events to successfully make a point.

### *Communication*

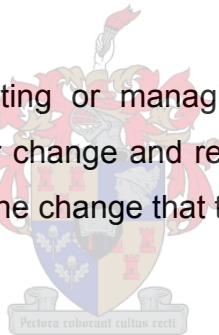
Communication involves sending clear and credible messages. People with this competence are effective in give-and-take and they deal candidly with difficult issues. They are good listeners, they foster open communication and stay open to good as well as bad news.

### *Leadership*

Leadership is the competence used to inspire and guide teams and people. People with this competence express and provoke enthusiasm for a shared vision and they step forward to lead as needed, regardless of position. These people lead by example and guide the performance of others while holding them accountable.

### *Change catalyst*

This competence involves initiating or managing change. People with this competence identify the need for change and remove obstacles, they challenge the status quo, and they portray the change that they expect of others.



### *Conflict management*

This competence refers to negotiating and resolving disagreements. People with this competence handle difficult people and tense situations with discretion and diplomacy, they spot potential conflict and help to mediate the situation, and they encourage open discussion and arrange win-win solutions.

### *Building bonds*

This competence refers to nurturing instrumental relationships. People with this competence promote and preserve extensive informal networks, they seek out relationships that are mutually beneficial, and they maintain personal friendships among work associates.


### *Collaboration and cooperation*

This entails joining with others to achieve a shared goal. People with this competence give attention to relationships while balancing the focus on responsibilities. They collaborate: sharing plans, information and possessions, they promote a friendly cooperative climate, and they spot and nurture opportunities for partnerships.

### *Team capabilities*

This entails creating group synergy in pursuing common goals. People with this competence model team qualities like reverence, co-operation and support and they draw members to participate with enthusiasm. They build team identity and commitment, and they protect the group and its reputation (The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence in Organizations, 2001).

### **3.3.5 FELDMAN**



Feldman sees emotional intelligence, specifically emotionally intelligent leadership, as the growth and application of emotional and social skills to positively influence others. He differentiates between two sets of skills present in emotional intelligence, namely core skills and higher-order skills. The core skills set consists of numerous specific individualised skills: self-awareness and knowing yourself, maintaining control, understanding others, perceiving accurately and communicating with flexibility. The higher-order skill set also contains numerous specific skills: taking responsibility, generating choices, embracing a vision, having valour and demonstrating resolve. Feldman suggested that a combination of the core and higher-order skills leads to effective leadership because emotionally intelligent individuals are aware of others' needs and are able to respond effectively to any situation (Feldman, 1999).

### 3.4 SUMMARY

This chapter studied the different models and theories of emotional intelligence. It is against this background, that the next chapter will investigate the construct of Primal Leadership – The “primal” function of a leader being an emotional one.



## **CHAPTER 4**

### **LITERATURE OVERVIEW OF PRIMAL LEADERSHIP**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

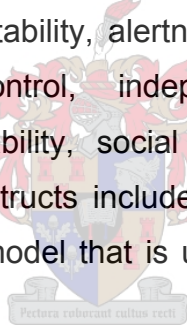
This chapter will draw on the theory of leadership and emotional intelligence discussed in the previous two chapters, to investigate the construct of primal leadership. The theory discussed in this chapter forms the background of the research problem, and this theory will culminate into the formulation of certain hypotheses in the following chapters.

#### **4.2 BACKGROUND**

A good illustration of the relevance of emotion to leadership is provided by the increasing literature on transformational leadership. As discussed in chapter 2, literature suggests that transformational leadership is largely dependent upon the stirring, framing and mobilisation of *emotions*, whereas conventional transactional leadership depends more upon the *cognitions* of subordinates. It is for this reason that the present study focuses on the correlation between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence rather than transactional leadership and emotional intelligence. By arousing emotion and using it for the pursuit of elevated goals, transformational leadership represents a potentially powerful force for change (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). In a climate of uncertainty, leadership becomes more important than ever, because people are searching for a leader who lends an air of certainty or conviction at a time when uncertainties and anxieties threaten to overtake them (Bernhut, 2002). Feldman (1999, p. 7) quotes the following words from Esther Dyson, "As routine is sucked out of our daily work lives, people who can create stability from chaos will be key." Literature generally agrees that leaders with high emotional intelligence manage change more confidently (Feldman, 1999; Goleman, 2004; Noyes, 2001;

Ravi, 2001; Valdes, 2001; Vermeulen, 1999). The opposite also seems to be true. Those low in emotional intelligence change only when forced to, and then unwillingly and with poor grace (Mcbride & Maitland, 2002). To deal with the fast social and scientific change, leaders need the interpersonal competencies included in the emotional intelligence construct: the ability to recognise and react to the emotions and feelings of other people, and the skill to help them to handle and manage their emotions (Schmidt, cited in Tucker, Sojka, Barone & McCarthy, 2000, p. 332).

Different trait models of leadership explored the importance of personality attributes thought to inspire leadership. In a comprehensive review of leadership traits (Bass, 1981), three groups of traits were found to be contributors to leadership effectiveness: intelligence (such as judgment, knowledge, decisiveness); personality (adaptability, alertness, originality, personal integrity, self-confidence, emotional control, independence); and abilities (co-operativeness, popularity, sociability, social participation, diplomacy). It is interesting to note that the constructs included in this trait model overlap to a large extent with the Goleman model that is used for the purpose of this study (Riggio et al., 2002).



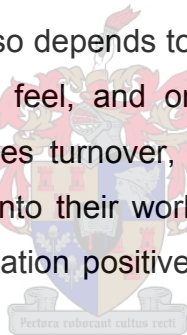
Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) coined the term “Primal Leadership” to refer to leaders who utilise the power of emotional intelligence. They call the emotional task of the leader primal – that is, first – in two senses: it is both the original and the most important act of leadership.

According to Goleman et al. (2002), leaders have always played a primordial emotional role. Throughout history and all cultures, the leader in any human group has always been the one to whom others look for assurance and clarity when facing uncertainty, threats or changing circumstances, or when a task needs to be executed. Therefore, the leader is the one who acts as the group’s emotional guide. Even though this primordial emotional task is largely invisible in

contemporary organisations, it remains one of the leading roles among the many jobs of a leader: it guides the collective emotions in a positive direction and clears the confusion created by toxic emotions (Goleman et al., 2002).

Therefore, in any human team the leader has maximal authority to drive everyone's emotions. Performance can soar if people's emotions are pushed toward the range of enthusiasm, while performance might decline if their emotions are driven toward bitterness and anxiety. This indicates that primal leadership goes beyond ensuring that performance is maintained, as followers also look to a leader for a supportive emotional relationship, commonly known as empathy. All leadership includes this primal dimension, for better or for worse (Goleman et al., 2002).

The climate in an organisation also depends to an extremely large extent on how the leader makes the followers feel, and on the emotional character of the organisation. That, in turn, drives turnover, how much people offer and how much they are prepared to put into their work (Bernhut, 2002). When leaders drive the emotions at an organisation positively, they bring out everyone's best (Dell, 2002).



Therefore, Goleman et al. (2002) concludes that the key to making primal leadership work to everyone's advantage lies in the leadership competencies of emotional intelligence: how leaders manage themselves and their relationships with other people. When leaders learn to live Primal Leadership, they drive the emotions of their followers in the right direction.

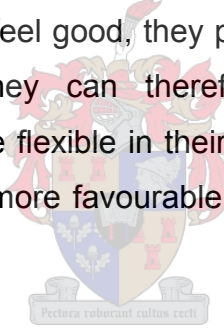
### 4.3 THE NEUROLOGICAL MECHANISM OF PRIMAL LEADERSHIP

The design of the human brain influences a leader's *modus operandi*. Goleman et al. (2002) describe the nature of our emotional centres in terms of open-loop or closed-loop systems. A closed-loop system is not influenced by external influences, but is self-regulating. An open-loop system, however, depends mainly on external influences to manage itself.

This implies that human beings are dependent on connections with other people for their own emotional stability. The open-loop limbic system allows people to emotionally rescue other people by their mere presence – enabling, for example, a mother to calm her crying baby or a visitor to comfort someone in intensive care just by his or her presence.

Goleman et al. (2002) describe the open loop as “interpersonal limbic regulation”, whereby one person sends out signals that can modify hormone levels, cardiovascular function, sleep rhythms, and even immune function inside the body of another person. In all aspects of social life, our physiologies interact, our emotions automatically shift into the index of the person we are with. The open-loop design of the limbic system means that other people can alter our very physiology – and so our emotions. The same effect holds in the organisation, office, or factory; people that work together at work inevitably “catch” feelings from each other, sharing everything from covetousness to concern. The closer and more unified the group, the stronger the sharing of moods, emotional history, and even sensitive subjects. It is the leader, however, who creates and sends the strongest emotional cues. The reason for this is that people take their emotional cues from the top, therefore a domino effect is created that flows throughout the company's emotional climate. The impact of leaders also goes further than what they say: it is also created by what they do. Leaders can give direction in ways that give employees a sense of certainty and direction in their work while advancing flexibility, setting people free to use their own

innovativeness regarding how to get the job done (Goleman et al., 2002). That is why emotional intelligence is so important to a leader. An emotionally intelligent leader can keep an eye on his or her moods through self-awareness, adapt them for the better through self-management, understand their consequences through empathy, and act in ways that enhance followers' moods through social management (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2001). Although emotions and moods have sometimes been seen as trivial, and may seem so from a business point of view, they have important consequences for performing the job. Negative emotions like anxiety and anger powerfully disrupt work by guiding attention away from the task. And distress not only erodes mental abilities, but also makes people less emotionally intelligent. Upset individuals have difficulty reading emotions in other people, and this decreases the basic skill needed for empathy. As a result, social skills are also impaired. The opposite, however, also holds true. When people feel good, they perform at their best and they are more mentally efficient. They can therefore comprehend and process information better and are more flexible in their thinking. Optimistic moods also make people view others in a more favourable or positive light (Goleman et al., 2002).



#### **4.4 SUMMARY**

In this chapter it has become evident that leaders' emotional states and actions do affect how the people they lead will feel and therefore perform. How well leaders manage their moods and affect their followers' moods, then, becomes not just a private or optional matter, but a determining factor in the performance of a business.

## **CHAPTER 5**

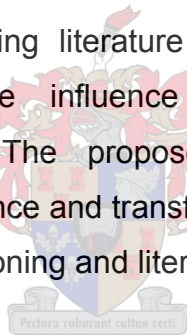
### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The insight that was gathered from the literature review in the preceding chapters will form the foundation of the hypotheses that will be outlined in this chapter. In addition, the research design, sample, measuring instruments and statistical analysis will be outlined in this chapter.

#### **5.2 A PROPOSED STRUCTURAL MODEL**

In accordance with the preceding literature overview, a structural model is hypothesised to establish the influence of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership. The proposed causal paths between the dimensions of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership are founded on the following arguments, reasoning and literature support.



According to Cherniss and Goleman (2001), the dimensions of emotional intelligence are progressively labelled, with self-awareness as the foundation on which all other dimensions build. Stein (2001) agrees with this by stating that self-awareness is a prerequisite for empathy and social skills. He believes that individuals must first be conscious of what they are feeling and the impact these feelings have on others, before they will be successful in building key relationships. It is therefore proposed that self-awareness will be positively linked to social skills, empathy, self-regulation and self-motivation.

It is further believed that there will be a positive causal relationship between self-awareness and idealised influence. A leader high in idealised influence will be respected, admired and trusted to do the right thing (Bass & Avolio, cited in Yukl,

2002, p. 254). It is believed that a leader will need self-awareness in order to put other people's needs above his or her own needs and to gain the respect and trust of his or her followers. Stein (2001) believes that respectful and trustworthy relationships can only be built if an individual is conscious of what he or she is feeling and the impact this has on others.

It is also believed that there will be a positive causal relationship between social skills and idealised influence. Leaders high in idealised influence are endowed by their followers with trust, admiration and respect (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It is believed that a leader will need social skills, especially interpersonal skills, to establish these trustful relationships with his followers. Stein (2001) agrees with this hypothesis, by stating that leaders with good social skills establish trust and function well as part of a team. A positive causal relationship is therefore proposed between social skills and idealised influence.

According to Stein (2001), empathy is being sensitive to what, how and why people feel and think the way they do. Empathetic people care about others and show interest in and concern for them. It is believed that empathetic people, who show the necessary interest, care and concern for others, will be skilled in their interpersonal relationships with others. It is therefore believed that empathy is a necessary ingredient for superior social skills. Cooper and Sawaf (1997, p. 48) agree with this by believing that empathy "connects us with others through the shared language of feelings and experience, one heart to the next, beneath the words, behind the posturing and gestures". They believe that empathy is vital to the link that holds relationships, communities and, ultimately all humanity together (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). Kahn (1993) supports this belief by stating that empathy is one dimension of care-giving that forms close relationships (cited in Riggio et al., 2002, p. 65). A positive causal relationship is therefore hypothesised between empathy and social skills.

When empathetic leaders demonstrate care, interest and concern for their followers, they will simultaneously, inherently, pay special attention to each individual's needs. Empathy allows leaders to read and identify the emotional channels between people and develop them to reach their potential (Goleman et al., 2002). It is therefore hypothesised that there will be a positive causal relationship between empathy and individualised consideration.

Self-regulation is the ability to manage one's feelings, impulses, and resources (Goleman, 1998a). It is believed that a leader that can regulate his or her feelings and impulses will have better interpersonal relationships, as he or she will not allow his or her irritations or frustrations to damage trusting relationships. Cooper and Sawaf (1997) agree with this by believing that consistent impulsiveness gets in the way of close relationships. It is therefore believed that there is a positive causal relationship between self-regulation and social skills.

According to Riggio et al. (2002), social and emotional concerns for other people should be key in predicting individualised consideration. A leader high in individualised consideration acts as mentor to his or her followers, and provides a supportive environment to enable his or her followers to grow and reach their potential. It is believed that a mentor will need social skills to have a successful interpersonal relationship as a mentor with his or her followers. Social skills does not only refers to a close relationship, it refers to a relationship with a purpose: moving people in the right direction, whether that is towards personal growth or enthusiasm about a new project (Goleman et al., 2002). A positive causal relationship is thus proposed between social skills and individualised consideration.

It is clear that there are a lot of similarities between self-motivation and inspirational motivation. Inspirational motivation occurs when leaders encourage and inspire their followers by providing meaning to their efforts. The leaders share with the followers a vision of achieving their goals and communicate the

prospect on how to attain it (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Self-motivation refers to the emotional predispositions that guide the reaching of those goals (Goleman, 1998a). According to Bass and Avolio (1994), enthusiasm and optimism can be observed when a leader displays inspirational motivation. Optimism is also one of the sub-scales of self-motivation. It is therefore believed that there will be a positive causal relationship between self-motivation and inspirational motivation.

The preceding literature survey and hypotheses accrue into a structural model that portrays a schematic representation of hypotheses that have been constructed as an answer to the research problem.

Figure 5.1 portrays the structural model that describes the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.

Let:

$\xi_1$  represent the self-awareness sub-scale of emotional intelligence;

$\eta_5$  represent the self-regulation sub-scale of emotional intelligence;

$\eta_6$  represent the self-motivation sub-scale of emotional intelligence;

$\eta_7$  represent the empathy sub-scale of emotional intelligence;

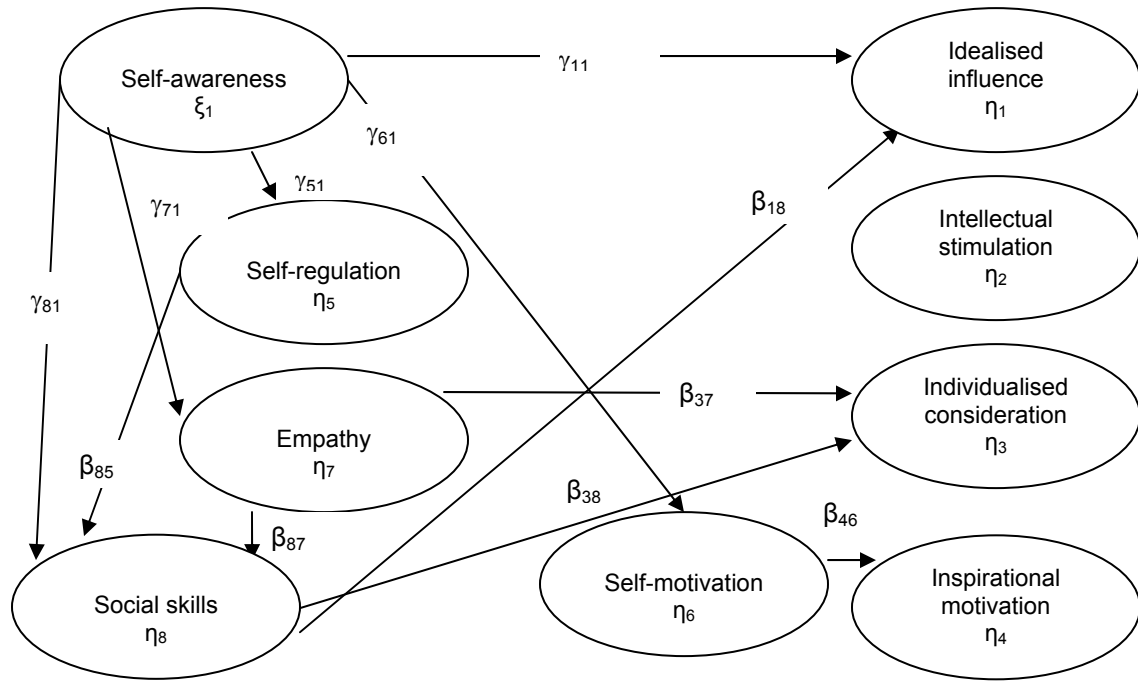
$\eta_8$  represent the social skills sub-scale of emotional intelligence;

$\eta_1$  represent the idealised influence sub-scale of transformational leadership;

$\eta_2$  represent the intellectual stimulation sub-scale of transformational leadership;

$\eta_3$  represent the individualised consideration sub-scale of transformational leadership;

$\eta_4$  represent the inspirational motivation sub-scale of transformational leadership.



**Figure 5.1: Structural model of the proposed relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership**

### 5.3 HYPOTHESES

In accordance with the structural model, based on the literature overview, the following hypotheses were formulated:

#### Hypothesis 1:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-awareness and idealised influence.

#### Hypothesis 2:

A significant and positive relationship exists between social skills and idealised influence.

Hypothesis 3:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-motivation and inspirational motivation.

Hypothesis 4:

A significant and positive relationship exists between social skills and individualised consideration.

Hypothesis 5:

A significant and positive relationship exists between empathy and individualised consideration.

Hypothesis 6:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-awareness and self-regulation.



Hypothesis 7:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-awareness and self-motivation.

Hypothesis 8:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-awareness and empathy.

Hypothesis 9:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-awareness and social skills.

Hypothesis 10:

A significant and positive relationship exists between self-regulation and social skills.

Hypothesis 11:

A significant and positive relationship exists between empathy and social skills.

Hypothesis 12:

A significant and positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 13:

Self-awareness, self-regulation and empathy each significantly explain unique variance in social skills.

Hypothesis 14:

Self-awareness and social skills each significantly explain unique variance in idealised influence.

### Hypothesis 15:

Empathy and social skills each significantly explain unique variance in individualised consideration.

## **5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN**

An ex post facto design, specifically a correlative design was used in this study to determine whether individuals who indicate high emotional intelligence also indicate greater leadership skills. Experimental manipulation and random assignment are not possible in an ex post facto design. Both the dependent and the independent variables can only be observed across individuals to establish the extent to which they co-vary. The objective was, therefore, to observe numerous individuals that differ in their independent variables in order to determine if there is also concomitant difference in the dependent variables. The research design aims to control variance so that the variance in leadership attributable to emotional intelligence can be distinguished from that attributable to other non-relevant variables (Kerlinger, 1986). This type of research design, however, does not give the researcher effective control over extraneous variables and causality can not be concluded effectively. This study, as is true of much research in the social science, does not lend itself to experimentation. Specific hypotheses have been formulated clearly in order to avoid the inherent danger of opportunistic over-interpretation of empirical results. A field study was carried out to test the relationship between the emotional intelligence and transformational leadership variables.

## **5.5 SAMPLE**

This research was conducted at a prominent financial institution in South Africa. The questionnaires were delivered at the financial institution in person. Each questionnaire was placed in an envelope, which was sealed by the respondent

after completion. This ensured complete anonymity and confidentiality. A covering letter that explained the purpose and content of the study accompanied the questionnaires. The questionnaires were distributed by the Human Resources Management Department at a meeting where representatives of different divisions of the Financial Institution were present. All the representatives were managers on different levels of the organisation. The respondents were given three weeks to complete the questionnaires. The questionnaires were collected in person again.

A total of 250 questionnaires were distributed to the representatives. A total of 118 questionnaires were appropriately completed and returned. This represents a response rate of 47.2%, which is not indicative of a very good response. Babbie and Mouton (2001) believe that a response rate of 50% is adequate for analysis and reporting.

This study used a non-probability sampling procedure, more specifically quota sampling. The objective of sampling is to draw a sample that has the same statistical characteristics as the population. However, the sampling procedure employed, instead of relying on random selection, relied on accidental choice (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000). The study can therefore not claim to have sampled a representative sub-set of managers from the financial institution.

**Table 5.1: Demographic profile of the sample**

RESPONSES	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
<b>GENDER</b>		
Male	91	77.1%
Female	27	22.9%
<b>RACE</b>		
Black	0	0%
White	92	78%
Asian	1	0.85%
Coloured	24	20.3%
Other	1	0.85%
<b>ORGANISATIONAL LEVEL</b>		
Top Management	0	0%
Senior Management	7	6%
Middle Management	111	94%
<b>EDUCATION / QUALIFICATION</b>		
Secondary School	6	5.1%
Grade 12 or equivalent	64	54.2%
Post-school certificate / diploma	42	35.6%
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	5	4.2%
Honours degree or equivalent	1	0.9%
Masters degree or equivalent	0	0%
Doctoral degree or equivalent	0	0%

Table 5.1 provides an overview of the demographic profile of the sample, and indicates that more than three times as many males as females responded to this questionnaire. It is apparent that the sample consists predominantly of white people, a few coloured people, only one Asian person and no African people. The sample consists mainly of middle management individuals, with just a few individuals in senior management. While a few of the respondents only had a secondary school qualification, just more than half of the respondents had a grade 12 or equivalent qualification. About one third of the respondents had a post-school certificate or diploma. A small number had a bachelor's degree, with only one person who had obtained an honours degree.

## 5.6 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

The research questionnaire consisted of three sections in order to obtain the required information (please see Annexure A for the measuring instruments and accompanying letter).

Section A measured the **demographic data** of the respondent and his or her superior. Information on both the respondent and his or her superior was requested, and pertained to age, gender, race, qualification and organisational level. The last questions in this section pertained to the number of people that directly report to the respondent and superior respectively. Although the information pertaining to section A was not utilised in this study, it was included for possible future research purposes.

Section B measured **emotional intelligence** with an instrument developed by Rahim and Minors (2003), the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI). The scale consists of five dimensions, which are based on the five components of emotional intelligence suggested by Goleman (1995), as discussed in the literature survey, and include: self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy and social skills. The instrument is composed of forty relatively short

items (later condensed to thirty five) followed by a 7-point response set (1 = I disagree completely, and 7 = I agree completely). It gives an overall EQ score as well as scores for the 5 scales as indicated above. The questionnaire is completed by the subordinate, who rates his or her superior according to the questions provided (Rahim & Minors, 2003).

Rahim and Minors (personal communication, 2003), after conducting an EFA (utilising principle component analysis and Varimax rotation), presented a five-factor solution (the same five factors as the Goleman (1995) model were found) for a 35-item version of this scale at the 10<sup>th</sup> Annual ICAM conference in Boston. These five factors explained 67.70% of the variance in their data:

- 1.) Self-motivation = 16.10% (eigenvalue = 18.43)
- 2.) Empathy = 10.60% (eigenvalue = 4.25)
- 3.) Social skills = 4.40% (eigenvalue = 1.76)
- 4.) Self-regulation = 3.60% (eigenvalue = 3.60)
- 5.) Self-awareness = 3.00% (eigenvalue = 1.19)

Rahim and Minors reported Cronbach alphas for the sub-dimensions ranging from .62 to .98 for the countries where the research was conducted (personal communication, 2003).

The researcher had various reasons for using the Rahim and Minors Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) instrument. These include the following:

- It is quick and easy to administrate. Respondents are also more willing to complete short questionnaires and a higher response rate can therefore be achieved.
- Even though most of the measurements of emotional intelligence are self-evaluation questionnaires, research has found that this method does not always generate valid results of the specific individual's emotional intelligence

(Matthews et al., 2002). The EQI instrument is completed by subordinates, and might therefore lead to more valid results.

- Due to financial restrictions, other, more well-known measurements of emotional intelligence could not be used. This problem is created due to the fact that emotional intelligence has only recently received so much attention. Also, few scientists in the field of emotional intelligence make their instruments available for research purposes.
- The internal consistency reliability for emotional intelligence measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficients ranges between .62 and .98 (Rahim & Minors, personal communication, 2003), which is indicative of a reliable measurement of emotional intelligence.

Section C measured ***transactional and transformational leadership*** with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Form 5-45) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) and adapted by Engelbrecht (2001, personal communication). The MLQ questionnaire consists of forty five items, and has been adapted by Engelbrecht (2001, personal communication) for the South African context. However, in this study, only thirty two items were used as only the items relating to transactional and transformational leadership were selected. The items measure the frequency with which the participant displays a range of leader behaviours, and are measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (0 = not at all, 4 = frequently, if not always). Four sub-scales assess transformational leadership behaviour: idealised influence (eight items), inspirational motivation (four items), intellectual stimulation (four items) and individualised consideration (four items). Three sub-scales assess transactional behaviour: contingent reward (four items), management by exception (active) (four items) and management by exception (passive) (four items). The reason this questionnaire was used, was because it was adapted by Engelbrecht (2001, personal communication) for the South African context, and because the study specifically focuses on and aims to measure transformational leadership.

## 5.7 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

For reliability analysis the Cronbach alpha was used, and these results were confirmed by the composite reliability scores from the Partial least squares (PLS) method (Hansmann & Ringle, 2004) path analysis.

Univariable comparisons were done between the constructs using Pearson correlations, and were then extended to standard multiple regression analyses.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was applied to the data using two different techniques, namely Statistica's SEPATH and PLS path analysis. All analyses, except the PLS analysis, were conducted using Statistica 7( Statsoft Inc, 2004). PLS analysis was done using Smart PLS (Hansmann & Ringle, 2004).

## 5.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the proposed structural model and relevant hypotheses were presented, as well as the research methodology used to test these. An overview of the research design, sample and measuring instruments was also provided. Finally, a description of the statistical analysis was provided. The next chapter will present an overview of the results of the study.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **RESEARCH RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

In chapter 5 the research methodology which was used in this study was described. The purpose of this chapter is to report the results of the statistical analysis performed. This chapter provides an overview of the results of the study. Firstly, a summary is given of the item analyses of each scale and sub-scale used in the study. Thereafter, the results of the hypotheses are presented, by reporting on the correlations between the constructs, the results of the structural equation modelling, and the regression results.

#### **6.2 MISSING VALUES**

Missing values did not represent a problem in the analysis. A total of 120 questionnaires were received by the researcher. Only two of these had to be rejected, as they were not completed satisfactorily. In Section A, which focused on demographic details, some questions were incomplete. These included the age of the respondent, the age of the superior, and the qualification of the superior. The reason for this might be that the respondent did not know the age or qualification of his or her superior. Some of the respondents also did not complete the question requesting the number of people that report to the superior. In this case, it may be that the respondents did not know the answer to the question. However, this did not represent a serious problem, as age, qualification and number of subordinates are not considered determining factors in the proposed model.

### 6.3 ITEM ANALYSIS

The reliability of a scale indicates the extent to which it is free from random variance. It is important that measurement scales that have been constructed for empirical research be reliable. A frequently used indicator of a scale's reliability is internal consistency, which refers to the degree to which the items in the scale are all measuring the same underlying attribute (Nunnally, 1978). One method for estimating the internal consistency of an instrument is found in item analysis, with Cronbach's coefficient alpha being the most common statistic (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Nunnally, 1978). Cronbach's coefficient alpha provides an indication of the average correlation among all of the items in the scale (Nunnally, 1978). Values range from 0 to 1, and instruments with very high reliability will score close to 1. Most social scientists recommend a minimum level of 0.7 (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000).

Item analysis was performed on all sub-scales of the instruments by making use of Statistica (Statsoft Inc, 2004). This was done in order to identify and eliminate possible items that were not contributing to an internally consistent description of the latent variable in question.

The internal consistency reliability for emotional intelligence measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficients are reported in Table 6.1.

**Table 6.1: Cronbach alpha coefficients for emotional intelligence**

Construct	Cronbach alpha coefficient
Self-awareness	0.88
Self-regulation	0.92
Self-motivation	0.94
Empathy	0.92
Social skills	0.93

The internal consistency reliability for transformational and transactional leadership measured by the Cronbach alpha coefficients are reported in Table 6.2.

**Table 6.2: Cronbach alpha coefficients for transformational & transactional leadership**

<b>Construct</b>	<b>Cronbach alpha coefficient</b>
Idealised influence	0.90
Inspirational motivation	0.86
Intellectual stimulation	0.81
Individualised consideration	0.90
Contingent reward	0.77
Management by exception	0.57

It is clear that the only sub-scale that did not lie above the normally accepted value of 0.70 is “management by exception”, which scored an alpha coefficient of 0.57. This, however, did not pose a problem to the study, as transactional leadership was not included in the proposed model.

## **6.4 RESULTS**

This section outlines the results of the study. The results of the correlation analysis will be discussed, then the structural equation modelling, and thereafter the results of the standard multiple regression analyses.

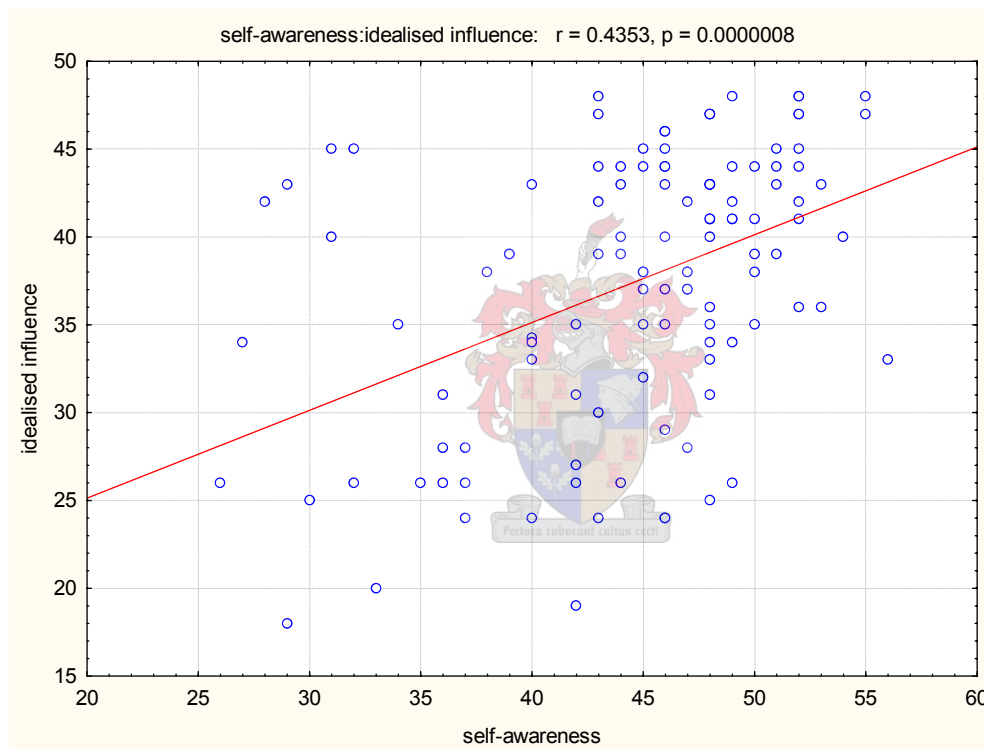
### **6.4.1 CORRELATIONS**

This section focuses on the results of the study by reviewing the results of the correlations as hypothesised in the structural model (figure 5.1, p. 50). The

relationships between the constructs were investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

#### 6.4.1.1 The relationship between self-awareness and idealised influence

The results of comparing self-awareness with idealised influence indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.435$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-awareness associated with high levels of idealised influence.

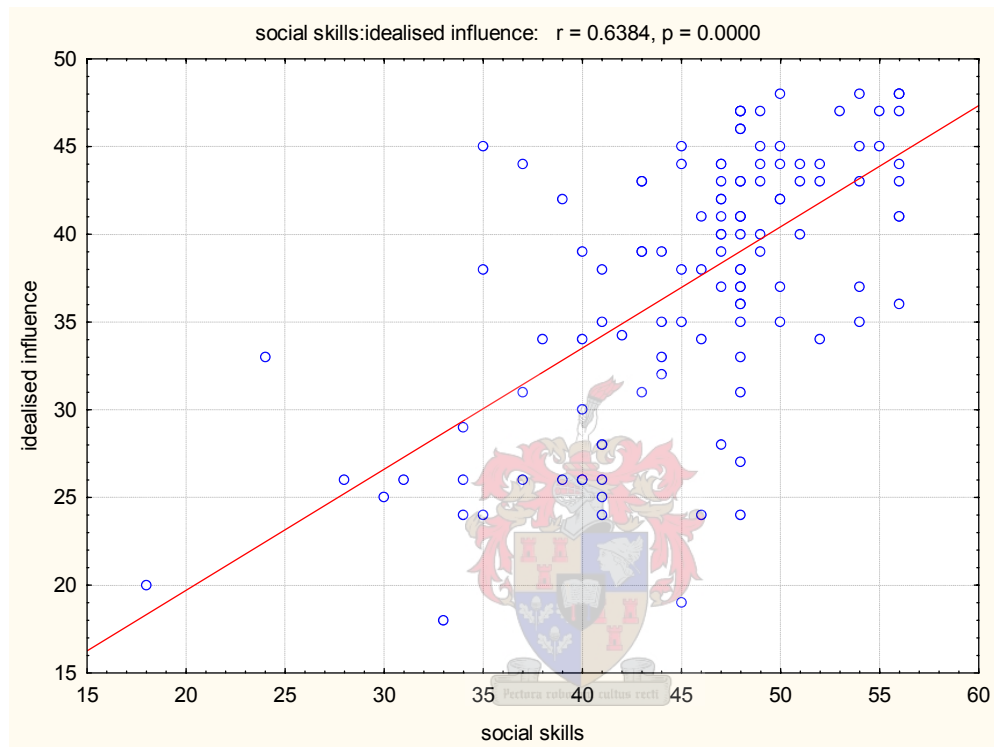


**Figure 6.1 The relationship between self-awareness and idealised influence**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 1, stating that a significantly positive relationship exists between an individual's self-awareness and his or her idealised influence, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.2 The relationship between social skills and idealised influence

The results of comparing social skills with idealised influence indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.638$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of social skills associated with high levels of idealised influence.

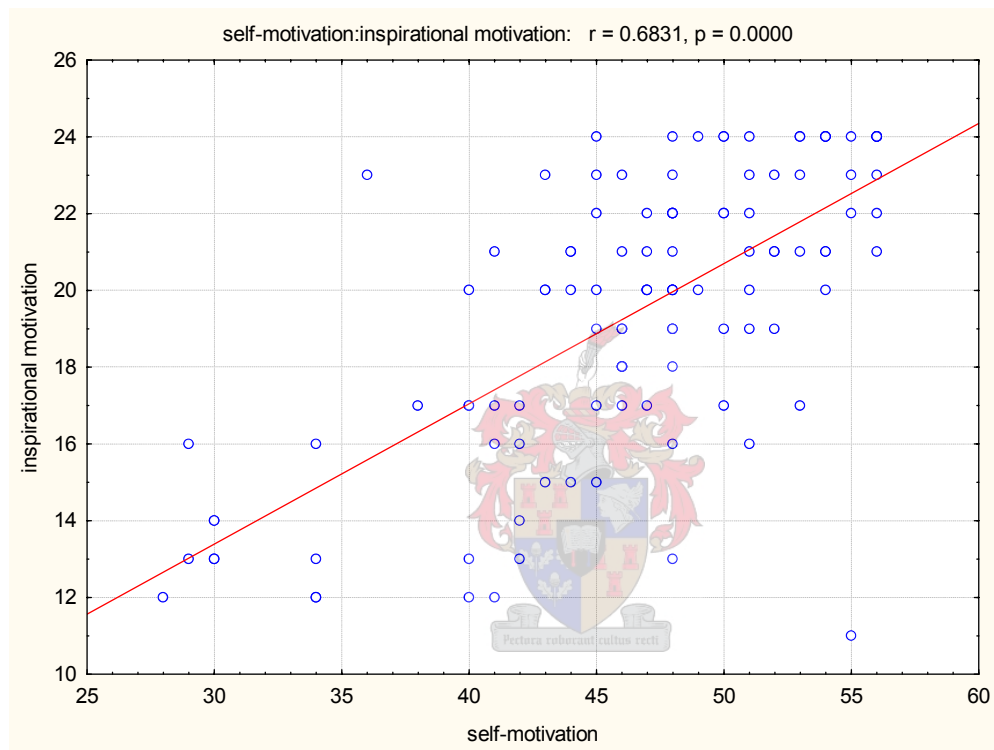


**Figure 6.2 The relationship between social skills and idealised influence**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 2, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's social skills and his or her idealised influence, was thus confirmed.

### 6.4.1.3 The relationship between self-motivation and inspirational motivation

The results of comparing self-motivation with inspirational motivation indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.683$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-motivation associated with high levels of inspirational motivation.

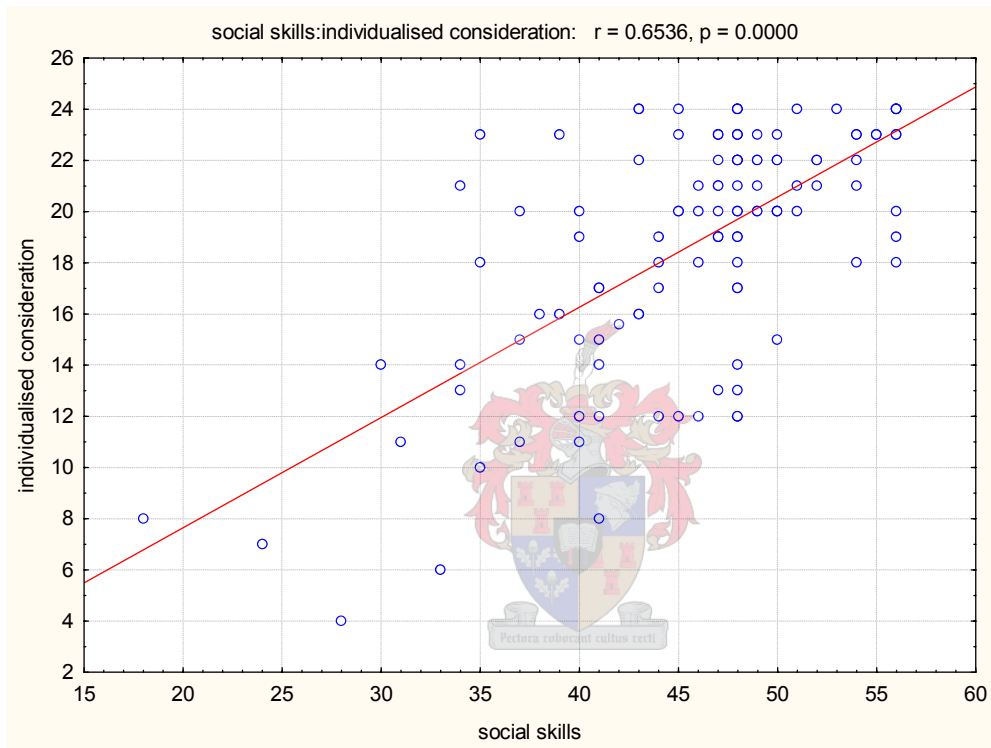


**Figure 6.3 The relationship between self-motivation and inspirational motivation**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 3, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-motivation and his or her inspirational motivation, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.4 The relationship between social skills and individualised consideration

The results of comparing social skills with individualised consideration indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.654$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of social skills associated with high levels of individualised consideration.

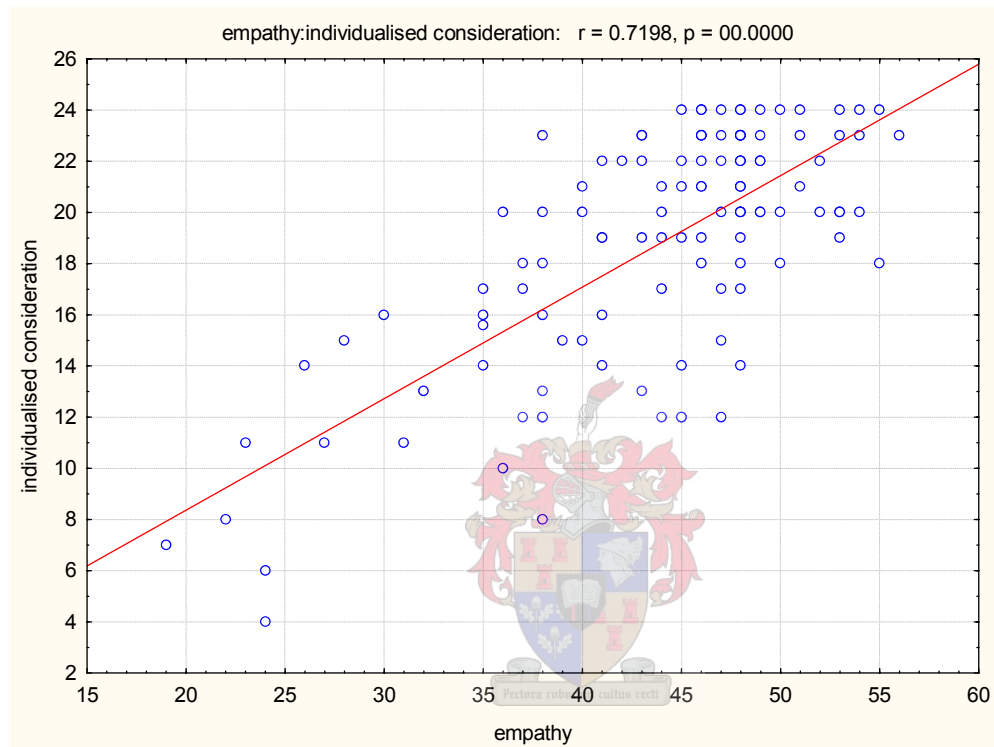


**Figure 6.4 The relationship between social skills and individualised consideration**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 4, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's social skills and his or her individualised consideration, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.5 The relationship between empathy and individualised consideration

The results of comparing empathy with individualised consideration indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.72$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of empathy associated with high levels of individualised consideration.



**Figure 6.5 The relationship between empathy and individualised consideration**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 5, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's empathy and his or her individualised consideration, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1. 6 The relationship between self-awareness and self-regulation

The results of comparing self-awareness with self-regulation indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.593$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-awareness associated with high levels of self-regulation.

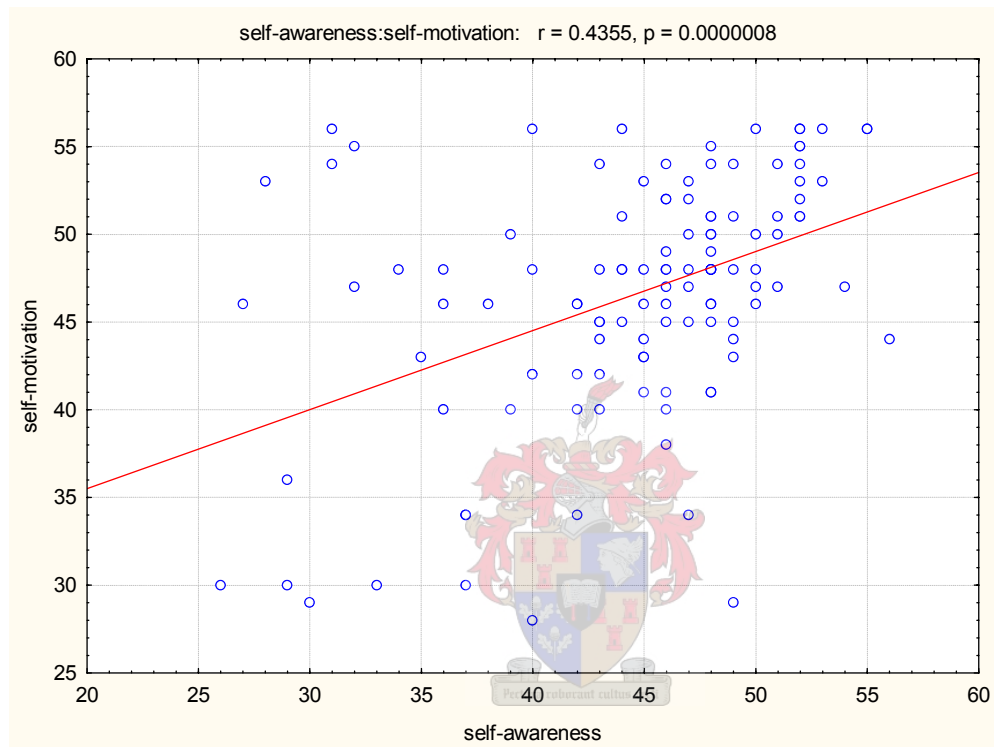


**Figure 6.6 The relationship between self-awareness and self-regulation**

With respect to the above finding, Hypothesis 6, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-awareness and his or her self-regulation, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.7 The relationship between self-awareness and self-motivation

The results of comparing self-awareness with self-motivation indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.44$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-awareness associated with high levels of self-motivation.

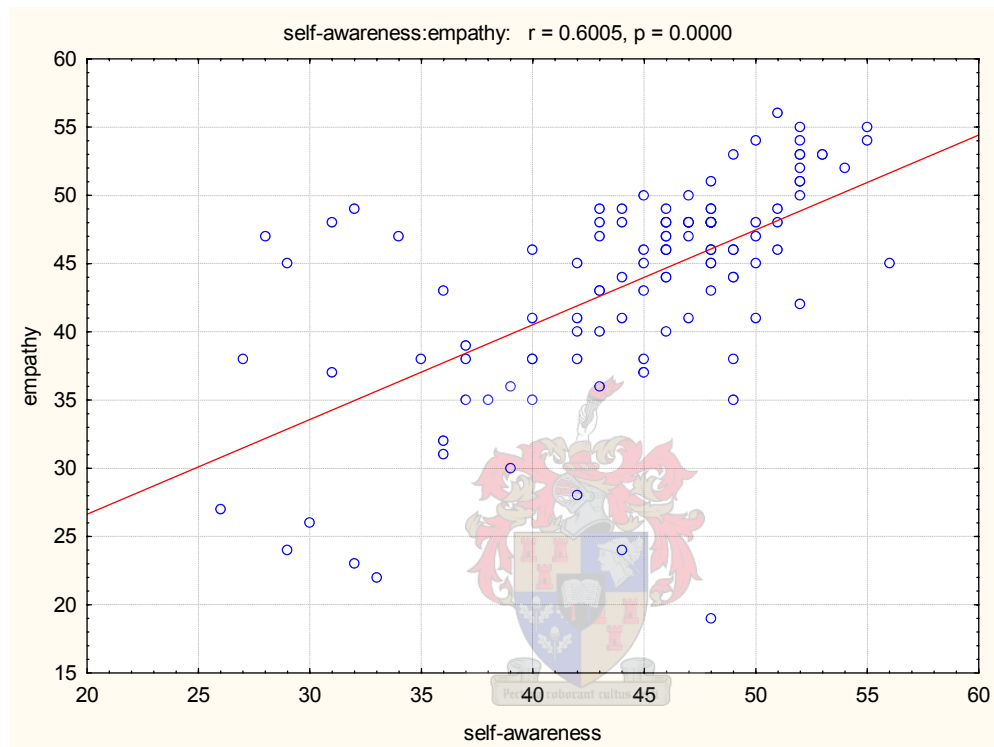


**Figure 6.7 The relationship between self-awareness and self-motivation**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 7, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-awareness and his or her self-motivation, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.8 The relationship between self-awareness and empathy

The results of comparing self-awareness with empathy indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.60$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-awareness associated with high levels of empathy.



**Figure 6.8 The relationship between self-awareness and empathy**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 8, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-awareness and his or her empathy, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.9 The relationship between self-awareness and social skills

The results of comparing self-awareness with social skills indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.57$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-awareness associated with high levels of social skills.

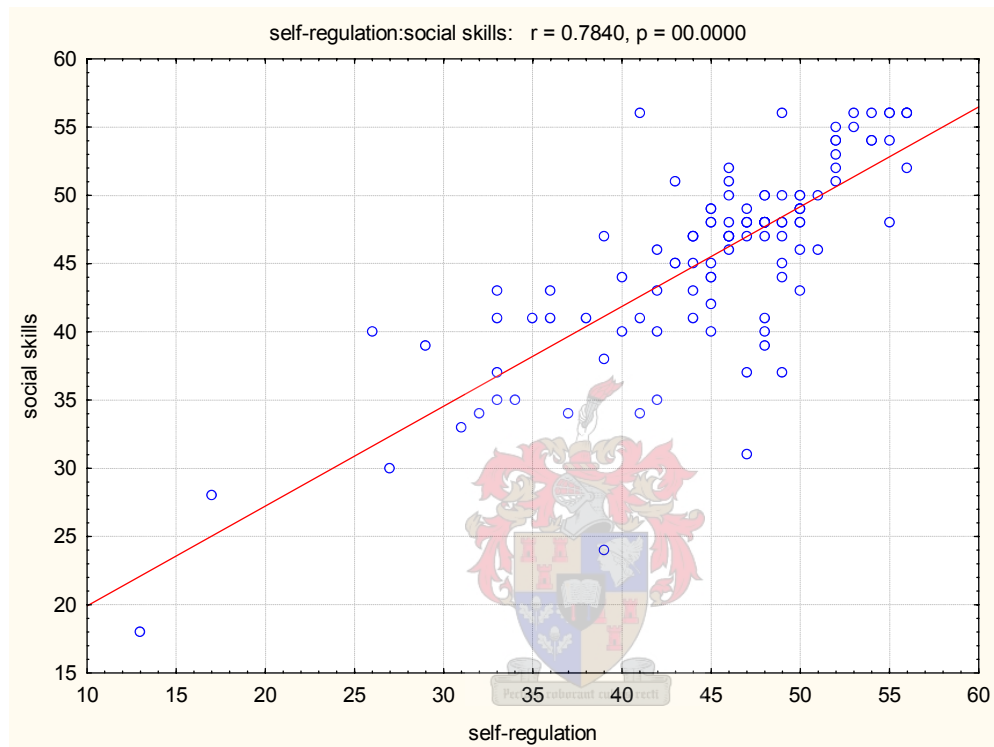


**Figure 6.9 The relationship between self-awareness and social skills**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 9, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-awareness and his or her social skills, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.10 The relationship between self-regulation and social skills

The results of comparing self-regulation with social skills indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.78$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of self-regulation associated with high levels of social skills.



**Figure 6.10 The relationship between self-regulation and social skills**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 10, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's self-regulation and his or her social skills, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.1.11 The relationship between empathy and social skills

The results of comparing empathy with social skills indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.89$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of empathy associated with high levels of social skills.

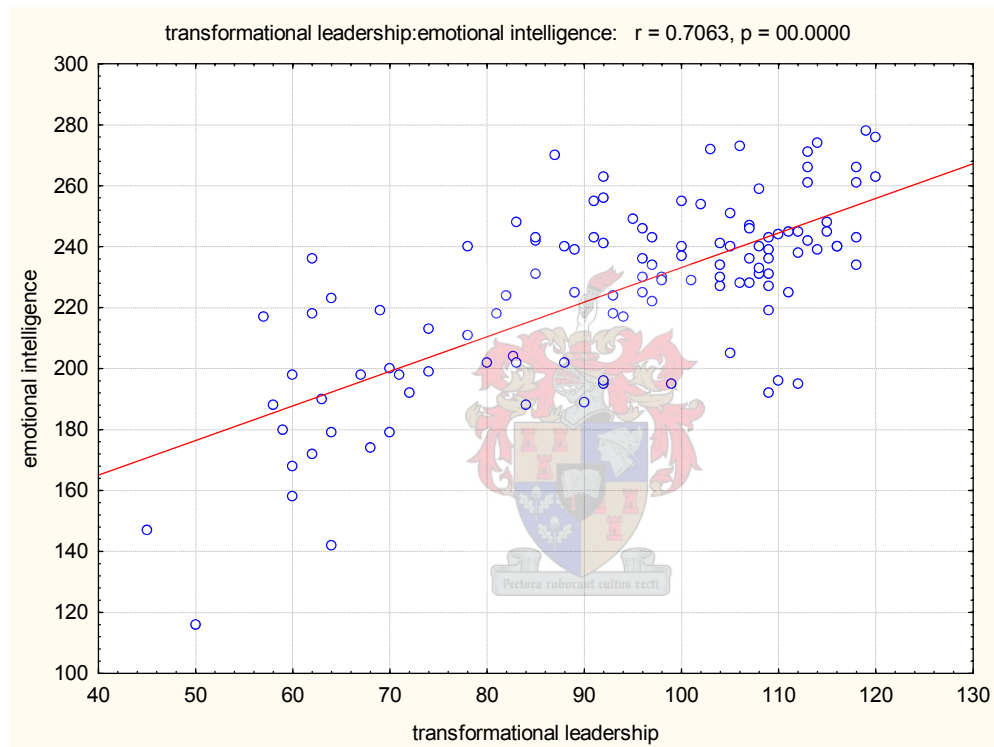


**Figure 6.11 The relationship between empathy and social skills**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 11, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's empathy and his or her social skills, was thus confirmed.

#### 6.4.12 The relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership

The results of comparing emotional intelligence with transformational leadership indicated a significant positive correlation of  $r = 0.706$  ( $p < 0.01$ ), with high levels of emotional intelligence associated with high levels of transformational leadership.



**Figure 6.12 The relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership**

With respect to the above finding, hypothesis 12, stating that a significant positive relationship exists between an individual's emotional intelligence and his or her transformational leadership, was thus confirmed.

### 6.4.2 STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM)

Structural equation modelling (SEM), using Statistica's SEPATH model, was used in this study, to test the correlations implied in the hypothesised model in figure 5.1 (p. 50) (Statsoft Inc, 2004). Kelloway states "...if the theory is valid, then the theory should be able to explain or reproduce the patterns of correlations found in the empirical data" (1998, p. 6).

The goodness-of-fit (GFI) is "based on a ratio of the sum of the squared discrepancies to the observed variance" (Kelloway, 1998, p. 27). The GFI ranges from 0 to 1, with values exceeding 0.9 indicating a good fit to the data. The adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) adjusts the GFI for degrees of freedom in the model. This measure also ranges from 0 to 1, with values above 0.9 indicating a good fit to the data (Kelloway, 1998). When evaluating goodness-of-fit in accordance with these standards, the model did not achieve the 0.9 level. From Table 6.3 it can be seen that the GFI is 0.48 and the AGFI is 0.44.

**Table 6.3: Single sample fit indices**

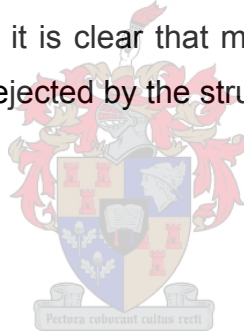
	Single sample fit indices
<b>Joreskog GFI</b>	0.483
<b>Joreskog AGFI</b>	0.440

The completed questionnaires clearly indicated that the respondents' answers were skewed to the right. Due to this, the assumption of normality was probably not met, and therefore it was unclear whether the results of the SEPATH model could be accepted. It was therefore decided to make use of the partial least squares (PLS) method (using SmartPLS) to test the results of the structural model.

The PLS method is a non-parametric method and testing for significant coefficients is therefore not available. Bootstrap confidence intervals (95%) were used to determine if estimates were significant (Hansmann & Ringle, 2004).

The PLS method supported the SEPATH model. The composite reliability for all the relevant constructs was found to be above 0.9, which supports the results of the item analysis that was done using Cronbach alphas (Refer to Section 6.3, p. 61).

Table 6.4 provides a summary of the two SEM models. Significant path coefficient estimates were not found between self-awareness and social skills, self-awareness and idealised influence, and social skills and individualised consideration. All of the other predicted hypotheses have been found significant by the two models. Therefore, it is clear that most of the predicted hypotheses survived the opportunity to be rejected by the structural models.

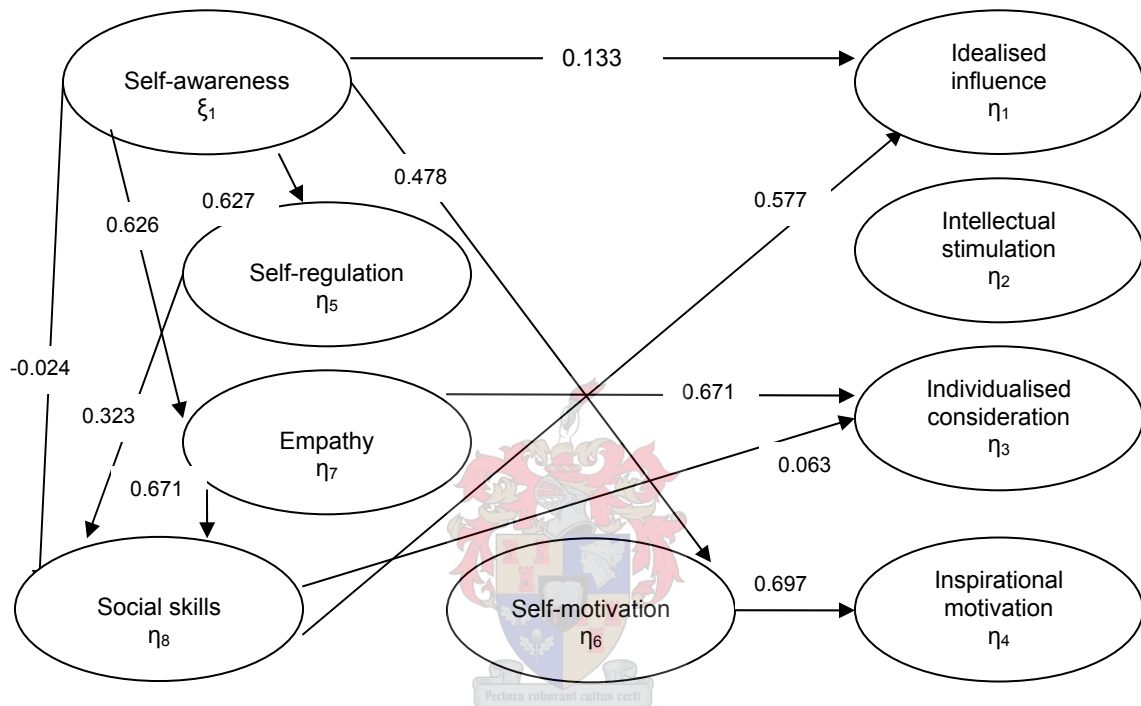


**Table 6.4 Results of the path coefficient estimates of the SEM Models**

<b>Hypothesis</b>	<b>Parameter estimate (SEPATH method)</b>	<b>Sample estimate (PLS method)</b>	<b>Bootstrap mean</b>	<b>Lower 95%</b>	<b>Upper 95%</b>
Self-awareness -> self-regulation	0.690 *	0.627	0.641	0.51	0.759
Self-awareness - > self-motivation	0.450 *	0.478	0.481	0.262	0.678
Self-awareness - > empathy	0.809 *	0.626	0.64	0.456	0.77
Self-awareness - > social skills	-0.041	-0.024	-0.025	-0.136	0.111
Self-awareness - > idealised influence	0.071	0.133	0.141	-0.09	0.325
Self-regulation - > social skills	0.328 *	0.323	0.317	0.166	0.466
Self-motivation - > inspiration motivation	0.720 *	0.697	0.707	0.556	0.806
Empathy - > social skills	0.571 *	0.671	0.677	0.507	0.813
Empathy - > individualised consideration	0.532 *	0.671	0.664	0.377	0.928
Social skills - > idealised influence	0.492 *	0.577	0.581	0.385	0.763
Social skills - > individualised consideration	0.224	0.063	0.078	-0.235	0.349

\* indicates significant estimates on a 5% level ( $p < 0.05$ )

Figure 6.13 presents the above-mentioned path coefficients in a structural model, using the PLS method. Except for the three mentioned hypotheses that could not be proved significant, this model supports the preliminary theory and the structural model as proposed in Section 5.2 (p. 46).



**Figure 6.13 Structural equation model (PLS method)**

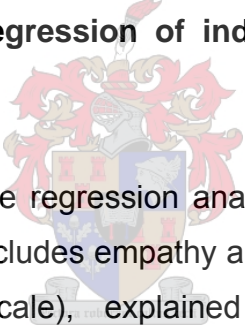
In conclusion, it was decided to do several regression analyses in order to examine the unique contribution the variables of interest make to the dependent variables to which they are linked in the structural model (fig 5.1, p. 50). These will be discussed in the following section.

### 6.4.3 STANDARD MULTIPLE REGRESSION RESULTS

Standard multiple regression analyses were performed to clarify the question whether individual variables significantly explained variance in dependent latent variables as proposed by the model (figure 5.1, p. 50). Related to this the additional question arises: does each variable linked to a particular endogenous latent variable significantly explain unique variance in the endogenous latent variable not explained by the other variables linked to that variable?

To investigate the unique contribution that each variable of interest makes to the dependent variable to which it is linked, several standard multiple regression analyses were performed, and will be discussed in sections 6.4.3.1 to 6.4.3.3.

#### 6.4.3.1 Standard multiple regression of individualised consideration on empathy and social skills



A summary of the results of the regression analysis is presented in Table 6.5. The regression model, which includes empathy and social skills (as measured by the emotional intelligence scale), explained 51.9% of the variance in individualised consideration. Of these two variables, empathy makes the largest contribution ( $\beta = 0,66$ ), and is also statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). However, in the correlation analysis, social skills had a strong, positive ( $r = 0,654$ ) and significant ( $p < 0.01$ ) correlation with individualised consideration. The reason why social skills was not significant was due to the fact that it was highly correlated with empathy ( $r = 0.89$ ). Thus the two variables to a large degree carry the same information in terms of predicting individualised consideration, as can be seen by inspecting and comparing the R-value of the regression with the individual correlations of the two variables. The correlations found for empathy and social skills were 0.71 and 0.65 respectively, and this is close to the regression R of 0.72. This means that each of the two variables on their own explains as much of the variance in individualised consideration as they do together. Social skills

therefore does not explain unique variance in individualised consideration, while empathy does explain unique variance in individualised consideration not explained by social skills.

**Table 6.5 Standard multiple regression of empathy and social skills on individualised consideration**

<b>N = 118</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>t (115)</b>	<b>p-level</b>
<b>Intercept</b>		-0.796	-0.404	0.687
<b>Empathy</b>	0.66	0.399	4.69	<0.01
<b>Social skills</b>	0.068	0.045	0.481	0.631

#### **6.4.3.2 Standard multiple regression of idealised influence on self-awareness and social skills**

The summary of the results of the regression analysis is presented in Table 6.6. The regression model, which includes self-awareness and social skills (as measured by the emotional intelligence scale), explains 41,5% of the variance in idealised influence. Of these two variables, social skills makes the largest contribution (beta = 0.578), and is also statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). In the correlation analysis, self-awareness had a positive ( $r = 0.435$ ) and significant ( $p < 0.01$ ) correlation with idealised influence. As in section 6.4.3.1, here again the two independent variables carry to a large extent the same information in terms of predicting idealised influence. The correlations found for social skills and self-awareness were 0.64 and 0.44, and this is very close to the regression R of 0.64. The correlations indicate that social skills explains most of the variance in idealised influence, and that social skills together with self-awareness do not explain more of the variance in idealised influence. It is therefore clear that social skills on its own explains as much of the variance in idealised influence as it does together with self-awareness.

**Table 6.6 Standard multiple regression of self-awareness and social skills on idealised influence**

<b>N = 118</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>t (115)</b>	<b>p-level</b>
<b>Intercept</b>		3.472	0.849	0.396
<b>Self-awareness</b>	0.105	0.121	1.211	0.229
<b>Social skills</b>	0.578	0.626	6.658	<0.01

#### **6.4.3.3 Standard multiple regression of social skills on self-awareness, self-regulation and empathy**

A summary of the results of the regression analysis is presented in Table 6.7. The regression model, which includes self-awareness, self-regulation and empathy, explains 83.7% of the variance in social skills. Of these variables, empathy (beta = 0.677) and self-regulation (beta = 0.318) make the largest contribution and are statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). It is therefore clear that empathy and self-regulation together are a good predictor for social skills. However, in the correlation analysis, self-awareness (which was not significant in the regression) had a strong, positive ( $r = 0.57$ ) and significant correlation ( $p < 0.01$ ) with social skills. The reason why self-awareness did not come out significantly, is due to the fact that it was highly correlated with self-regulation ( $r = 0.59$ ) and empathy ( $r = 0.6$ ). The three variables therefore carry more or less the same information in terms of predicting social skills, as can be seen by inspecting and comparing the R-value of the regression with the individual correlations of the three variables. The correlation found for self-regulation was 0.78, for empathy 0.89 and for self-awareness 0.57. Self-regulation and empathy clearly are close to the regression R of 0.91. It is therefore clear that self-regulation and empathy on their own explain most of the variance in social skills, and, together with self-awareness, they do not explain more of the variance in social skills.

**Table 6.7 Standard multiple regression of self-awareness, self-regulation and empathy on social skills**

<b>N = 118</b>	<b>Beta</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>t (114)</b>	<b>p-level</b>
<b>Intercept</b>		6.222	3.202	0.002
<b>Self-awareness</b>	-0.024	-0.026	-0.490	0.625
<b>Self-regulation</b>	0.318	0.296	5.653	<0.01
<b>Empathy</b>	0.677	0.622	11.962	<0.01

## 6.5 SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results obtained in this study. The findings of the various analyses performed agree to a large extent, thus enhancing the credibility of the conclusion that the majority of the paths proposed by the structural model have been corroborated.



In the next chapter, the general conclusions drawn from the research will be discussed, and recommendations for future research will be made.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

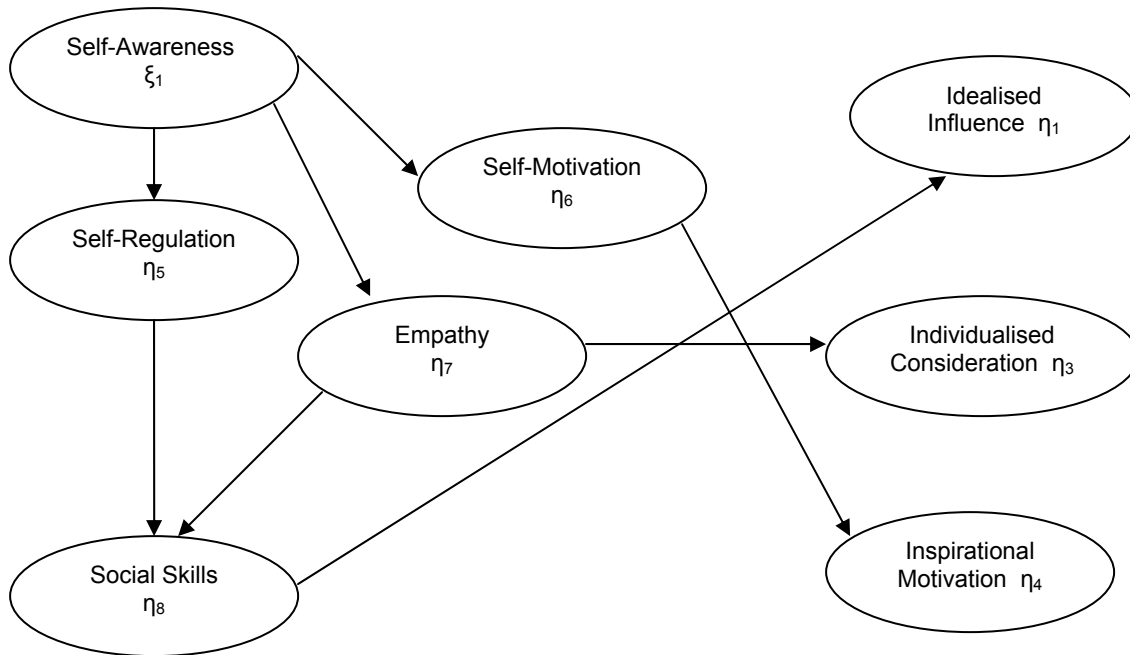
Chapter 6 focused on presenting and discussing the research results that were obtained in this study. This chapter will conclude the study by discussing general conclusions derived from the results obtained. The shortcomings of the study will be highlighted, the practical implications presented, and recommendations for future research will be provided.

#### **7.2 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS**

A comprehensive series of statistical analyses underlie this study. The item analyses produced very satisfactory results, with all sub-scales returning internal consistency reliability coefficient values exceeding 0.7, except the “management by exception scale” of transactional leadership. As discussed earlier, this did not pose a problem to the study, as the focus was on transformational leadership and not on transactional leadership.

Even though the results did not indicate a good model fit, positive and significant correlations have been found for all of the predicted hypotheses.

A summary of the findings of the research is portrayed in Figure 7.1. The paths in the model indicate the significant relationships found.



**Figure 7.1: Summarised conceptual model of significant relationships**

It was predicted that there would be a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The study succeeded in confirming this positive significant correlation.

When comparing the summarised conceptual model of significant relationships with the hypothesised model in fig 5.1 (p. 50), it is clear that the summarised conceptual model corroborated the hypotheses. The hypotheses therefore survived the opportunity to be rejected. Significant path coefficient estimates were not found between self-awareness and social skills, self-awareness and idealised influence, and social skills and individualised consideration. The reason for these insignificant coefficient estimates, might be because of the hierarchical nature of the structural model, which will be discussed in the next paragraph.

When studying the summarised conceptual model of significant relationships, it can be deduced that the emotional intelligence model is a hierarchical one. This implies that the constructs build on each other. Cherniss and Goleman (2001,

p. 11) also see emotional intelligence as hierarchical, by stating that the constructs of emotional intelligence are “progressively labelled”. From the model it is clear that self-awareness is the exogenous latent variable, and it can be seen as the cornerstone or foundation of this model, on which all other emotional intelligence constructs are built. Self-awareness influences self-regulation, empathy and self-motivation, while empathy and self-regulation in turn influence social skills. Goleman supports this idea by believing that empathy builds on self-awareness, because the more open we are to our own emotions, the more skilled we will be in reading feelings (Goleman, 1995). This notion is also supported by Vitello-Ciciu (2003), who believes that emotional awareness is the cornerstone that underlies the ability of an individual to become emotionally intelligent. And high emotional intelligence, in turn, relates significantly to transformational leadership, as found by this study. Therefore, the crucial importance of self-awareness, as determinant of emotional intelligence and significant predictor of leadership potential, is highlighted by the structural model.

Numerous researchers agree on the importance of self-awareness in emotional intelligence and leadership success. According to Book (2004), self-awareness is the key emotional intelligence skill behind good leadership. Goleman (1998a, p. 62) quoted the following words of Mort Meyerson, CEO of Perot Systems, “Everything I thought I knew about leadership was wrong. My first job as a leader was to create a new understanding of myself”. Riggio et al. (2002, p. 63) believed that, “Greater self-awareness does indeed influence managerial performance”. This belief is also supported by Manfred F.R. Kets de Vries, who has done an in-depth analysis of CEO's. In an interview, he stated that “The first thing in leaders that I look for is emotional intelligence – basically, how self-reflective is the person?” (Couto, 2004, p. 64).

Therefore, the fact that no direct path was found between self-awareness and social skills, is not because there is no correlation between them, but due to the hierarchical nature of the model, i.e. the fact that self-regulation and empathy

mediates the effect of self-awareness on social skills. In fact, the positive and significant correlation between them has been confirmed by the results of the correlation analysis. However, the most reasonable explanation for the observed correlation seems to be to argue that self-awareness affects self-regulation, and self-regulation affects social skills. Therefore, while there is no direct linkage between self-awareness and social skills, the former nonetheless seems to affect the latter via self-regulation and empathy. The same holds for the correlations between self-awareness and idealised influence, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation. Self-awareness and social skills might be linked to some of the other constructs of emotional intelligence, which in turn are linked to idealised influence and individualised consideration.

The three constructs of emotional intelligence that were found to be directly linked to the constructs of transformational leadership were empathy, self-motivation and social skills.

A significant, positive relationship was found between empathy and individualised consideration by both the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.72$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and the structural equation modelling ( $\beta = 0.67$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). It therefore seems permissible to argue that empathy assists leaders to demonstrate care, interest and concern for their followers, and to pay special attention to each individual's needs. Therefore, this study confirms Goleman's belief that empathy enables leaders to tune into the emotional channels between people and develop them to reach their potential (Goleman et al., 2002). It is therefore clear that empathy is a crucial skill for any leader.

A significant, positive relationship was also found between self-motivation and inspirational motivation by both the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.68$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and the structural equation modelling ( $\beta = 0.7$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Self-motivation therefore seems to be an essential skill for a leader in order to portray inspiration motivation. It is only when a leader is able to motivate

himself that he can guide and motivate his team to reach their goals. By showing enthusiasm and optimism, this leader communicates a strong vision and expectations on how these goals can be attained (Bass & Avolio, 1994, Goleman, 1998a). Self-motivation is therefore also an important skill for successful leadership.

A significant, positive relationship was also found between social skills and idealised influence by both the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.64$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and the structural equation modelling ( $\beta = 0.58$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). This result is supported by Stein (2001), who believes that a leader with good social skills functions well as part of a team and gains trust and respect from his followers. Social skills are therefore another crucial skill for leadership.

Therefore, the results of the study indicate that empathy, self-motivation and social skills are strong predictors of leadership potential. However, due to the strong correlations between the constructs of emotional intelligence and the hierarchical nature of emotional intelligence, self-awareness and self-regulation should not be omitted and also play an important role in determining leadership potential. In fact, as discussed earlier, self-awareness is a very important determinant of leadership success.

The results further indicated that emotional intelligence is correlated with three of the four constructs of transformational leadership: idealised influence, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration. The model hypothesised that intellectual stimulation would not be affected by the various dimensions of emotional intelligence. This hypothesis was reported in a study done by Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000), and bears further investigation. They noted that it is possible that the nature of intellectual stimulation is more cognitive than the other three constructs, and does not rely so much on an individual's emotional intelligence as the other constructs (Barling et al., 2000).

Intellectual stimulation might therefore have a stronger correlation with traditional intelligence as measured by the intelligence quotient (IQ).

### **7.3 SHORTCOMINGS OF THIS STUDY**

The research design used in this study was an ex post facto research design. As stated earlier, this does not give the researcher effective control over the experiment and causality can not be concluded effectively. This study is explanatory in terms of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. In this respect, independent variables can influence the end results. Therefore, results should be interpreted with caution.

Further, as the non-probability sampling method relies on accidental choice, it reduces the ability to generalise the results of the study. The sample of this study was limited to managers in a financial institution in the Western Cape. The data generated is, therefore, limited to the specific organisation, industry and demographic boundaries of the sample.

Another limitation of this study is the reasonably small sample size, however, significant correlations were still found.

Even though research indicates that the use of a self-evaluation does not lead to reliable results (Matthews et al., 2002), the use of subordinates to judge the emotional intelligence of their superiors could have resulted in a “halo” effect. This effect can develop when the respondent is influenced to complete the answers according to a general positive or negative perception that he or she has of the superior, and does not evaluate each item in the questionnaire separately.

The fact that the same person rated each focal person on emotional intelligence and leadership provides an alternative explanation for the results. It would have

been preferable to obtain two sets of 360° ratings independent of each other from two sets of raters.

## **7.4 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS**

There are a number of practical implications that this study has for organisations:

### **7.4.1 Recruitment and Selection**

Effective staffing adds value to an organisation by:

- Hiring, placing or promoting a greater number of superior performers
- Deselecting marginal performers
- Reducing labour turnover (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

By identifying the emotional intelligence constructs seen as essential for effective leadership, this study provides a tool for the identification and subsequent retention of high-performing leaders for those who look for leadership potential during recruitment and selection. A study done at the US Air Force confirms this belief by reporting that by using emotional intelligence to select individuals, they increased their ability to predict successful recruits by nearly three-fold. The immediate gain was a saving of \$3 million annually (Cherniss, 2001). The structural model indicated that all five of the emotional intelligence constructs have a positive influence on leadership. It is therefore recommended that organisations use an emotional intelligence test, comprised of these five constructs, in their selection procedures to determine applicants' emotional intelligence. High emotional intelligence will impact on their effectiveness as leaders and therefore on the effectiveness of the work unit as a whole.

However, for certain positions, all constructs of emotional intelligence might not be equally important. Therefore, the specific constructs or competencies of

emotional intelligence that are necessary, or more significant, for a specific position must be specified.

When the emotional intelligence of potential leaders is assessed, it is recommended that:

- The nature of the leadership position be explicitly analysed;
- The model of emotional intelligence being applied is stated (i.e. Goleman, Bar-On, Mayer & Salovey etc.);
- The specific emotional skills included in the competency model be listed; and
- It be demonstrated that the emotional intelligence skills are relevant to the critical aspect of the leadership position (Riggio et al., 2002).

It is therefore believed that emotional intelligence can be utilised to facilitate more efficient recruitment and selection of leaders, and by doing this, also ensure reduced labour turnover and improved productivity.

#### **7.4.2 Training and performance management**

According to Goleman (1998a), an individual's level of emotional intelligence is not predetermined genetically, nor does it develop only early in childhood. Unlike IQ, which changes little after the teen years, emotional intelligence seems to be largely learned, and it continues to develop as individuals go through life and learn from experience. Research therefore agrees that an individual's competence in emotional intelligence can be learned and can keep growing (Goleman, 1995; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004). Therefore, given that emotional intelligence can be learned, the results of this study can be used to develop more effective training and development interventions to develop these skills in evolving leaders. Spencer (1986) found that the learning curve of new recruits is shortened by 33 percent by teaching them emotional intelligence and other best

practices of superior performers. This implies a huge economic value (cited in Cherniss & Goleman, 2001, p. 66).

Training, development activities and performance management add value by:

- Reducing the time it takes employees to achieve 100% productivity
- Improving productivity by shifting average employees' performance toward that of superior performers (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Executive mentoring and coaching programmes should therefore be designed to enhance senior managers' emotional intelligence. Riggio et al. (2002) recommends that effective coaching programmes will combine formal instruction in emotion with hands-on instruction through the use of role playing and similar methods.

It is therefore clear that this study holds important implications for organisations. By adapting their recruitment and selection and their training and development functions, they can increase annual turnover by increasing the number of top performers, reducing labour turnover, increasing productivity, and therefore, contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation as a whole (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

However, these implications go further than just the leaders of an organisation. Goleman et al. (2002) calls the emotional role of a leader "Primal Leadership", which refers to leaders who utilise the power of emotional intelligence. This leadership enables the leader to act as the group's emotional guide, and it remains one of the leading roles among the many jobs of a leader: it drives the collective emotions in a positive direction and clears the confusion created by toxic emotions. According to the open-loop limbic system (discussed in Section 4.3, p. 44), people's emotions are influenced by the people with whom they spend time. It is the leader, however, who creates and sends the strongest emotional cues. The reason for this is that people take their emotional cues from

the top, therefore a domino effect is created that ripples throughout the company's emotional climate (Goleman et al., 2002). Therefore, if leaders are selected according to emotional intelligence and trained in emotional intelligence, they will set and determine the climate of an organisation, and this climate will filter through the whole organisation. If the leaders therefore display the competencies of emotional intelligence, their followers will be influenced to automatically accept these skills as the norm, and they will implicitly also grow into being more emotionally intelligent. This phenomenon, where emotions are spread through a group, is called "emotional contagion", and also enhances group co-operation and reduces group conflict (Barsade & Gibson, 1998; Barsade, 1999, cited in Riggio et al., 2002, p. 64).

## **7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This study has provided some insights into the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. To provide a more comprehensive view to understanding this subject, the following recommendations can be made.

In order to avoid the possible impact of cultural influence, it is recommended that the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) developed by Rahim and Minors (2003) be adapted to make it more suitable for the South African context.

It is also recommended that this study is expanded to a larger sample, incorporating a more diverse population and multiple industries. It would be interesting to see if different results are yielded for different industries.

If a follow-up study is done, it is recommended that a 360° measurement is used to measure emotional intelligence. Thereby, an average measurement can be achieved on the responses of both the subordinate and the superior.

## 7.6 FINAL CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to develop a structural model to reflect the nature of the impact of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership. Although the study did not succeed in achieving a good model fit, significant and positive correlations have been found for most of the predicted hypotheses. The interdependent relationships between the constructs of emotional intelligence have also been determined. These correlations were also supported by theoretical research and logical reasoning.

It is believed that a valuable contribution has been made to the field of organisational psychology, and more specifically, transformational leadership. The study succeeded in determining which constructs of emotional intelligence are the most accurate predictors for effective transformational leadership. As indicated earlier, these constructs can be used successfully to generate predictors for the effective selection and training of leaders.

It is therefore believed that when a leader's emotional intelligence is developed, the advantages will filter through the organisation as a whole. This emotionally intelligent leader will have the power and ability to develop his followers into reaching their potential. He or she will create a climate of enthusiasm and empowerment, where there is flexibility and opportunities for followers to grow. Change is managed, and a climate of trust is established between the leader and his followers. It is this working climate, given the uncertainties and rapid change in today's business world, which creates added value through human capital management for maximum organisational performance.

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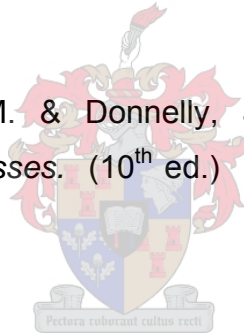
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## ANNEXURE A: Covering letter and questionnaire

### INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire forms part of a Master's study conducted by Wilmarié Beyers at the University of Stellenbosch. The aim of the study is to determine the influence of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership. The management of your company has kindly agreed that all employees may partake in this research. Participation, however, remains voluntary.

The questionnaires are completed **anonymously**. The information will be kept **confidential** as the questionnaires will be handled and used by the researcher only.

For the research to yield valid results, it is important that you answer **all** the questions as **honestly** and **truthfully** as possible. The answers must reflect your own opinion and perception. **Confidentiality** is assured as some questions or statements are of a sensitive nature. The questionnaire consists of three sections (Section A to Section C). **Please answer all questions and statements.**

**Thank you for your participation and contribution to this study. It is greatly appreciated.**

## SECTION A - BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

### BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION - SELF

Please provide the following information about **yourself**.

Draw an X in the appropriate block.

1. Your age (years)

2. Your gender

Male	1
Female	2

3. Your race

(for statistical purposes only)

Black	1
White	2
Asian	3
Coloured	4
Other	5

4. Your organisational level

4.1	Top management	1
4.2	Senior management / Senior professional	2
4.3	Middle management / Professional / Administration	3

5. Your qualifications (mark highest level attained only)

5.1	Secondary school	1
5.2	Standard 10 / Grade 12 or equivalent	2
5.3	Post-school certificate / Diploma	3
5.4	Bachelor's degree or equivalent	4
5.5	Honours degree or equivalent	5
5.6	Masters degree or equivalent	6
5.7	Doctoral degree or equivalent	7

6. How many people directly report to you?

7. For how many people in the organisation are you responsible?

## BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION - SUPERIOR

Please provide the following information about your **immediate superior**.

Draw an X in the appropriate block.

1. Superior's age (years)

2. Superior's gender

Male	1
Female	2

3. Superior's race

(for statistical purposes only)

Black	1
White	2
Asian	3
Coloured	4
Other	5

4. Superior's organisational level

4.1	Top management	1
4.2	Senior management / Senior professional	2
4.3	Middle management / Professional / Administration	3

5. Superior's qualifications (mark highest level attained only)

5.1	Secondary school	1
5.2	Standard 10 / Grade 12 or equivalent	2
5.3	Post-school certificate / Diploma	3
5.4	Bachelor's degree or equivalent	4
5.5	Honours degree or equivalent	5
5.6	Masters degree or equivalent	6
5.7	Doctoral degree or equivalent	7

6. How many people directly report to him/her?

7. For how many people in the organisation is he/she responsible?

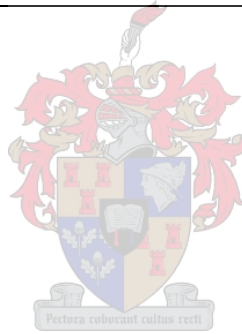
8. How long have you worked under this person?

## SECTION B - EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

### Instructions: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE

Think about your **immediate superior** (the person to whom you directly report) and react honestly to the following statements. Please respond to the statements by using this scale:

I disagree completely	1
I disagree	2
I disagree somewhat	3
I do not agree or disagree	4
I agree somewhat	5
I agree	6
I agree completely	7



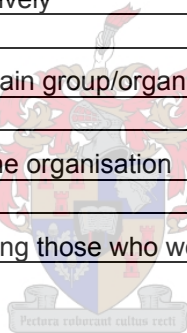
### MY SUPERIOR:

*Please draw an X in the appropriate block*

1.	Is well aware of his or her impulses	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Is well aware of his or her moods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Is well aware of the non-verbal messages he or she sends to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Is well aware of how his or her gut feelings influence decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Is well aware of which emotions he or she is experiencing and why	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Is well aware of his or her self-worth and capabilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	Is well aware of his or her strengths and limitations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Is well aware of his or her feelings and their effects on others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9.	Controls his or her impulsive feelings well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	Controls his or her distressing emotions well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	Manages his or her stress well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	Remains calm in potentially volatile situations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	Takes responsibility for his or her performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	Is self-disciplined and does the right thing even when it is unpopular	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	Maintains composure irrespective of his or her emotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	Keeps his or her disruptive impulses in check	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	Takes the initiative for change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Builds informal networks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	Seeks fresh ideas from many sources	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	Generates new ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	Accepts rapid change to meet the needs of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	Finds new ways to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Generates innovative solutions to problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	Stays focused on goals despite setbacks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	Understands the links between employees' emotions and what they do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.	Understands why people feel the way they do	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.	Is sensitive to emotional cues from others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.	Provides useful feedback	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

29.	Changes peoples' behaviour through persuasion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.	Understands the feelings transmitted through <b>verbal</b> messages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.	Understands the feelings transmitted through <b>non-verbal</b> messages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.	Helps others feel better when they are down	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.	Does not allow own negative feelings to inhibit collaboration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.	Does not allow negative feelings of others to inhibit collaboration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.	Sets aside emotions in order to meet organisational goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.	Handles emotional conflicts with tact and diplomacy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37.	Manages task-related conflicts effectively	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38.	Inspires and guides employees to attain group/organisational goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39.	Recognises the political realities of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40.	Confronts problems without demeaning those who work with him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



## Section C – LEADERSHIP

This is a questionnaire to provide a description about leadership. Please describe your direct supervisor / manager when answering **all** the questions.

Directions:

Listed below are descriptive statements about your supervisor / manager. For each statement, please indicate **how frequently** the person you report to, displays the behaviour described.

For example: If you feel your supervisor is almost never absent when you need him/her, then cross the box with the number 1.

ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	SOMETIMES	FAIRLY OFTEN	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS
1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always

**Read each question carefully and choose only ONE answer!**

**The person I report to:**

QUESTIONS	ALMOST NEVER	ONCE IN A WHILE	SOMETIMES	FAIRLY OFTEN	FREQUENTLY	ALMOST ALWAYS
1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always

<b>3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>5. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>6. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>7. Talks optimistically about the future</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>8. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>9. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>10. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>11. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>12. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>13. Spends time supporting and coaching</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always

<b>14. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>15. Shows he/she is a firm believer in “if it isn’t broken, don’t fix it”</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>16. Goes beyond his/her self-interest for the good of the group</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>17. Treats you as an individual rather than just a member of the group</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>18. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before he/she will take action</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>19. Acts in ways that builds my respect</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>20. Concentrates on correcting anticipating mistakes, complaints and failures</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>21. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of his/her decisions</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>22. Keeps track of all mistakes</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>23. Displays a sense of power and confidence</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always

<b>24. Articulates a compelling vision of the future</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>25. Directs his/her attention toward failures to meet standards</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>26. Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>27. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>28. Helps me to develop my strengths</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>29. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>30. Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>31. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always
<b>32. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved</b>	1 Almost never	2 Once in a while	3 Sometimes	4 Fairly often	5 Frequently	6 Almost always

**Thank you for your time and willingness to complete this survey. It is GREATLY appreciated!**