The Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Public Leadership Performance in South Africa

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Abstract

The practice of public service leadership, crucial for public governance and institutional performance, is viewed as the "weakest link" in the public service system (Kramer, 2008). In pursuit of understanding the competency needs of public service leaders, this study tested scholarly claims that emotional and social intelligence (EI) competencies are fundamental to effective leadership performance.

The study was situated in a South African provincial government and focused on a group of executive managers from four departments. The study had its primary theoretical grounding in the competency theory of action and performance (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008), with competencies defined as a behavioural manifestation of EI that predicts job performance (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002).

A mixed-method design, which included qualitative and quantitative methods, was used to address the research questions and test the hypotheses. The quantitative statistical results showed significant and positive correlations between EI competencies (using the Goleman and Boyatzis Emotional and Social Competence Inventory) and leadership performance effectiveness (using a nominations survey) for all four EI clusters and eleven competencies (except for Emotional Self-control). Of these, four competencies (Adaptability, Emotional Self-awareness, Inspirational Leadership, and Positive Outlook) displayed the strongest significant correlations, which distinguished high performers.

The qualitative results, based on Behavioural Events Interviews (McClelland, 1998) with the top-performing and high EI leaders, were generally consistent with the quantitative findings. Three case studies based on these interviews are presented. In addition, the contextual qualitative thematic inductive analysis resulted in four dominant themes, namely social exclusion, leadership behaviours and styles, public service orientation and public governance systems.

In general, the results were consistent with antecedents in the scholarship, though certain results were unique to the study context. The study has theoretical and practical implications for public service leadership and governance and EI competency development.

Opsomming

Die openbare leierskapspraktyk, noodsaaklik vir openbare regering en institusionele prestasie, word as die swakste skakel ("weakest link") in die staatsdiensstelsel beskou (Kramer, 2008). Hierdie studie het wetenskaplike bewerings dat emosionele en sosiale intelligensie-vaardighede (EI-vaardighede) die grondslag is vir effektiewe leierskapsprestasie getoets in die ondersoek na die vaardighede wat staatsdiensleiers benodig.

Die studie is gesetel in 'n Suid-Afrikaanse provinsiale regering en het op 'n groep uitvoerende bestuurders van vier departemente gefokus. Die vaardigheidsteorie van aksie en prestasie (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008) waarin vaardighede gedefinieer is as 'n vorm van gedragsmanifestering van EI wat werksprestasie voorspel (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002), het as die studie se primêre teoretiese grondslag gedien.

'n Gemengde-metode-ontwerp wat kwalitatiewe en kwantitatiewe metodes insluit, is gebruik om die navorsingsvrae aan te spreek en die hipotesisse te toets. Die kwantitatiewe statistiese resultate het beduidende en positiewe korrelasies tussen EI-vaardighede (deur gebruik van die Goleman en Boyatzis Emosionele en Sosiale Vaardigheidsinventaris) en leierskapsprestasie-effektiwiteit (deur gebruik van 'n nominasie-opname) vir al vier EI-trosse en elf vaardighede (behalwe vir Emosionele Selfbeheer) getoon. Van hierdie elf het vier vaardighede (Aanpasbaarheid, Emosionele Selfbewustheid, Inspirerende Leierskap en Positiewe Beskouing) die sterkste beduidende korrelasies getoon wat hoë presteerders uitgesonder het, getoon.

Die kwalitatiewe resultate, gebaseer op Gedragsgeleentheid-onderhoude (McClelland, 1998) saam met die toppresterende en hoë EI-leiers was oor die algemeen konsekwent met betrekking tot die kwalitatiewe bevindinge. Drie gevallestudies wat op hierdie onderhoude gebaseer is, word in die proefskrif beskou. Verder het die kontekstuele kwalitatiewe tematiese induktiewe analise tot vier hooftemas gelei, naamlik sosiale uitsluiting, leierskapsgedrag en leierskapstyl, staatsdiensoriëntasie en openbare regeringstelsels.

Oor die algemeen was die resultate konsekwent met dié van voorgangers in die vakgebied, alhoewel sommige resultate eie aan die studie se konteks was. Die studie het teoretiese en praktiese implikasies vir staatsdiensleierskap en openbare regering asook EI-vaardigheidsontwikkeling.

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List of acronyms and abbreviations

ACH	Achievement Orientation
ADA	Adaptability
AET	Affective Events Theory
ANC	African National Congress
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BEI	Behavioural Events Interview
C&M	Coach and Mentor
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
DDG	Deputy Director-General
DG	Director-General
DI	Dynamic Inquiry
DPSA	Department of Public Service and Administration
EC	Eastern Cape
ECI	Emotional Competence Inventory
ECPG	Eastern Cape Provincial Government
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EMP	Empathy
EQ-i	Emotional Intelligence Quotient Inventory
ESA	Emotional Self-awareness
ESC	Emotional Self-control
ESCI	Emotional and Social Competence Inventory
EXCO	Executive Committee
FFM	Five Factor Model (personality traits)
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness
HR	Human Resource
I/O	Industrial/Organisational (psychology)
ICT	Intentional Change Theory
IL	Inspirational Leadership
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
LMCF	Leadership and Management Competency Framework
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange Theory
LSD	Least Significant Difference
MEIS	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale

MMS	Middle-level Management Service
MS	Microsoft
MSCEIT	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
NDP	National Development Plan
NPM	New Public Management
OA	Organisational Awareness
PA	Personal Assistant
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
PMDS	Performance Management and Development System
PO	Positive Outlook
POSDCORB	Planning, Organising, Staffing, Directing, Coordinating, Reporting and Budgeting
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SMS	Senior Management Service
SOA	Self-other Agreement
SREIT	Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test
SU	Stellenbosch University
SUEIT	Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test
TW	Teamwork
WEIP	Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile
WLEIS	Wong-Law Emotional Intelligence Scale
WPTPS	White Paper on Transforming of the Public Service

Definitions

Affect: This term indicates a longer-lasting positive or negative emotional experience – classified as state affect (mood) and trait or dispositional affect (Frijda, 1993).

Competency: This is an underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to (criterion-referenced) effective and/or superior performance in a job (or situation) (Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Emotions: These are intense and short-lived mental reactions directed at an individual, event or collective (Frijda, 1993).

Emotional competence: This term refers to a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work (Goleman, 1998).

Emotional intelligence: This is a broad concept that defines the capacity to understand one's emotions and to manage them effectively (emotional element) as well as to understand and effectively manage the emotions of others (social element). In this study, emotional intelligence refers to both emotional and social elements.

Leadership performance: This concept is a measure of executive managers' specific outcomes of leadership performance effectiveness based on nominations from supervisors, subordinates, peers and others, i.e. a subjective measure of leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland, 1998; Ramo, Saris & Boyatzis, 2009).

Public service: This term is used to refer to the domain of public administration and governance, i.e. services provided by the government or its agencies. It may also be referred to as the "civil service" or broadly as the "public sector".

Chapter 1

Introduction

[I]nternal factors may be even more crucial in assessing one's development as a human being. Honesty, sincerity, simplicity, humility, pure generosity, absence of vanity, readiness to serve others – qualities which are within easy reach of every soul – are the foundation of one's spiritual life. Development in matters of this nature is inconceivable without serious introspection, without knowing yourself, your weaknesses and mistakes.[1]

- Nelson Mandela (2010: viii)

The public service is a vital institution for the progress of any society. Yet, it is a turbulent, complex, and dynamic function – referred to as the "permanent white water" (Kramer, 2008: 297; Newman, Guy & Mastracci, 2009; Vaill, 1996). Upholding democratic principles and public service values defies many governments. These principles and values are the cornerstones of any public institution (DeSeve, 2007). The effective implementation of public policy continues to challenge and frustrate many administrators, due to the contextual complexities and subtleties (Holzer, 2008: 21). The current context of recurrent crises in the public sphere is well documented (Kellis & Ran, 2013). Not surprisingly, over the past few decades, trust and confidence in the public sphere has declined remarkably across continents.

The public service is part of a multi-dimensional, inter-dependent and interdisciplinary 21st-century environment (Van Wart, 2011; Yorks & Nicolaides, 2012). Organisations are increasingly experiencing major paradigm shifts from hierarchical, command and control approaches to networked governance in response to the complexity and rapid change (Limerick, Cunnington & Crowter, 2003). Fundamental theoretical shifts have gained momentum from the late 20th-century modernist discourse, grounded in empiricism, rationalism, positivism and reductionism, to post-

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[1] Extract from a letter to Winnie Mandela, dated 1 February 1975, Robben Island Prison.

modernist approaches, which are non-hierarchical, eclectic, relational and holistic (Goffee & Jones, 2009; Senge Scharmer, Jaworski & Flowers, 2004; Van Wart, 2011; Wilber, 2000).

Navigating this milieu of significant transformation is the practice of public service leadership, which is crucial for good public governance and institutional performance (OECD, 2001). Effective public leaders are crucial to successful societal outcomes, whether through directing organisational resources in realising the organisation's vision, goals and strategies, or through their substantial impact on the organisational climate and culture (Goleman, 2001). However, leadership is widely viewed as the "weakest link" in the public service (Kramer, 2008: 297; Newman et al., 2009), with many nations facing "a crisis in public leadership" (Beinecke & Spencer, 2009: 340). Several public sector scholars implore the pressing need for strong and effective leadership (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000, 2006, 2007), especially in the context of "distrust of, and disappointment in, government" (Holzer & Illiash, 2009: 145). The challenge for scholars and practitioners is to understand what constitutes adequate and effective public leadership (Kellis and Ran, 2013; Van Wart, 2011).

Many call for visionary, ethical, authentic, compassionate, and caring leaders (Bennis, 2009; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006, 2007; Newman et al., 2009) that endeavour to "enhance the quality of life of their citizens" (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006: xvii). In reference to Bernard Bass (2008), Van Wart (2011: 457) places the leadership challenges, due to major environmental shifts, in context: "[S]ocial values tend to evolve, organisational structures adjust, preferred leader styles alter, and competency needs are affected." In pursuit of understanding the competency needs of public service leaders for effective leadership, this study aims to test scholarly claims that emotional and social intelligence competencies are fundamental to effective leadership performance (Bar-On, 1997, 2006; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002; Hartley, 2004). The study is situated in a South African public service context. Emotional intelligence is generally defined as the capacity to understand one's emotions and manage them effectively as well as to understand and effectively manage the emotions of others (Bar-On, 1997, 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1995, 1997).

This chapter begins with the background to the research problem and the research problem, followed by the aim of the study, research questions and hypotheses, significance, and research objectives. In addition, this chapter concludes with the study's assumptions, delimitations and an overview of the chapters that follow.

1.1　　BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The pursuit for characteristics that adequately explain success has been continuous within social psychology and the organisational field (Ramos, Saris & Boyatzis, 2009). Several research findings and meta-analyses (Judge, Colbert & Ilies, 2004; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack et al., 2011; Sternberg, 1996) consistently demonstrate that IQ by itself is not a good or the only predictor of job performance and leadership effectiveness. Over the past 40 years, research evidence has indicated the validity and value of competencies in predicting workplace performance across a variety of settings (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008, 2009; McClelland, 1973, 1998; Ryan, Emmerling & Spencer, 2009; Schwella & Rossouw, 2005; Spencer, 2001; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). There is a growing number of claims that emotional and social competencies, based on the behavioural approach to emotional intelligence (Goleman et al., 2002; Boyatzis, 2009), account for a significant variance in predicting or understanding job performance (Acha, 2013; Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss, Extein, Goleman & Weissberg, 2006; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Goleman et al., 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Piel, 2008; Roark, 2013; Ruestow, 2009; Russell, 2014; Ryan et al., 2009; Sharma, 2011; Spencer, 2001).

A number of scholars consider EI, rather than just cognitive intelligence (IQ) or technical expertise, as the key predictor of effective leadership and a key success factor in careers (Cherniss et al., 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; McClelland, 1973, 1998). For leadership scholar Warren Bennis (2001: xv), intellect does matter and leaders need a certain level of IQ to "get into the game", although "becoming a star is largely attributable to factors beyond intellect". These factors are related to emotion. Furthermore, some scholars (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006; Goleman, 2006; Newman et al., 2009) regard leadership as more of an art than a science, subsequently drawing more on EI than cognition.

Emotions are considered essential "to make good decisions, take optimal action to solve problems, cope with change, and succeed" (Caruso & Salovey, 2004: ix), which are key characteristics for effective leadership. Furthermore, Goleman et al. (2002: 3) agree that "Great leadership works through the emotions", which are "primal" for exemplary leadership. Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2002) suggest that leadership is inherently an emotional process in which leaders display emotion and evoke emotion in others.

Denhardt and Denhardt (2006: 83), public sector scholars, stress that "human emotions and qualities such as empathy and intuition" have a significant role to play in public leadership. Likewise, Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010: 72) contest the hegemony of rationality in public administration, suggesting that

> … emotions in management and the management of emotions play a significant role in the outcomes of public administration personnel [and] feelings and emotions are a useful managerial tool and a key concept in building vigorous relationships with citizens, social groups, public officials, and other stakeholders in the public sphere.

1.2   RESEARCH PROBLEM

In the current complex and dynamic environment, public service leaders experience huge performance challenges in achieving public goals, but public administration practitioners and scholars have not yet fully embraced public service leadership as a fundamental element of successful practice (Kellis & Ran, 2013: 130). Historically, the political leadership of renowned leaders has received the most scholarly attention. However, limited emphasis has been placed on public service organisational leaders (Raffel, Leisink & Middlebrooks, 2009; Van Wart, 2011).

While the past decade witnessed a considerable increase in public service leadership literature, several scholars demand an ongoing development of sector-specific leadership models and research (Morse & Buss, 2008; Morse, Buss & Kinghorn, 2007; Raffel et al., 2009; Van Wart, 2003, 2011), including deeper insights into emotionality and leadership (Newman et al., 2009; Kotzé & Venter, 2011; Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010).

In a unique study on EI in a South African public service institution, Kotzé and Venter (2011), using the Bar-On EQ-i measure, found a significant difference between effective and ineffective middle-management employees with regard to their overall EI scores. Drawing on their research, and that of other public sector scholars like Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010), they assert that there is "a lack of certain EI competencies at both managerial and entry level" (Kotzé & Venter, 2011: 412). This calls for greater research endeavours on EI. Kotzé and Venter (2011) further take up Goleman's (1995: xi) concern that "the place of feeling in mental life has been surprisingly slighted by research over the years, leaving emotions a largely unexplored continent for scientific psychology."

Despite these growing scholarly claims, and the prevalence of competency frameworks in the workplace, there exist few published studies on the empirical link between competencies and performance, and even fewer studies on management and leadership competency development (Boyatzis, 2009). Considering these gaps in the literature, researchers call for further competency research and theory that can drive future scholarship and application (Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss & Adler, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Ramo et al., 2009; Walter, Cole & Humphrey, 2011).

In particular, scholarship on the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and leadership performance, specifically relating to non-Western public service contexts, significantly trails behind related fields of research. Furthermore, greater research focus is required on the theoretical perspective of emotional and social competencies as a behavioural approach to emotional intelligence, as theorised by Goleman et al. (2002).

1.3   RESEARCH AIM

The aim of this study is to examine the complex relationship between emotional and social intelligence competency and effective leadership performance of executive managers in the South African public service setting. If these two constructs are significantly related, then, firstly, it implies theoretical significance, i.e. the results contribute a public service and an African perspective to a predominantly Western and private-sector body of literature and research and, secondly, practical

significance, i.e. the results have potential policy and practice implications for talent management development in the public service.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This dissertation focuses on the following four research objectives:

i) To review literature in three parts: a conceptual and theoretical analysis on emotional intelligence, leadership analysis through an affective and relational lens, and a contextual analysis of the transforming public service institution;

ii) To test the existence of empirical relationships between emotional intelligence competency and leadership performance of executive managers in the public service through quantitative statistical analysis;

iii) To investigate the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence competency and leadership performance through quantitative and qualitative analyses; and

iv) To examine the contextual organisational factors as potential mediators in the EI-performance relationship through qualitative analysis.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The overall research questions for this mixed-method research study are:

i) Does a significant relationship exist between executive managers' emotional intelligence and their leadership performance in a non-Western public service context?

ii) If a relationship is confirmed, what is the nature and dynamics of the EI-performance bivariate relationship?

The quantitative research, the primary focus of this study, is guided by three research questions and seven related hypotheses:

i) Does a relationship exist between EI and leadership performance among public service executive managers?

H1: A positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence and leadership performance.

ii) What is the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance?

H2.1: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence cluster mean scores and leadership performance nominations.

H2.2: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between each emotional intelligence competency mean score and leadership performance nominations.

H2.3: A statistically significant difference exists between the EI competency scores of high-performing and low-performing executive managers.

iii) What is the nature of the relationship between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance?

H3.1: Statistically significant differences exist between the mean emotional intelligence scores of the different rater groups, i.e. self, managers, subordinates, peers, others and clients:

- *Between self and manager, subordinates, and peers;*

- *Between managers and subordinates, peers, others and clients; and*

- *Between other rater groups.*

H3.2: A statistically significant negative relationship exists between the executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance.

H3.3: A statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high-performing and low-performing executive managers.

1.6   SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Notwithstanding the massive growth in the scholarly literature on EI and leadership over the past two decades, most notably in the private sector, there is a growing need for researchers to examine the relationship between these two phenomena in the public service. A number of public service scholars have called for greater research efforts to explore the nature and impact of affect, emotions and feelings on leadership in public service institutions. In the context of the current knowledge gap, further research and knowledge development in the areas of EI and public

leadership could make theoretical, empirical, methodological and practical contributions. This study will attempt to contribute to all four aspects in the areas of EI competencies and public organisational leadership. Firstly, the study intends to add to existing theory, strengthening the literature by presenting deeper insights, and by examining the relationships between EI (especially competencies) and public leadership effectiveness under unique contextual conditions. Schwella (2008: 47) points out the need for the study of competencies:

> In further work in respect of systematisation and classification, it may be useful to analyse, classify and describe competencies in respect of some essential elements of the leadership situation and challenge, which include the leadership context [and] the organisation [.]

Secondly, this dissertation represents the first empirical study to focus on the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance of (predominantly black) executive managers in the South African public service. It is also the first research design that applies a mixed-method approach that includes quantitative instruments, i.e. the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007) and leadership performance nominations survey (Lewin & Zwany, 1976, Luthans et al., 1988; McClelland, 1998; Ramo et al., 2009; Spencer & Spencer, 1993), and qualitative instruments, i.e. Behavioural Event Interview (BEI) (McClelland, 1998) and Dynamic Inquiry (London & McMillen, 1992). For this reason, the research findings may have significant implications for EI and leadership theory and methodology.

Thirdly, besides contributing to the literature gap, an improved understanding of EI competencies and their relationship to leadership effectiveness offers a better connection between theory and practice. Leedy and Ormrod (2010: 8) assert: "Truly competent and effective practitioners base their day-to-day decisions and long-term priorities on solid research findings in their field." Better-informed public policymakers can be expected to employ this new knowledge to improve public sector leadership development and training policies, programmes and practices, and human talent management considerations, e.g. recruitment and selection, in their organisations.

1.7   DELIMITATIONS

Van Wart (2011: 3) advises that as leadership is a vast subject, it is important to focus on a particular domain or type of leadership. This study had a number of delimitations related to the context, unit of analysis, theoretical constructs and perspectives, and methodologies.

- Firstly, the study was limited to the context of four departments within a provincial sphere of the public service in South Africa.

- Secondly, the unit of analysis was confined to the executive public managers, ranging from Head of Department to Chief Director (top three) levels with both management and leadership roles and functions. Therefore, the type of leadership studied was public organisational leadership. The study did not include any political office bearers.

- Thirdly, the theoretical orientation of the study was limited to theories and concepts based on the Goleman et al. (2002) EI competency model (competencies as a behavioural approach to EI), comprising four EI clusters, Boyatzis' (1982, 2008) theory of action and performance, McClelland's (1973; 1998) theory of competencies and motives, and Wilber's (2000) integral theory.

- Fourthly, the research instrument used to measure the twelve EI competencies was the Emotional and Social Competencies Inventory (ESCI) and a nomination survey was the instrument used to measure leadership performance effectiveness. As such, no other EI models or intelligence tests, such as IQ, personality or any other quantitative measure, were used. Only the Behavioural Event Interview and Dynamic Inquiry qualitative instruments were used.

- Finally, the primary focus of the literature review was on the emotional and social characteristics related to leadership, with a limited consultation of the vast mainstream leadership literature. Similarly, the study limited the literature review to EI competencies with an overview of the broad field of EI. Literature on multiple intelligences was not reviewed. The huge public service literature was reviewed selectively.

1.8   ASSUMPTIONS

This study makes the following conceptual/theoretical, epistemological, ontological and axiological, and methodological assumptions:

i) Conceptual/theoretical assumptions: It was assumed that there is a growing body of knowledge showing that EI competencies contribute to effective leadership and that well-developed EI competencies are crucial for exemplary public leadership. Further, that currently there is a gap in the public leadership literature on EI and the relationship of EI with leadership effectiveness – both globally and especially in the contexts of developing nations, such as South Africa.

ii) Epistemological, ontological and axiological assumptions: Two research paradigms, post-positivist and constructivist, were assumed as the most appropriate for this study. In the post-positivist research paradigm, the author assumes there will be a high degree of objectivity and independence from the participants, although some degree of influence from the researcher may be expected. In this paradigm, the researcher acknowledges an imperfect comprehension of the objective reality of the context and the participants to be studied.

Within the constructivist paradigm, the intention with the personal interactions with the executive managers was to gain deeper insights into their EI behaviours from their lived experience and perspective. It was assumed that during such interactions, the researcher's values, beliefs and biases might have unintentionally influenced the participants' responses. It was also assumed that reality in this paradigm is subjective.

iii) Methodological assumptions: It was assumed that a two-phase mixed-method design, by applying a quantitative ESCI measure (deductive reasoning) and the qualitative BEI method (inductive reasoning), was an appropriate means for examining the phenomena of EI competencies and public leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, it was assumed that the ESCI and the BEI measurement scales met the standard requirements regarding validity and reliability. The selection process for the leaders was presumed to result in a representative sample of the population. These leaders' availability and their ability to participate, and to do so with honesty and integrity, were considered important characteristics. Furthermore, it was

assumed that the raters of the leaders will actively participate in completing the online survey and that they would do so in a truthful manner.

1.9   BRIEF CHAPTER OVERVIEWS

Chapter 1: This chapter offers an introduction to the study: background, research problem, purpose, research objectives, delimitations, definitions, assumptions, significance, and a brief chapter overview.

Chapter 2: This chapter offers a conceptual and theoretical analysis of emotional and social intelligence scholarship in relation to personality traits and cognitive intelligence, the three major EI research streams, competencies and performance, emotional and social competencies as a behavioural approach to EI, and leadership.

Chapter 3: This chapter offers an affective and relational conceptual and theoretical analysis of the leadership literature examining the complex interplay between social/relational and emotional/affective characteristics and leadership effectiveness.

Chapter 4: This chapter offers a contextual analysis of key issues and debates within the transforming public administration and leadership scholarship, including an overview analysis of the South African public service context.

Chapter 5: This chapter offers a conceptual and research design for the study. The conceptual and theoretical framework, which grounds this study in emotional intelligence and public leadership, is presented, followed by the research design elements, i.e. sampling strategy, research instruments, data collection method, data analysis, anticipated limitations and ethical considerations.

Chapter 6: The qualitative findings, based on the Dynamic Inquiry interview method, are presented in this chapter. Four dominant themes that emerged from the thematic analysis is presented using Wilber's (2000) four-quadrant, integral theory model as a frame to present the themes.

Chapter 7: The descriptive quantitative findings on the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies (independent variable, measured by the 360-degree multi-source Emotional and Social Competence Inventory) and leadership performance (dependent variable, measured using multi-source nominations) of public service executive managers are presented in this chapter. The chapter further includes the empirical framework, descriptive statistics and Spearman correlations and ANOVA analyses for the two variables.

Chapter 8: The second qualitative study, presented in this chapter, used the Behavioural Events Interview method to examine critical events displaying the leaders' actual behaviour in the job. The results based on the top five highly emotional intelligent and top-performing leaders' behaviours and actions are presented as three mini case studies, followed by a summary of the themes from the data analysis of all five leaders.

Chapter 9: This chapter offers a discussion on qualitative and quantitative results presented in Chapters 6–8, supported by relevant literature.

Chapter 10: This chapter presents the implications of and conclusion to the study: A summary of the study results, followed by implications for theory and practice, recommendations for future research, strengths and limitations, and the final conclusion.

1.10   SUMMARY

In a rapidly transforming and complex 21st-century environment, public service leaders face numerous challenges in charting the "permanent white waters" (Vaill, 1996) of their institutional context. Several public administration scholars implore the need for a better understanding of the public leadership processes and outcomes, lamenting the lack of scholarship, and make a resounding case for greater research efforts to this end.

Over the past four decades, mounting evidence has contested the dominance of traditional intelligence measures, such as IQ, and personality models as the only predictors of job performance and leadership effectiveness. Alternatively, research indicates the validity and value of competencies in predicting workplace performance, especially emotional and social intelligence competencies. The Goleman et al. (2002) behavioural approach to emotional intelligence

theoretical model considers emotional and social competencies. However, a lack of research on the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and leadership performance exists, especially in non-Western and public service contexts. For this reason, further research to test the EI-performance relationship is merited, as it offers a fertile ground for both scholarly and practitioner knowledge, learning and application.

The overall research question of this mixed-methods study focused on whether a significant relationship existed between executive managers' emotional intelligence competency and their leadership performance in a non-Western public service context, including the nature of this bivariate relationship.

This chapter provided the backdrop to the study by describing the research problem, followed by the aim, objectives and significance of the study. A set of research questions and hypotheses that guides the study was presented. The parameters of the study were outlined in the delimitations and assumptions sections. Finally, an overview of the nine chapters that follow was presented.

The next three chapters (Chapters 2–4) encompass the literature review of the study, starting with a conceptual analysis of EI, followed by an affective and relational analysis of the leadership literature and then a review of key public administration and leadership issues. These three chapters inform the conceptual and theoretical framework presented at the start of Chapter 5.

Chapter 2

Emotional intelligence: A conceptual and theoretical analysis

2.1   INTRODUCTION

A growing body of literature on emotional intelligence (EI) suggests that a person's ability to perceive, identify and manage emotion is essential to making good decisions, taking optimal action to solve problems and coping with change (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Bar-On, 1997, 2004, 2006; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Cherniss et al., 2006; Goleman, 1995, 1998, 2001a; Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1995). Empirical evidence and meta-analytical studies indicate EI provides the basis for emotional and social competencies that are vital for leadership effectiveness and organisational success (Cherniss & Adler, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Wong & Law, 2002).

Despite the growing EI scholarship, a lack of research exists in general, though particularly in the public service institutional context, with scholars calling for further research into the EI field (Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss, 2001; Kotzé & Venter, 2011; Newman, et al., 2009). EI is regarded as "a young theory, still at an early stage in development and hypothesis testing" (Cherniss et al., 2006: 239). For the past century, research predominantly focused on the influence of cognitive ability and personality traits on life and work outcomes. In the face of the mainstream cognitive school's criticism of the EI concept's validity, meta-analyses over the past decade have convincingly shown that EI is a distinct concept that predicts performance. It also has incremental validity over and above the Five-Factor personality model (FFM) and cognitive ability (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van Rooy, Viswesvaran & Pluta, 2005).

The objective of this chapter is to provide a conceptual and theoretical analysis of emotional and social intelligence (EI) scholarship, with the aim of applying the construct as a conceptual lens to study public leadership. To achieve this objective, this chapter:

- Traces the origins of the EI construct and its Western epistemological antecedent in social intelligence;

- Analyses the major EI models and measurement tools and their incremental predictive value;

- Examines the concepts of EI, personality traits and cognitive intelligence; and

- Defines and assesses the concept of competency within the integrated, holistic theory of personality and performance, which frames the Goleman-Boyatzis-McKee (2002) EI competency model, i.e. a behavioural approach to EI.

The literature on the relationship between emotions, EI and leadership is noted, though their complex interplay is reviewed in Chapter 3 on leadership analysis. Furthermore, this chapter does not provide an in-depth literature review of cognitive intelligence, personality traits or the several EI models and research streams.

2.2   CONCEPTUAL ORIGINS OF SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

In 1990, psychologists and researchers, Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer (1990:189), provided the initial definition of the construct emotional intelligence as "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions". A decade later, these authors and their colleague David Caruso expanded on the definition of EI as the "ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others" (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000: 396).

In 1995, Daniel Goleman brought EI to the forefront of public attention through his international bestseller *Emotional Intelligence*, followed three years later by his widely read *Harvard Business Review* article on the topic. Since 1995, emotional intelligence has been postulated as an important predictor for success in the workplace (Bar-On, 1997; Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman, 1995, 1998, 2001b, 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) and has subsequently drawn the attention of researchers, theorists and practitioners from multiple disciplines.

The concept of EI builds on a long history of theory and research on personality, social and positive psychology, and more particularly on the importance of non-cognitive aspects of intelligence. Robert Thorndike, back in the 1920s, is credited with coining the term "social

intelligence", while David Wechsler (1940) referred to "non-intellective" and "intellective elements", which relate to personal, affective and social factors. Since then other scholars of intelligence have also recognised the significance of non-cognitive aspects of intelligence and realised that a model of intelligence based only on cognitive abilities, such as analytical reasoning, problem-solving and memory, is insufficient to understand human capabilities and behaviour (McClelland, 1973).

Influential among these scholars was psychologist Howard Gardner (1983) who proposed a theory of "multiple intelligences", consisting of seven different kinds of intelligence domains, namely logical, linguistic, spatial, musical, kinaesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. The last two domains are considered "social intelligence", which is regarded as being as important as cognitive aspects of intelligence. This means that humans are capable of different ways of learning and processing data. Interpersonal intelligence is defined as the ability to relate to others through seeing their perspective, with a sense of empathy, and understanding their "moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions" (Gardner, 1983: 239). This intelligence relates to social awareness, communication and relationships. Equally, intrapersonal intelligence refers to one's ability to understand personal feelings accurately. This intelligence relates to self-awareness, self-reflection and spiritual awareness. Later Gardner (1999) identified the "naturalist" intelligence domain, i.e. eight types of intelligence in total, with two others as possibilities, namely existential awareness and moral awareness.

Also in the mid 1980s, Sternberg (1985) proposed the Triarchic Theory of Intelligence, which comprises three basic types of intelligence, namely componential, experiential and contextual. House and Aditya (1997) assert that Gardner's and Sternberg's theories and research on intelligence present new possibilities for leadership trait research. They (House & Aditya, 1997) further assert that these intelligence theories have implications for managerial roles. The authors (House & Aditya, 1997: 418) conclude that, as leadership occurs in a social context, social intelligence as a vital "leadership trait is a powerful one."

Conversely, a number of cognitive and personality researchers, for instance Locke (2005), Conte (2005) and Waterhouse (2006), have questioned the conceptualisation of EI and the construct and predictive validity of its various measures. Cherniss et al. (2006: 239) argue that Waterhouse

(2006) "seems to mix together popular claims, scientific claims, and claims on Web sites and then dismisses the area without a systematic or thorough review of the actual published scientific literature." While, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005: 447) are critical of Locke's (2005) outmoded model of organisational behaviour and scholars who are reluctant to engage with emotions as they consider "emotion is an inappropriate subject for serious research by scholars of organisational behavior and I/O [Industrial/Organizational] psychology." These scholars counter that modern theories of organisational behaviour have moved on from this view (Locke, 2005). The detractors of EI accept traditional tests of cognitive intelligence, such as the IQ test, as the only basis for measuring intelligence or performance.

2.3   COGNITIVE ABILITY, PERSONALITY TRAITS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The quest for characteristics that sufficiently explain success has been continuous within social psychology and the organisational field (Ramos et al., 2009). Traditional (cognitive) intelligence, personality and emotional intelligence influence work-related outcomes (O'Boyle et al., 2011; Walter et al., 2011). Newman et al. (2009) succinctly differentiate cognitive and emotional intelligences as follows:

> Cognitive skills and emotion work skills are separate but related dimensions for successful job performance. The former includes the application of factual knowledge to the intellectual analysis of problems and rational decision-making process. The latter includes analysis and decision-making in terms of the expression of emotion, whether actually felt or not, as well as its opposite: the suppression of emotions that are felt but not expressed.

According to Cherniss et al. (2006: 240), EI "represents a set of abilities that are distinct from either IQ [cognitive ability measure] or the 'Big Five' personality traits [Five-factor Model, FFM] (openness to novel experience, conscientiousness, extraversion vs introversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism)." Similarly, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005: 446) argue that EI is a "distinct concept, grounded in theories of emotion, so there is no reason to imagine that EI research will flounder." O'Boyle et al.'s meta-analysis (2011: 806) provides a "contrasting perspective to the proposition

that cognitive ability and the FFM account for enough variance in work-related outcomes that further research about relevant predictors is not useful." They claim that all three constructs are distinctly different; moreover, that all three EI streams are theoretically distinct from cognitive ability and the FFM. Their three streams of EI research are based on Ashkanasy and Daus' (2005) categorisation, namely ability measures (MSCEIT), self-report and peer-report measures (WLEIS, SUEIT, SREIT), and mixed models (EQ-i and ECI/ESCI).

A growing body of scholarship (Judge et al., 2004; McClelland, 1973; Sternberg, 1996, 1997) consistently demonstrates that IQ by itself is not a good predictor of job performance and leadership effectiveness. Forty years ago, prominent Harvard professor in human and organisational behaviour, David McClelland (1973), argued that traditional tests of cognitive intelligence, such as the IQ, were "failing to account for successful performance, especially in high-level executive positions" (McClelland, 1998: 331). He (McClelland, 1998) proposed competency assessment as an alternative to academic-type intelligence testing.

Further studies show that IQ and other tests of cognitive ability account for between 8% and 25% of the variance in outcomes (Sternberg, 1996, 1997; Judge et al., 2004; Cherniss et al., 2006: 242). Sternberg (1996: 18) argues strongly that the predictive value of IQ is very weak and that "conventional academic intelligence tests account for less than 10% of the individual variation differences in actual performance." He proposes the concept of "successful intelligence" that "involves creative and practical aspects of intelligence in addition to memory and analytical aspects common to conventional intelligence tests" (Sternberg, 1996: 19).

Recently, several meta-analytical studies reveal that EI predicts performance and displays incremental validity over and above the FFM and cognitive ability (e.g. Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van Rooy et al., 2005; Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011). Van Rooy & Viswesvaran's (2004) meta-analysis of sixty-nine EI studies offers empirical support for the view that EI predicts performance across different domains. In a later meta-analysis on the incremental validity of EI measures and job performance, Joseph and Newman (2010) showed that all three streams of EI measures (categorised as performance-based, self-report ability measures and self-

report mixed models) have greater incremental validity compared to the FFM personality traits and cognitive ability.

A year later, in their meta-analysis on the relation between emotional intelligence and job performance, O'Boyle et al. (2011: 806) confirmed that EI relates to job performance over and above cognitive ability and personality traits. Their findings show all three streams of EI research, namely ability measures, self-report and peer-report measures and mixed models, predict job performance. Supporting O'Boyle et al.'s meta-analysis, Walter et al.'s (2011: 55) critical review of empirical evidence regarding the three streams of EI (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2005) and leadership conclude that "empirical research has produced notable findings", contributing to a better understanding of the relationships between EI and leadership effectiveness.

EI scholars agree that technical skills and cognitive abilities are important. Cognitive abilities are regarded as "baseline competencies" (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005: 30), "threshold competencies" (Cherniss & Adler, 2000: 5) or "threshold capabilities" (Goleman, 1998: 94). Goleman (1995: xv) points out that at the top levels of an organisation, already filtered for intellect and expertise (known as the "floor effect"), "a high IQ becomes a threshold ability, one needed just to get into and stay in the game." Despite this, cognitive intelligence and technical expertise for a specific job "does not by itself predict whether one will be a star performer or rise to management or leadership positions in one's field" (Goleman, 2001a: 22).

Based on affective neuroscience research, Goleman (2001a) suggests that each of the four domains of EI in his model (i.e. self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management) derives from different neurological mechanisms that are distinct from the cognitive domains of ability. The capacities for EI and cognitive intelligence are located in different parts of the brain: components of IQ such as "intellectual abilities like verbal fluency, spatial logic and abstract reasoning … are based primarily in specific areas of the neocortex", whereas EI comprises the "behavioral manifestations of underlying neurological circuitry that primarily links the limbic areas for emotion, centering on the amygdala and its extended networks throughout the brain, to areas in the prefrontal cortex, the brain's executive center" (Goleman, 2001a: 30).

2.4   KEY MODELS AND MEASURES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.4.1   THE INITIAL THREE MAJOR EI MODELS

Since the 1990s, several different models of EI, each with its own measurement tools, have been developed and further enhanced. Initially, the literature categorised three major conceptual models of EI and their related measures, namely the EQ-i (self-report scales) (Bar-On, 1997, 2004, 2006) and the EQ 360 (Bar-On & Handley, 2003), the MEIS/MSCEIT (ability scales) (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000) and the ECI/ESCI (observer-rating, 360-degree competency scales) (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2007; Goleman, Boyatzis & Rhee, 2000). These EI models vary because of their differing interpretations of the EI concept. Hughes et al. (2009: xvii) consider these three measures as "validated and reliable individual assessments", though research shows differences in the divergent and incremental validity of their measures (Cherniss et al., 2006; O'Boyle et al., 2011).

Despite the differences in the measures, there are noteworthy overlaps between the EI models, as presented in Table 1. All three models include two common domains of EI, i.e. awareness of and managing one's own emotions, and awareness of and managing others' emotions. Furthermore, Cherniss (2010: 111) maintains that across the major EI conceptual models, three principles endures: first, emotions play a vital role in life; second, people differ in their ability to perceive, understand, use and manage emotions; and, third, these differences affect how an individual adapts in a variety of contexts, including the workplace.

Table 1. The initial three major EI models

EQ-i	MEIS/MSCEIT	ECI/ESCI
Intrapersonal (Self-awareness)	Perceiving emotions	Self-awareness
Stress management	Understanding emotions	Social awareness
Adaptability	Facilitating emotions	Self-management
Interpersonal relationships	Managing emotions	Relationship management

2.4.2   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE RESEARCH STREAMS

In general, EI research is classified into three streams. O'Boyle et al. (2011) and Walter et al. (2011) adopted the three streams identified by Ashkanasy and Daus (2005), namely ability-based models that use objective test items (MSCEIT); self-report or peer-report measures based on the four-branch model of EI (WLEIS, SUEIT, SREIT); and mixed models of emotional competencies (EQ-i and ECI/ESCI). Joseph and Newman's (2010) meta-analysis categorised three types of EI measures: performance-based focus, self-report ability and mixed models, with parallels to Ashkanasy and Daus's (2005) three streams of EI.

EI Streams 1 and 2

Streams 1 and 2 define EI as the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions to facilitate thinking and to attain goals based on the Mayer-Salovey model (1997). In this model, EI is viewed in the context of cognition, as it is associated with the processing of information (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2000). In stream 1, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) instrument, the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), was the first to use an ability-based scale, rather than a self-report measure. Later, another ability-based test to measure performance in solving emotional problems, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT), was developed in the tradition of intellectual intelligence measures (Mayer et al., 2000; Caruso & Salovey, 2004).

Stream 2 is based on the Mayer and Salovey's (1997) EI conceptual model and uses self-report measures or other-report measures of EI behaviour, rather than an ability-based scale. Examples are the Workgroup Emotional Intelligence Profile (WEIP) (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Härtel & Hooper, 2002) and Wong-Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Wong & Law, 2002).

EI Stream 3

Stream 3 comprises conceptual EI perspectives considered as a mixed-model approach to assessing emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005) as these measure a variety of competencies, traits and skills. It is therefore different from the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso ability model (MSCEIT). Examples in this stream include the Bar-On model and the Emotional Quotient

Inventory (EQ-i) measure (1997; 2006) and EQ-360 measure (Bar-On & Handley, 2003), and the Goleman and Boyatzis (2007) competency model and Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) and Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) measures. These measures employ self-report measures or other-report measures.

The Bar-On model (1997; 2006) represents a set of emotional and social capabilities, competencies, skills and facilitators that influence the way in which human intelligent behaviour copes with the demands and pressures in an environment. Bar-On's (1997) self-report instrument, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is the oldest EI measurement instrument. The EQ-i comprises five subscales, namely intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management adaptability, and general mood. The EQ-360 was developed as a multi-rater version of the EQ-i (Bar-On & Handley, 2003).

In turn, the Goleman and Boyatzis model (1998, 2006) views EI as a set of competencies and skills that drive leadership and job performance. Initially, Goleman (1998) and Goleman et al. (2002) listed five domains of EI, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill, which were simplified into four domains that are considered interdependent These are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. These four domains comprise 18 emotional and social competencies that drive outstanding performance, which is based on Goleman's (1998) review of 188 competency models.

To measure these competencies, the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), a joint self-report/observer-rated scale (a 360-degree instrument) was developed (Boyatzis et al., 2000). The ECI draws on Richard Boyatzis' long-standing work on competencies (and derives from his Self-Assessment Questionnaire developed in 1991), and the Hay/McBer's Generic Competency Dictionary (1996). In 2007, Goleman and Boyatzis refined and consolidated the 18 ECI competencies to develop the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI), comprising a set of 12 competencies.

Distinctions between the three EI streams

Notwithstanding the three streams measuring emotions and their outcomes, and aspects of construct overlap, O'Boyle et al.'s (2011: 806) meta-analysis shows convincingly that these are different measures. Based on significantly larger number of studies than previous meta-analyses and using "current perspectives and accepted practices regarding meta-analyses", such as dominance analysis, O'Boyle et al. (2011: 806) claim that their meta-analysis is the most comprehensive and focused. They conclude that stream three measures, defined in "terms of traits, competencies, and skills, instead of intelligences", show consistency with the definition of the measures and their results. Also, "Stream 2 measures are significantly different from stream 3 measures for two personality traits, which support the conceptualisation of stream 2 as distinct from stream 3 measures" (O'Boyle et al., 2011: 806).

Furthermore, they (O'Boyle et al., 2011) demonstrated that all three streams of EI correlated with job performance, accordingly supporting researchers' claims that EI is an important predictor of work-related outcomes (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Brackett et al., 2004; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Dulewicz, Higgs, & Slaski, 2003; Spector & Fox, 2000). Notably, streams 2 and 3 delivered "additional explanatory power (with the largest incremental validity) above and beyond the FFM and cognitive ability in the prediction of job performance" (O'Boyle et al., 2011: 803). Of these two streams, stream 3 displayed the largest increment. As mixed models are composite measures (O'Boyle et al., 2011: 802), covering a wider construct space (Walter et al., 2011) and overlap with other measures (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005), they are better at predicting job performance (Cherniss, 2010).

Each EI stream has its merits and demerits and the choice of EI measure needs to weigh these and depends on the task, the context and the practicalities of administering the tool (Walter et al., 2011; O'Boyle et al., 2011). For example, stream 1, which is less susceptible to social desirability, is a measure of choice for selection and recruitment. It is also a measure of choice for researchers to understand the abilities of EI, though this measure does not assess an individual's behaviour and lacks context (Petrides & Furnham, 2003). In contrast, stream 2 and 3 measures may be used

in a variety of work settings, can be distributed easily and are less time consuming, without the loss of predictive validity. As Boyle et al. (2011: 808) point out:

> [T]hese measures [stream 1] may be an excellent choice for researchers who are concerned with differentiating EI from related variables while also increasing their ability to predict job performance. Finally, for those most interested in predicting job performance without concern for overlaps with other variables, the stream 3 measures have the greatest incremental predictive value. These measures may be of great use to practitioners or to theorists comfortable with a broad definition of emotional competencies"

The shortcoming of stream 2 and 3 is that it may capture raters' beliefs and perceptions more than their emotional abilities (Mayer et al., 2000; Walter et al., 2011). While stream 3 measures show higher predictive validity, it may be due to the composite nature and broader construct space (Walter et al., 2011; O'Boyle et al., 2011).

Furthermore, O'Boyle et al. (2011) established that

> Streams 2 and 3 [such as EQ-i and ECI/ESCI] incrementally predicted [the largest incremental validity for] job performance over and above cognitive intelligence and the FFM. In addition, dominance analyses showed that when predicting job performance, all three streams of EI exhibited substantial relative importance in the presence of the FFM and [cognitive] intelligence.

Despite Ashkanasy and Daus' (2005: 114) concern for the confusion created by different EI models and streams, and their criticism of stream 3 mixed models (such as the EQ-i and ECI/ESCI), they concede that "to predict, understand and manage human behavior in organisations, the broader, mixed [Stream 3 EI] models can be useful."

Therefore, these meta-analyses lend credence to EI researchers' claim that all three major EI streams (with its merits and demerits) predict job performance, and further display a larger incremental validity than personality traits and cognitive abilities. The next section reviews the

conceptual basis for the Stream 3 EI measures (viz. ECI/ESCI), i.e. a deeper understanding of the concept of competency in relation to job performance.

2.5 COMPETENCIES AND PERFORMANCE: A CONCEPTUAL ANALYSIS

The aim of this study is to examine the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance. Performance is a dynamic and multi-dimensional concept (Sonnentag, 2002). Individual performance is important for an organisation as well as for the individuals working in it. This section reviews the literature on competency and performance, with a focus on emotional and social competencies as underlying a behavioural approach to EI. An in-depth review of the vast performance literature is beyond the scope of this section.

2.5.1 THE ORIGINS OF THE COMPETENCY CONCEPT

Researchers and practitioners have defined the concept competency in "multiple ways leading to several competing theories and methods that now exist under the generic title of 'competency'" (Ryan et al., 2009: 860). In his review of competency literature, Rønn (2011: 195) confirms that defining competencies is an arduous task as the concept of competencies is "a versatile, multidisciplinary and qualitative field of research [in which] one can choose to define competencies according to what one finds appropriate." However, an in-depth review of the competency literature is not the focus of this section.

Traditionally, industrial/organisational (I/O) psychologists used separate analyses of the job and the person (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). They then attempted to fit these together (Spencer and Spencer, 1993). Even though this method has shown success in predicting academic performance using academic-type tests, McClelland (1998) contends that for high-level jobs in modern organisations this approach is inadequate for predicting performance. In contrast, he (McClelland, 1973, 1998) offers the job-competency approach. This approach starts with the person in the job (with no assumptions of the specific job success characteristics that the individual requires) and utilises criterion sampling and open-ended Behavioural Event Interviews (BEI) to determine which human characteristics are associated with job success. Importantly, in this approach, competencies are context-sensitive (i.e. it relates to what an individual actually does in their own

organisation and culture) and they are without race, age, gender or other demographic bias (McClelland, 1973).

McClelland (1973: 8) contends that the best method to predict job performance is, firstly, to use criterion sampling, i.e. detailed observation of behaviours in the job, and make "careful behavioral analyses of these outcomes and then find ways of sampling the adaptive behavior in advance." Therefore, this method involves both theory and practice. The competency approach highlights criterion validity, i.e. what actually causes superior job performance, and not merely the factors that "most reliably describe all the characteristics of a person, in the hope that some of them will relate to job performance" (Spencer & Spencer, 1993: 7).

The second method McClelland (1973) offers is through identifying the operant thoughts and behaviours causally related to successful outcomes. This is achieved through open-ended, unstructured situations in which an individual has to generate behaviour, i.e. spontaneous thoughts and actions, or alternatively through examining what the person has done in similar situations in the past. In the latter case, for example, this is achieved with the BEI method. This method is expected to offer the best prediction of what a person can and will do (McClelland, 1998; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

McClelland's (1973) concept of competency has its roots in his personality theory, which encompassed the interactions among a person's unconscious motives (power, achievement and affiliation), self-schema, and observed behavioural patterns (Boyatzis, 2009). In this approach, competencies are viewed as part of an integrated, holistic theory of personality.

2.5.2   THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN COMPETENCY, COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE

Building on McClelland's work, Boyatzis (1982) illustrates this theory of personality as an integrated system diagram of concentric circles with an individual's unconscious motives and trait dispositions at the centre. These characteristics affect, and are affected by, the individual's values and self-concept, represented by the next outer circle. The next concentric circle represents the knowledge and skills level. These five elements (motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge and skills) represent the five types of competency characteristics central to the understanding of the

competency concept (Spencer & Spencer, 1993). The outermost circle surrounding the five characteristics denotes the observed, specific behaviours (Boyatzis, 2009).

Boyatzis's (1982: 23) defines competency as an "underlying characteristic of an individual that is causally related to [criterion-referenced] effective and/or superior performance in a job [or situation]" (additions from Spencer & Spencer, 1993: 9), which is widely considered by researchers and practitioners (Rønn, 2011). These individual characteristics or abilities (McClelland, 1973, 1998) enable the individual to demonstrate specific appropriate actions or behaviours (Boyatzis, 1982, 2009). Further examination of the theory and constructs influencing the McClelland-Boyatzis-Spencer and Spencer competency model is necessary.

Firstly, it is useful to explain the key elements of the Boyatzis (1982) competency definition, which informs this model. Spencer and Spencer (1993: 9) offer the following description:

> *Underlying characteristic* means the competency is a fairly deep and enduring part of a person's personality and can predict behaviour in a wide variety of situations and job tasks. *Causally related* means that a competency causes or predicts behaviour and performance. *Criterion-referenced* means that the competency actually predicts who does something well or poorly, as measured on a specific criterion or standard.

Secondly, a description of the five types of competency characteristics (motives, traits, self-concept, knowledge and skills) is important to the understanding of the competency concept and theory base (Spencer & Spencer, 1993: 9–11). A motive is a goal state, which drives, directs and selects behaviour of an individual (McClelland, 1973, quoted in Spencer & Spencer, 1993: 15). Traits are physical characteristics and consistent responses to situations or information (e.g. good eyesight in pilots or good emotional self-control). Self-concept is a person's attitudes, values or self-image (e.g. self-confidence). Knowledge is the information a person has in specific content areas. Skills are abilities to perform a certain physical or mental task. The characteristics of knowledge and skills are more visible and subsequently easier to develop, while the other three types of competency characteristics (motive, trait and self-concept) are hidden and central to personality and subsequently more difficult to assess and develop.

Thirdly, it is imperative to understand the critical construct called "intent" (Boyatzis, 2009: 750), defined by Spencer and Spencer (1993: 12) as "the *motive* or trait force that causes an action toward an outcome" (emphasis added). As explained above, a competency is a set of related but different sets of behaviours organised around an underlying construct called the motive (Ryan et al., 2009: 860). The behaviours (e.g. listening to someone and asking questions) are alternate manifestations of the intent or motive (i.e. multiple reasons or intended ends or a goal state, which drives, directs and selects behaviour of an individual), as appropriate in various situations or times (e.g. demonstrating the competency of empathy or influence). Therefore, this approach to competencies requires both intent and action (i.e. a set of alternate behaviours) (Boyatzis, 2009: 750–51) toward an outcome (Spencer & Spencer, 1993: 12).

Consequently, an individual's set of competencies reflect his or her capability, i.e. "what he or she *can do*, not necessarily what he or she does, nor does all the time regardless of the situation and setting" (Boyatzis, 1982: 23, emphasis added). As Ryan et al. (2009) confirm that this definition of competency suggest not only what an individual is capable of doing, but what they want to do, that is, both motive and personality factors must be taken into account for effective prediction of work performance.

Young and Dulewicz (2009: 795) illustrate the causal flow relationships between the five competency characteristics and its relation to the constructs of competency, competence and job performance – presented in Figure 1 below.
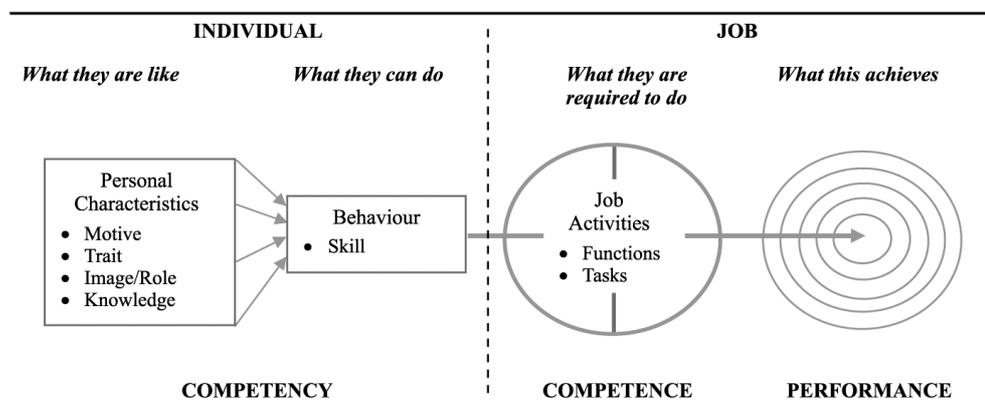
Figure 1. Relationship between competency, competence and performance. Source: Young and Dulewicz (2009: 795)

Fourthly, the theory of personality, competency and job performance initially articulated by McClelland (1973) and further developed by Boyatzis (1982) and Spencer and Spencer (1993) is particularly well suited for research and applied practice (Ryan et al., 2009). Research conducted over the past 40 years (McClelland, 1973, 1998; Boyatzis, 1982, 2009; Spencer, 2001; Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Ryan et al., 2009) emphasises the validity and value of competencies in predicting job performance across a variety of settings. For their emotional intelligence competency research, Boyatzis and Goleman draw on significant parts of the competency research base that originates from McClelland's work (Goleman et al., 2002). Therefore, understanding competencies and their characteristics has crucial practical implications for talent management in organisations.

Spencer and Spencer (1993: 12) suggest it may be more cost-effective and discerning for organisations to "select for core motive and trait competencies and teach the knowledge and skills required to do a specific job." Trottier, Van Wart and Wang (2008: 319) affirm, "Leaders need not only the traditional technical and managerial skills of the past but also well-honed transformational competencies emphasising mission articulation, vision and inspirational motivation." Spencer and Spencer (1993: 12) assert that, "In complex jobs, competencies are relatively more important in predicting superior performance than are task-related skills, intelligence, or credentials."

Accordingly, competencies, as defined and described above, are "framed as abilities related to motive and personality constructs that influence the frequency and intrinsic affective value associated with the execution of specific behaviours and cognitive-affective processes (Ryan et al., 2009: 860)."

2.5.3   EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE COMPETENCIES

McClelland's (1973, 1998) theory and research on competencies, as reviewed above, frame the Goleman-Boyatzis-McKee EI model (Goleman et al., 2002). In McClelland's (1973, 1998) view, competencies are regarded as a behavioural approach to emotional and social intelligence. The competency concept "enables a person to demonstrate intelligent use of their emotions in managing themselves and working with others to be effective at work" (Boyatzis et al., 2000: 343).

Goleman and his colleagues (Goleman, 1998, 2001a, 2006; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008; Goleman et al., 2002) refer to emotional competencies as the personal and social skills that are linked to and based on emotional intelligence. Likewise, Sala (2002: 2) defines an emotional competency as a "learned capacity based on emotional intelligence that contributes to effective performance at work."

In further developing the concepts of emotional and social intelligence, Goleman (1995, 1998, 2006) contributes a physiological level, based on advancing cognitive and social neuroscience and medical research, to the existing psychological and behavioural levels, thus expanding the integrated, holistic theory of personality, as presented in Figure 2 below (Boyatzis, 2008; Boyatzis, 2009: 760).
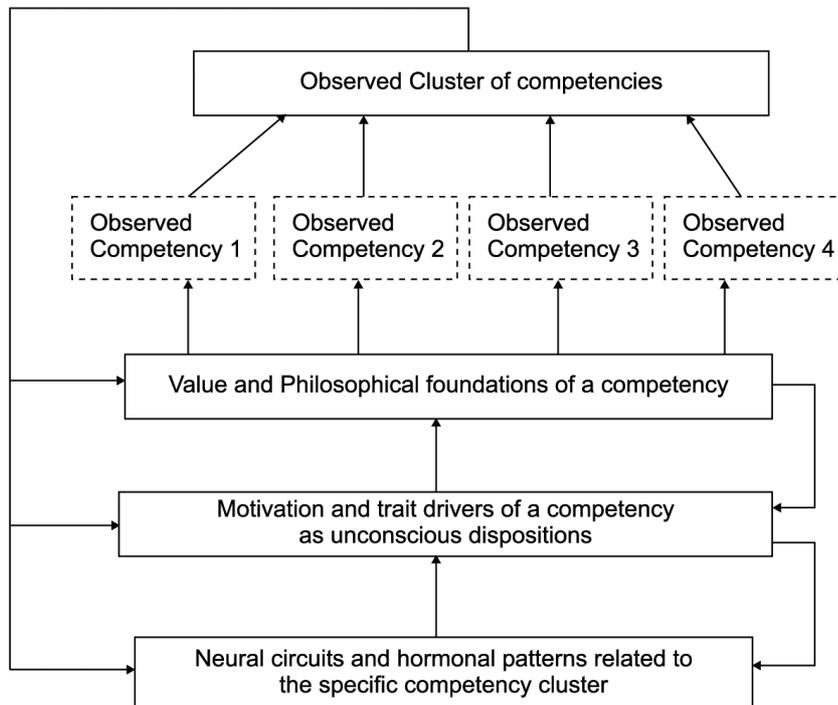
Figure 2. Integrated theory of personality. Source: Boyatzis (2009: 760).

Boyatzis (2009: 753) refers to increasing evidence confirming three clusters of competencies that distinguish outstanding performers. These three clusters of competencies are the social, emotional and cognitive clusters (refer to Table 2). The first two clusters form the basis of the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) measurement tool, formerly the ECI. The ESCI-U measure comprises all three clusters.

Research from a variety of global organisational contexts shows strong evidence for the ECI/ESCI in the assessment, development and training of emotional intelligence (Cherniss, 2010; Cherniss et al., 2010; Goleman et al., 2002; Hay Group, 2011). Research further conveys evidence of very good reliability and validity. Reliability analysis with large samples has shown very high internal consistency (Sala, 2002: 44; Hay Group, 2011), similar to the current study's Cronbach co-efficient values. Furthermore, the ECI were validated against performance in hundreds of competency studies of managers, executives and leaders (Goleman et al., 2002).

Table 2. Social, emotional and cognitive competencies that distinguish outstanding performers.

Intelligence	Cluster	Competency
Emotional	**Self-awareness Cluster** Knowing one's internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions.	**Emotional self-awareness:** Recognising one's emotions and their effects.
	Self-management Cluster Managing one's internal states, impulses and resources.	**Emotional self-control:** Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check. **Adaptability:** Flexibility in handling change. **Achievement orientation:** Striving to improve or meeting a standard of excellence. **Positive outlook:** Seeing the positive aspects of things and the future.
Social	**Social Awareness Cluster** How one handles relationships and awareness of others' feelings, needs and concerns.	**Empathy:** Sensing others' feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns. **Organisational awareness:** Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships.
	Relationship Management Cluster Skill or adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others.	**Coach and mentor:** Sensing others' development needs and bolstering their abilities. **Inspirational leadership:** Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups. **Influence:** Wielding effective tactics for persuasion. **Conflict management:** Negotiating and resolving disagreements. **Teamwork:** Working with others toward shared goals and creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals.
Cognitive		**Systems thinking:** Perceiving multiple causal relationships in understanding phenomena or events. **Pattern recognition**: Perceiving themes or patterns in seemingly random items, events or phenomena.

EI competencies measured in the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ECI/ESCI) have been reported to predict job performance in managers and leaders. According to Boyatzis (2007: 1), the ESCI "measures the behaviors that matter: those that contribute to effective performance." Sala (2002: 27) cites scholarly research to show that multi-rater or 360-degree feedback systems, such as the ECI and ESCI, enhance self-knowledge and consequently improve managerial behaviour. He also cites evidence of positive relationships between higher levels of self-other agreement (SOA) in ratings and managerial effectiveness. Likewise, Atwater and Yammarino (1992) found positive associations between SOA in ratings and self-awareness, and performance.

The study of EI has led to a mounting body of research on the relationship between EI and leadership. A growing number of researchers and leadership theorists consider emotional and social intelligence, or specific dimensions and related competencies, as essential for leadership effectiveness (Cherniss et al., 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Mills, 2009; Piel, 2008; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Russell, 2014; Saxe, 2011). For instance, emotionally intelligent public leadership is considered "key in moving both leader and follower towards the public good" (Newman et al., 2009: 9).

2.6   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The chapter traced the scholarship on emotional intelligence, its distinction from cognitive and personality concepts and metrics, and McClelland's competency concept to the current empirical research on EI competencies and performance. EI is a young theory compared with personality theory and cognitive theory. In the quest to understand success, the latter two theories have dominated research for over a century. While some scholars contest the validity of the EI constructs, several EI models and measures have emerged since 1990 to contest the dominance of personality traits and cognitive ability in predicting performance. EI scholars highlight the vital role of emotions in life and in the workplace; therefore, in the past few decades the study of emotionality in organisational settings has witnessed huge growth.

The literature review demonstrated that a number of meta-analytical studies firmly establish that all three major EI streams are: first, distinct measures; second, theoretically distinct from cognitive

ability (IQ) and the FFM; third, positively correlated with job performance; fourth, display larger incremental validity than personality traits and cognitive abilities; and, fifth, show positive relationships with leadership effectiveness.

Importantly, the meta-analytical studies and other research offer evidence of the value of emotional and social competencies as a behavioural approach to EI in predicting performance in the workplace. This is a testimony to McClelland's (1973) initial research four decades ago on competencies and performance, and his challenge of IQ as the only determinant of work outcomes. Stream three measures show the greatest incremental predictive validity for performance.

As the behavioural competency EI model (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007), with stream three measures, adequately informs the constructs of EI and leadership performance (i.e. the two variables under investigation in the current study), this model and measures (ESCI and BEI) are adopted as the quantitative and qualitative instruments in the current study. These two measures are particularly well suited for both research and applied practice.

CHAPTER 3

Leadership analysis: Through an affective and relational lens

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The view that social and emotional competencies are essential for effective leadership is well established. Likewise, the central role leaders play in shaping the destiny of their organisations is recognised. This central role comprises leaders directing organisational resources in realising the vision, goals, and strategies or their substantial impact on organisational culture, as exemplary leaders and leadership are crucial to successful outcomes. A broad review of the seminal leadership literature, both traditional and emerging leadership approaches, reveals ubiquitous patterns of complex interplay between social/relational and emotional/affective characteristics and leadership effectiveness. This interplay is the focus of this chapter.

Gooty, Connelly, Griffith and Gupta (2010: 979) refer to this significant relationship in their comprehensive state of the science review of ten academic journals (from 1990 to 2010) on leadership, affect and emotions. They found that affect and emotions receive significant consideration in the leadership literature. This assertion is confirmed by the broad leadership theory and research review by Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Meuser, Liden and Hu (2014). Whether this consideration occurred through the lens of transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, individualised leadership, charismatic leadership or other approaches, leadership literature affirmed that affect and emotions are "deeply intertwined with the process of leading, leader outcomes and follower outcomes." Moreover, Gooty et al., (2010: 979) refer to scholarly claims of an "affective revolution" (Barsade, Brief & Spataro, 2003: 3) akin to a "Kuhnian paradigm shift in organizational behaviour from purely cognition-focused models to cognition and affective models of behaviour and leadership."

In addition, substantial scholarly consensus exists on the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (George, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Mills, 2009; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001; Rosete and Ciarrochi, 2005; Wolff, Pescosolido, and Druskat, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002). Their consensus also pertains to recent meta-analytical study

results (e.g. Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011) that support several researchers' claims that emotional and social abilities are important predictors of work-related outcomes (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Brackett et al., 2004; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; Dulewicz et al., 2003; Fox & Spector, 2000). Furthermore, it was evident that all three major EI streams correlated with job performance with incremental validity over and above cognitive ability and Five-Factor Model (FFM) personality traits.

Using an affective and relational lens to navigate through the vast leadership literature, this chapter starts with examining the conceptual and theoretical distinction between the management and leadership constructs. This discussion is followed by a broad review of both traditional and emerging seminal leadership literature, ranging from trait or personality to behavioural, transformational, neo-charismatic, emergent and nascent perspectives. The chapter concludes with a discussion on scholarship on emotions and leadership, and finally a summary and conclusion.

Neither a comprehensive review of the vast leadership literature, nor an in-depth review of literature on leaders' cognitive abilities, FFM personality traits and technical skills related to effectiveness is the focus of this chapter. Many excellent and comprehensive reviews and analyses on mainstream and public leadership are available. These include that by Bass (2008), Burns (1978), Yukl (1998), Morse and Buss (2008), Morse, Buss and Kinghorn (2007), and Van Wart (2011).

3.2   MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP: A CONCEPTUAL DISTINCTION

As this study focuses on the leadership processes of managers, it is useful to examine the conceptual distinction between management and leadership. These two concepts, including their various theoretical perspectives, have similar multi-disciplinary roots and lenses: such as philosophy, economics, political science, sociology, psychology, social anthropology and law, among others. Each management or leadership theory and practice views organisations in distinct ways, influenced by the then contemporary management or organisational paradigms, for instance scientific management or the approach of the industrial age or modernist or post-modernist trends.

The literature is replete with debates on the distinction between the management and leadership constructs, from Chester Barnard in the mid 20th century to Gilbert Fairholm in the 21st century. Van Wart (2011: 22) reminds that "By the end of the millennium the shrillness of the more extreme perspective that management was an important element in leadership subsided, but it has not disappeared as a perspective." Fairholm (2011: 27) adds that, "Leadership theories, operational models and examples, and the language of leadership have been borrowed from management theory and have strained that theory until neither management nor leadership is well served." Furthermore, Rost (1991: 94–95) relates the notion of "leadership as good management" to the positivist industrial paradigm of leadership that

> [reveals] a fundamental understanding of leadership that is rational, management oriented, male, technocratic, quantitative, goal dominated, cost-benefit driven, personalistic, hierarchical, short term, pragmatic, and materialistic.

While some scholars explicitly distinguish between these concepts (i.e. management and leadership), others do not see the necessity. The former school of thought holds the extreme view that leadership and management are distinctly dissimilar activities and are not the remit of the same individual (e.g. Bennis, 2009; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kotter, 1988, 1990; Zaleznik, 1977). Conversely, the latter school opposes the former by asserting that even though leadership and management are considered discrete concepts, the same individual is capable of performing both roles (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006; Fairholm, 2011; Raffel et al., 2009; Yukl, 1994; Yukl & Lepsinger, 2005). Abraham Zaleznik (1977) in his *Harvard Business Review* article entitled "Managers and Leaders: Are They Different?" strongly argues that there is a distinction between management and leadership, and this differentiation is critical for management and leadership research, theory building, practice, and education.

Boyatzis (1982: 17) describes five basic functions of management, namely planning, organising, controlling, motivating, and coordinating, whereas Mintzberg (1973) proposes a prominent taxonomy of ten managerial roles, comprising a set of related activities according to three types of behaviours. One of these roles was a leader role, which pervades all managerial activities. On the other hand, Yukl (1994: 70) proposes four primary processes in management, namely making

decisions, influencing people, building relationships, and exchanging information. According to John Kotter (1988: 10), the dominant function of management is to produce order and consistency in organisations through "hierarchy and systems" and "planning, budgeting, organising, staffing, controlling, and problem solving." However, he views the process of leadership as working "through people and culture" (Kotter, 1988: 10). It is concerned with the "development of vision and strategies, the alignment of relevant people behind those strategies, and the empowerment of individuals to make the vision happen, despite obstacles" (Kotter, 1988: 10). Table 3 summarises the discourse on the different sets of activities for management and leadership.

Table 3. Key characteristics that distinguish leadership and management.

Management	Leadership

• POSDCORB (classic view of administrative management)
     o Planning and budgeting
     o Organising and staffing
     o Directing and Coordinating
     o Reporting.
 • Controlling
 • Motivating and problem-solving
 • Producing order and consistency in organisations
 • Reactive, acting with a low level of emotional involvement
 • May lack empathy or the capacity to sense intuitively the thoughts and feelings of those around
 • Rational processes that largely operate within a given space and time
 • Order and regulation
 • Oriented toward stability
 • Get people to do things more efficiently.
	• Producing change and movement
	 • Setting a direction
	 • Aligning people
	 • Motivating
	 • Inspiring
	 • Emotionally active and involved
	 • Moving people in new directions
	 • Realising a new vision
	 • Expressing deeply seated feelings, emotions, and basic human values
	 • More intuitive processes that move beyond the existing limits of space and time
	 • Openness and change
	 • Oriented toward innovation
	 • Leaders get people to agree about what things should be done.

Source: Bennis (2009), Boyatzis (1982), Denhardt and Denhardt (2006), Kotter (1990), Yukl (1994), Zaleznik (1977).	

Though Fairholm (2011: 50) counters that these descriptions of management and managerial roles are "still fully in the orbit of scientific management and see the manager in terms of managerial control of people, things, and processes and focused fully on productivity." For Fairholm (2011: 38) leadership is "values driven, change oriented, profoundly personal and integrative." The

dominance of the transactional leadership theories from the early 1960s to the early 1980s, despite the inclusion of scholarship from the human relations school, led to "overmanaged and underled" organisations (Bennis & Nanus, 1985: 21). Eventually, Bennis (2009: 41) distinguishes leaders and managers as "those who master the context and those who surrender to it."

Zaleznik (1977: 73) considers managers as reactive, acting with a "low level of emotional involvement", and suggests that they "may lack empathy or the capacity to sense intuitively the thoughts and feelings of those around", whereas leaders are emotionally active and involved. Likewise, Denhardt and Denhardt (2006: 8–10) claim that leadership is about "change, moving people in new directions, realising a new vision, or simply doing things differently and better" and that "real leadership speaks to matters that express deeply seated feelings, emotions, and indeed, basic human values."

These scholars (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2006: 8–10) view management as concerned with "rational processes that largely operate within a given space and time", while leadership involves "more intuitive processes that move beyond the existing limits of space and time." Furthermore, they suggest that management operates in a domain of "order and regulation", whereas leadership operates in a domain of "openness and change". Warren Bennis's (2003: 20) well-known maxim, "Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing", précises the distinction between the two concepts.

From the above discussion, it is evident that distinct differences separate the concepts of management and leadership. However, despite these differences, senior public service managers are required to be effective in both domains – management and leadership. Raffel et al. (2009: 5) stress that public sector leaders need to perform as both managers and leaders. Northouse (2010: 11) concurs that "to be effective, organisations need to nourish both competent management and skilled leadership." Yukl (1994: 4) agrees that although the processes of leadership and management may differ, they do not necessarily involve separate people:

> Managers are oriented toward stability and leaders are oriented toward innovation; managers get people to do things more efficiently, whereas leaders get people to agree about what things should be done.

Similarly, Van Wart (2005: 25) affirms that "Indeed, one of the enormous challenges of great leadership is the seamless blending of the more operational-managerial dimensions with the visionary leadership functions." He (Van Wart, 2011: 36) refers to management as a "maintenance function" and leadership as a "change function", countering that leadership and management are "functionally so overlapping as to be largely synonymous." While Behn (1998: 212) contends that just managing people would do if the paradigm of organisations were that of a machine, however, managers and leaders constitute "diverse individuals with different competencies" requiring "motivation and inspiration" to do their jobs. Therefore, public organisations require leadership (Behn, 1998).

Traditionally, the public administration field has focused on management, as Denhardt (2009, xix) claims that they aimed "to prepare and to guide public managers not public leaders." He questions how managers are taught to be leaders and what changes are required in their roles and responsibilities. Furthermore, he (Denhardt, 2009) contends that the mainstream public administration has focused on management and constraining managers to act in ways consistent with rules proclaimed by political leaders. Denhardt (2009: xix) finally enquires: "[I]f we now ask managers to lead, what must we then say about the role of initiative and direct responsiveness on their part?"

3.3   THE LEADERSHIP JOURNEY: FROM TRADITIONAL TO NASCENT THEORY

Leadership is a complex social construct with a huge body of literature. James MacGregor Burns (1978: 2), a well-known leadership scholar perceptively declares: "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth." The mainstream leadership scholarship emerges from a broad practitioner origin and several diverse theoretical positions, and has "not evolved with a discipline-specific perspective or framework but rather has been shaped through multidisciplinary lenses ranging across periods and methodological approaches" (Slyke &

Alexander, 2006: 362). The result is a huge number of leadership theories, models, definitions, characteristics, and metrics describing the intricacies of leadership in a variety of settings. Theoretical approaches focus on traits, behaviours, skills, and style. They also include situational, contingency, path-goal, leader-member exchange, psychodynamic, team leadership, transactional, transformational, charismatic, and neo-charismatic approaches, among others.

In framing this section, a brief review and analysis of leadership theory from different eras, including the dominant themes, is presented, starting with 19th-century scholars' preoccupation with personality and the "Great Man" theory (Van Wart, 2011: 6). This is followed by considering the early 20th-century focus on leaders' personality traits and characteristics, with a significant shift around the mid-century to behavioural styles, humanistic/human relations schools, and contingency theory. Finally, the profound paradigm shift in the late 1970s to charismatic and transformational leadership theory is discussed. Emergent and nascent post-modern leadership models, such as complexity, ethical, spiritual, cross-cultural, social network, affective, authentic, and resonant models, emerged during the end of the first millennium, and the start of the current one.

This review is mindful that it is impossible to box all leadership literature into either distinct eras or clear conceptual boundaries (Van Wart, 2011: 5). In addition, research based on earlier leadership theories continue or are adapted by scholars to construct new theories – that is the nature of epistemology. The primary objective of this theoretical review is to track the social/relational and emotional/affective characteristics in the leadership narratives, through the eras mentioned, which relate to leadership effectiveness.

3.3.1   JOURNEY FROM PERSONALITY TO BEHAVIOURAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

In the 19th century, the "Great Man" theory was dominant (Van Wart, 2011). It was based on the heroic characteristics of exceptional leaders or great men (exemplary women leaders were excluded) who changed the shape and direction of history (Northouse, 2010; Van Wart, 2011). The first half of the 20th century witnessed the emergence of the leadership trait paradigm, which is considered one of the first attempts to research the leadership phenomenon systematically. The

trait approach focuses on differentiating leaders from non-leaders in an attempt to understand what makes leaders great or effective through studying their personal attributes or qualities (e.g. gender, height, physical appearance, energy, personality traits and motives). Personality tests were developed to measure what characteristics distinguished leaders from average individuals, resulting in a long list of traits. Research in leadership traits identified significant correlations between traits of leaders and their success (Stogdill, 1974) – notably self-confidence and sense of personal identity, and the ability to influence other people's behaviour.

 Other studies in the trait paradigm show social and emotional characteristics as vital traits for effective leadership. Marlowe (1986) and Zaccaro (2002, 2007) studied leadership traits and their relation to social intelligence. Marlowe (1986: 52) defines social intelligence or social competence as the "ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviours of persons, including oneself, in interpersonal situations and to act appropriately upon that understanding." Zaccaro (2002, 2007) characterises social intelligence as possessing competencies such as social awareness, social acumen, self-monitoring, and the ability to select and enact the best response given the contingencies of the situation and the social environment. Emotional and social competencies are included in Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader's (2004) categories of leadership traits, which they regard as important leadership attributes. Northouse (2010: 19) summarises the major leadership traits as "intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability."

The mid 20th century to the 1980s saw a shift from traits and characteristics to a behaviour and styles approach to leadership, with an emphasis on situational or contingency variables (Van Wart, 2011), though some were universal theories. This approach assesses leadership as behaviour with a task and relationship dimension (Northouse, 2010), notably the Ohio State Leadership Studies, arriving at two broad factors of leader behaviours: initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill, 1974). Consideration behaviour is relationship behaviours that consist of camaraderie, respect and trust between leaders and followers, therefore implying "a leader's concern for the emotional needs of followers is an important predictor of group morale and effectiveness" (Cherniss et al., 2010: 414). Correspondingly, during the 1950s and 1960s, a surge of human relations theories emerged (Van Wart, 2011) encouraging greater consideration in leadership, particularly maturity theory, and

the motivational approach focusing on worker motivation, Theory X and Theory Y, and Maslow's theory. These models were influenced by a division between a focus on task (structure) and people (consideration or relational).

The human relations leadership trajectory and the bimodal conception of leader behaviours found expression in several theories during this era. For example, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1978) developed the Managerial/Leadership Grid, a widely used model of managerial behaviour in leadership training and development. It focuses on two factors: concern for production and concern for people. These factors are comparable to the task or structure and consideration or relational leadership behaviours. Concern for people is about how a leader "attends to the people in the organisation who are trying to achieve its goals", including "building organisational commitment and trust, promoting the personal worth of employees [,] providing good working conditions, and promoting good social relations" (Northouse, 2010: 73).

Furthermore, Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) situational leadership model, proposed in the late 1960s, requires an effective leader to adapt his or her style to the conditions encountered in different situations. The Hersey and Blanchard (1993) model was further developed into the Situational Leadership II model, which comprise two components, namely "leadership style" and "development level of subordinates". Leadership style includes both "directive (task) behaviours and supportive (relationship) behaviours" (Northouse, 2010: 91). Supportive behaviours entail "two-way communication and responses that show social and emotional support to others" (Northouse, 2010: 91).

On a similar trajectory to the situational approach to leadership is Fred Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory. Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory underscores the importance of the context in which leaders lead. According to this theory, a leader's effectiveness is contingent on two interacting factors: leadership style and the leader's control and influence in a given situation. Leadership style is defined as the combination of task orientation and relationship orientation. Dependent on the favourability of the situation, both task-motivated and relationship-motivated leaders can be effective. The relationship-motivated style involves forming intimate interpersonal relationships.

Cherniss et al. (2010: 414) point out that though abilities such as interpersonal sensitivity and concern are considered by contingency theorists (Fiedler, 1967) as not applicable for leaders in all situations, considerable research (Bass, 2008; Boyatzis, 1982; Spencer and Spencer, 1993; Yukl, 1989) indicate that "these and other social and emotional qualities are valuable more often than not."

The defining character of the behavioural/style/contingency/situational theoretical era in understanding management and leadership effectiveness is the duality between directive, task-focus, initiating structure, and concern for production ("transactional") behaviours and people-oriented, consideration, concern for people, relationship, and supportive ("transformational") behaviours. Notwithstanding the shortcomings of the bi-modal tendency of the time, these theories were a necessary counterweight to their antecedents' narrow focus on personality (or what leaders have) and the "hierarchical and authoritarian styles" of leadership (Van Wart, 2011: 7). Leadership in this context was engendered and influenced by Frederik Taylor's (Morgan, 2006; Robledo, 2013) scientific management and Henri Fayol's (Morgan, 2006; Robledo, 2013) organisational theories that predominantly focused on production and administrative systems.

Importantly, through suggesting the behavioural variable of consideration, the contingency approach put emphasis on the leader's support for followers' emotional needs. Leadership and management theories emerging in the second half of the 20th century have drawn on the contingency school in various ways. Table 4 (on the following page) summarises the leadership approaches, emphasising the affective and relational variables of each theory.

Table 4. Key leadership theories: trait, behavioural and contingency theories in relation to affective and relational characteristics.

Leadership Theory	Central Theme	Affective & Relational Dimensions	Scholarship
• **TRAIT** • **PERSONALITY**	Focuses on differentiating leaders from non-leaders and understanding what made leaders great. Innate leadership ability.	Self-confidence and sense of personal identity, and the ability to influence other people's behaviour.	Stogdill (1974)
		Self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability.	Northouse (2010)
		Leadership traits and their relation to social intelligence, and competencies such as social awareness, social acumen, self-monitoring.	Marlowe (1986) and Zaccaro (2002, 2007)
		Emotional and social intelligence competencies.	Zaccaro, Kemp and Bader's (2004)
• **BEHAVIOURAL** • **STYLE** • **CONTINGENCY** • **SITUATIONAL**	Assesses leadership as behaviour with a task and relationship dimension. Assesses impact leader behaviours have on their relationships.	Consideration behaviour or relationship behaviours that consist of camaraderie, respect, trust and liking between leaders and followers.	Stogdill's (1974)
		Managerial /Leadership Grid – Concern for people: leader attends to the people in the organisation, includes promoting good social relations (universal approach).	Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in the early 1960s (1978)
	Leader adapts style to the conditions encountered in different situations.	Ideal leader behaviour included consulting, participating and delegating.	Hersey and Blanchard (1993)
	Focuses on the Situational Leadership II model.	Leadership style includes supportive (relationship) behaviours: shows social and emotional support to others.	Hersey and Blanchard (1993)
	Contingency theory underscores the importance of the leader's context.	Leadership styles as "relationship motivated" involves forming intimate interpersonal relationships.	Fred Fiedler (1967)
• **SOCIAL EXCHANGE**	Focuses on leadership theories with a relational focus, including Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX), individualised leadership, vertical dyad linkage. Exchange of benefits.	Relational aspects in LMX: Affect is an indicator of the quality of the relationship experienced within the dyad (leaders and followers). Individualised leadership: primary role of leaders is to further follower self-worth.	Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995); Dansereau et al. (1995); Yukl (1994)

3.3.2 PARADIGM SHIFT: CHARISMATIC AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

Burns' (1978) book, entitled *Leadership,* is regarded as a turning point in the leadership narrative. His (Burns, 1978) book on the transformational leadership approach challenged situational theory's pre-occupation with the transactional or exchange nature of the leadership process. Noteworthy in Burns' (1978) theory is his emphasis on moral or ethical and human conduct dimensions of both the leader and the led. A year earlier, Robert Greenleaf (1977) in his servant leadership theory highlighted ethical and service aspects of leadership.

The transformational leadership approach has gained popularity since its conception and now commands a huge share of the leadership literature (Dinh et al., 2014). Transformational leadership combines charismatic with affective and relational leadership processes. This theoretical approach is embraced by public service scholars as well; and spurred the study of public administrative leadership (Van Wart, 2003; Kellis & Ran, 2013). Weber (1947) originally advanced the theory of charismatic leadership, but, since the 1970s, several theories emerged that relate to the concept of charismatic leadership (House & Aditya, 1997), such as transformational leadership. Certain scholars, for example Dinh et al. (2014: 40) and Fiol, Harris and House (1999: 450), consider these theories as representing the neo-charismatic leadership paradigm.

In Dinh et al.'s (2014: 40) comprehensive review of leadership literature, neo-charismatic theories (dominated by transformational leadership) showed the largest frequency in academic journals (294 out of 752 articles). Accordingly, they receive the most attention from scholars in the new millennium. However, the frequency of journal articles on the dominant antecedent leadership theories shows a significant decline since the previous millennium and comparatively in this millennium: trait (117), behavioural (64), contingency (55), and leader-member exchange theories (115).

In further developing the concept of transformational and charismatic leadership, Bass (1985) gives greater consideration to the emotional processes and the needs of followers. Effective

leadership in this model includes four transformational abilities: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Various streams of transformational leadership research emerged. Bennis and Nanus (1985), for example, identified four common strategies for transforming leaders: clear vision, social architects, trust, and positive self-regard. Kouzes and Posner (2003) in turn advanced their model of five practices of exemplary leaders: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. Table 5 accordingly presents a summary of the major charismatic and transformational leadership theories.

Table 5. Summary comparison of charismatic and transformational leadership theories.

Scholarship	Description
Charismatic & Transformational Leadership	- Focuses on visionary, change-oriented, non-conservative, inspirational and affective variables of leadership. - Constitutes a major shift from earlier and more traditional task-oriented and cognitive-oriented leadership theories. - Transformational leaders ignite followers' aspirations, instilling pride, eliciting enthusiasm and conveying optimism regarding a desirable future (Gooty et al., 2010).
House & Aditya (1997); Shamir, Arthur and House (1994)	Charismatic leaders often inspire positive emotions in followers through articulating a compelling vision, imagery and rhetoric (Gooty et al., 2010).
Bass (2008)	- Great emphasis falls on the affective elements of leadership, with a strong focus on the leader's values, vision, morals, sense of self and integrity, as well as the follower's needs, values and moral responsibility – in the service of building the organisation's culture. - Greater consideration to the emotional processes and the needs of followers.
Bass and Avolio (1994)	Four transformational abilities and relational leadership concepts: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.
Bennis and Nanus (1985)	Four common strategies for transforming leaders: clear vision, social architects, trust, and positive self-regard.
Kouzes and Posner (2002)	Model of five practices of exemplary leaders: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart.

The concept of transformational leadership offers a sound model for understanding the relevance of emotions to leadership (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Mills, 2009). Accordingly, this leadership model place prominence on the affective and social elements of leadership, with a strong focus on the leader's values, vision, morals, sense of self and integrity, as well as the follower's needs, values and moral responsibility – in the service of building the organisation's culture and achieving its goals. In this perspective, emotional intelligence is understood to "positively influence followers' perceptions of the leader and increase the effectiveness of transformational leaders" (Illiash, 2013:106).

Fambrough and Hart (2008: 749) assert: "Transformational leadership has been of particular interest to EI enthusiasts […] They conceived transformational leadership to be a process of social interaction in which leaders and followers were highly connected, with inspirational, motivational, and emotional elements." For example, empathy, a key EI competency, is considered one of the most important emotions for transformational leadership (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Jin, 2010). All three EI models (presented in the previous chapter) show a strong similarity between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Daus, 2002; Mills, 2009). A large body of scholarship offers evidence to support the claims that stream 3-based (mixed-model, such as the ECI/ESCI or EQ-i) emotional intelligence predicts the transformational leadership style (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Mills, 2009; Piel, 2008).

3.4   THE NEW MILLENNIUM: EMERGENT AND NASCENT LEADERSHIP MODELS

The end of the 20th century and the dawn of the new millennium have witnessed several emerging and nascent leadership theories. Dinh et al. (2014: 40) include the following approaches: strategic; team; contextual, complexity and system perspectives (e.g. social network); leader emergence and development; ethical/moral (e.g. authentic, spiritual); leading for creativity, innovation and change; identity-based; and other nascent approaches (e.g. emotions, biological). These leadership theories have seen an impressive quantity of research within a short time frame (Dinh et al., 2014:

42). This section will selectively review these theories and their links to affective and relational characteristics of leadership.

3.4.1   LEADERSHIP LENS ON ETHICS, VALUES, SPIRIT, SERVICE AND ALTRUISM

The first set of theories discussed is thematically grouped as ethical or moral (value-based) leadership, namely ethical, authentic, spiritual and servant, which accentuates altruistic, positive, and humanistic behaviours. This ethical/moral thematic group recorded a significant presence (80 out of 752 journal articles) in scholarship in this millennium (Dinh et al., 2014: 40). This positive response to the deficit of value-based leadership research (though emphasised in certain approaches to transformational leadership, e.g. by Burns [1978]) illustrates a deeper concern among scholars with leaders' behaviour related to normative ethical, altruistic and deontic content (Dinh et al., 2014). They (Dinh et al., 2014) accordingly challenge the positivist theorists' domination of the leadership field (Van Wart, 2011:8), assuming hedonism rather than commitment to altruistic motivation (House & Aditya, 1997). These leadership attributes are of relevance to emotional intelligence, leadership performance, and the nature of public service and values in public organisations.

Robert Greenleaf's (1977) book, *Servant Leadership*, was a major contribution to the shortage of texts on ethical leadership, as it emphasised the leaders' "ethical responsibilities to followers, stakeholders, and society" (Van Wart, 2011). Ethical leadership theory builds on social learning theory, highlighting leaders' behaviours and actions that exemplify caring, respect, honesty, trust, accountability, loyalty, fairness, integrity, and responsible citizenship (Brown & Treviño & Harrison, 2005; Dinh et al., 2014; Lu & Guy, 2014). Ethical leaders promote these values in order to set their organisation's moral and ethical compass through personal and organisational behavioural processes.

Ethical leadership is crucial for public administrators, as they are a "powerful influence for fostering ethical conduct in [public] organisations because they set and model the ethical standards that govern and guide workers", and for this reason, ethical leadership is as essential from the "organisational standpoint as it is from the philosophical and political" (Lu & Guy, 2014: 7–8).

Moreover, ethical leadership builds public confidence and commitment (Lu & Guy, 2014). Nelson Mandela (2010: viii) is a notable example of an ethical and altruistic leader who observed during his imprisonment that, "… internal factors may be even more crucial in assessing one's development as a human being. Honesty, sincerity, simplicity, humility, pure generosity, absence of vanity, readiness to serve others – qualities which are within easy reach of every soul – are the foundation of one's spiritual life." The intra- and inter-personal characteristics of ethical leadership relate positively with the emotional and social dimensions of public leadership and service delivery.

Hursthouse (1999: 108, quoted in Segon and Booth, 2015: 797) emphasises the role emotions play in virtues, based on three claims: first, that virtues (and vices) are morally significant; second, that virtues (and vices) are all framed not only to act, but to feel emotions in the context of reactions and also impulses to take action; and, third, that the person with virtues will be able to feel these emotions, on the right occasions, regarding the right people or objects and for the right reasons.

Additionally, Hursthouse (1999: 1, quoted in Segon & Booth, 2015: 797) "argues that virtue ethics relates to an approach in normative ethics which emphasises ''the virtues or moral character in contrast to an approach which emphasises duties or rules (deontology) or one which emphasises the consequences of actions (utilitarianism)." Democratic public institutions and their leaders have a constitutional obligation to espouse normative ethics, though many public service organisations strongly value deontology and utilitarianism (teleology) at the expense of virtues or moral character.

Authentic leadership theory (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner, Cogliser, Davis & Dickens, 2011; Dinh et al., 2014: 42) portrays leaders as "self-aware, process[ing] positive and negative ego-relevant information in a balanced fashion, achiev[ing] relational transparency with close others, and [being] guided in their actions by an internalised moral perspective." Relatedly, spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003, quoted in Dinh et al., 2014: 42) embraces the notion that leaders embody a "vision, practice altruistic love, and instil hope, faith, and perseverance in attaining organizational goals […] convey an organizational vision that is deeply and personally motivating to followers and

develop a nurturing organizational culture of care, appreciation, and support for co-workers that inspires a sense of belonging."

Other noteworthy theories that consider emotions and social relationships are cross-cultural and dispersed leadership. Dorfman et al. (2012) suggest the need to better understand the incorporation of emotions into the cross-cultural leadership process**.** They (Dorfman et al., 2012) further posit that a critical question for future research in the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project is how "leaders regulate their emotions and the emotions of their followers [EI] and the role that societal culture plays in this process."

Due to the increasing importance of social relations in leadership, a number of studies focuses on network, distributed, emergent, shared and dispersed conceptions of leadership (Mandell & Keast, 2009: 166). These notions of leadership stress the significance of "follower participation, democratic involvement and decision-making, and make a claim for less formalised, hierarchical model of leadership" (Mandell & Keast, 2009: 166). These models acknowledge the social interactions and dependencies, i.e. relational leadership, which form the basis of organisational life.

3.4.2   LEADERSHIP LENS ON AFFECT AND EMOTIONS

Since the late 20th century, the study of emotions received greater consideration in leadership models (Cherniss, 2010; Dinh et al., 2014; Goleman et al., 2002; Mills, 2009; Rajah, Song & Arvey, 2011). Gooty et al. (2010: 980) view the study of affect and emotions in leadership as an emerging domain. Similarly, Dinh et al. (2014: 40), in their extensive leadership review, categorise emotions and leadership as a nascent field of enquiry. Their (Dinh et al., 2014: 40) review of 752 journal articles, published between 2000 and 2012 in ten top-tier leadership journals across settings, indicates that the literature on "emotions and leadership" theory had a frequency of 59 articles (of 101 in the nascent category). This frequency confirms the claims that since the dawn of this millennium there is a definite shift in scholarly attention to the study of affect, emotions and leadership.

The study of emotions and leadership has implications for organisational behaviour as it introduces the theory on affect and emotions and observes their roles in the leadership context. This leads to an improved understanding of workplace social interactions and dynamics beyond the "prescribed job roles and mundane activities" (Rajah et al., 2011: 1116). Furthermore, at a practical and normative level, scholarship on emotions benefit leaders to improve their interpersonal relationships through better management of emotions. Several scholars note that leaders elicit an affective response to their followers (Boyatzis and McKee, 2005; Goleman et al., 2002; Gooty et al., 2010; Lu & Guy, 2014; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Affective Events Theory (AET) suggests that daily positive and negative events at the workplace predict employees' attitudes and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Tse, Dasborough and Ashkanasy's (2008) empirical study uses AET to study affect in a leader-member exchange leadership perspective. A leader's emotional self-management is important as their "emotional contagion" (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Goleman et al., 2002; Rajah et al., 2011; Sy, Côté & Saavedra, 2005) influences the workplace climate – creating either a positive or resonant, or, conversely, a negative or dissonant environment. Rajah et al. (2011: 1115) affirm: "In particular, it is posited that individual-level antecedents (e.g. emotional intelligence of the leader) affect group-level outcomes (e.g. emotions within the group, group performance)."

Emotional competencies and cognitive abilities are distinct but related dimensions in effective leadership (Goleman, 1995; Newman et al., 2009). However, Mowday and Sutton (1993: 197) caution that the partiality to cognitive models leads to scholarship that depicts "organisation members as cognitive stick figures whose behaviour is unaffected by emotions." Research consistently shows a strong correlation between a leader's social and emotional competencies and their performance (Boyatzis, 2008; Goleman, 2006; Newman et al., 2009).

Goleman et al. (2002: 55) identify two divergent sets of leadership styles in organisations, namely resonant leadership (i.e. visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic styles), akin to transformational and aspects of emerging leadership (ethical, spiritual and authentic) theories, and dissonant leadership (i.e. pace-setting and commanding styles), with parallels to transactional and task-focused leadership. Each style is understood to affect an organisation's climate and culture,

and consequently individual and organisational performance (Goleman, 2001). Dissonant leaders lack the critical EI abilities producing groups that feel emotionally discordant and a climate of "anger, fear, apathy, or even sullen silence" (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005: 21). In contrast, resonant leadership styles, requiring high EI competence, contribute to a caring and supportive workplace climate (Goleman et al., 2002: 53).

3.5   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the vast leadership literature was selectively examined through an affective and relational lens. The debate on defining the concepts of management and leadership is passionate and polarised between those who ardently describe these concepts as discrete, and others who do not see the necessity for such distinctions. In general, management is viewed as creating order and consistency through rational processes such as planning, budgeting, staffing, controlling, and organising. Leadership in turn is concerned with emotions, feelings and culture, which drive vision, inspiration, change and empowered individuals.

The discussion in the rest of the chapter traced the leadership journey from the traditional personality approaches to behavioural and contingency models. This was followed by a consideration of the major shifts with the advent of charismatic and transformational approaches, and the contemporary emergent and nascent leadership perspectives. Despite the existence of affective and relational characteristics in traditional leadership inquiry, it has typically focused on personality, cognitive, rational and transactional features in understanding leadership characteristics, capacity, processes and outcomes.

The transformational leadership movement in the late 1970s heralded a major shift from the dominant cognitive and task-focused models to more relational and affective models of leadership behaviour. Current emergent leadership approaches (e.g. ethical, servant, authentic and spiritual) have taken the leadership revolution further with a significant increase in leadership and organisational behaviour scholarship, using a lens of ethics, morals, virtues, values, emotions, affect, altruism, and responsible citizenship.

Notably, affect and emotion emerge as central concepts in contemporary leadership theory in understanding the leader-follower relationship, organisational culture, and leadership effectiveness.

CHAPTER 4

Public Service and Leadership: A Contextual Analysis

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Context affects much of what is interesting about leadership (Van Wart, 2011: 457). A modern organisational context, such as the public service, is faced with a constant state of turbulence portrayed by influential organisational change theorist Peter Vaill (1996: 10) as the "permanent white water". In this context, the practice of public leadership is transforming (Morse & Buss, 2008), though further change is necessary in mainstream leadership styles (Van Wart, 2011, Denhardt & Denhardt, 2002) to effectively lead in a 21st century, inter-dependent, complex and uncertain environment (Yorks & Nicolaides, 2012). Effective leadership in this context demands individual and organisational shifts: for public leaders, appropriate values and competencies (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007), and for public institutions, the rigid, hierarchical, and command and control governance structures and systems (Benington & Hartley, 2011; Ingraham, 2009).

In modern liberal democratic states, the public service is founded on democratic principles, such as public values, equity, social justice, and accountability. However, many public service leaders face immense challenges in defending and promoting these public values (DeSeve, 2007). Increasingly, citizens' trust and confidence in the public service is on the decline. Holzer and Illiash (2009: 145) claim that "distrust of, and disappointment in, government underscores a collective desire for more effective leadership." However, Beinecke and Spencer (2009: 340), among other scholars, declare that there is a crisis in public leadership. Public leaders – both political and administrative – are viewed with suspicion and cynicism (Holzer & Illiash, 2009).

This parlous state of public affairs and the vital role of leadership in public organisations implore important epistemological questions. In the pursuit of a modern, democratic and networked public service, the concern is with the state of public scholarship in understanding the distinct, complex and transforming public service context, and leadership. Morse and Buss (2008: 6) claim that "transforming how public leadership is thought about, practiced, and taught" requires much attention.

This chapter examines the key issues and debates within the public service and leadership scholarship, relating to public governance structures and systems, the distinct nature of the public service context, and challenges facing public leadership scholarship. The chapter includes an overview of the democratic transition of the South African public service and the contextual leadership challenges. A comprehensive review of the public administration and leadership scholarship is beyond the focus of this chapter, as current texts are available by Morse and Buss (2008), Morse, Buss and Kinghorn (2007), and Van Wart (2011).

4.2   FROM WEBERIAN ORTHODOXY TO NEW PUBLIC GOVERNANCE

Historically, strong hierarchical traditions have characterised the public service. The ubiquitous command-and-control approach to public service management still prevails in 21st century public service institutions. This approach was influenced by Frederick Taylor's scientific management, Max Weber's bureaucratic theory and Henri Fayol's administrative theory. Furthermore, the command-and-control approach was specifically conceived for industrial age organisations.

For over a century, the "machine" image of organisations (Morgan, 1986)[2] has dominated public leaders' thinking through concepts of control, predictability, standardisation, and "faster is better" view, "despite [these concepts'] disharmony with the larger world" (Senge et al., 2004: 5). These earlier models have endured in the public service bureaucratic landscape, aptly described by John Benington and Jean Hartley (2011: 17) as follows:

> The dominant metaphors for government in the post-war period have been mechanical – the machinery of government, levers of power, chain of command, and cogs in the machine, for example. This worked pretty well as a model for an industrial age, based upon mass production of standardised products and services, along linear assembly lines with a Taylorist division of labour between

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[2] Morgan's (1986) model identifies eight metaphors in classifying organisational theories in order to understand and study organisations, namely machines, organisms, brains, change, culture, political systems, instruments of domination, and psychic prisons.

separate processes, in a fairly stable political, economic, technological and social context.

The metaphor for the new millennium public service has implications on how public servants are managed and led as the earlier theories focused mainly on controlling and manipulating employees and work environment with the objective of maximising efficiency and productivity (Denhardt, Denhardt & Aristigueta, 2002). As discussed in the previous two chapters, for most of the 20th century, scholarship was dominated by cognitive, rational, transactional and task-focused leadership approaches. Employees were regarded as extensions of tools and extrinsic rewards, such as money, were largely used for motivation.

Emotional and social intelligence scholar, Daniel Goleman (2006: 252) draws attention to the erosion of personal and social facets in a machine organisation – i.e. when people are considered as "numbered units, interchangeable parts of no interest or value in themselves, empathy is sacrificed in the name of efficiency and cost effectiveness." Social factors were only introduced into organisational behaviour after the Hawthorne study in the 1930s.

In the industrial era, marked by stable environments with less complexity, and in transactional leadership, Weberian administrative orthodoxy was conventional. However, in the turbulent 21st century, "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996) public service context, alternative theoretical approaches and practice in governance, and leadership were necessary. Across the globe, "new models for governing and also new types of political, administrative, and citizen leadership" are essential (Bouckaert, 2009, quoted in Ingraham, 2009: 214).

Some scholars claim that the traditional image of government as the top-down bureaucracy is gradually shifting towards the idea of networked governance (Morse & Buss, 2008: 8). Organisational hierarchy in some public service organisations are becoming "less important than inter-organisational relationships defined in multiple manners" (Kellis & Ran 2013: 133).

4.3   CONTEXT MATTERS: THE PUBLIC SERVICE IS DISTINCT

George Frederickson and David Matkin's (2007: 39) view that "Context matters and the governmental context matters greatly, as any public administrator knows" is widely held in the literature. Despite the dominance in some countries of new public management (NPM) thinking and practice (drawing on private sector models) (Berry, 2009; Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012; Mau, 2009), the distinctiveness of the public service is a defining issue in the public governance literature.

Public and private organisations differ in many respects: from performance measures, authority mechanisms, accountability to stakeholders (Van Slyke & Alexander, 2006), package of skills (Van Wart & Dicke, 2008), motivational patterns, discretion and control of resources (Ingraham, 2009), values (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007; DeSeve, 2007), flexibility (Ingraham, 2009), management systems, and leadership (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007). Public servants are expected to have stronger motivation to meet public needs (Perry, 2000). Therefore, the nature of the context has multiple implications for leadership practice, organisational systems and values.

The leadership in the public service is "bifurcated" due to the division between political and managerial executives (Ingraham, 2009: 218). Due to the pressures of political priorities, and control and oversight, public service leaders face greater constraints in decision-making and assigning resources in realising organisational outcomes than their private sector counterparts (Ingraham, 2009: 216). Furthermore, agility and flexibility in responding to changes are not common features of public organisations, with excessively uniform, hierarchical and rigid management systems.

Frederickson and Matkin (2007: 40) disagree with the "disembodied quality" of the conventional generic view of leadership, which suggests that great leaders are able to lead effectively in any setting. Further, these authors (Frederickson and Matkin, 2007: 40) claim that leaders require a "deep substantive knowledge of the technological and bureaucratic characteristics" of the particular context in which they function. There is consensus in the literature that generic approaches to leadership are inadequate for public leaders navigating the distinctive, complex, turbulent and transforming public governance context (Morse & Buss, 2008; Mau, 2009).

As democratic values must be at the core of the public service, it cannot be loosely equated with the business sector (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007; Morse & Buss, 2008). DeSeve (2007: 13) argues for public value to be the "organising principle of public agencies and that the role of leadership is critical in creating public value." To distinguish government from the private sector, Berry (2009: 36) states that public administrators must stress public service values to citizens. Similar to Denhardt and Denhardt (2002) and Denhardt (2009), he (Berry, 2009: 36) is critical of the efficiency and productivity "virtues" of NPM, and the management of the public service as a business, as public governance extends beyond delivering services economically.

Besides the organisational, leadership and values implications of institutional contexts, there exists a major influence of private sector management and leadership scholarship and practice on that of the public service. This influence subsequently led to several public service scholars demanding dedicated research attention on the public service context. The next section examines the leadership scholarship challenges in the public service.

4.4   PUBLIC LEADERSHIP SCHOLARSHIP CHALLENGES

The leadership construct in the public service has several variants. Morse and Buss (2008) make a distinction between political leadership (elected political leaders, such as the president, ministers and mayors), organisational leadership (formal leadership positions within the bureaucracy – also referred to as bureaucratic or managerial or administrative leadership in the literature), and public leadership (leadership for common good in civil society, outside government, which could include the first two forms). While Van Wart and Dicke (2007) categorise three types of public sector leadership, namely organisational, political and movement leadership, Fairholm's (2007: 106) leadership categories are transactional, transformational and transforming. Although his first two categories underscore organisational change, the third category is about personal change.

Within the vast leadership literature, scholars have adopted a generic approach with a dominant focus on private sector leadership (Rainey, 2003; Raffel et al., 2009). This contextual scholarship dominance is clearly illustrated in E-journal databases search results, confirming Van Wart's (2003) conclusion that the public sector leadership literature is a fraction compared to that of the

private sector. Morse, Buss and Kinghorn (2007) and Morse and Buss (2008) in their two extensive volumes of essays on public leadership assert that leadership in the public service context has long been a vastly understudied field. Similarly, Ingraham (2006, 361) contends that it is "impossible to overlook the limited extent of systematic analysis of *public* leadership issues", while Terry (2003) stresses the disregard of "bureaucratic leadership" in terms of scholarly attention.

Van Wart (2011: 18) affirms this deficit when noting that only 25 articles with leadership as an explicit focus were identified in the *Public Administrative Review* over a period of sixty-one years. Similarly, in their broad review of 752 journal articles (published between 2000 and 2012 in 10 top-tier leadership journals), Dinh et al. (2014: 40) found that public leadership (categorised under "Emerging Theories") had a frequency of only 20 published academic articles. Denhardt and Denhardt (2007), Raffel et al. (2009) and Kellis and Ran (2013) call for greater attention to this significant gap in the literature to embrace developing leadership models and research appropriate for the public service. Van Wart (2011: 18) acknowledges that although the literature on public sector leadership is small, "it has nevertheless been substantial, albeit relatively unfocussed."

Within the limited public leadership literature, an enduring pre-occupation since the 19th century has been political leadership, and very little on public service managerial leadership. Also, charismatic and transformational leadership, which include emerging approaches such as ethical/moral (e.g. authentic, spiritual and servant) and other "nascent approaches" (e.g. emotions), have received less attention at both theoretical and research levels (Dinh et al., 2014). To address this void in scholarship, many scholars call for greater research endeavours that redefine the structures, tools, processes, competencies and functions of leadership in public organisations (Kellis & Ran 2013; Olshfski & Jun, 1989; Van Wart & Dicke, 2008; Wright, 2011).

In addition, House and Aditya (1997: 409–410) draw attention to the assumptions and cultural disposition of leadership literature, which they claim is predominantly Western-centric, with a focus on developed nations and positivistic:

> Almost all of the prevailing theories of leadership, and about 98% of the empirical
>
> evidence at hand, are rather distinctly American in character: individualistic rather

than collectivistic, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights, assuming hedonism rather than commitment to duty or altruistic motivation, assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation, and emphasising assumptions of rationality rather than asceticism, religion, or superstition.

Ngoma (2007) agrees that in light of the dominance of Western epistemology there is a conspicuous shortage of literature in post-colonial African leadership and organisations, in particular in the public service domain. An example is the South African apartheid public service system, which was based on Western models of public administration (Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012; Picard, 2005). There is an immense need to develop appropriate and culturally specific leadership paradigms and to research the public service in order to address the cultural biases and deficits in the literature.

Furthermore, the lack of the public service literature on the role of emotions in leadership is highlighted. Public administration scholars, Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010: 72) challenge the authority of rationality in the public service, arguing that "emotions in management and the management of emotions" are significant in the achievements of public servants. They further contend that, "feelings and emotions are a useful managerial tool and a key concept in building vigorous relationships with citizens, social groups, public officials and other stakeholders in the public sphere." In addition, Newman et al. (2009: 248) emphasise that public servants immersed in the "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996) face huge emotion management demands, though with fewer resources to address these demands. The turbulence, complexity and demands on public administrators have implications for their emotions and their values (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007) – more so in developing nations with additional democratic transformational pressures. For this reason, greater research attention is necessary to understand public leadership in relation to affect and emotions.

4.5   THE TRANSFORMING SOUTH AFRICAN PUBLIC SERVICE

The South African (SA) democratic state formed in 1994 was built on a foundation of centuries of racism, violence, dispossession, exploitation, segregation and dehumanisation, and, equally, on

resistance, hope, freedom, justice, forgiveness and reconciliation. John Clare (2010: vii) accordingly notes: "Three-hundred-and-fifty years of European colonialism and authoritarian white rule have given way to a vigorous, non-racial democracy." In such a fundamentally transitioning national context, the newly adopted vision and objectives in transforming the public service and leadership in a democratic state must be considered.

In 1951, the Bantu Administration Act led to the formation of ten ethnic reserves or homelands (i.e. "Bantustans") (Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012; Picard, 2005). During the democratisation process in the mid 1990s, these homelands were dissolved with the creation of nine provinces. In the Eastern Cape (EC) province, the former Ciskei and Transkei homelands and parts of the previous Cape Province were merged to form the EC provincial government. The legacy of the homelands administrative culture, ethnic power structures and traditional authority politics continue in contemporary South Africa, negatively afflicting the country's worst performing provinces like the EC (Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012; Picard, 2005; RSA, 2013).

Understanding the ethos of the public service hinges on critical thinking around the history of the public service in South Africa (Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012) and current debates on the transforming dynamics in the public service (Edigheji, 2010), in addition to examining the limitations of the current public service transformation trajectory. It is beyond the focus of this section to trace the history of the colonial and apartheid state, as many texts exist, though an overview of the founding democratic public service institutional legislation, including an analysis of the management and leadership frameworks, will be presented. Additionally, a few issues on the current public service challenges will be highlighted.

4.5.1   THE FOUNDING OF A DEMOCRATIC PUBLIC SERVICE

In a polarised landscape with immense economic and psychosocial fault lines, the new democratic state introduced a broad range of distinctly ideological administrative reforms in response to redressing a public service that was characterised by authoritarianism, inequality, racial domination and repression (Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012; Picard, 2005; Posel, 1999; Von Holdt, 2010). This redress was initially guided by the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development Programme

(RDP) (RSA, 1994), the strategy document of the current governing party, the African National Congress (known as the ANC). The RDP argued for a "comprehensive approach to the development of a democratic and accountable public service" that will "facilitate internal accountability and democracy within the operations of the [public] service" and "ensure that its relationships with the public are also transparent, consultative, participative and democratic" (RSA, 1995: 55).

The RDP's vision was given legal status in the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (RSA, 1995: 3) which expected the South African public service to play a major role as the executive arm of the government in "forging ahead with the processes of reconciliation, reconstruction and development." These objectives are reinforced in the National Development Plan (RSA, 2012: 363), which states: "In a society with deep social and economic divisions, neither social nor economic transformation is possible without an effective state."

Also, in the mid 1990s, the democratic South African government adopted a set of founding policy frameworks and legislation to fundamentally transform the public service from an authoritarian bureaucracy to a democratic, developmental and people-centred one (Levin, 2009; Picard, 2005). The aspirational ideals for the future ethos of the South African public service are well documented in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* 1996. Chapter 10 states that "public administration must be governed by the democratic values and principles enshrined in the Constitution", including a set of nine principles (RSA, 1996: 107).

The institutional and legal provisions are contained in the Public Service Act (RSA, 1994), the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service (RSA, 1995), the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (RSA, 1997), the Performance Management and Development Framework (RSA, 2001), the Policy Statement on the Establishment of a Senior Management Service in the Public Service (2000) and the Public Service Amendment Act (2007). The desired public sector was envisaged as a "coherent, representative, competent and democratic instrument for implementing government policies and meeting the needs of all South Africans" (RSA, 1995: 3). The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (RSA, 1997), was guided by a set of principles for the public service called the Batho Pele (People First)

principles, which was later translated into three key public service beliefs, namely to care, to serve and to belong.

A key objective of the major South African administrative change initiative was to empower, challenge and motivate senior managers to be "leaders, visionaries, initiators and effective communicators and decision-makers, capable of responding pro-actively to the challenges of the change process" (RSA, 1995: 3). To this effect, the Senior Management Service (SMS) Leadership and Management Competency Framework (LMCF) (RSA, 2003a, 2010) advocated a set of ten competencies that were critical for exemplary performance within the SMS. These competencies describe "thought processes that influence behaviours […] in demonstration of their leadership and managerial roles" (RSA, 2010: Ch. 5, 4).

However, the "behavioural indicators" of three of the five core competencies for the SMS – strategic capability and leadership, people management and empowerment, and change management – narrowly and principally focus on senior managers' cognitive abilities and technical expertise. While this is important for effective management, it is not sufficient. Only a limited number of the core competency processes and behavioural indicators relate to emotional and social competencies – i.e. competencies that have been shown to be crucial for effective leadership (Boyatzis, 2008; Goleman et al., 2002).

Despite the SMS Competency Framework's progressive objectives to enable public service leaders and visionaries, the core competencies focus narrowly on cognitive abilities and technical skills. Although these abilities and skills are important for good public management (especially in a transforming and affirmative South African context), the limited attention placed on affective and relational characteristics may challenge the realisation of the overall vision of the public sector leadership transformation agenda. In addition, according to Levin (2009: 955), the SMS transformation may have emphasised remuneration, with the values of service and professional ethics subsumed by conditions of service, "leaving the public service poorer." Furthermore, in a multicultural setting characterised by major change, uncertainty, diversity, inequality and the relentless demand for public services, effective public managers need strong competencies in social awareness (such as empathy) and relationship management (such as inspirational

leadership, and coaching and mentoring) (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2007; Goleman, 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Newman et al., 2009).

Numerous leadership and management development programmes and SMS changes were introduced over the past two decades (Levin, 2009). Prior to 1994, the senior management was white-dominated, while, presently, through measures to fast-track representativeness, the SMS is black-dominated. Despite the good policy intentions of representativeness, a number of authors (Picard, 2005; Southall, 2007; Von Holdt, 2010; Ramphele, 2008) are critical of the fact that a long-term systematic capacity-building programme to develop the incoming public leaders did not adequately complement the focus on demographical representativeness.

The limited or misdirected investment in human capacity development has led to a "low level of administrative performance and the extensive abuse of their powers and positions by many self-serving public servants" (Southall, 2007: 8). Southall (2007) and Von Holdt (2010) argue that although much of the "dysfunctionality" of the public service can be attributed to implementation and technical deficits, it is "nonetheless in the political and ideational spheres that the principal challenges lie" (Southall, 2007: 21).

4.5.2   PUBLIC SERVICE TRANSFORMATION CHALLENGES

As noted earlier in this chapter, the public service is a challenging environment, more so in the context of a transforming, nascent democracy with the responsibility to create a "developmental state" through fundamental governance shifts in public policies, and administrative structures and systems. During the past twenty-one years of democratic transition and public sector transformation, significant strides have been made in public management and leadership (RSA, 2003b; 2014). However, substantial challenges in the effectiveness of public service leaders persist.

The National Development Plan 2030 (RSA, 2012: 54) adopted by Cabinet in the last quarter of 2012 asserts that building a capable developmental state "requires leadership." The emergence of effective "visionary" leadership and the desired developmental ethos in the South African public service, as articulated in the founding transformational frameworks for a democratic public sector,

is uneven. The concept of the "developmental state" is not explicitly defined in the public service (Southall, 2007; Edigheji, 2010). There is insufficient discourse on how to promote the democratic developmental public service ethos (Edigheji, 2010), despite the noble intent of public policy frameworks and initiatives.

Currently, a number of public sector scholars (e.g. Chipkin & Lipietz, 2012; Picard, 2005; Von Holdt, 2010) and the almost daily citizen protests highlight the challenges of public governance and leadership in South Africa. Bourgeoning corruption, incompetence and maladministration within the public service, which were also rife during the apartheid and homeland administrative systems (Chipkin & Meny-Gibert, 2012), are exposed often by the media, the constitutional institutions, such as the Public Protector and the Public Service Commission (RSA, 2011), the Constitutional Court's rulings and non-governmental organisations.

After two decades of massive reorganisation of the apartheid state in the realisation of the egalitarian vision and principles of the founding constitution, the current state of the public service should be considered. March and Olson's (1983: 282-283) analysis on public administrative change, bound in a political milieu, is instructive in light of the significant reorganisation of the South African state:

> Two orthodox rhetorics … infuse reorganization. The first is that of orthodox administrative theory. This rhetoric speaks of the design of administrative structures and procedures to facilitate the efficiency and effectiveness of bureaucratic hierarchies … [and] emphasizes economy and control. The second rhetoric of reorganization is the rhetoric of realpolitik. It is equally conventional. It speaks of reorganization, like organization, in terms of a political struggle among contending interests. Fundamental political interests, within the bureaucracy and outside, seek access, representation, control, and policy benefits. Organizational forms reflect victorious interests and establish a mechanism for future dominance.

In the South African context, many instances of the dynamic interplay between the rhetorics of orthodoxy and realpolitik abound. The political executive constantly provides rhetorical support for the administrative and realpolitik orthodoxies. For example, at the launch of the new School of Government (DPSA, 2013), the former Minister of Public Service and Administration, Ms Lindiwe Sisulu, supported the administrative orthodoxy and used terminology of the machine metaphor in the transformation of the public service. By doing this, she affirmed the continued dominance of this industrial age's organisational paradigm "to facilitate the efficiency and effectiveness of bureaucratic hierarchies" (March & Olson, 1983: 282):

> Unless we *"fix the engines",* we will be nowhere near the requirements of […] a more effective State […]. The School […] is expected to be an *engine* of innovation in public service […,] establishing a functioning *state machinery* […,] turning the public service into an effective *machinery* […,] turning the public service into an efficient and effective *machinery* […]. (DPSA, 2013, emphasis added).

The machine metaphor of organisations (Morgan, 2007) is a consequence of the mechanistic view of reality imposed by Cartesian dualism and rationalism and Newtonian mechanics, expounded by Taylor's school of the scientific organisation of labour and Weber's bureaucratic models (Robledo, 2013). These models endure a century later and in the shadow of this metaphor many organisations emerge as (Robledo, 2013: 62)

> … hierarchical, control-oriented, bureaucratic, and inflexible. Everything must be carefully planned and mechanized. Their fundamental values are efficiency, certainty, and belief in the existence of a correct solution to every problem. The main problem with this approach is that it tends to suppress the human side of an organization – individuals are mere cogs in a machine that operates under management control. The workers in these organizations tend to be passive production units, thoughtless automatons. People, depersonalized and anonymous, are nothing more than a box in an organizational chart.

Beyond the impersonal, alienating machine metaphor desired by political and administrative leaders for the future South African public service, the ethos of the public service (as envisioned by the founding principles in the mid-1990s) requires re-examination in terms of the values and behaviours of civil servants. These values and behaviours include caring, belonging, accountability, accessibility, and responsibility with regard to public service. Citizens perceive or experience public institutions through the affective expressions and social interactions of public leaders and civil servants (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006, 2007).

Moreover, Mokgolo, Mokgolo and Modiba's (2012: 7) study on the relationships between transformational leadership behaviours and employee attitudes and performance in the provincial government sphere indicates that departmental leaders "do not have the appropriate transformational skills to manage their departments effectively and efficiently." This accordingly leads to "negative perceptions of employees about how leaders manage their departments and about their leadership" (Mokgolo et al., 2012: 7). Mokgolo et al. (2012: 6) further claim that the low level of sector delivery is the result of "incompetent management and leadership." Transformational leadership styles place huge emphasis on the emotional and social competence of leaders.

In accordance with the NDP's Vision 2030 (RSA, 2012), changes in the public service require new kinds of knowledge, abilities, behaviours, attitudes and professionalism to shift the image of the state. In this changing context, effective public service leadership and performance are critical as they depict good examples and promote the credibility of setting high standards and correcting poor performance. Also relevant to this transforming context is that administrative organisational culture is influenced by historical trends, social attitudes and political factors (Frederickson and Matkin, 2007). Effective leaders seek to understand their administrative culture and respect the sources of the culture before seeking to influence the culture (Frederickson and Matkin, 2007).

Notably, there is still a lack of rigorous scholarship on public sector transformation and leadership, except for scholarly work on political leaders – illustrated by the many books on South African presidents. The challenge is to develop public service leadership models to better understand the

transforming South African public service landscape and public leadership needs in such a turbulent white-water context.

4.6   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Turbulence and change defines the transforming public service context. This chapter presented the challenges leaders face in navigating the tempestuous, uncertain, multi-dimensional, and complex public service in 21st-century environments. Key issues within the public service and leadership literature were analysed in understanding the demands of modern 21st-century public governance.

The distinctiveness of this context was outlined in comparison to the private sector, notwithstanding the influence of NPM. Key scholarship deficits in public service institutional and leadership challenges were discussed, with many scholars calling for greater attention to research in this domain. The outdated 19th and 20th century organisational and management theories were shown to be inadequate for the "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996) that public managers and leaders navigate through daily. In addition, the chapter provided a brief overview of the transformation process and challenges in the democratic transition of the South African state over the past twenty-one years.

There is a shortage of intellectual pursuit in understanding the inherited administrative orthodoxy, with serious gaps in evidence and analysis on alternative public service institutional and leadership models required in addressing the vicissitudes of a 21st-century environment. Further research into this area will form a significant response to the several calls by public administration scholars for new approaches to public leadership thinking and practice – over and above the current body of knowledge.

In conclusion, it is important to note which forms of public service institutional architecture, organisational culture, and sets of values and competencies better serve public leaders in embracing the governance transformation challenge. These forms traverse through turbulent, dynamic and complex environments, entrusted with safeguarding democratic principles and public values, while improving the quality of life of citizens.

Chapter 5 subsequently begins with describing the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study informed by the literature reviewed in Chapters 2–4, followed by the research design and methods used in the study.

Chapter 5

Conceptual Framework and Research Design

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The literature review in Chapters 2–4 underlines the vast and varied multi-disciplinary scholarship related to investigating the link between emotional intelligence (EI) and leadership performance in a public service context. This study's conceptual and theoretical framework was informed by concepts and theory described in the preceding three chapters. It is presented at the start of this chapter.

The literature review indicates a positive relationship between EI and effective leadership. However, there is a substantial knowledge gap in scholarly work on EI competencies related to leadership performance, especially in the public service, and non-Western contexts. For this reason, the purpose of this study is to examine this bivariate relationship within the domain of executive administrative leaders in a South African public service organisation. This intention guides the overall research question of this study. Three specific quantitative research questions and related hypotheses were examined in this study, as presented in Table 6.

To address the research questions, the research strategy for this study is a two-phase, sequential, mixed-method design, using a quantitative descriptive correlational approach followed by qualitative thematic inductive and case study approaches. The quantitative method in this study relates to the paradigm of post-positivism, while the qualitative method relates to constructivism – as described in the "Assumptions" section of Chapter 1.

Descriptive quantitative research (or survey research) "involves either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomena" (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010). This type of research design determines whether a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables and the extent of the association. It further examines the situation or phenomenon as it is. Quantitative research methods were used to measure the independent variable, i.e. the EI competencies of executive managers, and the dependent variable, i.e. their leadership performance. The instrument used to measure the

independent variable is the 360-degree multi-source Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007). This instrument is well suited for measuring competencies and for leadership development purposes. The dependent variable was measured using multi-source nominations (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008, 2009; Luthans et al., 1988; McClelland, 1998; Ramo et al., 2009; Spencer & Spencer, 1993).

Table 6. Quantitative research questions and hypotheses.

1. Does a relationship exist between EI and leadership performance among public service executive managers?
H1: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence and leadership performance.*
2. What is the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance?
H2.1: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence cluster mean scores and leadership performance nominations.* H2.2: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between each emotional intelligence competency mean score and leadership performance nominations.* H2.3: *A statistically significant difference exists between the EI competency scores of high-performing and low-performing executive managers.*
3. What is the nature of the relationship between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance?
H3.1: *Statistically significant differences exist between the mean emotional intelligence scores of the different rater groups, i.e. self, managers, subordinates, peers, others and clients.*   • *Between self and manager, subordinates, and peers;* • *Between manager and subordinates, peers, others, and clients; and* • *Between other rater groups.* H3.2: *A statistically significant negative relationship exists between the executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance.* H3.3: *A statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high-performing and low-performing executive managers.*

Two qualitative methods were employed for the qualitative design. Firstly, the Behavioural Events Interview (BEI) (McClelland, 1998), which is a widely accepted interview and content-valid assessment method (McClelland, 1998: 331) for assessing behaviours, was considered an appropriate qualitative instrument for this study. Secondly, Dynamic Inquiry (DI) (London and McMillen, 1992) interviews from the Eastern Cape Provincial Government (2012) culture and leadership study were used with permission. The DI is a qualitative method used to collect data on

the organisational culture within the public service organisations of the executive managers sample.

The following quantitative analytical methods were used: Measures of central tendency and variability, and measures of associations, such as means, standard deviations, range, Cronbach's Correlation Coefficients, Spearman's Rank Correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD). The qualitative analytical tools utilised were those belonging to thematic inductive analysis.

The Director-General in the Office of the Premier: Eastern Cape Provincial Government provided approval for this research (refer to Appendix A). The Deputy Director-General (DDG): Institutional Support was designated to be the research sponsor. The DDG sent a letter to the five Departmental Heads explaining the purpose of the study and requesting the participation of their managers and staff members. Each department assigned a Human Resources senior manager to support this research.

The conceptual framework at the start of this chapter is followed by the research design and methodology in the following sections: Sampling strategy, data collection, research instruments, data analysis, ethical considerations and limitations.

5.2   CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The drive to optimise an individual's performance has led to the quest of understanding human talent. A major part of this search focuses on leadership talent – a key determinant of organisational success. Van Wart's (2011: 42) question therefore becomes poignant, as it is instructive in framing a study of leadership talent and performance:

> What contingency factors [characteristics related to a leader, organisation, and
> job demand] affect which ideal leaders' styles [i.e. behaviour patterns] that in turn
> will increase the likelihood of leader and organisational effectiveness
> [performance]?

In other words, these contingency factors are viewed as variables that influence the behaviour or style of leaders in pursuit of effectiveness. Boyatzis' (1982, 2008, 2009) theory of action and job performance states that maximum performance occurs when the three contingency factors are optimally integrated. Likewise, Young and Dulewicz (2009: 795) cite seminal leadership scholarship to demonstrate the influence individual human characteristics have on work behaviour, job activities and performance and, equally, that "organisational performance reflects the coherence between activities/procedures and characteristics/behaviours."

Several meta-analyses (in Chapter 2) revealed that emotional and social intelligence competencies are valid constructs in the study of human talent and performance, as they account for a significant variance in predicting or understanding job performance and leadership effectiveness. As such, EI competencies enable the study of a leader's personal characteristics related to behaviour. Therefore, this study's primary theoretical grounding is the competency theory of action and performance (represented by the three contingency factors), i.e. competencies as a behavioural manifestation of EI that predicts job performance (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008, 2009; Goleman, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002).

To explore the complex interplay between the three contingency factors (individual characteristics, job demand and organisational context) in examining the relationship between EI competencies and leadership performance, Wilber's (2000) integral theory and four quadrants model are suitable. Each quadrant represents a distinct domain of reality, i.e. either the interior or exterior consciousness of the individual and the collective (organisation). Each domain embodies differing levels of growth, development or evolution (Wilber, 2000). Wilber's four-domain model is described below and illustrated as part of the conceptual framework in Figure 3.

First, the "individual" contingency factor consists of two domains, namely Intentional and Behavioural. The *Intentional domain* (the upper-left quadrant, interior and personal subjective "I") represents an individual's internal consciousness, i.e. motives, traits, self-concept/beliefs, values, vision, knowledge, competencies, thoughts, feelings and sensations, indicating the individual's talents (Boyatzis, 2009; Wilber, 1995, 2000). In management theory, this domain is referred to as Theory Y, i.e. the psychological understanding of the individual, or in personal development as

developmental lines or Howard Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences such as cognitive, emotional, interpersonal (social), musical and kinaesthetic intelligences.

The *Behavioural domain* (the exterior upper-right quadrant and objective "IT") represents the individual's exterior behaviour, actions and movements of a person's objective body (Wilber, 1995, 2000). Van Wart (2011: 74) asserts that a leader's behaviour directly influences performance, i.e. "the behaviours or styles s/he uses affects how much is accomplished, how followers feel, [and] how well the organisation adapts …"
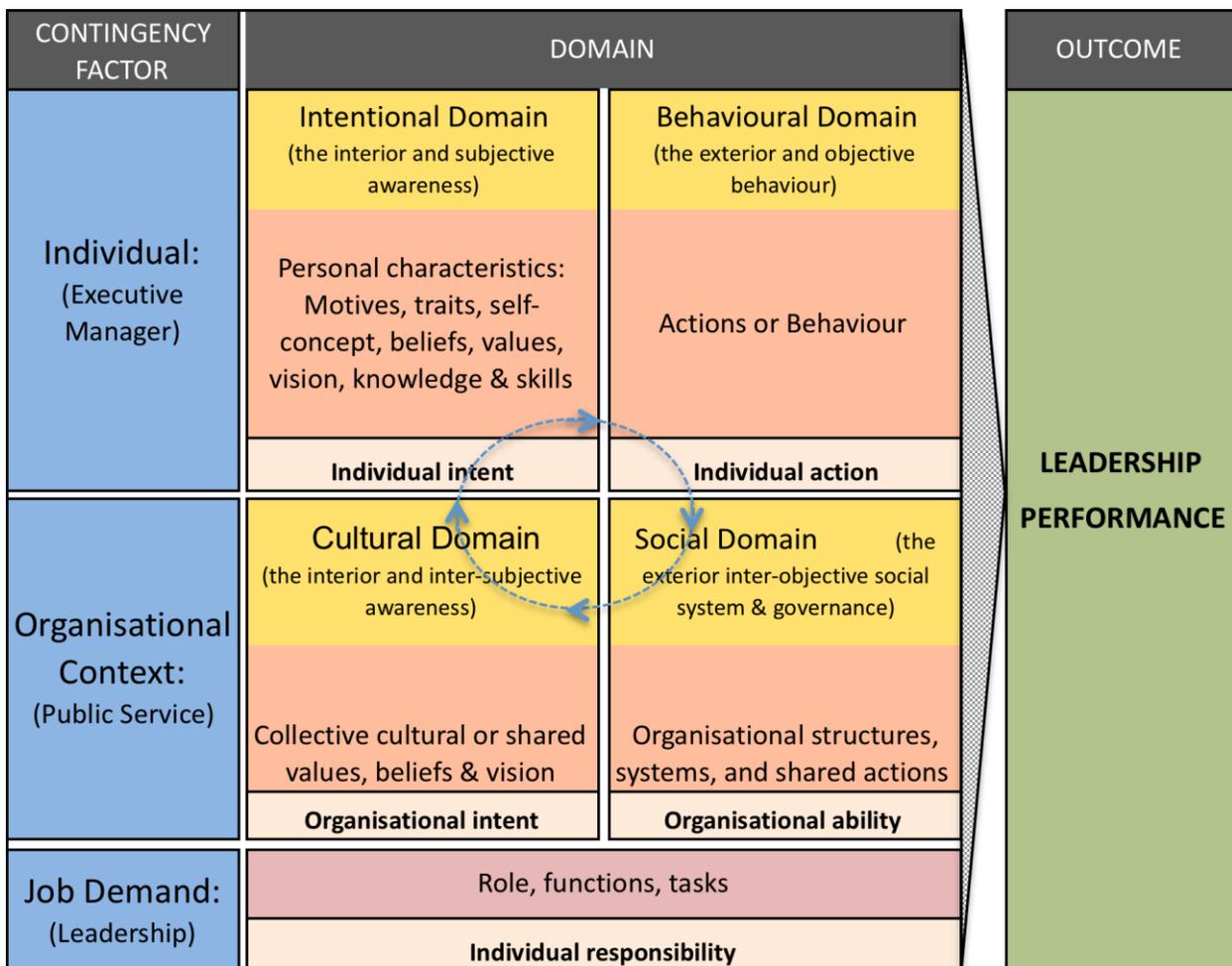
Figure 3. Conceptual Framework: Linking individual, job demand and organisational context contingency factors.

Second, the "Organisational Context" contingency factor consists of two domains, namely cultural and social. The *Cultural domain* (the lower-left quadrant interior and collective or intersubjective "WE"), describes the organisational culture, i.e., the values, meanings, worldviews, feelings, and ethics that are shared by any group of individuals (Wilber, 2000). The *Social domain* (the lower-

right quadrant, exterior and collective and inter-objective "ITS") represents the structures, systems, resources, plans and strategies, and shared actions of the organisation.

Third, the **"Job Demands"** contingency factor is differentiated into the distinct leadership role of managers – with its distinct styles, functions and tasks. All four domains are vital in understanding an individual's job performance related to his or her job demand.

The individual's Intentional and Behavioural domains represent the primary focus of this study, i.e. to better understand the relationship between a group of executive managers' emotional and social competencies (intentional domain), which manifests as behaviours or actions (behavioural domain), i.e. the independent variable, which influences their leadership performance (dependent variable), defined by their leadership roles and tasks (job demand), within a South African public service context. The cultural and social domains are assumed to mediate this bivariate relationship and represent the study's secondary focus. This framework guides the study's research design that follows in the next sections.

5.3   SAMPLING

The potential for single-source or single-method bias, i.e. measures of both predictor (independent – EI competencies) and criterion variables (dependent – leadership performance nominations) from the same rater source, was reduced as the ESCI raters and the performance nominators were not always the same. The ESCI included "other" and "client" raters while the nominations survey included a wider range of rank levels, beyond the supervisor, subordinates and peers of the executive managers.

5.3.1   STUDY POPULATION

The target population for this research study was executive managers (Chief Director, Deputy Director-General, and Head of Department, i.e. rank levels 14–16) in four departments in the Eastern Cape Provincial Government.

5.3.2   STUDY SAMPLE (UNIT OF ANALYSIS)

At the start of the research, five of the thirteen provincial departments were selected using a convenience sample (non-probability). Three departments represented the centre of government departments with provincial-wide transversal functions, while two represented the largest social service delivery-line departments. The initial research design had a sample of 83 executive managers from the five departments (i.e. 66% of the total population). Table 7 presents the target sample per level and department. The nominations survey included this sample of 83 executive managers as nominees to be selected by respondents as outstanding in their leadership performance.

Table 7. Initial study sample of executive managers from the five departments for the nominations survey.

| Rank Level | Transversal Depts. | | | Social Service Depts. | | n |
	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	Dept. 5	
14 (Chief Director)	9	13	17	5	12	56
15 (Deputy Director General)	5	1	5	8	3	22
16 (Head of Department)	1	1	1	1	1	5
	15	15	23	14	16	83

The human resource (HR) departments' response time to requests for the names and demographic data of the executive managers varied between 3–4 weeks.

The final sample comprised 67 managers who were invited to participate in the second survey, namely the ESCI, as reflected in Table 8 below. Due to poor response from Department 5 in the nominations survey, the executive managers were excluded from the study (Refer to Section 5.3.3).

Table 8. Final study sample of executive managers from the four departments invited to participate in the ESCI.

Rank Level	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	n
14	9	13	17	5	44
15	5	1	5	8	19
16	1	1	1	1	4
	15	15	23	14	67

5.3.3 NOMINATIONS SAMPLE

Employees from rank levels 12–16 (n = 497, refer to Table 9) in five departments were invited to nominate those executive managers (refer to Table 7) whose leadership performance was outstanding. The response time for requests to the HR department for the names and contact details of levels 12–13 staff members varied between 3–4 weeks.

Table 9. Nominations sample of respondents from the five departments.

Rank Level	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	Dept. 5	n
12	40	50	65	0	22	177
13	35	38	50	60	54	237
14	9	13	16	5	13	56
15	5	1	5	8	3	22
16	1	1	1	1	1	5
	90	103	137	74	93	497

After numerous requests, Department 4, a social service department, did not provide details of participants for level 12 (Table 9). As only seven nominations survey responses were received from Department 5 (one of the social service departments), it was excluded from further participation in this study. Ten nomination survey reminders were sent to ninety-three Department 5 participants over a period of fourteen weeks and numerous communications with the departmental Human Resource head for support. The option of a manual survey, presented to the HR head, was not followed through. The final sample for analysis of the nominations represented four departments and 67 executive managers (refer to Table 8).

5.3.4 ESCI SAMPLE

Initially the sample comprised 67 executive managers from four departments. However, only 45 managers completed the ESCI survey, of which 35 executive managers' ratings were used in the quantitative analysis. The reduction in the number of executive management participants is outlined in the data collection section (5.4.1) below.

The final sample of other (respondent) ESCI raters was 230, comprising five rater groups, namely manager or supervisor (n = 28), subordinate (n = 70), peer (n = 65), other (n = 37) and client (n =

30). The data collection section below outlines how this lower number of ESCI respondent participants was attained.

5.3.5   BEHAVIOURAL EVENTS INTERVIEW SAMPLE

The five executives with the highest ESCI total others raters' mean scores, i.e. those achieving eight or more EI competency strengths were selected as exemplary leaders for an in-depth Behavioural Events Interview, a qualitative instrument.

5.3.6   DYNAMIC INQUIRY INTERVIEW (DI) SAMPLE

To understand the participant executive managers' organisational context, all forty-seven DI interviews (primary raw data) in the three participating transversal departments were used from an Eastern Cape Provincial Government (2012) study. Due to the small sample of participant executive managers (n = 2) from the social service department in the current study, DI interviews were not selected from this department. The forty-seven DI interviews comprised the following ranks: four executive managers (levels 14–15), fourteen senior managers (level 13), nineteen middle-level managers (levels 9–12) and ten administration officers (levels 6–8), as presented in table 10 below. The Level 13 sample was separated from the executive managers, even though they are all regarded as the Senior Management Service, for the purpose of this study, as levels 14–16 managers (n = 4) are the target sample for the quantitative correlational research study.

Table 10. Dynamic Inquiry interview sample.

	ADMINISTRATION (LEVELS 6–8)	MIDDLE-LEVEL MANAGERS (LEVELS 9–12)	SENIOR MANAGERS (LEVELS 13)	EXECUTIVE MANAGERS (LEVELS 14–15)
Dept. 1	5	9	8	2
Dept. 2	5	9	3	2
Dept. 3	0	1	3	0
Total	10	19	14	4

5.3.7   DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Table 11 represents the demographic variables and frequency distribution of the 35 executive managers collected through the ESCI demographic survey completed by the participants, which

provides information on variables such as gender, age, length of provincial government service, level of position, and level of education.

Table 11. Frequency distributions for demographic variables.

Demographic Variables (2013)	n	%
Gender		
Male	21	60%
Female	14	40%
Age		
36–45	11	31%
46–55	16	46%
56–65	8	23%
Length of service: current organisation		
0–5 years	15	43%
6–10 years	10	29%
11–15 years	3	9%
16–20 years	6	17%
20–30 years	0	0%
Over 30 years	1	3%
Rank		
Head of Department (Level 16)	2	6%
Deputy-Director General (Level 15)	6	17%
Chief Director (Level 14)	27	77%
Education level		
University graduate (first degree)	5	14%
Postgraduate degree	30	86%
Direct/Indirect Reports		
0–10	15	43%
11–20	5	14%
21–30	4	11%
31–50	5	14%
51–100	1	3%
101–150	1	3%
151–500	1	3%
Over 501	3	9%
Departmental participants		
Transversal	12	34%
Transversal	12	34%
Transversal	9	26%
Social Service Line	2	6%
Number of promotions (past five years)		
0	12	34%
1	14	40%
2	8	23%
3	1	3%
Race		
Black	28	80%
White	3	9%
Coloured	3	9%
Indian	1	3%

5.4   DATA COLLECTION

5.4.1   QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

5.4.1.1 Leadership performance nominations survey

The target study sample of eighty-three executive managers, from five departments was informed of the purpose of this study and their participation was requested. The researcher contacted all the nomination respondents (n = 497) through email to introduce them to the study and inviting their participation (Appendix D). The respondents subsequently received an email with details of the University of Stellenbosch's Survey website (https://surveys.sun.ac.za), a unique username and password to access the nominations survey.

A nominations survey instrument was designed online on the University of Stellenbosch's Survey website. The survey included a list of the executive managers' names from the five departments. The nomination form requested the respondent's response to the following question: "*Choose the executive manager/s in your department who you view as outstanding in their leadership performance.*" A limit of a maximum of five choices was set.

Ten email reminders were sent to the respondents over the period 20 October 2013 to 5 February 2014. The initial survey end date was 20 December 2013 (8 weeks). However, due to a low response rate it was extended for another six weeks. A total of 198 respondents completed nominations surveys from the five departments (i.e. an overall 40% response): 191 were submitted from Departments 1–4 and seven (1.4%) from Department 5. As the response was very poor, Department 5 was excluded from further participation in this study. By excluding Department 5, the survey response rate was 47% (191 out of 404).

The nominations results for the 67 executive managers were ranked in order of the most number of nominations received, i.e. constituting ordinal data.

5.4.1.2 Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI): Identifying Others Raters

The sample of 67 executive managers from four departments was contacted to request their participation in the ESCI survey and information on the survey process provided (Appendix E). The

ESCI is a 360-degree web-based self-administered tool designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals and organisations. Each executive manager received an email with the online login details (website address, username and password) and was requested to complete three sets of surveys: demographic, ESCI and verbatim (areas of strengths and areas for improvement). They were also requested online to invite their supervisor/manager, direct reports, peers, clients and others to participate in the ESCI survey. A minimum of two raters was required per rater group (except supervisors), with no maximum limit of raters. The ESCI was administered through the Hay Group's survey centre (https://surveys.haygroup.com). Of the 1181 surveys (comprising all three surveys for participants and respondents) requested, 635 surveys were completed for the 45 executive manager participants.

The Hay Group email to each respondent included communication from the researcher on the purpose of the study, confidentiality and approval gained from the head of the provincial government, together with a set of survey instructions. The respondent raters completed the same ESCI and verbatim (areas of strengths and areas for improvement) surveys on the executive managers. For the purpose of this research's statistical analysis, each executive manager needed a minimum of four raters from at least two rater groups.

The ESCI survey started on 19 February 2014 and ended on 26 June 2014 (18 weeks). The original anticipated timeframe was 6 weeks, though the deadline was extended three times, as the initial response rate from the executive managers and raters was very low – despite several ongoing personal communications with the executives to complete their self-surveys and add the names and email addresses of their raters online. Weekly email reminders were sent from the Hay Group survey website to those executives and respondents who did not complete the survey. Furthermore, the researcher sent personal emails to the respondents reminding them of the survey and appealing for their participation. During the last two weeks of the data collection period, due to IT problems experienced by some of the raters, and to make the survey completion less burdensome, respondents were sent the ESCI survey manually as an MS Word document for completion and submission via email to the researcher. Fifty-three manual ESCI surveys were received. These were captured on the Hay Group survey centre by the researcher.

5.4.1.3 Emotional and Social Competence Inventory: Identifying Self-Raters

At the end of the ESCI survey, 45 executive managers (Table 12), from the sample of 67, participated (i.e. a 68% response rate), i.e. 77% on average from the three transversal departments and 36% from the social service department.

Rank Level	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	n
14	8	11	13	2	34
15	4	1	1	3	9
16	0	1	1	0	2
Total	12	13	15	5	**45**

Table 12. Number of participants completing the ESCI survey.

As each participant required a minimum of two respondent rater groups and four ESCI ratings, ten executives ESCI scores were rejected. For this reason, the final data set accepted for statistical analysis comprised 35 executive managers, i.e. 52% of the initial sample (67) or 64% on average from the three transversal departments and 14% from the social service department – presented in Table 13 below. An MS Excel spreadsheet of the mean ratings for the 12 ESCI competencies for each of the 35 managers was generated.

Rank Level	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	n
Participated	12	13	15	5	45
Accepted	**12**	**9**	**12**	**2**	**35**

Table 13. Final set of ESCI participants' results accepted for statistical analysis.

5.4.1.4 Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI): Respondent (Other) Raters

A total number of 489 raters, in five rater categories, were invited by the 45 executives to complete the ESCI survey. Sixty-two percent (304) of the other raters completed their surveys. Table 14 shows the number of raters enrolled by the executives and surveys completed.

	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	n
Enrolled	162	126	151	50	**489**
Participated	102	73	101	28	**304**

Table 14. Number of ESCI respondent raters: enrolment and participation.

As the threshold for selecting ratings for each participant was set at a minimum of two raters per rater group (except for the supervisors/managers rater group), 38 ratings were rejected, as they represented single rating in a group. In addition, 36 ratings for the ten unsuccessful executives were rejected. Consequently, a final total of 230 (i.e. 47% response rate) of the total others raters' scores, in five rater groups, were utilised for the ESCI data analysis of the 35 executives – presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Number of ESCI respondent raters per department: participation and acceptance.

	Dept. 1	Dept. 2	Dept. 3	Dept. 4	n
Raters participated	98	58	90	22	268
Ratings accepted	88	44	78	20	230

Table 16 presents the number of ratings per rater group.

Table 16. Number of ESCI respondent raters per rating group: participation and acceptance.

	Managers	Subordinates	Peers	Others	Clients	Total
Raters participated	28	76	72	48	44	**268**
Ratings accepted	28	70	65	37	30	**230**

It is evident that the original research design anticipated a higher response rate from the executive managers (83) and respondents (minimum of 332). However, a final total of 35 executives and 230 other raters' survey data was analysed in the study.

The researcher experienced both resistance and enthusiasm from the executive manager participants and respondents. While some were appreciative and valued the opportunity to contribute to new knowledge, others were anxious about the confidentiality of the surveys (despite assurances of anonymity), fearful of the use of the results for performance appraisals, doubtful of the personal or organisational value of the study (one manager quipped: "No study will save this Department"), complained of survey fatigue from participating in other studies, and needed the formal approval from the head of their department (despite letters of approval from the DG and HoD were made available). Interestingly, two HR and one performance management executive and a senior HR manager refused to participate, as they were either busy or participated in similar surveys previously or found no value in this research study. The challenges experienced during the data collection process, and the extended collection period, reflect the management and

organisational culture of not meeting deadlines (after agreement to participate), administrative deficiencies (e.g. time taken to provide basic data on the staff members), distrust, wariness, and low value placed on research and evidence. Research findings related to these culture issues are presented and discussed in the results and discussion chapters, and in the literature review.

5.4.2   QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

5.4.2.1 Identifying Leaders for Behavioural Events Interview (BEI)

The BEI instrument was used to interview the five executives with the highest ESCI total others' mean scores, i.e. those achieving eight or more ESCI strengths – regarded as highly emotionally intelligent and effective leaders in this study. Firstly, the researcher observed the leaders' behaviour and coded the EI competencies exhibited by these leaders during the interview for frequency and level of complexity. The exemplary leaders were probed on the "situation, thoughts, feelings, dialogue [conversation during the incident], behaviour, and outcomes" (McKee, 2012: 3–4) of three events when they were effective and not effective. In other words, what did these leaders "do, think, say, and feel that contributed to their success" (Hay Group, 2011: 4). The result is a descriptive profile of coded and scored EI behaviours of the leaders related to the 12 EI competencies tested by the ESCI. Secondly, an inductive thematic analysis was performed using the data collected from these interviews. This method is aimed at discovering aspects of behaviour through real incidents and finding associations with the ESCI findings.

5.4.2.2 Dynamic Inquiry Interviews

The interviews (primary data) were collected in the Eastern Cape Provincial Government (2012) study across all thirteen provincial government departments (n = 260) and across all rank levels (random selection), using the Dynamic Inquiry (DI) method (London & McMillen, 1992). The DI interviews assisted the researcher to facilitate deep insight into organisational culture, using a qualitative conversational interview methodology to uncover emotional realities, by tapping into subjective experience.

For the purpose of the current study, the researcher accessed the original interview transcripts for the three participating transversal provincial departments (n = 47), which were analysed to explore

the intentional, behavioural, social and cultural dynamics within the participant organisational environment (refer to study's conceptual framework). A team of researchers and practitioners, trained in the DI method by Dr Annie McKee (University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, USA) conducted the interviews.

5.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Table 17 presents a summary of the variables and research instruments employed in this study. This section provides a description of the quantitative and qualitative instruments.

Table 17. Summary of variables, research instrument and purpose.

Variable	Instrument	Purpose
Independent: Emotional and Social Competencies	• Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (quantitative)	• Predictor variable • Behavioural variable: Measures executive managers' competencies as a behavioural manifestation of EI (based on perceptions of followers, supervisors, peers, others and clients).
Dependent: Leadership Performance	• Performance Nominations (quantitative)	• Criterion variable • Performance variable: Measures specific outcome of leadership performance of executive managers (based on perceptions of followers, supervisors, peers and others).
Moderator: Organisational Culture	• Dynamic Inquiry Interview (DI) (qualitative) • Behavioural Events Interview (BEI) (qualitative)	• Strengthening variable • Organisational level variable • DI: Explores the managers' organisational environment, i.e. the intentional, behavioural, cultural and social domains, in which the manager leads.
Control	• ESCI Demographic Survey (quantitative)	• Provides demographic variables, such as age, gender, job level, tenure, and education level.

5.5.1   QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENTS

5.5.1.1 Measurement of Independent Variable: Emotional and Social Competence Inventory

There are three key streams of EI research instruments, namely ability measures (MSCEIT), self-report and peer-report measures (WLEIS, SUEIT, SREIT) and mixed models (EQ-I and ECI/ESCI) (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005).

The independent variable is emotional and social intelligence competency scores and will be measured using the mixed-model quantitative instrument, i.e. the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI), administered by the Hay Group. As a survey instrument, the ESCI is a self-administered, joint self-report/observer-rated scale – a 360-degree web-based tool designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals and organisations (Hay Group, 2011). The ESCI, a refined version of the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), is a test instrument developed by Boyatzis and Goleman (2007). The ESCI approach collects and reports on ratings of a leader's competence in EI behaviours from multiple sources, such as supervisors, subordinates, peers, clients and others – and the leader's self-ratings.

The ESCI questionnaire comprises a set of 68 pre-determined closed questions using a five-point Likert scale ("consistently", "often", "sometimes", "rarely" and '"never"). Each question relates to one of the 12 competencies. The ESCI questionnaire measures twelve emotional and social competencies, which are factored independently and organised into four clusters (refer to Table 18), namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Table 18. ESCI four clusters and twelve competencies.

Emotional intelligence cluster	Self-awareness	Self-management
	• Emotional self-awareness.	• Achievement orientation
		• Adaptability
		• Emotional self-control
		• Positive outlook.
Social intelligence cluster	Social awareness	Relationship management
	• Empathy	• Conflict management
	• Organisational awareness.	• Coach and mentor
		• Influence
		• Inspirational leadership
		• Teamwork.

The ESCI (Hay Group, 2011) clusters highlight four distinct areas of ability, i.e. self-awareness – recognising and understanding own emotions; social awareness – recognising and understanding the emotions of others; self-management – effectively managing own emotions; and relationship management – applying emotional understanding in dealings with others.

The choice of applying the ESCI to measure the independent variable was informed by the following considerations:

Theoretical Perspective and Relevance: The ESCI instrument selected is appropriate for studying the relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence and leadership performance. The ESCI, considered a "mixed" EI model, is one of three key EI streams (O'Boyle, 2011) in the EI research domain. Numerous empirical studies have employed the ECI and ESCI over the last decade (e.g. Boyatzis, 2009; Piel, 2008; Russel, 2014; Saxe, 2011) to explore relationships between EI and leadership or management.

The ESCI is grounded in a theory of emotional intelligence that is based on an integrated concept of emotional, social, and cognitive intelligence competencies, which are behaviourally observable (Boyatzis, 2009; Boyatzis & Sala, 2004; Ramo et al., 2009). This EI paradigm "offers a theoretical structure for the organization of personality and linking it to a theory of action and job performance" (Boyatzis, 2009: 757). For this reason, it predicts life and job outcomes. This conceptualisation of EI is in contrast to that of Mayer et al.'s (1999, 269–270) ability-based theory of EI, which focuses on "mental performance rather than preferred ways of behaving." In the South African public or private sectors, there is a lack of research using the Goleman-Boyatzis EI competency model.

In this theoretical model, competencies always include intent, which is the motive, self-concept or trait force, which causes action [behaviour] toward an outcome [job performance]. Consequently, "behaviour without intent doesn't define a competency" (Spencer & Spencer, 1993:12).

Day, Fleenor, Atwater et al., (2014: 70–71) argue that 360-degree feedback instruments (such as the ESCI) have "evolved as an evidence-based process [and] much of [their] developmental focus is on identifying leadership skills and competencies that are perceived by various sources to be effective or ineffective."

Validity and Reliability: In research studies, measurement instruments require a reasonable degree of reliability and validity (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The measures of any EI concept should meet the standard psychometric requirements regarding validity and reliability. The relation between EI competencies and real life outcomes, as measured by the ESCI, are testable (Boyatzis, 2009). The ESCI has been tested to have good content, criterion, face, and construct validity (Hay Group, 2011). It also reveals good internal consistency reliability (Hay Group, 2011).

Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008: 18) citing empirical research (e.g. Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994; Salam, Cox & Sims, 1997) conclude that multi-rater sources of information, such as the ESCI, have strong inter-correlations and that respondents tend to focus on different aspects of the leader's competencies. Moreover, these authors (Hopkins and Bilimoria, 2008: 18) refer to a huge body of research (e.g. Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Hooijberg, 1996; Van Velsor, Taylor & Leslie, 1993), which establishes that the aggregate scores of the other rater groups (managers, peers, direct reports and others) are valuable in order to reduce random error and perceptual differences among the observations by others. Consequently, respondent ratings offer a comprehensive description of a leader's behaviour.

Ramo et al. (2009: 778) also suggest that in order to judge self-competencies, it is relevant to know how others perceive the individual, underscoring the shortcomings of self-views that are widely considered to be less accurate than informants' views (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Goleman, 2013; Hofstee, 1994). Likewise, Spencer and Spencer (1993: 114) stress that, "most people don't know what their competencies, strengths and weaknesses, or even their job likes and dislikes really are." Similarly, Argyris and Schön (1996) emphasise that what people say they do (their espoused theories of action) bear very little relation to what they actually do (their theories in use).

Reliability is principally concerned with the consistency of measures of a construct. Cronbach's alpha is frequently a test of internal reliability. The reliability of the ESCI scales remains comparable with the ECI. Reliability analysis with large ECI/ESCI samples has shown very high internal consistency (Sala, 2002: 44). The average Cronbach alpha for the ESCI is .87 for ratings

by others (ranging from .79 to .92), based on a sample of 52 363 (Table 19). In research, an alpha value above .75 is commonly considered adequate for internal consistency reliability.

Table 19. Cronbach's alpha reliability for ESCI competencies. Source: Hay Group (2011).

ESCI Competency	n = 52 363
Emotional self-awareness	.83
Achievement orientation	.86
Adaptability	.85
Emotional self-control	.91
Positive outlook	.88
Empathy	.86
Organisational awareness	.86
Conflict management	.79
Coach and mentor	.92
Influence	.84
Inspirational leadership	.89
Teamwork	.89
Average	**.87**

A principal axis Exploratory Factor Analysis with promax rotation showed the factor analytic properties of the ESCI to be outstanding (Boyatzis, 2010). The ESCI Feedback Report summarises the source and quality of the feedback data – representing the data validity.

A large number of competency and performance studies of managers, executives and leaders (Goleman et al., 2002; Sala, 2002; Boyatzis, 2009; Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008; Ramo et al., 2009) from a variety of worldwide organisational contexts have shown strong evidence in support of the ECI and ESCI in the assessment, the development and training of EI. These studies also reveal evidence of very good reliability and validity.

Context: The ESCI is specifically located within organisational life and work outcomes. All rater groups (e.g. supervisors, peers and subordinates) have a close working relationship with the participants assessed by the ESCI. As Matthews et al. (2002, quoted in Ramo et al., 2009: 773) contend, an individual's "level of emotional intelligence cannot easily be inferred from behavioral indices divorced from context."

Personal and Professional Development: The ESCI's emphasis on personal and professional development constitutes the cornerstone for the competency development process. As opposed to cognitive competency development, EI competencies could be further developed (Boyatzis, 2006, 2009; Cherniss et al., 2010; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002). Day et al. (2014: 70–71) suggest 360-degree feedback as a process of development:

> Corresponding with the emergence of leadership development as a scholarly field of interest, the use of 360-degree feedback as a developmental process to foster self-awareness and competency development has become a major area of research. 360-degree feedback has become almost ubiquitous in organizations of every type (e.g. corporate, government, non-profit, military and education) and is a prominent process for facilitating development. If used as intended, 360-degree feedback can help people understand systematically the impact of their behavior on others.

Familiarity with instrument: The researcher is an accredited user (Hay Group) of the ESCI and is qualified to administer the tool and interpret the results from previous experience in professional work use of the instrument.

5.5.1.2 Measurement of Dependent Variable: Leadership Performance Nominations

A number of competency studies (Boyatzis, 1982, 2006, 2009; McClelland, 1998; Ramo et al., 2009; Spencer & Spencer, 1993) based on the nomination technique has shown that the subsample is consistently regarded as exemplary or outstanding within their organisation. Exemplary leaders are those who receive good annual performance reviews, get merit raises, and are recognised by superiors and subordinates as competent leaders (Northouse, 2010: 50).

Luthans et al. (1988, quoted in Boyatzis 2009: 827) highlight: "The three sources of input [superiors, peers and subordinates] suggest an indicator of effectiveness that is broader and deeper than single measures or single courses of information about a person's success. Research by Spencer and Spencer (1993: 96), citing Lewin and Zwany (1976), Lawler (1979), Boyatzis

(2009: 826), and Ramo et al. (2009: 777), suggests that nominations have high criterion validity, i.e. they do predict hard job performance outcomes.

Furthermore, nominations relate significantly to work-output measures and highly correlates to each other. For these reasons, it is an effective and valid measure to predict solid job performance outcomes. In addition, work and organisational psychological research reflect the high relevance of individual performance. In the majority of meta-analyses (over 70%), individual performance was the dependent variable or outcome measure (Sonnentag, 2002: 4–5).

As the data from the ECPG's Performance Management and Development System (PMDS), which measures the performance of the managers, is highly unreliable (RSA, 2013), the researcher decided to use nominations from the executive managers' colleagues, comprising middle-level and senior managers (levels 12–16), to measure leadership performance – i.e. the dependent variable or outcome measure. A broader sample was used for the nominations to preclude single-method bias with the ESCI raters. In addition, the ESCI and nominations methods are considered objective measures with criterion validity. Halverson et al. (2002: 6) claim that, "in research involving the relationship between self-other agreement and performance/effectiveness outcomes, it is important that objective outcome measures are used, as opposed to a different set of "other" ratings."

5.5.2   QUALITATIVE INSTRUMENTS

Qualitative approaches study phenomena in their natural settings and in all their complexity (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010: 135). Using this approach, the researcher believes that "there are multiple possible realities constructed by different individuals" and the research focus involves in-depth study, using inductive reasoning (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010: 107).

5.5.2.1 Behavioural Events Interview (BEI)

The quantitative ESCI instrument represents the measure of the degree of development of a person's emotional and social competencies, i.e. a reflection of his or her capabilities or "what he or she *can do*", but "not necessarily what he or she *does* [emphasis added], nor *does* all the time regardless of the situation and setting" (Boyatzis, 1982: 23). A way to measure the manifestation of these EI competencies is through observing a person's actions and behaviour, beyond the ESCI

measure. Spencer and Spencer (1993: 114) assert that "Most people don't know what their competencies, strengths and weaknesses, or even their job likes and dislikes really are … [and] people may not reveal their real motives and abilities", and therefore "the basic principle of the competency approach is that what people think or say about their motives or skills is not credible."

A well-researched method to measure "what the person does" or the manifestation of competencies that leads to effective performance is the Behavioural Events Interview (BEI) developed by David McClelland (1975). The BEI method is a form of the critical-incident interview. Yukl (1994: 61) considers critical incidents as "especially useful in exploratory research designed to examine specific, situational relevant aspects of managerial behaviour." Spencer and Spencer (1993: 115) argue: "Only what they actually do, in the most critical incidents they have faced, is to be believed. The purpose of the BEI method is to get behind what people say they do to find out what they really do. This is accomplished by asking people to describe how they actually behaved in specific incidents." The application of the BEI is expected to contribute depth to the quantitative approach of measuring competencies in this study.

According to McClelland (1998: 331), "The interview method [BEI] of assessing competencies has been widely accepted and has led to a significant amount of research, which can be used to test its strengths and weaknesses." Boyatzis (1982: 51) argues that the BEI can be deemed a "content-valid assessment method", as the interview "obtains a sample of the person's actual behaviour in the job." As the BEI measures actions and behaviours, i.e. information that demonstrates the level of performance and that could lead to improved performance, related to a set of competencies, and that there is evidence for its validity (McClelland, 1998: 332), the BEI is an appropriate qualitative instrument for this study. Specifically, the BEI was used to measure the behaviours of the highly emotionally intelligent and effective leaders in this study.

In competency studies, the criterion most often used is called "superior performance", which Spencer and Spencer (1993: 13) define as statistically one standard deviation above average performance, roughly the level achieved by the top 10% in a given working situation. In this study, the top 15% (equivalent to the top 5 ESCI scores) of exemplary executive leaders were interviewed.

5.5.2.3 Dynamic Inquiry Interview (DI)

The Dynamic Inquiry is an interview process developed by Annie McKee (London) and Cecilia McMillen (1992) to uncover an organisation's emotional reality and the underlying cultural issues. The DI involves focused conversations and open-ended questions intended to get at people's feelings. It is expected that through the process of discovering the truth about their organisation, people begin to create a shared language about what's really going on as well as what they would like to see, i.e. their ideal vision of the organisation (McKee, 2012).

The DI interview protocol comprised of questions at four levels:

a) Individual: What do you personally need to be more effective in your job?

b) Team: What do you think your team needs in order to be successful?

c) Leadership Team: What do you think the leaders [executive managers] in your department need to do in order to be successful?

d) Organisational Culture: In your view, what sort of culture does your department need in order to be successful?

5.6   DATA ANALYSIS

The overall hypothesis of this study is that a statistically significant and positive relationship exists between public executive managers' emotional intelligence and their leadership performance, i.e. effective public service leaders possess highly developed emotional and social intelligence competencies, and demonstrate the requisite EI behaviours. Furthermore, the set of 12 ESCI competencies as defined by Goleman and Boyatzis (2007) measured in this study is characteristic of effective leaders and predict workplace success.

The following analytical tools were applied in this study to analyse the quantitative and qualitative data in determining the relationship between EI competencies and leadership performance in the public sector.

5.6.1   QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Statistica v12 was employed for the statistical analyses in order to address the research questions and test the hypotheses, as presented in Table 20.

Table 20. Research questions, hypotheses related to the quantitative analytical tools.

Research Questions	Hypotheses	Statistical Analytical Test
1. Does a relationship exist between EI and leadership performance among public service executive managers?	H1: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence and leadership performance.*	Spearman Correlation
2. What is the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance?	*H2.1: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence cluster mean scores and leadership performance nominations.*	Spearman Correlation
	H2.2: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between each emotional intelligence competency mean score and leadership performance nominations.	Spearman Correlation
	H2.3: A statistically significant difference exists between the EI competency scores of high-performing and low-performing executive managers.	ANOVA
3. What is the nature of the relationship between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance?	*H3.1: Statistically significant differences exist between the mean emotional intelligence scores of the different rater groups, i.e. self, managers, subordinates, peers, others and clients.*	ANOVA Fisher's Least Significant Difference
	Between self and manager, subordinates, and peers.	
	Between manager and subordinates, peers, others and clients.	
	Between other rater groups.	
	H3.2: A statistically significant negative relationship exists between the executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance.	ANOVA
	H3.3: A statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high-performing and low-performing executive managers.	ANOVA

The following quantitative analytical methods were used: measures of central tendency and variability, and measures of associations, such as means, standard deviations, range, Cronbach's

Correlation Coefficients, Spearman's Rank Correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's least significant difference (LSD). The data was tested at the significance level of either $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.001$. Results that achieved either of these significance levels were accepted as statistically significant. The correlations and descriptive statistics that were used to calculate the dependent and independent variables are presented in Chapter 7.

5.6.1.1 Spearman's Rank Correlation

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to test hypothesis H_1, $H_{2.1}$ and $H_{2.2}$. This correlation technique is a non-parametric measure of statistical dependence between two variables, which is commonly utilised to determine the strength and direction of the bivariate linear relationship, using a monotonic function (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010), in this case leadership performance and emotional intelligence competency. This analytical tool provides depth in studying the relationship between EI and other variables, and adopted in related studies (Bates, 2013). In addition, as both variable scores were ordinal (ranked) data, this statistical measure was the most appropriate (instead of Pearson's correlation coefficient).

The interpretation of the Spearman correlation coefficient is similar to that of Pearson's correlation coefficient, i.e. the closer the correlation is to $+1$ or -1, the stronger the monotonic relationship. As a correlation between two variables is a measure of effect size (i.e. the magnitude of the difference between two groups), the strength of the correlation could be described for the absolute values as listed in Table 21. These absolute values are based on Fisher and Yates' Table (quoted in Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2006: 566) on values of the correlation coefficient for different levels of significance for a sample size of 35. A large absolute value implies a stronger effect.

Table 21. Spearman's correlation coefficient (r) value range and strength indicator at significant p-values.

Correlation Effect Size	Correlation Coefficient (r)	Significance Level (p)
Strong relationship	≥ 0.55	< 0.001
Moderate relationship	0.44–0.54	< 0.01
Weak relationship	0.32–0.43	< 0.05

5.6.1.2 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

The analysis of variance (ANOVA), a parametric statistical procedure, is a widely used to examine differences among the means of a number of groups or variables by comparing the variances, both within and across groups (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010: 282). When ANOVA results in a significant value of F (usually taken as $p < 0.05$), at least one group mean is significantly different from the others. The F-value is the ratio of the average amount of variation between groups and within groups (Williams & Abdi, 2010).

One-way ANOVA and comparison of means were performed to analyse the quantitative data to test hypotheses $H_{2.3}$, $H_{3.1}$, $H_{3.2}$ and $H_{3.3}$ (refer to Table 20), either at alpha level of $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$. The following comparisons were made: $H_{2.3}$, the EI competency scores of high-performing and low-performing executive managers; $H_{3.1}$, the EI mean scores among the different rater groups (the participants and their respondent raters, namely self, managers, subordinates, peers, others and clients); $H_{3.2}$, executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance; and $H_{3.3}$, EI competency gap between high-performing and low-performing executive managers.

When an ANOVA gives a significant result, it is customary to use post hoc comparison of means of the various pairs of groups (the so-called pairwise comparisons), as the ANOVA test does not indicate which group differs from the other groups (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test was utilised for the pairwise comparison of the six rater groups (participants and respondents) to further test hypothesis $H_{3.1}$. The main objective of the LSD is to calculate the "smallest significant difference (i.e. the LSD) between two means as if these means had been the only means to be compared (i.e. with a t-test) and to declare significant any difference larger than the LSD" (Williams & Abdi, 2010: 492).

5.6.2   QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Qualitative analytical methods were applied to the qualitative data collected from the BEI and DI instruments, as described in this section.

5.6.2.1 Behavioural Events Interview (BEI)

The qualitative data, collected from the five interviews with the executive managers with the most number of ESCI strengths, was coded for themes by using the inductive thematic analysis method. The result of the BEI interview was a detailed description of the respondent's behaviour and his or her thoughts and feelings. The behavioural events were systematically coded for the twelve ESCI competencies and any emergent characteristics (Boyatzis, 1982) – both for frequency of occurrence and the level of complexity at which these were displayed (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; McClelland, 1998).

The coded data was then subjected to thematic analysis, a distillation process through which highly contextualised themes emerged. These themes were interpreted, analysed and placed in an organisational context. They were then compared with the quantitative analytical results.

5.6.2.2 Dynamic Inquiry (DI)

Dynamic Inquiry is a qualitative conversational interview methodology that facilitates deep insight into organisational culture to uncover emotional realities by tapping into subjective experience. The interviews were grouped into four rank levels and then analysed for trending themes, which present a snapshot of the organisation and the system as it currently operates. Further exploration of the themes revealed patterns of strengths and needs of individuals, teams and the organisation.

The researcher adopted three processes in the thematic analysis (McKee, 2012): divergent, convergent and deep analysis:

- Firstly, the divergent process examined the organisational context in which interviews occurred to explore a wide range of emotional responses, metaphors and dynamic tensions, which were then clustered;

- Secondly, the convergent process focused on the identified clusters and a coding scheme was developed through which data was filtered and coded. The coded data was then subjected to thematic analysis, a distillation process through which highly contextualised themes emerged. This process was performed for each department separately and within each department for the four ranks, namely executive managers (levels 14–15), senior

managers (level 13), middle-level managers (levels 9–12) and administration officers (levels 6–8). These departmental and rank-level aggregated themes were interpreted, analysed and placed in organisational narratives; and

- Thirdly, a deep analysis process identified layers of analysis related to dynamics at two levels, i.e. intergroup (among the four rank streams) and inter-departmental (among the three departments), resulting in a set of dominant themes and sub-themes.

As themes emerged, the researcher realised the suitability of the integral theory four-quadrant framework (Wilber, 2000) as an organising frame. The framework was deemed appropriate as each quadrant represents a domain of reality. Each quadrant accordingly represents a version of first-, second-, and third-person realities, thus referring to subjective realities in a person, objective realities out there in the world, and collective or communal realities shared with others. The four-quadrant framework was used to present the qualitative results in Chapter 6.

5.7   LIMITATIONS

5.7.1   CHOICE OF PREDICTOR VARIABLE MEASURE

This study used the ESCI tool as a measure of EI, among other EI measures available. Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) question the Goleman (1995) or Bar-On (1997) model for studying EI in the workplace. Although these authors concede that these models "may indeed be useful for organisational development and interventions, they [believe these models] are much too broad in scope and do not appear to markedly differ from traditional personality models or competency models" (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003: 69; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005: 443). They (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005: 443) support Mayer and Salovey's (1997) MSCEIT as the only acceptable EI measure, as they consider ability testing as the definitive norm in intelligence research.

Indeed, Goleman et al. (2002), Cherniss (2010) and Boyatzis (2009), among other researchers, contend that their EI model is firmly located within the domain of competencies and that their measure is not designed to test abilities. As a result, the ESCI is a competency-based model for measuring emotional and social intelligence competencies. O'Boyle et al. (2010: 806) confirmed

that EI relates to job performance over and above cognitive ability and personality. They (O'Boyle et al., 2010: 806) found that mixed models (e.g. ECI/ESCI) predict job performance.

5.7.2   RELIABILITY OF ESCI DATA

The overall Cronbach alpha value of the ESCI in the current study was 0.84, ranging from 0.77 to 0.89 and therefore displaying acceptable reliability of the predictor tool. An interesting observation from the Cronbach correlation data analysis, for the current study, shows that, in general, the ESCI-2 reverse-scored items (11 in total) had lower item inter-correlations, in particular item 1 for adaptability (0.37), item 11 for teamwork (0.36), and item 48 for emotional self-awareness (0.34). The overall competency correlations were not adversely affected by these incongruities.

Also, the misinterpretation of the term "self-interest" in the inter-correlation for item 20 (i.e. "Convinces others by appealing to their self-interest") for the competency "influence" scored 0.40, thereby lowering the overall "influence" competency alpha score (0.77). As English is a second language for many of the participants and respondents, these inconsistencies may have cultural explanations.

The accuracy and validity of using self-reports, when used as a measure of actual ability, have been questioned, as people are often considered inaccurate reporters in the self-assessment of ability. "People clearly seem to view themselves more favourably than others view them," notes Sala (2002: 32) about studies using the ECI. Assessment of leaders by multiple raters, who report to, work with or manage the leader, has clear advantages over self-report tools that are partial to the person's self-concept. The limitation of self-reports is mitigated by the use of the multi-source ESCI.

5.7.3 UNIT OF ANALYSIS AND CONTEXT

The study was conducted at a public service organisation and the executive managers (target sample) were public servants. As such, the study's results are limited to this context and leaders, which limits the transferability to other work environments, such as the private sector and their executives. As presented in Chapter 4, there are distinct differences between these two sectors

with regard to organisational culture, systems, processes, and so forth. In addition, as the role of leaders and the nature of business in public administration differ from those of the political domain and politicians, the results are not generalisable to political settings.

5.7.4   CRITERION VARIABLE MEASURE

The dependent variable was measured through an all-encompassing measure based on a broad criterion of outstanding leadership performance effectiveness. This may limit the results, as leadership performance effectiveness could be measured in varied ways using specific performance criteria or sub-variables.

5.7.5   SAMPLE SIZE AND DEMOGRAPHICS

The small sample size of executive managers (n = 35) in the quantitative research is a limitation in this study. The anticipated larger sample of participants and respondents did not materialise due to a number of factors, such as resistance, mistrust, apathy and unstable ICT systems. This situation has major implications for empirical research at public service organisations and addressing the paucity of knowledge in the field of EI and leadership. The sample size for the qualitative interviews of the top-scoring EI leaders (n = 5) may be considered small. The generalisability of the results to other settings may be limited due to the small sample size. The sample of the executives dominantly represents one race group (Black). This may limit the generalisability among other race groups in a similar context.

5.8   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The Office of the Premier, Eastern Cape Provincial Government, granted permission for this study (refer to Appendix A). The voluntary participation of all participants was sought through informed consent (refer to Appendix C–E). The identity of all participants and the data collected is strictly anonymous and confidential. The researcher complied with the ethical procedures guidelines set out by the University of Stellenbosch's Ethics Committee. The Hay Group granted permission to apply the ESCI for academic research purposes (refer to Appendix B).

5.9   SUMMARY

This study's conceptual framework is primarily grounded in the competency theory of action and performance, i.e. competencies as a behavioural manifestation of EI that predicts job performance (Boyatzis, 1982). The sequential, mixed-method (qualitative and correlational) research design was chosen to explore the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance among public service organisational leaders.

This chapter presented the research questions and hypotheses that guided the descriptive quantitative research, which is the primary focus of the study. A detailed description of the research design followed. This included a description of the study sample, data collection, research instruments and data analysis for the quantitative research, namely the leadership performance nominations survey and the ESCI 360 degree survey. Furthermore, the detailed description was comprised of the qualitative research, namely the contextual interviews and the five top-performing leaders' interviews. The appropriateness, reliability and validity of the research instruments were also presented. Both the quantitative and qualitative analytical tools and their suitability were described.

The next chapter presents the qualitative findings, namely the seven dominant themes that emerged from the thematic analysis and are framed within Wilber's (2000) four domains of realities: individual consciousness, organisational culture, leadership behaviours and governance systems. This is followed by quantitative results of the bivariate relationship between EI and leadership performance in Chapter 7, and the qualitative thematic analysis results and mini case studies in Chapter 8.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION OF CONTEXTUAL QUALITATIVE RESULTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

The aim of qualitative research is to study phenomena in their natural settings and in all their complexity. When using this approach, the researcher believes that "there are multiple possible realities constructed by different individuals" interacting with their social contexts, such as subjective awareness and collective consciousness (Merriam, 1998; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010: 135; Wilber, 2000). In this approach, the research focus involves in-depth exploratory study using inductive and dialectic reasoning to construct social reality and cultural meaning through interpreting interactive relational processes (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010: 107; Neuman, 2003). As such, qualitative research complements quantitative enquiry as the latter may miss contextual detail.

Although the primary research focus of this study was a quantitative enquiry on the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance of public service leaders (results presented in the next chapter), a qualitative research component was included to frame the complex and multiple individual, social and cultural realities, which represents the institutional context in which the leadership processes of the executive managers occur. For this purpose, secondary data was accessed from a provincial government-wide study on organisational culture that was conducted a year prior to the current study (ECPG, 2012). The interviews were conducted between February 2012 and May 2012.

All forty-seven interview transcripts from the three participating government departments were selected for qualitative analysis. The original study interviewers used the Dynamic Inquiry interview method (London & McMillen, 1992), to uncover the organisation's emotional reality and the underlying cultural issues. The DI as a semi-structured conversational interview method allows the interviewer to further probe a participant's response. The interview protocol comprised questions at four levels: individual, team, leadership team and organisational culture.

The interviews were on average one hour in duration and were tape-recorded, after which they were transcribed by the interviewers. From the transcripts, it is evident that the participants candidly reflected on their needs, thoughts, hopes and feelings, with remarkable logic and causality. For the purpose of the current study, the researcher grouped the interview transcripts into four rank levels, with the following demographic variables:

- Executive managers (levels 14–15, n = 4), senior managers (level 13, n = 14), middle-level managers (levels 9–12, n = 19) and administration officers (levels 6–8, n = 10);

- The sample comprised 57% females and 43% males;

- The participants' total years of service at the provincial government (including the previous homeland administration) ranged from 1 to 27 years, with an average of 9.3 years;

- Eighty per cent of the participants were employed after 1994; and

- Their service in their current role ranged from 1 to 15 years, with an average of 7 years.

In this chapter, each interview participant is identified according to one of three participating departments, as either "D1", "D2" or "D3", and according to their rank level, namely "A" for an administrator, "M" for a middle-level manager, "S" for a senior manager and "E" for an executive manager.

The researcher applied three inductive thematic analytical processes, namely divergent, convergent and deep analysis. A wide range of emotional responses, metaphors and dynamic tensions were explored in the data, resulting in emerging clusters that were filtered and coded, and then subjected to inductive thematic analysis, through which highly contextualised themes emerged. This process was performed for each department separately and within each department across the four rank levels. The themes were then interpreted through layers of analysis related to dynamics at two levels: intergroup (among the four ranks) and inter-departmental (among the three departments). The final overall thematic analysis across the two levels revealed a set of four dominant themes, comprising related sub-themes, i.e. themes that displayed the highest coded frequency across all rank levels and all departments. The four dominant themes are social exclusion, leadership behaviours and styles, public service orientation, and public governance systems.

As the themes emerged, the researcher recognised the suitability of applying the integral theory four-quadrant framework (Wilber, 2000) as an organising frame to present the qualitative results. The framework was considered appropriate as each quadrant is a domain of reality. Furthermore, the four domains are integral to this study's overall conceptual framework, as presented in Chapter 5. To examine the leadership behaviours and styles, the scholarly works of McClelland (1998) on power motive, i.e. personalised and socialised power, and Boyatzis and McKee's (2005) model on resonant and dissonant leadership styles were adopted.

This chapter begins with an overview of the thematic analysis results, followed by the description of four dominant and related themes. The chapter concludes with a summary of the contextual dynamics, which illustrates the organisational landscape within which the quantitative research on the relationship between EI and leadership performance effectiveness is located.

6.2 OVERVIEW OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

The themes that emerged from the thematic analysis were framed within Wilber's (2000) four domains of reality: subjective (individual awareness) and inter-subjective (organisational culture) experiences, and the objective (behavioural) and inter-objective realities (organisational structures and systems). The overall results of the thematic analysis are presented in this section. Table 22 presents a summary of the results using the four-quadrant framework.

This section opens with a vignette from a junior administration participant, aptly illustrating the contextual realities (as they relate to the four domains described above) experienced by the forty-seven interview participants. The section ends with a summary of the key findings presented in Table 22.

The participant (D2, A1) narrated:

> I need a change in career path. Seriously, this has become too mundane, boring and monotonous [10 years in the same position]. I report for duty just for the sake of being here and signing the register. I feel that I have no impact in the department. Having an impact is important because I will feel as though I have a valuable input. I feel that if I make inputs, people will recognise me. If I am recognised as someone who has a

positive input in the department, I can grow and I will be motivated to do more. Currently, I cannot take ownership for anything. It does not matter if I have great ideas, and I cannot contribute to anything because I am only seen as a Secretary.

They [managers] need to be able to wear the shoes of grass root levels. They should be able to take off their authority caps when engaging with junior level staff. This will assist greatly in eliminating that element of intimidation. Intimidation instils fear. Fear limits performance. When there is no intimidation, communication improves. With clear communication, a lot can be achieved. I'm tired of this status consciousness in this department. If you are not in their league, it is like *mnxim* [Xhosa word meaning different things and in this context means "you are nothing" or "we don't care for you"]. We need to remove this great wall of divide and be able to open up freely with no fears.

Everyone wants to be addressed as a Mr, Advocate, GM [General Manager], DDG, etc., as if people do not have names [huge frown on her face]. You know these titles create big barriers. If we change the way we address each other and relax a bit we will be creating a warm environment and we will be more comfortable when communicating with one another. People here need to understand that there is a huge difference between authority, delegation, status and respect.

Changing the way in which we relate with one another will remove the hierarchy barriers; people will be treated as equals. If we remove the hierarchy barriers, then there will be a sense of belonging and a sense of warmth. You know that feeling you have at home, that bond and closeness shared with your siblings [smiling] … If we are all treated as human beings and as equals, then we will also behave as such. In an environment where everyone is given respect regardless of rank and role, then you see people performing wonders … we need a warm, people-friendly culture [in this department].

Helplessness, dispiritedness and fearfulness, examples of the participant's negative emotions, are also prevalent in the subjective awareness (intentional domain) of other participants who expressed these emotions in words such as "fearful", "frustrated", "unhappy", "demoralised", "discouraged", "demotivated", "angry", "insecure", "unrecognised", "not valued" and "threatened". Participants who experienced feelings of marginalisation and subjugation, voiced these feelings in expressions such as "downtrodden", "orphans", "belittled", "talk down to us", "oppressed", "breaks spirit", "disempowered", "victimised", "destroyed" and "voiceless".

Very few participants shared experiences engendering positive emotions and affect in their workplace, such as "optimism", "joy", "love", "meaning", "safety", "growth" and "excitement", though many expressed these as "hopes", "aspirations" or "needs". For example, at the individual level, the junior official yearns "dignity", "identity" and "personal growth" through a deeper sense of "belonging", "recognition", "confidence", "motivation", "self-worth", "meaning" and "equity". Many participants expressed the importance of values such as "integrity", "ethics", "equity", "respect", "trust", "caring" and "belonging".

However, the leaders' behaviours (behavioural domain), in general, frustrate their followers' cherished hopes and aspirations, and values and beliefs. The leaders are obsessed with their "status consciousness" through their "authority", "title" and "rank". Related to rank-consciousness, a number of participants spoke of the prevalence of dissonant leadership styles: self-centred, authoritarian, punitive and pacesetting styles. Moreover, many found their leaders to be "uncaring", "absent", "disengaged", "unsupportive" and "indecisive". Participants preferred those leaders displaying resonant leadership behaviours and styles. Resonant leaders are considered "positive", "self-aware", "visionary", "inspirational", "fair", "visible", "respectful", "empathetic" and "supportive" – the opposite of dissonant leadership styles.

At a collective consciousness level *(*cultural domain*)* the junior official, together with other participants, implore an organisational culture that is, in their words, "warm", "caring", "people-friendly", "respectful" and "professional". Relatedly, they strongly advocate the three Batho Pele (People First) collective beliefs, namely caring, serving and belonging. The participants ardently articulated these beliefs as follows: a) *caring* through compassion, recognition, work ethics and

professional behaviour; b) *serving* through a sense of commitment and accountability to clients, service culture, and exemplary performance; and c) *belonging* through group identity, embracing diversity, common and shared vision and mission, collaboration, teamwork, and collegiality.

Over the past ten years, in the junior official's experience, rigid hierarchical governance structures *(*social domain*)* creates "division" and "barriers", resulting in an unequal, impersonal and alienating culture, which inhibits her colleagues from "performing wonders". Similarly, several of the participants expressed frustration when they spoke about the rigid hierarchical structures and overly bureaucratic processes, which hamper teamwork and co-ordination, and entrenches centralised rank-based governance. Furthermore, the unfair application of the Performance Management Development System (PMDS), which measures an individual's performance linked to their development plan, received unanimous disapproval. Many participants spoke of the neglect of human talent management practices, resulting in huge skills deficits. In addition, the organisation experienced serious resource deficits, such as office space, finances, and information and communication technology.

The negative state of individual and collective consciousness, the leadership behaviours and styles, and governance systems, i.e. the four domains of reality, contributed to poor quality provincial public services.

A summary of the inductive analysis results is presented below in Table 22. In the next section, the dominant themes, i.e. those with the highest frequency across all departments and rank levels are presented and described.

Table 22. Summary of the thematic analysis results.

INTENTIONAL	BEHAVIOURAL
Individual consciousness (subjective awareness)	*Individual behaviour (objective)*

Values expressed as a set of beliefs: • Fairness and equity, integrity, trustworthiness, ethics, morality, respect, personal growth, diversity, collaboration, care, compassion, openness, transparency, and belonging. **Feelings and Sensations** • Dispirited and fearful • Powerless and forlorn. **Desires and Hopes** • Personal growth and development (voice, recognition and reward) • Respectful and supportive interpersonal relations (Communications).	**Leadership Behaviours and Styles** • Incoherent direction and indecisiveness • Self-centred and rank-conscious demeanour • Absent, disengaged and unsupportive • Dissonant management and leadership styles. **Physical State: Health and Wellness** • Constantly sick, illness, stress, burnout, anger, depression, suicides, absenteeism and demotivated staff members.

CULTURAL	SOCIAL
Collective awareness (inter-subjective)	*Social systems and governance (inter-subjective)*

Values Expressed as a set of beliefs: (Batho Pele) • **Caring:** Communications, compassion, recognition, work ethics and professional public servant. • **Serving**: Sense of commitment and accountability to clients, collective work ethic and service culture, exemplary performance, and work ethics. • **Belonging:** Group identity, embracing diversity, shared vision and mission, collaboration, teamwork, and collegiality.	**Architecture and Governance** • Rigid hierarchy, overly bureaucratic processes, and entrenched rank-based command and control. **Human Talent Management** • Inadequate systems, especially performance management, unfair practices, and deficits in capacity and capability. **Infrastructure and Resource** • Serious organisational deficits. **Planning and Strategy Development** • Uncoordinated, not shared and has gaps.

6.3   DESCRIPTION OF DOMINANT THEMES

In this section, the four dominant themes, namely social exclusion (including related themes of fairness and equity, voice, communications, and recognition and reward), leadership behaviours and styles, the public governance system, and service orientation, are presented. A summary follows in Table 23:

Table 23. Dominant themes from the inductive analysis.

INTENTIONAL	BEHAVIOURAL
Social Exclusion • Fairness and equity • Voice • Recognition and reward • Communications.	**Leadership Behaviours and Styles** • Resonant leadership styles • Dissonant leadership styles.
CULTURAL	SOCIAL
Public Service Orientation • Batho Pele beliefs.	**Public Governance System** • Hierarchy • Bureaucracy.

As presented in Table 23 above, the dominant themes represent the individual subjective awareness, the collective inter-subjective consciousness, the external objective behaviours or the inter-objective organisational governance structures and systems, i.e. all four domains of reality.

6.3.1   SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Social exclusion is considered a multidimensional concept relating to both economic-structural exclusion (with a distributional dimension) and to social-cultural exclusion (which refers to the relational dimension) (Jehoel-Gijsbers & Vrooman, 2007: 16). Participants strongly framed their experiences in an analysis of social power, expressed through themes of fairness and equity, voice, communications, and recognition and reward. Each sub-theme is presented in this section.

6.3.1.1   Fairness and equity

Within the sub-theme of fairness and equity, the participants voiced beliefs such as "impartiality", "transparency", "consistency", "honesty" and "parity" – representing their individual subjective reality. This set of values is desired in:

• The behaviours (external objective reality) of their colleagues, especially their leaders;

• Fostering social inclusion and cohesion (interior inter-subjective or organisational culture), rather than factions in the form of "inner and outer circles"; and

• The application of organisational policies and procedures, e.g. performance management and personal development, and access to resources (exterior inter-objective, e.g. governance systems).

However, the participants spoke strongly of their aversion to inequity. For example, a middle-level manager (D1, M9), working in the department for ten years, emphasised the importance of "treating people fairly", described the inequity in her organisation, and noted the consequences of unfair behaviours on organisational culture:

> [T]here is unfairness and inconsistency where those that are not working are rewarded and those that are working are not rewarded. There is no honesty and candidness. Supervisors are not able to face and tell people the truth. Team spirit, cohesiveness and work culture are affected if people are not treated fairly.

Her peer at a lower management level, working in the department for four years (D1, M1), agrees that it is "important to treat people fairly so that everyone feels equally valued." However, he explains that in his experience there is "unfairness and inequality" and "favouritism" in his organisation: "What happens here is that when something is requested by someone else, it gets attention. Depends who you are and if you are liked by management." Further, he challenges his leaders to "do away with this culture of favouritism" and to ensure consistency and uniformity in applying policies and procedures in decision-making, for example in granting salary increases.

Similar to her colleagues in middle-level management, a senior manager (D1, S7), working in her current position for nine years, raises the issue of inequity in the form of "an inner circle and outer circle", resulting in "sub-cultures":

> In the inner circle you don't have to have the skills to do the job, you have better opportunities because of your political ties ... Those in the outer circle have less opportunities. Counter-cultures are formed by the outer circle for protection. Most join unions.

Moreover, another senior manager (D1, S8) attributed the "them-and-us mentality" to the huge power differential or "power distance" (Hofstede, 1991: 13; Minkov & Hofstede, 2011) between the senior management and the lower ranks, and the strong rank-consciousness of many senior managers. Power distance is defined by Geert Hofstede (1991: 13) as "social inequality, [which includes] the relationship with authority." Rank-consciousness represents a key sub-theme of the dominant theme of "leadership behaviours and styles". It is presented later in this chapter.

This section illustrated how the sub-theme of fairness and equity influences social exclusion. Participants referred to both types of exclusion (Jehoel-Gijsbers & Vrooman, 2007), namely economic-structural exclusion, in the form of unequal distribution of resources, recognition and rewards (e.g. through favouritism), and social-cultural exclusion, through inadequate social and cultural integration. The latter dimension was reflected, for instance, in a strong tendency to create an "inner circle and outer circle", "sub-cultures", and "counter-cultures", resulting in social alienation or factionalism.

6.3.1.2 Voice

Voice is defined as the "expression of ideas, information and opinions or concern" and silence is defined as withholding those (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009: 4). The everyday behaviour of people in organisations is framed by, firstly, having voice and exercising voice, and, secondly, by presumed reactions to their voice. To understand their behaviour the "spoken word is the primary currency of social interaction" (Greenberg & Edwards, 2009: 3). Expressed in Gestalt terms (Nevis,

1987) voice represents the "figure" (of the mainstream decision-makers) and the subalterns' silence is the "ground" in the current study context.

Voice is the second sub-theme related to social exclusion. The participants described voice as the opportunity, power and freedom to express one's thoughts, ideas, needs and feelings without fear while being listened to. This theme relates to the previous social exclusion sub-theme, namely fairness and equity.

Participants appreciated the opportunity to reflect and share their experiences and views during the interviews. For example, a middle-level manager working in the department for ten years stated: "I have never had the platform to voice my opinion. I am very grateful for this interview" (D1, M9). A common refrain in this context, as expressed by another middle-level manager (D1, M6), is that their leaders are "not spending enough time in listening to the staff and talking to them." Her peer (D1, M1) voiced his frustration and demotivation at his manager's inconsideration of his team's ideas, despite their merit:

> These ideas are not even recorded anywhere so that they are included in future plans. This is very frustrating. We see no reason to come up with ideas anymore because they are not taken into consideration. We would like our ideas to be appreciated because this makes us feel we are making a contribution and our voices are heard. Teams get demoralised and frustrated.

Likewise, a middle-level manager from another department (D2, M5) emphasised the value of listening and appreciating ideas, though his leaders do not "listen attentively to what the staff tries to convey." His leaders show much "resistance" to their suggestions without making an "effort to know what is suggested." The participant implore his leaders to learn to be "better listeners", as this will assist them to be open to new suggestions and innovation.

Similarly, two recently appointed senior managers (D1, S2, D1, S6) shared the importance of considering the views and ideas of colleagues. The first manager (D1, S2) shared her frustration on the silence of her colleagues during a management meeting, buckling under pressure from their executive manager, despite their support of her views prior to the meeting:

> [T]here is just no discussion on my own view of things … people must keep to
> their own views on what they value or what they believe in because it speaks to
> integrity. Having integrity will make you have credibility with people. People don't
> talk in these meetings, but they talk a lot outside of the meeting and in the
> passage. It is useless to raise your opinion outside the meeting and agree with
> me there whilst you kept quiet to save face.

In agreement, her peer (D1, S6) stated that leaders should encourage creative thinking and support employees' "ideas about their work and how the department should function."

At the lower level of the hierarchy, the subaltern (subordinates) had the most acute experience of the power distance with their leaders. For example, a long service administration officer (D2, A3) strongly expressed that his leaders "ayifikeleleki", a Xhosa word meaning "not accessible". He added that this results in a huge gap between the leaders and their followers. His peer (D2, A2) affirmed the power distance between the senior and junior rank levels: "In the Department there is a tendency of alienating the spade workers [referring to the operational staff] in decision-making, thereby creating an impression that they are not that much important in the Department." On a more serious note, HR admin participants spoke of the increasing incidence of illness and death in the provincial government. For example, a participant of long service (D1, A6) made an empathetic plea to his leaders to listen to the subaltern:

> It is necessary that people must be allowed by management to talk about issues
> that affect them in their personal lives as this has a bearing on work performance.
> When people speak out it will assist them to heal emotionally.

Notably, even an executive manager (D1, E1) recognises the value of "time and space to say views of my own when engaging with matters of work." In the absence of space to air views, she asserted that "you tend to be resistant to the next person", though space to express views "helps even if the view is not used in the end, just the fact that it was heard is key to one's own confidence."

In this social context, public officials yearn to be listened to respectfully by visible, accessible and empathetic managers. The participants related attentive listening to confidence, recognition, integrity and credibility. However, they felt "voiceless" as their managers were inaccessible and disregarded their ideas, views and feelings. The ensuing frustration and forlornness negatively impacted their self-worth, morale and motivation – ultimately leading to their poor performance.

The subalterns' subdued voices arising from their manager's disregard of their views and feelings, and the huge power distance, shape the collective consciousness or organisational culture in this public service social context. The outcome is a culture of marginalisation, social antagonism, resistance or submission. The participants' experiences illustrate how the silencing of their voice (e.g. unable to express their ideas or concerns, and the withholding of information by decision-makers) contributes to alienation and social exclusion, reinforcing the social-cultural dimension of exclusion observed in the sub-theme of fairness and equity.

6.3.1.3 Communication

Effective communication is the ability to connect with another person:

> Listening and maintaining emotional self-control, judging the emotional cues of the speaker, modifying one's own response based on those emotional cues, avoiding dismissal and personal attacks in favour of focusing on positive outcomes and rectifying negative results, being open-minded, and soliciting suggestions (Abraham, 2004: 121).

The subalterns' yearning for recognition of their voice contrasts vividly with their managers and leaders limited and top-down communication. Communication is an integral element of inter-personal relations or relationship management, emerging as a key sub-theme, related to social exclusion. The participants voiced their desire for communication, which is personal with facial contact, respectful, open, sensitive, clear, consistent and regular, across all levels.

The participants called for a "culture of communication" transversally and vertically through, for example, platforms for reflection and sharing information, knowledge, views and ideas, as vehicles for change. The anticipated outcome was expressed as greater ownership, improved performance,

leadership success, delivery and positive change. For example, a middle-level manager (D1, M3) notes the lack in formal communication to lower levels and the dependence on informal networks ("grapevine"). In addition, issues are not properly communicated at the correct platforms. The participant believes that an improvement in communication will boost their confidence. However, she expressed that the "workforce is demoralised, people are discouraged and things are not going well at all. You get to hear about these things in the passages…" Similarly, an administration officer (D2, A3) who stated in the previous section that managers were "inaccessible" added that there is minimal or no communication between the leaders and the subalterns. She notes the importance of communication on performance: "Communication will lead to information reaching everyone it is intended to reach thereby improving performance and ensuring that the leadership's task of leading is easier."

His peer, working in the same department for a number of years (D2, A4), points out that communication is limited to the departmental e-mail with minimal facial contact with her supervisor. She elaborated: "The only time we see our leadership and communication is enforced is when the leadership is not happy." For her, facial interaction is valued as it offers a "sense of ownership".

A few of their senior and executive managers affirm their colleagues' discontent on the state of communication. For example, a senior manager (D1, S6) highlighted the need for developing interpersonal or relationship management skills of managers and teams: "I need good interpersonal skills and also need to ensure that the team has good interpersonal relations. Good communication is very necessary to ensure that the information may not be interpreted differently."

Her counterpart in another department (D2, S1) spoke of the merit of positive and sensitive communication as creating a fair and a balanced work environment. This supports service delivery "as everyone is on the same page". However, her experience of the effects of negative communication is dispiriting:

> When I see things happening without being told, I feel that it breaks my spirit …
>
> [Our leaders need the] ability to choose the correct words when communicating.

> People here choose to say, "You are a failure." What could be so wrong with
>
> maybe saying you have not done this task very well?

A recently appointed executive manager (D1, E2) affirmed the views of the other participants asserting that formal and informal departmental communications must be improved. He further agreed that the executive management decisions must be cascaded to the lower levels of the organisation, as this will enhance implementation of decisions and performance. He expressed dissatisfaction that there is no plan for horizontal and vertical communication, for example: "Executive Council [Provincial Cabinet] decisions are only known through the media."

On a positive note, a senior manager (D3, S1) from the third department related her strategy to address the frustrations of her team and ways of "empowering" them, e.g. by creating a "platform of open communication."

> Our team members then developed the courage to tell each other the wrong
>
> things they had done in the past. As Senior Manager, I had to play an active part
>
> by providing them with support and encouragement. I arranged empowerment
>
> programmes, which were held both in-house and externally. There's a change in
>
> them being motivated and having some hope now. The key factors were
>
> communication and consultation.

The previous sub-theme of voice directly relates to the sub-theme of communication illustrated in this section. Participants used the term '"communication" broadly to refer to a range of interpersonal and social relations in the workplace, both formal and informal. The relational dimension of social exclusion is evident to the extent ("minimal", "limited", "none") and nature ("disrespectful", "inattentive") of the communications between managers and their subalterns, resulting in the subalterns feeling "demoralised", "discouraged", "apprehensive" and "dispirited". These affective states contribute to a sense of alienation, which strengthens the social-cultural dimensions of exclusion observed in the other sub-themes: viz. fairness and equity, and voice. The consequence, according to the participants, is negative personal, team, and organisational performance.

6.3.1.4 Recognition and rewards

A middle-level manager's (D1, M3) vignette is presented below:

> Our leadership needs to recognise work done – I feel that our hard work is not taken seriously. We work long hours away from home at times doing our best for our government, uplifting people's lives, but not much is done to appreciate that … the recognition and the reward is not aligned to the PMDS [Performance Management Development System] – the rewards do not talk to work produced. Of course, rewarding work done does not necessarily mean money. There are other ways the leadership could utilise to reward or recognise work done. Where the project has been a success, a mere mention of that would make a difference. When hard work is not recognised, people become demoralised. They work for the sake of earning a salary and there is no drive, there is a lack of zeal. We need to know that we are appreciated for the contribution we are making to promote the mandate of our government. When we know that we are appreciated, we will be encouraged to do even more, we will be encouraged to work harder. Working harder will produce better results for all.

The middle-level manager's account above clearly illustrates the fourth sub-theme of social exclusion, namely recognition and rewards. Participants across all levels spoke of their "dissatisfaction" and "unhappiness" regarding recognition and appreciation of their potential and contribution, and their manager's partiality in rewarding performance.

For example, two HR participants (D1, A1; D1, A2) confirmed that management members display minimal interest in "individual potential and performance", and even when people improve their educational qualifications, their contribution remains unrecognised. They warned that non-recognition of high performers led to demotivation and these individuals "start performing at a mediocre level", as they see no benefits in performing well. Therefore, these HR practitioners viewed "performance recognition" as crucial to motivate employees and improve performance, as motivation fosters positive work attitudes.

The Performance Management Development System (PMDS), which includes performance processes linked to an individual's development plan, received vociferous criticism across all departments and levels. A manager (D3, M1), with functional responsibility for the PMDS, stressed that the leaders need to take greater accountability in implementing the system, as this will "ensure proper recognition of success and avoid rewarding failure." Further, she warned against using the performance management system as a "punitive measure for those who are not in the good books of managers", claiming that there are managers using the performance management system for "the wrong reasons."

Through the proper implementation of the system, a "culture of continuous learning and development" (D3, M1) is expected. However, the participant's unit was understaffed and the capacity constraints hindered her unit's effectiveness in managing the performance processes. Her senior manager (D3, S1) stated that the PMDS was identified as one of the high-risk areas in the provincial government. However, in her department, through a new strategy of visiting and engaging with individual executive managers, improvement in the management of this programme was noted.

Participants from another department raised similar issues with the PMDS. A level-12 participant (D1, M8) questioned the legitimacy of the system, stating it in this way: "If the system was genuine, excellent performers would be recognised, be listened to and be motivated." He felt the system did not value, appreciate and recognise outstanding performance. His senior manager colleague (D1, S8) also expressed suspicion on the manner in which the PMDS was applied, as he is aware of "elements of manipulation." He added that this defeats the purpose of the system and does not inspire people to work, pleading for the PMDS to be "revamped". Likewise, his HR peer (D1, S4) challenged the executive managers to comply with the PMDS requirements as an indication of their "commitment to good management practices."

Beyond the formal PMDS processes, participants implored their leaders to affirm their daily achievements. For example, a middle-level manager (D1, M4) noted that leaders should commend them for a job well done. A senior manager (D2, S1) echoed:

It is important to acknowledge good work and provide feedback. This will lead to a motivated employee who will be able to work harder on a regular basis, as they feel appreciated. This can be done by means of a simple thank you. It does not have to wait for the performance bonus. The more people get told "thank you", the harder they perform.

A level-12 participant (D1, M9) emphasised the value of showing gratitude for work done. She suggested non-monetary rewards for going the "extra mile", such as time off, vouchers and books. For her, rewards is "not about the money", but for team motivation, as team members will "achieve even more."

Interestingly, senior managers also felt "unrecognised" and "not appreciated". For example, a recently appointed senior manager (D1, S2) felt "overworked and […] not appreciated" and claimed to be receiving no rewards or recognition for a job well done. She urged for feedback as it "makes you feel good and you get motivated without money." Another senior manager (D1, S8), working in the department for four years strongly felt that he was "unrecognised or not fully recognised", as he considered himself an asset to the department and the provincial government. He wished for a turnaround in the situation and for improved "skills harvesting". An executive manager (D1, E2) in turn suggested incentives for recognising good performers on a monthly basis.

Besides participants' feelings of "disgruntlement", "dissatisfaction" and "unhappiness", a serious consequence of a performance management system that fails to recognise an individual's performance, potential and experience, impedes his or her "career growth", and the system's succession planning and promotions. This view was outlined by an administration practitioner (D1, A4). He gave examples of colleagues who remain at level 6 after many years at that level, attributing this to "inconsideration and non-recognition of one's experience" and to a "lack of growth". The effect is attrition to the private sector, yet the "Province has a shortage of skills." An analysis of the forty-seven participants' tenure revealed that a large number of officials remained in the same position for a number of years, particularly at the administrative levels (e.g. an average of 11 years in Department 1). This situation also applied to middle-level management levels.

In this section it is evident that participants refer to multiple axes of recognition and rewards, for instance the valuing of ideas, knowledge and work done; consideration, appreciation, gratitude, encouragement and affirmation; positive feedback and respect; recognition of potential; and personal growth. Participants attributed these factors as crucial for an individual's morale and motivation, which in turn supports "better results", "improved performance", "positive attitudes" and "working harder". Appreciation, recognition and fair rewards (including intrinsic rewards), mediated through an impartial performance management system, are deemed to encourage and motivate greater effort that will "produce better results for all."

It is also clear that the sub-theme of recognition and rewards is closely linked to the other sub-themes of social exclusion: fairness and equity, voice, and communication. There is a complex interplay between all four elements of exclusion with significant workplace implications at many levels – for an individual's emotive and cognitive functioning, teamwork, organisational climate and culture, and performance at all levels.

6.3.2   LEADERSHIP STYLE

> I think the leadership of the department should start learning the habit of leading, because right now all of us are leading by name, not by doing. I strongly believe that leadership is a set of behaviours as much as it is a skill that can be learnt. There are soft issues of leadership that we ignore since people are not leading with emotions.

This senior manager's view (D3, S3) aptly captures the dominant theme of leadership behaviours and styles. In the four sub-themes of the dominant theme of social exclusion presented in the last section, the nature of leadership behaviours is a recurring theme. The qualitative analysis indicated that participants strongly associated leadership styles and organisational culture to individual and organisational performance.

In this section, the participants' experiences are framed into two contrasting sets of leadership styles informed by specific leadership behaviours. The first, resonant leadership, draws strongly on socialised power (McClelland, 1998), which is used to achieve the vision and goals for the benefit

of the entire organisation, and to understand, inspire and develop independent followers". The four resonant leadership styles are visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic (Goleman et al., 2002: 55). The second style, dissonant leadership, is informed by strong personalised power, defined as an end in itself and used for dominance (McClelland, 1998). The dissonant leadership represent two styles, namely (a) pace-setting, focusing relentlessly on results at all costs, and (b) commanding, i.e. top-down and authoritarian in approach (Goleman et al., 2002: 55).

6.3.2.1   Resonant leadership

In this section, participants' workplace experiences associated with resonant leadership styles will be presented under the following sub-themes:

- Vision, inspiration and direction;

- Coaching and mentoring; and

- Affiliation.

These sub-themes are related to the sub-themes of social exclusion, presented in the previous section.

Vision, Inspiration and Direction

Visionary leadership style is defined as moving and motivating people through shared dreams (Goleman et al., 2002). Visionary leaders inspire followers, articulate a compelling vision, build group pride and bring out the best in people (Goleman et al., 2002). In line with this leadership style, a senior manager (D3, S1) viewed the attributes of a good leader as a person "seeing and expecting the best from people, valuing and honouring your people, placing trust in them, while being honest with them as well", and also leading with integrity.

Participants shared this view, expressing the importance of the visionary leadership style. They viewed inspirational leaders as fundamental for a coherent and shared vision, clear and common direction, ownership and motivation. For example, a senior HR practitioner (D1, M4) spoke of inspirational leaders who "make work more exciting" and "develop others and help them grow." Her colleague (D1, S7) stated that, "leaders should understand what makes people tick and they will then be able to motivate people. They need to be visionaries in order to guide people" (D2, M9).

An executive manager (D2, E1) supported this view: "[We need] strong leadership, charismatic and visionary, this ensures that things happen. Without these traits, people do not take leadership seriously."

Furthermore, according to an executive manager (D2, E2), inspirational and visionary leaders deliver a "clear vision and mission, and [ensure that] the strategic objectives are met." For some participants, visionary leadership defines and simplifies the vision of the department to "ensure that all stakeholders understand where the department is going." This results in a "sense of ownership of the mission, vision and strategy "[which] will motivate all to work harder" (D2, M9). In addition, other participants (D1, S4; D1, S3) viewed a leader's positive and optimistic attitude and sensitive communication style as important in providing direction as these aspects motivate employees and "influence a positive culture and set the pace for achievement of the vision that has been outlined" (D1, S4).

However, participants also spoke of leaders who were not inspirational or visionary, which led to poor guidance, direction and indecision; no common, coherent or consistent goals; and poor understanding of real issues or the big picture (D1, A2). These leaders lacked confidence and were low on influence; therefore, they did not make exemplary role models. A senior manager (D3, S3) confirmed the need for leaders to "inspire people in order to bring out the best in them", though, in her department, she observed:

> I think we are not doing well in terms of leadership. We are more of managers than leaders. There is still more effort required for us to achieve our leadership role. Most crucial, we need a dynamic leadership acumen that can transform the department that is farsighted and proactive with the ability to analyse and think deeply about the present and develop a direction that is productive and progressive.

In contrast, her peer (D3, S2) was satisfied with leadership of her General Manager and the Head of Department "in terms of giving direction and sharing their strategic thinking with the rest of

[them]." However, in another department, participants were in general agreement on the shortcomings of their leaders. A middle-level manager (D1, M2) strongly affirmed:

> There is no clear guidance. We operate haphazardly. DG has one idea, DDG another, GM another, SMS [senior management service] another and MMS [middle-level management service] another. There is no coherence. I need to know what to do! In a nutshell, we have no leadership. In a nutshell, we are fumbling. I don't know if leadership knows what they are doing.

Likewise, an admin staff member (D1, A2), a senior manager (D1, S4) and an executive manager (D1, E2) concurred with their middle-level manager colleague. They raise concern about the "weakness" in their department, as "managers are poor leaders" and "do not know the real issues." They reiterate that leaders must ensure clear direction of the organisation and influence people. Moreover, they expected their leaders to communicate the vision and direction in a positive and sensitive manner, as this "enables everyone to see the vision and to see the bigger picture", motivating their followers and teams.

Another manager (D1, M1) complained that, "teams get demoralised and frustrated" as the senior managers "can't stand up and be bold of what the team needs." Additionally, senior managers are not consistent in the "message carried to the teams at different levels." This creates confusion as mixed messages "bring about divisions within the organisation […, that] people do not know what to believe in", and that there is no ownership. The participant compelled managers to "speak in one voice" and to lead by example, as "when leaders are not exemplary [,] it leads to chaos, people not guided by principles, values and rules of the department."

Coaching and Mentoring

Goleman et al. (2002) define the coaching leadership style as developing the potential of others through identifying their unique strengths and weaknesses, and encouraging and supporting their long-term developmental goals. The EI competency of coach and mentor is defined as the "ability to foster the long-term learning or development of others by giving feedback and support" (Boyatzis and McKee, 2005: 29). Participants at all rank levels expressed an intense need for

personal growth and development in their cognitive, technical, emotional, social and spiritual realms. They expect caring leaders to invest time and effort in supporting their learning and development through ongoing coaching and mentoring. This resonant leadership style and EI competency are associated with personal growth and development, which are related to the sub-themes of voice, recognition and rewards, and communications.

A middle-level (D1, M4) and senior (D1, S4) HR manager spoke of the need to be "coached and supported" in order to deal with challenges of HR as "you deal with emotions and problems of officials." They expect their leaders to "develop others and help them grow." A middle-level manager from another department (D2, M6) expects his leaders to "coach, mentor and give feedback to the subordinates", as this will assist in "eradicating demotivation and demoralisation", resulting in a motivated employee who will have a "positive impact on society." Another participant raised concern that the focus is on "formal training" and requested regular "informal coaching and mentorship" (D2, M4). His counterpart (D3, M1) in another department observed that as a coach to her subordinates, the "skill [of coaching] comes with experience", emphasising the value of experiential learning.

A number of participants suggested that their leaders need mentors and coaches, especially coaching directed at "developing their emotional intelligence" (D1, M9), to enhance their self-awareness through learning to "re-orientate themselves to understand the value of reflection" (D1, S7) and to improve people management skills. This is necessary as "emotional intelligence is one of the biggest competencies that our leadership lacks", as a middle-level manager pointed out (D2, M9). He gave an example: "…leadership gets angry when a subordinate has made a minor error … not taking into account that no training, coaching or development has ever taken place. They [leadership] just don't have emotional intelligence."

Two middle-level managers (D2, M9; D1, M9) shared their views on emotionally intelligent leaders, similar to those of the senior manager (D3, S3) cited at the introduction of this dominant theme. One stated that emotionally intelligent leaders "ensure that all decisions taken are favourable for the good of the organisation rather than an individual's personal gain" (D2, M9). Her peer stated that EI is important, as it is "very critical for leaders to remain grounded at all times even during

turbulent times and strenuous situations. In this way, they will be respected and listened to. We look up to them as our role models" (D1, M9). In agreement, a senior manager (D3, S2) aware of her leadership style and development needs shared the following:

> I appreciate that the leadership style required of me, given the skills levels of my team, is that of coaching. At times, I am quite authoritative because of the work that must be done. The reason I am reflecting on my leadership style is because I want to do introspection on how I have been doing things and how I can increase my effectiveness.

Likewise, an executive manager (D1, E1) wished that "it was possible to do the things one likes most, like giving motivational talk to others, coaching and mentoring."

Affiliation

The primary focus of the affiliative leadership style is on people and relationship building rather than on accomplishing tasks and goals, i.e. the social and emotional needs of others (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman et al., 2002). This style links to the EI cluster of relationship management. Participants across departments and levels spoke passionately of the need for leaders who are caring, trusting, respectful, sensitive, friendly, empathetic, people-centred and appreciative. In their context, they highlighted the need for their leaders to develop "people management" and "people" skills to "better manage the staff" (D2, M7; D2, M1). This will allow the leaders to "lead by example in how they deal with people." In return, the "staff will be willing to work" (D2, M7, D2, M1) and go the "extra mile" (D2, M8).

As an example of "people skills", participants at all levels in one department strongly emphasised the need for mutual respect between the leaders and their followers. Currently, participants at all levels experienced disrespect from their managers – one participant complained that, "extreme rudeness is the order of the day here" (D2, M1). This middle-level manager added that the "manner in which they talk to people has to show respect. Speaking to people in a respectful way will encourage mutual respect. This will in turn create a professional environment." His peer (D2,

M8) called for a change of attitude, as this will lead to greater respect. She elaborates on the current situation and the positive impact of respect:

> Currently our leadership does not show respect for subordinates. When someone is confronted in front of his subordinates and inappropriate language is used – this breaks spirits. This change of attitude and respect will create a happier environment and will lead to people working well together and going the extra mile.

A middle-level manager from the same department (D2, M9) echoed the dispiriting effect of weak human relations: "It is important to always ensure that the manner in which leadership relates to staff and the manner in which they speak to staff encourages [sic] good behaviour instead of breaking spirits." Their colleague at the administrative level (D2, A4) affirmed that the managers act as "[trade] union bashers" and that the relationship between leaders and the unions "needs mutual respect." She argued that such a relationship would facilitate "better ways of meeting each other half way." Furthermore, a senior manager (D2, S1) expected leaders to structure feedback in a constructive way to promote learning among subordinates, as he believed learning will "ensure that we improve our performance and that we achieve more."

Equally, two executive managers, both at level 14, (D2, E1; D2, E2) share their views on the importance of respectful relationships:

> Respect, I would put 95% in this one. This shows how important it is to be respected by your supervisor. If I can be respected, I will be more confident in my job. I will be more assertive. Recognition, respect, acknowledgement and feedback – this will encourage me to do more good work. It will give me more opportunities to grow and learn. Getting feedback will ensure that I am aware of my shortcomings.

Participants stressed the importance of "care" as another affiliative leadership attribute as it related to relationship building. "Caring" is also a core belief in the Batho Pele ethos of public service. One participant (D1, E2) regarded caring for employees as vital to the success of their organisation. In

his view, a leader must go beyond the work environment and "be able to sit with people" and show interest in their "family life".

For a middle-level manager (D1, M9), it is important to feel supported, especially during the time of change and transition, as this is an indication that the "employer cares". She elaborated that, "Employees like to know that you care for them. It inculcates loyalty amongst the team. It gives people hope and assists them to manage and adapt to change." Their colleague (D2, M2), from the department in which the attribute of respect was emphasised, asserted that his department needed to change from the "conservative style of leadership to a more open and caring leadership."

In this section, participants cited the importance of resonant leadership behaviours and styles for their organisation. They yearn for resonant leaders, who are, in their words: "positive", "self-aware", "visionary and inspirational"; "fair", "transparent", "accountable" and "trusting"; "visible", "inclusive", "consulting" and "engaging"; "respectful", "sensitive", "friendly", "empathetic", "compassionate", and "people-centred"; "appreciative", "supportive", "caring"; and "coaches and mentors". Resonant leadership styles results in a sense of ownership, motivation, clear guidance, personal growth, attentive listening and social cohesion – important elements for social inclusion.

While participants desired resonant styles, based on socialised power, the description of the leaders' behaviours captured in this section demonstrates the dominance of personalised power and dissonant leadership – the subject of the next section.

6.3.5.2 Dissonant leadership

In general, the participants expressed that their leaders' behaviours were commanding and pacesetting, i.e. dissonant leadership styles. For example, a middle-level manager expressed anger at his supervisor's dissonant pacesetting behaviour, such as not sharing information timely, though instructing him to prepare a presentation at short notice:

> These things make me frustrated. The minute I get frustrated at work, I don't
>
> perform. This is the root cause of why people fail. Other people end up

sabotaging the department because they are frustrated. People just do malicious compliance, no motivation, no sharing of ideas.

In this section, narratives associated with dissonant leadership styles will be presented under the following sub-themes: dissonant behaviours and rank-consciousness.

Dissonant Behaviours

Participants contextualised dissonant leadership styles within a personalised power analysis, and organisational culture and climate. One participant (D1, M1) spoke of a "dictatorship" leadership style where issues are not discussed and employees are "instructed" or "dictated to". The result is "people are scared to talk" as they "fear victimisation". An executive manager (D2, E2) confirmed: "Presently we have a military type of culture. A culture of coercion and promotion of stereotypes is the most prevalent."

In this culture, participants expressed their leaders were intolerant of mistakes, gave harsh and public criticism, perceived their subalterns (the participants) as lazy and incompetent, and expected them to fail. Middle-level management participants gave examples like the following:

- "Leadership tends to be more punitive when applying corrective measures, rather than being of assistance when one transgresses unknowingly." (D1, M5)

- "You are told that you are useless every day and that demotivates you. There is a culture of charging, subjecting to disciplinary hearing." (D2, M7)

- "I have a threatening leader who is always barking at the team instead of supporting the team. I sometimes ask myself a question: 'What kind of leaders do we have?'" (D1, M9)

- "You know when you get angry at a subordinate, not that it's ok to shout at someone, it seems as though you are making mockery out of someone when you reprimand them in front of others." (D2, M8)

Another middle-level manager (D1, M1) spoke of "emotional contagion" (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Goleman et al., 2002; Sy, Côté & Saavedra, 2005), i.e. how the emotions or affect, such as anger, joy, anxiety, pride and indifference of the leaders, was "transferred to the people below him or her

and affects the entire organisation. When top leadership and senior managers are not happy it's easy for them to influence others and this destroys the organisation."

Two middle-level managers (D1, M7; D1, M6) spoke of self-interest among managers and employees. This concern with self-interest subsequently affects service to citizens. They referred to public servants who focus on their "positions and status", unaccountable to the public, expecting to be "respected by the community rather than being the servant of the community." These public servants are considered to adhere to an entitlement assumption according to which "they are owed something", thus focusing on their own gain and paying "no attention to serving clients."

Indicators of the dissonant pacesetting leadership style, prevalent in the participants' context, include the frenetic, hurried, chaotic, urgency and crisis-management behaviours. The negative consequence of dissonance behaviours is the "sacrifice cycle" (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). For example, one participant (D1, M9) suggested that leaders need to slow down and become "fully aware of what is happening around" them so that they "appreciate even those little things that seem small but important." A Director (D1, S7) described the impact of the long working hours (14–15 hours per day) on his personal and social life:

> I need work-life balance. I really don't have that right now! I am stuck at my computer. My immediate supervisor tells me, "It comes with my position." I don't believe such chaotic conditions are conducive to our psychological being. You adopt anti-social behaviour. You also lose your social skills by working overtime. You are in prison on your own island. Leaders must understand these softer issues.

In a previous section, HR practitioners warned of the increasing incidence of illness, stress, burnout, depression and absenteeism.

Rank-consciousness

Arnold Mindell (1995: 28) defines rank broadly as the "sum of a person's privileges", mediated through economics, race, gender and age. In this organisational setting, the participants referred to rank as power and privilege that is associated with management positions. This positional and

authority-based power offers the leaders significant social status and privilege, supported by enduring, rigid, centralised hierarchies and bureaucratic public governance systems (presented in the next section as a dominant theme). In this context, rank and status (social power) govern the individual and collective consciousness and relationships, contributing to a polarised organisational culture of the powerful (mainstream) and the powerless (marginalised) – elements of other dominant themes described in this chapter.

The recurring theme of "rank-consciousness" was vividly illustrated in the administrative secretary's (D1, A1) narrative, in the results summary section at the beginning of this chapter: "Everyone wants to be addressed as a Mr, Advocate, GM, DDG, etc., as if people do not have names ... [T]hese titles create big barriers." Overall, rank was one of the foremost issues in the participants' consciousness when responding to interview questions on individual and team needs, leadership and organisational culture. In one department over 60% of the participants explicitly voiced their resistance to rank-consciousness and noted alienation in words such as "voiceless", "unrecognised", "unfairness" and "inequity", as described as part of themes discussed in prior sections. They also expressed emotions and affect such as anger, frustration, despondency and demotivation arising from the marginalising behaviours of their leaders.

Participants spoke of "rank culture as prevalent" (D1, M9), noted that a person's rank level was a "strong thing" (D1, A5) and indicated that rank is "very, very, very important" (D1, S8) (D1, M3). A number of participants expressed feelings of frustration, exhaustion and anger at "level-oriented", "rank-conscious" and "status-conscious" behaviours (D2, A1; D1, M2; D1, M9), and demanded that rank-consciousness be done away with. For example, a long-serving public servant and HR practitioner appealed for rank-consciousness to be "scrapped when engaging in a task as colleagues" (D1, M5). He was supported by his peer who insisted "this rank-pulling nonsense must stop" (D1, M3).

Other participants also expressed resistance. One participant challenged his leaders to "move away from rank-consciousness" and to stop "carry[ing] their ranks and walk around with chips on the shoulder" (D1, S7). Similarly, his peer (D1, S8) declared that their leaders "need to do away with their levels and status consciousness [and that this] situation is […] applicable in other

departments as well." Likewise, a junior administration participant pleaded that her leaders must "take off their authority caps when engaging with junior level staff" (D2, A1). Equally, a middle-level manager despondently exclaimed, "Yho, I do not know how this thing [rank] can be overcome!" and appealed to her leaders and colleagues not to "overemphasise rank" (D1, M3).

Effects of Rank-consciousness

Participants viewed rank and its related power and privilege as having a negative impact on the individual, collective consciousness and behaviours. Notably, three female participants from administrative (level 7), middle-level (level 10) and senior (level 13) management levels, frame rank within an analysis of social power as it relates to equity, humaneness and relationships. One senior manager observed (D1, S6), "We're so locked up in our rank level that we forget that we're human beings – we can't relate to each other", while a middle-level manager in her department (D1, M3) concurred that employees "must be treated as human beings regardless of rank." Their administration colleague, in another department (D2, A1), underscored their views: "If we are all treated as human beings and as equals, then we will also behave as such."

Other participants similarly expressed the negative association between dominant rank-consciousness and equity and social relationships, adding other intermediating factors, such as fairness, belonging, decision-making, organisational culture, and leadership behaviours and styles. Many examples were provided, including:

- Unfairness and unevenness in the distribution of tools and enablers, with the seniors receiving priority (D1, M9);

- Alienation due to the huge gap between low-level and high-level employees, creating an attitude of "us and them", which hinders participation (D1, S8; D1, M5);

- Distant, impersonal and unaccountable managers who are "unapproachable" and also "beyond reproach", making it "difficult to give them advice when things are going wrong" (D1, M3; D1, S1; D1, S7);

- A "clinical environment" not conducive to teamwork and creating an environment of togetherness (D1, M3);

- Dissonant behaviours such as "command and tell", issuing "instructions and orders", "rank and file behaviour", "military practice to instil order" and "machines carrying out instructions", resulting in an "emphasis on conformance" and compliance, (D1, S7) (D1, S1);

- Poor performance as "power is so centralised that small things need sign-off from the top people" (D1, S1), impacting "negatively on sense of urgency and that affects service delivery" (D1, S6); and

- Barriers and limitations, leading to "walls around us which will be difficult to break" (D1, M3).

Besides administrative employees and middle-level managers' views on inequity and disempowerment related to rank, senior and executive managers also expressed the negative effects of their leaders' predilection for rank. One senior manager (D1, S5) felt "disempowered", losing confidence and dignity, as she had no control over her unit's budget, though she had to account for the budget. Due to the social power of rank, her leaders do not delegate powers. Even an executive manager (D2, E2) is not immune to feeling powerless, as expressed below:

> If children see you as a powerless parent, they will revolt against you. In this department, the bad culture has disempowered me to discharge my responsibilities. The top management [levels 15 and 16] does not recognise me … Presently we have a military type of culture. A culture of coercion and promotion of stereotypes is the most prevalent.

In response to addressing the dominance of rank, many participants implored their leaders for the following necessary actions to shift the status quo. These actions are as follows:

- Firstly, paying respect regardless of rank and role;

- Secondly, being more personable and visible to build collegial relationships;

- Thirdly, supporting human talent and potential irrespective of rank level; and

- Fourthly, removing barriers created by hierarchy and bureaucracy through decentralisation, delegation of powers and accountability.

Participants anticipate that such measures will engender a culture and climate of "happy and motivated employees", and that a "lot of things will fall into place automatically" (D1, S6), resulting in "people performing wonders" (D2, A1).

The analysis of the dominant theme of leadership behaviours and styles revealed that though there is a strong yearning for resonant styles, there is dominance of dissonant leadership behaviours. The latter were captured in many of the participants' narratives, expressed in words such as "self-centred", "authoritarian", "command and control", "dictatorship", "military practice", "conservative", "punitive", "charging" (through disciplinary hearings), "ordering", "instructing", "micro-managing", "bureaucratic", "unaccountable", "rushing", and "urgent". Relatedly, there was consensus on the negative impact of rank-consciousness – a universal feature in this provincial government.

Dissonant styles drive alienation, demoralisation, discord and social exclusion, voiced by the participants as "disrespectful", "threatening", "intimidating", "uncaring", "insensitive", "unfair", "unequal", "blaming", "criticising", and "saving face". The leaders' dissonant behaviours engender an organisational culture and climate (collective consciousness) expressed as "deficient in warmth", "care", "belonging", "ownership", "meaning", "identity", "collegiality", "trust", "motivation", "learning", and "work ethics".

6.3.3   PUBLIC SERVICE ORIENTATION

The third dominant theme, public service orientation, was expressed as a strong commitment to public service. It was defined within a people-centred, socially responsible, accountable and ethical paradigm – in line with the South African government's Batho Pele collective beliefs, namely to care, to serve and to belong.

A middle-level manager (D1, M2) zealously spoke of her calling for her public service vocation: "We are here because we love what we do – to serve the public." A senior manager (D1, S8) emphasised citizens' access to quality service, especially marginalised communities: "[W]e are here to serve …[O]ur people are still very poor and depend on us for quality service [a Batho Pele principle] for the betterment of their lives. We should not disappoint them." His executive colleague (D1, E2) added to the discourse on public service:

You need a caring culture where officials are willing to provide support to communities. Batho Pele principles must guide government officials when performing their tasks. All officials of government irrespective of their rank level must be able to provide hands-on support to communities. There must be passion to help people in need of government services.

However, a number of individual, team, leadership and organisational elements impede the realisation of the espoused values and beliefs of public service. Participants do not feel care and belonging in their own organisations, which affects their motivation to serve. For example, a middle-level manager (D1, M2) expressed her concern that her leaders do not support the Batho Pele principles: "When people come to work, they don't feel like they belong. "Belong" is the key word. If you don't belong, you don't care", challenging her leaders to "walk, talk, breathe the Batho Pele principles."

The same participant and her colleagues (D1, M4, S2) spoke of public servants as "self-centred" who "really don't care for the next person." They further described them as "paper-pushers", proficient at "using words … but … have no feelings", asserting that, "as public servants we should have feelings." A senior manager (D1, S2) agreed: "We must really put people first to have a people-centred culture in our environment – both for external and internal customer[s] to practice Batho Pele." In affirmation, a senior manager (D1, S6) spoke of the need to "prioritise" the Batho Pele principles, accepting that she needed to be **"**compassionate, empathetic and sympathetic – both to the team members and to the public we serve", and, moreover, in a professional manner and with high ethical standards.

An increasing number of public servants displayed a "sense of entitlement [rather] than service", stated an executive manager (D1, E1) who implored public servants to "recognise the opportunity they have been given to make a difference in the lives of many who are less fortunate."

The issue of "laziness" of public servants was raised as an explanation for poor service. Two senior managers (D1, S8, S4) agreed that the existing culture is "negative and people are generally lazy", and that "laziness and excellence do not go together, they repel one another." Two

middle-level managers viewed the situation differently. The level-12 participant (D2, M8) asserted that the seniors and executives have a "belief that people are lazy", viewing their subordinates as "people that do not want to work." While an HR manager (D1, M4) was more even-handed and observed that, "there are those who are diligent, and others who are lazy."

In realising the values of Batho Pele, participants spoke of the cultural diversity within the public service and the province. A senior manager (D1, S4) viewed diversity as important as different cultures dealt differently with their issues. For this reason, the participant believed that public policies are universal, accommodating "all these traditions and cultures." In addition, an executive manager argued that (D1, E1) the organisation diversity needs to be "harnessed into a solid team", as public servants come from different backgrounds.

In pursuit of the Batho Pele public service collective beliefs, participants passionately expressed their dedication and commitment to public service. Many insisted on the Batho Pele beliefs as the keystone for their organisational culture. The participants believed that public servants must provide quality service professionally and with empathy. However, elements of individual, team, leadership, culture and governance systems thwarted the realisation of the noble Batho Pele values and beliefs. Participants do not feel care and belonging in their own organisations. This affects their motivation to serve and care for citizens. Then there are those who have a sense of entitlement and are self-centred or "lazy". All these factors frustrate the passion for a people-centred public service culture.

6.3.4   PUBLIC GOVERNANCE SYSTEMS

The participants perceived the organisation's governance structures and systems (the social domain) as:

- Indecisive, top-down, "rank and file" (D1, S7), and alienating hierarchies;
- Rigid, centralised, silos, and overly rule-bound bureaucracies; and
- Resource poor – on human, technical, financial, and infrastructure levels.

A senior manager (D3, S3) spoke of the "dominant power culture", as a result of the hierarchical nature of the public service, which has significant effects on the organisational commitment of

employees and performance. Her middle-level manager colleague (D1, M6) in another department agrees:

> I have found that it is only senior and executive management that can help me when I get stuck because here officials are very status conscious – they only respond if an official of the same or more senior rank requests them to do something.

To short-circuit the hierarchy and to expedite project inception, this manager untruthfully informed other departmental colleagues that the Cabinet or the Executive Committee (EXCO) has endorsed the decision or that it was a provincial priority project – unconsciously entrenching the power culture and the commanding and pacesetting behaviours.

Across all levels, a dominant discourse is the "bureaucratic culture" (D1, M4; S2, S3, S7, A5). Due to the rigid hierarchy and excessively bureaucratic processes, an administration participant complained that processes take a long time: "as it goes from person to person down the hierarchy … we're not aware that work is coming. Everything we do, we have to get approved but the senior managers is [sic] not in the office." For example (D1, M4), a request for a meeting with the other provincial departments had to pass through six offices for signatures.

A middle-level manager in another department (D2, M4) called for effective delegation. In his view, the senior managers consider junior staff members as incompetent, therefore the "SMS [Senior Management Service] is becoming more operation by the day." However, he felt that delegation ensured "each employee learns and grows" through using the newly acquired management skills, further motivating middle-level managers. He gave an example to the contrary: "There are cases where you will find a GM writing a memo when there is a PA [Personal Assistant] to do this. This is because the GM does not have time to teach and groom the PA."

A senior manager (D1, S1) offered another reason for her leaders' centralisation of power and their indecisiveness. In her view, due to the executive managers' poor understanding of what needs to be done, their response is, "I'm not going to approve anything," and, "they just pass decisions up the line." Additionally, trust is another reason for not approving decisions. Her peer (D1, S5) also

demanded that their superiors delegate power. She understood that delegation is based on trust, though she agreed with her peer: "I do not think there is trust in the department."

They feel disempowered without control of their unit's budget at senior management level, which has negative effects on the implementation of their programmes and on their "confidence and dignity." Their colleague at the administrative level (D1, A5) added to the discussion on trust, suggesting that it is a reason for the "lack of delegation", further linking it to personalised power: "Like they don't want to lose anything. They won't give anyone else the mandate … there's an element of a lack of trust. No one will say 'please lead this group while I'm away'."

A senior manager in this department (D1, S3) stated that previously there was greater flexibility and officials were "allowed to freely interact with leadership." The manager reminisced on the previous culture, which fostered innovation, but pointed out that the existing culture was "rigid and an innovation environment is lacking … [T]he existing rules and regulations prevent us from being innovative" and called for organisational flexibility and a renewed focus on citizens instead of controls. A level-12 middle-level manager (D1, M9) supported her colleague's call to "cut red tape to be more agile", as a way to address "implementation paralysis" and the rigid bureaucracy. She asserted that flexibility and agility would result in greater productivity, subsequently proposing capacity building to promote a "culture of agility".

Interestingly, the centralisation of power also affected an executive manager (D2, E2) in another department. In his view, "everything has to be approved by the top management, even the duties which do not have financial implications." He explained that for teams to work effectively, it is necessary to decentralise delegations, as it will "shorten the chain of approval and reduce the time for achievement of milestones."

A pervasive commentary opposes the centralisation of power at the top of a steep bureaucratic hierarchy with strong control and limited or no delegated power to lower levels, even at higher rank levels, as observed in the dominant theme of leadership styles. It is evident that the culture in this context is strongly deontological, i.e. focused on bureaucratic norms, duties, rules and regulations. The result is a lengthy command chain, which has the effect of disempowering and demoralising

managers and subalterns, and hinders trust building, innovation, efficiency, agility, motivation, and delaying decision-making and "quick turnaround and delivery of priorities" (D1, S3).

6.4   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, Wilber's (2000) Four-Quadrant Model was used as an organising frame for the findings and the dominant themes from the inductive analysis, which were subsequently represented in one of the four domains of reality, i.e. intentional, behavioural, cultural and social. The four dominant themes were social exclusion, leadership behaviours and styles, public service orientation, and public governance systems.

The qualitative results evoked a deep sense of the contextual dialectical paradoxes, such as pathos and hope; forlornness and caring; self-centredness and people-centeredness; belonging and alienation; and resonance and dissonance. The qualitative results portrayed both, the participants' current state of personal and shared realities and the envisioned desired state.

At an intentional or individual consciousness level, participants' expressed a continuum of negative and positive feelings, ranging from dispirited to enthusiastic and demoralised to optimistic. They expressed values, such as fairness, integrity, compassion, diversity and collaboration. However, the findings indicated a strong sense of social exclusion embodied in themes such as fairness and equity, voice, communications, and recognition and rewards. Despite the immensely challenging organisational and societal realities, participants' at all rank levels expressed a strong conviction for public service. Nevertheless, social exclusion had a damaging impact on the participants' self-worth, morale, aspirations, personal development, and motivation – compromising individual, team, leadership, and organisational performance.

At a behavioural domain level, the participants yearned for resonant leadership behaviours, and styles, such as visionary, democratic, affiliative and coaching styles, and, conversely, they were critical of dissonant styles – i.e. pacesetting and commanding. Resonant leaders' behaviours resulted in a compelling vision, inspiration, motivation, teamwork, optimism, personal growth, recognition, compassion, adaptability and positive affiliation. The outcome is exemplary individual,

team, and organisational performance. On the contrary, dissonant leaders are regarded as conservative, commanding, power- and rank-conscious, intimidating, uncaring and frenetic.

At the cultural domain level, the participants were unanimous in their commitment to a collective consciousness informed by the Batho Pele beliefs, i.e. to care, to serve, and to belong. They desired an organisational culture characterised by attitudes, beliefs and behaviours such as dedication, equity, compassion, recognition, professional work ethics, accountability, teamwork and diversity. A strong polarity emerged between the marginalised (powerless, i.e. alienated and dispirited) and the mainstream (powerful, i.e. indifferent and disconnected), portraying the negative effects of social exclusion, for instance social antagonism, submission and compliance.

Within the social domain of reality, participants expressed the need for decentralised and delegated power, agile and efficient organisational systems and processes, fair performance management systems, coordinated planning, and organisational resources. These were considered imperative for outcomes, for example greater ownership, leadership success, positive change, excellent performance and exemplary service delivery. However, the participants experienced the governance systems and hierarchy as authoritarian, rank-conscious, indecisive, alienating, rigid, centralised and inflexible. Moreover, serious deficits in human, technical, information and communication technology, and financial and other infrastructure resources constrained the participants' will and means to serve. As a result, participants felt disempowered and demoralised, negatively impacting individual, team, and organisational performance.

The above results show the importance of all four domains of reality on motivation and performance at the individual, team, and organisational levels: the subjective consciousness; the inter-subjective relationships (organisational culture); the objective behaviours, particularly those of leaders on the subjective- and the inter-subjective consciousness; and the social and governance systems (i.e. the enablers) of the other three domains. Any weakness in, or uneven focus on, one domain will result in the "haemorrhaging" of the others (Wilber, 2000).

The contextual realities considered in this chapter provide the organisational backdrop to the descriptive quantitative findings on the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies

(independent variable) and leadership performance (dependent variable) of executive managers as presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 7

PRESENTATION OF QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to determine whether a significant relationship existed between the competencies of emotional and social intelligence, as measured by Goleman and Boyatzis' (2007) Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI), and leadership performance measured by nominations. Research has indicated a positive relationship between the constructs of leadership and emotional intelligence, though there exists limited empirical evidence on the nature of the relationship, especially in understanding public service leadership performance, particularly within a non-Western context. Human talent management implications are a practical consequence of such enquiry. Greater research endeavour is warranted (Newman et al., 2009; Kotzé & Venter, 2011; Sharma, 2012), in particular within the theoretical perspective of competencies as a behavioural approach to EI and performance.

The current study among South African executive public service leaders utilised descriptive quantitative research data analyses of the two variables, i.e. EI competency and leadership performance, to determine their empirical relationships. This was done by testing a set of four related hypotheses. The presentation of the findings from the quantitative data analyses is the objective of this chapter.

The chapter starts with the empirical framework and a summary of the demographic statistics. Then the descriptive statistics and analyses for the two variables and their relationships are presented in the form of tables, charts and narrative in four sections:

- The variable of leadership performance (using nomination scores);

- The variable of emotional intelligence (using the ESCI scores);

- The relationships between EI and leadership performance (i.e. testing the four relationship hypotheses); and

- The relationships between the control variables (e.g. age and gender) and EI, and the relationships between the control variables and performance.

The chapter ends with a conclusion of the quantitative data analysis and research findings. Appendix F contains the full set of the ESCI self-raters' data and Appendix G contains the full set of the ESCI others raters' data and the performance nominations data.

If any of the bivariate relationships are found to be significant, then it implies, firstly, theoretical significance, i.e. the results contribute a South African public service perspective to a predominantly Western and private sector body of literature and research in EI and leadership performance; and secondly, practical significance, i.e. the results have potential policy and practice implications for talent management of senior public managers.

7.2   EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

Since McClelland's (1973) seminal study on competencies, a number of scholars (Boyatzis, 1982, 2008; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Ramo et al., 2009; Ryan et al., 2009; Sharma, 2012; Spencer & Spencer, 1993) affirm the importance of competencies in the study of performance. The current study is guided by the rich tradition of inquiry into human talent in understanding performance, established by the competency and personality-based theoretical model of emotional and social intelligence, also referred to as the "mixed model" of EI or stream 3 (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Building on McClelland's work, Boyatzis (1982: 12, 23) defines competencies as "underlying characteristics of an individual, which are causally related to effective and/or superior performance in a job."

The empirical framework, as illustrated in Figure 4 below, is guided by the competency theory of performance framework (Boyatzis, 1982), i.e. competencies as a behavioural manifestation of EI that predicts job performance, as described in the Conceptual and Theoretical Framework in Chapter 5. The framework consists of the variables (constructs) to be tested empirically, i.e. emotional and social intelligence clusters, comprising twelve competencies (independent variable) and leadership performance (dependent variable). Increasing evidence demonstrate that emotional and social intelligence, which manifests as behaviours or actions, account for a significant variance in predicting or understanding job performance (Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003;). In the current research, the unit of analysis is the contingency factors of

the executive managers' (n = 35) emotional and social competency (personal characteristics) and their performance in leadership roles and functions (job demand) within the South African public service (organisational context).

Emotional intelligence competencies	Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	Leadership performance
	Self-management	Achievement orientation	
		Adaptability	
		Emotional self-control	
		Positive outlook	
Social intelligence competencies	Social awareness	Empathy	
		Organisational awareness	
	Relationship management	Coach and mentor	
		Conflict management	
		Inspirational leadership	
		Influence	
		Teamwork	
Independent variable			Dependent variable

Figure 4. Empirical framework: Relationship between emotional and social intelligence competencies and leadership performance.

To examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance of the participant managers, two quantitative instruments were utilised, namely performance nominations, and the multi-rater ESCI. A strong predictive validity of the ECI (former version of the ESCI) and ESCI was demonstrated in other research (O'Boyle et al., 2011; Hay Group, 2011; Sharma, 2012). Twelve emotional and social intelligence competencies of the participants (n = 35) in four provincial government departments were measured using the ESCI survey questionnaire, which was completed by both the participant executive managers and five respondent rater groups (n = 230), i.e. managers (n = 28), subordinates (n = 70), peers (n = 65), others (n = 37) and clients (n = 30). The ESCI survey results represent a set of behaviours and actions of the managers' in the

workplace, and characterise their EI. The leadership performance variable was measured using a nomination survey of the participants' perceived performance in their leadership role from their colleagues at middle-level and senior management levels. The thirty-five participants received a total of 371 nominations from 191 respondents.

The data collected from the two surveys were analysed using the following quantitative analytical methods: measures of central tendency and variability, and measures of associations, such as means, standard deviations, range, Cronbach's Correlation Coefficients, Spearman's Rank Correlation, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Fisher's least significant difference (LSD). The data was tested at the significance level of either $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.001$, and results that achieved either of these significance levels were accepted as statistically significant.

7.3   SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

The detailed frequency distribution of demographic variables for the participant leaders was presented in Chapter 5. The demographics of the participant sample revealed that:

- 77% were Chief Directors, 17% Deputy-Director Generals, and 6% Head of Departments;

- 84% of the executive managers were from the three transversal departments, while 6% were from a service-delivery line department;

- 60% were male and 40% were female;

- 80% were "Black", while 9% were equally "White" and "Coloured", and 3% "Indian";

- 46% were between the ages of 46 and 55, while 31% were between 36 and 45 years old;

- 86% had a postgraduate degree and the remaining 14% had a bachelor's degree;

- 72% were in the employ of the provincial government for the past 10 years of which 43% for five years or less, and 29% between 6 and 10 years; and

- 43% of the participants had fewer than 11 subordinates, while 14% had 11 to 20, 11% had between 21 and 30, and 14% had between 31 and 50 subordinates.

7.4   DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

7.4.1   LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE NOMINATIONS

Leadership performance was the first variable to be surveyed in the current study. As the reliability of the performance management data, collected by the Performance Management Development System (PMDS) at this public service institution, could not be confirmed and as no suitable leadership performance data was available for the participants to measure the dependent variable, nominations were used to measure the leadership performance variable. Nominations are regarded as an effective and valid measure to predict solid job performance outcomes, as shown in a number of competency studies (Boyatzis, 1982, 2006, 2008, 2009; Luthans et al., 1988; McClelland, 1998; Ramo et al., 2009; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Lewin and Zwany (1976) and Lawler (1979) claim that nominations have high criterion validity, which is of relevance to this study as nominations relate significantly to work-output measures and highly correlates with each other.

The descriptive statistics for the initial sample of sixty-seven executive managers, from four participating departments, and the final sample of thirty-five of these managers who went on to participate in the ESCI survey is presented in Table 24.

Table 24. Descriptive statistics of the executive managers' performance nomination score.

	n	No. of Nominations	Mean	Std. Dev.	Highest	Lowest	Q1	Q2	Q3
Performance Nomination Descriptive Statistics									
Initial sample	67	687	10.3	8.83	41	0	3.0	7	14.8
Final sample	35	371	10.6	8.37	32	0	4.3	8	16.3

All middle-level and senior/executive managers, i.e. levels 12–16, (N = 404) from the four participating departments were invited to nominate up to a maximum of five executive managers in these departments who they considered as outstanding in their leadership performance in the public service. A total of 191 respondents' nominations for the final set of 35 executive managers were used in the analysis (i.e. response rate of 47%). The ordinal nomination data was ranked in descending order (refer to Appendix G) and used to measure the dependent variable of leadership performance.

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The final 35 participants received a total of 371 nominations, ranging from a high of 32 (outstanding leadership performance) to a low of zero (poor leadership performance), with a mean nomination score of 10.6. Figure 5 below illustrates the participants' performance nominations scores in quartiles.

Figure 5. Performance nomination scores in quartiles (n = 35).

Figure 6 below graphically represents the comparison between the initial sample and final sample (used in the ESCI survey) nomination scores. The ANOVA results, i.e. $F_{(1.65)} = 0.31$, $p > 0.05$, between the two sets of scores displayed no statistically significant difference.
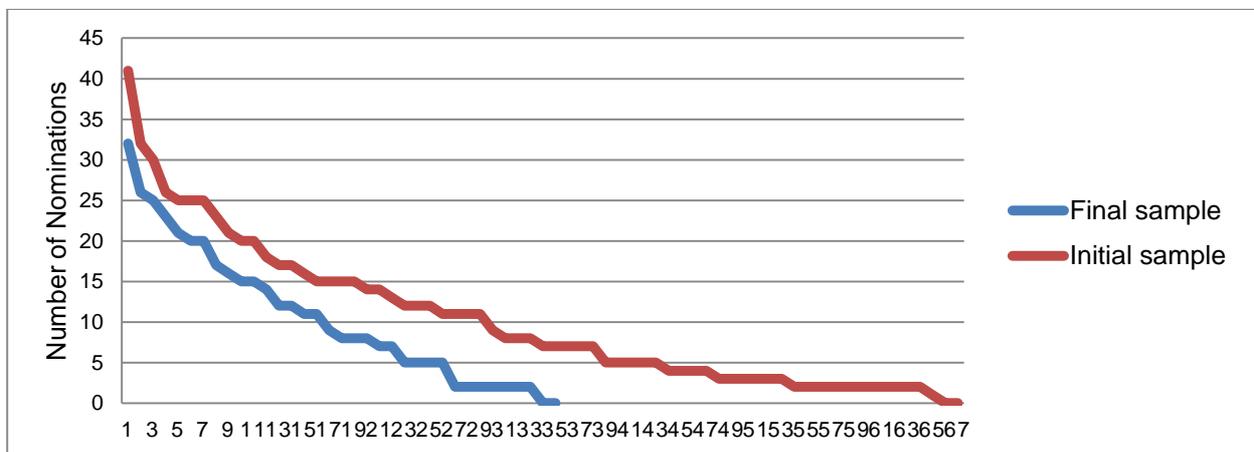
Figure 6. Chart showing the number of nominations per individual in the final sample (n = 35) and initial sample (n = 67).

7.4.2   EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY (ESCI) SCORES

The Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) is a 360-degree self-administered web-based questionnaire that is completed by the participants (self-report) and respondents (rater groups: managers, peers, direct reports or subordinates, clients and others). It is designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals and organisations.

The ESCI uses a Likert scale, i.e. data was scored against a frequency range and is ordinal. All raters (participants and respondents) assessed the behaviours of the participants (in this case the executive managers) captured within each item (68 in total) on a 5-point scale weighted as follows: "never", "rarely", "sometimes", "often", and "consistently". Each respondent rater perspective was scored equally and averaged across the relevant rater group (i.e. managers, subordinates, peers, and others). The "total others" (all five respondent groups) score for each competency is the average across all rater groups (except the participant/self-report). This approach offers a broad perspective of the participants' behaviour as perceived by the different individuals and groups with whom they interact. It accordingly gathers 360-degree feedback data (Hay Group, 2011).

In the ESCI survey, 45 executive managers, from an initial sample of 67, participated (i.e. a 68% response rate). As each participant required a minimum of two respondent rater groups' ESCI ratings, the final data set constituted 35 executive managers (i.e. 53% of the sample population). A total number of 489 raters, in five categories, were invited by the 35 participants to complete the ESCI survey. A total of 268 raters responded (i.e. 55% response rate). As the threshold for selecting ratings was set at a minimum of two raters per each rater group (except for the "managers" rater group), 38 ratings were rejected, as they represented single ratings in a group. Consequently, a final total of 230 (i.e. 47% response rate) of the raters' scores, in five rater groups, were utilised for the ESCI data analysis presented below.

In this section, firstly, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficients, a measure of internal consistency of the survey instrument, for the twelve ESCI competencies is presented. Secondly, the descriptive statistics for both the leaders and the total others' cluster and competency ESCI scores are presented. Thirdly, a set of comparisons between the participants and the respondent groups'

ESCI scores is presented, including the analogous highest and lowest mean EI competency scores, and the EI competency gap for the 12 competencies. Finally, the ESCI descriptive statistics for all rater groups' mean scores, together with the analysis of the difference between the mean scores of all rater groups using ANOVA and Fisher's least significant difference (LSD), are presented.

7.4.2.1 ESCI Validity and Reliability Measure: Cronbach's Coefficients

The ESCI (formerly known as the ECI) has been tested to have good content, criterion, face and construct validity, and internal consistency reliability (O'Boyle et al., 2011; Hay Group, 2011). A large number of competency and performance studies of managers, executives and leaders in Western contexts present evidence of very high reliability and validity for both ECI and ESCI (Boyatzis, 2009; Goleman et al., 2002; Hopkins & Bilimoria, 2008; Ramo et al., 2009; Sala, 2002). In the Indian context, Sharma (2012: 43–44), using the ECI-2 to measure EI competencies of Indian executives (n = 400) in the private and public sectors, established the instrument's reliability (with an overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.93), and validity through both divergent validity and factor analysis (with Stress Personality test). Sharma's (2012) study represents a cross-cultural validation of the ECI, and consequently for the competency-based behavioural approach to emotional and social intelligence.

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the ESCI competencies in the current study (n = 307), presented in Table 25, show an overall alpha value of 0.84, with a range of 0.77 to 0.89. Based on the alpha value of 0.7 as acceptable reliability, all alpha coefficients for the 12 EI competencies represent acceptable internal consistency for the ESCI among the sample of participants and respondents in a South African context. In this context, the current study implies a cross-cultural validation of the ESCI. Future empirical research with larger sample sizes is required to verify this implication.

Table 25. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for ESCI competencies.

	Cronbach's Alpha Hay Group (2011) n = 52 363	**Cronbach's Alpha** Current Study (2014) n = 307
Emotional self-awareness	.83	.80
Achievement orientation	.86	.86
Adaptability	.85	.82
Emotional self-control	.91	.88
Positive outlook	.88	.89
Empathy	.86	.84
Organisational awareness	.86	.82
Conflict management	.79	.80
Coach and mentor	.92	.91
Influence	.84	.77
Inspirational leadership	.89	.87
Teamwork	.89	.87

7.4.2.2   ESCI Self-raters' scores

The descriptive statistics for the participant executive managers ESCI self-scores are presented in Table 3 below. The overall mean EI score for the participant's self-ratings (n = 35) was 4.19.

Self-raters' EI cluster scores

Figure 7 and Table 26 demonstrate that the self-awareness cluster recorded the lowest mean score (3.97), highest standard deviation (0.52) and lowest minimum rank score (2.80) among the four EI clusters.
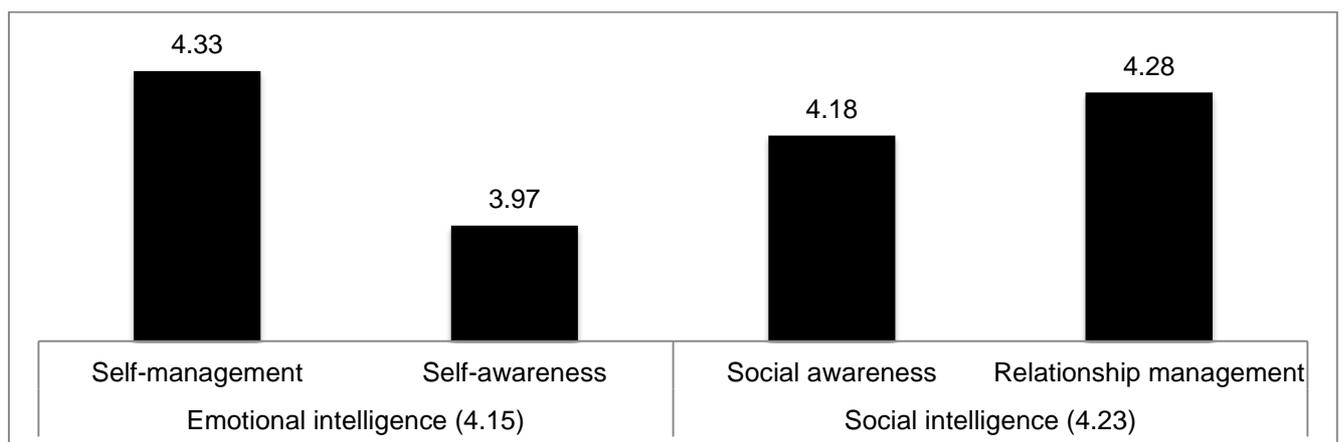
Figure 7. Self-raters' emotional and social cluster mean scores.

The relationship management (4.28) and self-management (4.33) clusters revealed virtually similar highest mean cluster scores. The social awareness cluster had the second-lowest mean score (4.18). The mean difference in the scores between self-management and self-awareness was 0.33.

Table 26. ESCI descriptive statistics for the leaders' self-ratings.

		ESCI Self-Ratings (n = 35)			
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Min.**	**Max.**
	Overall EI	4.19	0.31	3.8	4.8
	Clusters of competencies				
Emotional intelligence	Self-management	4.33	0.29	3.8	4.9
	Self-awareness	3.97	0.52	2.8	5.0
Social intelligence	Social awareness	4.18	0.40	3.4	5.0
	Relationship management	4.28	0.35	3.6	4.9
	Competencies				
Self-management	Achievement orientation	4.64	0.42	3.2	5.0
	Adaptability	4.21	0.42	3.3	5.0
	Emotional self-control	4.07	0.41	3.2	4.7
	Positive outlook	4.41	0.39	3.5	5.0
Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	3.97	0.52	2.8	5.0
Social awareness	Empathy	4.07	0.42	3.2	4.6
	Organisational awareness	4.29	0.45	3.4	5.0
Relationship management	Coach and mentor	4.25	0.46	3.4	5.0
	Conflict management	4.35	0.49	3.3	5.0
	Inspirational leadership	4.46	0.46	3.2	5.0
	Influence	3.9	0.45	2.8	4.8
	Teamwork	4.45	0.41	3.5	5.0

The overall mean emotional intelligence score, comprising the self-management and self-awareness clusters was 4.15, while the mean social intelligence score, comprising social awareness and relationship management clusters was 4.23, as presented in Figure 7. Though the latter intelligence score is fractionally higher, there is no significant difference between the scores.

As both are equally important, the evenness of the self-raters' scores for these two intelligences is interesting to note.

Self-raters' EI competencies scores

The self-raters' scores, presented in Figure 8 and Table 26, demonstrate that the top four mean EI competencies scores were achievement orientation (4.64), inspirational leadership (4.46), teamwork (4.45) and positive outlook (4.41). These four competencies belong equally to the self-management and the relationship management clusters. The competencies of influence (3.90) and emotional self-awareness (3.97) recorded the bottom two mean EI scores, while empathy and emotional self-control were the self-raters' joint third-lowest mean scores (4.07).
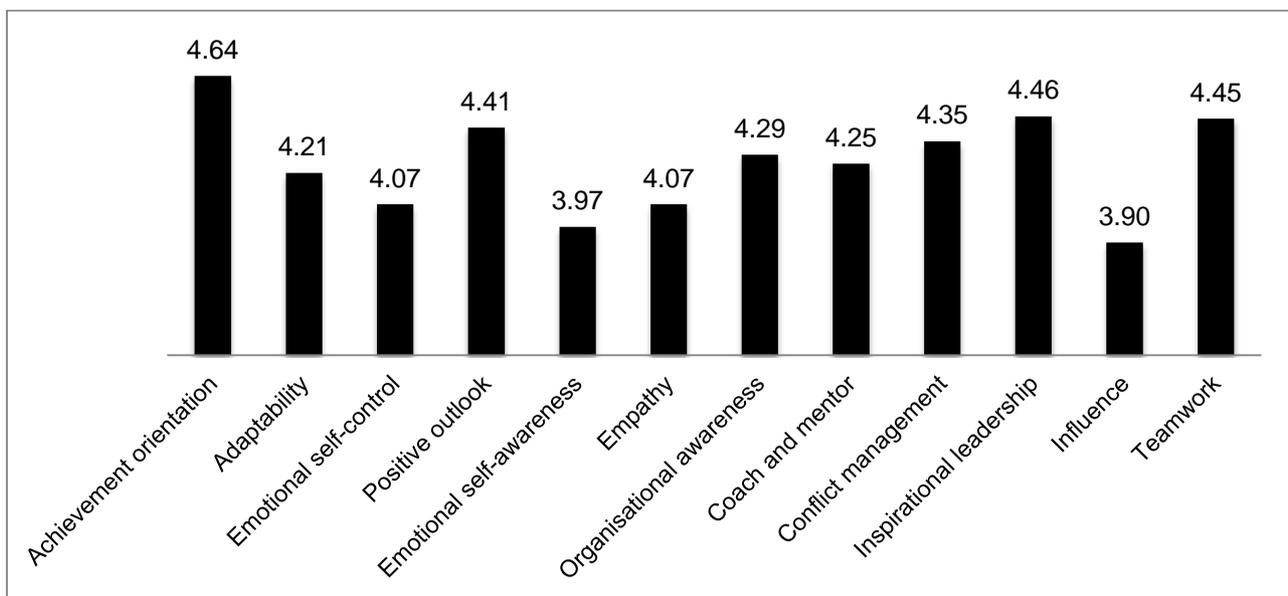
Figure 8. Mean ESCI Self scores for the 12 competencies (n = 35).

Table 26 indicates that the self-raters' maximum rank score for nine of the twelve EI competencies was five. The minimum competency rank score ranged between 2.80 to 3.50.

7.4.2.3   ESCI Total Others' scores

In this section, firstly, the ESCI descriptive statistics for the four EI clusters and 12 competencies for each of the five respondent groups are presented and, secondly, the total ESCI (clusters and 12 competencies) mean scores for the combined five respondent rater groups (referred to as "total

others") are presented. The sample size for each rater group was as follows: self-raters (n = 35), managers (n = 28), subordinates (n = 70), peers (n = 65), others (n = 37) and clients (n = 30)

ESCI cluster scores per respondent rater group

The mean EI score for the managers group compared to the other four respondent rater groups was the lowest, as demonstrated in Table 27 and graphically represented in Figure 9 below. Conversely, the clients rater group's mean score, across the clusters, was the highest. All five groups consistently rated the self-awareness cluster the lowest and the self-management cluster the highest.

Table 27. Descriptive statistics of ESCI ratings per each rater group.

ESCI Clusters	Mean ESCI scores				
	Managers	Subordinates	Peers	Others	Clients
	(n = 28)	(n = 70)	(n = 65)	(n = 37)	(n = 30)
Self-management	3.81	4.19	4.09	4.31	4.32
Self-awareness	3.48	3.77	3.77	3.79	3.89
Social awareness	3.68	3.98	4.02	4.19	4.23
Relationship management	3.65	3.99	4.02	4.14	4.18
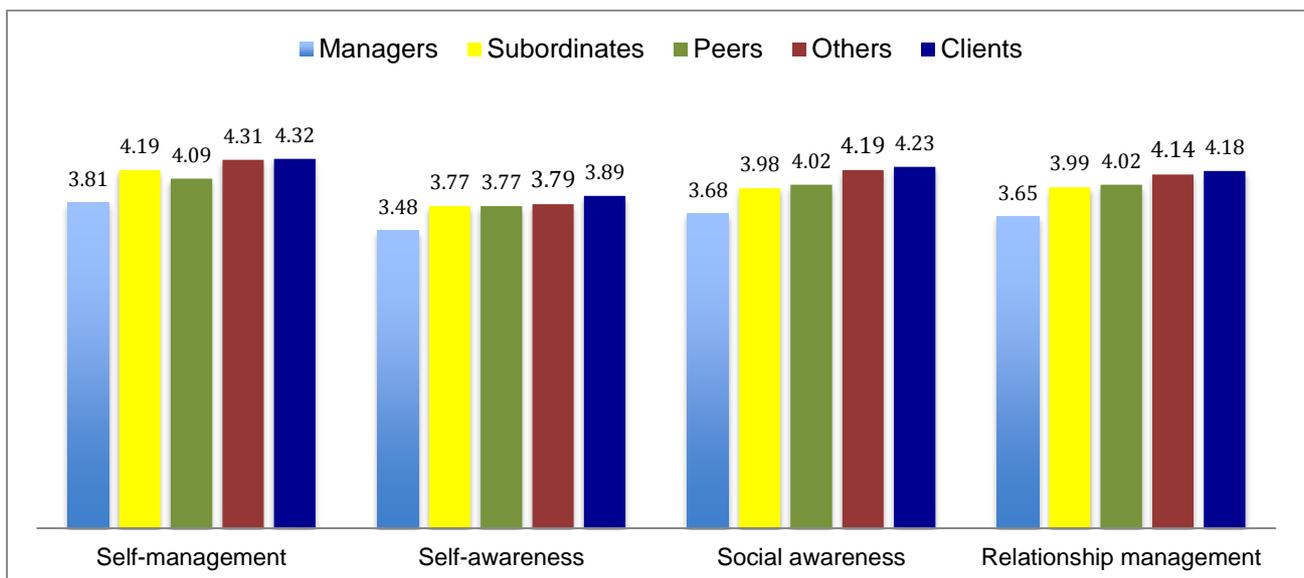
Figure 9. Graphical illustration of the mean EI cluster scores for the five respondent groups.

ESCI competencies scores per respondent rater group

The individual competency mean scores for each rater group are presented in Table 28. The following salient patterns were observed when comparing the mean scores and standard deviations of the EI competencies across the five rater groups:

- All respondent groups consistently rated the achievement orientation (ACH) competency the highest.

- When comparing the others rater groups' second- and third-highest competency mean scores, teamwork (TW) was rated by all five groups, positive outlook (PO) by three groups, and organisational awareness (OA) by two groups.

Table 28. ESCI mean competency scores and standard deviations for all respondent rater groups.

ESCI Competencies	Managers (n = 28)		Subordinates (n = 70)		Peers (n = 65)		Others (n = 37)		Clients (n = 30)	
	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.
Achievement orientation	3.94	0.61	4.3	0.51	4.32	0.41	4.48	0.43	4.61	0.29
Adaptability	3.73	0.58	4.13	0.48	4.02	0.44	4.23	0.51	4.17	0.30
Emotional self-control	3.69	0.81	4.08	0.59	3.91	0.60	4.28	0.57	4.11	0.43
Positive outlook	3.89	0.69	4.26	0.49	4.12	0.44	4.27	0.56	4.38	0.39
Emotional self-awareness	3.48	0.56	3.77	0.6	3.77	0.44	3.79	0.61	3.89	0.42
Empathy	3.57	0.53	3.85	0.59	3.89	0.57	4.07	0.60	4.12	0.41
Organisational awareness	3.79	0.61	4.10	0.50	4.15	0.49	4.31	0.44	4.34	0.30
Coach and mentor	3.54	0.69	3.82	0.54	3.90	0.46	4.01	0.50	4.03	0.43
Conflict management	3.58	0.62	3.93	0.60	4.05	0.53	4.10	0.68	4.16	0.44
Inspirational leadership	3.70	0.75	4.03	0.58	4.07	0.52	4.24	0.53	4.22	0.53
Influence	3.59	0.53	3.94	0.53	3.85	0.48	3.98	0.45	4.05	0.30
Teamwork	3.85	0.72	4.23	0.55	4.22	0.50	4.4	0.53	4.45	0.39

- The above-mentioned four highest rated competencies (ACH, TW, PO, and OA) also had the highest total mean scores; and the first three (ACH, TW, and PO) competencies were similar to the self-raters' highest mean competency scores.

- All respondent groups consistently rated the emotional self-awareness (ESA) competency the lowest.

- When comparing the respondent groups' second- and third-lowest competency mean scores, coach and mentor (C&M) was rated by four groups, influence (INF) by three groups and empathy (EMP) by two groups. C&M also had the highest competency gap.

- The above four lowest-rated competencies also had the lowest total mean scores and three of these competencies (ESA, INF, and EMP) were similar to the self-raters' lowest mean competency scores.

- The mean standard deviation (i.e. the amount of variation in the EI competency scores from the mean score) for all 12 competencies was the largest for the managers group (0.64), i.e. on average, the scores were farther away from the mean, and the lowest for the Clients group (0.39), i.e. on average, the scores were closer to the mean. The three other groups had very similar SDs (0.49–0.53). Emotional self-control (ESC) (0.60) and inspirational leadership (IL) (0.58) showed the highest mean standard deviation across all rater groups and achievement orientation (0.45) the smallest variation.

ESCI Total Others' cluster and competencies scores

The descriptive statistics for the total others' ESCI scores (i.e. the aggregate mean of the five respondents groups' mean scores) are presented below in Table 29.

The overall mean EI score for the total other raters (n = 230) was 3.93.

Table 29. ESCI descriptive statistics for total others' ratings (n = 230).

		Total Others' ESCI Ratings (n = 230)			
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Min.**	**Max.**
	Overall EI	3.93	0.36	3.3	4.5
Clusters of competencies					
Emotional intelligence	Self-management	4.10	0.36	2.9	4.7
	Self-awareness	3.70	0.39	2.5	4.3
Social intelligence	Social awareness	3.97	0.39	2.8	4.5
	Relationship management	3.95	0.37	2.7	4.5
Competencies					
Self-management	Achievement orientation	4.29	0.38	3.1	4.8
	Adaptability	4.02	0.37	3.1	4.7
	Emotional self-control	3.94	0.52	2.4	4.7
	Positive Outlook	4.15	0.41	2.9	4.9
Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	3.70	0.39	2.5	4.3
Social awareness	Empathy	3.84	0.45	2.5	4.7
	Organisational awareness	4.10	0.39	3.0	4.7
Relationship management	Coach and mentor	3.79	0.41	2.5	4.5
	Conflict management	3.93	0.41	2.8	4.8
	Inspirational leadership	4.01	0.44	2.6	4.8
	Influence	3.83	0.33	3.1	4.6
	Teamwork	4.17	0.45	2.6	4.8

Total Others' EI clusters scores

Figure 10 illustrates that of the four EI clusters, self-awareness recorded the lowest mean score (3.70), and the second-lowest minimum competency rank score of 2.5; whereas, self-management had the highest mean score (4.10) – a mean difference of 0.4. The Relationship management

(3.95) and social awareness (3.97) clusters recorded similar second-highest mean scores, marginally lower than the self-management cluster.
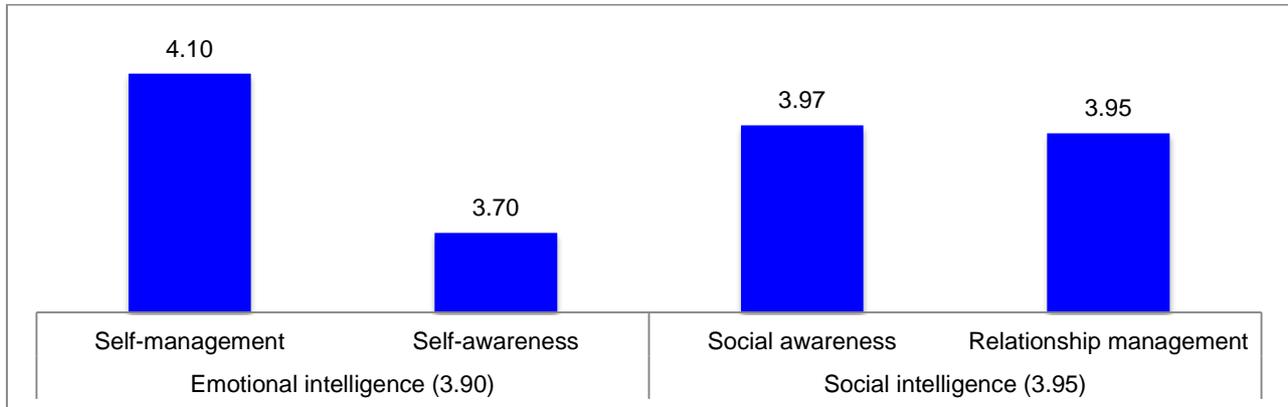
Figure 10. Emotional and social clusters scores for total others raters.

The overall mean emotional intelligence score (self-management and self-awareness clusters) was 3.90, while the mean social intelligence score (social awareness and relationship management clusters) was 3.96, as presented in Figure 10, above. Though the latter intelligence score is fractionally higher, there is no significant difference between the scores. As both forms of inter- and intra-personal intelligences are equally important, the closeness of these scores is noteworthy.

Total Others' EI competencies scores

The total others' EI competency scores are presented in Table 29 above and Figure 11 below. The competencies with the highest mean scores were achievement orientation (4.29), teamwork (4.17), positive outlook (4.15), and organisational awareness (4.10). In contrast, the following competencies had the lowest mean scores: emotional self-awareness (3.70), coach and mentor (3.79), influence (3.83), and empathy (3.84).
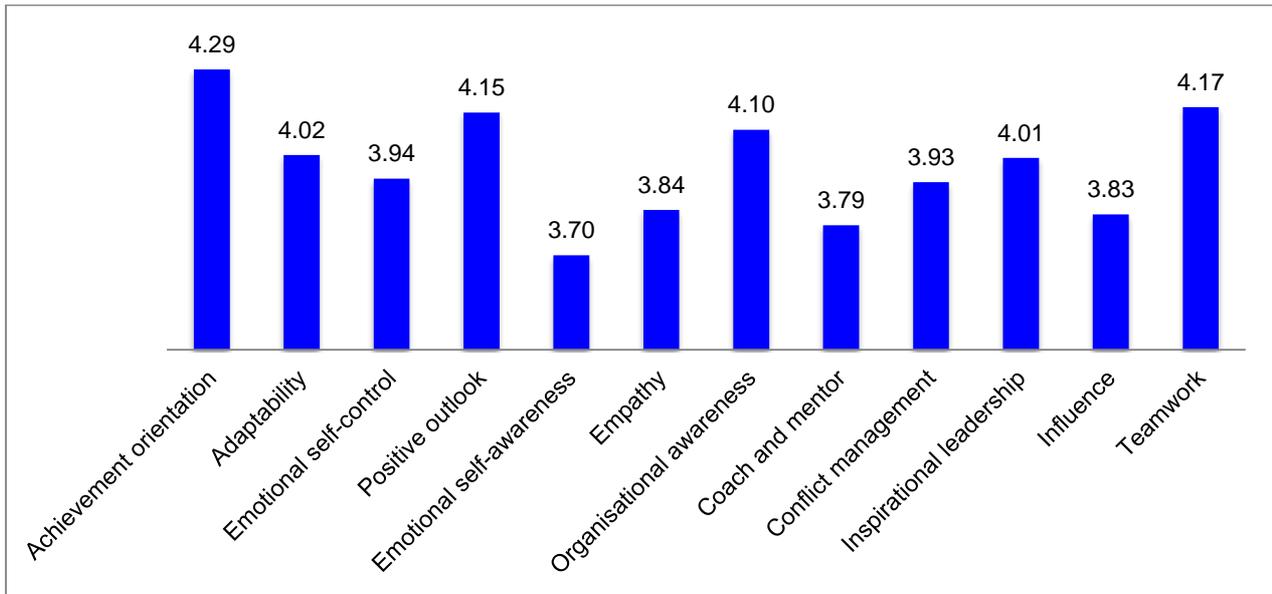
Figure 11. Total Others' ESCI mean scores for the 12 competencies (n = 230).

Emotional self-control had the lowest rank score (2.4). None of participants received the maximum rank score of 5 for any of the competencies.

ESCI Strengths

The norm group for the ESCI used in the current study represents a sample of 4 014 individuals and 42 092 respondents (Hay Group, 2014). When the total others' score matches or exceeds 85% of the scale, the competency is considered a strength.

The descriptive statistics for the number of strengths exhibited by the participants in the current study were analysed, and are presented in Table 30, and in comparison with an analysis of 4 322 participants who had completed the ESCI in 2009 based on the Hay Group's database (Havers, 2010). The Hay Group data analysis results presented below excludes participants who received between 4 – 8 EI strengths.

Table 30. Comparison of ESCI strengths and emotional self-awareness.

Number of Strengths	Hay Group (2009) Participants (n = 4 322)	Current Study	
		Participants (n = 35)	Self-awareness Mean Score
0	20%	20% (7)	3.4
3 or fewer (incl. 0)	52%	60% (21)	3.5
9 or more	16%	11% (4)	4.2

Note: Number of participants in brackets.

In the current study, 20% of the participants had no strengths, 60% had three or fewer strengths, and 11% had 9 or more strengths. Table 30 also shows that the participants with the highest number of EI strengths (nine or more) had a significantly higher Emotional self-awareness mean score (4.2) compared to the 60% (3.5) with fewer strengths (3 or fewer).

7.4.2.3 Comparison of the Self-raters and Total Others' EI Scores

On its own, EI self-ratings do not provide valid and reliable measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour, as evidence indicates a significant difference between self- and other ratings (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010; Hay Group, 2011). In this section, comparisons will be made between the self-raters and total others' EI scores. The mean differences, i.e. the measure of the difference of the mean scores of the self-raters and total others raters, for the overall EI, clusters and competencies, were calculated and presented in tables and figures below.

The descriptive statistics for the two rater groups and EI mean score difference are presented in Table 31. A significant difference in means was noted between the managers/supervisors EI ratings and the other four rating groups, as well as self-ratings. As the sample size of the supervisors was small (i.e. 12%) relative to the other rating groups, no significant effect was expected on the overall EI mean scores. For the purpose of the quantitative analysis, only the aggregate mean EI score of all five groups was utilised (referred to as "total others").

Table 31. Comparative ESCI descriptive statistics and mean difference for Self- and Total Others' ratings.

		Self (n = 35)		Total Others (n = 230)		Mean Difference
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Mean**	**Std. Dev.**	
	Overall EI	4,19	0,305	3,93	0,356	0,26
	Clusters of competencies					
Emotional intelligence	Self-management	4,33	0,293	4,1	0,362	0,23
	Self-awareness	3,97	0,524	3,7	0,388	0,27
Social intelligence	Social awareness	4,18	0,400	3,97	0,394	0,21
	Relationship management	4,28	0,347	3,95	0,371	0,34
	Competencies					
Self-management	Achievement orientation	4,64	0,415	4,29	0,381	0,35
	Adaptability	4,21	0,419	4,02	0,367	0,19
	Emotional self-control	4,07	0,403	3,94	0,518	0,13
	Positive outlook	4,41	0,393	4,15	0,408	0,26
Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	3,97	0,524	3,70	0,388	0,27
Social awareness	Empathy	4,07	0,423	3,84	0,449	0,23
	Organisational awareness	4,29	0,448	4,10	0,385	0,19
Relationship management	Coach and mentor	4,25	0,455	3,79	0,413	0,46
	Conflict management	4,35	0,488	3,93	0,405	0,42
	Inspirational leadership	4,46	0,457	4,01	0,443	0,45
	Influence	3,90	0,446	3,83	0,327	0,07
	Teamwork	4,45	0,405	4,17	0,450	0,28

Comparison of EI Clusters' Mean Difference

The difference between the self- (4.19) and total others- (3.93) raters' overall aggregate EI competencies scores was 0.26, as presented in Table 31 above. The self-raters' overall score was marginally higher. Figure 12 illustrates the two rater groups' cluster scores. The cluster with the highest EI score, for both groups, was self-management. Conversely, the lowest cluster score was

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for Self-awareness. Interestingly, both these clusters belong to the emotional intelligence dimension. The clusters of the social intelligence dimension – social awareness and relationship management – for each rater group, shows a close correspondence in their scores.
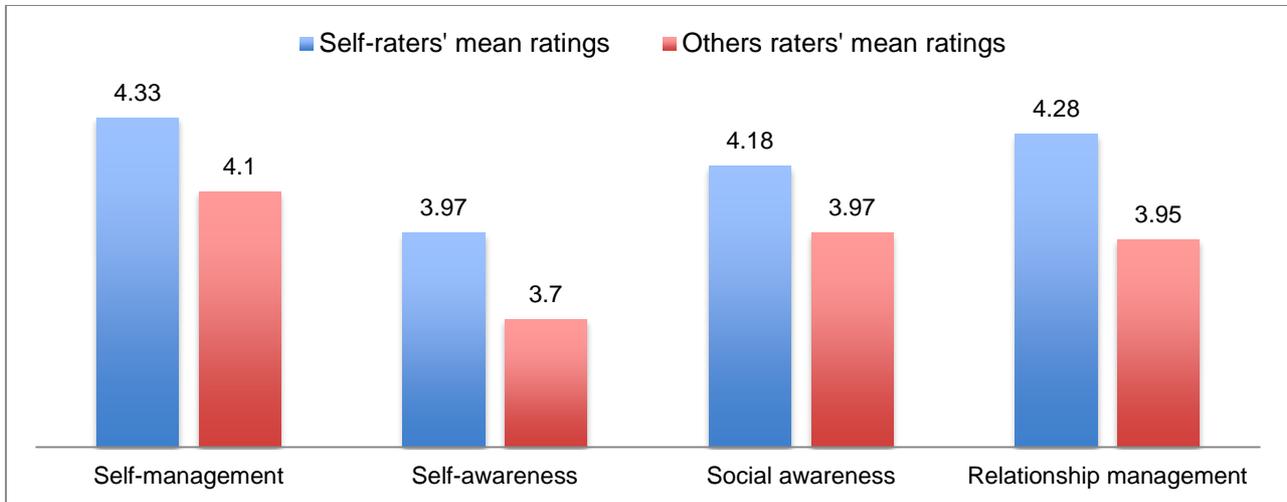
Figure 12. Comparison of the self-raters and total others raters' cluster scores.

Based on the four clusters' mean scores, the overall aggregate scores for the emotional intelligence and social intelligence dimensions were calculated. The overall EI dimension score for self-raters (4.15) compared to the other raters (3.90) was marginally higher. Similarly, the SI dimension score for the self-raters at 4.23 was slightly higher compared to the total others raters' 3.96.

Figure 13 illustrates the mean difference for the four clusters between the two rater groups.
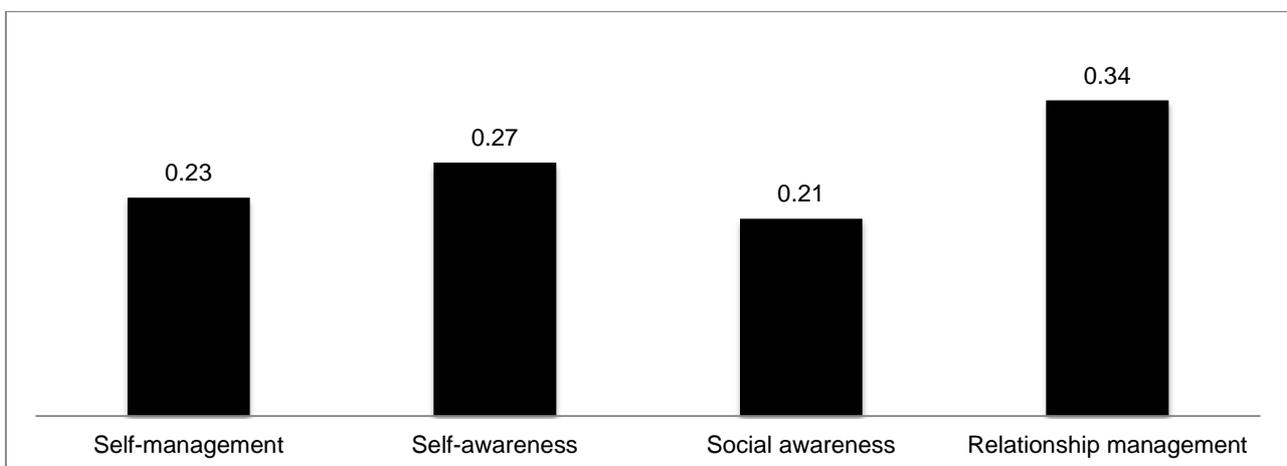
Figure 13. EI mean difference for the four clusters between the self- and total others rater groups

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While the relationship management (RM) cluster had the largest mean difference (0.34), and the social awareness (0.21) cluster the lowest mean difference, the difference between these two is relatively low (0.13). Similarly, the difference between the other two clusters' mean difference, and in contrast with the highest and lowest mean difference, is marginal. The RM mean difference was influenced by the cluster's three competencies, which had the highest overall mean difference. Furthermore, a marginal difference exists in the mean difference for the dimensions of EI (0.25) and SI (0.28).

Comparison of EI Competencies Mean Difference

Table 31 above and Figure 14 below demonstrates that three relationship management cluster competencies, namely coach and mentor (0.46), inspirational leadership (0.45), and conflict management (0.42) had the highest mean difference, i.e. a low level of agreement between the self- and other raters' mean scores. In contrast, the competencies of influence (0.07) and emotional self-control (0.13) showed the lowest mean difference, i.e. a high level of agreement between the two groups' mean scores. Achievement orientation (0.35) had the fourth-largest mean difference. The other seven competencies had a mean difference that ranged from 0.19 to 0.28.
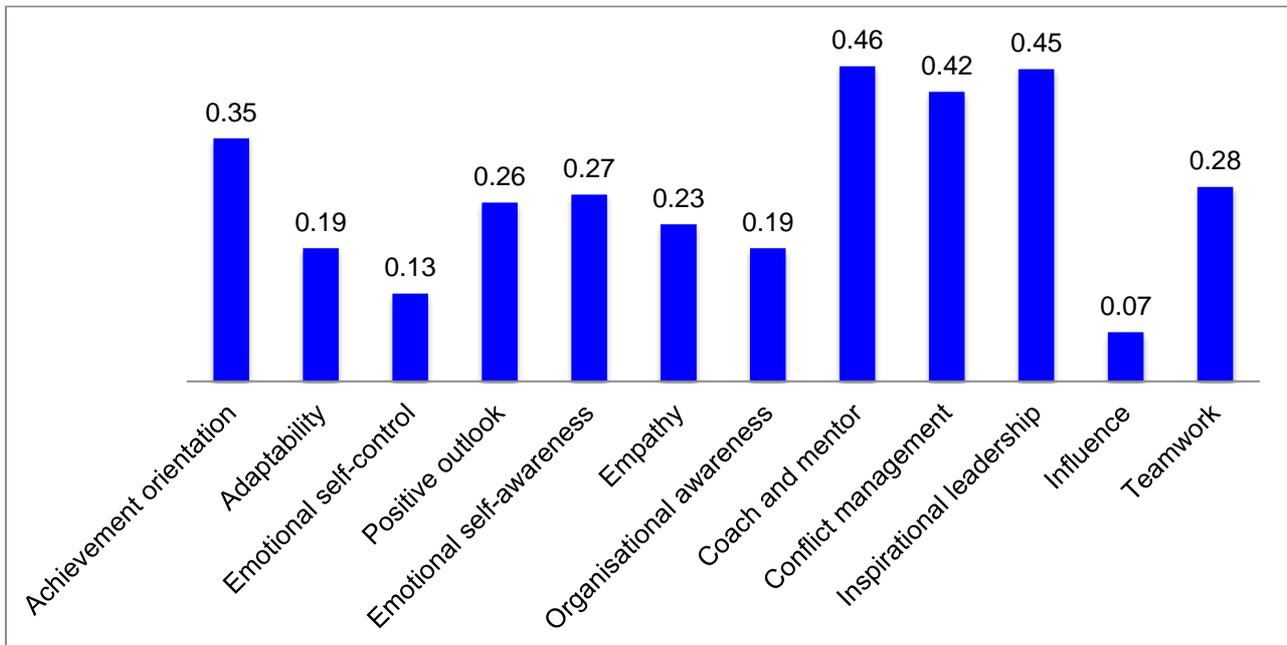
Figure 14. EI mean difference between self- and total others raters for the 12 competencies.

Highest and lowest mean-competency score agreement

When comparing the self- and total other groups' four highest EI competencies mean scores, achievement orientation, teamwork and positive outlook, are common to both groups. These competencies are considered as strengths or well developed. Conversely, the comparison of the four lowest EI competencies mean scores revealed that emotional self-awareness, influence, and empathy had the smallest EI competencies mean scores for both groups. The latter competencies are considered less developed and may require further development. Figure 15, below, illustrates the rating agreements between self- and others raters.
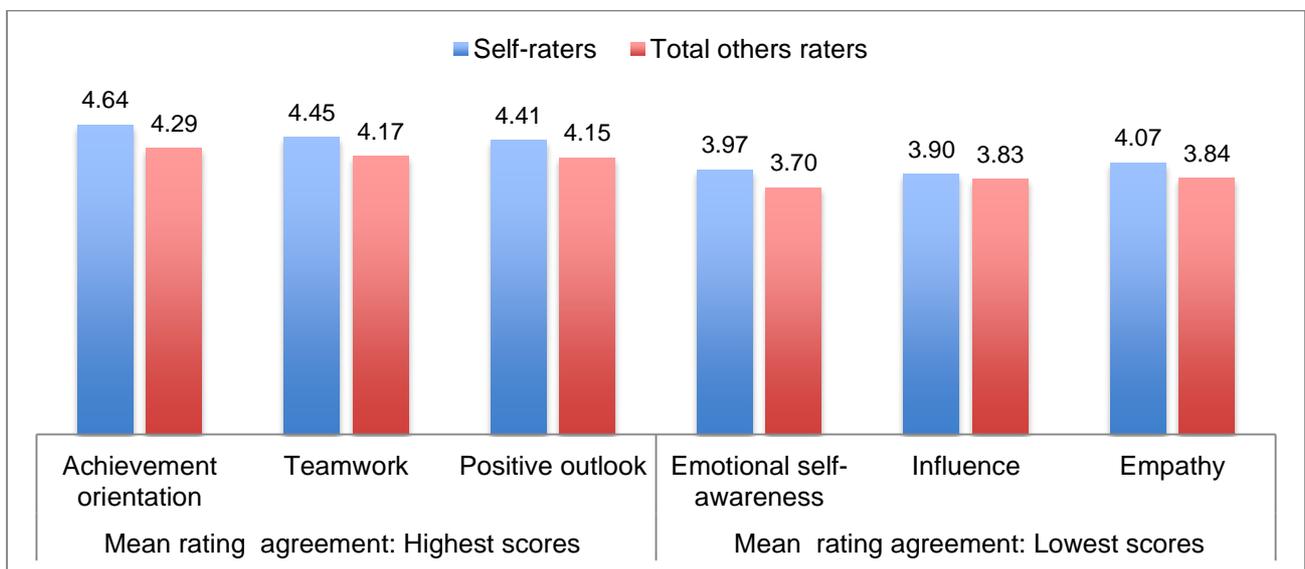
Figure 15. Highest and lowest mean ESCI score agreement between the self- and total others' ratings.

7.5   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Descriptive quantitative research was utilised to establish, in the South African context, and validate from other contexts, the relationship between two variables, namely EI competencies and leadership performance. The intent was to contribute to existing theories and methodologies, and also to put them into practice. In the last two sections, the descriptive data for the two variables was presented.

This section will address the five research questions and associated hypotheses in understanding the nature of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance among

executive management leaders, within a South African public service institution. A brief description of the quantitative statistical tools utilised to test each hypothesis is presented.

As a correlation between two variables is a measure of effect size, the strength of the correlation could be described for the absolute values. Effect size measures the magnitude of the difference between two groups. A large absolute value implies a stronger effect. In the current study, statistical significance levels and strength for correlations were interpreted by employing Fisher and Yates' (in Gay, Mills and Airasian, 2006: 566) table on values of the correlation coefficient for different levels of significance. The following r and p values are required for a sample size of 35:

Strong relationship: r-values: $\geq$ 0.55, at $p < 0.001$;

Moderate relationship: r-values: 0.44–0.54, at $p < 0.01$; and,

Weak relationship: r-values: 0.32–0.43, at $p < 0.05$.

7.5.1   RESEARCH QUESTION 1

Does a relationship exist between EI and leadership performance among public service executive managers?

H_1: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence and leadership performance.

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to test hypothesis H_1. The participants' total others' (n = 230) EI scores were utilised for the correlation test. This correlation technique is a non-parametric measure of statistical dependence between two variables. It is utilised to determine the strength and direction of the bivariate linear relationship, using a monotonic function (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010) – in this case, leadership performance and emotional intelligence competence.

A strong positive and statistically significant correlation ($r = 0.56$; $p < 0.001$) was found between the overall relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance of executive managers in a public service setting. Based on this result, hypothesis H_1 is accepted.

For the full results of the Spearman rank correlation coefficients and the levels of significance for the relationship between leadership performance and emotional intelligence competence, refer to Tables 9 and 10 below.

7.5.2   RESEARCH QUESTION 2

What is the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance?

This overall question will be addressed through responding to three research hypotheses, relating, firstly, to EI clusters; secondly, EI competencies; and lastly, high- and low-performing leaders EI differences.

$H_{2.1}$: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence cluster mean scores and leadership performance nominations.

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to test hypothesis H_2. Table 32 and Figure 16 displays the correlation coefficient values for the four clusters. Strong to moderate positive and significant correlations exist between each of the four EI clusters and leadership performance. The self-awareness ($r = 0.58$), self-management ($r = 0.55$) and relationship management ($r = 0.54$) clusters displayed significantly strong ($p < 0.001$) correlations with leadership performance. Conversely, the social awareness ($r = 0.43$) cluster showed a moderate ($p < 0.01$) relationship.

Table 32. Result of Spearman's correlation to determine the relationship between leadership performance and EI clusters.

		Spearman Correlations (r)	Correlation strength
Clusters of competencies			
Emotional intelligence	Self-management	0.55**	Strong
	Self-awareness	0.58**	Strong
Social intelligence	Social awareness	0.43*	Moderate
	Relationship management	0.54**	Strong

Notes: * correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed); ** correlation is significant at the $p < 0.001$ level (2-tailed); ns = not significant.

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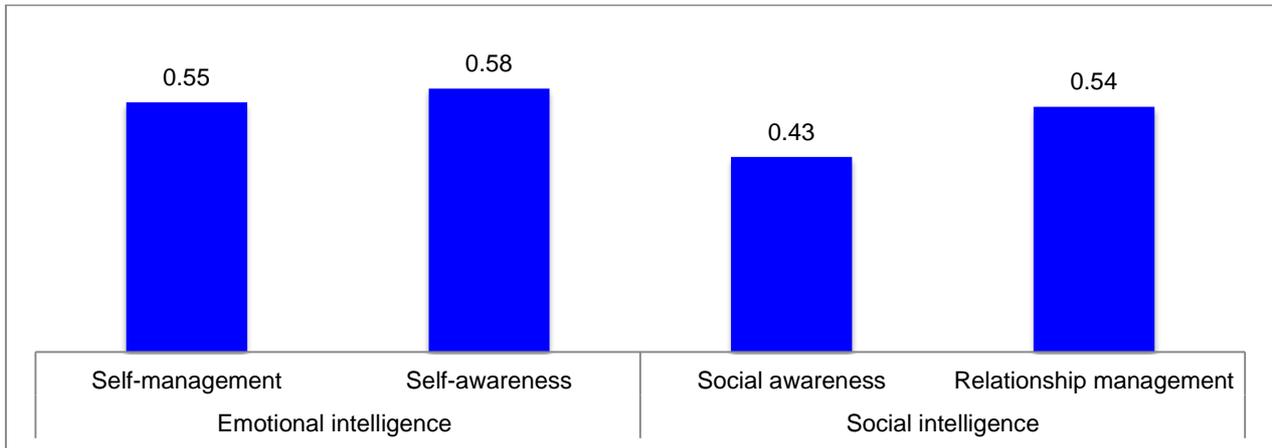
Figure 16. Spearman's correlation for the relationship between leadership performance and EI clusters.

Based on the above results, reasonable statistical evidence exists to accept hypothesis $H_{2.1}$, and to conclude that the correlation effect sizes differ among the four clusters.

$H_{2.2}$: A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between each emotional intelligence competency mean score and leadership performance nominations.

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to test hypothesis $H_{2.2}$. Table 33 and Figure 17 below demonstrates the correlation coefficients between the 12 EI competencies and performance. Ten EI competencies showed a positive and highly significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation effect sizes with leadership performance, ranging from moderate to strong. As the correlation strength for Empathy was at the uppermost value of the weak range (0.39), it is considered to have a moderate effect size with performance. It also displayed a positive and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation. Emotional Self-control was the only competency that did not show a significant ($p > 0.05$) association with performance, though it did show a weak and positive association.

Table 33. Result of Spearman's correlation to determine the relationship between leadership performance and EI competencies.

	Competencies	Spearman Correlations (r)	Correlation strength
Self-management	Achievement orientation	0.48**	Moderate
	Adaptability	**0.64*****	**Strong**
	Emotional self-control	0.31 ns	Weak
	Positive outlook	**0.55*****	**Strong**
Self-awareness	**Emotional self-awareness**	**0.58*****	**Strong**
Social awareness	Empathy	0.39*	Weak
	Organisational awareness	0.43**	Moderate
Relationship management	Coach and mentor	0.48**	Moderate
	Conflict management	0.47**	Moderate
	Inspirational leadership	**0.61*****	**Strong**
	Influence	0.50**	Moderate
	Teamwork	0.48**	Moderate

Notes: *Correlation is significant at the $p < 0.05$ level (2-tailed); ** correlation is significant at the $p < 0.01$ level (2-tailed); *** correlation is significant at the $p < 0.001$ level (2-tailed); ns = not significant.

The following competency-specific correlations with performance were noted:

- Two competencies – adaptability (ADA) (r = 0.64), a self-management cluster competency, and inspirational leadership (IL) (r = 0.61), a relationship management cluster competency, displayed a strong, positive and highly significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation with leadership performance. Emotional self-awareness (r = 0.58) had the third-largest positive and significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation effect size with leadership performance.

- A moderate, positive, and highly significant ($p < 0.01$) correlation was noted between seven individual competencies and leadership performance, namely in descending order of effect size magnitude: positive outlook (r = 0.55), influence (r = 0.50), teamwork (r = 0.48), coach and mentor (r = 0.48), achievement orientation (r = 0.48), conflict management (r = 0.47) and organisational awareness (r = 0.43).
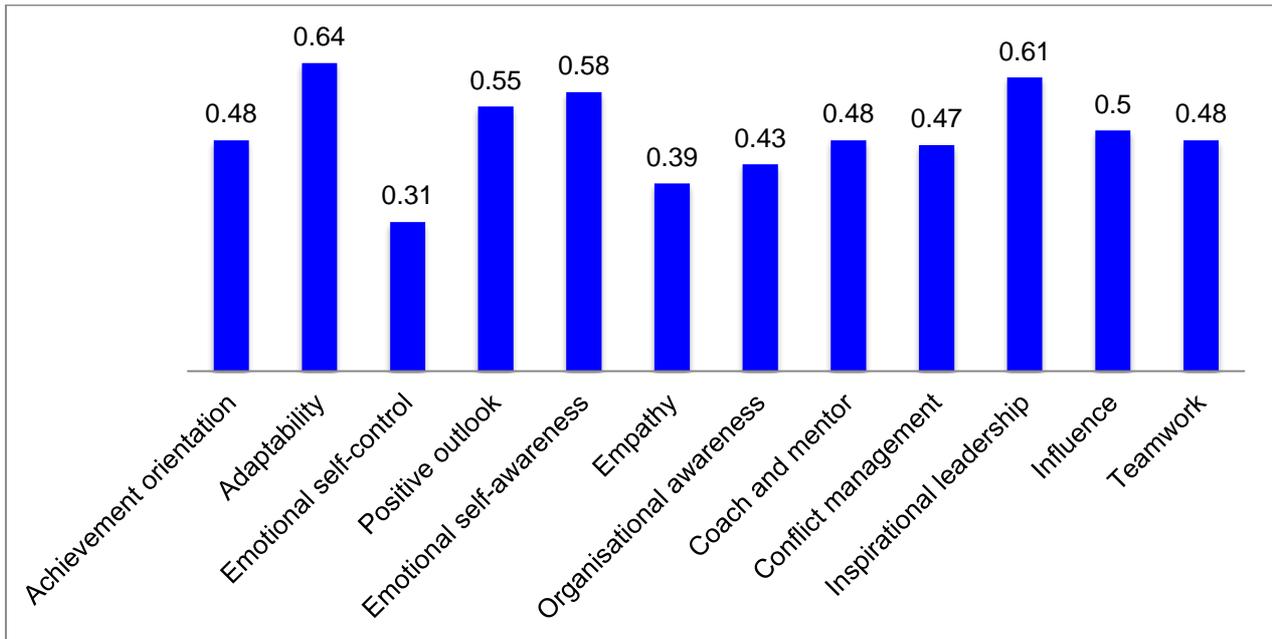
Figure 17. Graphical representation of Spearman correlations on the relationship between leadership performance and their EI competencies.

- A relatively moderate, positive ($r = 0.39$) and significant ($p < 0.05$) correlation exists between the competency of empathy and leadership performance.

- The relationship between emotional self-control and leadership performance was not significant ($p > 0.05$), though a positive and weak effect was noted ($r = 0.31$).

Based on the above results, reasonable statistical evidence exists to accept hypothesis $H_{2.2}$ for eleven competencies and to conclude that positive, strong to moderate, and significant relationship exists between eleven emotional intelligence competencies and leadership performance among executive management leaders in the public service organisation. However, as the relationship between emotional self-control and leadership performance was not significant, hypothesis $H_{2.2}$ was not confirmed for this competency.

$H_{2.3}$: A statistically significant difference exists between the EI competency scores of high- and low-performing executive managers.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilised to test hypothesis $H_{2.3}$. Two sub-samples were extracted from the total sample of executive managers, based on their performance nomination scores: the top 35% ($n = 12$) and the bottom 35% ($n = 12$).

The descriptive statistics for their performance scores are presented in Table 34 below. The high performers' mean performance score was twenty, while the low performers' mean score was three – a significant difference of seventeen nominations. The highest number of nominations received by the high performers was 32, while the low performers obtained 5. The lowest number of nominations received by the high performers was 14, while the low performers recorded zero nominations.

Table 34. Descriptive statistics of leadership performance nomination scores for high- and low-performing managers.

Level of Performance	Performance Nomination Scores				
	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	Highest	Lowest
Total	24	11.50	9.86	32	0
High Performers	12	20.33	5.43	32	14
Low Performers	12	2.67	1.88	5	0

The high and low performers' total others mean EI descriptive statistics are presented in Table 35 below:

Table 35. Descriptive statistics for high- and low-performing leaders others' ESCI scores.

Level of Performance	ESCI Total Others Ratings		
	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
Total	180	4.00	0.38
High Performance	102	4.26	0.18
Low Performance	78	3.73	0.35

The EI descriptive statistics and ANOVA results for both groups are presented in Table 36 below. The ANOVA analysis (EI mean differences between the top and low performers) yielded statistically significant effects at $p < 0.01$ for the overall EI score, four clusters and eleven EI competencies, and at $p < 0.05$ for emotional self-control. The F-values ranged from 5.45 to 29.04.

Overall, the high-performing leaders' EI mean scores were significantly higher. Self-awareness displayed the largest mean cluster difference (0.58), whereas social awareness showed the smallest difference (0.47). The self-management (0.53) and relationship management (0.54) mean differences were very similar.

Table 36. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results for EI competencies total others' scores for high- and low-performing leaders.

		Leadership Performance					
		High (n = 12)		Low (n = 12)		Mean Difference	F-value
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.		
	Overall EI	4.26	0.18	3.73	0.35	0.53	22.16**
Emotional intelligence	*Clusters of competencies*						
	Self-management	4.36	0.20	3.84	0.37	0.53	18.89**
	Self-awareness	4.03	0.16	3.46	0.34	0.58	28.05**
Social intelligence	Social awareness	4.21	0.24	3.74	0.38	0.47	13.17**
	Relationship management	4.24	0.18	3.7	0.35	0.54	22.75**
	Competencies						
Self-management	Achievement orientation	4.51	0.22	4.03	0.43	0.47	11.47**
	Adaptability	4.33	0.26	3.73	0.31	0.61	29.04**
	Emotional self-control	4.18	0.43	3.72	0.54	0.47	5.45*
	Positive outlook	4.44	0.25	3.88	0.41	0.57	16.48**
Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	4.03	0.16	3.46	0.34	0.58	28.05**
Social awareness	Empathy	4.09	0.39	3.63	0.43	0.47	7.83**
	Organisational awareness	4.33	0.19	3.86	0.35	0.47	16.60**
Relationship management	Coach and mentor	4.11	0.24	3.53	0.39	0.58	19.10**
	Conflict management	4.19	0.25	3.74	0.41	0.45	10.70**
	Inspirational leadership	4.37	0.24	3.69	0.39	0.67	26.43**
	Influence	4.07	0.26	3.65	0.2	0.42	19.15**
	Teamwork	4.44	0.318	3.88	0.46	0.57	12.28**

Notes: *Correlation is significant at the p < .05 level (2-tailed); ** correlation is significant at the p < .01 level (2-tailed).

With the largest significant mean difference (0.67), inspirational leadership distinguished top-performing leaders from their low-performing counterparts. Similarly, five other competencies, namely adapatability (0.61), coach and mentor (0.58), emotional self-awareness (0.58), positive outlook (0.57) and teamwork (0.57), displayed large mean differences and represents EI competencies that distinctly separate the top and low performers. The EI mean differences for all 12 competencies are illustrated graphically in Figure 18 below.
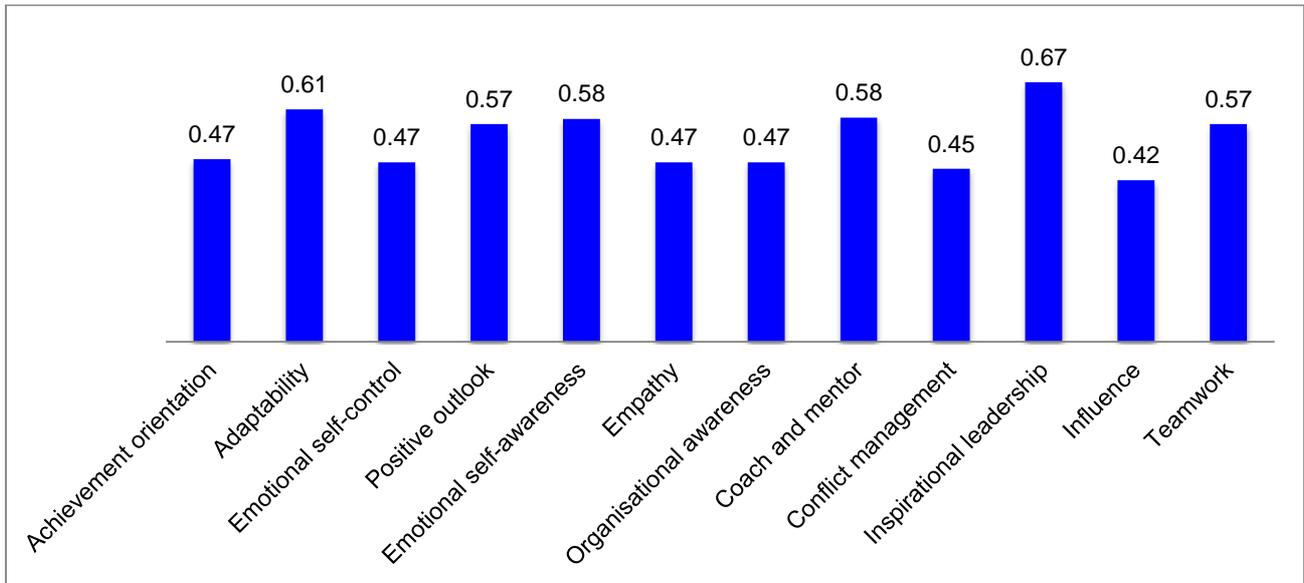
Figure 18. Difference in EI competencies scores between high- and low-performing leaders.

Based on the above results, statistically significant differences were established between the EI competencies of high- and low-performing leaders; therefore, hypothesis H2.3 is confirmed.

7.5.3   RESEARCH QUESTION 3

What is the nature of the relationship between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance?

This overall question will be addressed through responding to three research hypotheses: firstly, ANOVA results comparing the EI mean scores among the self-raters and all five respondent rater groups; secondly, correlation between the EI competency gap (self-other agreement ratings) and leadership performance; and, thirdly, the competency gap between high- and low-preforming leaders.

H3.1: Statistically significant differences exist between the mean emotional intelligence scores of the different rater groups, i.e. self, managers, subordinates, peers, customers and others.

This hypothesis was tested: firstly, using the analysis of variance (ANOVA) results comparing the ESCI mean scores among the self-raters and all five respondent rater groups; and, secondly, using the Fisher's least significant difference test (LSD) pairwise comparisons among all six rater groups.

The sample size for each rater group was as follows: self (n = 35), managers (n = 28), subordinates (n = 70), peers (n = 65), clients (n = 30) and others (n = 37).

7.5.3.1 ANOVA comparison of all rater groups' mean EI scores

The EI mean scores among the different rater groups (for participant, and their respondent raters, namely self, managers, subordinates, peers, customers and others) were compared using the one-way ANOVA. ANOVA is used to examine differences among the means of a number of groups or variables by comparing the variances, both within and across groups (Leedy & Omrod, 2010: 282). The overall EI mean scores and standard deviations statistics are shown in Table 37 below. The ANOVA yielded a significant effect among the six rater groups EI mean scores with $F_{(5.105)} = 7.1934$, at a high level of significance ($p < 0.01$), graphically represented in Figure 19. When ANOVA leads to a significant value of F (usually taken as $p < 0.05$), then at least one group mean is significantly different from the others. The F-value is the ratio of the average amount of variation between groups and within groups (Williams & Abdi, 2010). Therefore, at least one rater group mean score was significantly different from the others.
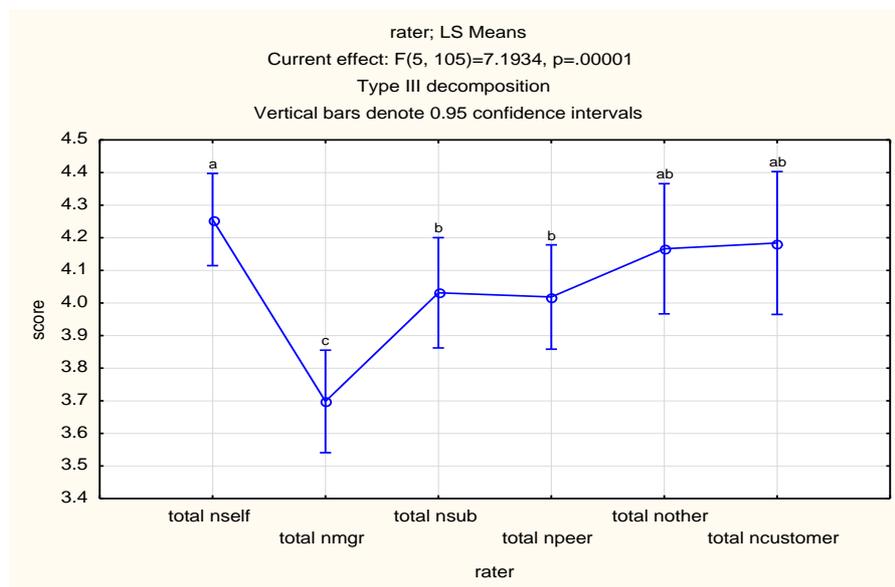
Figure 19. ANOVA results for the mean EI scores from self- and others-rater groups.

Table 37 demonstrates that the self-raters' mean score was the largest (4.26) and, conversely, their managers' mean scores were the lowest (3.70). The subordinates and peers had very similar

mean scores (4.03 and 4.02, respectively), while the other and client groups had closely matched mean scores (4.18 and 4.21, respectively).

Table 37. Descriptive statistics of ESCI overall mean scores for the participant and respondent groups.

Rater Groups	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Total	265	4.05	0.46
Self	35	4.26	0.31
Managers	28	3.70	0.53
Subordinates	70	4.04	0.47
Peers	65	4.02	0.42
Others	37	4.18	0.45
Clients	30	4.21	0.29

7.5.3.2 Least Significant Difference (LSD) Test pairwise comparisons

As the analysis of variance (ANOVA) result was significant, post hoc comparison of means of the various pairs of groups was done, using the Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test.

The LSDs for the six rater groups are presented in Table 38 below. Differences larger than 0.32 are significant at the $p < 0.01$ and differences larger than 0.22 is significant at the $p < 0.05$. Therefore, the following statistically significant differences exist at $p < 0.01$ between the self-raters and managers (0.56), and between the managers group and subordinates (0.33), peers (0.32), others (0.47) and customers (0.49) groups.

Table 38: Least significant difference (LSD) means and significance of pairwise comparisons among the self- and total others rater groups (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01 and ns = not significant).

	Self	Managers	Subordinates	Peers	Others	Clients
Self	0.00	0.56**	0.22*	0.24*	0.09	0.07
Managers		0.00	-0.33**	-0.32**	-0.47**	-0.49**
Subordinates			0.00	0.01	-0.14	-0.15
Peers				0.00	-0.15	-0.17
Others					0.00	-0.18
Clients						0.00

In addition, the following statistically significant differences exist at $p < 0.05$ between self and subordinates (0.22) and peer groups (0.24). These LSDs provide sufficient evidence to conclude

that statistically significant differences exist in the EI mean scores among certain rater groups; therefore, hypothesis H3.1 is largely accepted.

H3.2: A statistically significant negative relationship exists between the executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance.

Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was computed to test the hypothesis. This statistical measure is appropriate, as both variables' scores were presented as ordinal and ranked data. To examine the relationship between the EI competency gap and leadership performance, the descriptive statistics for the gap or self-other agreement (SOA) were calculated and is presented below in Table 39 and graphically in Figure 20. The descriptive statistics for leaders' performance nomination scores was presented at the start of this chapter.

The EI competency gap is defined as the difference between the overall ESCI score of each self-rater (self, n = 35) and the overall ESCI score of their total other raters (n = 230) ESCI scores. Self-ratings alone do not provide valid and reliable measures of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour, as research studies suggest they are inflated compared to others' ratings (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010; Hay Group, 2011).

Table 39. Descriptive statistics of the executive managers' EI competency gap.

	EI Competency Gap						
	Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Highest**	**Lowest**	**Q1**	**Q2**	**Q3**
Executive Managers (n = 35)	0.28	0.52	1.68	- 0.73	-0.04	0.24	0.51

The EI competency gap mean for the executive managers was 0.28 and the range was between 1.68 (the highest) and -0.73 (the lowest). Figure 20 illustrates that 25% of the gap scores were below -0.04, with a median of 0.24 (50% below median), and 25% were above 0.51.
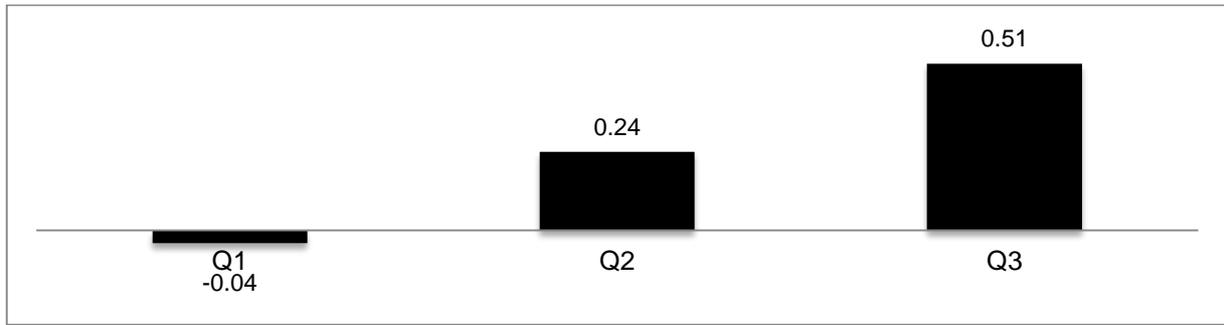
Figure 20. EI competency gap quartiles.

In the current study, a moderate, negative (r = -0.47) and significant (p < 0.01) correlation between the leaders' EI competency gap and their leadership performance was recorded and is illustrated in Figure 21 below. Based on this statistical evidence, it is reasonable to accept hypothesis $H_{3.2}$ as valid.
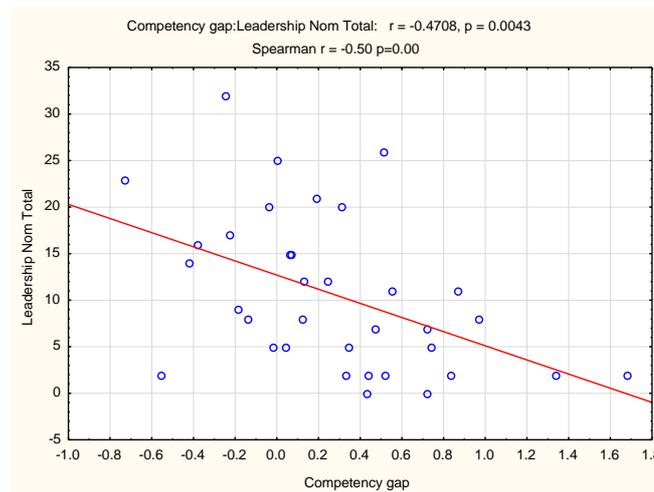
Figure 21.Scatter-plot of the relationship between the leaders' EI competency gap and their leadership performance (p < 0.01, 2-tailed).

$H_{3.3}$: *A statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high- and low-performing executive managers.*

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was utilised to test the hypothesis**.** The sample of low (n = 12) and high (n = 12) performing leaders, used to test hypothesis 3.3 above, was utilised. The descriptive statistics for these two sub-groups and their self and others total EI ratings are presented in Table 40 below. The low-performing leaders' overall mean self-EI score (4.35) was higher than that of their high-performing colleagues (4.18). Conversely, the latter sub-group was

rated higher (4.26) by the total other respondent groups, than the low-performing leaders (3.73).

<p align="center">Table 40. Descriptive statistics for high-and low-performing leaders self and total others ESCI scores.</p>

Level of Performance	ESCI Leaders' Self-ratings			ESCI Total Others' Ratings		
	n	Mean	Std. Dev.	n	Mean	Std. Dev.
Total	24	4.26	0.31	180	4.00	0.38
High Performance	12	4.18	0.30	102	4.26	0.18
Low Performance	12	4.35	0.31	78	3.73	0.35

The EI competency gap (self-other agreement) is the difference between the participants' total self-scores and others' scores for all 12 EI competencies. The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 41 below. The mean competency gap for the high-performing leaders was -0.08 and for the low-performing leaders was 0.62.

<p align="center">Table 41. Descriptive statistics for the competency gap between high- and low-performing leaders.</p>

Level of Performance	Competency Gap			
	Mean	Std. Dev.	High	Low
Total	0.27	0.55	1.68	- 0.74
High Performance	-0.08	0.36	0.51	- 0.74
Low Performance	0.62	0.50	1.68	- 0.03

The ANOVA result for the EI competency gap between these two groups of leaders revealed an F-value (1.22) = 15.81 at p < 0.01 level of significance. Therefore, sufficient evidence is available to conclude that a statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high- and low-performing leaders. Accordingly, hypothesis $H_{3.3}$ was accepted.

In addition to the ANOVA results above showing a significant difference exists between the competency gap between top and low performers, Table 42 indicates that leaders with a higher mean Emotional Self-awareness score had smaller mean EI competency gaps and higher mean performance nomination scores.

<p align="center">Table 42. Mean differences between the top and bottom 12 ESCI emotional self-awareness score, EI competency gap and performance nominations.</p>

	Emotional Self-awareness Mean Score	Mean EI Competency Gap	Performance Mean Score
Top 12	4,08	-0,16	17,92
Bottom 12	3,31	0,74	4,83
Mean Difference	0,77	-0,90	13,08

7.6   SUPPLEMENTARY RESULTS

7.6.1   CONTROL VARIABLES AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The following set of findings examines the relationship between control variables and EI competencies using the data from the set of 35 managers and 230 respondents. The relationship between the control variables, namely age, gender, institutional tenure, and department, and EI competencies was analysed using Spearman's rank correlation and ANOVA. The results showed no statistical significant correlations at $p < 0.05$ and no significant differences of means between the variables. A summary of the results is presented below in Tables 43 and 44.

The leaders' age did not significantly correlate with EI; neither did the number of years employed within the public service institution.

Table 43. Relationship between EI and control variables using Spearman: organisation tenure and age.

Control variable	Emotional Intelligence (Total Others Ratings)		
	Spearman Correlations	Significance Level	Result
Organisation Tenure	-0.25	> 0.05	Weak, negative correlation
			Not significant
Age	-0.07	> 0.05	Weak, negative correlation
			Not significant

The mean EI score was marginally higher for women (3.98) leaders than for men (3.90), though no statistically significant gender difference was found. No significant difference was observed for the EI scores among the three transversal departments.

Table 44. Relationship between EI and control variables using ANOVA: gender and departments.

Control variable	Emotional Intelligence (Total Others Ratings)			
	Mean	ANOVA	Significance Level	Result
Gender	Male: 3.90	$F (1.33) = 2.69$	> 0.05	No significant difference
	Female: 3.98			
Departments		$F (2.30) = 2.69$	> 0.05	No significant difference

7.6.2   CONTROL VARIABLES AND LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

The following set of findings examines the relationship between control variables and leadership performance using the data set of 35 managers and the 317 nominations. The relationship

between control variables (i.e. age, gender, institutional tenure, and department) and leadership performance was analysed using Spearman's rank correlation and ANOVA. The results showed no statistical significant correlations at $p < 0.05$ and no significant differences of means between the variables. A summary of the results is presented below in Tables 45 and 46.

The leaders' age did not significantly correlate with leadership performance; neither did the number of years employed within the public service institution.

Table 45. Relationship between leadership performance and control variables using Spearman: organisation tenure and age.

| Control variable | Leadership Performance | | Result |
	Spearman Correlations	Significance Level	
Organisation Tenure	0.11	> 0.05	Weak, positive correlation
			Not significant
Age	-0.09	> 0.05	Weak, negative correlation
			Not significant

The mean performance nomination score was higher for women (13.64) leaders than for men (8.57), though no statistically significant gender difference was found. No significant difference was observed for the nomination scores among the three transversal departments.

Table 46. Relationship between leadership performance and control variables: gender and departments.

| Control variable | Leadership Performance | | | Result |
	Mean	ANOVA	Significance Level	
Gender	Male: 8.57	F (1.33) = 3.29	> 0.05	No significant difference
	Female: 13.64			
Departments		F (2.30) = 0.09	> 0.05	No significant difference

7.7   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The descriptive quantitative research results conclusively show a significant positive bivariate relationship between EI competence and leadership performance among executive managers in the South African public service. The Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) measured the independent variable of EI competence. In turn, the dependent variable, leadership

performance, was measured by nominations. The results were presented using descriptive statistics, Spearman correlation and ANOVA.

A summary of the results for the three research questions and seven hypotheses is presented in Table 47 below.

Table 47. Summary of findings related to the research questions and hypotheses.

Research Questions	Hypotheses	Confirmed	Not Confirmed
1. Does a relationship exist between EI and leadership performance among public service executive managers?	H1: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence and leadership performance.*	☐	
2. What is the nature of the relationship between EI and leadership performance?	H2.1: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between the executive managers' emotional intelligence cluster mean scores and leadership performance nominations.*	☐	
	H2.2: *A statistically significant and positive relationship exists between each emotional intelligence competency mean score and leadership performance nominations.*	Eleven competencies	Emotional Self-control
	H2.3: *A statistically significant difference exists between the EI competency scores of high- and low-performing executive managers.*	☐	
3. What is the nature of the relationship between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance?	H3.1: *Statistically significant differences exist between the mean emotional intelligence scores of the different rater groups, i.e. self, managers, subordinates, peers, others and clients.*		
	Between self and managers, subordinates, and peers.	☐	
	Between manager and subordinates, peers, others and clients.	☐	
	Between other rater groups.	☐	☐
	H3.2: *A statistically significant negative relationship exists between the executive managers' EI competency gap and leadership performance.*	☐	
	H3.3: *A statistically significant difference exists in the EI competency gap between high and low performing executive managers*	☐☐	

The first objective was to test whether an association between the constructs of emotional intelligence and leadership performance existed among public service leaders. A significant and positive correlation was found, using Spearman correlation, between these two constructs for all four EI clusters and eleven social and emotional competencies, with the exception of one competency (emotional self-control), which did not show a significant relationship with leadership performance.

A number of results were generated for the second objective on the nature of relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance:

- Three EI clusters exhibited a positive, highly significant ($p < 0.001$), and strong ($r > 0.55$) relationships with leadership performance. The social awareness ($r = 0.43$) cluster showed a moderate, positive and significant effect size. The self-awareness ($r = 0.58$) cluster displayed the largest correlation effect size.

- Eleven EI competencies showed a positive and significant correlation effect sizes with leadership performance, ranging from weak to strong. The only exception was emotional self-control, which showed a weak, positive, but not a significant relationship with leadership performance. Adaptability ($r = 0.64$), inspirational leadership ($r = 0.61$), emotional self-awareness ($r = 0.58$) and positive outlook ($r = 0.55$) displayed the strongest relationship with leadership performance. These four competencies may represent predictors of leadership performance.

- The leaders' EI competency gap or self-other agreement (SOA), i.e. the difference between the overall ESCI scores of the self-raters and those of the total other raters, showed a moderate, negative ($r = -0.47$) and significant relationship with leadership performance. This means that as the competency gap of leaders increases, their leadership performance decreases.

- Using ANOVA analysis, a significant difference was found in EI scores between top- and low-performing leaders.

- In addition, using ANOVA analysis, the high- and low-performing leaders showed a significant difference in their EI competency gap. The top performers' competency gap or SOA was

significantly smaller than that of their low-performing counterparts. Smaller competency gaps had a significant positive relationship with both leadership performance and self-awareness.

For the third objective, using ANOVA analysis and Fisher's least significant difference, significant differences were found among the mean EI scores among the five rater groups, and between the leaders' mean EI score. The largest difference in scores was between the participant leaders and their superiors (0.56), while the lowest difference was between the leaders and their subordinates (0.33) and peers (0.32).

The above results support the competency-based behavioural approach to emotional and social intelligence in relation to leadership performance. Furthermore, these results compare favourably with research in other contexts, therefore showing the cross-cultural applicability of the EI competency-based model and the ESCI tool.

In the following chapter, the results from behavioural events interviews (BEI) with a purposive sample of five leaders, from the sample of thirty-five, who achieved the highest ESCI scores (i.e. eight or more EI competency strengths) are presented as three mini case studies and a summary of the key themes from the data analysis of all five leaders' BEI.

CHAPTER 8

PRESENTATION OF BEHAVIOURAL EVENTS QUALITATIVE RESULTS

8.1   INTRODUCTION

The current study is primarily a quantitative enquiry on the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) competency and leadership performance of public service leaders. A qualitative research component was included to gain a deeper understanding of the bivariate relationship between a leader's EI and performance. Qualitative data add a "human touch" to the hard quantitative statistical data and analytical findings, so that they complement each other.   In addition, the instrument used for the quantitative research, the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI), has its limitations.

The ESCI measures the development level of a person's emotional and social competence or capability, indicating what a person can do, though "not necessarily what he or she does, nor does all the time regardless of the situation and setting" (Boyatzis, 1982: 23). To gain an understanding of "what the person does" or the manifestation of EI competencies, a person's actions and behaviour need to be observed. Critical-incident interviews (Yukl, 1994), such as the Behavioural Events Interview (BEI), developed by David McClelland (1975), are considered "especially useful in exploratory research designed to examine specific, situational relevant aspects of managerial behaviour" (Yukl, 1994: 61). Likewise, Spencer and Spencer (1993: 115) argue that only what a person actually does, "in the most critical incidents they have faced, is to be believed."

The BEI method "obtains a sample of the person's actual behaviour in the job" (Boyatzis, 1982: 51). These behaviours could be related to the twelve EI competencies, subsequently adding depth to the quantitative measure of EI competencies (and the results presented in Chapter 7). The BEI is a content-valid assessment method (Boyatzis, 1982: 51), which is widely accepted with a significant body of research (McClelland, 1998: 331). Moreover, measuring actions and behaviours, related to a set of competencies, provides information that demonstrates the level of performance – a key variable of the current quantitative study (McClelland, 1998: 332). Based on

these reasons, the BEI was considered an appropriate qualitative instrument for the qualitative study.

The five executive managers with the highest ESCI mean scores (top 15%), i.e. those achieving between eight to eleven ESCI strengths of the twelve EI measures were selected as the leaders for the Behavioural Events Interview. Notably, 60% of the sample of executive managers (n = 35) obtained three or fewer EI competency strengths. The demographic data of the sample of five leaders are: 60% males and 40% females; between the mid 40s and mid 60s; representing the three major racial groups in the province; 80% were originally from the Eastern Cape; from all four participating departments; with tenure in the public service ranged between 13 to 25 years; and their service in their current role ranged from 2 to 10 years, with an average of four-and-half years. The interviews were conducted between November 2014 and January 2015.

Each participant was asked to describe two to three incidents in which he or she felt effective in the job and three incidents in which he or she felt ineffective in the job (Boyatzis, 1982: 50). For each event, the leader was probed on the situation, thoughts, feelings, conversations, behaviour, actions and outcomes. The interviews were on average two hours in duration, were tape-recorded and thereafter transcribed. The qualitative data from these events were systematically coded for the twelve ESCI competencies, the seven dominant themes from the Dynamic Inquiry interviews and any other emerging characteristics (Boyatzis, 1982), for frequency of occurrence (Spencer & Spencer, 1993; McClelland, 1998: 332).

The coded data was then subjected to thematic analysis to uncover any recurring patterns among the five participants' narratives associated to the twelve EI competencies, the seven dominant themes, or other features. Verbatim survey data collected as part of the ESCI on the participants' areas of strengths and development was used at the end of each case study.

This chapter begins with the presentation of three mini case studies illustrating the behaviours and actions of three of the top five leaders, followed by a summary of the themes from the data analysis of all five leaders, including the case studies. The chapter ends with concluding

observations on the top leaders' use of their EI competencies, and EI's relation to resonant leadership and leadership performance.

8.2   CASE STUDY PRESENTATION

8.2.1   INTRODUCTION

The organisational context in which the participants manage and lead, as presented in Chapter 6, is dominated by a) rank-conscious leaders with dissonant commanding and pacesetting behaviours; b) rigid, centralised, alienating, and rule-bound bureaucracies and hierarchies; c) human, technical, financial, and infrastructure resource deficits; and d) a polarised organisational culture of the powerful, i.e. self-centred, indifferent and disconnected, and the marginalised, i.e. forlorn, disempowered and demoralised. Individual and organisational performance in this study setting is severely compromised, despite the practitioners' intense espousal to the noble public service values of Batho Pele (People First), i.e. to care, to serve, and to belong. Many participants desired resonant leaders: positive, inspirational, transparent, supportive, engaging and empathetic.

Emotionally intelligent leaders apply EI competencies and values in their behaviours and actions to influence individual, team and organisational outcomes positively, within the demands of their contextual realities. The objective of the three mini case studies is to present the top EI leaders' behaviour and actions, through a number of workplace incidents. These describe noteworthy sets of circumstances during which the participants were faced with an organisational problem or challenge, highlighting their actions, feelings, and behaviours in addressing the challenges, and the consequent outcomes. Through the case presentation, evidence will be provided for the salient findings presented in the section that follows the case study presentations.

The case has value for both theory and practice: for the former it illustrates a particular theory (competencies as a behavioural approach to EI and performance) in reference to a specific setting, and tests this theory within a set of conditions. Lessons drawn from the case is an example of the practical value for public service practitioners and the organisations, contextual specificities notwithstanding. Cases are also a versatile way of analysing, interpreting, presenting and

communicating qualitative research findings, enabling research evidence in the form of narratives to describe or tell a story of personal and organisational change.

The scholarly work of McClelland (1973; 1998) on power motives, i.e. personalised and socialised power, and Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee's (2005) emotional intelligence and resonant leadership models were applied in analysing the leaders' actions and behaviours narrated in their critical incidents. Resonant leadership, which draws strongly on socialised power (McClelland, 1998), comprises four styles, namely visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic. These styles are used for the benefit of the entire organisation through achieving its vision and goals by understanding, inspiring and developing independent and motivated followers. Conversely, dissonant leadership is informed by strong personalised power, comprising a pacesetting style, focusing relentlessly on results, and the commanding style (Goleman et al., 2002: 55).

8.2.2   CASE ONE: PARTICIPANT A

8.2.2.1 Background

Participant A is the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of a social service facility with a staff component of 2500. Prior to her appointment in December 2012, the CEO was an executive manager in the social service provincial government department, having risen through the ranks from a director over a period of 16 years. She holds a relevant professional qualification in the field of her social service responsibility. As the CEO, she has management and leadership responsibilities. Her management team includes administrators and professional members. Besides her ESCI score in the top five (with eleven out of twelve strengths) she also received one of the highest number of leadership performance nominations (refer to Chapter Seven on the nominations survey results) from her colleagues in her department and her facility. Furthermore, she received one of the highest nominations scores across the four participating departments.

8.2.2.2 Incident description and analysis

On her first day as the CEO, Participant A was confronted by a "hall full of angry people – both professionals and workers", including some of her managers. They were on strike demanding their salaries and benefits.

The CEO described her first impressions on entering the hall, displaying her aptitude in the competencies of inspirational leadership, empathy and emotional self-control:

> My managers did not want go into the hall … I said, "We have to. These are our workers. We need to meet with them." I was literally the only person on this side and everybody else was on the other side. The Head Office told me, "You're on your own, and there's no way we're coming." The very first day I sat in that hall, my first day on the job here, they said, "Who are you? Tell her to step aside, we don't even know the CEO who's come in, we want to speak to HR people, because it's their fault that we don't have our salaries and benefits."

As Participant A was a former HR executive manager in the parent department of this facility, she had a good understanding of the labour and budget issues and the social organisational dynamics. However, when she entered the hall, the anger and resentment of over 1000 staff members were distressing. Her first step was to enlist the assistance of an interpreter. Then the engagement with her staff members began.

The CEO narrated her actions, and behaviours in the tense conflict situation:

> The first thing I do is I listen; I try to understand … what is it that the person is saying? Also, what is it that they mean, because everyone has their own interests? So, I always listen first and I try and understand not just what is being said but why they're saying so. And a lot of factors influence that position. I always try to be developmental and understand the other person's position first. So part of the engagement process is just listening and understanding their views. I try not to provide the solutions on the spot.

By using an interpreter, the CEO showed the value she placed on inclusivity and participation, ensuring that all members had the opportunity to voice their grievances, through clear and explicit communication. She acknowledged her new staff members – a behaviour that is rare in this setting (refer to contextual analysis in Chapter Six). Further, through listening attentively and patiently, she respected the views of those who felt marginalised. These actions and behaviour validate her high

ESCI strength in the competency of empathy, as well as her resonant democratic and affiliative leadership styles (the antithesis of the dissonant commanding and pacesetting styles, i.e. top-down and coercive, dominant in the public service context).

Before entering the hall, the CEO prepared herself "mentally" for this engagement, by calming herself as it helped her not to react impulsively. The participant was also attentive to her emotions, mindful of what was within and outside her control. She drew on her adeptness in self-awareness, namely the age-old tradition to "Know Thyself", and the foundational EI competency. The participant also attributes her calmness to sports and physical training.

Further, the CEO listened attentively to her discontented colleagues. She observed their body language, their emotions, the influential people, aware that "it's not just the verbal exchanges, it's everything else that's in play in the room", that is, you have to "pick up the cues to guide you." This indicates her ability in empathy, i.e. the awareness of the emotions of others and showing an active interest in their concerns and feelings.

In addition, she managed her emotions when confronted by "very provocative" workers by "stepping back" – an indication of her strengths in the EI cluster of self-management, in particular, the competencies of emotional self-control and adaptability.

The CEO shared how she felt during that difficult situation:

> So when I heard [their grievances], my first reaction was just empathy … because for people to get to the stage where they're willing not to see [clients]; and put their reputation on the line, and know the consequences of their action; but they didn't care … that their salaries would be docked; they must've been desperate. I thought they have a right to their salaries. They shouldn't have to take action; it's their right.
>
> There's some part of me that steps out of it, stays calm and you use your cognitive part of your brain to manage the situation. I tried to be in a calm space, to not be defensive ... to try and understand their perspective … making excuses is just one thing that triggers people off, not recognising their pain and how it

affects their lives. One time [during the strike] I actually cried in a meeting ... it was very a traumatic time. I felt empathy with the staff; there was obviously pressure to deliver, there were very angry people.

The above account emphasises the participant's acute sense of empathy, care and compassion, supported by her well-developed emotional self-awareness and emotional self-control abilities. These behaviours are guided by her strong beliefs in humanness, fairness, equality and social justice.

After understanding the situation and the feelings of her staff, the next aim was to find a solution to this vexing problem. The plight of her colleagues with unpaid salaries played on her mind, waking her in the early hours of the morning, intent on finding a solution. She was well within the labour policy guidelines to declare the strike as unprotected and dock the strikers' salaries. However, she felt that to take such an action when the strikers were owed money was "farcical" and "not right", as "you can't do that to people." This indicates her adeptness in the competency of conflict management, guided by her ethical principles. Furthermore, her approach to human talent management was "developmental": "I would rather put all the correct things in place that will allow you to be your best."

Her spirited conviction in worker rights and the dignity of her staff members, her strong empathetic disposition, and building trust, reflects her inspirational leadership qualities. Moreover, her desire to bring out the best in her people and adopt a "developmental" approach indicates the CEO's strength as a coach and mentor, as she uses a coaching leadership style.

The result of her actions and behaviours led to the CEO successfully negotiating the return of all the staff members to their positions on the first day in her new position. A week later, the Head Office had not delivered on their promise on the salary and benefits in a separate agreement. The result: workers threatened to resume the strike. The CEO engaged with the workers for many hours to avert another downing of tools, garnering goodwill from all parties to find a solution.

Together with her EI abilities, i.e. self-awareness and positive outlook, the participant used her technical knowledge and skills, and analytical abilities, to examine the facility's budget in a rigorous manner:

> I analysed the budget, I sat with our management team and we all agreed that we've got to find a way to pay the salaries and benefits. Now we didn't have the money, so what could we do? One of my strengths is expenditure performance analysis; I've done it for the province so I can do it here. And we managed to find enough room in our available budget to pay everybody. We did a theoretical exercise where we looked at every person – 5 500 transactions!

> We determined the cost to put them all at the right salary level. I realised that we could actually afford to put everybody at the right levels. So now people would feel the pressure ease on their pockets and by paying them at the right levels, we would prevent the accruals from accumulating; at the same time we negotiated that the backlog of accruals was beyond our budget but let's negotiate with Head Office through a provincial project for that.

One of the strategies that the CEO introduced, during and after the strike, when engaging with organised labour, was to first "caucus" with her management team. Her commitment to teamwork and consensus building informs her style of conflict resolution:

> I stepped out that first day, I said, "Give the management some time and we're going to come back to you." Since that experience, we listen to organised labour present their case. I then don't discuss [our response] in front of the organised labour: I say, "Can you give us a moment to discuss this?" I then step out with my team. And we then caucus and iron out all of our issues; so we go back as a united team, whereas previously the disadvantage that people had was that they didn't discuss and thrash it out, so when they go back, they start arguing in front of organised labour, which is really bad. And I also want a consensus position of labour [represented by four trade unions]; so if I see that they don't have

consensus I always offer them that, that room to caucus, so I'll say, "Management can step out of the room, would you like some time to caucus?"

During the first week (and beyond), the CEO consulted widely with her staff members in meetings and during her regular walkabouts through the large facility, speaking to staff members in the tearooms, and on the grounds. This exemplifies her visionary, democratic and affiliative leadership style. The participant described her feelings and their underlying reasons, showing awareness of her own feelings – important attributes for the competency of emotional self-awareness. In turn, this competency fosters empathy and nurtures compassion.

These competencies are evident in her retelling of a worker's story during one of her walkabouts in her first week, which stuck with her two years later. Notable in the following account is her lack of rank-consciousness, contrary to its dominance in this setting.

> One HR woman said to him, "What are you making fuss about, it's just fifty rand extra per month", and he said, "[CEO], it might be a doughnut and coffee for them; but for me it's mealie-meal for my family for the month, that fifty rand."

> That really touched my heart, and so it's people like that that stay in my mind, that makes me feel this is the cause, these are the people I'm trying to make a difference for. I understood it and I apologised that he's in that circumstance. I'm never scared to apologise, if I think that we've done wrong. I've got to acknowledge their pain and I've got to recognise that and, I do say, "I'm sorry that you feel that way or that you're in the situation. I am trying to build an inclusive society in this [facility].

> People generally are not comfortable talking about how they feel … I'm never shy. I don't hesitate to say how I feel or why, whether it's a positive emotion or negative emotion.

The CEO reflected on the past two years in her engagements with organised labour, her managers and workers. She recognises the importance of using both cognitive and emotional intelligence competencies in her management and leadership responsibilities, supported by her experiential

learning and especially by a set of values, such as integrity, fairness, respect and trust. Further, her deep commitment to drawing on the knowledge, views and the competencies of others around her is central to her style as an affiliative (indicated by the interdependence between the leader and her followers) and democratic executive leader, as reflected in the following description:

> It's like an out-of-body experience, you might be sitting in the chair but you step back and you're now sitting on their side understanding what the issue is. So just to apply my intellect to try and understand their intellect; and then also to understand the emotion around the table; because often it's not just the intellectual issue, there's often a lot of other emotive issues around it.

> And sometimes I obviously don't have all the answers; but I've got intuitive people around me … executive members, organised labour leaders or a worker on the ground – there are lots of wise people, who see things differently. I'll do a walkabout, I'll stop by, I'd say "What did you think?" and we'd reflect on what had happened and I'd say, "What do you think motivates that situation; or those people or that person?" "What would you advise me as the CEO?" and so I've got key people who give me input and that helps.

Though Participant A acknowledged that her strong achievement orientation and her "competitive part that likes to be the best" requires monitoring "because when you want to win and you want to achieve that much, you will have to harness-in your weaknesses." She has learnt over time to control her impulses, guided by her conviction to empowering her followers through recognising their potential and development areas. The result is a greater tolerance for mistakes and experiential learning – dispositions that are poorly developed in this public sector context.

In her words:

> One of my weaknesses is that I can run with something; but I'm not going to get there on my own, so I need to bring people with me. So, I need to feel that they're also part of the solution and sometimes I must let something go, give them

opportunity to do it their way. And sometimes it works out and sometimes it doesn't; but at least we've tried it that way, so now we must do it the other way.

Her subordinates (ESCI Verbatim Survey, 2014) also stated that the participant is at times too fast for some managers, taking "hasty decisions without proper consultations", "rushing uncalculated decisions" and "wants to win by all means."

A self-aware person acknowledges both his or her own strengths and weaknesses. The CEO's introspection makes her aware of her weaknesses, leading her to correct such behaviours. This process supports her to hone her relationship management competencies, such as coach and mentor (developing others) and building an "inclusive society" in her organisation.

Six of Participant A's subordinates provided feedback (ESCI Verbatim Survey, 2014) on her strengths. Their data were analysed in relation to EI competencies and is presented below in their words:

Achievement orientation: Participant A achieves her goals within available resources, always strives for excellence, likes to compete to improve her performance for the better, goal-orientated and will think of a solution to address the issue at hand, very assertive in all her plans, [able to] multi-task, passionate about her work, and is proud of her [facility] and staff.

Teamwork: She is a good team leader and motivator, encourages participation and teamwork, likes social gatherings to motivate her team, believes in teamwork and always asks comments and suggestions at the end of a meeting and will [use] those comments and suggestions accordingly, and is intelligent, attentive, intuitive ... this helps her work well with the team and [sic] conversant in their different fields.

Inspirational leader: Participant A is an inspiring leader and communicates with her team her dreams about the organisation and future plans, articulate hence not shy to speak and convince others, eloquent and can talk freely to anyone, has vision and always thinks ahead, a leader that is willing to be lead when the need arise [sic], leads by example and has the ability to catch people doing the right things and acknowledge them for that, good vision and thinks out of the box, and a peoples' person .

Coach and mentor: She praises good work and reprimands bad behaviour, motivates her team to improve for the benefit of the organisation and improved service, and is very keen to empower her team.

Positive Outlook: Participant A is always positive which carries to the team.

Self-Awareness: She is always very energetic, reflective, analytical, assertive without being aggressive, and creative and innovative even in times of uncertainty and controversy.

Empathy: She is a good listener who is able to work with her fellow colleagues.

Adaptability: She is a situational leader and has the ability to quickly adapt to change.

Likewise her peers expressed her strengths as passion, optimism, empathy, charm, humility, respect, dynamism, positive energy and inspirational. One peer remarked: "She has a way of making every person she works with feel valued and important. Her own behaviour is exemplary making her a role model for those around her."

8.2.2.3   Conclusion

In her first week as the CEO, Participant A resolved a distressing problem by drawing resourcefully on her mind, body, heart and spirit. Her indomitable spirit, exemplified by her resolute values of ethics, integrity, respect, social justice, fairness and trust, directed her management and leadership decisions, and resonant actions and behaviours. Her many years of playing competitive sport contributed to her physical fitness as well as to her skills in teamwork and goal achievement. Participant A's incisive analytical and strategic cognitive abilities complemented her well-developed emotional intelligence competencies.

In particular, her use of a key EI strength, conflict management (a relationship management competency), in conjunction with other EI competencies (such as empathy and self-awareness) supported the participant's successful resolution of the conflict. Her aim was not to allow the conflict to fester, providing her staff members the opportunity to openly share their concerns and disagreements. To achieve this, the CEO managed her emotions and de-escalated the strong negative emotions of those who felt marginalised.

8.2.3   CASE TWO: PARTICIPANT B

8.2.3.1   Background

Participant B is an executive manager in the employ of the provincial government for over 20 years. He has served in more than one department and managed many teams. He has a postgraduate degree relevant to his field of work. He has served nine MECs and ten HODs. He received the highest number of leadership performance nominations (refer to Chapter 7 on survey results) from his colleagues across levels in his department and one of the highest scores across the four participating departments.

8.2.3.2   Incident One

In this public service context there is an inclination of recruiting new staff members from outside a department (as shown in Chapter 6). Participant B confirmed this trend and its impact on not recognising and building the existing talent in a department. He recounted his experiences of the transformation processes over the past twenty years in this provincial government and its impact on staff members' motivation and performance. This impact is related to recruitment, selection and entry of new departmental leaders:

> People were saying, "These positions, we [are] qualified for them … and we didn't get it [sic]. Those who got the positions don't know the work." People that knew how the department operated felt ignored … so they became disillusioned and frustrated at the filling of positions.

> What was more frustrating was a new MEC or a Head of Department…the new HoD will say, "I want us to do things in this fashion." He doesn't even know the department; he comes with an impression that these people know nothing. You don't do that because you will be disappointed that these people do know … they need leadership; they need management. People become dissatisfied, discontented, though one of my HoDs was very exemplary … he had ethics.

From the above description, Participant B shows his adeptness in the social awareness competencies of empathy and organisational awareness, and coaching and mentoring. He further

shows his values of fairness and equality. To address this situation, he focused on public service, human talent and career-path development among his subordinates.

> When you advertise a post, the first people to consider are those that you work with, because they are helping you achieve your goals. To build confidence in them you cannot recruit from outside when you have people, unless you can convince them that nobody is qualified.

He provided an example of a vacant position of a Deputy Director in his unit. Participant B related his actions following his subordinate's unsuccessful bid for the position:

> He was very good but in the interview he failed to perform. The interview is the only instrument that you use to assess people. Another person was appointed from the outside. Now I had to tell him. I depended on him in that particular component. Firstly, I spoke to the senior manager about the situation: "We need to manage this situation so that it does not affect this person adversely … so that he does not drop his performance, this person may not respect the new person."

The participant met with the senior manager and the subordinate over a cup of tea. Participant B spoke to the subordinate:

> My friend, you are a very good person. I wanted you to get this position, but unfortunately it does not work like that. You did not perform the interview, as I know you [sic]. I don't know what happened … whether you were panicking. Unfortunately, you did not get the position. At least now you know how the interviews are conducted. I know you are not a person that will frustrate the new person.

> He said, "No, I thank you for calling me because it's very rare for people, actually to be called [by their managers] … what you are saying is true that I did not perform. I think I have learnt how one conducts himself in an interview. I panicked as a result I could not understand the questions." This person worked well, supporting the new person and the component thrived.

The above account shows Participant B's aptitude in empathy, coaching and mentoring, and teamwork in recognising his subordinate's abilities and supporting him to overcome his disappointment, and ensuring social cohesion so that the unit's performance is not negatively impacted. The participant reflected on this incident, further illustrating these EI competencies, including his adept self-awareness, positive outlook and relationship management abilities:

> [T]ake [sic] yourself into the boots of this person … that makes me to calm people. Feel for the person … so that what comes out of your mouth is acceptable. You don't just say, "You failed man" and so on. First, you need to put the positive and then come with the negative. You have to be tactful when you communicate something that is not nice to a person. But never run away from truth. When you manage people, be truthful, but be empathetic. Don't change truth just because you want to sympathise with a person.

Participant B gave another example of recruitment. He advertised seven management positions. Of these, internal applicants filled six positions. On receiving their appointment letters, the six visited the participant. They said:

> [Participant B] what you have done is something we will never forget … we never expected that there could be a person in the department at your level who can appoint people from within the department … about 90%. We shall work very hard.

Participant B reflected:

> I was not doing it for people to come and commend me. For these people to be motivated, we will need to recognise them. Not that people from the outside are not good, but the tendency in the public service is to get a person who does not have a clue of an organisation … it's culture, it's values.

8.2.3.3 Incident Two

In the role of an HR manager, Participant B was instructed by the Member of the Executive Committee (MEC) and HoD to elevate the MEC's Personal Assistant to a higher notch so she

could apply for a more senior position. He refused to accede to the demand, coming into conflict with the MEC, resulting in the participant's transfer to another Division. This was not the first time: "I was transferred again and again and again, about 3 times; even with the recent leadership."

Participant B narrated the incident, showing his strengths in the social awareness competencies of emotional self-control, adaptability and positive outlook:

> He [the MEC] hated me. I never hated him. I greeted him whenever I met him; he never greeted me. I was not offended … I just become upset for a short time. I never failed the division that he sent me to. We were the first people to introduce this thing of programmes. We worked very hard to the extent that we outperformed so many people.

> This transfer made me to study for a Masters paid for by the department. I usually tell other people … you must not cry as if it's the end of the world. When you are taken from one position to another, you are being developed. I was taken away from a comfortable position to a very uncomfortable position; but at the end of the day, I became very happy.

In his different senior management positions, the participant inherited teams that faced many challenges. He draws on a range of EI competencies in his dedication to building strong public service teams. Firstly, he uses emotional self-awareness, achievement orientation and teamwork to know his limitations as an individual, set high standards, and creates team synergy to achieve collective goals through interdependence and delegation. These are essential for the resonant leadership style of affiliation:

> I like to work with people. I'm a person that does not want to do things on my own … I want us to work as a team … Because I do understand that when you do things on your own you won't have capacity … you will not cope with things … When you are a manager, you do things through other people.

> They always wanted to be the best team in the organisation. The team that I worked with was saying, "We must work, we want to be Number One in the

department." And we were Number One for that matter. I am also a person that always wants to achieve high. I managed to motivate them ... they respected me … you build a relationship … the people that I worked with had full confidence in me.

Secondly, his adept inspirational leadership skills and strategic direction inspires and guide team members through a compelling vision towards achieving their goals – vital for the visionary resonant leadership style:

Make people to appreciate what is to be achieved, not to do something for the sake of doing it. I usually say to my team, "People, if we have a goal to achieve, let us first ask: 'Why we want to achieve that?'" If they know why we want to do that, people are going to be motivated because they know they are not just doing it for the sake of doing it.

Thirdly, the participant – indicative of his democratic resonant leadership style – displayed self-awareness, emotional self-control, adaptability and empathy in the following description:

I always allow them to debate, to argue it … And I don't become offended. I allow people to criticise whatever I am doing. That's the way I like to work with people. If you have anything against a person, you don't shout at that person in front of others.

Fourthly, his strong aptitude in developing others using his coaching and mentoring competency portrays his coaching leadership style (based on a long narrative in which the participant described his coaching methods):

When a person does not know how it is done, you must do it and show that person. And it develops him for the next time. First thing you must thank the person, "thank you very much; but my friend this lacks A, B, C, D…" That is what is not there in most of the senior managers … they can't develop their own staff members. Why? Some don't know the work, and they are always in meetings.

> You must be able to assert yourself … but not in a rude way … when you say
> "no", you must say, "no" in a very polite manner, "people we can't do that, please
> let's go do it this way."

Finally, Participant B is guided by a strong set of values, influenced by his beliefs in Christianity and public service, voicing his disapproval of corruption and nepotism:

> Our public institutions need people with good ethics … you don't ask yourself
> "What can I get from it?" Because that institution affects all our life [sic]… Already
> you are getting something [as an employee]; so what you must ask yourself is,
> "What can I do for this institution to even provide me with better services?" What
> is important is to instil a culture of work, and also ethics, morals … we must
> inculcate those.

The participant reflected on his weaknesses, showing his self-awareness aptitude:

> Perfectionist – sometimes things can be accepted if they meet certain standards
> without having reached perfection. I need to accept that such situations do occur
> in organisations and may be accepted in order to improve performance of an
> organisation.

His colleagues made the following remarks on Participant B's public service experience and his strengths of empathy and developing others (ESCI Feedback Report: 30 June 2014):

> [Participant B] is very knowledgeable due to the number years of experience that
> he has accumulated by working on [sic] different government departments. He is
> a person who listens to other people and takes other peoples' views and
> arguments very seriously with the view to enhance the performance of individuals
> and that of the directorate at large.

Conclusion

Participant B's EI competence is supported by his strong set of values, such as ethics, integrity, trust, respect and compassion. In his words: "You can't be unethical and then you assent to an

institution that is full of that [unethical behaviour] … you have to correct that. You must be exemplary."

His values and EI competence guide his self-aware actions, despite the personal costs of challenging authority and standing up for his values. In such instances, he exhibited bold and courageous leadership and risk-taking in his dedication to cultivate exemplary public service teams. He displayed strong EI aptitude in recognising, motivating and developing his internal team members – accentuating his coaching leadership style.

He builds trust and provides inspirational and visionary leadership through his compelling vision, goal-setting and direction as well as honesty, openness, caring, belonging and acknowledgment. His democratic, transparent, people-centred, inclusive leadership styles contrast with the prevailing dissonant, rank-conscious and commanding leadership styles (as expressed by participants in the contextual qualitative study in Chapter Six).

8.2.4   CASE THREE: PARTICIPANT C

8.2.4.1 Background

Participant C has worked in the provincial public service sphere for a total of fourteen years – first as a senior financial manager in a provincial institution. She joined her current department five years ago. In her initial executive manager position, she had management and leadership responsibilities for a team of about sixty members, and the unit that she was transferred to had about eighty members.

Besides her ESCI score in the top five, she also received the highest number of leadership performance nominations (refer to Chapter 7 on the nominations survey results) from her colleagues across levels in her department. She also received one of the highest scores across the four participating departments.

8.2.4.2 Incident One

Two-and-half years into her new executive manager post, the Head of Department (HOD) appointed Participant C as the acting DDG in the beleaguered Unit X. The unit's former DDG was

suspended. The participant felt unprepared for the challenge of managing a dysfunctional unit. Before joining this department, she "didn't work as much as a team player." Her experience was in financial management and considered strategic thinking and analytical skills as her work strengths. In her words: "Do you know how difficult it is for us that like numbers?"

Participant C described herself as loyal, dedicated, conscientious, patient and compassionate, deeply committed to exemplary public service. Furthermore, she always attempts to give her optimal performance and "not to let the team or herself down." Equipped with these personal strengths and a strong service orientation, the participant accepted the daunting challenge that lay ahead.

She described the organisational climate and the challenges within Unit X at the time she joined as the acting head:

> The people issue in this unit was the big, big challenge in the [department]. We had troubles in that Unit … there were bad issues. They had resignations like you won't believe … the staff morale was low. Specifically, there was a suicide … that suicide rocked me because I knew that individual … very competent person but I think when you're not supported and your efforts are not acknowledged; and you're continually pushed down … something breaks, it wasn't a nice one for me. The people who are feeling the burden of this [culture] […] they were saying they don't want this anymore. The team was fragmented … and so I had to head that [Unit] up, almost have to start from scratch.

Her reflection demonstrates her strengths in EI competencies, such as organisational awareness and empathy, i.e. social awareness. The above description is similar to the contextual realities within this public service institution, presented in Chapter 6, relating to recognition, caring, marginalisation and dissonant leadership styles.

Confronted with a discordant unit with dispirited and forlorn staff members, Participant C applied her strong social awareness competencies. Realising the team members' individual need for

support and affirmation, and relational needs as a team, the participant initiated a series of team-building exercises to "get to understand each other." The participant reflected:

> They never had a team building before; it was nice to connect … it was difficult because it's not something I'm used to doing. And it worked out well. I realised it's not going to be about the work; but it was about people … and forging a team so I thought of team-building sessions and we did a lot of that.

She also had weekly meetings with the GMs and changed the approach to the meetings and interactions with her managers. Her leadership style was visionary, democratic and affiliative. In addition, she was aware of the need to use her relationship management competencies and conscious of the negative effects of rank domination, as demonstrated below:

> I wouldn't summons them to my office as they usually were summonsed. I try to turn the whole way of commanding, or not commanding, the whole way of relating. Relating was quite difficult you know because sometimes you just want to say, "What I need are those financial statements tomorrow …" And say, "Well I'm here if you're having a problem and to support you, we can bounce ideas", an open door policy. The hierarchy … using rank titles is strong here … it's a difficult thing to change.

As displayed below, the participant specifically used her inspirational leadership, coaching and mentoring, and teamwork competencies (relationship management), as well as her emotional self-awareness. She displayed the latter competency in her openness about her weaknesses, admitting that the unit's functions were new to her and conceding that she did not have the requisite knowledge and skills. Complementing the use of her EI competencies, Participant C also expanded her understanding of the functional and technical environment, drawing mainly on the existing knowledge and experience of her team members. This further demonstrated her use of resonant leadership styles, contrary to the mainstream dissonant management and leadership styles used by her counterparts (refer to Chapter 6).

I told them that I'm new in this and I need their support as the GMs and you know they really came to the party … because they would make recommendations; and I would take them. And I'd say, "I am not the fundi here please you know. You've been working here for a long time." For example, [person A] had been working with [the department] for 25 years, while I've been there [in the department] for 2 years and now I've got to be his acting DDG, so I understood he might feel that I am an upstart acting DDG. So, I tried to come across in a non-threatening way, in a way that said, "I value all of your contributions; please contribute as much as possible; I need help here to be able to succeed" and I think that's where teamwork was so important. It was being able just to unleash them, and be there to support but have confidence in their abilities.

In general, the participant used her self-management competencies such as adaptability and positive outlook to initiate change in a negative, dispirited, and dysfunctional environment. The outcome of the participant's resonant styles of leadership, drawing on a range of EI competencies, is evident in the individual and team changes:

One of the ladies [in the unit] said, "You know, [Participant C] I never used to want to come to work; I was quite happy to just go to the doctor and get a sick note and submit that … I don't have that sick feeling when I come to work anymore. I don't have to look for an excuse not to come to work anymore … I'm happy to come to work." I mean that's what you want … that for me was a positive to hear.

They may think I just rescued them and I didn't really … all I did was just give them space to contribute; and give them space to feel supported. A manager doesn't usually give people space. So, they needed nurturing in the unit and … I mean we're all mothers or fathers or something ... so it's quite easy to nurture or it should be.

> Actually, actioning it [the change] is difficult, well I think it worked; I think so
> because if you go to the unit now it's a different unit. So, we did very well as the
> unit. I learnt a lot … I think for me personally I feel like I've achieved something.

A year after Participant C had taken up the acting head position, the HoD acknowledged the unit as probably one of the best performers that year. The HoD considers Participant C as technically very strong and supportive, with a strong sense of teamwork, and good at developing others, in particular her subordinates (ESCI Verbatim Comments, 2014). Her subordinates noted her key strengths as follows: professionalism; passion for, and being driven, by her job; positive outlook; ability to listen; dependability; promptness in responding to requests and situations; analytical skill, very objective outlook; and engaging "all staff at all levels without intimidation and gives direction" (ESCI Verbatim Comments, 2014).

One of her subordinates affirmed (ESCI Verbatim Comments, 2014):

> She trusts the team players and allows us to operate in our areas of operation
> freely without fear or mistrust. She is warm and friendly which makes her
> approachable. She willingly shares her views and learning which drives
> organisation-wide understanding and cohesion. She listens to others' points of
> view. Although, she may occasionally get worked up, but she does not let a
> situation get out of control. Her pleasant nature and her willingness to foster
> inclusion of lower-level staff in management-related discussions makes her "the
> boss to work for".

Another respondent in the same survey stated:

> Participant C is fearless ... taking over [Unit X] that was bruised, she did not fear
> but was up for the challenge to even help heal wounds in the team. Her approach
> on every engagement assists the team to achieve rather than break down the
> team.

Participant C is aware of the specific areas she needs to improve, which is an indication of her self-awareness strength. She listed assertiveness as a key area for development: "Don't try and keep

everyone happy, but be more assertive in following strategy and implementing initiatives" (ESCI Verbatim Comments, 2014). Her subordinates agree that she should be "more trusting of her strength and influence … to fully adapt to [the] changing environment without much fear and [be] more assertive [toward] top management" (ESCI Verbatim Comments, 2014). While another subordinate suggested that Participant C "needs to be a little more forceful in some situations and with some individuals. If these issues are dealt with, it will make her 'the complete boss' and drive a higher level of enforcement and productivity."

However, Participant C reflected in the interview: "It's strange if I look at my role in [this department]. I would think in my previous role [senior manager in another public service institution] I was much more assertive. In addition, she stated: "I don't like to describe my feeling in *this* work environment [participant's emphasis] … I don't want to burden my employees with how I'm feeling." These statements highlight the importance of the impact of organisational context on management and leadership behaviour. The following event is a description of Participant C's experience in her previous organisation.

8.2.4.3 Incident Two

In her previous organisation, as the financial manager, Participant C had to take action against the head of the organisation for financial irregularities. This was an extremely tough, vexing and "terrible" situation for the participant. In this conflict situation, the participant believed that she was "assertive". She drew on her competencies, such as self-awareness, emotional self-control and teamwork, and her strong set of values to execute her responsibilities with loyalty, courage and respect.

> I had to put my foot down and go to the [governance structure] and I said, "This isn't very comfortable for me." "This can't continue … it has to go to a disciplinary; we are going to have to sort this out." They were very supportive. To me it's about a value thing or something that's right or wrong …

> The [head of the organisation] was dismissed but the organisation thereafter survived; so sometimes you do the tough things … it was quite a difficult thing to

do but it's the right thing. At the end of the day, I think what drives you is values.

And wanting what's best for your province; and I think that makes you take those

bold steps sometimes; and so I think that was the right step.

Despite following due process and acting objectively in resolving this matter, Participant C felt remorse and compassion for the head of the organisation, as the person had "compulsive behavioural" afflictions and as they had a long working relationship. These indicate her strengths in self-awareness, empathy and relationship management. Furthermore, the participant showed her resonant leadership strength prioritising her socialised (instead of personalised) power and strong public service orientation, emphasising the importance of ethical behaviour in this sphere.

There were no bad feelings after that; the individual did understand the issues ...

I felt as though I was betraying the individual, because we have a relationship …

but I realised for the good of the organisation this has to happen; so it's sticking

to the principles … You know we're working for government it's something bigger

than ourselves, it's not about us. And so you've got to do what's best for the

organisation; so I kept on telling myself that it was fine.

I felt very sorry for the individual you know ... We didn't have wellness and all of

those sorts of thing to go to but also as a government official at that high level to

be going out … reputational risk was huge, so that was a very difficult one. For

me the organisation would not have survived if that wasn't done. We would have

lost credibility.

In her current department, the participant felt that they were "not tackling things head on … but going around it in a different way." She stressed that one cannot be seen to be assertive, as it might be threatening to others. In this environment, the participant uses her self-awareness, social awareness and adaptability competencies to navigate an "unstable environment" in which she perceives her colleagues "don't need any more threats." The results from the qualitative contextual analysis (presented in Chapter 6) revealed participants in this setting felt vulnerable, especially due to dissonant leaders' intimidating behaviours.

So then you take a different approach sometimes … sometimes when you are assertive, people do feel threatened. So, you've got to tread a little bit more carefully. And so sometimes you do have to be assertive and the people are not going to be threatened, but then you step back sometimes, and just do it in another way. Probably because I realise if I do it in that way – assertively – there's going to be a conflict and it could potentially not be resolved. If the person feels threatened, so it's better if you say, "I'm no threat but this is what I'm wanting…"

8.2.4.4 Conclusion

Faced with the challenges of managing and leading a dysfunctional unit, Participant C took certain actions, drawing on different competencies, depending on the situation:

- Firstly, she used her adeptness in emotional self-awareness and social awareness (empathy and organisational awareness) to understand her internal states and resources, the team members' individual needs and those of the collective. For example, she initiated team-building exercises to foster understanding between each other and build resonant relationships – also drawing on her aptitude in relationship management competencies, such as teamwork and inspirational leadership.

- Secondly, the participant used her self-management competencies such as achievement orientation; adaptability; and positive outlook to initiate and sustain individual and team change, moving from a discordant climate to optimism and motivation to improve her team members' performance.

- Thirdly, she exhibited her ability in the coaching and mentoring competency by sharing her technical and functional limitations (self-awareness) with her team, showing her openness to learn and, importantly, accessing and recognising the existing knowledge and experience of her team members and supporting their abilities.

- Lastly, all these abilities are guided by a set of uncompromising values – embodying her resolute spirit of fairness, compassion, integrity and public service; and, finally, supporting her resonant leadership styles: visionary, democratic, coaching and affiliative styles.

8.3   OVERVIEW OF BEHAVIOURAL EVENTS INTERVIEW RESULTS

The salient findings from the BEI data analysis and the three mini case studies are presented below:

i)   These participants demonstrated strengths in all three domains of capability or talent (Boyatzis, 2008: 94), namely knowledge (i.e. what one can do), competencies (i.e. how one can do it), and motivational drivers, such as values and motives (i.e. why one feels the need to do it). The values that were most frequently expressed were ethics, integrity, fairness, transparency, care, respect and trust.

ii) All five participants exhibited EI behaviours and actions associated with the twelve EI competencies. Depending on the setting and situation, the participants selectively drew on the twelve EI competencies. Therefore, the frequency and complexity of the EI behaviours displayed differed during each behavioural event.

iii) Among all five participants, the most frequently observed EI competencies and behaviours were adaptability, coach and mentor, teamwork, empathy and organisational awareness.

iv) The participants showed well-developed use of key cognitive competencies, such as analytical thinking, systems thinking and pattern recognition.

v)   Resonant or transformational leadership styles were dominantly expressed, i.e. visionary, democratic, affiliative and coaching styles. Very few instances of dissonant leadership behaviours, such as commanding and pacesetting, were observed.

vi) All participants showed strong achievement orientation, motivation and dedication to exemplary public service and individual, team and organisational performance.

vii) All participants had an in-depth knowledge of their professional domain, job functional areas and the public service context, especially in their provincial government setting.

8.4   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The outstanding leaders draw on many elements to be effective in their leadership: their values, clusters of competencies, such as expertise, knowledge and experience, and emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies. These top-performing leaders were adept at effectively integrating the four resonant leadership styles, namely, visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic styles, and drawing on the style most suitable in the specific event or situation. Goleman (2001) observes that the ability to integrate the leadership styles regularly and to switch to the most appropriate one is what differentiates the most effective leaders from average leaders.

The three mini case studies of the high-performance executive leaders, presented in this chapter, highlighted their emotional and social intelligence strengths in practice (integrated with cognitive competencies). The leaders' strengths in all four EI clusters and competencies, self-management (emotional self-control, adaptability, positive outlook and achievement orientation), self-awareness (emotional self-awareness), social awareness (organisational awareness and empathy) and relationship management (teamwork, inspirational leadership, conflict management, coach and mentor, and influence), were strongly displayed in their behaviours during the critical incidents, validating their high EI competence measured in the ESCI survey (refer to Chapter 7). Moreover, the cases confirmed their success in resolving vexing and complex problems, as reflected in their high leadership performance nomination scores (refer to Chapter 7).

The cases also demonstrate how EI strengths guide and support the leaders' resonant leadership styles – visionary, democratic, affiliative and coaching styles. In addition, the top-performing leaders are highly proficient in integrating the four resonant leadership styles as part of their repertoire of styles. Importantly, these leadership styles are desired by subordinates, across all rank levels, voiced in their words as "positive", "self-aware", "visionary", "inspirational", "transparent", "inclusive", "empathetic", "supportive", "caring" and "coaching and mentoring". However, the results in Chapter 6 indicate that these resonant styles are antithetical to the prevailing dissonant public leadership styles. The top-performing leaders represent an antidote to the dominant low EI-driven dissonant styles.

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The objective of the next chapter is to further interpret and discuss the qualitative and quantitative results presented in Chapters 6–8 and relating the findings to relevant scholarship.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

9.1   INTRODUCTION

Emotional intelligence (EI) is a valid concept in the study of human behaviour and performance (O'Boyle et al., 2011). Since 1995, EI has been postulated as being an important predictor for success in the workplace (Bar-On, 2006; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Goleman, 1995; Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Boyatzis, 2009) and has subsequently drawn huge attention from researchers, theorists and practitioners from multiple disciplines. EI is widely considered a fundamental element of effective leadership (George, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002; Hartley, 2004; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Rajah et al., 2011; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). However, little is known about the nature of the bivariate relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership performance in non-Western and public service contexts.

The overall results of this mixed-methods study, set in a non-Western and nascent democratic public service institution, showed a significant, strong and positive relationship between EI and executive leadership performance. The results are in general agreement with previous research findings in the fields of EI and leadership in other contexts. In particular, this study confirms claims that adopt a behavioural approach to EI on which the theoretical framework of this study was based (Boyatzis, 2009; Cherniss, 2010; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Dulewicz et al., 2003; Goleman et al., 2002; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008; Havers, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Piel, 2008; Ramo et al., 2009; Ruestow, 2009; Russell, 2014; Ryan et al., 2009; Young & Dulewicz, 2009).

The overall research question of this mixed-methods study focused on whether a significant relationship existed between executive managers' emotional intelligence competence and their leadership performance in a public service context. The study further focused on the nature of the bivariate relationship. Furthermore, the question was examined through quantitative statistical analyses and the results were presented in Chapter 7. In addition, a qualitative study based on behavioural workplace events of the top-performing and highly emotional intelligent leaders gained further insights into the bivariate relationship, and the results were presented in Chapter 8. To

contextualise the research questions investigated by the quantitative and qualitative research, a further qualitative social and cultural analysis examined the organisational context, and the results were presented in Chapter 6.

The first part of the discussion in this chapter, based primarily on the quantitative results, and drawing on the behavioural events qualitative results, is presented as follows:

- Firstly, the overall quantitative results on the bivariate relationship;
- Secondly, the four EI competencies that distinguish top-performing leaders, namely adaptability, inspirational leadership, emotional self-awareness and positive outlook (i.e. showing the strongest correlations with leadership performance);
- Thirdly, special commentary on selected competencies, namely empathy, emotional self-control, achievement orientation, coach and mentor, and teamwork; and
- Fourthly, the significance of self-other agreement ratings (SOA), in particular their relationship with leadership effectiveness and self-awareness.

The second part draws on the contextual analytical results to discuss the complex interplay between power and leadership behaviours, and leadership behaviours, governance systems and social exclusion. Relevant literature will be cited in this discussion. The chapter ends with a summary of, and conclusion on, the discussion in this chapter.

9.2   EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE DISTINGUISHES TOP-PERFORMING LEADERS

The quantitative results, based on multi-source ESCI scores and performance nominations, showed strong, positive and significant correlations between public service executive leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) competence and their leadership performance. All four ESCI clusters, namely self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, either displayed strong or moderate positive correlations with leadership performance. Qualitative research results (presented in Chapter 8) based on behavioural indicators related to the twelve EI competencies of the top-performing leaders confirmed the quantitative results.

The significance of the current research results is that they provide empirical support to existing research findings on the importance of both emotional and social competencies in the leadership

process (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008; Judge et al., 2004; Piel, 2008; Ramo et al., 2009; Ruestow, 2009; Russell, 2014; Ryan et al., 2009; Young & Dulewicz, 2009). The first two EI clusters determine how well an individual understands and manages himself or herself and their emotions, i.e. emotional competence, and the second two EI clusters govern how well one recognises and manages the emotions of others, build relationships and work in complex social systems, i.e. social competence (Goleman et al., 2002).

At an executive public management level, in a non-Western context, the relationship between these two variables and leadership performance has not been determined, either through qualitative research using the BEI or quantitative research, using the multi-source ESCI and performance nominations. One notable study is by Kotzé and Venter (2011), using the Bar-On EQ-i measure. Kotzé and Venter (2011: 412) found a significant difference between effective and ineffective South African public middle-level managers with regard to their overall EI scores, concluding that there is "a lack of certain EI competencies at both managerial and entry level."

The current study results confirm findings in other cultural contexts and sectors showing a positive relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness (Boyatzis & Van Oosten, 2003; George, 2000; Goleman .., 2002; Hartley, 2004; Hopkins, O'Neil & Williams, 2007; Rajah et al., 2011; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999) and job performance (e.g. Ferna´ndez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Mills, 2009; O'Boyle et al., 2011). Using an instrument similar to the ESCI, a study on Spanish executives in three public sector organisations show that EI competencies (ECI) are valuable predictors of job performance as measured by performance nominations (Ramo et al., 2009: 771). In addition, Cherniss et al.'s (2006) review of EI studies show superior performers scoring higher in all four ECI clusters.

Moreover, a number of meta-analyses confirm the significant relationship between EI and performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004; Van Rooy et al., 2005). Van Rooy and Viswesvaran's (2004) meta-analysis of sixty-nine EI studies offers empirical support for the view that EI predicts performance across different domains. In a recent meta-analysis, Joseph and Newman (2010) found that the incremental validity to explain job

performance, for three categories of EI measures, was above the incremental validity of both the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality and cognitive ability.

In a later meta-analysis on the relation between emotional intelligence and job performance, O'Boyle et al. (2011: 806) confirmed that EI relates to job performance over and above cognitive ability and personality. They found that stream 3 mixed models (e.g. EQ-I and ECI/ESCI) displayed the largest incremental validity "above and beyond the FFM and cognitive ability in the prediction of job performance" (O'Boyle et al., 2011: 803).

In their review of empirical evidence on three streams of EI and leadership, Walter et al. (2011: 55), conclude that empirical research has produced "notable findings", contributing to a better understanding of the relationships between EI and leadership effectiveness.

In addition, several studies show a positive relationship between leader emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (e.g. Barling et al., 2000; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Mills, 2009; Piel, 2008; Schlechter, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999) and charismatic leadership (Bono et al., 2007; Shamir et al., 1994). Transformational leadership scholars have theorised the significance of a leader's impact on their followers' emotional states (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). For example, Piel (2008) found that the relationship management cluster was a potential predictor of transformational leadership and subsequently demonstrated that all ESCI clusters were positively correlated with the transformational leadership factors, but negatively associated with transactional leadership (2008: 124). Similarly, in a South African study, Schlechter (2005) found positive correlations between leader emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.

Goleman et al. (2002) suggest that relationship management is where emotional and social intelligence become most visible to others. The competencies in this cluster are claimed to impact on the motivation and performance of others. Other evidence implies that task-related skills and knowledge are not adequate in achieving tasks in a teamwork setting, and that interpersonal (relationship management) and self-management skills are essential for performing well in a teamwork setting (Stevens & Campion, 1994).

9.3   SELF-AWARENESS: FUNDAMENTAL TO LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

In Confucian theory on leadership formation, dating thousands of years, it was thought that, "If you want to be a leader … you must understand yourself first" (Senge, et al., 2004: 180). From the ancient philosophers to post-modern transformational leaders, to 'know thyself' (an ancient Greek aphorism, inscribed on the forecourt of the Temple of Apollo at Delphi) has transcended space, time and cultures. In 1975, during his imprisonment, Nelson Mandela (2010: viii) wrote: "Development … is inconceivable without serious introspection, without knowing yourself, your weaknesses and mistakes." Mahatma Gandhi's "interpersonal and social skills played a great role to give India's freedom struggle a new vision. Values and ethics combined with Emotional Intelligence was what made him a distinct leader – the 'Mahatma' [great soul]" (Bansal & Hingorani, 2013: 142).

The current study confirms these claims: the self-awareness cluster showed the strongest correlation with leadership performance. Moreover, self-awareness displayed the largest significant difference in means between the top- and low-performing leaders. Among twelve EI competencies, the competency of emotional self-awareness (ESA) showed the third strongest correlation with leadership performance. These findings highlight the significance of self-awareness on the leadership process as shown in several research studies. For example, Havers (2010) established that participants with high ESA display more ESCI competencies at strength. The current study results support Havers' (2010) claim: the participants with nine or more ESCI strengths had significantly higher ESA scores than those with three or fewer EI strengths.

 The emotional self-awareness concept is widely regarded as fundamental to the concept of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995; Goleman et al., 2002; Harvey, Martinko & Gardner, 2006; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The ESA competency (Goleman et al., 2002) emphasises the significance of a leader's awareness, description and expression of their feelings, and its relation to their actions or behaviour. A key element in this competency is the ability to acknowledge one's own strengths and weaknesses.

Leadership theorists (e.g. Bass, 1985, 2008; Bennis, 2003, 2009; Burns, 1978) have generally maintained the significance of self-awareness for the progress of humanity, let alone leadership effectiveness. Piel's (2008: 124) research using the ESCI found that self-awareness was strongly correlated with the transformational leadership ability of idealised influence (Bass & Avolio, 1994). This leadership approach has a strong focus on sense of self (Bass, 1995). Likewise, authentic leadership theory (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2011; Harvey et al., 2006) portrays leaders as self-aware. Leadership development subsequently focuses on "ongoing processes whereby leaders and followers gain self-awareness" (Avolio & Gardner, 2005: 322; Boyatzis, 2006; Cherniss et al., 2010).

Recently, Day et al. (2014: 17), in their 25-year review of journal articles on advances in leader and leadership development research and theory, in the *Leadership Quarterly*, determined that

> … one of the fundamental components of effective leadership is self-awareness or self-understanding … the importance of recognizing how one is perceived by others in order to develop a more accurate self-view. This self-view subsequently shapes an understanding of one's own strengths and weaknesses, ultimately influencing decision-making and subsequent behavior.

Despite the strong correlation between ESA and leadership performance in the present study, ESA received the lowest mean rating from all rater groups, including self-raters. The result may imply an overall perception that the leaders' ESA competence, i.e. to understand their emotions, drives, strengths, weaknesses and seek out feedback to improve performance, is an important area for development. The contextual analytical results on the behaviours of the leaders (presented in Chapter 6) confirm the need to develop this competency among senior managers. In contrast, the qualitative results on the top-performing leaders' behaviours indicate ESA competence as a strength in their leadership outcomes.

9.4 ADAPTABILITY: LEADING STRATEGICALLY IN CHANGING CONTEXTS

The Adaptability competence emphasises a leader's effective adaptation to shifting priorities, complexity, uncertainty, rapid change, multiple demands and changing overall strategy, goals or

projects to cope with unexpected events or that fit the situation (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007). Therefore, it represents the ability to lead strategically in complex and changing contexts.

The current study results indicate that the adaptability competency displayed the strongest correlation with leadership performance and the second-largest significant difference in means between high- and low-performing leaders. The case studies (Chapter 8) of the top-performing leaders illustrated their adeptness at applying their adaptability competence in situations of complex change, through behaviours and actions related to flexibility, open-mindedness and ambiguity.

Several leadership scholars confirm the importance of this Self-management competency in public service leaders facing "wicked problems" in their turbulent "permanent white water" environment (Vaill, 1996; Kramer, 2008; Newman et al., 2009). As public sector scholars, Morse and Buss (2008: 5) remarked: "The context in which public leadership occurs is changing. The practice of public leadership is transforming."

In addition, adaptability is strongly associated with transformational leadership (Bass, 2008; Tucker & Russell, 2004; Piel, 2008; Humphrey, 2002). Transformational leaders adeptly apply their adaptability competence in times of change to shift the status quo, find innovative ways, experiment and take risks, and learn from mistakes and failures (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

This leadership approach is effective during times of constant and rapid change, uncertainty and crises (Bass, 1999; Humphrey, 2002). Therefore, transformational leaders "need strong emotional self-management in order to persevere under difficult circumstances" (Humphrey, 2002: 496). Under these situations, these leaders show strong task leadership by scanning the environment, grasping the key elements, and developing a vision and plan for the future (Humphrey, 2002: 496).

In addition, Kellis and Ran (2013: 138) claim that traditional leadership approaches (e.g. transactional) are ineffective in a highly complex and rapidly changing environment facing many public organisations. They show strong correlation between their tenets of the "new public leadership theory" (including key features of authentic, transformational and distributed leadership theories) and positive organisational outcomes.

Moreover, Heifetz (1994: 22) claims that effective leaders focus on their personal and organisational adaptive capacity to undertake adaptive work, which requires "… change in values, beliefs, or behaviour." Likewise, Frederickson and Matkin (2007: 41) suggest that effective public leaders understand the complexity of public problems and the "divergent attitudes, behaviour, and values that underlie complex problems", with no quick fixes. During times of uncertainty and change, these leaders view the adaptation of these public institutional values as their primary challenge, and recognise and understand the significance of organisational culture, i.e. the organisation's pattern of beliefs, values and behaviours (Anechiarico, 1998; Schein, 1990, 2004).

However, in the present study, leaders' mean Adaptability score (for both self and others raters) did not feature in the top four EI competency scores, though the top performers were rated fourth-highest in adaptability.

Additionally, a distinctive feature of public service organisations is the rigid and enduring hierarchical and bureaucratic structures and systems (e.g. administrative and planning). Agility and flexibility in responding to changes are not common features in public organisations (Ingraham, 2009: 218). The public governance structures and systems pose real constraints on the ability of public leaders to adapt to change (as observed in the contextual analysis presented in Chapter 6), hindering the use of their adaptability competency. However, the top-performing leaders (with high EI competence) in this study context "buck" the trend, showing adeptness in leading effectively, despite the "culture of crisis management." Likewise, Van Wart (2011: 275–6) refers to adaptability as a key component of flexibility and a positive leadership trait, critical in all change functions (Stogdill, 1974), and note that it is essential in the "more complex and ambiguous" public service environment.

9.5   INSPIRATIONAL LEADERSHIP: INSPIRING A SHARED VISION

Inspirational leadership (IL) emphasises a leader's competence in inspiring followers, articulating a compelling vision, building group pride, and bringing out the best in their people (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2014). This EI competency displayed the second strongest correlation with leadership

performance in the study context and the largest significant difference in means for high- and low-performing leaders.

IL is strongly related to transformational leadership elements such as modelling the way, instilling pride, focusing on followers' needs, enunciating a clear and shared vision, and trust (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). For example, significant correlations were found between emotional intelligence competencies (using the ESCI) and transformational leadership scores, using the Avolio & Bass (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Piel, 2008: 118). Kouzes and Posner's (1995) exemplary transformational leadership practice, "Inspire a Shared Vision", relates closely to the competence of IL. In this practice, leaders envision the future, create an ideal and unique future image of the organisation, give dynamism to their visions, and convince people to see exciting possibilities for the future. Also associated with IL is Kouzes and Posner's (1995) exemplary leadership practice of "enable others to act" – fostering collaboration, building spirited teams, actively involving others, promoting mutual respect, and striving to create a culture of trust and human dignity.

The top-performing leaders achieved the third-largest EI mean others score for IL competence (also illustrated in the case studies in Chapter 8), whereas IL did not rank in the top five mean ratings for the total sample of leaders. However, these leaders' mean self-scores indicated IL as the second-highest EI competency score. Consequently, IL recorded the second-largest significant mean difference between the self- and others' scores. The large self-other agreement discrepancy may imply that the leaders have an inflated perception of their IL abilities. This result confirms the leaders' low self-awareness (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010; Day et al., 2014), which was rated the lowest EI competency in this study. Alternatively, the leaders' inflated IL self-rating may be interpreted as the high value they place on IL as a desired competency.

9.6   POSITIVE OUTLOOK: OPTIMISM DESPITE OBSTACLES

An individual with strengths in the positive outlook (PO) competency sees possibilities and opportunities more than problems and threats, views the future with hope and believes that it will be better than the past, and sees the positive in people, situations and events – more than the

negative (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007. PO displayed the fourth-largest correlation with leadership performance. It recorded the third-largest others mean rating and the fourth-largest self-rating. In the sub-sample of high- and low-performing leaders, PO was rated the second-highest EI competence.

Research evidence indicates that transformational leaders score higher on optimism (Spreitzer & Quinn, 1996; Berson, Shamair, Avolio & Popper, 2001; Humphrey, 2002; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). For example, Berson et al. (2001: 56) claim that these leaders ''instil optimism, confidence, and faith in their followers by suggesting that although their challenges appear formidable, they can be successful by working together to create a better future.'' McColl-Kennedy and Anderson's (2002) research demonstrated a significant positive correlation between the transformation leadership style and team optimism. Pescosolido's (2002) qualitative analysis of twenty groups demonstrates the significance of leaders' emotions, such as creating feelings of optimism, on group emotions. Case examples show the positive relationship between managing emotions and effective performance (Pescosolido, 2002).

9.7   COMPETENCIES SHOWING INTERESTING RESULTS

Besides the four competencies presented above, the discussion that follows focuses on selected competencies, which showed interesting results or have important implications for leadership performance: empathy which showed the weakest correlation with performance, emotional self-control which showed no significant relationship with leadership performance, achievement orientation showed the highest mean score, coach and mentor displayed the second-lowest score, and teamwork had the second-highest mean score.

9.7.1   EMPATHY: SENSING OTHERS' FEELINGS AND PERSPECTIVES

Empathy (a social awareness competency) focuses on a leader's awareness and understanding of others by sensing their feelings and perspectives, and taking an active interest in their concerns. People who demonstrate this competency are able to pick up visual and emotional cues, understand what is being felt and thought, and listen attentively (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2007). Empathy is central to the EI model of Salovey and Mayer (1990: 194) defined as "the ability to

comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself." Moreover, Goleman and Boyatzis (2008: 74) refer to the "vital role that empathy and self-knowledge play in effective leadership." They (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2008: 74–75) refer to research in social neuroscience, which reveal that when leaders exhibit empathy and are "attuned to others' moods", then this affects the leaders' and their followers' brain chemistry.

This competence is also a crucial emotion for the transformational leadership style (Humphrey, 2002; Jin, 2010). Using the ESCI, Jin (2010: 171) established empathy as a significant predictor variable of transformational leadership among public relations leaders: "The more empathetic the leaders were, the more likely they were to demonstrate transformational leadership style. Likewise, Schlechter (2005) demonstrated that the empathy variable had the strongest correlation with transformational leadership.

Kellet, Humphrey and Sleeth (2002) established that empathy is a highly significant predictor of leadership emergence (influencing relationship-oriented leadership) and displaying empathy is suggested as a key route to leadership. Wolff, Pescosolido and Druskat (2002) confirmed the importance of empathy in leadership emergence. In addition, they claimed that empathy supports the cognitive skills required in task leadership (together with relationship-oriented skills) (Wolff, Pescosolido & Druskat, 2002). Therefore, managers high in empathy have a greater tendency to manage their emotions, thus supporting their leadership emergence.

In the current study, empathy displayed the lowest significant correlation with leadership performance. This 'vital' competency received the fourth-lowest mean others score and the third-lowest self-score (jointly with emotional self-control). However, the significant difference in means for the top- and low-performing leaders is consistent with the existing evidence presented above. Furthermore, the qualitative results (Chapter 8) in this study clearly highlight empathy as a key strength of the top-performing, highly emotionally intelligent leaders.

One possible explanation for the low correlation and mean scores lies in understanding the power dynamics within this social system (also refer to Chapter 6 on the contextual analysis). The qualitative evidence in Chapter 6 showed a large "power distance" (Hofstede, 1991; Minkov &

Hofstede, 2011) between the executive managers and the subaltern, with an ascendency of dissonant (commanding, uncaring, centralised and pacesetting) leadership styles.

Based on social neuroscience research, Hogeveen, Inzlicht and Obhi (2013) found that high-power individuals show reduced mental processing of others' actions and emotions. In their study, they (Hogeveen et al., 2013: 755) demonstrated that high-power participants exhibit lower levels of motor resonance than low-power participants, implying "reduced mirroring of other people" by the powerful. These differences suggest "neural mechanisms underlying power-induced asymmetries in processing our social interaction partners" (Hogeveen et al., 2013: 755).

Furthermore, Inzlicht and Obhi (2014) claim that those in "high positions of power are less able to adopt the visual, cognitive or emotional perspective of other people [empathy], compared to participants who are powerless." Therefore, the magnitude of power a person possesses changes in terms of how his or her brain responds to others' actions and emotions. Neurologically speaking, the powerful are "not motivated to care" (Inzlicht & Obhi, 2014). In addition, Fiske (1993) suggests that powerful people (with access to resources) generally do not pay much attention to those with less power and Goleman (2013: 121) contends that the "powerful tend to tune out the powerless. And that deadens empathy." The phenomenon of power distance and the negative relationship between power and empathy have serious implications for leadership processes and outcomes, especially in light of the considerable influence leaders have in their high-power positions over the subaltern.

9.7.2   EMOTIONAL SELF-CONTROL: KEEPING DISRUPTIVE EMOTIONS IN CHECK

Emotional self-control (ESC) is the only EI competency not to show a significant correlation with leadership performance. This result is surprising and seems counter-intuitive considering that this self-management cluster competency underscores composure, calmness, patience, managing frustration and acting appropriately in stressful and emotionally charged situations, therefore requiring leaders to control their impulses appropriately (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2014). Of the four Self-management cluster competency means, ESC scored the lowest. The self-raters' mean score for ESC was the third-lowest of the twelve competencies.

One possible explanation is the organisational culture and climate (marked by social exclusion, dissonant leadership styles, bureaucratic and hierarchical rigidity and power distance) in this public service context, which has a negative influence on leaders' actions and behaviours. Boyatzis and McKee (2005) term the stress that comes with senior management responsibility as "power stress". This brand of stress becomes chronic due to ongoing work pressure and the inhospitable organisational climate, resulting in leaders experiencing what they term as the sacrifice syndrome: coping by extreme and destructive self-sacrifice. The consequence is burnout, fatigue, illnesses, and the withholding of personal impulses and needs. For example, in their qualitative study, Haricharan and Wyley (2013: 138) found that senior managers transitioning in the South African public service felt overwhelmed, vulnerable, anxious and fearful.

In his polyvagal theory on the neurophysiological foundations of emotions and self-regulation, Stephen Porges (2011: xii) claims: "Problems with affect regulation [ESC] have pervasive effects on the development of mind and brain and lead to significant increases in the utilisation of medical, correctional, social and mental health services." This study's findings are consistent with Porges' theory on affect regulation: high incidence of illness, stress, depression and burnout (refer to Table 22 in Chapter 6).

Another explanation may be drawn from the qualitative results (presented in Chapter 6), which highlighted the dominance of personalised and centralised power at the executive management levels leading to dissonant commanding and pacesetting leadership behaviours and styles. These authoritarian leadership styles tend to influence impulse control and emotional self-regulation negatively. Sutton and Rafaeli (1988, quoted in Rajah, 2011: 1107–1108) suggest that "social regulations and norms affect an individual's expression of emotions", and that "informal rules … in the organization may result in the suppression of some felt emotions to the extent that they are not allowed to be displayed openly."

Goleman et al. (2002) highlight that ESC, i.e. the ability to calm oneself when upset or during negative or frustrating events, is a key EI personal competence distinguishing effective leaders and a social competence essential in calming team members that are upset or frustrated. The failure to self-regulate negative emotions effectively negatively influences the emotions of followers through

processes of "emotional contagion", i.e. the sharing or transfer of emotions from one individual to other group members (Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Goleman et al., 2002).

On the one hand, emotional contagion has relevance in the current study context as leaders' dissonant behaviours expressed through their negative emotions were found to have a deleterious influence on subordinates feelings and the organisation's climate, thereby leading to poor performance. On the other hand, the ESC competency displayed a significant difference in means for the top- and low-performing leader groups. In addition, this competency was an EI strength for the top-performing leaders, who displayed their ESC competence in their behaviours during critical workplace events (as presented in case studies in Chapter 8). This finding is in agreement with Gooty's (2007: 218) research finding that those with higher EI abilities "engaged in higher emotion-focused coping, thereby leading to better performance even after experiencing negative emotions."

Similarly, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) assert that a key role of leaders is to support team members cope with frustration and negative events, offering research evidence that demonstrate leaders' competence in influencing feelings of frustration and optimism had a significant correlation with performance. Adding to the discussion, Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst (2002) affirm this finding offering evidence that leaders supporting followers cope with negative events impact positively on team climate, which in turn influences performance. The implication of the existing research, and the findings on the top-performers in this study, emphasises the importance of well-developed leaders' ESC ability to manage their emotions and behaviours in complex, uncertain, turbulent "permanent white-waters" (Vaill, 1996) and emotionally charged public service settings.

The ESC competency is an important development area for the leaders in this study context. Self-management skills are essential in coping with the anxiety-provoking uncertainty and constant change in the public service context. Leaders using emotional self-awareness and self-management practices (e.g. calmness and patience) in controlling their impulses in tempestuous and emotionally charged work environments have positive impacts on those around them and their performance.

9.7.3   ACHIEVEMENT ORIENTATION: STRIVING FOR EXCELLENCE

This competency places emphasis on improving one's own performance through seeking ways to do things better, setting and achieving measurable and challenging goals, and initiating actions for improvement (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007). Van Wart (2011: 269) calls the achievement orientation (ACH) competency the "need for achievement" comprising three elements: task accomplishment, competition and excellence. He claims that achievement-oriented leaders and managers are critical to long-term productivity and success.

McClelland's (1985, 1987) research found a curvilinear relationship between ACH and leadership effectiveness. He cautioned that the inclination for achieving might become excessive and counter-productive. Therefore, very high achievers are actually at a disadvantage as they frequently find it difficult to suppress their competitive spirit in team settings (Van Wart, 2011). In addition, they define excellence in personal terms and dislike delegating (Van Wart, 2011: 270):

> Task orientation can become so intense that people doing the task are ignored or bullied. The competitive element can lead to managerial self-centeredness and a loss of subordinate loyalty. The drive for excellence can lead to micromanagement or rigid perfectionism.

In the current study, all respondent groups, including the self-raters, consistently rated the ACH competency the highest (total others mean score of 4.29; self-raters' mean score of 4.64). ACH recorded the sixth strongest correlation with leadership performance.

The significantly high mean scores for ACH, together with the contextual qualitative results (in Chapter 6) of the leaders' pacesetting, self-centred, rank-dominant, non-delegating, centralised, and task-focused behaviours, may imply that these leaders' have a tendency towards task or transactional leadership styles. These results confirm Van Wart (2011) and McClelland's (1985, 1987) observations on high ACH. Furthermore, the results confirm the leaders' high motivation for self-development and narrow focus on administrative tasks. The leaders' drive for self-development may come at the expense of developing their followers. The leaders' mean score for

the coach and mentor competency, the second-lowest among twelve competencies, supports this claim.

Task leadership relies on "routine rewards and procedures", whereas transformational and resonant leaders are "distinguished by their ability to emotionally involve their followers" (Humphrey, 2002: 497). Strong task-focus may lead to directive, pace-setting and commanding leadership styles – regarded as dissonant leadership styles (Goleman et al., 2002), rather than resonant (or transformational) leadership styles such as visionary, affiliative, democratic, and coaching. The latter styles require greater emotional competence: self-awareness, empathy, and emotional self-control.

The leaders' strengths in ACH may draw heavily on cognitive, logical and rational skills, and achievement motive (McClelland, 1985, 1987), which may drive highly task-focused managers to pay less attention to the personal and relational or affiliative motive (McClelland, 1985, 1987) aspects of their leadership. This inference is confirmed by their emotional self-awareness (ESA) competence – rated lowest by both self- and other raters. As stated earlier in this Chapter, this competence is a major development area for this group of executive managers. Similarly, they rated modestly in other critical EI competence: empathy (fourth-lowest rating), conflict management (fifth-lowest rating) and emotional self-control (sixth-lowest rating).

Palmer et al. (2006: 101) study of South African senior managers' emotional intelligence in private sector companies (mostly white males) found that their "affective and social aspects of emotionally intelligent behaviour appeared to be a development area." They displayed strengths in aspects of cognitive capacity. Likewise, Coetzee's (2005) findings among a cohort of South African managers are consistent with Palmer et al.'s (2006) results.

Drawing on Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer (1998), Palmer et al. (2006: 103) emphasise the dominance of the ACH competency, which lean towards supporting

…rational approaches to decision-making, which emphasise creating challenging

visions, setting stretching goals and demonstrating self-confidence in achieving

these in an objective, detached and hard-headed manner. Emotions are typically

put aside as logic is followed wherever it leads.

9.7.4   COACHING AND MENTORING: CONCERN FOR DEVELOPING OTHERS

The coach and mentor (C&M) competency emphasises the concern and ability to foster the long-term learning or development of others by giving feedback and support (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2007). C&M displayed the sixth-largest, moderate correlation with leadership performance and the second-lowest mean score (slightly lower than ESA, four of the five respondent groups rated C&M as either second- or third-lowest competence). Furthermore, this competency had the largest competency gap (smallest self-other agreement), i.e. the highest mean difference between self- and other ratings.

This low self-other agreement result may imply that the leaders have a significantly exaggerated perception of their concern and effort in developing others and providing ongoing coaching and mentoring. This result also suggests low self-awareness of these leaders (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010), discussed further in the next section. Notably, the sample of top-performing leaders displayed significantly higher ratings in the C&M competence compared to their low-performing counterparts. In addition, C&M showed the third-largest mean difference between these two groups of leaders (after adaptability and inspirational leadership).

Roark's (2013:193) study found that two ESCI competencies, namely Emotional Self-awareness, and Coach and Mentor were the best predictors of servant leadership. The case studies on the top-performing leaders with high EI competence illustrated the effective use of their C&M competence in supporting and developing their team members during challenging organisational transformation. Their concern for the personal growth of their subordinates distinguished them from their low-performing counterparts.

9.8   SIGNIFICANCE OF SELF- AND OTHERS RATINGS

Scholars such as Day et al. (2014) consider comparisons of self-ratings to mean ratings across other rater groups as beneficial. Research question 3 examined the nature of the relationship

between the multi-source EI ratings and leadership performance. The intention was to investigate patterns between the different ratings on EI and performance, and to test scholarly claims on the significance of self-other agreement ratings (SOA), presented in the first part of this section. The SOA concept assists in understanding the EI competency gap (i.e. the difference between self- and others ratings of EI) and its relationship with leadership performance. Part two of this section discusses the relationship between SOA and leadership effectiveness, while part three focuses on SOA and self-awareness.

9.8.1   RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SELF- AND OTHERS RATINGS

Firstly, a number of scholars (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Coetzee, 2005; Fleenor et al., 2010; Hay Group, 2011) claim that self-ratings tend to be inflated compared to others ratings. This study confirms these claims: self-ratings do tend to be exaggerated as half the self-rating participants overestimated their scores, i.e. their EI competency gap was higher than the average self-other rating difference. Additionally, all the EI clusters and competencies mean self-ratings were higher than those of the others ratings.

Secondly, Atwater and Yammarino (1992: 141) claim that self-ratings are less highly related to ratings by others (e.g. peers, supervisors or subordinates) than the others ratings are with one another. This study's results are largely consistent with their conclusion: highly significant ($p <$ 0.01) differences were found in EI mean ratings between the self-raters and supervisors, and between the supervisors and subordinates, peers, others, and clients groups; and, in addition, significant ($p < 0.05$) differences between self and subordinates and peer groups.

The largest significant mean difference in ratings was between the executive managers and their supervisors, i.e. their superiors had rated them the lowest consistently in all twelve competencies (low self-other rating agreement). This result may imply low confidence in their subordinates on the part of the superiors (either at a rank of Head of Department or a Deputy-Director General) compared to other rater groups. This result requires further investigation to understand its significance.

Thirdly, Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) claim that others ratings display greater objectivity and higher multi-source-rater agreement compared to self-ratings. The latter claim is partly confirmed, as there was no significant difference in ratings between peers, subordinates, others and clients.

Fourthly, Atwater and Yammarino (1992) suggest that subordinate evaluations might be more relevant in predicting leadership behaviour outcomes than those of supervisors or peers in 360-degree surveys. Consistent with these findings, Halverson et al. (2002: 2) found that self-subordinate agreement was more important in predicting promotion rates (as a measure of leadership performance) than self-supervisor or self-peer agreement. In the current study, Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) analysis revealed a significant difference in self-subordinate EI mean ratings. These findings have important implications for assessments and leadership development programmes.

9.8.2.   SELF-OTHER AGREEMENT RATINGS AND LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

The relationship between self-other agreement (SOA) in ratings and performance has received much attention since the 1990s (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Fleenor et al., 2010; Day et al., 2014). Fleenor et al.'s (2010) review confirms the general positive relationship between SOA and leadership effectiveness.

Atwater and Yammarino (1992: 141–142) research concludes that over-raters (i.e. those with self-ratings that differ greatly from others ratings) are poorer performers compared to in-agreement raters or under-raters. The current study results confirm this conclusion: correlation analysis indicated a moderate negative significant relationship between the leaders' competency gap and their performance. Additionally, the ANOVA analysis indicated that low-performing leaders' self-ratings were on average seven times larger than that of their top-performing counterparts.

The present study results also compare favourably with other studies (e.g. Fleenor et al., 2010; Hay Group, 2011; Burckle, 2000). This implies the lower an individual's competency gap (namely in-agreement raters and under-estimators), the higher their performance, while over-estimators whose self-ratings differ greatly from observer ratings, tend to be poorer performers).

Additionally, Atwater and Yammarino (1992: 160) found that over-estimators "receive lower than average transformational leadership ratings from others" and perform lower than those with higher in-agreement ratings. In contrast, individuals displaying higher in-agreement ratings "are rated as more transformational [in their leadership style] by their subordinates; and these leaders are the best performers."

9.8.3   SELF-OTHER AGREEMENT RATINGS AND SELF-AWARENESS

Atwater and Yammarino's (1992: 141–142) research also conclude that individuals with high self-other agreement ratings are considered more self-aware. The current study's results corroborate this claim: the leaders with high Emotional Self-awareness scores displayed strong SOA, i.e. their competency gap was on average nine times lower than the low-scoring ESA leaders. The highly self-aware leaders were significantly superior performers receiving an average of 70% more performance nominations from their colleagues. Other studies (e.g. Carulli, 2003 cited in Hay Group, 2011; Fleenor et al., 2010) show similar findings, namely that self-aware individuals exhibit superior performance. Carulli's (2003) research, using the ESCI measure, revealed that managers with high Emotional Self-awareness mean scores tend to have smaller competency gaps. Likewise, Fleenor et al.'s (2010) review on self-other rating agreement affirms the positive relationship between low rating agreement and low self-awareness, particularly in the case of over-estimators.

These studies indicate that leaders with low self-awareness (over-estimators) tend to overrate their aptitude in recognising how their emotions affect their behaviour and actions, and ultimately their relationships and performance. They also tend to be ineffective leaders. In contrast, those with well-developed self-awareness abilities (i.e. high SOA) have a more realistic view of their strengths and weaknesses, and an accurate perception of how their feelings impact on their behaviour and relations. Therefore, leaders whose self-assessment is closer to others' evaluation tend to be more self-aware and tend to be effective leaders.

As SOA is used as a proxy in some studies to measure self-awareness, Day et al. (2014: 80) call for "valid and independent measures of self-awareness … in order to test the relationship between

self-awareness and leader effectiveness … [and] to more thoroughly investigate the relationships among self-awareness, rating agreement, and effectiveness for leader development purposes." The ESCI is one such measure as it includes the competency of self-awareness as a distinct independent variable.

9.9　　　POWER AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

Mindell (1995: 28) defines rank broadly as the "sum of a person's privileges", mediated through economics, race, gender and age. In this organisational setting, the participants referred to rank as power and privilege that is primarily associated with top management positions – those who have the social power to make decisions and distribute resources. Positional and authority-based power offered these leaders significant social status and privilege. Status is about relative importance, "pecking order" and seniority (Rock, 2008: 3).

Participants strongly framed rank within an analysis of social power and its relationship to leadership behaviours and styles, social exclusion, organisational culture, and public governance structures and systems. Leadership behaviours and social exclusion are discussed in the next section.

Leaders' with a strong orientation towards personalised power, i.e. leaders who are self-centred, an end in itself, used for dominance or further enhancing their power (McClelland, 1975, 1985, 1987), displayed dissonant leadership styles, i.e. a pacesetting style focusing relentlessly on results at all costs, and a commanding style – top-down and authoritarian. Also related to dissonant styles is the leaders' high Achievement Orientation (Goleman et al., 2002: 55).

The dissonant leadership behaviours had a negative impact on followers' self-worth, morale, aspirations and motivation, and on the organisational climate and culture. The result was high levels of frustration, despondency, demotivation and social antagonism, among the followers – compromising individual, team and organisational performance. Similarly, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) found that leadership style displayed a significant correlation with feelings of frustration and optimism, and that these feelings had considerable impact on performance.

In contrast to the dominant negative personalised power orientation and dissonant behaviours in the current study setting, participants favoured the positive use of power or a socialised power orientation, i.e. unselfish, advancing group goals, and developing others (McClelland, 1985). The top-performing leaders (high on emotional intelligence) displayed this power orientation with the use of resonant leadership styles, namely visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic styles (Goleman et al., 2002: 55). These leaders understand, inspire and develop independent followers, focusing on achieving organisational goals for the benefit of the entire organisation. These behaviours were evident in the behavioural events with top-performing and high EI leaders.

Goleman et al. (2002) claim that resonant leaders possess well-developed EI competencies compared to dissonant leaders. They also argue that resonant leaders are superior performers. Likewise, Pescosolido's (2002) qualitative case examples emphasise the important association between managing emotions and effective performance. In a similar vein, Pirola-Merlo et al.'s (2002) path analysis shows a strong relationship between leadership and team climate, which in turn strongly influences team performance. These findings are consistent with the current study's quantitative and qualitative results. Therefore, leaders who effectively manage their emotions and their team members' emotional processes display significant influence on individual and team performance.

In the current study context, 60% of the leaders possessed three or fewer EI strengths out of twelve, while 11% (the top performers) had nine or more strengths. Further, half the leaders received on average four leadership performance nominations compared to the twenty-four nominations on average received by the top 25%. These quantitative results are supported by the contextual qualitative study findings showing the dominance of dissonant leadership behaviours (i.e. high personalised power and low EI) and the consequent poor leadership performance (i.e. low average nomination scores). In turn, dissonant leaders have a negative impact on followers' motivation and performance, as reported by the provincial government's below average performance ratings in national performance surveys (RSA, 2013).

Another dominant narrative, directly linked to authoritarian leadership style, is the negative influence of rigid hierarchical and overly bureaucratic governance structures and systems. These

buttress the practice of dissonant leadership as power is centralised at the apex with limited or no delegated power to lower levels, even to some high rank levels. The ensuing long command chain was perceived as alienating, indecisive, inflexible and disempowering. The result is the executive management's immense rank (social power) governs the individual and collective consciousness and relationships, contributing to a polarised organisational culture of the powerful (mainstream executive managers) and the powerless (marginalised subaltern).

The severe bureaucratic rules, duties and norms make the public service one of the most frustrating places to work in. Many participants expressed a strong commitment to public service; however, the governance systems and dissonant leadership styles were key contributors to stress, illness and burnout, consistent with other research findings (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Haricharan & Wyley, 2013; Leiter & Harvie, 1996; Ruestow, 2008).

In contrast, the qualitative study on the top performers affirmed the positive correlation between EI competence and leadership performance, displayed through resonant leadership behaviours in critical workplace incidents. The socialised power-oriented and resonant leaders, antithetical to the commanding, rank-conscious, uncaring, self-interested and alienating dissonant leaders, "buck" the conventional trend of leadership in the public service through their substantial emotional intelligence strengths, supported by strong ethical and public service values.

These findings are consistent with the qualitative study on leadership transition in the South African public service (Haricharan & Wyley, 2013: 137–138), which found that "authoritarian and task-driven political and public administrative leadership considerably worsens the anxiety and difficulty experienced by senior managers entering the public service." They also found that the public service organisational culture into which leaders transitioned was discordant and hostile and new leaders felt unsupported, coping through self-sacrifice as they attempted to "stay afloat, occasionally swim, without sinking altogether" (Haricharan & Wyley, 2013: 146) in the turbulence of the public service "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996).

9.10   LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION

Leadership behaviours related to the dominant theme of social exclusion in the contextual qualitative study. The sub-themes, namely fairness and equity, voice, communications, and recognition and rewards influence social exclusion in the study setting. In this section, the dynamics between these concepts and leaders' behaviours will be discussed in reference to the study results and relevant literature. The original concept of social exclusion relates primarily to social dynamics within broader societal systems. However, it may be applied to other social systems, such as organisations. Social exclusion is considered a multidimensional concept relating to both economic-structural exclusion (with a distributional dimension), and to social-cultural exclusion (which refers to the relational dimension) (Jehoel-Gijsbers & Vrooman, 2007: 16).

William James, known as "The Father of Psychology" (James, 1950, 293–294), once wisely observed:

> If no one turned round when we entered, answered when we spoke, or minded
> what we did, but if every person we met 'cut us dead,' and acted as if we were
> non-existing things, a kind of rage and impotent despair would ere long well up in
> us, from which the cruellest bodily tortures would be a relief …

Current social neuroscience research (which examines the biological foundations of human behaviour) on physical and emotional pain confirms James's visionary insights regarding the effects of social exclusion. Chen, Williams, Fitness & Newton (2008: 789) in turn established that "threats to social inclusion lead to physiological changes consistent with preparation for a physical threat". People reported higher levels of pain after reliving a past socially painful event than after reliving a past physically painful event. Panksepp (1998: 262, quoted in Chen et al., 2008: 789) noted the importance of social acceptance and inclusion for mammals as our survival is "founded on the quality of our social bonds."

In the current contextual study, participants referred to both types of social exclusion: within the first dimension of serious deficits and unequal distribution of organisational resources, their ability to deliver public services was constrained. The second dimension was reflected as unsatisfactory

social integration (e.g. participation in formal social networks, social support, social alienation and inadequate cultural integration (e.g. upholding core norms and values, work ethics and social citizenship). For example, participants spoke of their leaders' behaviours influencing "unfairness", "inequality" and "inconsistency", and their "tendency of alienating the spade workers." Such behaviours, according to participants, impacted negatively on individuals and organisational culture, and on "team spirit, cohesiveness, and work culture" when managers do not treat employees fairly – leading to feelings of social exclusion. In such contexts, like the study setting, inner and outer circles form, fuelling social antagonism, instead of social cohesion, fairness and cooperation.

Moreover, discrete affective events in the workplace trigger "emotional experiences and subsequent emotional expressions and behaviors" (Rajah et al., 2011: 1107-1108) in subordinates, as claimed by Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) Affective Events Theory (AET). These moods and emotions are the results of cognitive appraisals of work experiences. When an employee experiences injustice in the workplace, the individual may decide to "get back" at the organisation through deviant behaviour (Rajah et al., 2011).

In addition, social neuroscience evidence suggests that fairness, equity, and co-operation "led to higher happiness ratings and increased activity in several reward regions of the brain." Social reinforcers – fairness and co-operation – are considered intrinsically rewarding and more likely to increase intrinsic motivation, and predict better performance and satisfaction, according to Tabibnia and Lieberman (2007: 97–98). Further, these scholars suggest that fair treatment may serve as a strong cue of social acceptance or inclusion, and is experienced as intrinsically rewarding. Multiple studies support the notion that money is not the only motivator as "even without additional monetary gain, fairness or cooperation leads to self-reported, behavioural, and neural evidence of reward" (Tabibnia & Lieberman, 2007: 90). Moreover, equity theory argues that fairness perceptions are motivational, and under-reward arouses an unpleasant emotional state and dissonance (Mowday, 1991, quoted in Abraham 2004: 127).

The current study's qualitative results are consistent with the above literature. Participants described multiple axes of recognition and rewards such as valuing ideas, consideration,

affirmation, respect and positive feedback. The latter "makes you feel good and you get motivated without money", stated a participant, referring to intrinsic rewards. However, in general their leaders' did not value, appreciate, and recognise their performance.

According to Levin (2009: 966), workplace surveys in the South African government revealed that the management level is the "focus of a great deal of discontent among ordinary public servants on the grounds of their perceived incompetence, poor communication and bias." They, i.e. management, are generally unwilling to apply the performance management fairly, which impacts accountability. Levin (2009: 966) adds that research shows substantial "resentment of head office and management, who are seen as frequently absent and disengaged or micro-managing and autocratic. Communication on a range of issues is required, including the vision and mission and strategic objectives." The results of the present study confirmed the obduracy of these management challenges, and showed the negative outcomes of the failure of communications, fairness, recognition, and rewards systems and management behaviours on the individual and collective consciousness – resulting in social exclusion.

Based on the findings of this study, it may be concluded that dissonant leadership behaviours and styles tend to create organisational climates and cultures that foster economic-structural and social-cultural forms of exclusion (Jehoel-Gijsbers & Vrooman, 2007). Psychologically safe climates and meaningfulness in their work motivate employees to be superior performers, exhibiting greater job involvement and superior performance (Abraham, 2004). Notably, resonant leadership styles (i.e. leaders with well-developed EI competence in self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management) promote an inclusive, relational, caring and supportive workplace culture (Goleman et al., 2002).

9.11   SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the results of the quantitative statistical analyses, the qualitative behavioural workplace events analysis, and the qualitative organisational social and cultural analysis. These analyses examined the overall study research question on the nature of the

relationship between executive managers' emotional intelligence (EI) competence and their leadership performance in a public service context.

The overall quantitative result of the positive EI-leadership performance relationship confirmed the findings from studies in other contexts. Furthermore, the results supported research findings that adopted a behavioural approach to EI and job performance on which the theoretical framework of the present study was based. Additionally, the four EI competencies that distinguish top-performing leaders, displaying the strongest correlations with leadership performance, namely adaptability, inspirational leadership, emotional self-awareness and positive outlook, found support in the literature as being important for leadership effectiveness.

Besides these four competencies, the discussion focused on the following selected competencies, namely empathy, emotional self-control, achievement orientation, coach and mentor, and teamwork. These competencies were selected as they either demonstrated counter-intuitive, uncharacteristic or thought-provoking results. The literature confirmed the relevance of the relationship between these competencies and leadership processes and outcomes. Furthermore, the significance of self-other agreement ratings (SOA), in particular its relationship with leadership effectiveness and self-awareness, were discussed in depth, supported by a large body of knowledge.

The chapter closed with a discussion on the contextual analytical results, which displayed the complex interplay between power and leadership behaviours, and leadership behaviours, governance systems and social exclusion. Behavioural literature and social and cognitive neuroscience literature confirmed the observations of the qualitative results.

In conclusion, the behavioural events analysis results demonstrated that the top-performing, emotionally intelligent leaders applied their EI competencies in dynamic interplay with their values, technical expertise, cognitive abilities and experiential learning in addressing workplace challenges. This dynamic process confirms other studies using the ESCI tool, which found that EI competencies are critical for solving complex challenges (e.g. Russell, 2014).

The results discussed in this chapter imply that certain emotional and social competencies may be particularly influential in leading effectively in negative and hostile "permanent white water" organisational climates, such as public service environments.

CHAPTER 10

IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

10.1   INTRODUCTION

Emotions are an integral part of human nature with greater importance in the workplace than its face value suggests (Rajah et al., 2011). The relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness displays a complex interplay between personal factors and behavioural characteristics relevant to effective leadership performance, mediated through the organisational context (Boyatzis, 1982, 2009; Young & Dulewicz, 2009). The overall results of this mixed-methods study, in a non-Western public service setting, found a significant, strong and positive relationship between EI and executive leadership performance. In general, these results confirm previous research findings in other contexts in the fields of EI and leadership. In addition, the present study contributed to distinctive findings to the literature.

In this concluding chapter, a summary of the study results will be presented, followed by their implications, the limitations of the study, recommendations for future research and the final conclusion.

10.2   SUMMARY OVERVIEW OF THE RESULTS

A summary overview of the results from the qualitative and the quantitative research are presented in this section. Firstly, as the relationship between the leaders' EI and their leadership performance is constructed in a social and cultural context, a qualitative research study was conducted to examine the multiple workplace realities, particularly in relation to leadership behaviours and styles. Thematic inductive analysis was performed on forty-seven interview transcripts across rank levels 7–15 in three participating provincial government departments (refer to Chapter 6 for the detailed results).

Secondly, the descriptive quantitative research, based on a set of research questions and hypotheses, tested and examined the relationship between executive leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership performance. The sample comprised thirty-five executive leaders from the participating departments. Statistical analyses (Spearman's correlation and ANOVA) were

performed on the data from the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) and leadership performance nominations (refer to Chapter 7 for the detailed results).

Thirdly, to gain a deeper understanding on the leaders' actual behaviour in the workplace (i.e. the manifestation of the EI competencies), a sample of the top five leaders (with the highest overall EI strengths) was studied using the Behavioural Events Interview (BEI) method (McClelland, 1998; Boyatzis, 1982). The qualitative data was analysed using thematic inductive analysis. In addition, three mini case studies based on the top-performing leaders behavioural events were presented. The thematic analysis and the mini-case studies were presented in Chapter 8.

10.2.1   RESULTS ON THE ORGANISATIONAL CONTEXTUAL REALITIES

The summary of results below suggests several contextual dialectical paradoxes related to the four domains of realities: intentional, behavioural, cultural and social (Wilber, 2000). These contextual realities influenced individual, team, leadership and organisational performance:

i) The dominant themes that emerged from the inductive analysis were social exclusion, leadership behaviours and styles, public service orientation, and public governance systems. Social exclusion was framed in terms of the factors of fairness and equity, voice, communications and recognition and rewards, while leadership styles related to dissonant and resonant styles (Goleman et al., 2002);

ii) Participants displayed a range of feelings – from dispirited to enthusiastic, and demoralised to optimistic. However, negative feelings, emotions and affect were the most dominant;

iii) Participants supported resonant leadership behaviours and styles (visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic), and censured their leaders' dominant dissonant styles (i.e. pacesetting and commanding). These styles negatively influenced individuals (e.g. demotivation, stress, burnout, illness and absenteeism) and the organisation's climate and culture.

iv) Participants expressed dedication and commitment to public service and cherished the Batho Pele (People First) public service beliefs, i.e. to care, to serve and to belong. However,

attaining these values are compromised by experiences of social exclusion and the polarisation between the lower-level employees (subalterns) and the senior and executive managers (mainstream). The outcome is a climate of demotivation, social antagonism, submission and poor performance; and

v)   Participants perceived the organisational governance structures and systems as extremely hierarchical, alienating, rigid, centralised and overly rule-bound. The decision-makers were regarded as authoritarian, rank-conscious, indecisive and absent. Huge resource deficits impeded the participants' ability to effectively perform their functions.

10.2.2   RESULTS ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE

The descriptive quantitative research focused on three objectives: firstly, to test the existence of a relationship between the leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership performance; secondly, to explore the nature of this bivariate relationship; and, thirdly, to investigate whether the different rating groups' perceptions differed from each other, and from that of the leaders' perception of their own EI behaviours, i.e. self-other agreement (SOA), and the relationship between SOA and performance.

The following overall statistical analytical results were obtained on the nature of the bivariate relationship between executive leaders' EI competence and leadership performance:

i)   The leadership performance nomination scores revealed that a quarter of the leaders received on average twenty-four nominations on average, while half received eight or fewer nominations, and the remaining quarter between zero to four nominations.

ii)   Eleven percent of the leaders had nine or more EI competency strengths out of a total of twelve EI competencies (i.e. mean scores at or close to 85% of the ESCI norm group), while 60% had three or fewer strengths.

iii)   An overall significant and positive correlation was found between EI and leadership performance, using Spearman correlation, including all four EI clusters and eleven social and emotional competencies, with the exception of the emotional self-control competency.

iv) Four EI competencies, namely adaptability, inspirational leadership, emotional self-awareness and positive outlook displayed the strongest significant and positive correlations with leadership performance;

Table 48 below is a summary of the EI competencies with significant correlations and their effect size.

Table 48. Summary of significant correlations between emotional and social intelligence competencies related to leadership performance.

	Strong	Moderate	Weak
Emotional intelligence	Adaptability Emotional self-awareness Positive outlook	Achievement orientation	
Social intelligence	Inspirational leadership	Influence Teamwork Coach and mentor Conflict management Organisational awareness	Empathy

Note: p < 0.01 for all competencies, except Empathy, p < 0.05. The correlations are in descending order of strength.

v) The leaders' EI competency gap (difference between self- and total others EI ratings) showed a moderate, negative and significant relationship with leadership performance;

vi) Using ANOVA, a significant difference was found in EI scores between top- and low-performing leaders. The top performers' SOA was significantly higher than their low-performing counterparts. In addition, leaders with high SOA displayed higher emotional self-awareness scores.

vii) Significant differences of mean among the five rater groups' EI scores, and between the self- and others raters' scores were found. The largest mean difference was between the self-raters and their managers.

10.2.3   RESULTS ON THE TOP PERFORMERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE BEHAVIOURS

The key results from the BEI analysis and case studies highlighted the high performing, emotionally intelligent leaders' exemplary abilities in successfully resolving complex strategic, operational, behavioural, cultural and social work-related challenges:

i)   The top performing leaders displayed high-level, integrative proficiency in employing their values, technical expertise and knowledge, cognitive abilities, experiential learning, together with their emotional and social competencies, both strategically and relationally, in addressing workplace leadership job demands.

ii) Adeptness and adaptability in using the twelve EI competencies, and selectively drawing on the most appropriate competencies depending on the situation;

iii) Distinctive strengths in the EI competence of emotional self-awareness, empathy, adaptability, inspirational leadership, coach and mentor, and teamwork – competence representing all four EI clusters: self-awareness, social awareness, self-management and relationship management. Most of these competencies displayed strong effect size in correlation with leadership performance (presented in the previous section);

iv) Advanced ability to draw on their EI strengths to guide and support their well-developed resonant leadership styles, i.e. visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic styles; and

v) Strong motivational drivers, and ethical and moral values, such as integrity, fairness, transparency, caring, respect and trust; and motives, such as socialised power, in their dedication to exemplary public service, and individual, team and organisational development.

10.3   IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

Through the lens of the study's conceptual and theoretical framework, and mixed-methods research and analysis instruments, the results of this study have significant theoretical and practical implications for public leadership and emotional intelligence, including socio-cultural aspects of public organisations.

The overall finding showed that leaders' emotional and social intelligence competence (intentional domain), mediated through their behaviours and leadership styles (behavioural domain), influenced their leadership performance (job demand) and in turn the organisational climate and culture (cultural and social domains). Notably, this is the first integrated study to demonstrate the

above research outcomes in a non-Western and public service context. The results confirmed the findings of several scholars and provided unique findings in the study setting.

This section presents the major theoretical and practical implications emanating from the study's key results: leadership and EI models, EI methods, leadership and EI development, and socio-cultural transformation.

10.3.1   IMPLICATION FOR LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE MODELS

The first major implication of this study's results is the need for suitable public leadership models that understand the unique public service context and the needs of its leaders. Public service scholars (in Chapter 3) also raised this need. Any leadership competency model will need to be mindful of the distinctiveness of leading in the public service and such models must serve to "develop a distinctive public sector leadership brand" (Mau, 2009: 335).

The transformational and emergent (e.g. ethical, servant, authentic and spiritual) leadership models signalled a "Kuhnian" paradigm shift from the dominant task-focused transactional models to more relational and affective models of leadership. Leadership research trend analyses (e.g. Dinh et al., 2014) have noted a significant increase in leadership and organisational behaviour scholarship viewed through a lens of ethics, morals, values and altruism. In particular, feelings, emotions and affect are central concepts that ground transformational and the emergent leadership models, and aid in understanding leadership processes and outcomes.

Transformational and emergent leadership models offer the public service appropriate exemplars in the pursuit of distinctive public leadership models. However, public service leadership models remain extremely managerial and transactional, and pay little attention to appropriate public values (DeSeve, 2007; Van Wart, 2011:17) and emotions and feelings (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006; Newman et al., 2009; Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010). Besides knowledge, skills and abilities, the Commonwealth Association of Public Administration and Management (CAPAM, 2005: 5) suggests that public servants should have a "firm grounding in public sector values and beliefs."

The Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) resonant leadership model, based on emotional and social intelligence (EI), focusing on the critical competencies of self-awareness that enables self-

management, social awareness and relationship management, was tested in this study. Such a model is particularly relevant in a context of hierarchy, and authoritarian and task-driven dissonant public leadership styles that are critiqued by several public sector scholars (e.g. Van Wart, 2011; Denhardt & Denhardt, 2006), and shown to create a discordant, hostile and inhospitable workplace climate and culture (as presented in Chapter 6).

Instead, the results emphasised the effectiveness of resonant leadership styles, namely visionary (offering direction), coaching (supporting and developing), affiliative (people-focused and relational), and democratic (transparent and collective) styles. The results demonstrated that resonant leadership styles (similarly for transformational and emergent models) require high levels of emotional and social competence.

In addition to well-developed EI competencies, the need to include ethics and morals emerged in this study as foundational to any public service leadership and EI model. This is evident in both qualitative results (in Chapter 6 and 8) and the literature review (Chapter 3 and 4), both highlighting the importance of public values and ethics in the public service environment, especially in light of the meteoric rise in corrupt practices and low citizen trust of public institutions over the past few decades. The top performing leaders' effective use of their technical expertise, knowledge, and EI and cognitive competencies was grounded in their principled conscience, moral reasoning, ethical practice and public service values (in this context to care, to serve, and to belong; refer to the case studies in Chapter 8).

Segon and Booth (2015) draw attention to the absence of ethics training in management education and question whether leaders are conscious of their moral dimensions. They regard ethics and morals as mandatory for superior performance, and propose that morals and ethics are essential elements in leadership models and development. In addition, Hursthouse (1999: 108, quoted in Segon and Booth, 2015: 797) emphasises the role emotions play in virtues. In a similar vein, three decades ago, Bass (1985) had advocated that leadership-transforming processes require competence in emotions and values.

10.3.2 IMPLICATION FOR EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE METHODS

The second major implication is that the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) is a reliable instrument to measure EI competence in non-Western and public service contexts (based on the high Cronbach's coefficients for the ESCI in the current study). As a 360-degree feedback process, based on self- and multisource ratings, the ESCI has greater reliability than single-source instruments and is appropriate for development purposes. Furthermore, results on self-other agreement in this study and several other studies (e.g. Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010; Day et al., 2014) found significantly inflated self-EI ratings compared to others ratings.

As the ESCI does not directly measure ethics and morals, Segon and Booth (2015) propose a virtue ethics approach, as opposed to merely a utilitarian- or duty-based approach to measure EI competencies, suggesting the inclusion of an ethical management cluster and a set of competencies based on virtue ethics in the ESCI. The testing of their proposal could provide a model for an integrated value-based approach to an emotional and social competence measurement tool.

10.3.3 IMPLICATION FOR LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE DEVELOPMENT

The third major implication from the overall study result of a positive relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership performance, in the public service context, is that it offers opportunities for leadership development, in particular a strong case for cultivating ethical and emotionally intelligent leaders. This means that leaders need to maintain greater control over their emotional and social life in the workplace as it significantly influences their behaviours and actions. Importantly, leaders' emotions, feelings and behaviours impact those around them, influencing their performance ("emotional contagion"). Effective leaders not only manage their own emotions, but they also manage those of their team members.

In the current study context, over 60% of the executive leaders had three or fewer (out of twelve) ESCI strengths. This result indicates that EI competence is an important development area for these leaders to effectively navigate the complexity and uncertainty of the public service "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996) environment and 21st-century vicissitudes. In particular, as

over half the leaders received one third of the leadership performance nominations compared to the upper quartile leaders. These results have serious implications for leadership development programmes that take a uniform and generic "one-size fit all" approach to developing competencies, without differentiating top-performing and high EI leaders from the low-performing and low EI counterparts. The emotional and social capital of the top performing leaders needs consideration, e.g. they could play the role of coach and mentor to the low performers.

As leadership development is a multilevel phenomenon with a focus on both intrapersonal and interpersonal changes (Day, 2000), EI models and measures comprising both personal and social competencies are most suitable for development. Day et al.'s (2014) recent comprehensive review of twenty-five years of leadership development research and theory found that emotional intelligence competencies are needed for leadership and managerial development initiatives. They also found support for 360-degree feedback tools (e.g. the ECI/ESCI) as a process to facilitate leader and leadership development as feedback from multisource rating fosters self-awareness and the development of individual leaders. As shown in this study, self-ratings are significantly inflated and for this reason have limitations for development purposes. This result confirms similar findings by Atwater and Yammarino (1992) and Fleenor et al. (2010).

Additionally, SOA ratings are an important factor in increasing the self-awareness of individuals participating in leadership development programmes using multi-source ratings (e.g. Atwater and Yammarino, 1992; Fleenor et al., 2010). A leader's awareness of his or her SOA gap is vital in their adaptation and learning processes (Boyatzis, 2006; Day et al., 2014). The current study's multi-source ratings results compare favourably with existing research findings. Therefore, the use of 360-degree survey feedback is a valued method for EI and leadership development. Furthermore, what subordinates think of their leaders influences their own "commitment, productivity, and overall organizational effectiveness" (Van Wart, 2011: 48). For this reason, it is beneficial for leaders to know how their subordinates perceive their leadership.

A number of scholars support Goleman and Boyatzis' (2008) position that EI competencies are learned from experience and could be developed through "sincere desire and concerted effort" (Goleman, 1998: 97), resulting in outstanding performance. To this end, Boyatzis (2006: 608–609)

advocated the theory of self-directed learning, later called the intentional change theory (ICT), a complex system defining the "essential components and process of desirable, sustainable change in one's behaviour, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions", in shifting from the "real self" to "ideal self". The ICT is a key developmental constituent of the Goleman et al. (2002) and Boyatzis and McKee's (2005) resonant leadership and EI competency model.

In the context of this study's results, the ICT provides a beneficial learning frame for leaders in assessing their deficient areas and acquiring new feelings, behaviours and attitudes required to enhance their competence for outstanding leadership performance. This desired adaptation requires reflection and experimentation. In addition, Boyatzis and McKee (2005) encourage the development of EI competencies for mindfulness (self-awareness), hope (positive outlook) and compassion (empathy) to counteract the "sacrifice cycle" (prevalent in the public service) and support renewal and resonance – relevant to public service leaders dealing with their white-water environment.

In the white-water public service context, and in knowledge of adult learning and EI theory and practice, it is unlikely that short training courses based on technical inputs and cognitive processes are sufficient to shift leader behaviour towards the ideal self and bear sustained results in the workplace. This assertion is supported by Day et al.'s (2014: 80) comprehensive leadership development review that those merely participating in a series of workshops or seminars will not develop fully as a leader, suggesting that, "ongoing practice through day-to-day leadership activities is where the crux of development really resides." Van Wart (2011: 25) adds to the discussion that formal training is the smaller component of leadership development. A century ago, Friedrich Nietzsche (1908, 2004) emphasised the value of experiential learning: "No one can draw more out of things, books included, than he already knows. A man has no ears for that to which experience has given him no access."

As such, leadership development programmes should be informed by research into emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies (Boyatzis, 2006, 2008), and adult learning theory and research (Kolb, 1984; Rainey & Kolb, 2014). Experiential learning platforms that address behavioural and attitudinal changes in a social context are regarded as most effective for

leadership development (Boyatzis, 2006; Goleman et al., 2002; Kolb & Boyatzis, 1970; Yeganeh & Kolb, 2009).

Public service policy makers and practitioners in talent management and organisational development should seriously note the multiple implications of leaders' emotional intelligence competence and performance. Possible areas of consideration are executive leadership frameworks and development programmes, recruitment and selection, career paths, and succession planning.

In light of the significant results on EI competence for leadership performance, and the deficient EI competence of many executive managers, the conceptual and theoretical grounding of leadership and management development in the South African public service context needs consideration, both at the policy and practice levels. The Senior Management Service (SMS) Leadership and Management Competency Framework's (LMCF) (RSA, 2003a, 2010) set of ten competencies focuses narrowly on cognitive abilities and technical expertise, with a limited number of emotional and social competencies.

The democratic transitioning and transforming of the South African psycho-socio-political environment, experiencing daily acts of "citizenship insurgency"[3] (CSVR/SWOP, 2011) and persistent demand for better public services, have serious implications for executive public leaders and leadership. In this context, achieving the visionary public service and leadership transformation objectives (RSA, 1995, 1997, 2000, 2001, 2003a, 2010, 2012) will require transformational, resonant and emergent value-based leadership models and measurement frameworks, emphasising the importance of emotionality and leadership (Rajah et al., 2011). A number of scholars (Ryan et al., 2009) support this proposition. For example, Sims-Vanzant (2007)

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[3] Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVR) and the Society Work and Development Institute (SWOP) (2011) study "The Smoke that Calls" highlights the concept of 'insurgent citizenship' in explaining violence during community protests and xenophobic attacks in seven black South African townships. The processes of class formation are producing 'differentiated citizenship', which distributes rights and privileges differentially. In claiming their citizenship, marginalised groups respond through acts of 'insurgent citizenship' – comparable to community struggles in the 1980s, with similar repertoires of violence in current insurgencies over citizenship and social exclusion.

suggests that emotional intelligence competencies should be the minimum requirements for public service managers.

10.3.4   IMPLICATION FOR PUBLIC GOVERNANCE MODELS

The fourth major implication of the results relates to the enduring nature of traditional public service hierarchical and bureaucratic social and cultural structures and systems, and public leadership. For the past century, the public service has drawn heavily on industrial-era scientific management and administrative organisational theory and practice. This study showed the negative outcomes on individuals and organisations within the context of rigid, centralised and top-down governance systems. The results suggest that the traditional organisational models are obsolete in the current complex and turbulent public service institutional environment. Rather, these models engender dissonant leadership styles and social exclusion in the workplace. Perhaps this conventional resilient public institutional edifice, fortified by command and control leadership styles, has thwarted "public administration from being clear about its position toward emotions and feelings" (Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010: 72).

Renowned systems theorist and innovator Richard Buckminster Fuller once observed: "To change something, build a new model that makes the existing model obsolete" (quoted in Laloux, 2014:1). New public governance models have substantial implications for leadership approaches, power relationships, human resources management and organisational behaviour. As Morse & Buss (2008: 6) recognises that, "the transformation toward the new governance [models] coincides with the transformation of leadership in the public sector."

While other public service scholars have taken up the challenge of creating new models, e.g. Kellis and Ran (2013) proposed a new public leadership theory that combines key aspects of authentic, transformational and distributed leadership theories, positing that effective leadership in the public service is networked and non-hierarchical, and based on core values. Another example is Denhardt and Denhardt (2006) and Denhardt's (2009) "new public service" model calling on managers to serve rather than steer, underscoring the significant role of human emotions and qualities such as empathy and intuition in public leadership.

Transforming public governance systems implies the need for a greater focus of leadership development on the social and cultural settings and processes, and less on the qualities of individual leaders (Schweigert, 2007, quoted in Van Wart 2011:17). The results indicates that centralised, rank-conscious, and dissonant leadership styles (low levels of EI competence), together with a stifling hierarchy, impact negatively on fairness, equity, voice, recognition and rewards. The result is experiences of social exclusion experienced mainly by the subaltern in public institutions. This takes the form of both distributional (in resource-deficit settings) and social-cultural exclusion. The impact is poor individual, team and organisational performance.

The present research results confirm neuroscience findings on social exclusion. Social and cognitive neuroscientists, Tabibnia and Lieberman's (2007: 97) research findings compels a better understanding of social exclusion factors such as fairness and equity in the workplace, as the "tendency for people to prefer equity and resist unfair outcomes is deeply rooted." For this reason, "inequity aversion plays an important role in organisational settings." Likewise, David Rock's (2008) SCARF framework, an application of findings from neuroscience to the field of leadership, captures the common factors that can activate a reward or threat response in social situations, e.g. in the workplace. The five domains are status, certainty, autonomy, relatedness and fairness. This framework supports leaders in cultivating self-awareness and social awareness, and building social relationships in the workplace (Rock & Schwartz, 2006; Rock, 2008, 2009).

10.4   STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS

The following are the strengths of this study:

- Firstly, data was collected from four of the ten provincial government departments, representing a reasonable range;
- Secondly, mixed methods comprising both quantitative and qualitative research methods and analysis complemented each other, lending greater credibility of the data and the "voices" of multiple realities;

- Thirdly, both dependent and independent variables were measured by multi-source raters, enhancing the reliability of the data collected, and also avoiding same-source bias (though, there was some overlap of raters); and

- Fourthly, the reliability of the ESCI instrument, measured by Cronbach's coefficients, showed high consistency; and, finally, O'Boyle et al. (2010) confirmed that models such as the ESCI have higher incremental validity than cognitive ability and personality measures in predicting job performance.

Despite the confidence in the research design and the results of the present study, a few limitations were observed. The research design limitations were detailed in Section 5.7.

The limitations were:

- Firstly, the small sample size of executive managers (n = 35) in the quantitative research as the initial sample size of 67 participants did not materialise due to a number of factors beyond the researcher's control;

- Secondly, the sample size for the qualitative behavioural interviews of the top-scoring EI leaders (n = 5) may be considered small;

- Thirdly, the generalisability of the results to other settings may be limited due to the small sample size;

- Fourthly, as the study was conducted at a public service organisation and the executive managers were public servants, this limits the transferability to other work environments, such as the private sector and their executives; and

- Finally, the dependent variable was measured through a broad measure of leadership performance, which limits the examination of the multiple facets of this complex phenomenon.

10.5   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study confirmed the importance of emotionality and leadership in the public service. The research results and the major implications presented in the previous section provide a number of opportunities for future research. This should encourage further research endeavours in the study

of emotional intelligence in this under-researched context, in particular studies establishing interesting relationships between emotionality and performance. Rajah et al. (2011), in their wide review on emotionality and leadership over the decade 2000–2010, recognised the need for further research.

As this was the first study on emotional intelligence competencies and leadership performance using a mixed-methods design in a non-Western and public service setting, it is suggested that a large-scale study with similar design elements is replicated in such contexts. This will have the benefit of further testing the research design and the results. In addition, the delineation of the variable of leadership performance, to measure specific performance features, could enhance the design.

In this regard, a fertile area for future research, in the study of EI in the public service, is to test measurable elements of transformational and emergent (e.g. servant, ethical and spiritual) leadership models (considering their growth in recent literature) as variables. These leadership approaches are appropriate, as they are concerned with emotions, values, ethics and long-term relationships, as well as followers' motives, needs and satisfaction.

In a similar vein, Goleman and colleagues' (2002) resonant leadership styles offer fruitful possibility for further research in testing its relationship with EI competence, specifically through identifying the distinctive competencies that relate to each leadership style in effective leadership performance. A further augmentation could use qualitative research to understand the socio-cultural dimensions that mediate the interplay between EI and leadership effectiveness.

An alternative domain for further research in EI and leadership is through experiential learning theories (Argyris, 1999; Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1987). Given that the EI competencies of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management are learned through experience (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008), and that a person is able to further develop these competencies, research through the theoretical frame of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Boyatzis, 1970; Rainey & Kolb, 2014; Schön, 1987; Yeganeh & Kolb, 2009) has immense potential to expand our knowledge in the fields of leadership and emotionality in organisations. Russell

(2014: 3) accordingly points out that adult learning processes are not "just linear, rational, and given", but could be considered as "creative, open, dynamic, and flexible."

Likewise, Day et al. (2014: 80) conclude that there is a lack in understanding of the ongoing ways in which people practice to become more expert leaders, suggesting that actual leader development takes place in the so-called "white space" between development events (such as workshops). If the "crux of development" resides in these 'white spaces", future research focus, though difficult to study, is to understand what happens in the "everyday lives of leaders as they practice and develop" (Day et al., 2014: 80). Experiential theory is one possible lens through which these "white spaces" may be explored. Relatedly, research into adult learning could expand our understanding of the deeper dimensions of personal transformational change, as it is a largely uncharted terrain in current management and leadership research (Senge et al., 2004).

Another area of research is to better understand what this study described as social exclusion, such as fairness and belonging in the workplace. However, it is uncommon for these issues, among other socio-cultural dimensions, to feature in research on EI and leadership performance, despite their impact on subordinates and organisational performance. The present study explored aspects of social exclusion, e.g. fairness and equity, voice, and recognition and rewards. The social-cultural domains afford unique research opportunities through a holistic systems-based lens on EI and leadership research. Neuroscientists Tabibnia and Lieberman (2007: 97) explain that "the fact that fairness and cooperation activate the same hedonic regions of the brain as financial gain is an indication that these factors may merit equal consideration in the structuring of organisational settings."

Finally, according to O'Boyle et al. (2011), EI is not generally used in personnel selection, while measures for the FFM and cognitive ability are commonplace. The results of the current research study make a strong case for the inclusion of EI in applicable selection processes and succession planning. In this way, future research would have data from an employee selection and hiring setting, allowing for comparisons with FFM and cognitive ability data.

10.6   CONCLUSION

Emotional intelligence is a significant variable that impacts the performance of public service leaders. This mixed-methods study presented convincing evidence to support this conclusion. Outstanding leaders were found to be inspirational, self-aware, adaptable, optimistic, empathetic and developing others. These attributes displayed the strongest relationship with leadership performance in a complex and turbulent non-Western public service study context. Significantly, these attributes are either emotional or social intelligence (EI) competencies represented in one of four EI clusters: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (Goleman et al., 2002). The results imply that certain EI competencies are particularly influential in leading effectively in transforming and uncertain organisational contexts – especially in the proverbial "permanent white water" (Vaill, 1996) of the public service.

Moreover, a leader's EI competence plays a significant role in mediating the negative effects of the turbulence in the public service context, positively influencing the well-being, motivation, creativity and performance of others. Relationship management competencies, such as inspirational leadership, and coaching and mentoring, are crucial in this regard to aid in fostering resonant social relationships in the workplace. In addition, these relational competencies are supported by social awareness and self-management competency strengths, which drive a positive outlook, empathy, adaptability and setting a high standard. Central to the three clusters' competencies is self-awareness – located at the heart of the EI model – it bestows leaders with the ability to understand their emotions, drives, strengths and weaknesses. Additionally, self-awareness is expected to enable leaders to sustain their emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour over time, despite setbacks.

Senge et al. (2004: 5) consider a blind spot as not the "what" and "how", i.e. not what leaders do and how they do it, but "*who we are* and the inner place or source from which we operate, both individually and collectively." Notably, Nelson Mandela (2010: viii) observed in 1975 while in prison that a person's blind spot concerns his or her "internal factors", which "may be even more crucial in assessing one's development as a human being" and is "inconceivable without serious introspection, without knowing yourself, your weaknesses and mistakes." The challenge for public

service leaders in the 21st century is to deconstruct the rigid bureaucratic and hierarchical governance structures, and to evolve their consciousness toward resonant and transformational leadership styles, which are grounded in cognitive, emotional and social competencies, and public values of caring, serving and belonging. Only then, public servants and citizens will proudly say: "We feel loved, respected and cared for in public institutions."[4]

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[4] Republic of South Africa, Presidency (2012: 363). The aspiration of a South African cited in the preamble of the chapter on Building a Capable State, National Development Plan 2030.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH SURVEYS IN THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

Province of the
EASTERN CAPE
OFFICE OF THE PREMIER

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR GENERAL
Office of the Premier Building • Independence Avenue • Bhisho • Eastern Cape
Private Bag X0047 • Bhisho • 5605 • REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA • Website: www.ecprov.gov.za
Tel: +27 (0)40 609 6381/2 • Fax: +27 (0)40 639 1419 • email: mbulelo.sogoni@otp.ecprov.gov.za

Mr S Haricharan
30 Ravensberg Avenue
Newlands
7700
Cape Town

Dear Mr Haricharan,

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH FOR A PHD STUDY IN PUBLIC LEADERSHIP IN THE ECPG

Your letter dated 06 June 2013 in the above regard, and received by this office on 02 August 2013, is acknowledged and has reference.

Your interest in public administrative leadership development in South Africa and in the Eastern Cape in particular, is appreciated. The request for permission for your study to be conducted within the ECPG is supported.

Please contact Ms L Geza, the Deputy Director-General responsible for Institutional Development and Organisational Support, for assistance with the process. Kindly bear in mind that periodic submission of progress reports on the study will be required.

Ms Geza may be contacted telephonically at 040 609 6100 or 082 448 1975. Her e-mail address is litha.geza@otp.ecprov.gov.za.

Kind regards,

15/08/2013

MR MBULELO SOGONI
DIRECTOR-GENERAL

PGDP
EASTERN CAPE
2004 - 2014

Ikamva eliqaqambileyo!

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APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO USE THE EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY

On 22 Aug 2013, at 12:43 AM, Priscilla Olle <Priscilla.Olle@haygroup.com> wrote:

Dear Shanil,

 We have received your proposal and your conditional use agreement. Your proposal has been accepted, so you may use the ESCI for your research purposes.

We look forward to hearing about your results. When you have completed your study please email or send a hard copy of your research paper or publication to the following address:

> ESCI Research Contact (ESCI.Research@haygroup.com)
> Hay Group
> 399 Boylston Street
> Fourth Floor
> Boston MA 02116

Please let me know if you have any questions.

Best Regards,

Priscilla

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USA

Please consider the environment before printing this email.

APPENDIX C: SAMPLE LETTER TO THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH SURVEY

25 August 2013

Head of Department

Eastern Cape Provincial Government

Dear [Head of Department],

PHD STUDY ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE OF EXECUTIVE MANAGERS IN THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT (ECPG).

This letter serves to inform you firstly, of permission granted by the Director-General, Mr M. Sogoni to undertake research on leadership performance within the ECPG, secondly, to request your executive team's participation and thirdly, to present the planned research process. The purpose of this study is to determine the distinctive emotional and social competencies of executive managers in the ECPG that are related to their leadership effectiveness. I am a registered PhD student at the Stellenbosch University.

The research will be conducted in your department (among four other departments) and the process is as follows:

a) **Nominations of Exemplary Leaders**: Respondents from middle, senior and executive levels (ranging from levels 12-16) of your department will confidentially nominate executive managers in your department who they view as outstanding in their leadership performance.

b) **Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (**ESCI) survey: The departmental executive managers (levels 14-16) will voluntarily complete an online Hay Group survey instrument, the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI). In addition, the executive managers will add the details of their raters (manager, subordinates, peers, clients and others). Raters will receive an email to participate in the survey. The consent of each executive manager on his or her participation will be obtained.

c) Behavioural Event Interview (BEI): This semi-structured interview instrument will be used to interview a sample of the executive managers. The consent of each executive manager on his or her participation will be obtained.

The anonymity of the participants' responses and the confidentiality of the data collected in the surveys and interviews will be respected during and after the study. The survey results will not be made available to the ECPG and will not be used for any performance assessments.

I look forward to your department's participation in this study.

Kind regards,

Shanil Haricharan

APPENDIX D: SAMPLE LETTER REQUESTING PARTICIPATION IN THE PERFORMANCE NOMINATION SURVEY

18 September 2013

Dear Sir or Madam,

REQUEST FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN A NOMINATIONS SURVEY: PHD STUDY ON LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT (ECPG).

I am a registered PhD student at the Stellenbosch University. This letter serves to inform you firstly, of permission granted by the Director-General, Mr M. Sogoni and your Head of Department to undertake research on leadership performance within the ECPG, and secondly, to request your participation in the nominations survey. The purpose of this study is to determine the distinctive emotional and social competencies of executive managers (rank levels 14-16) in the ECPG that are related to their leadership effectiveness.

Your department's Human Resources Chief Directorate provided your contact details. An email requesting your participation in a nominations survey will be sent to you shortly from the University of Stellenbosch. Your participation in this study is voluntary. The research will be conducted in accordance with the University's Ethics Committee guideline, which respects all participants' anonymity and the confidentiality of the data collected.

The survey will request you to nominate executive managers (from a list of names) in your department who you view as outstanding in their leadership performance. The survey will take less than two minutes.

Please contact me if you have any queries or need more information.

I look forward to your participation.

Regards,

Shanil Haricharan

PhD Candidate, School of Public Leadership, University of Stellenbosch

APPENDIX E: SAMPLE LETTER REQUESTING PARTICIPATION IN THE EMOTIONAL AND SOCIAL COMPETENCE INVENTORY SURVEY

15 January 2014

Dear Executive Manager,

REQUEST FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION IN A PHD STUDY ON EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP PERFORMANCE IN THE EASTERN CAPE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT (ECPG).

This letter serves to inform you of permission granted by the Director-General, Mr M. Sogoni and your Head of Department to undertake research on emotional intelligence and leadership performance within the ECPG, and to request your participation in the Emotional and Social Competence Inventory (ESCI) survey. The purpose of this study is to determine the distinctive emotional and social competencies of executive managers (rank levels 14-16) in the ECPG that are related to their leadership effectiveness.

You are kindly requested to participate in the ESCI survey. The ESCI is a 360-degree survey developed by Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis (authorities in leadership development and emotional intelligence) and administered by the Hay Group. The ESCI measures 12 competencies, viz. emotional self-awareness, emotional self-control, adaptability, achievement orientation, positive outlook, empathy, organizational awareness, coach and mentor, inspirational leadership, influence, conflict management, and teamwork.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. The research will be conducted in accordance with the University's Ethics Committee guideline, which respects all participants' anonymity and the confidentiality of the data collected.

If you consent to participate in this survey, please follow the instructions in an ESCI survey invitation email you will receive fom the Hay Group, including the website link and your unique username and password to access the Hay Group's survey website. There are three surveys: a demographic, ESCI questionnaire and verbatim comments that you will be required to complete. In addition, you will add the names and email addresses of your raters (manager, direct reports, peers, clients and others).

Please contact me if you have any queries or need more information.

I look forward to your participation.

Regards,

Shanil Haricharan

PhD Candidate, School of Public Leadership, University of Stellenbosch

APPENDIX F: ESCI COMPETENCY AND CLUSTER DATA: SELF-RATERS SCORES

ACH	ADA	ESC	PO	SM	ESA/S-A	EMP	OA	SA	CM	CMT	IL	INF	TW	RM
5	5	4,5	5	4,88	4,7	4,2	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,2	4,8	4	4,3	4,30
3,2	3,7	4,3	4,3	3,88	4	4,2	4,4	4,3	3,6	4,7	4,4	3,7	4,8	4,24
5	4,8	4	4,8	4,65	5	4,2	4,8	4,5	4,8	5	5	4	5	4,76
4,2	3,8	3,7	4	3,93	3,5	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,8	3,7	3,8	3,3	4,2	3,76
4,8	4,3	4,8	4,2	4,53	3,8	4,6	4,3	4,45	4,2	4,5	4,8	3,3	5	4,36
4,7	4,2	3,8	4,3	4,25	3,7	3,8	4,8	4,3	4	4,5	4,4	3,8	4,7	4,28
5	4,7	4,8	4,7	4,80	4,2	4,4	4,8	4,6	5	4,8	5	4,3	4,8	4,78
5	4,5	4	4,2	4,43	3,8	4	4,2	4,1	4,2	5	4,8	4	4,5	4,50
4,2	3,8	4,5	4,2	4,18	3,2	3,6	4	3,8	4,2	4	4,2	3,8	4	4,04
5	4	4,5	4,5	4,50	4,2	3,8	4	3,9	3,8	3,3	3,2	3,5	4,3	3,62
4,7	4,5	4,2	4,7	4,53	4	4,8	4,8	4,8	5	4,5	4,6	4,3	5	4,68
5	4,3	4	4,7	4,50	4,5	4,4	4,8	4,6	4,4	5	5	4,7	5	4,82
5	5	4,2	5	4,80	4,3	5	5	5	5	4,8	5	4,7	5	4,90
4,4	4,3	4,3	4,7	4,43	3,8	4,2	4,6	4,4	4,2	3,5	4,6	3,7	4,5	4,10
4,3	3,8	3,7	3,5	3,83	2,8	4	3,4	3,7	4	4,2	5	3	3,7	3,98
4,5	3,3	3,2	4,5	3,88	3,5	3,2	3,6	3,4	3,8	4	4,2	3,8	4,3	4,02
4,7	4,2	4,3	4	4,30	3,2	3,8	3,6	3,7	4,4	4,5	4	3,7	4,3	4,18
4,7	4,5	4,7	4,7	4,65	4	4,4	4	4,2	4,2	4,5	4,8	4	4,2	4,34
4,8	4,7	3,3	4,5	4,33	4,2	4	4,2	4,1	4,6	4,5	4,6	4	4,3	4,40
4,8	4,2	4,3	4,2	4,38	3,7	4	4,6	4,3	4,4	4,2	4	4	4,3	4,18
4,2	4	4	4,7	4,23	4,2	4,6	4,2	4,4	4,8	3,8	4,4	3,3	4,5	4,16
4,7	3,5	4	3,8	4,00	3,8	3,2	3,6	3,4	3,6	3,3	4	3,7	3,8	3,68
4	4	3,5	3,8	3,83	3,8	3,6	3,8	3,7	3,4	4,2	4	4,2	4	3,96
4,5	4	3,8	3,7	4,00	3,2	4,4	4,6	4,5	4,6	3,8	3,6	4,2	4,5	4,14
4,8	4,7	3,8	4,8	4,53	4	3,8	4	3,9	4,2	4,5	4,6	3,7	4,3	4,26
4,8	3,8	4,2	4,7	4,38	4,7	4,2	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,7	4	4	4,7	4,32
4,5	3,7	4	4	4,05	4	4	3,8	3,9	3,8	4	4	3,8	4	3,92
3,8	3,8	4,2	4,3	4,03	3,8	4,2	4,2	4,2	3,4	3,8	4,4	3,7	3,5	3,76
5	4,5	4,6	5	4,78	4,3	4,4	5	4,7	5	5	5	4,8	4,8	4,92
4,3	4,5	4,3	4,8	4,48	3,5	3,4	4	3,7	4,2	4,2	4,4	4	4	4,16
5	4,3	3,7	4,5	4,38	4,7	4,4	4,4	4,4	4,6	4,5	4,2	4,2	4,8	4,46
5	4,5	3,5	4,3	4,33	4,8	4	4,8	4,4	4,6	4,8	4,8	4,5	4,3	4,60
5	4,3	4,2	4,5	4,50	4	4,4	4,8	4,6	4,6	5	5	4,2	5	4,76
5	3,8	3,7	4,8	4,33	3,3	3,8	4,2	4	3,8	4,8	4,6	2,8	4,5	4,10
4,8	4,5	3,8	4	4,28	4,8	4,2	4,4	4,3	4	4,5	4,8	3,8	4,8	4,38

APPENDIX G: ESCI OTHERS RATERS' SCORES AND PERFORMANCE NOMINATIONS SCORES

ACH	ADA	ESC	PO	SM	ESA/S-A	EMP	OA	SA	CM	CMT	IL	INF	TW	RM	NOMS
5	5	4,5	5	4,88	4,7	4,2	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,2	4,8	4	4,3	4,30	25
3,2	3,7	4,3	4,3	3,88	4	4,2	4,4	4,3	3,6	4,7	4,4	3,7	4,8	4,24	20
5	4,8	4	4,8	4,65	5	4,2	4,8	4,5	4,8	5	5	4	5	4,76	24
4,2	3,8	3,7	4	3,93	3,5	3,4	3,6	3,5	3,8	3,7	3,8	3,3	4,2	3,76	16
4,8	4,3	4,8	4,2	4,53	3,8	4,6	4,3	4,45	4,2	4,5	4,8	3,3	5	4,36	15
4,7	4,2	3,8	4,3	4,25	3,7	3,8	4,8	4,3	4	4,5	4,4	3,8	4,7	4,28	12
5	4,7	4,8	4,7	4,80	4,2	4,4	4,8	4,6	5	4,8	5	4,3	4,8	4,78	11
5	4,5	4	4,2	4,43	3,8	4	4,2	4,1	4,2	5	4,8	4	4,5	4,50	12
4,2	3,8	4,5	4,2	4,18	3,2	3,6	4	3,8	4,2	4	4,2	3,8	4	4,04	14
5	4	4,5	4,5	4,50	4,2	3,8	4	3,9	3,8	3,3	3,2	3,5	4,3	3,62	5
4,7	4,5	4,2	4,7	4,53	4	4,8	4,8	4,8	5	4,5	4,6	4,3	5	4,68	5
5	4,3	4	4,7	4,50	4,5	4,4	4,8	4,6	4,4	5	5	4,7	5	4,82	2
5	5	4,2	5	4,80	4,3	5	5	5	5	4,8	5	4,7	5	4,90	2
4,4	4,3	4,3	4,7	4,43	3,8	4,2	4,6	4,4	4,2	3,5	4,6	3,7	4,5	4,10	0
4,3	3,8	3,7	3,5	3,83	2,8	4	3,4	3,7	4	4,2	5	3	3,7	3,98	23
4,5	3,3	3,2	4,5	3,88	3,5	3,2	3,6	3,4	3,8	4	4,2	3,8	4,3	4,02	17
4,7	4,2	4,3	4	4,30	3,2	3,8	3,6	3,7	4,4	4,5	4	3,7	4,3	4,18	11
4,7	4,5	4,7	4,7	4,65	4	4,4	4	4,2	4,2	4,5	4,8	4	4,2	4,34	15
4,8	4,7	3,3	4,5	4,33	4,2	4	4,2	4,1	4,6	4,5	4,6	4	4,3	4,40	8
4,8	4,2	4,3	4,2	4,38	3,7	4	4,6	4,3	4,4	4,2	4	4	4,3	4,18	8
4,2	4	4	4,7	4,23	4,2	4,6	4,2	4,4	4,8	3,8	4,4	3,3	4,5	4,16	7
4,7	3,5	4	3,8	4,00	3,8	3,2	3,6	3,4	3,6	3,3	4	3,7	3,8	3,68	5
4	4	3,5	3,8	3,83	3,8	3,6	3,8	3,7	3,4	4,2	4	4,2	4	3,96	2
4,5	4	3,8	3,7	4,00	3,2	4,4	4,6	4,5	4,6	3,8	3,6	4,2	4,5	4,14	32
4,8	4,7	3,8	4,8	4,53	4	3,8	4	3,9	4,2	4,5	4,6	3,7	4,3	4,26	20
4,8	3,8	4,2	4,7	4,38	4,7	4,2	4,4	4,3	4,2	4,7	4	4	4,7	4,32	21
4,5	3,7	4	4	4,05	4	4	3,8	3,9	3,8	4	4	3,8	4	3,92	9
3,8	3,8	4,2	4,3	4,03	3,8	4,2	4,2	4,2	3,4	3,8	4,4	3,7	3,5	3,76	8
5	4,5	4,6	5	4,78	4,3	4,4	5	4,7	5	5	5	4,8	4,8	4,92	7
4,3	4,5	4,3	4,8	4,48	3,5	3,4	4	3,7	4,2	4,2	4,4	4	4	4,16	5
5	4,3	3,7	4,5	4,38	4,7	4,4	4,4	4,4	4,6	4,5	4,2	4,2	4,8	4,46	2
5	4,5	3,5	4,3	4,33	4,8	4	4,8	4,4	4,6	4,8	4,8	4,5	4,3	4,60	2
5	4,3	4,2	4,5	4,50	4	4,4	4,8	4,6	4,6	5	5	4,2	5	4,76	2
5	3,8	3,7	4,8	4,33	3,3	3,8	4,2	4	3,8	4,8	4,6	2,8	4,5	4,10	2
4,8	4,5	3,8	4	4,28	4,8	4,2	4,4	4,3	4	4,5	4,8	3,8	4,8	4,38	0