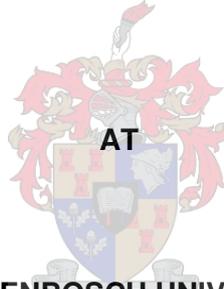


**MODIFICATION, ELABORATION AND EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE
BEYERS EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL
LEADERSHIP MODEL**

Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

MCOMM (HRM)

INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY



STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CHENé ROUX

SUPERVISOR: DR G GÖRGENS

March 2016

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Signed: **Chené Roux**

Date: **March 2016**

ABSTRACT

This origin of this study lies in the importance of leadership in organisations. The behaviour of individuals in leadership positions affects the attitudes and performance of employees, and therefore, also the overall effectiveness and success of the organisation. Understanding which factors contribute to effective leadership is therefore critical, so that employee performance and organisational success can be enhanced.

A construct that has received increased attention with regard to effective leadership is Emotional Intelligence (EI). It has been argued that leaders with a higher EI are more effective than leaders with a lower EI. Beyers (2006) examined the relationship between EI and leadership (more specifically, the Transformational Leadership style). The present study aimed to expand on the work of Beyers by using a more recent model and measurement of EI. Furthermore, three constructs were assessed as outcomes of effective leadership (Perceived Supervisor Support, Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction). Leadership has been shown to be an antecedent of these three constructs. It was argued that gaining insight into the outcomes of effective leadership, as experienced by the follower of a particular leader that exhibits certain transformational leadership behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies, could hold important positive outcomes for an organisation (i.e. better employee performance and retention rates).

The results of the study confirmed that EI affects Transformational Leadership (TFL) behaviours. Only one dimension of TFL was found to be associated with one of the three outcomes of effective leadership (i.e. Perceived Supervisor Support). The relationships between the three outcomes were also tested, and the only significant path was from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction. Reflecting on these results, the study concludes with a discussion of the limitations of the study, as well as recommendations for future research.

OPSOMMING

Die oorsprong van hierdie studie lê in die belangrikheid van leierskap in organisasies. Individue in leierskapposisies se gedrag beïnvloed die houdings en prestasies van werknemers en derhalwe ook die algehele doeltreffendheid en sukses van die organisasie. Begrip van watter faktore bydra tot effektiewe leierskap is dus van kardinale belang om sodoende werknemer prestasie en organisasie sukses te verbeter.

Emosionele Intelligensie (EI) is 'n konstruk wat toenemende aandag ontvang ten opsigte van effektiewe leierskap. Dit word aangevoer dat leiers met 'n hoër EI meer effektief is as leiers met 'n laer EI. Beyers (2006) het die verhouding tussen EI en leierskap (meer spesifiek die Transformasionele Leierskap styl) ondersoek. Die huidige studie het dit ten doel gehad om uit te brei op die werk van Beyers deur die gebruik van 'n meer onlangse model en meting van EI. Verder was drie konstrunkte geassesseer as uitkomste van effektiewe leierskap (Waargenome Toesighouer Ondersteuning, Organisasie-toegewydheid en Werksbevreëdiging). Dit blyk dat Leierskap 'n determinant van hierdie drie konstrunkte is. Dit was aangevoer dat om insig in te win in die resultate van EI soos ondervind deur die volgelinge van 'n spesifieke leier wie sekere Transformasionele Leierskap gedrag openbaar, wat beïnvloed is deur verskeie EI vaardighede, kan belangrike positiewe uitkomste tot gevolg hê vir die organisasie (naamlik beter werknemer prestasie en verhoogde retensie syfers).

Die resultate van die studie het bevestig dat Transformasionele Leierskapsgedrag beïnvloed word deur Emosionele Intelligensie. Slegs een dimensie van Transformasionele Leierskap het verband gehou met een van die drie uitkomste van effektiewe leierskap (naamlik Waarneembare Toesighouer Ondersteuning). Die verhoudings tussen die drie uitkomste is ook getoets, en die enigste beduidende verwantskap was tussen Organisasie-toegewydheid en Werksbevreëdiging. Ter nabetraging van hierdie resultate, is die studie voltooi met 'n bespreking van die beperkinge van die studie, sowel as aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I'd like to thank the following people who were a part of this journey over the last few years:

- My supervisor, Dr Gina Görgens, for your guidance, patience, criticism and advice.
- Prof. Martin Kidd, for your patience and assistance with the statistical analysis.
- Prof Callie Theron for your advice and input into this study.
- To all the participants for your willingness and time to complete the questionnaires.
- Odille Duncan, Lucy van der Merwe, Judy Wyngaard, Dillan Beukes and Silke Joseph for your encouragement, friendship and prayer.
- My parents and Charlton for the constant moral support.
- Most importantly...Thank you, heavenly Father. It's all by grace that I got this far.

Table of Contents

DECLARATION	ii
ABSTRACT.....	iii
OPSOMMING	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF FIGURES	x
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Introduction	1
1.1.1 Research aim, question and objectives	3
1.1.2 Structure of the thesis.....	4
CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS RESEARCH	5
2.1 Introduction	5
2.2. Leadership	5
2.2.1 General Background.....	5
2.2.2 Leadership defined.....	6
2.2.3 Brief discussion of leadership theories and/or styles.....	7
2.2.4 Transformational Leadership	10
2.2.4.1 Individualised Consideration	11
2.2.4.2 Inspirational Motivation	12
2.2.4.3 Intellectual Stimulation.....	12
2.2.4.4 Idealised Influence.....	12
2.2.5 The Value of TFL.....	13
2.3 Outcomes of Effective Leadership.....	16
2.3.1 Job Satisfaction	16
2.3.1.1 Conceptualising Job Satisfaction	16
2.3.1.2 Antecedents and Outcomes of Job Satisfaction.....	17
2.3.2 Organisational Commitment	21
2.3.2.1 Conceptualising Organisational Commitment	21
2.3.2.2 General Antecedents and Outcomes of Organisational Commitment	22
2.3.3 Perceived Supervisor Support	23
2.3.3.1 Conceptualising Perceived Supervisor Support	24
2.3.3.2 General antecedents and outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support	25
2.3.4 Relationships between Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Perceived Supervisor Support.....	27
2.3.5 Relationships between TFL and outcomes of effective leadership.....	28

2.4 Emotional Intelligence	32
2.4.1 Definition and General Background	32
2.4.2 Brief Discussion of EI Models and Measurement.....	34
2.4.2.1 MSCEIT (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test)	34
2.4.2.2 ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) (Boyatzis, Goleman & HayGroup, 2001).....	35
2.4.2.3 Bar-On EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory) (Bar-On, 1997)	35
2.4.2.4 Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS).....	36
2.4.3 Dimensions of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI).....	36
2.4.3.1 Self-awareness.....	37
2.4.3.2 Self-management	37
2.4.3.3 Social Awareness	37
2.4.3.4 Relationship Management	37
2.4.4 The Value of EI in the Workplace	37
2.4.5 The relationship between EI and TFL	39
2.5 The modified and elaborated Beyer's (2006) conceptual model proposed for this study	45
2.5.1 Beyer's (2006) EI and TFL conceptual model.....	46
2.5.2 Proposed modifications and elaborations of the Beyer's model	48
2.6 Summary.....	57
CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	58
3.1 Introduction	58
3.2 Research Purpose.....	58
3.3 Research Aim, Question and Objectives	59
3.4 Research Hypotheses	59
3.5 Research Design and Procedure.....	61
3.5.1 Research Design.....	61
3.5.2 Sampling design, data collection and ethical considerations.....	61
3.5.3 Sample characteristics	63
3.5.4 Data Analysis	67
3.5.4.1 Item analysis.....	67
3.5.4.2 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM).....	68
3.5.4.3 Partial Least Square (PLS)	70
3.6 Measurement Instruments.....	72
3.6.1 Emotional Intelligence	72
3.6.2 Transformational Leadership	75

3.6.3 Outcomes of Effective Leadership	75
3.6.3.1 Perceived Supervisor Support	75
3.6.3.2 Job Satisfaction	76
3.6.3.3 Organisational Commitment	76
3.7 Summary.....	76
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS.....	77
4. 1 Introduction	77
4.2 Validating the Measurement Instruments	77
4.2.1 Item Analysis.....	77
4.2.1.1 Transformational Leadership	77
4.2.1.1.1 Individualised Consideration	78
4.2.1.1.2 Idealised Influence.....	79
4.2.1.1.3 Intellectual Stimulation.....	80
4.2.1.1.4 Inspirational Motivation	81
4.2.1.2 Emotional Intelligence (EI).....	82
4.2.1.2.1 Relationship Management	82
4.2.1.2.2 Self-awareness	84
4.2.1.2.3 Self-management	86
4.2.1.2.4 Social Awareness	88
4.2.1.3 Job Satisfaction (JS).....	90
4.2.1.4 Organisational Commitment (OC).....	91
4.2.1.5 Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).....	92
4.3 PLS Results: Validating the Measurement (Outer) Model.....	93
4.3.1 Reliability Analysis.....	93
4.3.2 Discriminant Validity	94
4.3.3 Evaluating the outer loadings	98
4.4 PLS Results: Validating the Structural (Inner) Model.....	105
4.5 Interpreting the proposed hypotheses	109
4.6 Summary.....	115
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	116
5. 1 Introduction	116
5.2 Emotional Intelligence	116
5.3 EI and TFL	118
5.4 TFL and outcomes of effective leadership	122
5.5 Relationship between the Outcomes of Effective Leadership	126
5.6 Practical Implications.....	127

5.7 Limitations of the Study	129
5.8 Recommendations for Future Research	130
5.9 Conclusion	130
REFERENCE LIST	132
APPENDIX ONE: CONSENT FORM	155
APPENDIX TWO: SUBORDINATES INFORMED CONSENT FORM	157
APPENDIX THREE: SUPERVISORS INFORMED CONSENT FORM.....	160

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 2.1.</i> Personal leadership as a mediator of professional leadership and willing cooperation.....	8
<i>Figure 2.2.</i> Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model	18
<i>Figure 2.3.</i> The initial proposed Beyers (2006) model.....	47
<i>Figure 2.4.</i> The summarised conceptual model of significant relationships	48
<i>Figure 2.5.</i> Proposed conceptual (structural) model for this study	57
<i>Figure 3.1.</i> A two-step process of PLS path model assessment.....	70
<i>Figure 4.1.</i> PLS results for the Structural Model.....	108

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership	9
Table 2.2 The Bar-On EQ-i scales and what they assess	35
Table 2.3 Conceptual Overlap between Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Framework and the ESCI	49
Table 3.1 Supervisors: Gender	63
Table 3.2 Supervisors: Age	63
Table 3.3 Supervisors: Highest Qualification	64
Table 3.4 Supervisors: Marital Status	64
Table 3.5 Supervisors: First Language	64
Table 3.6 Supervisors: Second Language	64
Table 3.7 Supervisors: Ethnic Group	65
Table 3.8 Subordinates: Gender	65
Table 3.9 Subordinates: Age Distribution	65
Table 3.10 Subordinates: Highest Qualification	66
Table 3.11 Subordinates: Marital Status	66
Table 3.12 Subordinates: First Language	66
Table 3.13 Subordinates: Second Language	67
Table 3.14 Subordinates: Ethnic Group	67
Table 3.15 Comparison between PLS and CBSEM Approaches	69
Table 3.16 ESCI competency clusters and definitions	73
Table 3.17 Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for ESCI Competencies	74
Table 4.1 The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for TFL (supervisors)	77
Table 4.2 The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for TFL (Subordinates)	78
Table 4.3 Supervisors: Item statistics for Individualised Consideration Subscale	78
Table 4.4 Subordinates: Item statistics for Individualised Consideration Subscale	79
Table 4.5 Supervisors: Item Statistics for Idealised Influence Subscale	80
Table 4.6 Subordinates: Item Statistics for Idealised Influence Subscale	80
Table 4.7 Supervisors: Item Statistics for Intellectual Stimulation Subscale	81
Table 4.8 Subordinates: Item Statistics for Intellectual Stimulation Subscale	81
Table 4.9 Supervisors: Item Statistics for Inspirational Motivation Subscale	82
Table 4.10 Subordinates: Item Statistics for Inspirational Motivation Subscale	82
Table 4.11 Supervisors: Item statistics for Relationship Management Subscale	83
Table 4.12 Subordinates: Item statistics for Relationship Management Subscale	84
Table 4.13 Supervisors: Item statistics for Self-awareness Subscale	85
Table 4.14 Subordinates: Item statistics for Self-awareness Subscale	86
Table 4.15 Supervisors: Item statistics for Self-Management Subscale	87
Table 4.16 Subordinates: Item statistics for Self-Management Subscale	87
Table 4.17 Supervisors: Item statistics for Social awareness Subscale	89
Table 4.18 Subordinates: Item statistics for Social awareness Subscale	89
Table 4.19 The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for Emotional Intelligence (Subordinates)	89
Table 4.20 The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for Emotional Intelligence (Supervisors)	90
Table 4.21 The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for Job Satisfaction (Subordinates)	90
Table 4.22 Item statistics for Job Satisfaction scale	91

Table 4.23 The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for OC (Subordinates)	91
Table 4.24 Item statistics for Organisational Commitment Subscale	91
Table 4.25 The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for PSS (Subordinates)	92
Table 4.26 Item statistics for Perceived Supervisor Support scale	93
Table 4.27 Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE.....	93
Table 4.28 Discriminant Validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio).....	95
Table 4.29 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: TFL.....	98
Table 4.30 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: TFL after the deletion of the IS subscale from the analysis.....	99
Table 4.31 Discriminant Validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio) after the deletion of the IS subscale from the analysis	100
Table 4.32 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: EI.....	102
Table 4.33 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Job Satisfaction (JS)	104
Table 4.34 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Organisational Commitment (OC)	104
Table 4.35 PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)	105
Table 4.36 R square values for the PLS Path model	106
Table 4.37 Path Coefficients	106

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Many researchers have argued in favour of the central role of leadership in an organisation's success and survival (Engelbrecht, Van Aswegen & Theron, 2005; Wexley & Yukl, 1984). The dynamic nature of the world of work today deems it necessary for organisations to handle complex changes. These changes demand innovative "knowledge, resources, and perspectives" (Martin & Ernst, 2005, p. 82), and, in turn, leads to elevated challenges for leadership (Martin & Ernst, 2005). Therefore, understanding how to develop and improve effective leadership would be to the benefit of organisations.

The Transformational Leadership (TFL) style has been found to be more effective than other leadership styles (e.g., Transactional or Laissez-faire Leadership), and has been associated with positive outcomes in the workplace such as increased effort, performance, satisfaction, and commitment (Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Moshavi, Brown & Dodd, 2003). Moreover, Leban and Zulauf (2004) also found that subordinates have more trust and confidence in transformational leaders, which in turn contributes to higher performance levels. Considering this wide range of constructive consequences related to the TFL style, the development of this leadership style is important.

Recently, a large body of research has been devoted to understanding which factors make certain transformational leaders better than others in getting the best out of their subordinates (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). In organisations today, the role of leaders is not just to plan, control and manage the operations of the company, but also to motivate and create an environment where employees feel significant and have positive attitudes (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). Various researchers have found that leaders with a higher level of Emotional Intelligence (EI) are more effective in influencing subordinates' attitudes (Polychroniou, 2009). Beyers (2006) addressed the effect of EI on TFL and developed and tested a structural model which reflects the relationship between EI and TFL. This study aims to contribute to the body of research on TFL by expanding on the work done by Beyers (2006).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) discussed the significant role of EI in the effectiveness of organisations. These authors argued that the most effective leaders in the workplace are those that are able to identify their subordinates' emotions, as well as their own, and to effectively deal with employees who need encouragement and are not satisfied at work. In essence, Cherniss and Goleman (2001) state that effective leaders are those who are emotionally intelligent. The assumption that leaders with a higher EI are more effective has been studied and confirmed by various researchers, for example Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) as well as Higgs and Aitken (2003).

Beyers' (2006) study focused on the EI dimensions based on Goleman's emotional competence framework (measured with the EI Index, developed by Rahim & Minors, 2003), which include self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy and social skills. Bass and Avolio's (1995) dimensions of TFL were assessed in Beyers' study using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire which measures the following four dimensions: Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. Results of that study revealed that the EI dimensions of Goleman's model correlated with three out of four of the TFL dimensions: Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Individualised Consideration. No positive relationships were hypothesised between Intellectual Stimulation and any of the EI dimensions due to the more cognitive nature of this TFL dimension. This notion was highlighted as an area where further research is needed. The results of the structural model highlighted the importance of the hierarchical nature of the EI construct with Self-awareness forming the cornerstone of the other EI dimensions (e.g. Self-regulation and Empathy). The results also highlighted the importance of Self-awareness in leadership success. For example, the effect of Self-awareness on Idealised Influence was mediated by Self-regulation and Social Skills. Moreover, the effect of Self-awareness on Individualised Consideration was mediated by Empathy, whilst Self-motivation mediated the effect of Self-awareness on Inspirational Motivation. Three direct effects of EI on TFL were evident from the Beyers (2006) structural model results: Social Skills on Idealised Influence, Empathy on Individualised Consideration, and Self-motivation on Inspirational Motivation.

Various studies have assessed the effects of leadership styles on employee attitudes and/or organisational success (e.g. Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Moshavi et al., 2003). It has been reported that subordinates of transformational leaders have higher levels of Organisational Commitment (Krishnan, 2005), and if leaders are attentive to their subordinates, they would have higher levels of Job Satisfaction (Kaiser et al., 2008). Nemanich and Keller (2007) also found a correlation between the characteristics of transformational leaders and their subordinates' levels of Job Satisfaction.

Research has also shown that where there is a positive relationship between leaders and their subordinates, this will lead to increased Job Satisfaction (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982), and a lower level of turnover intentions (Harris, Wheeler & Kacmar, 2009). In the present study, therefore, the Beyers (2006) model will be further elaborated on with the addition of three constructs as outcomes of effective leadership: Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support.

1.1.1 Research aim, question and objectives

The present study aims to expand on the work of Beyers (2006) by using a more recent model of EI developed by Boyatzis and Goleman in 2007, which will be measured with an updated measuring instrument, namely the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI). Research clearly shows that successful leadership is related to positive organisational outcomes such as increased Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lowe, Kroek, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction have also been revealed as outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support (Yousef, 2000), which, in turn, is an outcome of successful leadership. In other words, effective leadership will result in positive Perceived Supervisor Support. This study, therefore, will aim to elaborate on the work of Beyers (2006) by including Perceived Supervisor Support, Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction as outcomes of TFL in an elaborated conceptual model that depicts the nature of the relationships between EI dimensions, TFL dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership.

The research question for this study, therefore, is:

Does the expanded and adapted conceptual model developed in this study provide a valid account of the psychological processes that determines the outcomes of effective leadership, defined as Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment, as experienced by the follower of a particular leader that exhibits certain TFL behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies?

The research objectives included to:

- develop a conceptual model, which is an expanded and adapted version of the Beyers' (2006) model, and to
- test the fit of the outer and inner model via Partial Least Squares modelling (PLS).

1.1.2 Structure of the thesis

In chapter two the theoretical background of the research is presented. Here, all the constructs are defined, and relationships between the constructs are explained. The significance of the constructs in organisations is also highlighted. The rationale, aims and objectives, as well as the research methodology utilised in this study are presented in chapter 3. Details regarding the sample, measuring instruments and data analyses are described as well.

In chapter 4 the results are presented and discussed. Chapter 5 concludes the thesis with an overview of the research results, the limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS RESEARCH

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, each construct will be defined separately, including a discussion on various styles of leadership and different models of EI. The importance of leadership as well as EI in organisations will also be discussed. This is followed by the conceptualisation, antecedents and outcomes of the three constructs that were assessed as outcomes of effective leadership in this study: Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support. Built on these discussions, the reasoning and logic behind the proposed, modified model of Beyers (2006) is presented.

2.2. Leadership

This section includes a general background on and definition of leadership. Various leadership styles and the value of leadership is discussed.

2.2.1 General Background

Various researchers have reported the essential role of leadership in an organisation's effectiveness and success (e.g. Olmstead, 2000; Wexley & Yukl, 1984; Yeo, 2006), as well as on the employees' attitudes and work-related health (Kuoppala, Lamminpaa, Liira & Vainio, 2008, Lok & Crawford, 2004). For example, it has been argued that a requirement of managerial success is the element of leadership, not just "good management" (Kotter, 1995, p.155). Not being able to lead can have an adverse effect on the performance of individual employees, and therefore on the performance of the whole organisation. Organisational success is hampered when leadership is not developed in individuals (Kotter, 1995).

Individuals in positions of leadership at various levels in an organisation have an effect on their subordinates' behaviours, principles and perceptions, and through this, therefore have an influence on the environment in the workplace and the success of the organisation (Kaiser et al., 2008; Yeo, 2006). Companies showing strong leadership make more profits than those that don't, and therefore are more successful (Storey, 2004). The work of Bloom and Van Reenen (2007) also confirms that in organisations where poor leadership is displayed, performance is negatively

affected. In contrast, in organisations where leadership depth is displayed, enhanced performance is evident.

To achieve organisational objectives, skilful employees need to work together (Olmstead, 2000). The overall effectiveness of their working together is dependent on how well each individual works, and how well their combined efforts are synchronized. To this end, effective leadership, as argued above, is a key ingredient in organisational effectiveness. In addition, effective leaders will, in time, be accepted by most, if not all of their followers. If leaders are not accepted by their subordinates, subordinates will leave out of their own free will, or they will be given notice to leave (House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002).

2.2.2 Leadership defined

A large part of being a leader in an organisation includes creating a working environment that will facilitate top performance by the employees (Olmstead, 2000). Olmstead (2000) discusses the effective leadership of people in superior positions and defines leadership as a process of influence. Wexley and Yukl (1984) similarly argue that leadership entails influencing individuals to use more effort in a specific task, or causing a change in behaviour. They assert that leaders have to ensure that goals are set and made clear to everyone in the organisation, that plans and policies are developed, and that the required talent is recruited and trained. Furthermore, leaders need to motivate, encourage, and build the confidence and morale of subordinates. Leadership moreover comprises of actions such as assisting in getting groups to reach toward set goals, improving the quality of relations between group members, and making sure that groups are able to acquire resources (Nicholsan, Audia & Pillutla, 2005).

Leadership can be examined with regard to its elements and processes. According to Nicholsan et al. (2005), the elements of leadership refer to groups of behaviours (of the leader), that aim to achieve specific objectives by having an influence on the attitudes and actions of followers. Furthermore, it is known that along with the leader's behaviour, the circumstances, and the social climate in the organisation also affect the "manifestation of leadership" (Nicholsan et al., 2005, p.208). Nicholsan et al. (2005) go on to suggest that leadership infers influencing others through different bases of power, so as to attain the cooperation and commitment of followers.

2.2.3 Brief discussion of leadership theories and/or styles

As suggested by Dulewicz and Higgs (2005), behaviours of leaders can be grouped into three categories. These categories are: goal-oriented, involving and engaging. They describe goal-oriented behaviour as “a set of behaviours in which the leader sets direction and behaves in a way in which he/she plays a significant role in directing others to achieve the key goals required to attain the performance required” (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005, p.107). In “involving” leadership, the focus of the leader is still on providing a sense of direction, but there is an increased focus on getting others involved in giving direction and deciding how goals will be reached. “Engaging” leadership behaviour refers to leaders assisting others in achieving the “nature of the direction and means of achieving the necessary goals” (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005, p.108).

Wexley and Yukl (1984) suggest four categories of leadership namely supportive, directive, participative and achievement-oriented, which bear similarities to those of Dulewicz and Higgs (2005). “Supportive leadership” includes behaviour such as considering the needs of followers, whereas “directive leadership” refers to guiding followers and informing them of what is expected of them. “Participative leadership” furthermore is conceptualised by discussing matters with followers in decision making. Lastly, “achievement-oriented leadership” involves setting standards and looking for improvement in performance.

Cooper and Starbuck (2005) illustrate the domains of leadership by focusing on the leader, follower, and the relationship between the two. In the leader-based domain, the main object is the leader. Here, the primary topic of interest is what the ideal combination of personal characteristics and leader behaviours is, so as to achieve the desired outcome. Keeping this in mind, they argue that studies of leadership should include assessments of leader behaviours, traits, personalities, attitudes, perceptions and influence. With regard to the follower-based domain, the focus would be on what the ideal combination of followers’ characteristics and behaviour should be to achieve the desired outcomes. Similar to the leader-based domain, when studying followers, the followers’ behaviours, traits and perceptions should be included. From a relationship-based perspective, the focus would be on the relationship between the follower and leader. Here the issues concern what the ideal

combination of relational aspects is to achieve the desired outcomes. Each of these domains is there to be carefully thought about in conjunction with the others. This will then lead to another set of questions with regard to how the characteristics of these three domains should interact to achieve the desired leadership outcomes.

According to Mastrangelo, Eddy and Lorenzet (2004, p.435), effective leaders display “professional leadership behaviours”, such as creating a mission and direction for meeting it, as well as ensuring that various processes are aligned. They also display “personal leadership behaviours”, including fostering trust, showing individual interest and behaving ethically. The authors argue that the outcome of leadership should result in willing co-operation from followers. Figure 2.1 illustrates how the professional and personal leadership behaviours can lead to “willing cooperation” from followers.

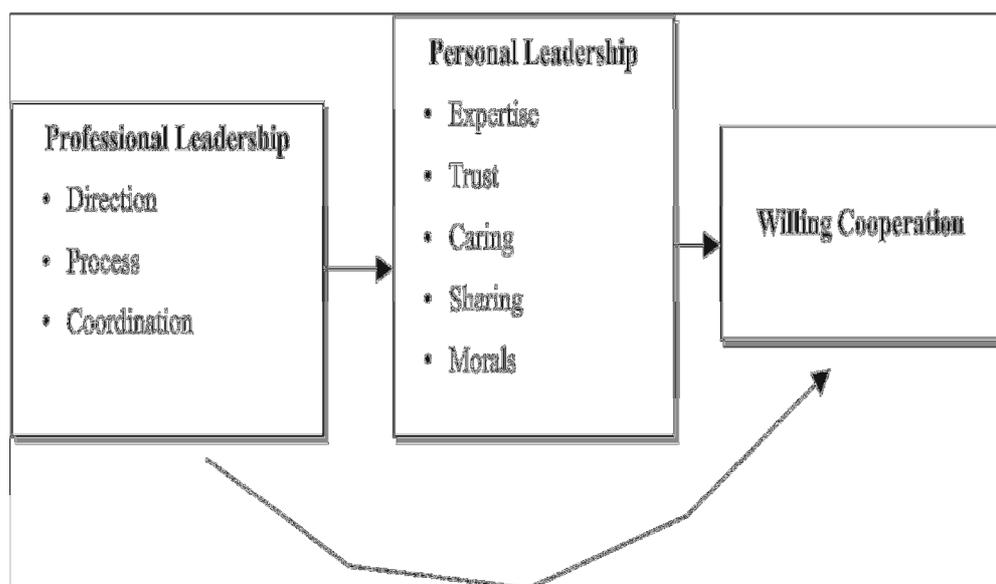


Figure 2.1. Personal leadership as a mediator of professional leadership and willing cooperation

(Mastrangelo, Eddy & Lorenzet, 2004)

Popper and Zakkai (1994) posit that the relationship between leaders and followers have been studied from two perspectives. The first perspective views the relationship between leaders and followers as a “framework of exchange relations” (Popper & Zakkai, 1994, p.3). This conceptualisation focuses on the leader’s ability to make his/her followers knowledgeable about the link between their efforts and the rewards.

Within this perspective of leadership an effective leader “is a sensitive psychological diagnostician who accurately discerns subordinates’ needs and expectations and responds to them accordingly” (Popper & Zakkai, 1994, p.3). This is essentially how Transformational Leadership is defined. From the other perspective, the relationship between leaders and their followers is mainly emotional. In this view, the leader is seen as charismatic, inspirational and is someone who motivates his/her followers to perform beyond what is necessary (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002). This is referred to as TFL.

TFL has been shown to have a stronger correlation with positive organisational outcomes than Transactional Leadership (Wells & Peachey, 2011). For example, Wang and Huang (2009) report the positive relationship between TFL and the performance of groups and individuals as being stronger than the relationship between Transactional Leadership and performance. This implies that TFL is a more effective leadership style than Transactional Leadership. Table 2.1 depicts the different dimensions of TFL and Transactional Leadership, reflecting the difference between the two styles.

Table 2.1

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership
<i>Charisma</i> : provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust	<i>Contingent reward</i> : contracts exchange of rewards for efforts, promises rewards for good performance, recognises accomplishments
<i>Inspiration</i> : communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts, expresses important purposes in simple ways	<i>Management by exception (active)</i> : watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action
<i>Intellectual stimulation</i> : promotes intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving	<i>Management by exception (passive)</i> : intervenes only if standards are not met
<i>Individualised consideration</i> : gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches and advises	<i>Laissez-faire</i> : abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions

(Bass, 1990, p.630)

2.2.4 Transformational Leadership

Researchers have clearly established the significance of leadership for a business' success (Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003). Burns' (1978) initial work on Transformational and Transactional Leadership was advanced by Bass (1985), and has since gained increased attention by business management researchers. Bass (1999) argues that the continuous change in workplaces over the years demands more transformational leaders and less transactional leaders. In a time where consistent income, benefits and a secure job is not guaranteed, it is argued that Transactional Leadership by itself would not cause Job Satisfaction (Bass, 1999), emphasising the importance of TFL. Researchers note that the TFL style has not only been useful in research on organisational change (Burns, 1978; Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003), but also in clarifying the extent of positive organisational outcomes such as employees' satisfaction (Bass, 1985, 1999), commitment and performance (Bass, 1985). With the ever-changing nature of workplaces, characterised by technological changes and international competition, leadership is becoming increasingly critical in organisations (Beugre, Acar & Braun, 2006; Krishnan, 2005). The focus of researchers has been more on TFL as a way of meeting the challenges stemming from the continually transforming business environment (Krishnan, 2005). Krishnan (2005) goes on to explain that transformational leaders are essential when it comes to realising new opportunities and developing the required skills to keep up with changes. The author furthermore argues that greater performance is only possible through affecting followers by applying the characteristics of TFL, and that there is a correlation between TFL and individual, as well as organisational outcomes.

Generally, TFL has been explained as a group of behaviours that aim to generate and assist processes of organisational changes (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). Kaiser et al. (2008) investigated the significance of leadership when it comes to organisational success/failure, and found that different styles of leadership have been linked to certain outcomes. For example, employees' Job Satisfaction levels are higher if their leaders are considerate, while levels of commitment from subordinates are higher if they have transformational leaders.

TFL has been defined by various authors. For example, Burns (1978) states that a transformational leader attempts to identify subordinates' possible motivations and

strives to fulfill their higher needs. Similarly, according to Bass and Avolio (as cited in Ismail, Abidin & Tudin, 2009, p.6), transformational leaders have been defined as those leaders “who want to develop their followers’ full potential, higher needs, good value systems, moralities and motivation”. According to Bryman (1992) transformational leaders are visionary and contribute to employees feeling significant in the workplace.

In a study by Moshavi et al. (2003) where the correlation between leaders’ awareness of their behaviour and the attitudes of their followers were investigated, it was reported that transformational leaders heighten their followers’ interests through making them aware and accepting of the company goals, and by encouraging them to not only focus on themselves, but on the well-being of the company too. To this end, Bass (as cited in Ismail et al., 2009) suggested that the relations between transformational leaders and their subordinates can motivate subordinates to not only work with their own interests in mind, but that of the organisation as well.

Bass and Avolio (as cited in Ismail, Abidin & Tudin, 2009) posit that the TFL construct has four components. These include:

1. Individualised Consideration
2. Inspirational Motivation
3. Intellectual Stimulation
4. Idealised Influence

2.2.4.1 Individualised Consideration

This dimension is characterised by leaders treating their followers as valuable and significant contributors in the organisation (Sarros & Santora, 2001), giving personal attention to followers, and treating each follower as an individual (Hoffman & Frost, 2006). It further involves leaders considering the needs of their followers, and encouraging development (Bass, 1985). Earlier studies revealed that employees who feel they are developing as time passes, experience more Job Satisfaction (Derue et al., 2011).

Various researchers have reported evidence confirming the positive correlation between Individualised Consideration (a dimension of TFL) and organisational citizenship behaviours (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Bommer, 1996; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Cho and Dansereau (2010) as well as Blau (1964) argue that this relationship can be explained by the fact that employees will engage in positive behaviour at work (beyond what is expected) because their leaders attend to their individual needs. Cho and Dansereau (2010) examined the correlation between TFL and followers' organisational citizenship behaviours by considering the mediating effects of the followers' perceptions regarding justice. They found that the perceptions of justice do affect the relationship between TFL and organisational citizenship behaviours.

2.2.4.2 Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational Motivation involves making followers aware about the mission and vision of the company (Sarros & Santora, 2001), and encouraging them to commit to the vision. Outcomes of this dimension include aspects such as "extra effort, ethical behaviour, learning orientation, and project success" (Densten, 2002, p.40). Extra effort is of specific importance as it refers to performance beyond that achieved through Transactional Leadership.

2.2.4.3 Intellectual Stimulation

This dimension entails leaders encouraging followers to be creative, to not avoid challenges, and to participate in decision-making. Here, leader behaviour involves remaining calm and dealing with problems rationally, and involving the followers (Sarros & Santora, 2001). This dimension furthermore "arouses in followers the awareness of problems and ways of solving them, stirs the imagination, and generates thoughts and insights" (Banerji & Krishnan, 2000, p.407). Bruch and Walter (2007) argue that leaders who stimulate their followers intellectually encourage them to be innovative and to not just accept the normal ways of working.

2.2.4.4 Idealised Influence

Idealised Influence refers to the dimension of TFL which relates to leaders being role models to their followers (Sarros & Santora, 2001). The notion of Idealised Influence has as its basis in the study of charismatic leadership (House & Shamir, 1993; Hinkin & Tracey, 1999), typified by exceptional leaders. Charisma is inspirational as it

affects attitudes and emotions regarding significant issues of life, and the self-confidence of charismatic leaders is contagious (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Although charismatic leaders are generally characterised as self-confident, the key to their motivational behaviour lies in their confidence in the abilities of their subordinates (Sarros & Santora, 2001).

Confirming the above-mentioned association between charisma and Idealised Influence, Banerji and Krishnan (2000) suggest that charisma is the most significant element of TFL. Employees perceive charismatic leaders as individuals who instil enthusiasm into others about tasks, are respected, know what is essential, and whose positive work ethic rubs off onto followers. In turn, this inspirational leadership behaviour leads to followers being more motivated.

In 1992 a review on charismatic leadership research, conducted by House (1992), was published. In the review it was argued that TFL augments organisational effectiveness, and that charismatic leaders are perceived to be more effective than other types of leaders (House, 1992). The notion that TFL enhances the effectiveness of organisations is echoed by Cho and Dansereau (2010) who investigated the correlation between TFL and organisational citizenship behaviours, revealing that individual and group perceptions with regard to justice mediate the relationship.

2.2.5 The Value of TFL

The popularity of TFL is partially due to its pervasive connection to advanced performance (Camps & Rodriguez, 2010; Dvir et al., 2002; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). For example, TFL has been shown to be positively correlated with leader effectiveness ($r = .66, p < .001$) (Hur, Van Den Berg & Wilderom, 2011). Various other researchers have also shown that TFL is generally more effective than other leadership styles (Downey, Papageorgiou & Stough, 2006; Dubinsky, Yammarino & Jolson, 1995; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996), and has been associated with increased effort, performance, satisfaction, and commitment in followers (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lowe, et al., 1996).

Further indicating the value of TFL, Bass (1985) postulates that subordinates receive useful feedback from transformational leaders, and that such a leader encourages employees to perform beyond expectations. Performing beyond what is expected, i.e. putting in extra effort, is reflective of organisational citizenship behaviours, which is enhanced by TFL (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990). Based on this notion, Camps and Rodriguez (2010) argue that the TFL is the most effective leadership style. Similarly, using a sample of managers from different units of a large firm providing financial services, Howell and Avolio (1993) also reported that the leaders who portrayed TFL reflected superior performance in comparison to other leaders.

Vera and Crossan (2004) argue that transformational leaders are agents of change: with their vision of the future, transformational leaders inspire subordinates to work toward that vision. Such leaders are able to communicate the significance of the organisations' goals, and this encourages employees to work toward these goals, and even perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Beugre et al., 2006; Cheung & Wong, 2011). Cheung and Wong (2011) elaborate on the significance of TFL by reporting a positive correlation of 0.23 ($p < 0.01$) between TFL and employee creativity, which is essential in keeping up with the constant changes in business environments. On the other hand, Lok and Crawford (2004) explain the value of this leadership style in arguing that individuals' levels of commitment and Job Satisfaction are often influenced by characteristics of TFL. These characteristics include the empowering of subordinates, as well as communicating understandable goals and a vision (Lok & Crawford, 2004).

Using the multifactor leadership questionnaire and the Maslach burnout inventory, Zopiatis and Constanti (2010) investigated the association between leadership styles and burnout. The authors report a significant positive correlation between TFL and personal accomplishment; and a negative correlation between TFL and emotional exhaustion. Transformational leaders were found to be more effective than leaders that follow an alternative leadership style (for example, avoidance leadership). Avoidance leaders (*laissez-faire* leaders), furthermore, were shown to be more prone to burnout, which could also prove harmful to their followers, who would be looking

for encouragement and guidance from their leaders in vain (Zopiatis & Constanti, 2010).

The findings of Dvir et al. (2002) also highlight the potential importance of TFL. The authors investigated the effect of TFL on the development and performance of subordinates. The sample consisted of two groups – a control group and an experimental group. In the experimental group, the leaders went through training specifically aimed at increasing TFL, while the control group's leaders underwent varied leadership training, i.e. not specific to the TFL style. Their findings revealed that the leaders from the experimental group had a greater positive effect on the development and performance of subordinates than the leaders from the control group.

In another empirical study, conducted in Taiwan, Li and Hung (2009) also confirm the findings of many other researchers (e.g. McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002) that there is a positive correlation between the behaviours of transformational leaders and the performance of their followers. For example, a positive correlation was found between good co-worker relations and Individualised Consideration, as well as Inspirational Motivation. Good co-worker relations are important because, as confirmed by Li and Hung (2009), the better the co-worker relations are, the better employees perform their duties. Li and Hung (2009, p.1133) confirm this when arguing that leader-follower relations are significant given that it has “perceptual, motivational, attitudinal, and behavioural consequences.” In addition, the authors report that subordinates of a transformational leader have more support and consideration from their leader, and are therefore more satisfied with him/her. Such subordinates will also have more trust in their leader, and be more open to establishing and maintaining a valuable relationship with their superior (Li & Hung, 2009).

Further accentuating the value of TFL, Nemanich and Keller (2007) report empirical evidence of the positive relationship between TFL and employee performance and Job Satisfaction; while Krishnan (2005) reports that TFL increases employees' level of commitment to the organisation. On the other hand, Wells and Peachy (2011) report empirical evidence of the negative relationship between TFL and voluntary intentions to quit in organisations ($r = -0.33, p < 0.01$). The authors also found that

employees' satisfaction with their leaders mediates the negative relationship between the leaders' behaviour and the employees' turnover intentions. Turnover intentions have been shown to cause various adverse effects in an organisation (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). Abbasi and Hollman (2000) highlight that the costs for a company caused by turnover are not just financial; the company would also have to alleviate the consequences of the turnover such as affected customer relations, efficiency in the workplace, employees' morale, and the combined effect on the effectiveness of the whole organisation.

The following section looks at different outcomes of leadership which will be assessed when measuring effective leadership in this study. The notion of leadership effectiveness will be defined through the three constructs of Perceived Supervisor Support, employee Job Satisfaction and employee Organisational Commitment.

2.3 Outcomes of Effective Leadership

This section discusses Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support as outcomes of effective leadership.

2.3.1 Job Satisfaction

In this section, Job Satisfaction is conceptualised, and antecedents and outcomes of Job Satisfaction are discussed.

2.3.1.1 Conceptualising Job Satisfaction

Employees' performance is affected by their attitudes at work, which are portrayed in their levels of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment (Rocha & Chelladurai, 2008). The extent to which employees enjoy their jobs is portrayed in their levels of Job Satisfaction. Job Satisfaction has been described as multifaceted affective reactions toward the job (Carmeli, 2003; Kalleberg, 1977; Pool & Pool, 2007). Similarly, Locke (1969) defines Job Satisfaction as the pleasing emotion experienced when employees feel their job values are being met. Examples of job values include recognition; remuneration; and autonomy.

Job Satisfaction has been studied extensively over the years. Along with Organisational Commitment, it is considered to be a very significant construct in Organisational and Industrial Psychology when it comes to predicting organisational performance (Pool & Pool, 2007). According to Pool and Pool (2007, p.354, 355) Job

Satisfaction reveals the extent to which there is “a good fit between the individual and the organisation”. In their study of the relationship between Organisational Commitment, motivation and Job Satisfaction of executives, the authors report that 72% of the variation in executives’ motivation levels is related to their levels of Organisational Commitment. It was furthermore found that 64% of the variation in their Job Satisfaction levels is related to their motivation levels.

Individuals are more committed and productive if they perceive their jobs as gratifying and rewarding. Knowing which factors affect Job Satisfaction levels can help recognise possible desires and requirements that can be generally applied to specialized professions, which could help improve performance (George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008; Pool & Pool, 2007). The following section discusses a range of antecedents and outcomes of Job Satisfaction.

2.3.1.2 Antecedents and Outcomes of Job Satisfaction

Knowledge of the factors that positively and negatively affect Job Satisfaction can help employers improve morale at the workplace, which will have a positive effect on organisational outcomes (Pool & Pool, 2007). Many researchers in the field of industrial-organisational psychology have studied the nature, antecedents, outcomes and measurement of attitudes such as Job Satisfaction. Understanding the causes and effects of Job Satisfaction is important, given that it has an effect on employees’ emotional and/or psychological well-being, as well as on their productivity, which, in turn, effects how well the organisation functions. For example, company effectiveness is influenced by the retention of sufficient and competent employees (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek & Frings-Dresen, 2003). Given that there is a significant correlation between low Job Satisfaction levels and turnover, it could be argued that increased Job Satisfaction could aid in preventing increased turnover (Van Saane et al., 2003), and so increase retention. High retention and low turnover rates are thus positive outcomes of high Job Satisfaction. If employers know and understand which factors contribute to Job Satisfaction they can take the necessary steps to prevent high turnover levels and the costs associated with it.

A popular model depicting the antecedents of Job Satisfaction is based on Hackman and Oldham’s (1976) job characteristics theory, which is the dominant theory about

the effect of job characteristics on individuals. The foundation of this theory is that jobs can motivate individuals if they experience intrinsic satisfaction as a result of the job being pleasing and significant. Individuals will then like their jobs and execute their duties well. Figure 2.2 illustrates this theory. The figure demonstrates how core characteristics of a job cause psychological conditions, which causes “job performance, job satisfaction, motivation, and turnover” (Spector, 1997, p.31). The following five core characteristics can pertain to any profession: skill variety; task identity; task significance; autonomy; and job feedback (Spector, 1997).

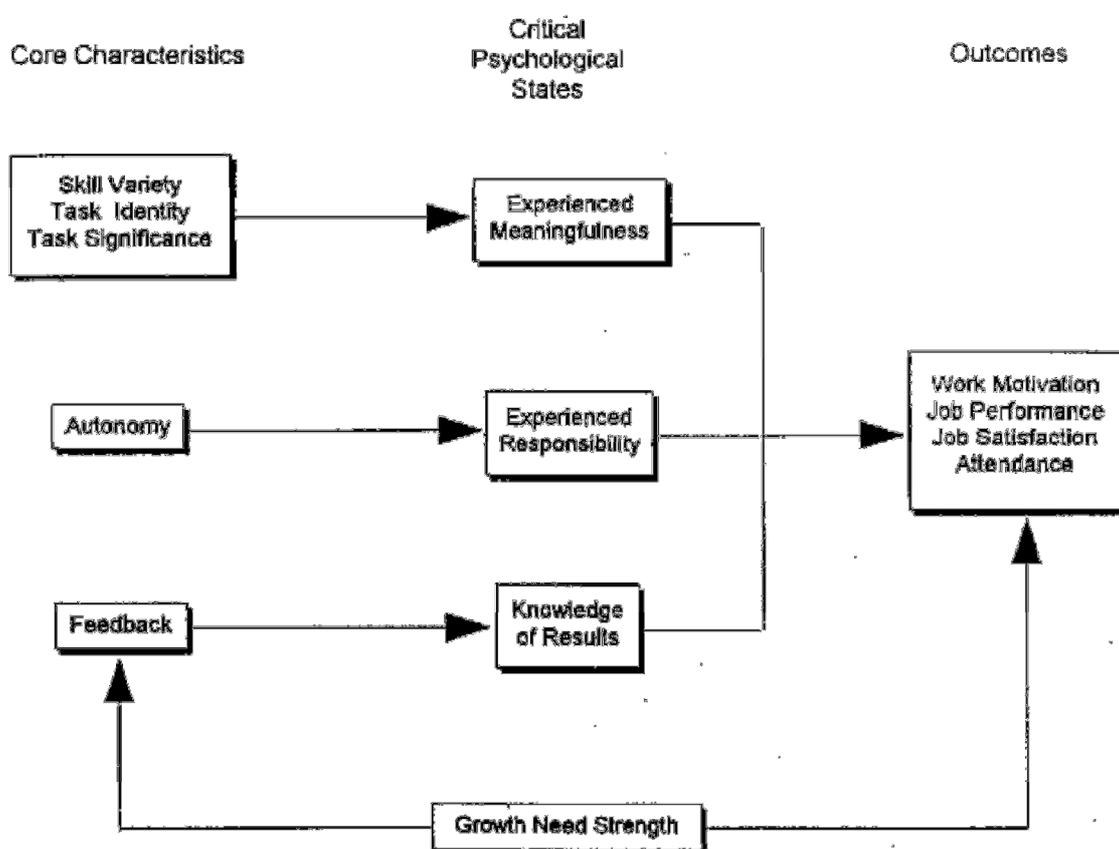


Figure 2.2. Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model

(adapted from Spector, 1997)

The combined effect of skill variety, task identity, and task significance affects the extent to which meaningfulness of work (a psychological state) is experienced. Autonomy affects the level of responsibility felt, and feedback allows the employee to know about the outcomes of the work. The following formula is used to calculate the MPS, using the scores of the core characteristics:

$MPS = (S.V. + T.I. + T.S)/3 \times \text{Auton.} \times \text{Feed.}$

The higher the MPS score is, the higher the motivation and satisfaction levels experienced as a result of the job will be.

According to Spector (1997), there are two types of factors that affect and/or cause Job Satisfaction. The first type includes factors such as the characteristics of the job, relationships with colleagues, and incentives. These factors are related to the work environment, and the job itself. The second types of factors are aspects related to each individual, such as their personalities and previous experience. These two types of causes work together to affect the Job Satisfaction of employees. Other examples of aspects that affect Job Satisfaction include remuneration, promotion opportunities, supervision, working conditions and colleagues (Spector, 1997).

Various researchers, for example Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999) as well as Mardanov, Heischmidt and Henson (2008) found that employees' Job Satisfaction is mostly affected by their immediate leaders. Similarly, Koc (2011) used a sample of 266 employees from 11 institutions and reported a positive correlation between leadership behaviors and Job Satisfaction replicating other research that have shown that a leader's behaviour is one of the most significant antecedents of employees' Job Satisfaction. Koc (2011, p.11837) defined leaders as those "who can direct the followers to the behaviour in line with the leaders' desires in order to realise the individual and group objectives." The measure used to examine leadership behaviour was a 36-item scale developed by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991); and Job Satisfaction was examined through the use of the 20-item Minnesota job satisfaction scale. Employee performance was tested with the use of 7 items – 3 items from the work of Lam, Chen and Schaubroeck (2002), and 4 items from the work of Kirkman and Rosen (1999). Koc (2011) reports a positive correlation of 0.815 between leadership behaviour and Job Satisfaction; as well as a positive correlation of 0.259 between leadership behaviour and employee performance. Similar to the view of Spector (1997), Koc (2011) further points out that other antecedents of Job Satisfaction include individual factors and organisational factors. Individual factors are aspects such as age; sex; education; rank; and intelligence. Organisational aspects include: the nature of the job; communication; remuneration and leadership style.

Research also suggests that work values are antecedents of Job Satisfaction. Work values have been described as the “level and importance of certain job outcomes desired by individuals” and include achievement; status; and autonomy (Keller, Bouchard Jr, Arvey, Segal & Dawis, 1992, pp. 79). Kalleberg (1977) empirically analysed the relationship between Job Satisfaction and work values and job rewards. Results of the study revealed that work values have direct effects on Job Satisfaction levels.

Ghazzawi (2010) indicates another antecedent of Job Satisfaction when arguing that individuals’ personalities affects how they think and feel about their work, and in this way, affects Job Satisfaction. The author furthermore also explains how employees’ work situations and happiness (life satisfaction) also are antecedents of Job Satisfaction. How stimulating or tedious an employee perceives the job to be; the physical setting; and relations with colleagues and clients all relate to the work situation (Ghazzawi, 2010) which affects Job Satisfaction. Ghazzawi (2010) goes on to explain that organisational citizenship behaviour is an outcome of Job Satisfaction. Organisational citizenship behaviours refers to actions involving being a team player and considering others without the expectation of being compensated.

Glisson and Durick (1988), using a sample of 319 human service (not specified) employees from 22 organisations, studied which job, organisation and individual characteristics affect Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. Results revealed that skill variety and role ambiguity were the strongest predictors of Job Satisfaction, while commitment was best predicted by the organisation characteristics and leadership. The only worker characteristic that significantly predicted commitment was education, while no correlation was found between other worker characteristics and Job Satisfaction. In this study, most of the antecedents of satisfaction and commitment that were used were objective factors such as age; gender; education; salary; etc. Therefore higher satisfaction levels will be experienced by the employees if they are clear about what their responsibilities are, and they have the opportunity to utilize a variety of their abilities. It was also reported that worker characteristics have no correlation with satisfaction; and that leadership was found to be a significant predictor of satisfaction levels (Glisson & Durick, 1988). Considering this reported relation between leadership and levels of subordinate

satisfaction, this study intends to investigate Job Satisfaction as an outcome of effective leadership, defined as TFL. Therefore, in the conceptual model (depicted in figure 2.5, section 2.5.2) all the TFL dimensions are hypothesised to have an either direct effect on Job Satisfaction, and/or an indirect effect on Job Satisfaction through the mediator of Organisational Commitment (this is discussed in more detail in section 2.3.5).

2.3.2 Organisational Commitment

In this section, Organisational Commitment is conceptualised, and antecedents and outcomes of Organisational Commitment are discussed.

2.3.2.1 Conceptualising Organisational Commitment

Work attitudes have an influence on the performance levels of employees. These attitudes involve employees accepting the objectives of the organisation (McCarthy, 2008; Pool & Pool, 2007). Not only are these attitudes portrayed in Job Satisfaction levels, but also in levels of Organisational Commitment (Rocha & Chelladurai, 2008). Meyer and Allen (1997) recognise the constant need of a committed workforce of employees that can adjust to necessary changes, and therefore the significance of Organisational Commitment. Organisational Commitment indicates the extent to which employees identify with, and are involved in organisations (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

According to Catano, Pond and Kelloway (2001, p.257) commitment can be defined as “a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organisation’s goals and values...a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and...a desire to maintain organisational membership”. According to Pool and Pool (2007), Organisational Commitment joins the employee to the organisation and reveals how much the employee feels linked with the organisation, as well as to what extent the employee will work toward the aims of the organisation. Pool and Pool (2007) acknowledge that Organisational Commitment has been extensively studied practically as a work outcome, as well as an antecedent variable in the workplace. For example, as a work outcome, or a consequence, leaders’ Organisational Commitment has been shown to be a key variable in creating a workplace that fosters employees’ motivation and Job Satisfaction levels.

Meyer and Allen's (1991) model of Organisational Commitment "retains the greatest empirical scrutiny and arguably receives the greatest support" (Pool & Pool, 2007, pp.354, 355) and will be used in this study. In their model, Organisational Commitment has three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Whereas affective commitment is when an employee stays with an organisation because he wants to, continuance commitment is when an employee stays with an organisation because he needs to. Normative commitment is when an employee stays with an organisation because he feels he ought to. Benefits that can come from the three components of commitment lies in the implications it has with regard to behaviour at work (Allen & Meyer, 1996).

2.3.2.2 General Antecedents and Outcomes of Organisational Commitment

Arnold and Davey (1999) conducted a study using a sample of 474 graduates from eight companies in the UK. The focus was to study the effect of experiences at work on Job Satisfaction and/or Organisational Commitment, and, in turn, its effect on turnover. Questionnaires were obtained on two occasions, a year apart. It was reported that, over the year, the changes in Organisational Commitment were largely a result of intrinsic work aspects, such as career development. Results therefore suggest that intrinsic work aspects, as well as career development have a strong impact on Organisational Commitment levels and turnover. Examples of intrinsic work characteristics include: having an "impact on others...use and development of skills; a variety of tasks, as well as autonomy" (Arnold & Davey, 1999, p.221). Therefore, the more employees feel there is autonomy at work, and the more they feel their skills are being used and developed, the more committed they will be to the organisation. These results emphasise the importance of ensuring and maintain high levels of Organisational Commitment – higher levels of Organisational Commitment will decrease turnover in the organisation.

In 1997 Meyer and Allen published a review of studies on Organisational Commitment. The authors argued that committed individuals are those who stay with the company through bad and good times, are at work most of the time, and work a whole working day (possibly longer). Such individuals furthermore share the company's vision and are undoubtedly a benefit in an organisation. In a similar vein, Pool and Pool (2007), argue that Organisational Commitment causes employees to want to stay with the organisation. The results of their study confirm that

Organisational Commitment is an antecedent to employees' motivation levels, which affect Job Satisfaction. Organisational Commitment fosters a feeling of trust in the workplace, and aids in employees achieving the objectives of the organisation. Increased trust amongst employees promotes Organisational Commitment, and employees are encouraged to stay with the organisation as Organisational Commitment is key in boosting Job Satisfaction and motivation levels (Pool & Pool, 2007). The role of individuals in leadership positions is therefore significant in maintaining and increasing high levels of employees' Organisational Commitment. Leaders, through creating a climate of trust, can increase the employees' commitment in the organisation, and this will, in turn, increase employee Job Satisfaction. Confirming the findings of Pool and Pool (2007), it has been established that Organisational Commitment is a predictor of turnover intentions/behaviour (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Maertz, Griffeth, Campbell & Allen, 2007) as well as of absenteeism and Job Satisfaction (Pool & Pool, 2007).

Revealing similar results to the study by Pool and Pool (2007), Yousef (2000) conducted an empirical study investigating the effect of Organisational Commitment on the relationship between a leader's behaviour and the followers' performance and satisfaction levels. The sample consisted of 430 people from different companies in the United Arab Emirates. The results revealed that there is a positive correlation between employees' Organisational Commitment and satisfaction, as well as between their levels of Organisational Commitment and performance. Confirming previous results, Yousef (2000) also reported that commitment levels of employees mediated the relationship between the behaviour of the leaders and the followers' satisfaction and performance levels. Given this finding, as well as research indicating the importance of leadership in establishing follower Organisational Commitment, this research intends to investigate the direct relationships between the different TFL dimensions, and subordinate Organisational Commitment (this is elaborated on in section 2.3.5). Moreover, given the substantial evidence that Organisational Commitment predicts Job Satisfaction, this relationship will also be included in the conceptual model (see figure 2.5, section 2.5.2).

2.3.3 Perceived Supervisor Support

In this section, Perceived Supervisor Support is conceptualised, and antecedents and outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support are discussed.

2.3.3.1 Conceptualising Perceived Supervisor Support

As noted by Murry, Sivasubramaniam and Jacques (2001), various researchers have reported on the quality of the relationship between leaders and their followers, and it has been established that the quality of this relationship is possibly one of the most significant antecedents of organisational outcomes such as employees' job performance, organisational citizenship behaviours, Job Satisfaction and turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2009). Furthermore, when it comes to the performance and growth of employees, support is a key factor. When sufficient support is available it is easier to handle difficult situations, and so, remain optimistic about one's ability to learn and grow in the organisation (Gentry, Kuhnert, Mondore & Page, 2007).

Subordinates establish perceptions regarding how much their supervisors value their work, and to what extent their supervisors are concerned about their well-being. This is referred to as Perceived Supervisor Support. According to Yoon, Seo and Yoon (2004, p.396), supervisory support can be described as "the socio-emotional concerns of the supervisor, and represents the degree to which the supervisor creates a facilitative climate of psychological support, mutual trust, friendliness, and helpfulness". How subordinates react to their supervisors depends on how the subordinates perceive their supervisors' actions, as well as the subordinates' expectations, standards and interpersonal skills (Likert, 1961 as cited in Locke, 1969). Showing personal concern and applying fair decision making practices are, for example, different forms of Perceived Supervisor Support (Maertz et al., 2007). Research indicates that Perceived Supervisor Support has a significant negative correlation with subordinates' turnover (Maertz et al., 2007) and contributes to the level of effectiveness of the subordinate (Gentry et al., 2007).

To cultivate an environment characterised by high Perceived Supervisor Support levels, employers should allow subordinates to have a say when it comes to important issues in the organisation. Regular meetings, recognition, open communication (including feedback) between leaders and subordinates, and allowing employees to voice their opinions all contribute to increased Perceived Supervisor Support levels, and, in turn, increased retention. This is because the employees will then feel that they, and their contributions, are essential to the leaders, and that their leaders are considering their point-of-view on issues. Under

such circumstances, the work environment could be described as fair, open, consistent, where there is trust and respect (Gentry, et al., 2007).

2.3.3.2 General antecedents and outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support

The quality of the leader-employee relationship has been shown to be a critical factor in a range of important organisational outcomes. For example, Harris et al. (2009) studied how empowerment of employees impacted the quality of supervisor-subordinate relations and work outcomes such as “job satisfaction, turnover intentions, job performance, and OCB’s” (p.379). The authors argued that strong relationships between employees and their leaders have been correlated with good communication among staff as well as receiving rewards, further leading to increased job satisfaction (Graen et al., 1982) and a lower level of turnover intentions (Harris et al., 2009). Harris et al. (2009) found that the empowerment of employees moderates the positive relationship between the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship and the three outcomes of Job Satisfaction, job performance and organisational citizenship behaviours. It was furthermore found that the empowerment of employees moderated the negative relationship between the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship and turnover intentions.

Another study that highlights the significance of leaders’ support is that of Gentry et al. (2007). The authors investigated whether leaders’ support for their subordinates has an impact on retention levels. High retention is important as fewer resources will be spent on finding and training new employees. Such resources can then be utilised for further training and development of current employees. The results of the study revealed that, particularly with regards to retaining part-time employees, support from their supervisor(s) is a key concern. When leaders value their subordinates’ efforts, interests and welfare, and allow for good communication at the workplace, employees tend to remain at the organisation (Graen, Liden & Hoel, 1982). This is characteristic of an environment with high Perceived Supervisor Support. Employees generally report feeling attached to the organisation, which will, in turn, lead to the organisation being successful at retaining employees (Gentry et al., 2007, Maertz et al., 2007).

When it comes to the growth and performance of subordinates, receiving support is significant. When individuals have support, it is easier to handle hardships; deal with

challenges and remain positive in order to continue being successful (Gentry et al., 2007). It is further suggested that various forms of support (such as fair decision-making process and individual concern) result in employees' satisfaction, development, and effective performance (Gentry et al., 2007). Furthermore, according to Maertz et al. (2007), a supervisor that is supportive could make up for the weaknesses in company policies and decisions, and so prevent an increase in turnover. These authors, using 225 social service employees, studied how Perceived Supervisor Support and Perceived Organisational Support affect turnover intentions. Results revealed that Perceived Supervisor Support has an independent impact on turnover intentions. In other words, Perceived Organisational Support did not have an effect on the correlation between Perceived Supervisor Support and turnover intention. Perceived Organisational Support was shown to be more important to employees when Perceived Supervisor Support was considered to be low. As turnover can be a big cost to an organisation, gaining a greater understanding of the causes can help manage it, and in turn, benefit employers and the organisation (Maertz et al., 2007). It was furthermore found that the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support and turnover is partially affected by affective commitment, and that Perceived Supervisor Support is an antecedent of Organisational Commitment. These findings support the extensive research that shows Perceived Supervisor Support has an independent effect on outcomes in the workplace (Maertz et al., 2007). In a similar vein, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) found that another antecedent of Organisational Commitment is Perceived Organisational Support, which refers to the extent to which organisations are committed to their employees. This notion is confirmed by Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997).

Based on the literature above, in this study Perceived Supervisor Support will be assessed as an outcome of effective leadership, and as an antecedent of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. Given that Perceived Supervisor Support involves supervisors expressing personal concern for subordinates (Maertz et al., 2007) with regard to their well-being, as well as treating subordinates as valuable contributors, the present study will examine the relationship between the Individualised Consideration dimension of TFL and Perceived Supervisor Support. As discussed in section 2.2.4.1, Individualised Consideration includes the leader

showing that the subordinate is valuable and significant to the organisation, as well as giving personal attention to the subordinate. This definition is consistent with what constitutes positive Perceived Supervisor Support by the subordinate.

Similarly, as discussed in section 2.2.4.4, Idealised Influence refers to leader behaviour that instils confidence in the abilities of subordinates, and behaviour causing subordinates to perceive the leader as a role model. It is argued that such behaviour will enhance the quality of the relationship between the leader and subordinate, and it is therefore hypothesised that there is also a positive relationship between the Idealised Influence dimension of TFL and Perceived Supervisor Support.

2.3.4 Relationships between Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Perceived Supervisor Support

Various studies support the notion that the abovementioned variables are related (see the conceptual model, figure 2.5, for a visual representation of the various proposed paths between the three variables included in this study). For example, Arnold and Davey (1999) as well as Glisson and Durick (1988) report evidence that Organisational Commitment are correlated to Job Satisfaction. Pool and Pool (2007) also reported an indirect relationship between Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction. Their findings revealed that Organisational Commitment is an antecedent of employee motivation, which in turn impacted on Job Satisfaction. On the other hand, Ghazzawi (2010) reported that Organisational Commitment is an outcome of Job Satisfaction; and similarly Rue and Byars (cited in Ghazzawi, 2010) also argued that Job Satisfaction has a positive relation with Organisational Commitment. Furthermore, Rocha and Chelladurai (2008) suggested that Perceived Supervisor Support affects Perceived Organisational Support, which has been shown to have an influence on the performance of employees as it has an impact on their level of Organisational Commitment. Similarly, Murry et al. (2001) reported a positive relationship between Organisational Commitment and leader-subordinate relations that are of good quality.

Yousef (2000) conducted an empirical study investigating the effect of commitment on the relationship between a leader's behaviour and the followers' performance and satisfaction levels. The results revealed that there is a positive correlation between

commitment and satisfaction, as well as between commitment and performance. Confirming previous literature, it was also found that commitment levels mediate the relationship between the behaviour of the leaders and the followers' satisfaction and performance levels. Dunham, Grube and Castaneda (1994) investigated how leaders that apply a participatory management style (i.e. Intellectual Stimulation) and provide feedback, affect the commitment levels of followers. The authors reported that such leaders' behaviour is strongly related to higher commitment levels in followers, more specifically, higher affective commitment. This suggests that the followers stay because they actually want to stay with the organisation, not because they feel obliged to. In an empirical study by Gok, Karatuna and Karaca (2015), the authors noted that Perceived Supervisor Support not only increases subordinates' commitment, but their Job Satisfaction levels, too. Therefore, based on these studies, it is hypothesised that Perceived Supervisor Support directly influences Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction, and indirectly influences Job Satisfaction through its effect on Organisational Commitment.

2.3.5 Relationships between TFL and outcomes of effective leadership

Research has clearly shown that increased Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction are positive outcomes related to successful leadership. For example, leadership styles have been shown to be correlated with Organisational Commitment (Arnold & Davey, 1999), and similarly Dulewicz and Higgs (2005) have argued that Job Satisfaction of followers has been used as a measure of leadership effectiveness. This notion is echoed by Miles and Mangold (2002) who argue that one determinant of subordinates' satisfaction is the performance of the leader. Furthermore, a leaders' performance is also affected by subordinates' satisfaction with the leader's performance. Miles and Mangold (2002) further argue that understanding subordinates' perception of their leader is necessary. If subordinates are not satisfied with the relationship with their leaders, they will probably be experiencing tension internally, which could possibly hamper productivity. Clear evidence exists that a leader's behaviour has an influence on the Job Satisfaction levels of his/her subordinates (Avolio et al., 1999; Mardanov et al., 2008). For example, Erkutlu (2008) reports a positive correlation between TFL and Job Satisfaction; while Nemanich and Keller (2007), with a sample of 447 individuals, found that TFL explains 10% of the variance in Job Satisfaction scores. Similarly

Mast, Jonas, Cronauer and Darioly (2011) studied the significance of leaders' interpersonal sensitivity on their effectiveness as leaders. The authors noted that Individualised Consideration, a dimension of TFL, has been shown to be positively correlated to subordinates' levels of satisfaction in various studies.

According to Dulewicz and Higgs (2005), like satisfaction, another way of assessing the effectiveness of a leader is through the commitment of his/her followers. According to Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) transformational leaders heighten the amount of commitment received from their subordinates. For example, charisma, a characteristic of Idealised Influence (a dimension of TFL), is said to boost employees' levels of commitment, inspiring them to perform beyond what is expected (Klein & House, 1995). Various other researchers have posited that TFL has a positive association with the extent to which employees are dedicated and committed to an organisation, as well as on organisational success (Erkutlu, 2008; Gill & Mathur, 2007; Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006). Erkutlu (2008), with a sample of 722 individuals, investigated the effect of leadership behaviours on the effectiveness of leaders and the organisation. It was reported that there is a significant positive correlation between the dimensions of TFL and employees' Organisational Commitment. The strongest correlation was between the Individualised Consideration dimension and Organisational Commitment ($r = 0.94$, $p < 0.001$). In a similar vein, Catano et al. (2001) report evidence that TFL has an effect on commitment even with the absence of possible rewards and punishments. The authors argue that transformational leaders cause followers to accept the company's objectives and standards and in so doing, draw support and commitment from the followers.

Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) examined the relationship between leadership styles and Organisational Commitment and performance. A positive correlation was found between TFL and work performance as well as between TFL and subordinates' Organisational Commitment ($r = 0.438$, $p < 0.01$). These correlations were stronger than those found with the Transactional Leadership style. The results of this study therefore confirmed that the TFL style is more effective than the Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership styles in stimulating Organisational Commitment in followers. More specifically, looking at leadership outcomes (effectiveness, satisfaction and extra effort), the laissez-faire style had negative correlations with

these three constructs. Transactional Leadership had a positive correlation of 0.196 and 0.085 with effectiveness and extra effort respectively, and a negative correlation (-0.023) with satisfaction. The relationships between effectiveness; satisfaction and extra effort, and the Transformational Leadership style were the strongest, with correlations of 0.818, 0.672, and 0.732 ($p < 0.01$) respectively. Further confirming the significance of the TFL style, Banerji and Krishnan (2000) reported positive correlations between TFL and how much effort followers offer at work, their satisfaction levels, and job performance. Krishnan (2004) also confirmed this notion in a study which found a positive relationship between TFL and subordinates' tendency to contribute more effort than is necessary, as well as between TFL and subordinates' satisfaction (Connelly & Ruark, 2010; Krishnan, 2004).

Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, and Kramer (2004) conducted an exploratory study examining the behaviour of leaders and its link to perceived leader support. The regression analysis reflected that certain behaviours of leaders predicted followers' perceptions of their leader's support. More specifically, the authors report that examples of leader behaviour that have a positive correlation with subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' support include: "showing support for a team member's actions or decision"; "providing general guidance"; "providing constructive feedback" and "recognizing good performance" (Amabile et al., 2004, p.17,18). Examples of leader behaviors that have a negative correlation with subordinates' perceptions of their leaders' support include: "Displaying lack of interest in subordinates' work"; and "nonconstructive negative feedback" (Amabile et al., 2004, p.19). Furthermore, it was also found that leaders' behaviours affect followers' perceptions of themselves, with specific regard to their capability and significance at work. Wells and Peachey (2011), using a sample of 208 individuals, examined the relationship between leadership and turnover intentions. The authors report that employees' satisfaction with the leader mediates the negative relationship between TFL and turnover intentions ($r = -0.33$, $p < 0.01$). Low turnover intention rates are essential to avoid using extra time and money on the recruitment, selection and development of new employees. Using resources on improving and developing current employees will be more beneficial for an organisation (Gentry et al., 2007). Moreover, a significant correlation (0.579) was found between TFL and employees' satisfaction with their supervisor ($p < 0.01$).

The present study aims to explicate the complex relationships between the TFL style, in terms of the different sub-dimensions of this style, and its direct and indirect effects on the outcomes of effective leadership (subordinates' levels of Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and their Perceived Supervisor Support). Figure 2.5 in section 2.5.2 provides a visual representation of the various hypothesised paths between the TFL dimensions and each of the outcomes of effective leadership.

For example, leaders that display Idealised Influence according to the TFL style would be charismatic and natural role models to their followers. Such leaders display confidence in the abilities of their subordinates. Hence one could argue that such confidence would help create a leader – follower relationship that is characterised by trust and positive interactions. Hence it is possible that the follower, in this instance, would report positive experiences of Perceived Supervisor Support, which could lead to greater feelings of Job Satisfaction and more Organisational Commitment. It could further be argued that this leadership behaviour (i.e. Idealised Influence) could also directly influence the Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of followers.

According to research by Glisson and Durick (1988), employees who find their work stimulating and requiring a wide variety of skills have higher levels of Job Satisfaction. The Intellectual Stimulation dimension of TFL refers to leadership behaviour in which the leader encourage employees to be creative and come up with fresh ideas. Such leaders stimulate their followers intellectually to be innovative. It can therefore be hypothesised that leaders who display the Intellectual Stimulation dimension of TFL may cause higher employee Job Satisfaction in followers as such followers may find their work to be more stimulating and challenging. Hence, Intellectual Stimulation is proposed to have a direct effect on follower Job Satisfaction.

When leaders display the TFL dimension of Individualised Consideration, they pay attention to the needs of each individual employee. This mentoring and supporting behaviour encourages employees' growth and development, and helps the employee to reach their full potential. It can therefore be argued that such leadership behaviour will foster a good quality relationship between the leader and employee, characterised by high Perceived Supervisor Support (i.e. direct effect between

Individualised Consideration and Perceived Supervisor Support). Furthermore, it is also hypothesised that Individualised Consideration will have a direct effect on employee Job Satisfaction (Derue et al., 2011) and Organisational Commitment (e.g. Podsakoff et al., 1996).

The Inspirational Motivation dimension of TFL involves leaders challenging their subordinates, motivating and inspiring them, and getting them involved. Once again it is argued that this leadership behaviour will lead to positive leader-follower relations, which will have a positive effect on Organisational Commitment. It is therefore hypothesised that Inspirational Motivation directly influences Organisational Commitment.

2.4 Emotional Intelligence

This section includes a discussion about the definition and general background of EI. Various EI models are also discussed.

2.4.1 Definition and General Background

Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (1999) describe EI as a group of interconnected abilities that assist individuals to process significant emotional information with precision. According to Zeidner, Matthews and Roberts (2004) the most widely accepted scientific definition of EI is Salovey and Mayer's (1990, p.189) definition: "the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions."

The changes that are continually transpiring in the world of work put pressure not only on individuals' cognitive resources, but also on their emotional resources (Cherniss, 2000). This requires the ability to effectively manage and control emotions, so as to cope with the pace of change. Individuals' EI levels affect how well they cope with stress and difficult situations (Cacioppe, 1997; Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). Slaski and Cartwright (2002), using a sample of individuals in managerial positions, reported empirical evidence of the positive correlation between EI levels and health and well-being, as well as performance. Those with higher EI also showed lower levels of stress. In addition to this, employees are not just being evaluated by their cognitive intelligence and qualifications any longer, but also by how well they handle themselves and others (Goleman, 1998). The focus is

therefore on personal characteristics such as empathy, creativity and adaptability, and Goleman (1998) argues that developing these EI skills in organisations will positively affect the effectiveness and productivity of the organisation.

Ziedner et al. (2004) reviewed empirical evidence supporting the role of EI in the workplace, and reported that an increasing amount of organisations are coming to the realisation that EI competencies are critical for organisational success. The construct of EI was first labelled as such by Salovey and Mayer (1990), and is rooted in the work of Thorndike (1920) who did research on social intelligences as a way of explaining variations in outcomes that are not explained by IQ.

Researchers have differing opinions about EI with regard to its scientific viability (Landy, 2005; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004; Roberts, Zeidner, & Matthews, 2001). For example, some argue that EI is a vague concept (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998) and cannot be measured adequately (Becker, 2003), whereas many other researchers suggest that EI is at the root of necessary abilities individuals need to perform effectively at work (Cherniss, 2000). For instance, it has been argued that the concept of EI has received increasing attention (Averill, 2004) because of its prospective practical significance, for example, as an antecedent to important aspects such as occupational success (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000; Palmer, Gardner & Stough, 2003; Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Groves, Mc Enrue and Shen (2008) suggest that the expanding research on EI has been encouraged by the realisation that emotions play a significant part in the lives of people at work with regard to their perceptions and interactions with other individuals, as they (i.e. emotions) serve as a valuable basis of information that assists in understanding and adapting in social settings (Salovey & Grewal, 2005).

Mayer et al. (2004) argue that individuals with a high EI typically identify emotions better, and are able to understand and manage them better than individuals with a lower EI. EI "is an intelligence that operates on, and with, emotional information. Emotional information concerns the meaning of emotions, emotional patterns and sequences, the appraisals of relationships they reflect..." (Mayer et al., 2004, p.209). Whereas, EI can be increased through training (to, for example, improve performance at work), cognitive intelligence and personality characteristics are rather set in that it cannot easily be developed.

Based on Bar-On's (Bar-On 1997; 2000; 2005) conceptualisation of EI, individuals who portray emotional and social intelligence have the capability to understand themselves and express their thoughts and feelings, and are also able to understand others well, and develop strong relations with others. It has been argued that such individuals handle life's difficult situations more effectively than those who are less emotionally and socially intelligent (Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007).

2.4.2 Brief Discussion of EI Models and Measurement

According to McEnrue, Groves, and Shen (2009), EI has been studied from four perspectives. One model is Goleman's "four-dimensional trait-based model of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and social skills" (McEnrue et al., 2009, p.152). Another perspective is "Bar-On's...five-dimensional trait-based model consisting of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaption, stress management, and general mood factors" (McEnrue et al., 2009, p.152). Thirdly is "Dulewicz and Higgs'...seven-dimensional trait-based model...comprised of self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence, intuitiveness, and conscientiousness" (McEnrue et al., 2009, p.152). The last perspective is Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four branch ability model (McEnrue et al., 2009; Mayer et al., 2004). These authors divided the EI abilities and skills into four components, which include the following abilities (Mayer and Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2004): (1) perception of emotions; (2) using emotions in the facilitation of thoughts; (3) understanding emotions; and (4) managing emotions. Spielberger (2004) reports that the three most used instruments to measure EI are: (1) MSCEIT (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test) (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002); (2) ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) (Boyatzis, Goleman & HayGroup, 2001); and (3) Bar-On EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory) (Bar-On, 1997).

2.4.2.1 MSCEIT (*Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test*)

This instrument consists of 141 items that load onto four components of EI, which have reliability coefficients ranging between 0.76 and 0.91 (Bar-On et al., 2007). Compared to other measures of EI, the MSCEIT have showed the strongest correlations with instruments that measure cognitive ability (Bar-On et al., 2007). Furthermore, it has been found that scores increase with age, and that females tend to score higher than males.

2.4.2.2 ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) (Boyatzis, Goleman & HayGroup, 2001)

Boyatzis et al., (2001) developed the ECI (Emotional Competency Inventory). The ECI 2.0 comprises of 18 competencies, making up the four components of EI: Self-awareness, Self-management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management (Boyatzis & Sala, 2004). A revised version of the test, based on the ECI model is the ESCI (Boyatzis, 2007). This measure will be utilised in this research and will be discussed in more detail in section 2.4.3.

2.4.2.3 Bar-On EQ-i (Emotional Quotient Inventory) (Bar-On, 1997)

The EQ-i is a self-report instrument that provides an appraisal of emotional and social intelligence. Developed over 17 years, and available in over 30 languages, this measurement instrument was first published in 1997, and has been termed the most used measurement of EI. It consists of 133 items and has a five-point answer layout that ranges from "(1) "very seldom or not true of me" to (5) "very often true of me or true of me" (Bar-On et al., 2007, p.3). Table 2.2 provides a summary of the competencies and skills of EI which are measured by the EQ-i.

Table 2.2

The Bar-On EQ-i scales and what they assess

EQ-i Scales		The EI competency assessed by each scale:
Intrapersonal	Self-regard	To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself
	Emotional Self-Awareness	To be aware of and understand one's emotions and feelings
	Assertiveness	To effectively and constructively express one's feelings
	Independence	To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
	Self-actualization	To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential
Interpersonal	Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel
	Social Responsibility	To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others
	Interpersonal Relationship	To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance	To effectively and constructively manage emotions

Adaptability	Impulse Control	To effectively and constructively control emotions
	Reality Testing	To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality
	Flexibility	To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations
General Mood	Problem-solving	To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature
	Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life
	Happiness	To feel content with oneself, others and life in general

(Bar-On, Maree & Elias, 2007)

2.4.2.4 Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

Schutte et al. (1998) developed a self-report measure of EI based on the model of Salovey and Mayer (1990). Starting with an initial pool of 62 items based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) theoretical model, a result of a one-factor solution of 33 items were suggested after a factor analysis. The 33 items represent components that fall under the following categories: appraisal and expression of emotion in the self as well as others; regulation of emotion in the self as well as others; and using emotions in solving problems (Schutte et al., 1998). According to Bar-On et al., (2007), the EIS (Schutte et al., 1998) has enjoyed the most experimental consideration. With internal consistency approximations usually above 0.9, and test-retest reliability of 0.78 (Schutte et al., 1998), this measurement proves to be a very reliable instrument.

2.4.3 Dimensions of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI)

This study will focus on the EI dimensions measured by the ESCI: Self-awareness; Self-management; Social Awareness; and Relationship Management. These EI dimensions differ slightly from those used in Beyers' research. Beyers' (2006) work was based on Goleman's (1995) five components of EI: Self-awareness; Self-regulation; Self-motivation; Empathy and Social Skills. Given that many of the EI dimensions as used by Beyers (2006) are conceptually linked to the ESCI components, the Goleman EI dimensions and the Beyers (2006) results will be incorporated into the discussion in section 2.5, where the elaborated model will be discussed.

2.4.3.1 Self-awareness

Self-awareness has to do with individuals being knowledgeable about their “internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions” (Boyatzis, 2009, p.754). Self-awareness refers to the awareness of one’s own feelings and the capability to recognise and manage these in a way that one feels that one can control. It describes a degree of self-belief in one’s capability to manage one’s emotions and to control their impact in a work environment (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005). Similarly, Moshavi et al. (2003, p.407) state that Self-awareness has been defined “as one’s ability to self-observe...to accurately compare one’s behaviour to a standard...and to assess others’ evaluation of the self.”

2.4.3.2 Self-management

Self-management has to do with “managing one’s internal states, impulses and resources” (Boyatzis, 2009, p.754); and includes achievement orientation, adaptability, emotional self-control as well as having a positive outlook.

2.4.3.3 Social Awareness

Social Awareness has to do with the way in which individuals deal with, and manage relationships. It involves being aware of the opinions, feelings and desires of other people, and it comprises of empathy, organisational awareness and having a service orientation (Boyatzis, 2009).

2.4.3.4 Relationship Management

Relationship Management has to do with the skill of positively affecting others’ responses and/or emotions. It includes “coach and mentor...inspirational leadership...influence...conflict management... [and] teamwork...” (Boyatzis, 2009, p.754).

2.4.4 The Value of EI in the Workplace

The increasing interest in the relationship between the effects of EI on success in the workplace is rooted in the idea that EI possibly accounts for features of performance at work (Carmeli, 2003; Côté & Miners, 2006) that personality and cognitive intelligence does not affect (Rode et al., 2007). Research reflects the positive relationship between individuals’ levels of EI and success in their careers, strength of their personal relationships and their general health (Cooper; 1997). This could be explained through the fact that people who are more emotionally intelligent are able

to communicate their thoughts more effectively (Goleman, 1998). Furthermore, Cherniss (2001) argues that when organisations are led by individuals who are emotionally intelligent, the employees' levels of EI will increase, as well as their levels of Organisational Commitment. Other examples of work aspects that are affected by employees' EI include teamwork, talent advancement, creativity, and performance (Koman & Wolff, 2008). EI has also been found to predict employees' levels of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. For example, Giles (2001) reported a positive correlation between supervisors' EI and the commitment levels of employees on lower job grades.

Oginska-Bulik (2005) argues that not only is EI a significant aspect in ensuring success in life and psychological health, but it is also plays an essential part in determining the collaboration between employees and their workplace. The aim of this study was to investigate the correlation between EI and the perceived stress experienced in the workplace and other outcomes related to health (focussing specifically on symptoms of depression). A sample of 330 employees from various professions (including physicians and managers) were used in this study, and results revealed an important (although weak) role of EI in the perception of stress in the workplace and in the prevention of undesirable health consequences. The more stress workers experienced at work, the worse their health was. The factors that caused stress at work included being overworked and absence of rewards. It was concluded that the capability to handle emotions and emotional information well in the workplace helps workers to cope with stress at work (Oginska-Bulik, 2005). People with a higher level of EI (who could better identify, express and manage emotions), portrayed the capability to manage stress better than those with a lower EI. Those with a higher EI also suffered less from negative health. It is therefore suggested that EI be developed in stress management programs (Oginska-Bulik, 2005).

Guleryuz, Guney, Aydin and Asan (2008), using the data of 267 questionnaires completed by nurses, studied the effect of the dimensions of EI on the levels of Organisational Commitment of nurses, as well as the mediating effect of Job Satisfaction in this relationship. Results showed that Job Satisfaction mediates the relationship between EI and Organisational Commitment, and that Organisational Commitment affects the effectiveness and efficiency of the organisation. The study

also further revealed that, amongst the nurses, those with a higher EI are likely to have a higher level of Job Satisfaction. As discussed earlier, Job Satisfaction leads to better performance, which is beneficial to the effectiveness of the organisation.

Palmer, Gardner and Stough (2003) also reported positive outcomes at work for employees who have a high level of EI. As also noted by Emmerling, Shanwal and Mandal (2008), such employees are likely to demonstrate better performance at work. Furthermore, it has been shown that employees with higher EI will also be more committed to the organisation, be more satisfied with their jobs, and are less susceptible to stress in the workplace. From another perspective, Bagshaw (2000) explains how employees who do not behave in an emotionally intelligent manner could be a great cost for organisations. The author argues that low levels of EI causes negative emotions such as “fear, anger and hostility” which will decrease employee morale and increase absenteeism (Bagshaw, 2000, p.62).

Goleman (2001) argues that the presence of EI competencies may result in excellent performance in the workplace. For example, Bachman, Stein, Campbell and Sitarenios (2000), using a sample of account officers, reported empirical evidence that those with a higher level of EI were more successful than those with a lower EI. According to Goleman (1998), the main difference between successful and unsuccessful managers is their level of EI. Those managers who do not perform well are those who have weaker control over emotions, regardless of the fact that they may have a high IQ and practical experience. Similarly, according to Gardner and Stough (2002), assessing employees' EI could assist an organisation in identifying who will be effective leaders. The next section therefore focuses on the relationship between EI and TFL.

2.4.5 The relationship between EI and TFL

EI skills are essential for excellent performance at work, especially for leaders (Goleman, 1998). For example, Boyatzis (1982) has argued that various social skills, such as being positive and having high self-esteem, predict successful leadership. In a similar vein, Gowing (2001) argues that EI competencies have been used as predictors of organisational effectiveness and successful performance of leaders in various organisations for over three decades. According to Goleman (1998, p.92, as cited by Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003) “IQ and technical skills do matter, but mainly

as threshold capabilities...recent research clearly shows that EI is the *sine qua non* of leadership. Without it, a person can have the best training in the world, an incisive, analytical mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but still will not make a good leader.” Supporting this notion, Duckett and Macfarlane’s (2003) empirical study revealed an association between success, EI and TFL. Salovey and Mayer (1990) state that realising, responding to and influencing subordinates’ emotions is essential in developing quality relationships with them; and George (2000) argues that leaders who have a high EI will be able to develop such relationships, and this, in turn, will lead to positive results for employees and the organisation. George (2000) furthermore postulates that leaders with a higher EI will be more effective in their decision making processes, and will be able to manage their emotions which may hamper decision making.

Over the past few years organisational behavioural researchers have studied emotions in the field of leadership (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Hur, et al., 2011). Hur et al. (2011) examined the mediating effect of TFL on the relationship between EI and team outcomes. The study revealed a positive correlation between EI and TFL ($r = 0.46, p < .001$), and the authors report that leaders with a higher level of EI were rated as more effective, than leaders with a lower level of EI. Sy, Tram and O’Hara (2006) found that leaders with higher levels of EI positively affect the Job Satisfaction experienced by their subordinates.

Leaders who are perceived as successful and/or effective are those that portray EI skills, such as being aware of, and responsive to, their own and other’s emotions (Cacioppe, 1997; Cooper, 1997; Zeidner et al., 2004). Fitzgerald and Schutte (2010) investigated whether enhancing leaders’ self-efficacy would increase their level of TFL and TFL self-efficacy. In their study, the authors note that a number of researchers have reported that leaders with a higher EI have been shown to apply a more TFL style; and that TFL enhances positive organisational outcomes. Fitzgerald and Schutte (2010) reported a positive association between EI and TFL ($r = 0.58, p = 0.001$). This result was a replication of the Polychroniou (2009) results. Using a sample of 267 individuals in managerial positions, Polychroniou (2009) reported a positive correlation between EI and TFL. The correlations between the various EI dimensions and TFL ranged from 0.627 to 0.782 ($p < 0.01$).

Cote, Lopes, Salovey and Miners (2010) reported the results of two studies that investigated the relationship between EI and the emergence of leadership in small groups. Leadership emergence refers to the extent to which someone “who is not in a formal position of authority influences the other members of a group” (Cote et al., 2010, p.496). These studies were conducted using the MSCEIT, as well as five items of the Conger-Kanungo leadership scale (Conger & Kanungo, 1994; Conger, Kanungo & Menon, 2000). A number of EI dimensions correlated with the emergence of leadership. The most consistent relationship was between leadership emergence and the ability to understand emotions (one dimension of EI). This suggests that potential leaders in an organisation can be identified through testing their levels of EI.

Connelly and Ruark (2010) argue that, given the significance of expressing emotions (a regular occurrence between leaders and subordinates) as a way of attaching themselves to subordinates, more researchers have been giving attention to transformational leaders’ emotions. They investigated the effect of leaders’ emotional displays on subordinates’ satisfaction as well as performance levels. They also looked at how the leaders’ emotional displays affected how subordinates assess their leaders. The authors found that positive, as well as negative emotions are likely to affect leaders, either positively or negatively; and it is conceded that effective leadership is possibly affected by whether or not leaders understand the effect of their emotional displays on their followers. It was also reported that transformational leaders are more able at expressing a wider range of emotions (including negative emotions) without causing subordinates to adversely alter their perceptions of their leader. Furthermore, subordinates will feel less threatened by negative emotional displays of the leaders if their leaders display individual consideration (a dimension of TFL) of the followers’ needs (Connelly & Ruark, 2010).

According to various researchers, EI is a key factor that influences the effectiveness of leaders (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005) and it is clear that leaders who are aware of emotions- their own and others’, are more effective in challenging and motivating followers (Leban & Zulauf, 2004). Dincer, Gencer, Orhan and Sahinbas (2011), for example, reported empirical evidence that managers with a higher level of EI are better at making strategic decisions. The authors argue that nowadays making effective decisions are critical in ensuring organisational success,

and that the EI of the leader is a core aspect that has an influence of the quality of decision making (Dincer et al., 2011). The study clearly illustrated the significant effect of EI on the performance of managers (e.g. Rahim & Psenicka, 2002).

Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) argue that there are numerous reasons why transformational behaviours would probably be used more by individuals with a higher EI than those with lower EI. Firstly, a leader who understands and is capable of managing his/her own emotions, and who exhibits self-control, may be perceived as a role model by his/her followers, so developing their trust in and respect for their leader. This goes hand-in-hand with the core of Idealised Influence (a component of TFL). From this it can therefore be hypothesised that a leader's level of self-management (according to the ESCI, i.e. emotional self-control) is positively related to his/her Idealised Influence. Secondly, highlighting the concept of understanding the emotions of other individuals, leaders with a high EI would be capable of realising the degree to which their followers' expectations could be lifted, "a hallmark of inspirational motivation" (Barling et al., 2000, p.157). From this, it can be hypothesised that the more Empathy (a sub-dimension of the ESCI Social Awareness sub-scale) a leader displays, the more inspirationally motivating he/she will be. Thirdly, a significant component of Individualised Consideration is to be able to understand the needs of the followers, and take action according to this understanding (encapsulated in the developing others sub-scale of the ESCI Relationship Management dimension). "With its emphasis on empathy and the ability to manage relationships positively, leaders manifesting EI would be likely to manifest individualized consideration" (Barling et al., 2000, p.157).

According to Kerr, Garvin, Heaton and Boyle (2006, p.268), "Leadership is a process of social interaction where the leader's ability to influence the behaviour of their followers can strongly influence performance outcomes". Leadership is essentially an emotional process through which leaders become aware of their subordinates' emotions, try to affect emotions, and attempt to control their emotional states. Kerr et al. (2006, p.268) further found that leaders enhance unity and morale by "creating shared emotional experiences." If leaders can affect emotions, they can also significantly affect performance (Kerr et al., 2006). Staniforth and West (1995, p.28) state that "effective leadership can provide motivation, task and goal clarification and prompt and appropriate feedback." It is furthermore stated that leadership "is the

process of making appropriate strategic interventions in order to give direction and motivation to the team” (Staniforth & West, 1995, p.31). Leaders need intuition, good judgement and to be able to analyse and handle risk. “Without sufficient and appropriate leadership, residing in either one person or distributed across several members, teams are unlikely to offer significant improvements over traditional ways of working” (Staniforth & West, 1995, p.33). As highlighted previously, Kerr et al. (2006) also argue that leaders that have high levels of EI can positively affect effectiveness at all levels in a company. Also, those with an exceptional ability to perceive and fathom emotions of people (e.g. empathy) are capable of responding with flexibility to changes in their circumstances.

It is therefore clear that higher EI leads to better leadership effectiveness (Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Higgs and Aitken (2003) noted numerous studies confirming the strong link between EI and leadership effectiveness. According to them “much of the literature on Transformational Leadership implies that leaders require emotional intelligence...there appears to be strong indications of a linkage between leadership and emotional intelligence” (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2005, pp.109, 110).

Boyatzis and Saatcioglu (2008, p.92) argue that EI and cognitive intelligence competencies can be used to predict leadership effectiveness. These authors furthermore suggest that EI can be developed in adults, implying that effective leaders are in fact not born, but can also be developed. It is further highlighted that cognitive intelligence is not the only factor affecting leadership effectiveness, but that EI and social intelligence competencies are also essential (Boyatzis & Saatcioglu, 2008). The significance of these three constructs (cognitive intelligence, EI and social intelligence) with regard to leadership effectiveness, is furthermore confirmed by Goyal and Akhilesh (2007) as well as Hoffman and Frost (2006).

Downey et al. (2006) evaluated the correlation between EI, intuition and leadership style. Their study was based on a sample of 176 female managers from various industries, and EI was measured using a measure of EI specific to the workplace (workplace Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test, Palmer & Stough, 2001) as well as the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was used to evaluate leadership. The SUEIT measured the following

dimensions of EI: emotional recognition and expression; understanding emotions external; emotions direct cognition; emotional management; and emotional control. The TMMS measured the following dimensions of EI: attention to feelings; clarity of feelings; and mood repair. Five components of TFL were assessed by the MLQ: Inspirational Motivation; Idealised Behaviours; Idealised Attributes; Intellectual Stimulation; and Individualised Consideration. The results revealed a positive correlation between the TFL style and EI. More specifically, significant correlations were found between understanding emotions external, emotional management, emotional control, attention to feelings, clarity of feelings and each of the five components of TFL.

Similarly, Barbuto and Burbach (2006), using a sample of 388 public officials (including people in leadership positions as well as their subordinates), also investigated the relationship between TFL and EI. The individuals in leadership positions that were used in this study completed a self-report measure of EI by Carson, Carson and Birkenmeier (2000), that consists of five subscales, namely empathetic response, mood regulation, interpersonal skills, internal motivation, and self-awareness (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). To measure TFL, the authors used Bass and Avolio's (1995) MLQ (Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire). They, however, only used four of the eight subscales: Inspirational Motivation; Intellectual Stimulation; Idealised Influence (behaviors); and Individualised Consideration. Their results revealed a significant correlation between the leaders' EI and the four dimensions of TFL (as rated by themselves as well as their subordinates). Their results support the predictive significance of EI as an antecedent of TFL behaviours.

In another study, Gardner and Stough (2002), with a sample of 110 managers, assessed whether EI as measured by the SUEIT predicts leadership (including the transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles) as measured by the MLQ. The strongest relationship that emerged was between Individualised Consideration and understanding emotions of others. Results from the regression analyses suggested that the being able to identify and understand others' emotions was the strongest predictor of TFL. Strong correlations were reported between all the TFL components and two of the components of EI (understanding of emotions and emotional management – the extent to which positive and negative emotions in oneself and others can be managed) (Gardner & Stough, 2002). In a similar vein,

Barling et al. (2000), using a sample of 49 managers, reported a positive correlation between Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation and Individualised Consideration (three components of TFL) and EI (as measured by the Bar-On EQ-i, Bar-On, 1997). The strongest correlation ($r = 0.56$, $p < 0.01$) was between total EI and Inspirational Motivation. Therefore, leaders who are aware of their emotions, as well as those of their subordinates, are most likely to challenge and inspire their subordinates, and this Inspirational Motivation will lead to increased satisfaction with, and more commitment from the subordinates (Barling et al., 2000). The authors suggest a possible explanation for there not being a relationship between EI and Intellectual Stimulation is that this specific component of TFL is more cognitive in nature than the other three TFL components. Moreover, Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001) also reported a significant correlation between the ability to monitor and manage emotions and the Inspirational Motivation and Individualised Consideration dimensions of TFL. More specifically, Inspirational Motivation had a 0.42 ($p < 0.01$) and 0.37 ($p < 0.01$) correlation with the ability to monitor and manage emotions respectively; and Individualised Consideration had a 0.55 and 0.35 ($p < 0.05$) correlation with the ability to monitor and manage emotions respectively.

Beyers' (2006) findings confirmed that there is a positive correlation between EI and TFL. Significant relationships were found between Social Skills and Idealised Influence; Self-motivation and Inspirational Motivation; and between Empathy and Social Skills and Individualised Consideration.

2.5 The modified and elaborated Beyer's (2006) conceptual model proposed for this study

All the literature presented above provides clear evidence for the association between EI and TFL. However, apart from the attempt by Beyers (2006) to build a conceptual model that reflects the nature of the interrelationships between the different EI variables and dimensions of TFL, no other study could be located that has attempted to explore the nature of these two constructs in this manner.

Hence, based on the findings of Beyers (2006) and the literature that was presented in the previous section, a modified and elaborated conceptual model that depicts the nature of the relationships between EI dimensions (based on the ESCI model and measure), TFL dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership (i.e.

Perceived Supervisor Support, Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction) are depicted in figure 2.5. In order to explain how the Beyer's (2006) model has been modified and elaborated, a short discussion of the original model, the results of the model testing, as well as the unique components added to the model in this study (ESCI components, outcomes of effective leadership) is presented next.

2.5.1 Beyer's (2006) EI and TFL conceptual model

The Emotional Intelligence Index scale developed by Rahim and Minors (2003) was utilised in Beyer's (2006) research. This scale consists of five components of EI based on the Goleman (1995) definition of EI. The five components include (Beyers, 2006) (1) self-awareness (i.e. knowledge of internal states, preferences, resources and intuitions) which is comprised of emotional self-awareness; accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence; (2) self-regulation (i.e. the ability to manage one's internal states, impulses, and resources) which is comprised of self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovativeness; (3) self-motivation (i.e. tendencies that guide an individual to reach his/her goals) comprised of achievement drive, commitment, initiative, optimism; (4) social competence (i.e. how an individual handles relationships) comprised of empathy, service orientation, developing others, leveraging diversity, political awareness, and (5) social skills (i.e. adeptness at inducing desirable responses in others) comprised of influence, communication, leadership, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, collaboration and cooperation, and team capabilities. The five components were included in the structural model together with the four dimensions of TFL discussed throughout this study. The initial proposed Beyer's (2006) conceptual model is presented in figure 2.3.

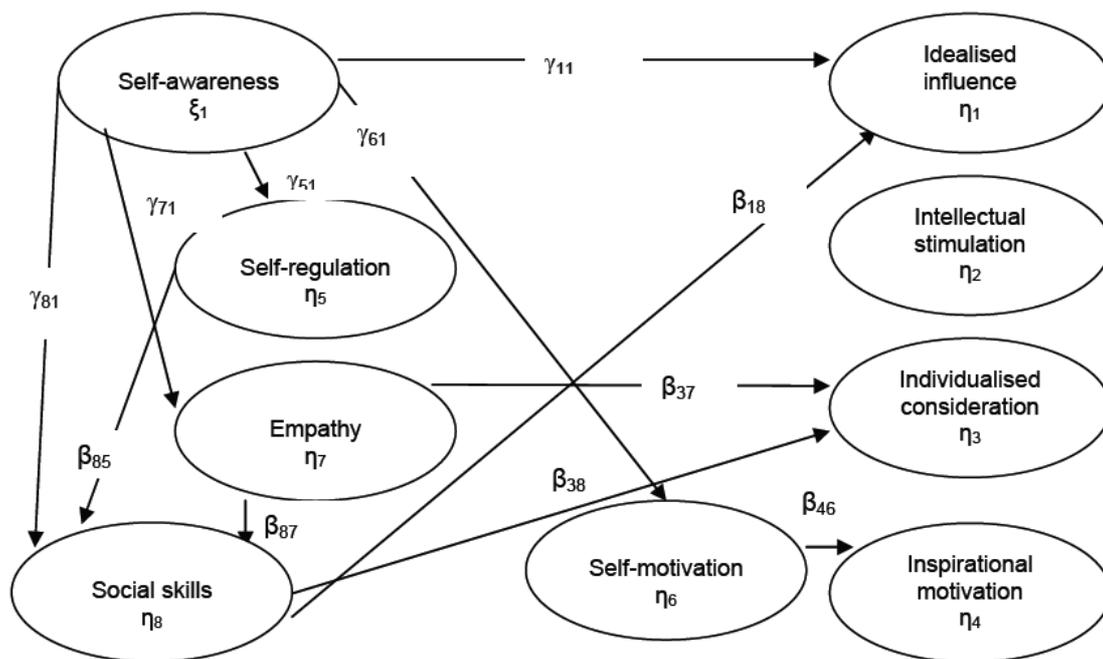


Figure 2.3. The initial proposed Beyers (2006) model

(Beyers, 2006, p.50)

The model was tested with Statistica's SEPATH programme. Only two goodness-of-fit (GIF) indicators were reported: the GFI (.483) and the AGFI (.440). Given that as a general rule .9 is applied for these two indices to indicate good model fit, it was concluded that the results did not provide evidence that the data supported the model. Furthermore, almost no information was given as to whether the data was formally tested in order to ensure that the normality assumption was not violated. It was, however stated that "completed questionnaires clearly indicated that the respondents' answers were skewed to the right... the assumption of normality was probably not met, and it was therefore unclear whether the SEPATH model results could be accepted" (Beyers, 2006, p.75). Therefore the model was refitted with a partial least squares approach (with SmartPLS). According to Beyers (2006) the results of this analysis (together with the SEPATH results) provided empirical support for 8 of the 11 proposed paths in the model. The final model for which sufficient support, according to Beyers (2006) was found in the study, is presented in figure 2.4.

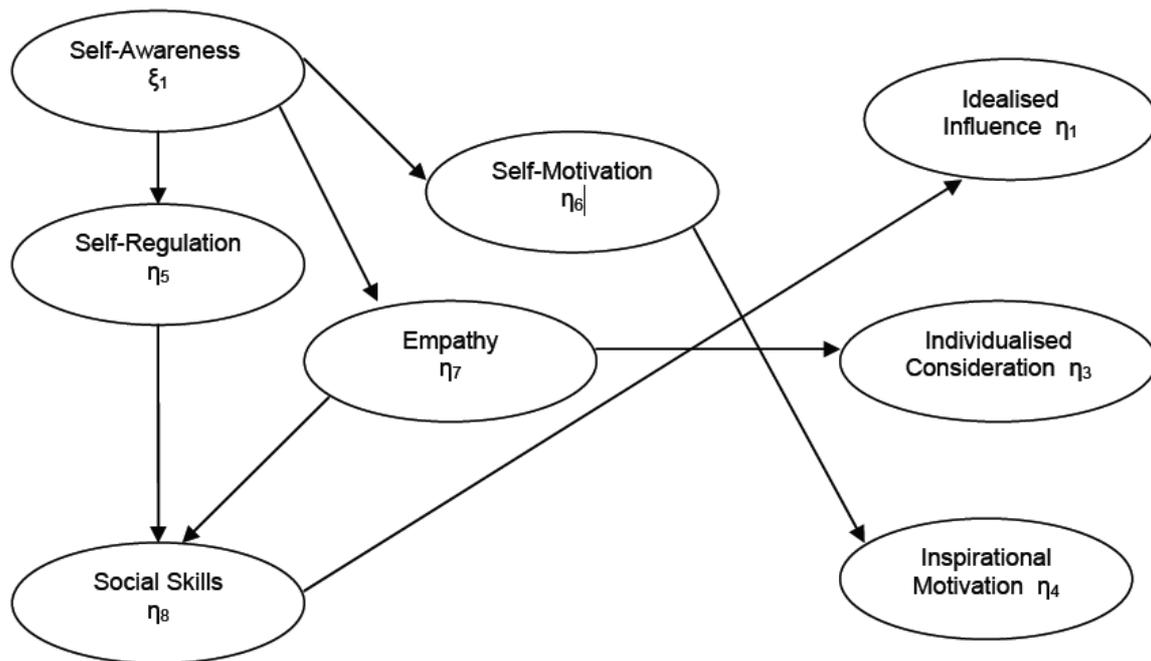


Figure 2.4. The summarised conceptual model of significant relationships

(Beyers, 2006, p.84)

2.5.2 Proposed modifications and elaborations of the Beyer's model

A modification of the Beyer's (2006) final model entailed that the ESCI was utilised as a measure of EI in this research. The EI dimensions as used by Beyers (2006), based on the Goleman EI model, bare similarity to some of the ESCI dimensions and sub-dimensions that were used in this research. For example, both models include the dimension of Self-awareness with similar sub-dimensions (i.e. emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment). However, the ESCI includes self-management as a dimension, which consists of self-control, adaptability, transparency, achievement orientation, initiative and optimism). One could argue that these have a conceptual overlap with the Self-regulation EI dimension utilised in the Beyers' model (which also include self-control, adaptability, trustworthiness, conscientiousness and innovativeness). The ESCI includes a Social Awareness dimension. Empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation are sub-dimensions of social awareness. Empathy, however, was a separate dimension in the EI model utilised in the Beyer's (2006) research. Within the Goleman framework Empathy consists of five sub-dimensions (see table 2.3). However, by investigating the content of the "Empathy" and "Social awareness" dimensions, it was clear that these dimensions were conceptually fairly similar. Furthermore, a last dimension of

the ESCI is Relationship Management, with sub-dimensions including: influence; teamwork and collaboration; conflict management; change catalyst, inspirational leadership, and developing others. All these sub-dimensions overlap with sub-dimensions of the Social Skills component of Goleman's model. In order to provide conceptual clarity in terms of the overlap and differences between the ECI and the ESCI, table 2.3 has been constructed.

Table 2.3**Conceptual Overlap between Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Framework and the ESCI**

Goleman's Emotional Competence Framework		ESCI	
Dimension	Definition	Dimension	Definition
Self Awareness		Self Awareness	
Emotional awareness	Recognising your emotions and their effects	Emotional self-awareness	Awareness of one's own emotional state
Accurate self-assessment	Knowing your strengths and limits	Accurate self-assessment	Awareness of one's own strengths, weaknesses, and performance
Self-confidence	A strong sense of your self-worth and capabilities	Self-confidence	Sense of one's self-worth and capabilities
Self-regulation		Self-management	
Self-control	Keeping disruptive emotions and impulses in check	Emotional self-control	One's ability to monitor and regulate one's emotional states and emotional impulses
Trustworthiness	Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity	Transparency	Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity
Conscientiousness	Taking responsibility for personal performance	Achievement orientation	One's own ability to set high standards, then achieve or exceed them
Adaptability	Flexibility in handling change	Adaptability	Being flexible when dealing with change
Innovativeness	Being comfortable with novel ideas, approaches and new information		
Self-Motivation			
Initiative	Readiness to act on opportunities	Initiative	Taking action on what needs to get done before they have been asked

Optimism	Persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles and setbacks	Optimism	Optimistic outlook; persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles
Achievement drive	Striving to improve or meet a standard of excellence		
Commitment	Aligning with the goals of the group or organisation		
Social skills		Relationship Management	
Influence	Wielding effective tactics for persuasion	Influence	Wielding effective tactics for persuasion
Communication	Listening openly and sending convincing messages	Inspirational leadership	Inspiring and guiding individuals and having them follow without force
Leadership	Inspiring and guiding individuals and groups	Change catalyst	Initiating or managing change
Change catalyst	Initiating or managing change	Conflict management	Negotiating and resolving disagreements
Conflict management	Negotiating and resolving disagreements	Developing others	Sensing and bolstering others' development needs
Building bonds	Nurturing instrumental relationships	Teamwork and collaboration	Respecting, and collaborating with other team members while being cooperative and sharing
Collaboration and cooperation	Working with others towards shared goals		
Team capabilities	Creating group synergy in pursuing collective goals		
Empathy		Social Awareness	
Developing others	Sensing the development needs of others and bolstering their abilities	Empathy	Sensing and understanding what others are feeling
Understanding others	Sensing the feelings and perspectives of others and taking active interest in their concerns	Organisational awareness	Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships
Service Orientation	Anticipating, recognising and meeting customer's needs	Service orientation	Ability to understand others' needs and provide services to meet their needs

Leveraging diversity	Cultivating opportunities through different kinds of people
Political awareness	Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships

It has been established that EI is a key factor that influences the effectiveness of leaders (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Leaders who are aware of emotions – their own and others' are more effective in challenging and motivating followers (Leban & Zulauf, 2004). Furthermore, leaders who have a TFL style have been shown to be more able at expressing a wider range of emotions (including negative emotions) without causing subordinates to adversely alter their perceptions of the leader. In the Beyer's (2006) results it was argued that emotional Self-awareness was found to be the cornerstone of the EI. The results highlighted the fact that Self-awareness, "influences self-regulation, empathy and self-motivation, while empathy and self-regulation in turn influences social skills" (Beyers, 2006, p.85). The hierarchical nature of the EI construct was originally mentioned by Salovey and Mayer (1990). In the modified and elaborated conceptual (structural) model tested in this research, this assumption is also built into the model. It is hypothesised that Self-awareness only affects various TFL behaviours through its effect on other EI components (e.g. Self-management and Social Awareness).

For example, Beyers (2006) reported evidence that supported the hypothesis that the effect of leader self-awareness on Individualised Consideration was mediated through Empathy. This result made sense as a significant component of Individualised Consideration is to be able to understand the needs of followers, and take action according to this understanding. Hence it was argued that leaders who display empathy as a component of EI will probably display Individualised Consideration (Barling et al., 2000). In the ESCI model, empathy is a sub-dimension of Social Awareness. The path between Self-awareness and Individualised Consideration was, therefore, replicated in this study. However, it was modified through the hypothesis that the relationship is mediated by Social Awareness.

Beyers (2006) also reported evidence that the effect of Self-awareness on Social Skills were mediated by empathy, as well as Self-regulation. Furthermore, a

significant effect of Social Skills on the TFL dimension of Idealised Influence was also evident. It has been argued that TFL behaviours will be used more by individuals with a higher EI than those with a lower EI (Barling et al, 2000). For example, a leader who understands his/her emotions (Self-awareness), is more able to exhibit self-control (a component of self-regulation or self-management within the ESCI model), may be more aware, of and in tune with, what others may be feeling (i.e. social awareness / empathy) and may therefore be perceived as a role model to his/her followers (Idealised Influence) due to the trust and respect that is developed for the way in which the leader reacts towards the follower. These paths were also replicated in the current model. That is, it was hypothesised that the effect of Self-awareness on Idealised Influence is mediated by Self-management. Moreover, it was also hypothesised the effect of Self-awareness on Idealised Influence could also be mediated through Social Awareness and Relationship Management. Hence it is argued that when a leader exhibits emotional Self-awareness, this will impact on the Social Awareness capability of the leader, which in turn would manifest in better Relationship Management (e.g. sensing and meeting development needs of the follower), which would ultimately impact on the degree to which the follower perceives the leader to display Idealised Influence, as a TFL behaviour. In the same vein it was argued that there is also a relationship between a leader's Self-management and Relationship Management.

Furthermore, Beyers reported evidence that the path from Self-awareness to Inspirational Motivation was mediated by Self-motivation. Given the conceptual overlap between the sub-dimensions of Goleman's motivation dimension with the sub-dimensions of the ESCI's self-management dimension, it was hypothesised in the present study that there is a path between Self-awareness and Inspirational Motivation, mediated by Self-management.

Beyers (2006) also reported evidence to support a path from Self-awareness to Empathy. Given that Empathy is a sub-dimension of the ESCI's Social Awareness dimension, a path from Self-awareness to Social Awareness was hypothesised in this study. Social Awareness contains the sub-dimensions of empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation. These sub-dimensions entail the skills of being able to read and understand the emotions of others, being able to understand what other individuals need, and finding ways of meeting those needs. It

also entails the ability to read a group's emotional currents and power relationships. These characteristics in a leader can help encourage followers to commit to the organisation's vision and mission as employees would feel valued if the leader displays an awareness of the emotional needs of their followers. Committed employees would also put in extra effort at work – which is an outcome of Inspirational Motivation (TFL dimension). Therefore a direct path from Social Awareness to Inspirational Motivation was also hypothesised.

Beyers' (2006) results revealed no correlations between any of the EI dimensions and Intellectual Stimulation. Moreover, no paths from any of the EI sub-dimensions to Intellectual Stimulation in the initial model were included. Barling et al., (2000) conducted an exploratory study on the relationship between TFL and EI. With a sample of 60 managers, using the MLQ to assess TFL and the Emotional Intelligence Inventory to assess EI, the authors also reported no relationship between any of the EI dimensions and Intellectual Stimulation (however, significant relationships between EI and the other three dimensions of TFL were found). The authors argued that a possible explanation for the lack of any relationship between EI and Intellectual Stimulation could be because of the cognitive nature of this TFL dimension: providing intellectual challenges, encouraging initiative; whereas the other three dimensions (Inspirational Motivation, Idealised Influence and Individualised Consideration) rely more on emotional competencies. In the present study, therefore, consistent to the Beyer's model, no paths were hypothesised between any of the EI dimensions and Intellectual Stimulation.

As part of the extension of the Beyer's model, three positive outcomes of TFL were added into the model (i.e. Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment of the follower). For example, it was hypothesised in the present study that Individualised Consideration directly affects all three of these outcomes positively. Previous research has established that a leader's behaviour is one of the most significant predictors of an employee's Job Satisfaction (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Koc, 2011). For example, Li and Hung (2009) have shown that due to the fact that transformational leaders provide more support and consideration for subordinates, subordinates report higher satisfaction with the leader. Recognition and regular feedback from leaders, characteristic of Individualised Consideration, also create good relations between the leader and follower (Gentry et al., 2007)

which could impact positively on follower Job Satisfaction. In addition, it is also argued that leaders who display such Individualised Consideration, through paying individual attention to followers and encouraging development, will have a positive influence on the subordinates' levels of Organisational Commitment. For example, Arnold and Davey (1999) found that intrinsic work aspects such as career development play a large role in the Organisational Commitment levels of employees. Similarly, Graen et al. (1982) reported that when leaders value their subordinates' efforts, interests and welfare, employees tend to remain at the organisation. A direct path from Individualised Consideration to Organisational Commitment was therefore hypothesised in the present study. A path from Individualised Consideration dimension of TFL to Perceived Supervisor Support was also hypothesised in the study. As discussed in section 2.3.3.2, the leader behaviour required for positive subordinate Perceived Supervisor Support (for example: showing personal concern for subordinates and treating them as significant) are portrayed in the Individualised Consideration dimension which involves the leader paying personal attention to each subordinate.

Moreover, in the extended Beyer's model proposed for this study, it was further argued that the TFL dimension of Idealised Influence also directly affects all three outcomes of effective leadership (i.e. Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment). Idealised Influence refers to the fact that leaders are viewed as role models by their followers. Such leaders have high self-confidence. However, such leaders also display confidence in the abilities of their followers, which acts as a motivational factor for followers. Hence, such a display of trust and confidence in followers may enhance follower Job Satisfaction positively as leader behaviour is a major contributor to employees' Job Satisfaction (Avolio et al., 1999; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Mardanov, et al., 2008). It may also enhance feelings of Organisational Commitment as leaders who display Idealised Influence instil enthusiasm into followers about tasks, whilst displaying a positive work ethic which followers often would like to emulate. Furthermore, given that Perceived Supervisor Support involves supervisors expressing personal concern for subordinates (Maertz et al., 2007) with regard to their well-being, as well as treating subordinates as valuable contributors, it was argued that such behaviour would enhance the quality of the relationship between the leader and subordinate. It was therefore

hypothesised that there is a positive relationship between the Idealised Influence dimension of TFL and Perceived Supervisor Support as well.

As argued by Krishnan (2005), employees' Organisational Commitment levels increases as a result of TFL behaviours. More specifically, Inspirational Motivation as a TFL behaviour could be particularly important in enhancing the Organisational Commitment of followers. Hence, it was hypothesised that Inspirational Motivation as displayed by a leader, has a direct positive effect on the Organisational Commitment of followers. Leaders who display Inspirational Motivation are adept at making followers aware of the mission and vision of the company, whilst encouraging followers to commit to the vision. Such leadership behaviours also often lead to extra effort from followers, which could be encapsulated in Organisational Commitment from the follower.

The extended model also includes a direct path from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction, suggesting that when followers are likely to report more Organisational Commitment they may experience more Job Satisfaction. Arnold and Davey (1999) as well as Glisson and Durick (1988) report evidence that Organisational Commitment are correlated to Job Satisfaction. Pool and Pool (2007) have argued that increased trust amongst employees promotes Organisational Commitment, and employees are encouraged to stay with the organisation as Organisational Commitment is key in boosting Job Satisfaction and motivation levels. Similarly, Yousef (2000) reports that commitment levels of employees mediated the relationship between the behaviour of the leaders and the followers' satisfaction and performance levels. It is therefore believed that there is a path from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction. When it comes to the growth and performance of subordinates, receiving support is significant. When individuals have support, it is easier to handle hardships; deal with challenges and remain positive in order to continue being successful (Gentry, et al., 2007). It is further suggested that various forms of support (such as fair decision-making process and individual concern) result in employees' satisfaction, development, and effective performance (Gentry, et al., 2007). From this, as argued earlier, it was therefore hypothesised that there should be a path from Individualised Consideration to Perceived Supervisor Support, and from Individualised Consideration to Job Satisfaction. In addition to this, a path from Perceived Supervisor Support to Job Satisfaction was also hypothesised.

When leaders value their subordinates' efforts, interests and welfare, and allow for good communication at the workplace, employees tend to remain at the organisation (Graen et al., 1982). This is characteristic of an environment with high Perceived Supervisor Support. Employees generally report feeling attached to the organisation, which will, in turn, lead to the organisation being successful at retaining employees (Gentry et al., 2007, Maertz, et al., 2007). It was therefore hypothesised that there should be a direct path from Perceived Supervisor Support to Organisational Commitment included in the model.

The TFL style has been found to be more effective than other leadership styles (e.g., Transactional or Laissez-faire Leadership), and has been associated with positive outcomes in the workplace such as increased effort, performance, satisfaction, and commitment (Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Moshavi et al., 2003). Hence, it was argued that when leaders encourage innovation, creativity and participation in decision making from subordinates (characteristic of Intellectual Stimulation), subordinates will be more satisfied at work. From this it was hypothesised that there should be a direct path from Intellectual Stimulation to Job Satisfaction. The modified and elaborated Beyer's (2006) model, proposed for this study, is depicted in figure 2.5.

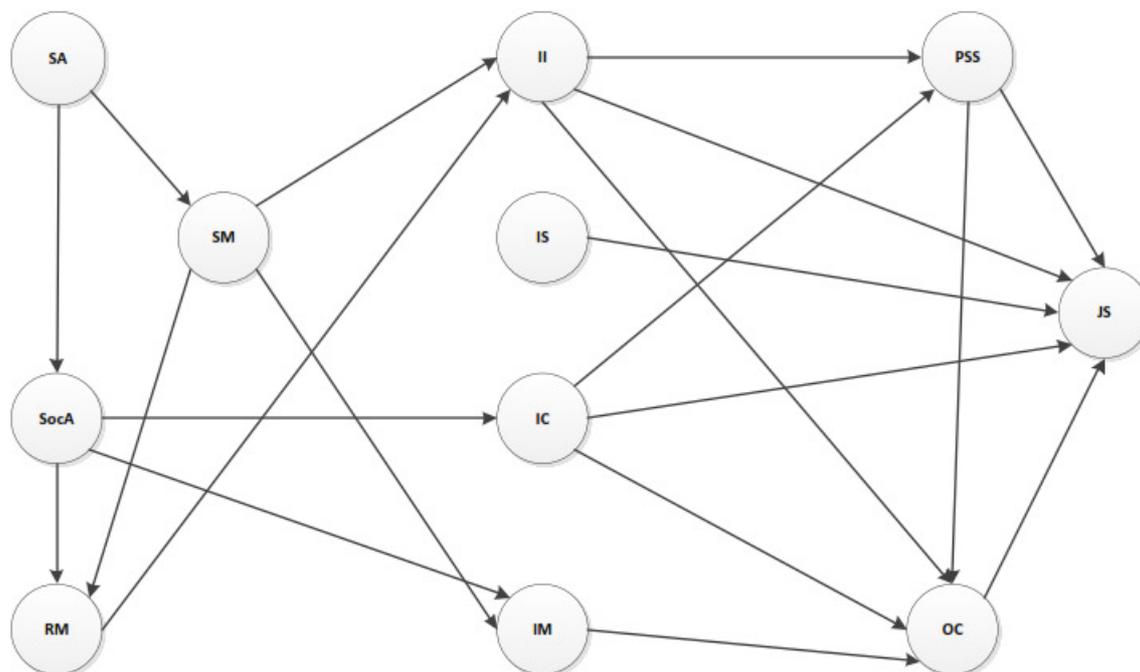


Figure 2.5. Proposed conceptual (structural) model for this study

NOTE: SA: Self Awareness; SM: Self-management; SocA: Social awareness; RM: Relationship management; II: Idealized influence; IS: Intellectual stimulation; IC: Individualized consideration; IM: Inspirational motivation; PSS: Perceived supervisor support; JS: Job satisfaction; OC: Organisational commitment

2.6 Summary

This study aims to elaborate on the work of Beyers (2006) by including Perceived Supervisor Support, Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction as outcomes of TFL in an elaborated conceptual model that depicts the nature of the relationships between EI dimensions, TFL dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership. The literature study presented a theoretical background which argued for suggested relationships between EI, TFL, Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support in the proposed model, presented above. The validity of these suggested relationships will be evaluated by testing the model. The next chapter will present the various research hypotheses and the methodology that will be used to test these hypotheses.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Chapter two reviewed the literature regarding the various constructs and their relationships with each other. This chapter will present a discussion regarding the purpose and aims of this study, as well the research objectives, hypotheses and design. This will be followed by a discussion about the measurement instruments that were used in the study. A detailed analysis of the psychometric properties of the instruments for the current sample is presented at the beginning of chapter 4.

3.2 Research Purpose

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) discussed the significant role of EI in the effectiveness of organisations. These authors argued that the most effective leaders in the workplace are those that are able to identify their subordinates' emotions, as well as their own, and to effectively deal with employees who need encouragement and are not satisfied at work. In essence, Cherniss and Goleman (2001) state that effective leaders are those who are emotionally intelligent. The assumption that leaders with a higher EI are more effective has been studied and confirmed by various researchers, for example Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) as well as Higgs and Aitken (2003).

The results of the Beyers' (2006) study were discussed in detail in chapter 2. The present study aimed to expand on the work of Beyers (2006) by using a more recent model of EI developed by Boyatzis and Goleman in 2007, which was measured with an updated measuring instrument, namely the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI). Research clearly shows that successful leadership is related to positive organisational outcomes, such as increased Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction have also been revealed as outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support (Yousef, 2000), which, in turn, is an outcome of successful leadership. In other words, effective leadership will result in positive Perceived Supervisor Support. This study, therefore, aimed to elaborate on the work of Beyers (2006) by including Perceived Supervisor Support, Organisational Commitment and Job Satisfaction as outcomes of TFL in an

elaborated structural model that depicts the nature of the relationships between EI dimensions, TFL dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership.

3.3 Research Aim, Question and Objectives

This research attempted to expand and elaborate Beyers' (2006) structural model reflecting the impact of EI on TFL. The Beyers' (2006) model was modified and elaborated on by suggesting the use of a more recent measure of EI (the ESCI) and also adding Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment to the model as outcomes of effective TFL.

Based on the theoretical background, the following research question could be stated:

Does the conceptual model (depicted in figure 2.5) provide a valid account of the psychological processes that determines the outcomes of effective leadership, defined as Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment, as experienced by the follower of a particular leader that exhibits certain TFL behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies?

The research objectives included to:

- develop a conceptual (structural) model, which is an expanded and adapted version of the Beyers' (2006) model, and to
- test the fit of the outer and inner model via Partial Least Squares modelling (PLS).

3.4 Research Hypotheses

The overarching notion of this study is that the conceptual model depicted in figure 2.5 (section 2.5.2) provides a valid account of the psychological process that determines the outcomes of effective leadership (defined as Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment) as experienced by the follower of a particular leader that exhibits certain TFL behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies.

Therefore, the following twenty research hypotheses were developed, describing the conceptual (structural) model.

Hypothesis 1: Self-awareness (SA) positively influences Self-management (SM).

Hypothesis 2: Self-awareness (SA) positively influences Social Awareness (SocA).

Hypothesis 3: Self-management (SM) positively influences Relationship Management (RM).

Hypothesis 4: Self-management (SM) positively influences Idealised Influence (II).

Hypothesis 5: Self-management (SM) positively influences Inspirational Motivation (IM).

Hypothesis 6: Social Awareness (SocA) positively influences Relationship Management (RM).

Hypothesis 7: Social Awareness (SocA) positively influences Individualised Consideration (IC).

Hypothesis 8: Social Awareness (SocA) positively influences Inspirational Motivation (IM).

Hypothesis 9: Relationship Management (RM) positively influences Idealised Influence (II).

Hypothesis 10: Idealised Influence (II) positively influences Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).

Hypothesis 11: Idealised Influence (II) positively influences Job Satisfaction (JS).

Hypothesis 12: Idealised Influence (II) positively influences Organisational Commitment (OC).

Hypothesis 13: Intellectual Stimulation (IS) positively influences Job Satisfaction (JS).

Hypothesis 14: Individualised Consideration (IC) positively influences Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS).

Hypothesis 15: Individualised Consideration (IC) positively influences Job Satisfaction (JS).

Hypothesis 16: Individualised Consideration (IC) positively influences Organisational Commitment (OC).

Hypothesis 17: Inspirational Motivation (IM) positively influences Organisational Commitment (OC).

Hypothesis 18: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) positively influences Job satisfaction (JS).

Hypothesis 19: Organisational commitment (OC) positively influences Job satisfaction (JS).

Hypothesis 20: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS) positively influences Organisational Commitment (OC).

3.5 Research Design and Procedure

3.5.1 Research Design

The relationship between the variables in the proposed model was investigated using an *ex post facto* correlation design. Given the nature of the variables, experimental manipulation is not possible. The research design should control variance so that the effect of EI and TFL on the outcomes of effective leadership can be differentiated from other factors that could be causing variance in the outcomes of effective leadership. However, with this design, one does not have control over extraneous variables that could cause variance. Furthermore, causal conclusions from significant path coefficients obtained through the results cannot be made, as correlations do not suggest causation.

3.5.2 Sampling design, data collection and ethical considerations

The aim of sampling is to use a sample that represents the whole population as efficiently as possible. A sample that accurately portrays the characteristics of the population is said to be representative. The ideal would be to use the whole target population in the study, but this is not practically possible. Therefore a sample of the population was used.

For the purpose of this study, units of analysis were sampled from the population. The target population was individuals in leadership positions (managers and supervisors). More specifically, a total of 132 managers and supervisors from institutions in various industries were approached to participate. These industries included: government services, financial services, higher education, as well as a non-government organisation.

.

Two types of sampling procedures can be distinguished, namely:

1. probability sampling procedures in which each element in the sampling population has a known, positive probability of being selected into the sample; and
2. non-probability sampling procedures in which the probability of selection is unknown for each element of the sampling population.

A non-probability sampling procedure was used in this study. The managers rated their own EI and TFL. It was requested that at least two subordinates of each manager also participate (therefore at least 264 subordinates). The subordinates were asked to rate their manager's TFL and EI. Furthermore, each subordinate self-reported on their perceived levels of Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment, and Perceived Supervisor Support.

Of the 132 managers that were approached, questionnaires were received back from 92 managers (a response rate of 69.7%) of which 85 questionnaires were suitable for use in this study. Given that it was requested that *at least 2* subordinates per manager participates, more than two subordinate questionnaires were distributed to each manager (allowing for as many subordinate participants as possible). This means that in many cases there were differing amounts of subordinate responses per manager. For example, some managers had two subordinates linked to them, where other managers had four subordinates linked to them. In total, 305 subordinate questionnaires were distributed, of which 198 were returned (which is a response rate of 64.92%) of which 182 questionnaires were suitable for use in this study.

Data collection commenced after ethical clearance had been obtained. The institution's management (or human resources director) was asked to provide written permission that access will be given to their employees. The supervisor / manager were asked to complete an informed consent form informing them that their leadership behaviour and EI will be rated by their employees. Their own responses on the TFL and EI assessments were anonymous, as well as the subordinate ratings, and a coding system was employed to match the employee to the supervisor / manager. Every employee rated their supervisor's leadership behaviours and EI, as well as their own levels of Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and

Perceived Supervisor Support. The employees were ensured that responses would be kept anonymous through the use of a rating system, and that all information will be held confidential. All parties were ensured of the fact that no individual data will be shared with company management.

3.5.3 Sample characteristics

The total sample consisted of 267 respondents: 85 supervisors and 182 subordinates. The sample was made up of participants from various industries and included: government services (1.2%), financial services (18.8%), higher education (78.8%), as well as a non-government organisation (1.2%). Of the total sample 55.06% was administrative/support staff; 7.12% was junior management; 22.72% middle management; and 5.24% was on senior management level. About 5% (i.e. 4.87%) of the respondents did not indicate their position in their organisation. The characteristics of the sample used in this study are presented in the tables below.

Tables 3.1 and 3.2 reflect the gender and age distributions of the supervisors in this study. Sixty percent of the respondents in the supervisor group were females.

Table 3.1

Supervisors: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	51	60
Male	34	40
Total	85	100

Table 3.2

Supervisors: Age

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	82	27	63	46.22	8.32
Missing	3				
Total	85				

Tables 3.3 and 3.4 reflect the supervisors' highest qualifications and marital status respectively. Most of the supervisors (55.3%) had post-graduate degrees; and 70% were married.

Table 3.3***Supervisors: Highest Qualification***

	Frequency	Percent
Grade 12/ Matric	10	11.8
Post-matric certificate	5	5.9
Diploma	10	11.8
Undergraduate degree	13	15.3
Post-graduate degree	47	55.3
Total	85	100

Table 3.4***Supervisors: Marital Status***

	Frequency	Percent
Single	12	14.1
Married	60	70.6
Divorced	7	8.2
Widowed	2	2.4
Living together	4	4.7
Total	85	100

Tables 3.5 and 3.6 indicate the first and second languages of the supervisors. The data shows that 69.4% of the supervisors indicated English as a first language.

Table 3.5***Supervisors: First Language***

	Frequency	Percent
English	59	69.4
Afrikaans	20	23.5
Zulu	2	2.4
Other	4	4.7
Total	85	100

Table 3.6***Supervisors: Second Language***

	Frequency	Percent
English	19	22.4
Afrikaans	65	76.5
Missing	1	1.2
Total	85	100

Table 3.7 indicates the ethnic groups of the supervisors that participated in the study. Of the supervisor sample, 58.8% were white and 29.4% coloured.

Table 3.7***Supervisors: Ethnic Group***

	Frequency	Percent
Black	3	3.5
Coloured	25	29.4
White	50	58.8
Indian	2	2.4
Other Asian	1	1.2
Other	2	2.4
Total	85	100

Tables 3.8 and 3.9 reflect the gender and age distribution of the subordinates that participated in this study. Roughly 66% of the respondents in the subordinates group were females, with a mean age of 39.

Table 3.8***Subordinates: Gender***

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Female	120	65.93
Male	59	32.42
Missing	3	1.65
Total	182	100

Table 3.9***Subordinates: Age Distribution***

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	178	22	66	39.93	10.36
Missing	4				
Total	182				

Tables 3.10 and 3.11 reflect the subordinates' highest qualifications and marital status respectively. About 39% of the subordinates have postgraduate degrees whilst 20.88% only have a matric certificate. Fifty four percent were married.

Table 3.10***Subordinates: Highest Qualification***

	Frequency	Percent
Grade 10 / Std 8	2	1.1
Grade 12/ Matric	38	20.88
Post-matric certificate	15	8.24
Diploma	36	19.78
Undergraduate degree	19	10.44
Post-graduate degree	70	38.46
Missing	2	1.1
Total	182	11

Table 3.11***Subordinates: Marital Status***

	Frequency	Percent
Single	55	30.22
Married	99	54.4
Divorced	18	9.89
Widowed	3	1.65
Living together	6	3.3
Missing	1	0.54
Total	182	100

Tables 3.12 and 3.13 indicate the first and second languages of the subordinates. Close to two thirds of the subordinate respondents indicated English to be their first language.

Table 3.12***Subordinates: First Language***

	Frequency	Percent
English	117	64.29
Afrikaans	48	26.37
Xhosa	7	3.85
Zulu	2	1.1
Tswana	1	0.55
Other	6	3.3
Missing	1	0.54
Total	182	100

Table 3.13***Subordinates: Second Language***

	Frequency	Percent
Afrikaans	47	25.82
English	130	71.43
Zulu	1	0.55
Missing	4	2.2
Total	182	100

Table 3.14 indicates the ethnic groups of the subordinates that participated in the study. A rather large percentage (19.8%) opted to not answer this question, whilst the data further revealed that 37.9% were coloured and 33% were white.

Table 3.14***Subordinates: Ethnic Group***

	Frequency	Percent
Black	12	6.6
Coloured	69	37.9
White	60	33
Indian	3	1.6
Other	2	10
Missing	36	19.8
Total	182	100

3.5.4 Data Analysis

This section will discuss the data analyses techniques used to examine the research hypotheses as well as certain characteristics of the measurement instruments.

3.5.4.1 Item analysis

Prior to conducting the Partial Least Squares (PLS) analyses on the conceptual model, the internal consistency of the participants' responses to the measuring instruments' items was determined through a separate item analysis procedure with *Statistica* for each instrument. Item analysis assists in identifying poor items which can be considered for removal, which in turn will ensure better reliability and validity of the relevant measured construct. The item statistics that were investigated to evaluate whether an item should be deleted or not, included the Cronbach Alpha if

item is to be deleted, as well as the inter-item correlation for a particular item within the scale. Internal consistency results of 0.70 could be deemed acceptable; however, coefficients in the range of 0.80 and 0.90 are better indicators of satisfactory reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

After the preliminary item analyses were conducted (discussed in section 4.2) the PLS model were fitted to the data with the revised item set (i.e. where problematic items were identified, they were removed from the dataset).

3.5.4.2 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

A variety of methods can be used to assess the link between a number of variables. For this study, Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was used, which is a method that analyses the relationships between multiple items (Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson, 2010) in the testing and modification of theoretical models (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). SEM is used not only to analyse the measurement model, but also the relationship between one construct and another. SEM can be used as a confirmatory as well as an exploratory method.

SEM has two approaches:

- the covariance-based approach, and
- the Partial Least Squares (PLS) approach (variance-based approach) (Hair et al., 2010; Haenlein & Kaplan, 2004).

Table 3.15 provides a comparison between PLS and covariance-based SEM, provided by Urbach and Ahlemann (2010).

Table 3.15
Comparison between PLS and CBSEM Approaches

Criteria	PLS	SEM
Objective	Prediction-oriented	Parameter-oriented
Approach	Variance-based	Covariance-based
Assumption	Predictor specification (non-parametric)	Typically multivariate normal distribution and independent observation (parametric)
Parameter estimates	Consistent as indicators and sample size increase	Consistent
Latent variable scores	Explicitly estimated	Indeterminate
Epistemic relationship between and LVs and its measures	Can be modelled in either formative and reflective mode	Typically only with reflective indicators. However, the formative mode is also supported.
Implications	Optimal for prediction accuracy	Optimal for parameter accuracy
Model complexity	Large complexity	Small to moderate complexity
Sample size	Power analysis based on the portion of the model with the largest number of predictor. Minimal recommendation range from 30 - 100 cases.	Ideally based on power analysis of specific model - minimal recommendation range from 200 to 800
Type of Optimization	Locally iterative	Globally iterative
Significance tests	Only by means of simulations: restricted validity	Available
Availability of global Goodness of Fit (GOF)	Are currently being developed and discussed	Established GOF metric available

(Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010)

Given that this study has a small sample size¹ and that the aim of the model was exploration and prediction, the PLS approach was used.

¹ The actual calculated sample size for this study was limited to the number of supervisors in the sample (i.e. 85) as the supervisors were the unit of analyses in this study. In order to calculate the average score for the supervisor from their own perceived EI and TFL ratings, as well as from the subordinates linked to a particular supervisor, an average was calculated from the supervisor score, as well as all the relevant subordinate scores, for that particular supervisor. For example, for supervisor 100A, there was 2 subordinates. For item EI1 the

3.5.4.3 Partial Least Square (PLS)

This approach, which aims at maximizing “the variance of the dependent variable explained by the independent ones” (Mohamadali, 2012, p. 102; Haenlein and Kaplan, 2004), has two parts:

1. a structural part (inner model) that reflects the links between latent variables, and
2. a measurement part (outer model) that reflects the links between a latent variable and their observed variables (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).

Figure 3.1 reflects this two-stage process.

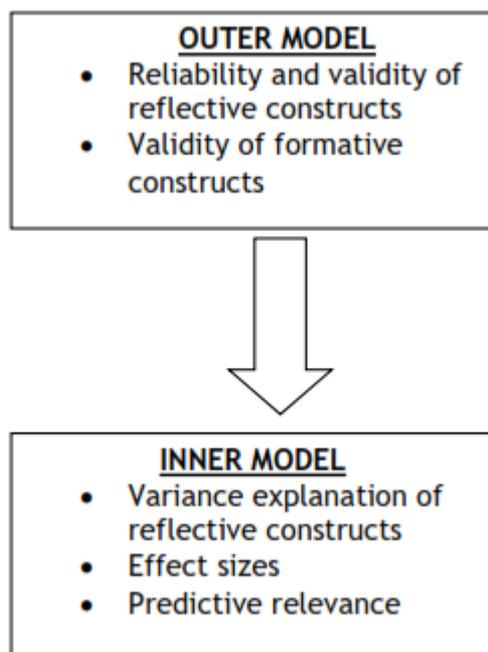


Figure 3.1. A two-step process of PLS path model assessment

(Henseler et al., 2009, p. 298)

supervisor rated himself with a 5, and the two subordinates gave him ratings of 3 en 5, respectively. His average score for item EI1 was therefore calculated as $(5+3+5)/3=4.33$.

The PLS approach currently has no criteria for Goodness-of-Fit, however, evaluation of the model is conducted through a two-stage process (Chin, 1998):

1. Evaluating the measurement model (outer model)

According to Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) as well as Aibinu and Al-Lawati (2010) the following criteria can be used to test whether a measurement model is adequate:

Individual item reliability. This looks at whether each question statement of the questionnaire is understood similarly by each respondent. The item reliability in PLS is assessed through the examination of the item loadings in the specific construct. As with Cronbach's alpha, a Composite reliability value of 0.70 is required indicating that the variance in the item is attributed to the construct.

In contrast to the Cronbach alpha, composite reliability does not make the assumption that all indicators are equivalently reliable, and also considers that indicators have different loadings. This results in PLS paths having a more reliable estimation of internal consistency. Whether Cronbach's alpha is used or composite reliability, a value of at least 0.7 is recommended (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), and values below 0.6 are considered poor.

Convergent validity of the instrument to assesses construct validity. Urbach and Ahlemann (2010) define convergent validity as the extent to which specific construct items link to other items of another construct. The PLS approach analyses convergent validity of constructs by assessing the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (Hair et al., 2010; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Shi, Olson and Stam (2007, p.310) define AVE as "the amount of variance that a latent variable component captures from its indicators relative to the amount of variance due to measurement error", and a value of at least 0.50 is suggested (Urbach & Ahlemann, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

Discriminant validity of the instrument to also assesses construct validity – looking at the extent to which the items of an instrument do not indicate other variables (Straub, Boudreau & Gefen, 2004). Here the value of the square root of each construct's AVE should be bigger than the correlations with other constructs. Looking at specific items, the cross-loadings are also examined to assess discriminant validity. The

item's loading with its specific construct should not be lower than its loading with another construct.

In addition, to determine whether the measurement model's *factor loadings were significant* or not, Bootstrap was used. Confidence intervals of 95% were used. Therefore, if zero did not fall within the 95% confidence interval, the factor loadings were found to be statistically significant.

Once the outer model has been found to be reliable and valid, the inner model can be assessed.

2. Evaluation of the structural model (inner model) to assess the proposed relationships. Here the following criteria are considered:

The *Coefficient of Determination*, R^2 , which assess how much variation of each endogenous variable is accounted for by the whole model. Chin (1998) suggests that values of about 0.67 are significant, whereas values of 0.33 and 0.19 are moderate and weak respectively.

Path coefficient. This refers to the estimated values for path relationships in the structural model and should be evaluated in terms of sign, magnitude, and significance (the latter via bootstrapping).

3.6 Measurement Instruments

3.6.1 Emotional Intelligence

The ECI (Emotional Competence Inventory) measures Goleman's emotional competencies. It has been shown to have an average reliability of 0.63 (Wolff, 2006). Byrne (2003) found that the ECI has good validity. However, the instrument has been criticised, and as a result, an attempt to revise the instrument to assure better psychometric properties was made. Boyatzis and Goleman released the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI) (a revision of the ECI) in 2007. Table 3.17 shows the reliability coefficients of the ESCI.

Rahim (2010) used the ESCI to measure EI in a study on the relationship between EI and stress levels. The 72-item instrument makes use of a 6-point Likert scale. Rahim (2010) reported Cronbach's alphas ranging between .74 and .84 for the instrument.

In the present study, Goleman and Boyatzis's ESCI was used to measure EI. Table 3.16 includes a description of the sub-dimensions of the ESCI. Self-awareness is measured focusing on emotional self-awareness; accurate self-assessment and self-confidence. Self-management includes, amongst other aspects: achievement orientation; adaptability; emotional self-control and positive outlook. Social Awareness includes empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation. Relationship Management includes, amongst others, conflict management; coaching and mentoring; influence; and inspirational leadership. The ESCI is a 360-degree instrument, and employs a 6-point Likert scale where respondents indicate to what extent they agree with a list of statements on a rating scale which includes the following options: "Never"; "Rarely", "Sometimes", "Often", "Consistently" or "Don't know"².

Table 3.16

ESCI competency clusters and definitions

Cluster	Competency	Definition
Self-awareness	Emotional self-awareness	Awareness of one's own emotional state
	Accurate self-assessment	Awareness of one's own strengths, weaknesses, and performance
	Self-confidence	Sense of one's self-worth and capabilities
Self-management	Emotional self-control	One's ability to monitor and regulate one's emotional states and emotional impulses
	Transparency	Maintaining standards of honesty and integrity
	Adaptability	Being flexible when dealing with change

² The final category in the Likert rating scale, "don't know" was treated as a missing value in the data analysis procedure.

	Achievement orientation	One's own ability to set high standards, then achieve or exceed them
	Initiative	Taking action on what needs to get done before they have been asked
	Optimism	Optimistic outlook; persistence in pursuing goals despite obstacles
Social awareness	Empathy	Sensing and understanding what others are feeling
	Organizational awareness	Reading a group's emotional currents and power relationships
	Service orientation	Ability to understand others' needs and provide services to meet their needs
Relationship management	Development others	Sensing and bolstering others' development needs
	Teamwork and collaboration	Respecting, and collaborating with other team members while being cooperative and sharing
	Conflict management	Negotiating and resolving disagreements
	Change catalyst	Initiating or managing change
	Inspirational leadership	Inspiring and guiding individuals and having them follow without force
	Influence	Wielding effective tactics for persuasion

(Koman & Wolff, 2008)

Table 3.17***Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for ESCI Competencies***

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for ESCI Competencies	
Emotional Self-Awareness	0.83
Achievement Orientation	0.74
Adaptability	0.76
Emotional Self-Control	0.80
Positive Outlook	0.76
Empathy	0.79
Organizational Awareness	0.76
Conflict Management	0.84

Coach and Mentor	0.83
Influence	0.74
Inspirational Leadership	0.79
Teamwork	0.87

(Boyatzis, 2007)

3.6.2 Transformational Leadership

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to measure the four variables of TFL: Idealised Influence, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualised Consideration and Inspirational Motivation. This questionnaire was developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). It comprises of 45 items, and includes a 5-point Likert type response scale. Eight items measure Idealised Influence; four items measure Inspirational Motivation; four items measure Intellectual Stimulation; and four items measure Individualised Consideration. Engelbrecht et al., (2005), using a South African sample, reported that the MLQ's sub-scale reliabilities in alpha values ranged between .72 and .84.

The MLQ measures both TFL and Transactional Leadership. However, in this study, as in the Beyers' (2006) study, only the TFL section of the questionnaire was used.

3.6.3 Outcomes of Effective Leadership

3.6.3.1 Perceived Supervisor Support

To measure Perceived Supervisor Support, Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) questionnaire that measures Perceived Organisational Support (POS) was used. However, similar to the practice employed by other researchers (e.g. Pazy & Ganzach, 2009), the word "organisation" was replaced with "supervisor". The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 0 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree) in which a half of the items are negatively worded, and the other half are positively worded. Eisenberger et al. (1986) reported a reliability coefficient of .93 (Cronbach's alpha) for this scale.

3.6.3.2 Job Satisfaction

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to measure Job Satisfaction. With an alpha coefficient in the range of .68 and .96, the JDI has been reported to have satisfactory internal consistency (Buckley, Carraher & Cote, 1992). The original version of Smith, Kendall and Hullin (1969) consisted of 72 items with a yes/no format. The instrument was subsequently adapted into a more flexible 30-item measure. This version is a Likert-type questionnaire, with the scoring ranging from 1, which is “strongly disagree”, to 5 which is “strongly agree”- higher scores reflecting higher satisfaction levels. For the purpose of the present study, the 5 items of the questionnaire that specifically relate to satisfaction with work was used.

3.6.3.3 Organisational Commitment

Meyer and Allen’s three-component model of Organisational Commitment was used and measured using the Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The instrument uses a 4-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 4 (Strongly agree), and focuses on affective, continuance and normative commitment. Allen and Meyer (1996) studied a wide range of data regarding the construct validity of the measurements of the three components of commitment. The development of the measures had its basis in theory and existing views of commitment as a work attitude. A satisfactory reliability (alpha) coefficient has been reported for each OCQ subscale: affective commitment = .87; continuance commitment = .75 and normative commitment = .79 (Allen & Meyer, 1990).

3.7 Summary

This chapter addressed the purpose and aim of this research study and presented the proposed hypotheses which were based on the theoretical background and literature review. The research design and statistical analyses techniques were also explained. In the next chapter, the research results will be presented and elaborated on.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the data analyses that were conducted in this study. The first part of the chapter discusses the steps taken regarding the validation of the measurement instruments and measurement model, which will be followed by a discussion about the results attained for the structural model so as to test the proposed hypotheses presented in chapters 2 and 3.

4.2 Validating the Measurement Instruments

4.2.1 Item Analysis

The psychometric properties of the various constructs were explored through item analysis. This section reports on the results of these analyses. The supervisors and subordinates results are presented separately.

4.2.1.1 Transformational Leadership

TFL was measured with the MLQ. This instrument assesses TFL as well as Transactional Leadership, but for the purposes of this study, only the 24 items assessing TFL were used. Item analyses were conducted on all four subscales of TFL using STATISTICA (Statsoft Inc., 2012) for the subordinate and supervisor groups separately. The statistics of each of the 4 subscales (Individualised Consideration, Idealised Influence, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspirational Motivation) of TFL will be presented below.

The results of the item analyses for TFL, as well as the descriptive statistics for the supervisor and subordinate data are presented in tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively.

Table 4.1

The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for TFL (supervisors)

TFL subscale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Intellectual Stimulation	4	17.81	2.85	0.73
Idealised Influence	8	35.82	5.81	0.83
Inspirational Motivation	4	18.82	2.97	0.83
Individualised Consideration	4	19.48	3.13	0.79

Table 4.2***The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for TFL (Subordinates)***

TFL subscale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Intellectual Stimulation	4	16.38	4.22	0.84
Idealised Influence	8	34.27	7.6	0.86
Inspirational Motivation	4	17.97	4.27	0.85
Individualised Consideration	4	17.18	4.59	0.80

4.2.1.1.1 Individualised Consideration

For the supervisors, as shown in table 4.3, the range of the item total correlation statistics for the Individualised Consideration subscale was 0.51 – 0.70. The range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.40 – 0.52. The Cronbach alpha of this subscale was 0.79 which is acceptable (see table 4.1). No items were flagged as poor, and therefore all items were retained in the pool of items.

As shown in table 4.2, the Cronbach alpha of the Individualised Consideration subscale for subordinates was 0.80 which far exceeds the suggested cut-off value of 0.70 provided by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The item total correlations ranged between 0.50 and 0.72 (see table 4.4). The squared multiple correlation of item 17 (“Treats you as an individual rather than just a member of the group”) was the lowest with a value of 0.27, while the squared multiple correlations of the other items ranged between 0.36 and 0.61. However, given that there would not be a change in the Cronbach alpha if item 17 were to be deleted, and that there are only 4 items in this subscale, item 17 was retained in the item pool for utilisation in further analyses.

Table 4.3***Supervisors: Item statistics for Individualised Consideration Subscales***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 13	15.02	5.59	2.37	0.51	0.40	0.78
Item 17	14.35	5.99	2.45	0.54	0.44	0.76
Item 26	14.35	6.13	2.48	0.66	0.50	0.71
Item 28	14.71	5.56	2.36	0.70	0.52	0.68

Table 4.4***Subordinates: Item statistics for Individualised Consideration Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 13	13.09	12.42	3.52	0.64	0.57	0.73
Item 17	12.43	13.76	3.71	0.50	0.27	0.80
Item 26	13.27	12.28	3.50	0.59	0.36	0.76
Item 28	12.75	11.74	3.43	0.72	0.61	0.69

4.2.1.1.2 Idealised Influence

This subscale consists of eight items. The Cronbach alpha for the Idealised Influence subscale for the supervisors, as shown in table 4.1, was 0.83 which is good. The range of the item total correlation statistics (see table 4.5) was 0.44 – 0.69, and the range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.31 – 0.61. As presented in table 4.5, most of the item-total correlation statistics for the supervisors were high, with values above 0.50. According to the results, no item if deleted would incur an increase in the scale Cronbach alpha value. All the items were therefore retained in the item pool for further analysis.

The alpha coefficient of the Idealised Influence subscale for subordinates was 0.86 (see table 4.2) which greatly exceeds the guideline of ≥ 0.70 provided by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). The item-total correlations for the subordinates group were also mostly above 0.50, with only two items falling below this threshold with values of 0.31 and 0.42 (see table 4.6).

As shown in table 4.6, the item total correlation of item 23 (“Displays a sense of power and confidence”) was the lowest (0.31) and the only one below 0.4. The squared multiple correlation of this item was also the lowest on this subscale, with a value of 0.22, while the squared multiple correlations of the other items ranged between 0.26 and 0.72. However, given that that the deletion of this item will not cause a significant increase in the Cronbach alpha value (change = 0.01), it was decided to retain this item in the item pool.

Table 4.5***Supervisors: Item Statistics for Idealised Influence Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 12	31.18	25.49	5.05	0.69	0.61	0.79
Item 16	31.19	26.11	5.11	0.60	0.43	0.80
Item 19	31.01	26.62	5.16	0.65	0.59	0.80
Item 21	30.72	28.84	5.37	0.44	0.40	0.82
Item 23	31.92	26.00	5.10	0.48	0.33	0.82
Item 30	31.11	25.01	5.00	0.65	0.57	0.80
Item 5	31.88	26.76	5.17	0.46	0.34	0.82
Item 8	31.76	24.65	4.96	0.54	0.31	0.82

Table 4.6***Subordinates: Item Statistics for Idealised Influence Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 12	29.79	44.40	6.66	0.67	0.56	0.83
Item 16	29.97	43.30	6.58	0.71	0.57	0.83
Item 19	29.61	42.79	6.54	0.73	0.72	0.82
Item 21	29.74	45.84	6.77	0.59	0.51	0.84
Item 23	30.01	49.06	7.00	0.31	0.22	0.87
Item 30	29.85	43.31	6.58	0.77	0.66	0.82
Item 5	31.02	47.38	6.88	0.42	0.26	0.86
Item 8	29.89	43.16	6.57	0.65	0.58	0.83

4.2.1.1.3 Intellectual Stimulation

The alpha coefficient of the Intellectual Stimulation subscale for supervisors was 0.73, which is acceptable (see table 4.1). The range of the item total correlation statistics for all the items in the subscale was 0.43 – 0.56, which was acceptable; and the range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.24 – 0.39. These results are shown in table 4.7. Given that the deletion of no item would cause a significant increase in the Cronbach alpha value, all items were retained for the study.

The Cronbach alpha of the Intellectual Stimulation subscale for subordinates was 0.84 (see table 4.2). Applying the guideline of ≥ 0.70 provided by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), this Cronbach alpha value is very good. This subscale only has 4 items. Table 4.8 shows the item total correlations ranged between 0.61 and 0.74,

which are high values. Considering the results of the item analysis and descriptive statistics, no items were flagged as possible poor items.

Table 4.7***Supervisors: Item Statistics for Intellectual Stimulation Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 2	13.58	5.12	2.26	0.43	0.24	0.72
Item 27	13.20	4.69	2.16	0.54	0.39	0.65
Item 29	13.24	4.73	2.17	0.56	0.35	0.64
Item 6	13.40	5.19	2.28	0.54	0.32	0.66

Table 4.8***Subordinates: Item Statistics for Intellectual Stimulation Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 2	12.36	11.46	3.39	0.61	0.39	0.83
Item 27	12.19	10.05	3.17	0.72	0.57	0.78
Item 29	12.21	9.25	3.04	0.74	0.60	0.77
Item 6	12.38	11.29	3.36	0.64	0.42	0.81

4.2.1.1.4 *Inspirational Motivation*

This subscale consists of four items, and obtained very good Cronbach alpha values of 0.83 (supervisors) and 0.85 (subordinates). These results are reported in tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively.

The range of the item total correlation statistics for the supervisor analysis for the subscale was 0.62 – 0.71 (see table 4.9), and the range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.39 – 0.53. The alpha value would not have increased if any of the items were removed, therefore no items were considered for deletion.

As shown in table 4.10, the item total correlations of the four items for the subordinate analysis of this subscale ranged between 0.62 and 0.79, which is high.

The range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.44 – 0.63. As reflected by the results, no problematic items could be identified in this subscale.

Table 4.9

Supervisors: Item Statistics for Inspirational Motivation Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 11	13.99	5.49	2.34	0.69	0.50	0.77
Item 24	14.62	4.66	2.16	0.62	0.39	0.81
Item 32	13.70	5.76	2.40	0.65	0.43	0.79
Item 7	14.15	4.82	2.20	0.71	0.53	0.76

Table 4.10

Subordinates: Item Statistics for Inspirational Motivation Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 11	13.32	10.29	3.21	0.79	0.63	0.76
Item 24	13.71	10.12	3.18	0.68	0.49	0.81
Item 32	13.22	11.93	3.45	0.62	0.44	0.83
Item 7	13.67	10.63	3.26	0.66	0.45	0.81

4.2.1.2 Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Item analyses were conducted using STATISTICA (Statsoft Inc., 2012) on the four EI subscales (Relationship Management, Self-management, Self-awareness and Social Awareness) for the subordinate and supervisor groups separately.

4.2.1.2.1 Relationship Management

This subscale obtained very good Cronbach alpha values of 0.91 (supervisors) and 0.96 (subordinates) as indicated in tables 4.19 and 4.20. The subscale consists of 28 items. The reverse-scored items are indicated in tables 4.11 and 4.12.

For the supervisor analysis (table 4.11), the item total correlation statistic (0.19) of the reversed keyed item 5 (“You do not cooperate with others”) was the lowest of the 28 items of this subscale. The other item total correlations for the subscale ranged between 0.28 and 0.71. The squared multiple correlation for item 5 was 0.43, falling within the range of the correlations for the subscale: 0.42 – 0.72. The Cronbach

alpha for the Relationship Management subscale for supervisors would not have increased if item 5 were to be deleted; the item was therefore retained in the item pool.

From the subordinate analysis results (table 4.12) it was evident that the item total correlation (0.13) and squared multiple correlation (0.23) of item 1 (“Anticipates how others will respond when trying to convince them”) were the lowest of the 28 items in this subscale, and clearly out of sync with the rest of the items. The item total correlations for the rest of the items in the subscale ranged between 0.46 and 0.84. The squared multiple correlations of the other items ranged between 0.39 and 0.85. Item 1 was therefore flagged as a possible poor item. However, given the very good internal consistency results already retained, and due to the fact that the Cronbach alpha would not increase if this item were to be deleted, it was decided to retain the item in further analyses.

Table 4.11

Supervisors: Item statistics for Relationship Management Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	110.91	126.96	11.27	0.28	0.42	0.91
Item 2	110.38	124.75	11.17	0.55	0.59	0.91
Item 3	111.08	124.31	11.15	0.37	0.49	0.91
Item 5r	110.80	128.25	11.32	0.19	0.43	0.91
Item 6	110.66	121.42	11.02	0.63	0.72	0.90
Item 13	111.11	126.31	11.24	0.29	0.53	0.91
Item 16	110.54	124.62	11.16	0.56	0.61	0.91
Item 22	111.14	124.33	11.15	0.43	0.54	0.91
Item 30r	110.93	123.17	11.10	0.39	0.67	0.91
Item 31r	111.09	123.69	11.12	0.35	0.70	0.91
Item 33	110.44	123.87	11.13	0.53	0.72	0.91
Item 34	110.69	120.66	10.98	0.67	0.71	0.90
Item 36	110.60	124.69	11.17	0.47	0.63	0.91
Item 37	110.89	120.02	10.96	0.69	0.65	0.90
Item 38	110.40	124.85	11.17	0.52	0.62	0.91
Item 39	110.67	123.68	11.12	0.60	0.69	0.90
Item 46	111.02	122.61	11.07	0.52	0.62	0.91
Item 47	110.80	120.72	10.99	0.64	0.68	0.90
Item 51r	110.71	125.22	11.19	0.41	0.53	0.91
Item 54	110.99	125.85	11.22	0.39	0.46	0.91
Item 56	110.47	124.30	11.15	0.55	0.62	0.91
Item 57	110.89	121.72	11.03	0.52	0.66	0.91
Item 59	110.99	122.93	11.09	0.51	0.67	0.91
Item 61	110.34	125.97	11.22	0.45	0.68	0.91
Item 62	110.78	121.28	11.01	0.68	0.69	0.90

Item 63	110.64	122.26	11.06	0.62	0.66	0.90
Item 67	110.65	121.22	11.01	0.71	0.72	0.90
Item 68	110.96	121.99	11.04	0.53	0.70	0.91

Table 4.12

Subordinates: Item statistics for Relationship Management Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. if deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	109.29	346.18	18.61	0.13	0.23	0.96
Item 2	108.64	328.25	18.12	0.72	0.63	0.96
Item 3	109.08	326.84	18.08	0.65	0.61	0.96
Item 5r	109.05	331.58	18.21	0.46	0.39	0.96
Item 6	109.02	328.08	18.11	0.66	0.61	0.96
Item 13	109.04	333.79	18.27	0.49	0.47	0.96
Item 16	109.03	331.00	18.19	0.62	0.50	0.96
Item 22	109.36	329.40	18.15	0.56	0.39	0.96
Item 30r	109.21	327.92	18.11	0.55	0.56	0.96
Item 31r	109.12	331.28	18.20	0.46	0.48	0.96
Item 33	108.74	327.15	18.09	0.75	0.76	0.96
Item 34	109.01	320.61	17.91	0.82	0.76	0.96
Item 36	108.99	327.22	18.09	0.70	0.64	0.96
Item 37	109.26	319.18	17.87	0.82	0.78	0.96
Item 38	108.94	323.04	17.97	0.82	0.82	0.96
Item 39	108.91	325.13	18.03	0.77	0.76	0.96
Item 46	109.54	330.75	18.19	0.49	0.42	0.96
Item 47	109.10	319.88	17.89	0.83	0.81	0.96
Item 51r	108.92	327.54	18.10	0.66	0.58	0.96
Item 54	109.25	333.73	18.27	0.55	0.44	0.96
Item 56	108.89	322.08	17.95	0.79	0.73	0.96
Item 57	109.16	321.51	17.93	0.75	0.70	0.96
Item 59	109.46	331.69	18.21	0.52	0.43	0.96
Item 61	108.74	327.84	18.11	0.67	0.67	0.96
Item 62	109.01	320.57	17.90	0.84	0.81	0.96
Item 63	109.00	317.82	17.83	0.84	0.82	0.95
Item 67	109.04	318.55	17.85	0.84	0.85	0.95
Item 68	109.19	326.83	18.08	0.69	0.62	0.96

4.2.1.2.2 Self-awareness

The Cronbach alpha of the Self-awareness subscale for supervisors was 0.76 which is acceptable (table 4.20). The item total correlation (0.36) and squared multiple correlation (0.18) of item 58 (“You do not describe your own feelings”) were the lowest on this subscale (table 4.13). The item total correlations of the rest of the items ranged between 0.38 and 0.70; and the squared multiple correlations of the rest of the items ranged between 0.20 and 0.56. The results of the item analysis

showed that if item 58 were to be deleted, the Cronbach alpha of the subscale would not increase, the item was therefore not removed from the item pool.

The results revealed that the Cronbach alpha for the Self-awareness subscale for subordinates was 0.66, which was below the recommended 0.70 level (table 4.19). The results of the item analysis (table 4.14) revealed that if item 58 (“Does not describe own feelings”) were to be deleted, the alpha coefficient of the subscale would increase to 0.71. The item total correlation of item 58 was the lowest on this subscale with a value of 0.14. The item total correlations of the other items of the subscale ranged between 0.34 and 0.55. The squared multiple correlation of item 58 was also the lowest on this subscale with a value of 0.06 while the squared multiple correlations of the other items ranged between 0.20 and 0.37. Although these results suggested that item 58 should be deleted, further inspection of the PLS measurement model results (i.e. the outer model) revealed that this poor performing item did not adversely affect the composite reliability of the Self-awareness subscale (composite reliability of 0.81, see section 4.3.1). Given the fact that the adverse effect of this poor performing item was relatively insignificant in the further analyses, as well as the fact that if the item were to be deleted, it had to be deleted from the supervisor item pool as well (for which the evidence was not as strong), it was decided to retain the item in the pool for further analyses.

Table 4.13

Supervisors: Item statistics for Self-awareness Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 9	19.26	6.49	2.55	0.59	0.40	0.69
Item 17	19.18	6.40	2.53	0.70	0.56	0.66
Item 29	18.85	8.01	2.83	0.38	0.20	0.75
Item 42	18.94	8.01	2.83	0.44	0.22	0.74
Item 55	19.55	6.76	2.60	0.53	0.41	0.71
Item 58r	19.66	7.78	2.79	0.36	0.18	0.75

Table 4.14***Subordinates: Item statistics for Self-awareness Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. if deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 9	18.66	9.17	3.03	0.34	0.20	0.64
Item 17	18.57	8.44	2.91	0.55	0.37	0.56
Item 29	18.20	9.00	3.00	0.47	0.34	0.59
Item 42	18.20	9.72	3.12	0.39	0.32	0.62
Item 55	18.97	8.01	2.83	0.51	0.31	0.57
Item 58r	18.90	10.17	3.19	0.14	0.06	0.71

4.2.1.2.3 Self-management

The Cronbach alpha on the Self-management subscale for supervisors was 0.90 which is well above the suggested 0.70 value for acceptable reliability (table 4.20). The item total correlation statistic of the reverse keyed item 15 (“You do not try to improve”) was the lowest (0.26) of the 24 items of this subscale. However, the squared multiple correlation of item 15 (0.61) fell within the range of the squared multiple correlations of all the items: 0.42 – 0.76. The item-total correlation statistics for the supervisors ranged from 0.26 to 0.67 (see table 4.15). None of the items would have resulted in a higher alpha coefficient if deleted, therefore no possible poor performing items were identified in this subscale.

The alpha coefficient for the Self-management subscale for subordinates was 0.93, which indicated very good internal consistency (table 4.19). The item statistics for the subordinates are presented in table 4.16. The item total correlation values ranged between 0.17 – 0.68, and the squared multiple correlations ranged between 0.36 and 0.69. Given that the Cronbach alpha of the subscale would not increase if any item were to be deleted, all items were retained for further analyses.

Table 4.15

Supervisors: Item statistics for Self-management Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 4	94.05	86.23	9.29	0.53	0.49	0.90
Item 7r	94.64	86.58	9.31	0.57	0.56	0.89
Item 8	94.29	85.50	9.25	0.62	0.59	0.89
Item 10	94.27	86.81	9.32	0.58	0.57	0.89
Item 14	93.87	87.83	9.37	0.50	0.53	0.90
Item 15r	93.98	88.59	9.41	0.26	0.61	0.90
Item 18	94.01	87.75	9.37	0.47	0.58	0.90
Item 19	93.60	89.44	9.46	0.49	0.62	0.90
Item 21	93.91	89.40	9.46	0.38	0.46	0.90
Item 23	93.92	85.49	9.25	0.57	0.65	0.89
Item 24	94.08	87.98	9.38	0.49	0.42	0.90
Item 26	94.31	85.46	9.24	0.65	0.70	0.89
Item 32	94.07	85.45	9.24	0.67	0.61	0.89
Item 35	94.22	86.22	9.29	0.63	0.65	0.89
Item 40	94.29	87.31	9.34	0.52	0.67	0.90
Item 41	94.19	86.11	9.28	0.63	0.76	0.89
Item 43r	94.04	85.87	9.27	0.44	0.66	0.90
Item 44r	94.45	87.52	9.36	0.43	0.43	0.90
Item 45	94.16	87.83	9.38	0.41	0.46	0.90
Item 48	94.57	87.40	9.35	0.54	0.52	0.90
Item 53	94.31	87.60	9.36	0.43	0.47	0.90
Item 64r	94.55	87.56	9.36	0.47	0.42	0.90
Item 65	94.38	87.39	9.35	0.47	0.52	0.90
Item 66	93.72	90.08	9.48	0.43	0.46	0.90

Table 4.16

Subordinates: Item statistics for Self-management Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 4	95.85	147.17	12.13	0.52	0.49	0.92
Item 7r	95.96	148.83	12.20	0.47	0.45	0.93
Item 8	95.72	146.79	12.12	0.64	0.48	0.92
Item 10	95.79	147.18	12.13	0.59	0.68	0.92
Item 14	95.88	146.86	12.12	0.55	0.47	0.92
Item 15r	95.78	145.45	12.06	0.55	0.48	0.92
Item 18	95.74	144.80	12.03	0.64	0.59	0.92
Item 19	95.64	144.72	12.03	0.17	0.65	0.92
Item 21	95.74	145.47	12.06	0.68	0.69	0.92
Item 23	95.62	148.22	12.17	0.65	0.58	0.92
Item 24	95.87	145.42	12.06	0.66	0.59	0.92
Item 26	95.83	149.30	12.22	0.54	0.65	0.92
Item 32	95.89	147.07	12.13	0.60	0.53	0.92
Item 35	95.88	146.34	12.10	0.67	0.68	0.92
Item 40	95.86	148.99	12.21	0.54	0.60	0.92
Item 41	95.82	147.85	12.16	0.61	0.67	0.92

Item 43r	95.89	149.16	12.21	0.34	0.42	0.93
Item 44r	95.99	145.80	12.07	0.57	0.53	0.92
Item 45	95.77	148.07	12.17	0.52	0.45	0.92
Item 48	96.28	145.43	12.06	0.57	0.48	0.92
Item 53	95.80	147.23	12.13	0.58	0.51	0.92
Item 64r	95.96	152.27	12.34	0.31	0.36	0.93
Item 65	96.11	145.82	12.08	0.63	0.56	0.92
Item 66	95.73	147.01	12.12	0.59	0.54	0.92

4.2.1.2.4 *Social Awareness*

The Cronbach alpha of the Social Awareness subscale for supervisors was 0.81 (table 4.20), which is good (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The item total correlation statistic of item 49 (“Does not understand the subtle feelings of others”) was 0.37 while item total correlations of the other items ranged between 0.43 and 0.60 (table 4.17). The squared multiple correlation of item 49 was the lowest of the items in this subscale, with a value of 0.25, while the squared multiple correlations of the other 9 items ranged between 0.30 and 0.50. Given that the deletion of item 49 would not increase the Cronbach alpha value of the subscale, it was retained in the pool for further analyses.

The Cronbach alpha on the Social Awareness subscale for subordinates was 0.90 (table 4.19), which is well above Nunnally and Bernstein’s (1994) suggested cut-off value of 0.70. The item total correlation (0.43) and squared multiple correlation (0.23) statistic of the reversed keyed³ item 49 was the lowest of the subscale (table 4.18). The range of the item total correlation statistics for the subscale was 0.43 – 0.76, and the range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.23 – 0.62. If item 49 were to be deleted, the Cronbach alpha value would not have increased. Item 49 was therefore retained in the pool for further analysis.

³ It can be noted from all the item analysis results for the EI instrument that the items which underperformed were all reverse keyed items (item 5, 15, 58 and 49). This may suggest some method bias effect which may have resulted from respondent’s inability to easily interpret reverse phrased items. However, given the composite reliability results for the EI instrument (see table 4.27) subscales in the PLS results, it is clear that this effect did not adversely affect the quality of measurement of the EI construct.

Table 4.17

Supervisors: Item statistics for Social Awareness Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 11	37.16	14.98	3.87	0.48	0.41	0.80
Item 12	37.19	14.93	3.86	0.56	0.44	0.79
Item 20	37.05	15.60	3.95	0.43	0.30	0.80
Item 25	37.51	14.70	3.83	0.52	0.42	0.80
Item 27	37.45	13.96	3.74	0.54	0.42	0.79
Item 28	37.35	15.00	3.87	0.47	0.31	0.80
Item 49r	37.78	15.30	3.91	0.37	0.25	0.81
Item 50	37.60	15.70	3.96	0.45	0.30	0.80
Item 52	37.28	14.48	3.81	0.60	0.50	0.79
Item 60	37.51	14.25	3.77	0.56	0.47	0.79

Table 4.18

Subordinates: Item statistics for Social Awareness Subscale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 11	36.89	34.87	5.91	0.69	0.57	0.89
Item 12	36.81	36.76	6.06	0.54	0.52	0.90
Item 20	36.71	34.84	5.90	0.76	0.63	0.88
Item 25	37.32	33.60	5.80	0.71	0.61	0.89
Item 27	36.91	35.80	5.98	0.62	0.48	0.89
Item 28	36.96	34.31	5.86	0.72	0.60	0.88
Item 49r	37.40	36.72	6.06	0.43	0.23	0.90
Item 50	37.34	35.00	5.92	0.70	0.55	0.89
Item 52	37.01	35.14	5.93	0.67	0.53	0.89
Item 60	37.57	33.98	5.83	0.70	0.62	0.89

Table 4.19

The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for Emotional Intelligence (Subordinates)

EI subscale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Relationship Management	28	113.11	18.79	0.96
Self-management	24	100.02	12.68	0.93
Self-awareness	6	22.30	3.51	0.66
Social Awareness	10	41.21	6.57	0.90

Table 4.20

The means, standard deviation and reliability statistics for Emotional Intelligence (Supervisors)

EI subscale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Relationship Management	28	114.87	11.58	0.91
Self-management	24	98.26	9.78	0.90
Self-awareness	6	23.09	3.17	0.76
Social Awareness	10	41.54	4.27	0.81

Item analyses were also conducted with STATISTICA (Statsoft Inc., 2012) on the data of the following three questionnaires: Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction and Perceived Supervisor Support. Only the subordinates provided self-reported ratings of their own perceived levels of these three constructs.

4.2.1.3 Job Satisfaction (JS)

The results of the item analysis, as well as the descriptive statistics for this scale, are presented in tables 4.21 and 4.22. The Cronbach alpha of the Job satisfaction scale was 0.84. Applying the guideline of ≥ 0.70 provided by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), this Cronbach alpha value is good. Table 4.22 below presents the item-total correlations of the Job Satisfaction scale. All the values ranged between 0.50 and 0.77. Although the item total correlation as well as the squared multiple correlation of item 4 (“My work is challenging”) were the lowest of all the items in this scale, item 4 was not considered for deletion. This decision was based on the fact that the Cronbach alpha value would only increase by 0.01 if this item would be deleted. Furthermore, the relative brevity of the scale (only 5 items) swayed the decision towards not deleting this item from the item pool.

Table 4.21

The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for Job Satisfaction (Subordinates)

JS Scale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Job Satisfaction	5	16.62	2.49	0.84

Table 4.22***Item statistics for Job Satisfaction scale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	13.31	3.90	1.97	0.69	0.55	0.79
Item 2r	13.28	3.84	1.96	0.69	0.50	0.79
Item 3	13.29	4.65	2.16	0.58	0.39	0.82
Item 4	13.37	4.26	2.06	0.50	0.30	0.85
Item 5	13.23	3.83	1.96	0.77	0.61	0.77

4.2.1.4 Organisational Commitment (OC)

Allen and Meyer's (1990) OCQ was used to assess the subordinates' levels of Organisational Commitment. The Cronbach alpha of the Organisational Commitment scale was 0.85 which indicated satisfactory internal reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The range of the item total correlation statistics for the scale was between 0.20 and 0.61. The range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.11 – 0.57. The item total correlation as well as the squared multiple correlation of item 3 were the lowest; however the results revealed the deletion of this item would only increase the Cronbach alpha by 0.01. All the items in the scale were therefore retained for further analyses. The item statistics are presented in table 4.24.

Table 4.23***The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for OC (Subordinates)***

OC Scale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Organisational Commitment	16	45.48	7.07	0.85

Table 4.24***Item statistics for Organisational Commitment Subscale***

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	42.58	43.03	6.56	0.48	0.33	0.84
Item 2r	42.83	43.84	6.62	0.44	0.29	0.84
Item 3	42.92	46.61	6.83	0.20	0.11	0.86
Item 4	43.25	43.89	6.62	0.49	0.36	0.84

Item 5r	42.26	45.33	6.73	0.41	0.47	0.84
Item 6	42.96	43.00	6.56	0.48	0.45	0.84
Item 7r	42.48	43.14	6.57	0.58	0.49	0.84
Item 8	42.31	44.28	6.65	0.59	0.45	0.84
Item 9	42.37	43.93	6.63	0.61	0.48	0.84
Item 10	42.71	42.45	6.52	0.59	0.53	0.83
Item 11r	42.30	44.12	6.64	0.58	0.57	0.84
Item 12	42.49	44.01	6.63	0.54	0.43	0.84
Item 13	42.55	44.08	6.64	0.46	0.43	0.84
Item 14	42.69	45.44	6.74	0.37	0.22	0.85
Item 15r	43.06	44.28	6.65	0.49	0.29	0.84
Item 16r	42.48	45.18	6.72	0.35	0.30	0.85

4.2.1.5 Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)

The instrument used to measure the subordinates' Perceived Supervisor Support consisted of eight items. The results of the item analysis, as well as the descriptive statistics for this scale, are contained in tables 4.25 and 4.26.

Table 4.25

The mean, standard deviation and reliability statistic for PSS (Subordinates)

PSS Scale	Number of Items	M	SD	α
Perceived Supervisory Support	8	36.37	9.38	0.91

The alpha coefficient of the Perceived Supervisory Support scale was 0.91 which indicated very good internal consistency. The range of the item total correlation statistics for the scale was 0.62 - 0.79. The range of the squared multiple correlations was 0.41 – 0.70. Considering the results of the item analysis and descriptive statistics, none of the items were flagged as a poor. Table 4.26 reflects the item statistics of the Perceived Supervisor Support scale.

Table 4.26

Item statistics for Perceived Supervisor Support scale

Variable	Mean if deleted	Var. if deleted	St Dv. If deleted	Item Total correlation	Squared Multiple R	Alpha if deleted
Item 1	30.14	71.91	8.48	0.62	0.43	0.91
Item 2r	33.61	62.7	7.92	0.79	0.70	0.89
Item 3r	33.39	67.9	8.24	0.60	0.41	0.91
Item 4	30.27	68.67	8.29	0.75	0.63	0.90
Item 5r	33.25	66.03	8.13	0.77	0.68	0.90
Item 6	30.52	66.81	8.17	0.74	0.69	0.90
Item 7r	30.07	69.65	8.35	0.73	0.56	0.90
Item 8	30.34	68.48	8.28	0.77	0.68	0.90

4.3 PLS Results: Validating the Measurement (Outer) Model**4.3.1 Reliability Analysis**

Table 4.27 summarises the alpha coefficients, composite reliability and AVE results of the scales used in this study. These results show that most of the variables obtained acceptable Cronbach alphas, composite reliability and average variance extracted values. This indicates that they meet the quality criteria of a suitable measurement model. The three variables that did not meet the 0.50 AVE cut-off values were: Self-awareness; Self-management and Organisation Commitment. This indicates that most of the variance was as a result of measurement error and not the measured construct.

Table 4.27

Composite Reliability, Cronbach's Alpha, and AVE

Latent Variable	Manifest Variable	Composite Reliability	AVE
Transformational Leadership	Individualised Consideration (α for supervisors = 0.79) (α for subordinates = 0.80)	0.88	0.65
	Idealised Influence (α for supervisors = 0.83) (α for subordinates = 0.86)	0.91	0.57
	Inspirational Motivation (α for supervisors = 0.83) (α for subordinates = 0.85)	0.92	0.75

Emotional Intelligence	Intellectual Stimulation (α for supervisors = 0.73) (α for subordinates = 0.85)	0.79	0.51
	Relationship Management (α for supervisors = 0.91) (α for subordinates = 0.84)	0.97	0.53
	Self-awareness (α for supervisors = 0.76) (α for subordinates = 0.66)	0.81	0.42
	Self-management (α for supervisors = 0.90) (α for subordinates = 0.93)	0.94	0.40
	Social awareness (α for supervisors = 0.81) (α for subordinates = 0.90)	0.92	0.53
Job Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction (α = 0.84)	0.89	0.63
Organisational Commitment	Organisational Commitment (α = 0.85)	0.90	0.37
Perceived Supervisor Support	Perceived Supervisor Support (α = 0.91)	0.94	0.66

4.3.2 Discriminant Validity

The Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT) was calculated to examine discriminant validity. This approach evaluates the correlations of items within a scale and compares it with cross correlations of another scale. The within correlations should be higher than the cross correlations. According to Henseler, Ringle, and Sarstedt (2015, p.121), “HTMT approach is an estimate of the correlation between the constructs ξ_i and ξ_j , which parallels the disattenuated construct score correlation. Because the HTMT is an estimate of the correlation between the constructs ξ_i and ξ_j , its interpretation is straightforward: if the indicators of two constructs ξ_i and ξ_j exhibit an HTMT value that is clearly smaller than one, the true correlation between the two constructs is most likely different from one, and they should differ”. Table 4.28 shows the discriminant validity results.

Table 4.28

Discriminant Validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio)

	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Discriminate
Self-awareness -> Relationship Management	0.81	0.68	0.91	yes
Self-management-> Relationship Management	0.93	0.88	0.96	yes
Self-management-> Self-awareness	0.75	0.61	0.89	yes
Social Awareness -> Relationship Management	0.94	0.87	0.98	yes
Social Awareness -> Self-awareness	0.82	0.72	0.96	yes
Social Awareness -> Self-management	0.92	0.87	1.01	no
Job Satisfaction -> Relationship Management	0.12	0.14	0.36	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Self-awareness	0.22	0.20	0.46	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Self-management	0.18	0.20	0.41	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Social Awareness	0.15	0.16	0.39	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Relationship Management	0.37	0.31	0.58	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Self-awareness	0.39	0.34	0.62	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Self-management	0.38	0.36	0.59	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Social Awareness	0.30	0.29	0.52	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Job Satisfaction	0.51	0.38	0.71	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Relationship Management	0.74	0.54	0.86	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Self-awareness	0.61	0.41	0.80	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Self-management	0.73	0.56	0.85	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Social Awareness	0.73	0.51	0.86	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Job Satisfaction	0.16	0.14	0.42	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Organisational Commitment	0.39	0.31	0.60	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Relationship Management	0.86	0.75	0.95	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Self-awareness	0.67	0.47	0.84	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Self-management	0.75	0.60	0.87	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Social Awareness	0.79	0.65	0.90	yes

Individualised Consideration -> Job Satisfaction	0.13	0.12	0.37	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Organisational Commitment	0.36	0.27	0.58	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.77	0.61	0.89	yes
Idealised Influence -> Relationship Management	0.91	0.86	0.96	yes
Idealised Influence -> Self-awareness	0.70	0.53	0.85	yes
Idealised Influence -> Self-management	0.85	0.75	0.94	yes
Idealised Influence -> Social Awareness	0.79	0.68	0.89	yes
Idealised Influence -> Job Satisfaction	0.20	0.14	0.46	yes
Idealised Influence -> Organisational Commitment	0.47	0.37	0.65	yes
Idealised Influence -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.75	0.61	0.86	yes
Idealised Influence -> Individualised Consideration	0.99	0.94	1.06	no
Intellectual Stimulation -> Relationship Management	0.92	0.83	0.99	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Self-awareness	0.67	0.45	0.85	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Self-management	0.82	0.68	0.93	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Social Awareness	0.81	0.67	0.91	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Job Satisfaction	0.15	0.11	0.40	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Organisational Commitment	0.39	0.30	0.59	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.73	0.54	0.86	yes
Intellectual Stimulation -> Individualised Consideration	1.02	0.96	1.10	no
Intellectual Stimulation -> Idealised Influence	1.03	0.99	1.09	no
Inspirational Motivation -> Relationship Management	0.93	0.86	0.97	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Self-awareness	0.71	0.50	0.86	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Self-management	0.89	0.80	0.96	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Social Awareness	0.84	0.75	0.92	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Job Satisfaction	0.19	0.10	0.49	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Organisational Commitment	0.40	0.29	0.59	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.73	0.57	0.85	yes

Inspirational Motivation -> Individualised Consideration	0.91	0.83	0.99	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Idealised Influence	1.02	1.00	1.06	no
Inspirational Motivation -> Intellectual Stimulation	1.01	0.96	1.08	no

The results indicated that two subscales from the EI instrument, Social Awareness and Self-Management, did not attain discriminant validity. In addition, these were the same two subscales where the AVE was below the suggested value of 0.5. There are no noticeable conceptual similarities between Self-management (which includes emotional self-control and adaptability) and Social Awareness (which includes empathy and organisational awareness). This is in contrast to Leslie (2013), who reports that the ESCI has convergent, as well as discriminant validity.

The discriminant validity of the TFL subscales raised some concern. From the results it was clear that Idealised Influence and Individualised Consideration, as well as Inspirational Motivation and Idealised Influence were shown to not have obtained discriminant validity. Moreover, the results revealed a further rather concerning finding in that Intellectual Stimulation did not obtain discriminant validity with *any* of the other TFL variables (Individualised Consideration, Idealised Influence and Inspirational Motivation). However, various studies (e.g. Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995; Lowe et al., 1996; Vandenberghe, Stordeur & D'hoore, 2002), have reported that the subscales within the MLQ measure have shown a lack of discriminant validity, with very high correlations between the subscales that have been observed. Carless (1998) reported that there were high intercorrelations (i.e. an average correlation of .93) between the subscales. It would, therefore, seem that discriminant validity of the TFL subscales is a weakness of the TFL measure. For example, motivational behaviour underlies at least two of the subscales. Inspirational Motivation involves the leader encouraging followers to commit to the vision, and can lead to the follower willingly putting in extra effort. Idealised Influence involves the leader being a role model to followers and also has an element of motivational behaviour. There is therefore a conceptual overlap between these two variables which could explain the lack of discriminant validity between these two subscales.

4.3.3 Evaluating the outer loadings

PLS bootstrap analysis was used to determine whether item loadings of the outer model were significant or not. The factor loadings were evaluated by investigating whether zero falls within the 95% confidence interval. If zero does fall within the interval, the factor loadings would not be statistically significant; if zero does not fall within this interval, the factor loadings are significant. The results of the outer loadings for the TFL scale are presented in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29

PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: TFL

Subscale	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant	
IM	Item 11	0.93	0.93	0.89	0.96	yes	
	Item 24	0.84	0.84	0.76	0.90	yes	
	Item 32	0.80	0.80	0.68	0.88	yes	
	Item 7	0.88	0.88	0.81	0.93	yes	
II	Item 12	0.79	0.79	0.65	0.88	yes	
	Item 16	0.85	0.85	0.76	0.92	yes	
	Item 19	0.82	0.82	0.73	0.89	yes	
	Item 21	0.74	0.75	0.61	0.85	yes	
	Item 23	0.52	0.52	0.27	0.70	yes	
	Item 30	0.84	0.84	0.76	0.90	yes	
	Item 5	0.65	0.65	0.47	0.78	yes	
	Item 8	0.78	0.78	0.66	0.86	yes	
	IC	Item 13	0.84	0.84	0.74	0.90	yes
		Item 17	0.71	0.70	0.48	0.84	yes
Item 26		0.79	0.78	0.65	0.87	yes	
Item 28		0.88	0.89	0.85	0.92	yes	
IS	Item 2	0.23	0.49	-0.51	0.98	no	
	Item 27	0.84	0.67	-0.31	0.94	no	
	Item 29	0.77	0.64	-0.37	0.93	no	
	Item 6	0.84	0.68	-0.19	0.97	no	

From the results it was clear that all the items loaded significantly on their respective latent traits (with loadings ranging from 0.52 – 0.93) with the exception of the Intellectual Stimulation subscale. The loadings of *all four* Intellectual Stimulation items were not found to be statistically significant. Given the questionable discriminant validity results involving the Intellectual Stimulation TFL subscale, as

well as the results of the factor loadings for this scale, it was it was decided to remove the Intellectual Stimulation subscale from the model for further analyses⁴. The clear lack of reliability of this TFL measure would render the integrity of any parameters that would be derived for this construct in the model, as highly questionable. Therefore, hypothesis 13⁵ was not included in the final structural model that was tested. Table 4.30 shows the results of the outer loadings for TFL after the Intellectual Stimulation variable was removed. All the loadings were found to be significant. Furthermore, table 4.31 below reflects the discriminant validity results after the removal of the Intellectual Stimulation dimension of TFL.

Table 4.30

PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: TFL after the deletion of the IS subscale from the analysis

Subscale	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant	
IM	Item 11	0.93	0.93	0.9	0.96	yes	
	Item 24	0.84	0.84	0.75	0.9	yes	
	Item 32	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.87	yes	
	Item 7	0.88	0.88	0.81	0.93	yes	
II	Item 12	0.79	0.79	0.65	0.88	yes	
	Item 16	0.85	0.85	0.76	0.91	yes	
	Item 19	0.82	0.82	0.72	0.89	yes	
	Item 21	0.74	0.74	0.61	0.85	yes	
	Item 23	0.52	0.52	0.27	0.7	yes	
	Item 30	0.84	0.84	0.76	0.9	yes	
	Item 5	0.65	0.65	0.45	0.79	yes	
	Item 8	0.78	0.78	0.67	0.86	yes	
	IC	Item 13	0.84	0.84	0.74	0.9	yes
		Item 17	0.71	0.69	0.48	0.83	yes
Item 26		0.79	0.78	0.64	0.88	yes	
Item 28		0.88	0.89	0.84	0.92	yes	

⁴ The composite reliability and discriminant validity analysis were repeated after the TFL's Intellectual Stimulation subscale was removed. The results did not change for any of the other subscales in terms of the composite reliability and discriminant validity.

⁵ This was the only hypothesis that related to this construct (i.e. Intellectual Stimulation).

Table 4.31

Discriminant Validity (Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio) after the deletion of the IS subscale from the analysis

	Original Sample (O)	2.50%	97.50%	Discriminate
Self-awareness -> Relationship Management	0.807	0.691	0.906	yes
Self-management-> Relationship Management	0.925	0.889	0.955	yes
Self-management-> Self-awareness	0.746	0.628	0.886	yes
Social Awareness -> Relationship Management	0.940	0.888	0.975	yes
Social Awareness -> Self-awareness	0.820	0.734	0.954	yes
Social Awareness -> Self-management	0.922	0.873	1.009	no
Job Satisfaction -> Relationship Management	0.119	0.143	0.369	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Self-awareness	0.215	0.208	0.453	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Self-management	0.176	0.193	0.426	yes
Job Satisfaction -> Social Awareness	0.153	0.151	0.415	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Relationship Management	0.367	0.308	0.582	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Self-awareness	0.392	0.353	0.621	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Self-management	0.382	0.359	0.591	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Social Awareness	0.296	0.283	0.526	yes
Organisational Commitment -> Job Satisfaction	0.509	0.380	0.697	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Relationship Management	0.737	0.551	0.856	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Self-awareness	0.614	0.399	0.791	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Self-management	0.728	0.569	0.839	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Social Awareness	0.726	0.526	0.861	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Job Satisfaction	0.162	0.136	0.424	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Organisational Commitment	0.389	0.301	0.590	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Relationship Management	0.859	0.762	0.941	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Self-awareness	0.674	0.469	0.834	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Self-management	0.749	0.602	0.869	yes

Individualised Consideration -> Social Awareness	0.790	0.671	0.901	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Job Satisfaction	0.127	0.123	0.365	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Organisational Commitment	0.355	0.272	0.587	yes
Individualised Consideration -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.770	0.615	0.879	yes
Idealised Influence -> Relationship Management	0.914	0.859	0.961	yes
Idealised Influence -> Self-awareness	0.695	0.534	0.844	yes
Idealised Influence -> Self-management	0.854	0.766	0.934	yes
Idealised Influence -> Social Awareness	0.788	0.698	0.885	yes
Idealised Influence -> Job Satisfaction	0.196	0.140	0.449	yes
Idealised Influence -> Organisational Commitment	0.468	0.376	0.646	yes
Idealised Influence -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.745	0.599	0.849	yes
Idealised Influence -> Individualised Consideration	0.991	0.937	1.052	no
Inspirational Motivation -> Relationship Management	0.925	0.868	0.969	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Self-awareness	0.705	0.508	0.849	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Self-management	0.892	0.806	0.961	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Social Awareness	0.844	0.756	0.912	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Job Satisfaction	0.186	0.099	0.479	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Organisational Commitment	0.400	0.297	0.583	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.733	0.581	0.848	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Individualised Consideration	0.907	0.826	0.997	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Idealised Influence	1.024	1.000	1.056	no

The results of the outer loadings for the EI measure are presented in table 4.32. Only reverse scored item 58's loading was not significant. Although item 58 was flagged as poor item in the subordinate data, it did not pose a problem in the supervisor data, and was therefore retained in the pool for further analyses. The rest of the items' loadings were significant. The outer loadings of the scale ranged between 0.30 and 0.91 with Item 1 obtaining the lowest significant loading (0.30). Forty-one percent of

the loadings were between 0.50 and 0.69; and 50% of the loadings were 0.70 and higher.

Table 4.32

PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: EI

Subscale	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant
Relationship Management	Item 1	0.30	0.30	0.11	0.47	yes
	Item 13	0.61	0.61	0.47	0.73	yes
	Item 16	0.71	0.71	0.52	0.84	yes
	Item 2	0.73	0.72	0.53	0.85	yes
	Item 22	0.71	0.70	0.55	0.82	yes
	Item 3	0.66	0.64	0.45	0.81	yes
	Item 30r	0.59	0.58	0.40	0.74	yes
	Item 31r	0.43	0.43	0.22	0.62	yes
	Item 33	0.79	0.78	0.62	0.88	yes
	Item 34	0.84	0.84	0.74	0.90	yes
	Item 36	0.76	0.76	0.63	0.86	yes
	Item 37	0.88	0.87	0.81	0.92	yes
	Item 38	0.80	0.80	0.68	0.88	yes
	Item 39	0.82	0.81	0.70	0.89	yes
	Item 46	0.65	0.64	0.47	0.78	yes
	Item 47	0.88	0.88	0.82	0.92	yes
	Item 51r	0.69	0.67	0.46	0.81	yes
	Item 54	0.60	0.59	0.35	0.76	yes
	Item 56	0.84	0.83	0.72	0.91	yes
	Item 57	0.73	0.73	0.59	0.83	yes
Item 59	0.58	0.58	0.40	0.72	yes	
Item 5r	0.48	0.47	0.24	0.67	yes	
Item 6	0.79	0.78	0.66	0.87	yes	
Item 61	0.69	0.69	0.53	0.81	yes	
Item 62	0.91	0.91	0.86	0.95	yes	
Item 63	0.87	0.88	0.82	0.92	yes	
Item 67	0.88	0.87	0.79	0.92	yes	
Item 68	0.74	0.75	0.65	0.82	yes	
Self-management	Item 10	0.70	0.69	0.48	0.83	yes
	Item 14	0.53	0.53	0.39	0.65	yes
	Item 15r	0.56	0.55	0.32	0.73	yes
	Item 18	0.49	0.49	0.21	0.74	yes
	Item 19	0.69	0.69	0.46	0.84	yes

	Item 21	0.69	0.68	0.48	0.83	yes
	Item 23	0.71	0.70	0.53	0.83	yes
	Item 24	0.72	0.72	0.59	0.84	yes
	Item 26	0.71	0.70	0.51	0.83	yes
	Item 32	0.63	0.62	0.29	0.85	yes
	Item 35	0.76	0.76	0.63	0.86	yes
	Item 4	0.74	0.74	0.63	0.83	yes
	Item 40	0.68	0.68	0.50	0.81	yes
	Item 41	0.69	0.69	0.50	0.82	yes
	Item 43r	0.40	0.39	0.14	0.62	yes
	Item 44r	0.59	0.58	0.39	0.72	yes
	Item 45	0.52	0.52	0.35	0.67	yes
	Item 48	0.64	0.64	0.47	0.78	yes
	Item 53	0.67	0.67	0.52	0.79	yes
	Item 64r	0.44	0.42	0.14	0.66	yes
	Item 65	0.55	0.56	0.27	0.75	yes
	Item 66	0.53	0.52	0.23	0.74	yes
	Item 7r	0.59	0.59	0.40	0.75	yes
	Item 8	0.75	0.75	0.64	0.83	yes
Social wareness	Item 11	0.77	0.76	0.57	0.88	yes
	Item 12	0.72	0.69	0.44	0.86	yes
	Item 20	0.75	0.74	0.54	0.86	yes
	Item 25	0.69	0.69	0.50	0.81	yes
	Item 27	0.58	0.54	0.16	0.78	yes
	Item 28	0.81	0.80	0.66	0.89	yes
	Item 49r	0.64	0.62	0.30	0.80	yes
	Item 50	0.74	0.74	0.63	0.82	yes
	Item 52	0.77	0.75	0.63	0.86	yes
	Item 60	0.79	0.79	0.68	0.86	yes
Self-awareness	Item 17	0.81	0.80	0.67	0.89	yes
	Item 29	0.50	0.50	0.12	0.75	yes
	Item 42	0.67	0.68	0.48	0.81	yes
	Item 55	0.75	0.74	0.56	0.86	yes
	Item 58r	0.42	0.40	-0.01	0.68	no
	Item 9	0.66	0.64	0.44	0.79	yes

The results of the outer loadings of Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support are presented in tables 4.33, 4.34 and 4.35 respectively. The only item loading that was not significant was Organisational

Commitment item 3 (“I really feel as if my current employer's/workplace's problems are my own”). The loadings for Job Satisfaction ranged between 0.58 and 0.89, with 80% of the items obtaining loadings above 0.80. The loadings for Organisational Commitment ranged between 0.30 and 0.74, with 50% of the items obtaining loadings above 0.60. The loadings for Perceived Supervisor Support ranged between 0.66 and 0.90, with 62.5% of the items reflecting loadings above 0.80.

Table 4.33

PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Job Satisfaction (JS)

	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant
JS	Item 1	0.84	0.83	0.70	0.91	yes
	Item 2r	0.80	0.79	0.69	0.88	yes
	Item 3	0.81	0.81	0.68	0.89	yes
	Item 5	0.58	0.58	0.26	0.78	yes
	Item 6	0.89	0.88	0.80	0.94	yes

Table 4.34

PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Organisational Commitment (OC)

	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant
OC	Item 1	0.55	0.55	0.34	0.71	yes
	Item 10	0.70	0.69	0.53	0.8	yes
	Item 11r	0.74	0.72	0.53	0.84	yes
	Item 12	0.68	0.67	0.5	0.79	yes
	Item 13	0.62	0.62	0.44	0.74	yes
	Item 14	0.56	0.56	0.38	0.70	yes
	Item 15r	0.60	0.59	0.33	0.76	yes
	Item 16r	0.49	0.49	0.28	0.66	yes
	Item 2r	0.52	0.51	0.23	0.70	yes
	Item 3	0.30	0.29	-0.01	0.54	no
	Item 4	0.57	0.56	0.30	0.74	yes
	Item 5r	0.54	0.53	0.28	0.69	yes
	Item 6	0.56	0.55	0.31	0.72	yes
	Item 7r	0.70	0.68	0.47	0.81	yes
	Item 8	0.72	0.72	0.59	0.82	yes
	Item 9	0.71	0.70	0.56	0.80	yes

Table 4.35***PLS-SEM Outer Loadings: Perceived Supervisor Support (PSS)***

	Item	Outer loadings	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant
PSS	Item 1	0.75	0.73	0.50	0.88	yes
	Item 2r	0.85	0.86	0.77	0.92	yes
	Item 3r	0.66	0.66	0.44	0.81	yes
	Item 4	0.89	0.88	0.79	0.95	yes
	Item 5r	0.81	0.81	0.70	0.91	yes
	Item 6	0.86	0.85	0.74	0.92	yes
	Item 7r	0.76	0.77	0.52	0.92	yes
	Item 8	0.90	0.90	0.82	0.95	yes

4.4 PLS Results: Validating the Structural (Inner) Model

Table 4.36 presents the R^2 values of the endogenous variables in the model. The R^2 values ranged between 0.19 and 0.85. The lowest value was that of Organisational Commitment (0.19), which indicates that the whole model accounted for only 19% of the reported variance in Organisational Commitment. For the other two outcomes of effective leadership, Job Satisfaction and Perceived Supervisor Support, the former also obtained a weak R^2 value (0.26), whilst the amount of variance explained for the latter was moderate (0.51). The highest R^2 value was that of Relationship Management (0.85) indicating that the total model explains about 85% of the variance reported in the EI subscale Relationship Management.

Structural models are assessed by the R^2 values (in table 4.36) and the path coefficients (presented in table 4.37). Twenty paths were hypothesised in the study, however, given the discriminant validity and outer loadings results discussed in sections 4.3.2 and 4.3.3, it was decided to remove Intellectual Stimulation from the analyses. The hypothesised path from Intellectual Stimulation to Job Satisfaction was therefore not included in the model, resulting in only 19 of the hypothesised paths being tested. As shown in table 4.37, only 9 of the 19 hypothesised paths were found to be statistically significant. Significant paths are indicated in red in figure 4.1.

Table 4.36

R square values for the PLS Path model

Variable	R square
Relationship Management	0.85
Self-management	0.42
Social awareness	0.49
Job Satisfaction	0.26
Organisational Commitment	0.19
Perceived Supervisor Support	0.51
Individualised Consideration	0.47
Idealised Influence	0.75
Inspirational Motivation	0.69

Table 4.37

Path Coefficients

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	2.50%	97.50%	Significant
Relationship Management -> Idealised Influence	0.69	0.71	0.46	0.97	yes
Self-awareness -> Self-management	0.65	0.67	0.54	0.78	yes
Self-awareness -> Social Awareness	0.7	0.73	0.64	0.82	yes
Self-management -> Relationship Management	0.52	0.54	0.38	0.72	yes
Self-management -> Idealised Influence	0.19	0.18	-0.12	0.44	no
Self-management -> Inspirational Motivation	0.66	0.66	0.37	0.86	yes
Social Awareness -> Relationship Management	0.44	0.42	0.21	0.58	yes
Social Awareness -> Individualised Consideration	0.69	0.69	0.55	0.79	yes
Social Awareness -> Inspirational Motivation	0.19	0.19	-0.03	0.45	no
Organisational Commitment -> Job Satisfaction	0.5	0.53	0.28	0.71	yes
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Job Satisfaction	-0.06	-0.07	-0.46	0.26	no
Perceived Supervisor Support -> Organisational Commitment	0.18	0.2	-0.12	0.51	no
Individualised Consideration -> Job Satisfaction	-0.23	-0.23	-0.65	0.16	no
Individualised Consideration -> Organisational Commitment	-0.29	-0.29	-0.76	0.25	no
Individualised Consideration -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.25	0.24	-0.05	0.53	no

Idealised Influence -> Job Satisfaction	0.16	0.17	-0.34	0.71	no
Idealised Influence -> Organisational Commitment	0.55	0.55	-0.22	1.21	no
Idealised Influence -> Perceived Supervisor Support	0.48	0.5	0.2	0.77	yes
Inspirational Motivation -> Organisational Commitment	-0.03	-0.04	-0.54	0.49	no

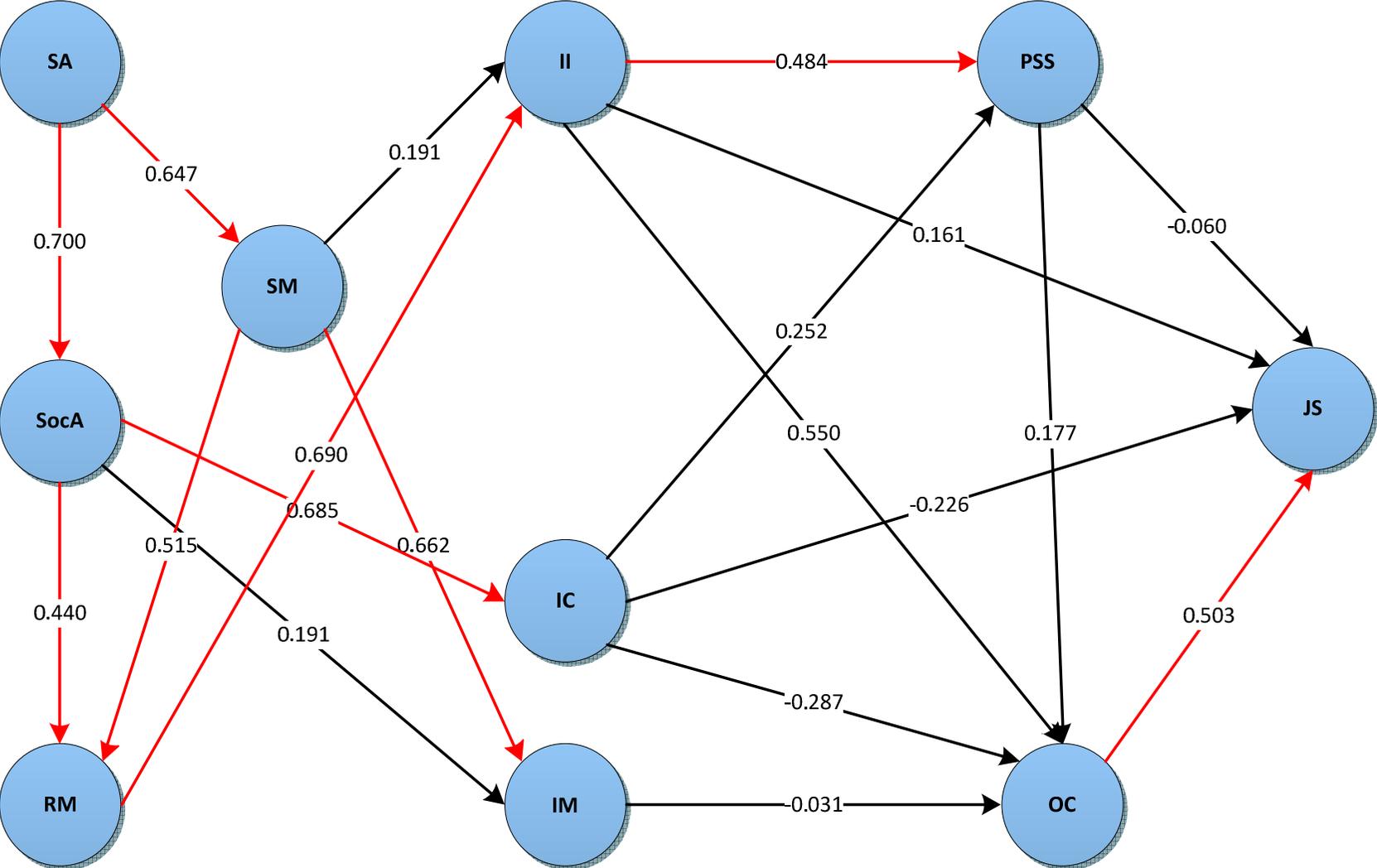


Figure 4.1. PLS results for the Structural Model

4.5 Interpreting the proposed hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: Self-awareness positively influences Self-management

Hypothesis 2: Self-awareness positively influences Social Awareness

Both hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 2 were supported by the results. Statistically significant path coefficients of 0.65 (hypothesis 1) and 0.70 (hypothesis 2) emerged. These significant relationships imply that the more individuals are knowledgeable about their feelings and are able to recognise their own emotions, the better they will be able to appropriately manage their emotions. They will also be aware of the emotions of other individuals and display empathy. These paths support literature that state Self-awareness is the cornerstone of EI (e.g. Goleman, 1995; Nourollahi, Nikbakhsk & Esmaeili, 2011) and facilitates the other three EI skills.

Chapter 2 discussed the conceptual overlaps between the EI dimensions (Self-awareness; Self-management; Social Awareness and Relationship Management) used in this study, and the EI dimensions used by Beyers (2006). The Self-regulation and Self-motivation dimensions of EI, utilised in the Beyers' study has a conceptual overlap with the Self-management dimension used in this study. In the Beyer's study significant positive relationships between Self-awareness and Self-regulation, as well as between Self-awareness and Self-motivation, was reported. Moreover, Self-awareness predicted Self-regulation and Self-motivation in the structural model. To this end, the support for hypothesis 1 reported here, replicates Beyers' finding of the effect of Self-awareness on Self-management. In addition, the Empathy dimension used in the Beyers study has a conceptual overlap with the Social Awareness dimension used in the present study. Beyers reported a significant positive relationship between Self-awareness and Empathy, and a significant positive path was found in the model (i.e. Self-awareness influenced Empathy in the structural model). Therefore, the support for hypothesis 2 in this study corroborates the result found by Beyers, highlighting the important role of Self-awareness in Social Awareness (i.e. expressing empathy).

Hypothesis 3: Self-management positively influences Relationship Management

Hypothesis 4: Self-management positively influences Idealised Influence

Hypothesis 5: Self-management positively influences Inspirational Motivation

Hypotheses 3 and 5 were corroborated by the results. Statistically significant path coefficients of 0.52 (hypothesis 3) and 0.66 (hypothesis 5) were obtained for the respective paths. This means that the better individuals are able to manage and control their own emotions, the better they will be able to relate to others and positively affect the emotions and/or responses of others. It further indicates that those who manage and control their own emotions well will be able to motivate and encourage others, inspiring them to perform beyond expectations.

The Self-regulation dimension in the Beyers (2006) study has a conceptual overlap with the Self-management dimension used in the present study; and the Social Skills dimension used in the Beyers (2006) study has a conceptual overlap with the Relationship Management dimension in the present study. Beyers (2006) reported a significant positive path between Self-regulation and Social Skills. The significant path found between the EI dimensions Self-management and Relationship Management (hypothesis 3) in the present study is therefore consistent with Beyers' (2006) findings.

In addition, the Beyers' (2006) Self-motivation EI dimension has a conceptual overlap with the Self-management dimension used in this study. Beyers (2006) reported a significant positive path between Self-motivation and the Inspirational Motivation dimension of TFL in her structural model. The significant path found between the EI dimension Self-management and TFL's Inspirational Motivation dimension in this study (hypothesis 5) is therefore consistent with the findings of Beyers (2006). The finding also supports the relationship between the ability to monitor/manage emotions and TFL's Inspirational Motivation reported by Palmer et al. (2001). Self-Management involves "managing one's internal states, impulses and resources" (Boyatzis, 2009); and also includes achievement orientation. Linked to this element of achievement orientation, TFL's Inspirational Motivation involves the leader encouraging followers to commit to a "vision of the future, providing meaning" to the work (Cho & Dansereau, 2010, p.411). This therefore demonstrates the association between the Self-Management EI dimension and TFL's Inspirational Motivation.

Hypothesis 4, however, was not supported by the results as the path coefficient (0.19) obtained was not statistically significant. This implies that the fact that a leader can manage and control his/her emotions well (Self-management), probably does not have a significant effect on whether he/she will be perceived to be a role model to followers (Idealised Influence). This is in contrast to research by Modassir and Singh (2008) whom have argued that leaders who are self-controlled, and can manage their own emotions, serve as role models to subordinates (which are characteristic of Idealised Influence). This finding is also in contrast to Barling et al.'s (2000) argument that leaders who understand and manage their own emotions, and who exhibit self-control, may be perceived as a role model by his/her followers. The Self-regulation and Self-motivation dimensions of EI used by Beyers (2006) have a conceptual overlap with the Self-management dimension of this study. Beyers (2006) did not hypothesise any relationships between Self-motivation or Self-regulation with the TFL dimension of Idealised Influence in her original structural model.

Hypothesis 6: Social Awareness positively influences Relationship Management

Hypothesis 7: Social Awareness positively influences Individualised Consideration

Hypothesis 8: Social Awareness positively influences Inspirational Motivation

Hypotheses 6 and 7 were both supported as statistically significant path coefficients of 0.44 (hypothesis 6) and 0.69 (hypothesis 7) were evident from the results. These findings imply that individuals who relate well to others by being able to recognise others' emotions and react appropriately (Social Awareness), will have the skill of positively affecting others' emotions and/or actions (i.e. Relationship Management; hypothesis 6). Such individuals will also more likely display Individualised Consideration behaviours of TFL through treating followers/subordinates as significant individuals and giving each one personal attention (hypothesis 7). Social Awareness has to do with the way in which individuals deal with, and manage relationships. This links to leaders treating subordinates as significant contributors in the workplace (Sarros & Santora, 2001), which is a characteristic of TFL's Individualised Consideration. Social Awareness furthermore involves being aware of the opinions, feelings and desires of others (Boyatzis, 2009), and this can be

associated with leaders giving personal, individual attention to followers (which is encompassed in Individualised Consideration) (Hoffman & Frost, 2006).

Empathy, in the Beyers (2006) research has a conceptual overlap with the Social Awareness dimension of EI used in the present study. Furthermore, the Social Skills dimension of EI used by Beyers (2006) has a conceptual overlap with the Relationship Management dimension of EI used in the present study. Beyers (2006) reported a significant positive path between Empathy and Social Skills, as well as between Empathy and the TFL dimension of Individualised Consideration in her final structural model results. These results were replicated in the current study, as significant paths were found between the variables listed in hypotheses 6 and 7 of the present study. This replication emphasises the important role of the EI skill of Social Awareness (which includes empathy, organisational awareness and service orientation) in the establishment of healthy and productive interpersonal relationships, as well as in the TFL behaviours of Individualised Consideration.

However, the results revealed no support for hypothesis 8. This suggests that individuals who are able to relate well to others by being able to recognise others' emotions and react appropriately will not necessarily provide the motivation or inspiration required to make followers perform beyond expectations. This is in contrast to an argument put forth by Naznin (2013) who stated that leaders who have Social Skills can build strong relationships with subordinates and also inspire them to work toward a common vision and mission. Beyers (2006), however, did not hypothesise a relationship between Empathy and Inspirational Motivation. This finding is also in contrast to Barling et al.'s (2000) report that leaders with high EI, through understanding the emotions of others, would realise the extent to which subordinates expectations could be lifted, which is "a hallmark of inspirational motivation" (p. 157).

Hypothesis 9: Relationship Management positively influences Idealised Influence

This hypothesis was corroborated by the results. A statistically significant path coefficient of 0.69 emerged indicating a strong association between these variables. The Social Skills dimension of EI used by Beyers (2006) has a conceptual overlap

with the Relationship Management dimension used in this study. Beyers (2006) reported a significant positive path between Social Skills and Idealised Influence, which is consistent with the significant path coefficient of hypothesis 9 in the current study. This implies that leaders who can positively affect the emotions and actions of others would be able to be a role model to subordinates. This is done, for example, by the leader displaying confidence in the abilities of subordinates.

Hypothesis 10: Idealised Influence positively influences Perceived Supervisor Support

Hypothesis 11: Idealised Influence positively influences Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 12: Idealised Influence positively influences Organisational Commitment

The results revealed support for hypothesis 10 (significant path coefficient of 0.48). This can be interpreted to suggest that leaders who are role models to their subordinates, and are perceived as such by their subordinates, will cause the subordinates to perceive that there is a good quality relationship between themselves and their supervisor. The perception of such a relationship is influenced by how the supervisor values the subordinate's work and whether or not the supervisor cares about the subordinate's well-being (indicative of Positive Perceived Supervisor Support).

However, no support emerged for hypotheses 11 and 12 (see table 4.37). These findings suggest that although supervisors that display Idealised Influence TFL behaviours (for example: giving personal attention to followers and treating each follower as valuable) and therefore may be role models to their subordinates, this will not necessarily lead to the subordinates reporting high levels of Job Satisfaction or commitment to the organisation.

Hypothesis 14⁶: Individualised Consideration positively influences Perceived Supervisor Support

Hypothesis 15: Individualised Consideration positively influences Job Satisfaction

Hypothesis 16: Individualised Consideration positively influences Organisational Commitment

No evidence in support of hypotheses 14, 15 and 16, pertaining to the effect of the TFL dimension of Individualised Consideration on the three outcomes of effective leadership, emerged (insignificant path coefficients of 0.25, -0.23 and -0.29 respectively). Individualised Consideration includes the leader paying attention to the individual needs of followers; treating each follower as significant and valuable; and encouraging individual development. The findings therefore indicate that even though a supervisor displays these behaviours, this will not necessarily cause higher levels in the Job Satisfaction experienced by the subordinates. Furthermore, the results suggest this will also not directly influence the subordinates' level of commitment to the organisation nor the subordinates' perception of a positive, supportive relationship with their supervisor.

Hypothesis 17: Inspirational Motivation positively influences Organisational Commitment

The results revealed no support for this hypothesis (table 4.37). This implies that a supervisor's ability to inspire and encourage subordinates to perform beyond expectations will not necessarily affect how committed the subordinate is to the organization.

Hypothesis 18: Perceived Supervisors Support positively influences Job satisfaction

⁶ Hypothesis 13 was not tested due to the insignificant factor loadings of all the items for the Intellectual Stimulation component of the TFL that emerged in the results for the PLS outer model. It was, therefore, decided to remove this construct (Intellectual Stimulation) from the analysis, as any PLS structural model results would be deemed unreliable.

Hypothesis 19: Organisational commitment positively influences Job satisfaction

Hypothesis 20: Perceived Supervisor Support positively influences Organisational Commitment

Only one of the paths between the outcomes of effective leadership was found to be significant. With a path coefficient of 0.50, hypothesis 19 was supported by the results. This result implies that subordinates that display higher levels of commitment to the organisation will also display higher levels of job satisfaction. This is consistent with research by Pool and Pool (2007) who reported that Organisational Commitment is a predictor of Job Satisfaction.

Hypotheses 18 and 20 were not supported by the results (path coefficients of -0.06 and 0.18 respectively). This suggests that although a subordinate perceives the quality of the relationship with the supervisor as good, it will not necessarily cause the subordinate to report a higher level of Job Satisfaction (hypothesis 18), nor will it affect the subordinates' level of commitment to the organisation (hypothesis 20).

4.6 Summary

This chapter reported on the data analyses that were conducted in the study. The steps taken regarding the validation of the measurement instruments and measurement model were discussed, as well as the results attained for the structural model so as to test the proposed hypotheses. In the next chapter, the research results will be discussed and interpreted. The final chapter also includes practical implications, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter discusses and interprets the research results as presented in chapter 4. Practical implications, the limitations of the study, as well as recommendations for future research are presented.

5.2 Emotional Intelligence

Various researchers have studied and reported on the significance of EI for individual success (Goleman, 1995), as well as organisational effectiveness. For example, EI skills help individuals manage stress more effectively (Görgens-Ekermans & Brand, 2012), perform better at work (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004) and foster good relationships (Nourollahi, Nikbakhs & Esmaili, 2011), which in turn feed into organisational effectiveness.

Key research in EI over the years has suggested that the construct is hierarchical in nature. For example, in one of the foundational publications regarding the Mayer and Salovey EI model, it is stated that the EI abilities are positioned from the “basic psychological process to higher, more psychologically integrated processes” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.10). Others (e.g. Gardner & Stough 2002) support this viewpoint. Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) EI model consists of four dimensions that involve perceiving, using, understanding and managing emotions. Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) explain that as the skills develop in one basic dimension (for example, perceiving emotions), so the skills will develop in the other more psychologically integrated dimensions (for example, understanding and managing emotions).

The EI model utilised in this research, the ESCI (Boyatzis, 2007), includes the sub-dimensions of Self-awareness; Self-management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management. The ESCI therefore does not only include basic processes of emotional recognition and management skills (as encompassed in Self-awareness and Self-management), but also the more psychologically integrated dimensions such as social skills (which falls within the Social Awareness and

Relationship Management dimensions). According to Schutte, Malouff and Thorsteinsson (2013) social skills as a component of EI, build on the more basic EI skills. Self-awareness and Self-management are the more basic processes given that these dimensions involve basic knowledge and skills related to identifying and managing one's own emotions. This is in contrast to the Social Awareness and Relationship Management dimensions, which are the more integrated processes, as it involves reading the environment and others' emotional cues. Then, based on this, it further involves deciding how to react to the situation in such a way that it contributes to creating and maintaining functional relationships.

The current research provided evidence for the notion of the hierarchical nature of EI (i.e. basic processes seem to drive high order processes). For example, from the results it was observed that the R-square value for Relationship Management (0.85) was the highest of the four EI dimensions. This indicates that the other three EI dimensions (Self-awareness, Self-management and Social Awareness) account for a substantial amount of variance in Relationship Management. Therefore, if Self-awareness, Self-management and/or Social Awareness are increased, this should ultimately also lead to the improvement in Relationship Management skills. Furthermore, the results of this study also revealed that Self-awareness affects Social Awareness, which in turn affects Relationship management. Therefore it could be argued that if Self-awareness is increased, it will lead to enhanced Relationship Management through increased Social Awareness. Similarly, the results of this study indicated that Self-awareness affects Self-management, which in turn affects Relationship management. Therefore if Self-awareness is increased, it will lead to enhanced Relationship Management through increased Self-management. The Relationship Management dimension, being more of an integrated process, is therefore indirectly affected in two ways by the more basic process of Self-awareness. Social Awareness and Self-management are mediators in the association between Self-awareness and Relationship Management. For example, the more individuals display the basic emotional skills of being aware of their own emotions (Self-awareness) and are able to manage this and their emotional actions and behaviours (Self-management), the more effective they should be in manifesting the integrated process of Relationship Management which involves positively affecting the emotions of others. Similarly, the more individuals are knowledgeable of

their own feelings (Self-awareness), the better they will be able to display empathy and be aware of others' emotions, which is characteristic of Social Awareness (an integrated EI process). This will lead to them having better Relationship Management skills which include conflict management and influencing others.

The present study replicated Beyers' (2006) outcome regarding the hierarchical nature of the EI dimensions. More specifically, Beyers' (2006) reported that the Self-awareness dimension was found to be the cornerstone of EI upon which the other three dimensions or skills are built. This result, which has been replicated in the current study, suggests that an "emotionally intelligent leader can keep an eye on his or her moods through self-awareness, adapt them for the better through self-management, understand their consequences through empathy, and act in ways that enhance followers' moods through social management" (Beyers, 2006, p.45). Hence, the current study, together with the Beyers (2006) result, provides strong evidence for the hierarchical process constellation of EI skills that has not received much empirical attention in the EI literature. Results about inter-correlations of respective EI dimensions for specific EI models are routinely reported in EI studies. However, our understanding of the psychological process underlying how different EI skills are hierarchically ordered (implied by the EI part of the structural model tested in this study) and how certain basic EI skills influence other more psychologically integrated EI skills, has been lacking in the literature. To this end, this study aimed to contribute to the current body of literature regarding the nature of the EI construct.

5.3 EI and TFL

The significance of EI skills for successful leadership has been reported by various researchers (e.g. Boyatzis, 1982; Duckett & Macfarlane, 2003; Goleman, 1998). Leaders with high EI are considered by their subordinates to be more effective and transformational (Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002). For example, it has been shown that transformational leaders express emotions in such a manner so as to encourage subordinates to embrace new ideas and visions (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000).

Batool's (2013) study reflected the importance of a leader's EI in reducing stress, as well as developing the performance and motivation of subordinates in the workplace. These outcomes, in turn, were shown to influence the organisation's productivity.

Moreover, Kerr et al. (2006) reported that EI is a key element for leadership effectiveness. These authors argued that this could be because leaders who understand and manage emotions well, seems to be perceived as more effective by subordinates. In the present study, the focus was specifically on the relationship between EI and the TFL style, which has been shown to be more effective than other leadership styles (for example, Transactional Leadership). Studies conducted by Sayeed and Shanker (2009) as well as Hebert (2011) have revealed significant relationships between EI and TFL.

Building on the argument that leadership is “an emotional process” (Nourollahi, et al., 2011, p.32) various researchers have explored the relationship between leader EI and effective leadership. For example, Gardner and Stough (2002) reported that leaders whom are more emotionally intelligent are more committed and successful in the workplace. More specifically, Gardner and Stough (2002), using the SUEIT (Palmer & Stough, 2001), reported a strong positive relationship ($r = 0.675$, $p < 0.01$) between EI and TFL, whereas no relationship was found between EI and Transactional Leadership. Furthermore, the authors also reported a significant negative relationship ($r = -0.464$, $p < 0.01$) between laissez-faire leadership and EI. The correlation ($r = 0.585$, $p < 0.01$) between Individualised Consideration (TFL) and understanding emotions external (EI) was reported as the strongest. Their results were consistent with research by Palmer et al. (2001) who reported that an individuals’ ability to manage their own emotions and those of others is a key skill of TFL. Similarly, Rahman, Ferdousy and Uddin’s (2012) also reported that leaders with a higher EI are more likely to be transformational leaders.

The results of all the studies cited above undoubtedly emphasise the importance of leader EI on TFL behaviours. However, a signature characteristic of most of these studies is the fact that associations between EI and TFL were mostly investigated through the calculation of correlations. Although a significant correlation between two variables implies that an association exists, this does not provide much insight into the psychological process that underlie this association. It is in this respect that the current study aimed to contribute to the EI – TFL literature, by proposing a plausible nomological net of variables that provide insight into the way in which EI skills may

influence TFL behaviours. To this end various hypotheses of paths between EI sub-dimensions and TFL sub-dimensions were included in the structural model, emphasising the fact that certain EI skills may be more salient in predicting certain TFL behaviours, than others. For example, Relationship Management was hypothesised to influence the TFL dimension of Idealised Influence, but not the other TFL dimensions. This is due the nature of the Idealised Influence dimension, which includes inspirational and charismatic behaviour, which overlaps with the Relationship Management skills (for example: positively affecting others' emotions) to a greater extent than the other dimensions of TFL. Ultimately, this study aimed to add to the body of knowledge regarding the nature of the relationships between EI and TFL in a way that would create a deeper understanding of which specific EI skills would influence certain TFL behaviours.

The findings of the present study were consistent with Beyers' (2006) findings and confirmed multiple positive significant paths between the EI skills and TFL characteristics included in the structural model. More specifically, in this study significant paths were found between Self-management (EI) and Inspirational Motivation (TFL); Social Awareness (EI) and Individualised Consideration (TFL); as well as Relationship Management (EI) and Idealised Influence (TFL). However, two of the five hypothesised paths were not supported by the research.

For example, it was argued that that leaders who exhibit self-control (a component of Self-management within the ESCI model), may be more aware of, and in tune with, what others may be feeling (i.e. Social Awareness / Empathy), and therefore may be perceived as a role model by his/her followers (Idealised Influence), due to the trust and respect that is developed for the way in which the leader reacts towards the follower. However this path was found to be non-significant. Similarly, it was argued that when a leader exhibits emotional Self-awareness, this will impact on the Social Awareness capability of the leader, which would ultimately impact on the degree to which the follower perceives the leader to display Inspirational Motivation, as a TFL behaviour. However, the path from Social Awareness to Inspirational Motivation was not found to be significant.

However, the results revealed that the Relationship Management dimension of EI obtained the highest R-square value of all the endogenous variables in the model, which indicates that the other three EI dimensions account for a large percentage of the variance in Relationship Management. This result could possibly explain why the direct path between Self-management and Idealised Influence was not supported in the current study. In other words, the path from Self-management to Idealised Influence is mediated by Relationship Management, as a significant path was found between Self-Management and Relationship Management, as well as between Relationship Management and Idealised Influence. The results therefore reveal that Self-management affects Idealised Influence through its effect on Relationship Management. Relationship Management has to do with the skill of positively affecting others' responses and/or emotions. It includes "coach and mentor...inspirational leadership...influence...conflict management... [and] teamwork..."(Boyatzis, 2009, p.754). This overlaps with the characteristics of Idealised Influence which involves leaders behaving in such a way that they are perceived as being role models to their followers (Sarros & Santora, 2001). Banerji and Krishnan (2000) suggest that charisma (portrayed through Idealised Influence) is the most significant element of TFL. It is worth noting that the results of this study are not only based on the self-perceived behaviours of leaders themselves, but also their subordinates' observations of their leaders' behaviours. This therefore indicates that subordinates perceive their leaders as displaying Idealised Influence behaviours when the leader exhibits characteristics of the Relationship Management dimension of EI.

The present study also revealed a significant path from the Social Awareness dimension of EI to the Individualised Consideration dimension of TFL. Empathy is a sub-dimension of the Social Awareness dimension of EI. Individualised Consideration involves a leader paying personal attention to the each subordinate (Bass, 1990), which arguably involves a degree of empathy. Social Awareness also include being aware of others' feelings and desires which also overlaps with Individualised Consideration behaviour. This could explain why a positive path from Social Awareness to Individualised Consideration emerged. A significant path from the Self-management dimension of EI to the Inspirational Motivation dimension of TFL also emerged in the present study. This suggests that leaders who exhibit self-

control (a component of Self-management) will likely be perceived to display Inspirational Motivation behaviour that encourages subordinates to commit to a vision, and exert extra effort in their work.

Furthermore, the results of the present study replicate Beyers' (2006) results with regard to the relationships between specific EI dimensions and the dimensions of TFL. Two of the paths contained in the Beyer's (2006) model (i.e. Empathy on Individualised Consideration, and Social Skills on Idealised Influence) were replicated in this study. This, therefore, enhances confidence in the notion that EI and TFL are related in a very specific manner, as evidenced by the empirical results of these two studies. Hebert (2011) further concluded that TFL characteristics can be enhanced through the development of EI skills. Self-awareness was revealed as the cornerstone of EI through the current, as well as previous study (Beyers, 2006). Therefore, it could be argued that the Self-awareness dimension would be the best starting point for such a developmental program, as it would impact on the other three dimensions of EI as shown in the results of the present study, as well as that of Beyers (2006).

5.4 TFL and outcomes of effective leadership

The popularity of TFL is partially due to its pervasive connection to advanced performance (Camps & Rodriguez, 2010; Dvir et al., 2002; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). This leadership style has been shown to be positively correlated with leader effectiveness ($r = .66, p < .001$) (Hur et al., 2011). Various other researchers have also shown that TFL is generally more effective than other leadership styles (Downey et al., 2006; Dubinsky et al., 1995; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008), and has been associated with increased effort, performance, satisfaction, and commitment in followers (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Lowe, et al., 1996).

Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment were assessed as outcomes of effective leadership in the present study. In total, seven direct paths between the different TFL sub-dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership were hypothesised, based on the literature presented in chapter 2. However, the only significant path that emerged was

between the Idealised Influence dimension of TFL and Perceived Supervisor Support.

This finding indicates that when a leader exhibits behaviours characteristic of Idealised Influence, such as instilling confidence in the subordinates' abilities, and causing subordinates to view the leader as a role model; this will cause subordinates to have a positive perception of supervisor support. Perceived Supervisor Support refers to the extent to which subordinates feel their leaders value their work and are concerned about their well-being. According to Yoon et al. (2004, p.396) supervisory support can be described as "the socio-emotional concerns of the supervisor, and represents the degree to which the supervisor creates a facilitative climate of psychological support, mutual trust, friendliness, and helpfulness".

The positive relationship between Idealised Influence and Perceived Supervisor Support is significant given the positive implications heightened Perceived Supervisor Support could have for organisations. For example, Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski and Rhoades (2002) reported that employees who reported experiencing positive perceived supervisor support also reported experiencing enhanced levels of Perceived Organisational Support, which in turn is associated with a higher retention rate. Other positive outcomes of Perceived Supervisor Support include enhanced performance, organisational citizenship behaviours and Job Satisfaction (Harris, et al., 2009). Maertz et al. (2007) also highlight the significance of this relationship by indicating that Perceived Supervisor Support has a significant negative correlation with subordinates' turnover (Maertz et al., 2007). Therefore it could be argued that the significance of this result suggests that interventions targeted at increasing Idealised Influence TFL behaviours, should be effective in creating perceptions of Perceived Supervisor Support, which could have a whole host of positive organisational outcomes.

The results did not indicate any support for the paths between Idealised Influence and Job Satisfaction, as well Organisational Commitment. This suggests that although supervisors that display behaviours characteristic of Idealised Influence (for example: giving personal attention to followers and treating each follower as valuable), this will not necessarily lead to the subordinates reporting higher levels of

Job Satisfaction or commitment to the organisation. The results of the analyses furthermore did not support any other direct relationships between the other dimensions of TFL and the outcomes of effective leadership (Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisation Commitment). For example, Muni, Rahman, Malik and Ma'amor (2012) report a positive relationship between TFL and Job Satisfaction. The present study hypothesised relationships between Idealised Influence and Job Satisfaction as well as between Individualised Consideration and Job Satisfaction. However, none of these were found to be significant. This suggests that although leaders are perceived as role models (Idealised Influence) and pay individual attention to the needs of each subordinate (Individualised Consideration); this will not necessarily positively influence the subordinates' Job Satisfaction levels. A possible explanation for this could be that there are other variables that mediate, and/or moderate the relationships between the TFL dimensions and the outcomes of effective leadership used in this study. For example, Nielsen, Yarker, Randall and Munir (2009) reported the team efficacy (referring to the competence to the group in which the individual works) was found to be a mediator between TFL and Job Satisfaction.

The current study also investigated whether the three TFL dimensions (Idealised Influence, Individualised Consideration and Inspirational Motivation) predicted Organisational Commitment of subordinates. None of those paths were supported by the results. Once again, it could be argued that the lack of support found for these direct paths could be because there are important mediators/moderators between the TFL dimensions and Organisational Commitment, not included in the current model. For example, in an empirical study, Avolio, Zhu, Koh and Bhatia (2004) investigated the mediating/moderating roles of psychological empowerment and structural distance in the relationship between TFL and Organisational Commitment. Psychological empowerment was defined as "increased intrinsic task motivation manifested in a set of four cognitions reflecting an individual's orientation to his or her work role: competence, impact, meaning, and self-determination" (Spreitzer, 1995, p. 1443). Structural distance refers to whether the reporting relationship between leader and subordinate is direct or indirect. With a sample of 520 staff nurses in Singapore, the authors tested the proposed model. The results indicated

that psychological empowerment mediated the path from TFL to Organisational Commitment. This suggests that the more empowered subordinates feel, as a result of TFL behaviours, the more committed they will be to the organisation. Furthermore, the study revealed that structural distance had a moderating effect on the relationship between TFL and Organisational Commitment. This implies that transformational behaviour from indirect supervisors had a stronger relationship with the Organisational Commitment levels of subordinates than the behaviour of direct supervisors.

Similarly, Whittington, Goodwin and Murray (2004, p. 593) conducted an empirical study to investigate the role of job enrichment and goal difficulty as moderators between TFL and the following three outcomes: “performance, affective organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behavior.” With a sample of 140 leaders and 209 followers, the results of the study concluded that goal difficulty moderates the relationship between TFL and affective Organisational Commitment. The authors argued that this could be because having goals that are challenging (which is an aspect of Intellectual Stimulation) are indicative of the leader’s confidence in the subordinates’ abilities, which, in turn, positively influence the subordinate’s performance. Furthermore, the resulting positive emotion toward the leader would “transfer to the organization” (Whittington et al., p.603), which could increase commitment.

In addition, Pillai and Williams (2004) proposed a model where subordinates’ self-efficacy and cohesiveness are moderators between TFL and commitment, as well as performance. After testing the model using a final sample of 271 responses, the proposed model was supported. More specifically, the authors reported that TFL affects commitment and performance directly, but also that these paths are mediated by cohesiveness and self-efficacy. These results imply that subordinates’ commitment levels will be affected by the transformational characteristics of their leader as well as the degree to which they believe in their own abilities. A further implication is that subordinates’ commitment levels will be affected by the transformational characteristics of their leader as well as the extent to which the group members are attached to the group.

Finally, Wang et al. (2005) explored the role of leader-member exchange as a mediator between TFL and subordinates' performance, as well as their OCB. Leader-member exchange (LMX) refers to the perspective of leadership that focuses on "how one-on-one reciprocal social exchanges between leader and follower evolve, nurture, and sustain the dyadic relationship" (Wang, et al., 2005, p. 420). OCB refers to behaviour that is not usually included in a formal job description, but "supports task performance by enhancing a social and psychological work environment" (Wang et al., 2005, p. 421). The results of the study suggested that LMX mediated the association between TFL and task performance as well as OCB. The implication of this finding is that the informal bond between a leader and subordinate, and how the subordinate interprets these interactions, are important in the association between TFL and subordinates' OCB. This argument could probably also be extended to the TFL – Organisational Commitment relationship. Therefore, LMX should be considered as an important variable in this relationship, and should be considered for inclusion in future studies.

All of these studies listed above suggest certain mediators and/or moderators that may have an effect on the TFL and Organisational Commitment relationship. It is recommended that in future research more variables, such as the ones suggested above, should be included in a structural model when the effects of TFL on the outcomes of effective leadership are studied. This should provide a more closely associated approximation of the reality of the psychological processes that underlie the outcomes of effective leadership as a function of TFL.

5.5 Relationship between the Outcomes of Effective Leadership

The relationships between the three outcomes variables (Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisation Commitment) were also analysed in this study. Research has indicated that Perceived Supervisor Support is an antecedent of Organisational Commitment (Eisenberger, et al., 1996; Wayne, et al., 1997) as well as of Job Satisfaction (Graen, et al., 1982). Further to this, research has also revealed that Organisational Commitment is an antecedent of Job Satisfaction levels (Pool & Pool, 2007). Direct paths were therefore hypothesised from Perceived Supervisor Support to Organisational Commitment, as well as to Job Satisfaction. A path from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction was also proposed in the

current study. The only path that was found to be significant was from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction. This finding suggests that the more individuals feel committed to an organisation (as a result of, for example, the quality of perceived supervisor support), the higher their levels of Job Satisfaction would be. This would have a positive outcome for an organisation, as high Job Satisfaction levels have been associated with high employee retention rates (Van Saane et al., 2003) as well as with organisational citizenship behaviour (Ghazzawi, 2010).

Once again, a literature review revealed some important mediators that could account for the lack of support of the Perceived Supervisor Support and Job Satisfaction, as well as Organisational Commitment paths. For example, in a very recent study Gok et al. (2015) reported that organisational identification (i.e. the degree to which a member defines him- or herself by the same attributes that he or she believes define the organisation) partially mediated the relationship between Perceived Supervisor Support and Job Satisfaction. Moreover, Babin and Boles (1996) confirmed, through the testing of a structural model, the mediating role of role stress (defined by both role conflict and role ambiguity) and job performance, in the Supervisor Support – Job Satisfaction relationship. However, it is interesting to note that in this study, Supervisor Support also directly predicted Job Satisfaction with a rather moderate to strong path coefficient of 0.41. In addition, Woo and Chelladurai (2012) reported that intrinsic motivation (i.e. when employees find the work they do interesting) moderated the relationship between Perceived Support and affective commitment.

5.6 Practical Implications

Knowledge on the nature of the relationship between EI and TFL can be useful in recruitment and selection, as well as in the development of leaders (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). With research revealing that Transformational Leaders are more effective than those with other leadership styles (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008), it would be useful for organisations to include EI testing as part of the selection process for appointing transformational leaders.

Furthermore, a huge advantage for organisations is that research evidence suggests that EI skills can be developed (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2004; Fletcher, Leadbetter, Curran, & O'Sullivan, 2009; Görgens-Ekermans, 2011; Görgens-Ekermans, Delpont,

& Du Preez, 2015). For example, acknowledging the importance of EI for health, performance and relationships, Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak and Hansenne (2009) investigated whether EI skills can be developed. The authors used two groups in the study: one group went through four training sessions; the other group received no training. The results revealed that the EI skills of those that received training were developed; and six months later, this development was still evident. No changes were detected in those that did not receive training. This is in line with the findings of Fletcher et al. (2009) who, using a group of medical students, investigated whether EI training could cause development in EI levels/skills. Their results supported the notion that EI can be developed.

Gardner's (2005) research focused on the implementation of an EI training programme with a focus on stress management. The research results revealed that the EI training was effective, and increased participant's skills in managing stress. This replicated the results of a study by Slaski and Cartwright (2003). The authors, with a sample of 60 managers in the UK, also investigated the role of EI in the stress process. The results of the study confirmed that EI can be taught, and has advantages for wellbeing, performance, as well as stress levels. In light of these research findings, it is argued that workshops/programs could therefore be implemented to enhance leadership effectiveness through the development of EI skills.

The results of the study also revealed a positive relationship between TFL and Perceived Supervisor Support which holds a number of positive implications for organisations. For example, positive organisational outcomes of positive Perceived Supervisor Support include enhanced performance, organisational citizenship behaviours and Job Satisfaction (Harris, et al., 2009). Hence, a practical implication of this result is that organisations should actively try and find out from employees what leaders could do to provide supervisory support. This knowledge would strengthen the capacity of the leader to enhance support behaviours which could have positive outcomes for the organisation.

5.7 Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study was the small sample size which only consisted of 85 leader-follower dyads. Another limitation was that most of the responses were from Higher Education Institutions. This limits the generalisability of the research results. In addition to this, in the supervisor data, 58.8% of the respondents were white; and of the subordinate data, the largest percentage (37.9%) were coloured. The other ethnic groups were very much underrepresented. In the supervisors' data, only 3.5% were Black, and 2.4% were Indian, and in the subordinates' data, 6.6% were Black and 1.6% was Indian. These statistics further limit the generalisability of the results.

A further limitation of the study has to do with the fact that some of the data were obtained through self-report questionnaires (i.e. Job Satisfaction, Organisational Commitment and Perceived Supervisor Support, as well as the supervisor data on EI and TFL). There's therefore a concern about self-report bias which could influence the data's reliability and validity.

This study was non-experimental by nature. Inferences regarding causality based on the outcomes of Structural Equation Modelling should be regarded cautiously with the use of non-experimental designs.

Another limitation of this study was that the conceptual model did not make provision for moderating variables between the various constructs analysed. For example, although the literature and previous research suggested that there is a relationship between TFL and Job Satisfaction, as well as Organisational Commitment, no such relationships were found in the results of this study. It would therefore make sense for future studies to consider including more moderators and mediators in these relationships.

Although previous research indicated a positive relationship between TFL and the outcomes of effective leadership used in the present study, it should be noted that these studies analysed these relationships using TFL as a composite construct. In the present study, the specific sub-dimensions of TFL were considered, in order gain a deeper understanding of how each one is affected by the different EI dimensions. This was also done to explore how each TFL sub-dimension related to the outcomes

of effective leadership. The fact that TFL was not studied as a composite construct in this study could be a reason as to why some of the paths between the TFL sub-dimensions and some of the outcomes were not found to be significant.

5.8 Recommendations for Future Research

A first recommendation for future research, which stems from the limitations of this study, would entail using a larger sample and including participants from different sectors/industries. This would make the results of the research more generalisable. Secondly, instead of using a composite score of Organisational Commitment, more accurate results may be yielded from a study that explores the effect of TFL on the different types of commitment (i.e. Affective, Continuance and Normative commitment).

Lastly, another recommendation would be to include other mediating, and/or moderating variables between the TFL dimensions and the three outcomes of effective leadership used in this study. Together with this it may be helpful to study other constructs as outcomes of effective leadership, as experienced by the follower of a leader that exhibits certain TFL behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies.

5.9 Conclusion

Realising the importance of leadership for an organisation's success, this study examined the effect of EI on leadership effectiveness. The study built upon the Beyers (2006) model of the relationship between EI and TFL. A more recent model and measurement of EI was used, and three constructs were added to the model as outcomes of effective leadership: Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment. The research question that was addressed for this study were as follows: Does the expanded and adapted conceptual model developed in this study provide a valid account of the psychological processes that determines the outcomes of effective leadership, defined as Perceived Supervisor Support, Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment, as experienced by the follower of a particular leader that exhibits certain TFL behaviours being influenced by various EI competencies?

The findings of this study replicated the results of Beyers (2006) with regard to the effect of EI on TFL. However, only one path from TFL to the outcomes of effective leadership was found to be statistically significant ((Idealised Influence to Perceived Supervisor Support). Paths amongst the three outcomes were also tested, and only one, from Organisational Commitment to Job Satisfaction, was found to be significant.

The study provides more insight into the relationship of EI with the TFL style. However, further research is needed to establish the exact nature of the relationships between TFL behaviours and the outcomes of effective leadership used in this study.

REFERENCE LIST

- Abbasi, S.M., & Hollman, K.W. (2000). Turnover: The Real Bottom Line. *Public Personnel Management, 29*(3), 333-342.
- Aibinu A. A., & Al-Lawati A. M. (2010). Using PLS-SEM technique to model construction organizations' willingness to participate in e-bidding. *Automation in Construction, 19*, 714–724.
- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 1–18.
- Allen, N.J., & Meyer, J.P. (1996). Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment to the Organisation: An Examination of Construct Validity. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 49*, 252-276.
- Amabile, T.M., Schatzel, E.A., Moneta, G.B. & Kramer, S.J. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*, 5 – 32.
- Anderson, J.C., & Gerbing, D.W. (1988). Structural Equation Modeling in Practice: A Review and Recommended Two-Step Approach. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*(3), 411-423.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly, 14*(3), 261- 295.
- Arnold, J., & Davey, K.M. (1999). Graduate's work experiences as predictors of organisational commitment, intention to leave, and turnover: which experienced really matter? *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 48*(2), 211-238.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., & Tse, B. (2000). Transformational leadership as management of emotion: A conceptual review, in N. Ashkanasy, C.E.J. Härtel, & W.J. Zerbe. (Eds.), *Emotions in the Workplace: Research, Theory, and Practice*, (pp. 221-235). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

- Averill, J.R (2004). A Tale of Two Snarks: Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Creativity Compared. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 228–233.
- Avolio, B.J., Bass, B.M., & Jung, D.I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 441-462.
- Avolio, B.J., Zhu, W., Koh, W., & Bhatia, P. (2004). Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25, 951-968.
- Babin, B.J., & Boles, J.S. (1996). The Effects of Perceived Co-Worker Involvement and Supervisor Support on Service provider Role Stress, Performance and Job Satisfaction. *Journal of Retailing*, 72(1), 57-75.
- Bachman, J., Stein, S., Campbell, K., & Sitarenios, G. (2000). Emotional Intelligence in the Collection of Debt. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 8 (3), 176–182.
- Bagshaw, M. (2000). Emotional intelligence – training people to be affective so they can be effective. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 32(2), 61– 65.
- Banerji, P., & Krishnan, V.R. (2000). Ethical preferences of transformational leaders: an empirical investigation. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 21(8), 405-413.
- Barbuto, J.E., & Burbach, M.E. (2006). The Emotional Intelligence of transformational Leaders: A field Study of Elected Officials. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(1), 51-64.
- Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E.K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: an exploratory study. *Leadership and Organizational Development*, 21, 157-161.
- Bar-On, R. (1997). *Emotional Quotient Inventory: technical manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.

- Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: insights from the Emotional Quotient Inventory. In R. Bar-On & J.D.A. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp.363 – 388). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bar-On, R. (2005). The Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence (ESI). In P. Fernandez-Berrocal and N. Extremera (Guest Editors), Special Issue on Emotional Intelligence: An overview. *Psicothema*, 173(18), 1-6.
- Bar-On, R., Maree, J.G., & Elias, M.J. (2007). *Educating People to Be Emotionally Intelligent*. Westport Connecticut, London: Praeger.
- Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, Free Press, New York, NY.
- Bass, B.M. (1990). *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Applications*. New York: Free Press
- Bass, B.M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), 9-32.
- Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1995). *Multifactor leadership questionnaire for research*. Palo Alto, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bass, B.M., Avolio, J.A., Jung, D.I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting Unit Performance by Assessing Transformational and Transactional Leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207-218.
- Batool, B.F. (2013). Emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 4(3), 84-94.
- Becker, T. (2003). Is emotional intelligence a viable concept? *Academy of Management Review*, 28, 192-19.
- Beugre, C.D., Acar, W., & Braun, W. (2006). Transformational leadership in organizations: an environment-induced model. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1), 52-62.
- Beyers, W. (2006). *The development of a structural model reflecting the impact of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Stellenbosch.

- Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley
- Bloom, N., & Van Reenen, J. (2007). Measuring and Explaining Management Practices Across Firms and Countries. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 122(4), 1351-1408.
- Bono, J.E., & Ilies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17, 317-334.
- Boyatzis, R. (1982). *The competent manager*. New York: Wiley & Sons.
- Boyatzis, R. (2007). The creation of the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory (ESCI). Retrieved on November 5, 2012 from http://e-russell.com/images/ESCI_Article.pdf
- Boyatzis, R.E. (2009). Competencies as a behavioural approach to emotional intelligence. *Journal of Management Development*. 28(9), 749-770.
- Boyatzis, R.E., & Goleman, D. (2007). *Emotional Competency Inventory (now the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory)*. Boston, MA: Hay Group.
- Boyatzis, R.E., Goleman, D., & Hay group. (2001). *The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI)*. Boston: Hay Group.
- Boyatzis, R.E., & Saatchioglou, A. (2008). A 20-year view of trying to develop emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies in graduate management education. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(3), 92–108.
- Boyatzis, R. E., & Sala, F.(2004). The emotional competence inventory (ECI), in G. Geher (Ed.), *Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy* (pp. 147–180). New York, NY: Nova Science Publishers.
- Bruch, H., & Walter, F. (2007). Leadership in context: investigating hierarchical impacts on transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28(8), 710-726.
- Bryman, A. (1992). *Charisma and Leadership in Organizations*, Sage, London.

- Buckley, M.R., Carraher, S.M., & Cote, J.A. (1992). Measurement issues concerning the use of inventories of job satisfaction. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 52, 529 – 543.
- Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership*, Harper and Row, New York, NY.
- Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass' 1985 conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(4), 468–478.
- Byrne, J.C. (2003). *The role of emotional intelligence in predicting leadership and related work behavior*. Hoboken, NJ: Stevens Institute of Technology, Technology Management.
- Cacioppe, R. (1997). Leadership moment by moment! *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 18(7), 335–345.
- Camps, J., & Rodriguez, H. (2010). Transformational leadership, learning, and employability. Effects on performance among faculty members. *Personnel Review*, 40(4), 423-442.
- Carless, S. A. (1998). Assessing the discriminant validity of transformational leadership behaviour as measured by the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 71, 353–358.
- Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behaviour and outcomes. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(8), 788-813.
- Carson, K.D., Carson, P.P., & Birkenmeier, B.J. (2000). Measuring emotional intelligence: Development and validation of an instrument. *Journal of Behavioral and Applied Management*, 2(1), 32–44.
- Catano, V.M., Pond, M., & Kelloway, E.K. (2001). Exploring commitment and leadership in volunteer organizations. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(6), 256-263.
- Cherniss, C. (2000, April). *Emotional Intelligence: What it is and Why it Matters*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

- Cherniss, C. (2001). Emotional intelligence and organizational effectiveness. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 3 – 12). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (2001). *The Emotionally Intelligent Workplace*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, CA.
- Cheung, M.F.Y., & Wong, C. (2011). Transformational leadership, leader support, and employee creativity. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(7), 656–672.
- Chin, W.W. (1998). The partial least squares approach to structural equation modelling. In G.A. Marcoulides (Ed.), *Modern Methods of Business Research* (pp. 295-358). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Cho, J., & Dansereau, F. (2010). Are transformational leaders fair? A multi-level study of transformational leadership, justice perceptions, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 409-421.
- Ciarrochi, J.V., Chan, A.Y.C., & Caputi, P. (2000). A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28, 539–561.
- Conger, J.A., & Kanungo, R.N. (1994). Charismatic leadership in organizations: perceived behavioural attributes and their measurement. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15(5), 439–452.
- Conger, J.A., Kanungo, R.N., & Menon, S.T. (2000). Charismatic leadership and follower effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(7), 747–767.
- Connelly, S., & Ruark, G. (2010). Leadership style and activating potential moderators of the relationships among leader emotional displays and outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 745-764.
- Cooper, R.R. (1997). Applying Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace. *Training & Development* (December), 31–38.
- Cooper, C.L., & Starbuck, W.H. (Eds.). (2005). *Work and Workers*. London, California & New Delhi: SAGE Publications.

- Cote, S., Lopes, P.N., Salovey, P., & Miners, C.T.H. (2010). Emotional intelligence and leadership emergence in small groups. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 496-508.
- Cote, S., & Miners, C. (2006). Emotional intelligence, cognitive intelligence, and job performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 51, 1–28.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L., & Roberts, R. D. (1998). Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75, 989-1015.
- Densten, I.L. (2002). Clarifying inspirational motivation and its relationship to extra effort. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(1), 40-44.
- Derue, D.S., Nahrgang, J.D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S.E. (2011). Trait and Behavioral Theories of Leadership: An Integration and Meta-Analytic test of their Relative Validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64, 7-52.
- Dincer, H., Gencer, G., Orhan, N., & Sahinbas, K. (2011). The Significance of Emotional Intelligence on the Innovative Work Behavior of Managers as Strategic Decision-Makers. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 24, 909-919.
- Downey, L.A., Papageorgiou, V., and Stough, C. (2006). Examining the relationship between leadership, emotional intelligence and intuition in senior female managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(4), 250-264.
- Dubinsky, A.J., Yammarino, F.J., & Jolson, M.A. (1995). An examination of linkages between personal characteristics and dimensions of transformational leadership. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 9(3), 315-335.
- Duckett, H., & Macfarlane, E. (2003). Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in retailing. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(6), 309-317.
- Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2005). Assessing leadership styles and organisational context. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20(2), 105-123.
- Dunham, R., Grube, J., & Castaneda, M. (1994). Organizational commitment: The utility of an integrative definition. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79, 370-380.

- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B.J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of Transformational Leadership on Follower Development and Performance: A Field Experiment. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 735-744.
- Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 500-507.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I.L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived Supervisor Support: Contributions to Perceived Organizational Support and Employee Retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565-573.
- Ekvall, G., & Arvonen, J. (1991). Change-Centred Leadership: An Extension of the Two Dimensional Model. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 7(1), 7-26.
- Emmerling, R.J., Shanwal, V.K., & Mandal, M.K. (Eds.). (2008). *Emotional intelligence: Theoretical and cultural perspectives*. Nova Science Publishers, Hauppauge, NY.
- Engelbrecht, A.S., van Aswegen, A.S., & Theron, C.C. (2005). The effect of ethical values on transformational leadership and ethical climate in organisations. *South African Journal of Business Management*, 36(2), 19-26.
- Erkutlu, H. (2008). The impact of transformational leadership on organizational and leadership effectiveness: The Turkish case. *The Journal of Management Development*, 27(7), 708-726.
- Fletcher, I., Leadbetter, P., Curran, A., & O'Sullivan, H. (2009). A pilot study assessing emotional intelligence training and communication skills with 3rd year medical students. *Patient Education and Counseling*, 76, 376-379.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Structural equation models with observable variables and measurement error: Algebra and statistics. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(3), 328-388.
- Fitzgerald, S., & Schutte, N.S. (2010). Increasing transformational leadership through enhancing self-efficacy. *Journal of Management Development*, 29(5), 495-505.
- Gardner, L. (2005). *Emotional intelligence and occupational stress*. PhD dissertation, Swinburne University of Technology, Melbourne, Australia.

- Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2002). Examining the relationship between leadership and intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(2), 68-78.
- Gentry, W.A., Kuhnert, K.W., Mondore, S.P., & Page, E.E. (2007). The influence of supervisory-support climate and unemployment rates on part-time employee retention. *Journal of Management Development*, 26(10), 1005-1022.
- George, J.M. (2000). Emotions and Leadership: The Role of Emotional Intelligence. *Human Relations*, 53(8), 1027 – 1055.
- George, E., Louw, D., & Badenhorst, G. (2008). Job satisfaction among urban secondary-school teachers in Namibia. *South African Journal of Education*, 28, 135-154.
- Ghazzawi, I. (2010). Gender Role In Job Satisfaction: The Case Of The U.S. Information Technology Professionals. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, 14(2), 1-34.
- Giles, S.J.S. (2001). *The role of supervisory emotional intelligence in direct report organizational commitment*. Unpublisjed master's thesis. University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.
- Gill, A.S., Flaschner, A.B., & Shacar, M. (2006). Mitigating stress and burnout by implementing transformational-leadership. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 18(6), 469–481.
- Gill, A.S., & Mathur, N. (2007). Research In Brief. Improving employee dedication and pro-social behaviour. . *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 19(4), 328 -334.
- Glisson, C., & Durick, M. (1988). Predictors of Job Satisfaction and Organisational Commitment in Human Service OrganisationCs. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33(1), 61-81.
- Gok, S., Karatuna, I., & Karaca, P.O. (2015). The Role of Perceived Supervisor Support and Organizational Identification in Job Satisfaction. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 177, 38-42.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Book.

- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2001). An EI-based theory of performance. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace. How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations*, (pp. 27-44). San-Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Görgens-Ekermans, G. (2011). *Developing Emotional Intelligence for increased stress management and better psychological and physical health*. Paper presented at the First South African Positive Psychological Sciences Symposium, 14 – 15 April, Vanderbijlpark, North West University, South Africa.
- Görgens-Ekermans, G., & Brand, T. (2012). Emotional intelligence as a moderator in the stress-burnout relationship: A questionnaire study on nurses. *Journal of Clinical Nursing, 21*, 2275–2285.
- Görgens-Ekermans, G., Delpont, M., & du Preez, R. (2015). Developing Emotional Intelligence as a key psychological resource reservoir for sustained student success. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology/SA Tydskrif vir Bedryfsielkunde, 41*(1), Art. #1251, 13 pages. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v41i1.1251>
- Gowing, M.K. (2001). Measures of individual emotional competencies. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace. How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations* (pp. 83-131). San-Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Goyal, A., & Akhilesh, K.B. (2007). Interplay among innovativeness, cognitive intelligence, emotional intelligence and social capital of work teams. *Team Performance Management, 13*(7), 206–226.
- Graen, G.B., Liden, R.C., & Hoel, W. (1982). Role of leadership in the Employee Withdrawal Process. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 67*(6), 868–872.
- Graen, G.B., Norvak, M.A., & Sommerkamp, P. (1982). The effects of leader-member exchange and job design on productivity and satisfaction: testing a dual attachment model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 30*, 109 -131.

- Groves, K.S., McEnrue, M.P., & Shen, W. (2008). Developing and measuring the emotional intelligence of leaders. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(2), 225-250.
- Güteryüz, G., Güney, S., Aydin, E.M., & Asan, O. (2008). The mediating effect of job satisfaction between emotional intelligence and organisational commitment of nurses: A questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, article in Press.
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1976). Motivation through the Design of Work: Test of a Theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16, 250-279.
- Haenlein, M., & Kaplan, A. M. (2004). A beginner's guide to partial least squares analysis. *Understanding Statistics*, 3(4), 283-297.
- Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Harris, K.J., Wheeler, A.R., & Kacmar, K.M. (2009). Leader-member exchange and empowerment: Direct and interactive effects on job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20, 371 -382.
- Hebert, E.B. (2011). *The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence, Transformational Leadership, and Effectiveness in School Principals*. Dissertation, Georgia State University.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sarstedt, M. (2015). A new criterion for assessing discriminant validity in variance-based structural equation modeling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 43 (1), 115-135.
- Henseler, J., Ringle, C.M., & Sinkovics, R.R. (2009). The use of partial least squares in international marketing. *Advances in International Marketing*, 20, 277-319.
- Higgs, M., & Aitken, P. (2003). An exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership potential. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18(8), 814-823.
- Hinkin, T.R., & Tracey, J.B. (1999). The relevance of charisma for transformational leadership in stable organizations. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 12(2), 105-119.

- Hoffman, B.J., & Frost, B.C. (2006). Multiple intelligences of transformational leaders: an empirical examination. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1), 37-51.
- Hogan, R., Curphy, G. J., & Hogan, J. (1994). What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality. *American Psychologist*, 49, 493-504.
- House, R.J., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., and Dorfman, P. (2002). "Understanding Cultures and Implicit Leadership Theories Across the Globe: An Introduction to Project GLOBE" *Journal of World Business*, 37 (1) 3-10.
- House, R.J., & Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the intergration of transformational, charismatic and visionary theories. In M.M, Chemers & R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions*, Vol. 193 (pp. 81-107). San Diego: Academic Press.
- House, R.J. (1992). Charismatic Leadership in Service-producing Organizations. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 3(2), 5-16.
- Howell, J.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1993). Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Locus of Control, and Support for Innovation: Key Predictors of Consolidated-Business-Unit Performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(6), 891-902.
- Hur, Y., van den Berg, P.T., & Wilderom, C.P.M. (2011). Transformational leadership as a mediator between emotional intelligence and team outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, 591-603.
- Ismail, A., Abidin, N.B.N., & Tudin, R. (2009). Relationship Between Transformational Leadership, Empowerment and Followers' Performance: An Empirical Study in Malaysia. *Revista Científica Electrónica Ciencias Gerenciales/Scientific e-journal of Management Science*, 13(5), 5-22.
- Kaiser, R. B., Hogan, R., & Craig, S. B. (2008). Leadership and the fate of organizations. *American Psychologist*, 63, 96–110.
- Kalleberg, A.L. (1977). Work Values and Job Rewards: A Theory of Job Satisfaction. *American Sociological Review*, 42(1), 124-143.
- Keller, L.M., Bouchard, T.J., Arvey, R.D., Segal, N.L., & Dawis, R.V. (1992). Work Values: Genetic and Environmental Influences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(1), 79-88.

- Kerr, R., Garvin, J., Heaton, N., & Boyle, E. (2006). Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(4), 265–279.
- Kirkman, B.L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond Self-Management: Antecedents and Consequences of Team Empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42 (1), 58-74.
- Klein, K.J., & House, R.J. (1995). On Fire: Charismatic Leadership and Levels of Analysis. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 183–198.
- Koc, H. (2011). The impact of managers' leadership behaviors on job satisfaction and performance of employees. *African Journal of Business Management*, 5(30), 11836-11843.
- Koman, L. & Wolff, S. (2008). Emotional intelligence competencies in the team and team leader. *Journal of Management Development*, 27(1), 55 – 75.
- Kotter, J.P. (1995). *The New Rules. Eight Business Breakthroughs to Career Success in the 21st Century*. New York, NY: Free Press Paperbacks.
- Krishan, V.R. (2004). Impact of transformational leadership on followers' influence strategies. *The Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(1), 58 – 72.
- Krishnan, V.R. (2005). Transformational leadership and outcomes: role of relationship duration. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(6), 442-457.
- Kuoppala, J., Lamminpaa, A., Liira, J., & Vainio, H. (2008). Leadership, Job Well-being, and Health Effects – A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis, *JOEM*, 50(8), 904-915.
- Landy, F.J. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 411 – 424.
- Lam, S.S.K., Chen, X.P., & Schaubroeck, J. (2002). Participative Decision Making and Employee Performance in Different Cultures. The Moderating Effects of Allocentrism/Idiocentrism and Efficacy. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(5), 905-914.

- Leban, W., & Zulauf, C. (2004). Linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership styles. *The Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25(7), 554-564.
- Leslie, J.B. (Ed.). (2013). *Feedback to Managers: A Guide to Reviewing and Selecting Multirater Instruments for Leadership Development*, 4th Edition, Center for Creative Leadership.
- Li, C., & Hung, C. (2009). The Influence of Transformational Leadership on Workplace Relationships and Job Performance. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37(8), 1129-1142.
- Limsila, K., & Ogunlana, S.O. (2008). Performance and leadership outcome correlates of leadership styles and subordinate commitment. *Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management*, 15(2), 164-184.
- Locke, E.A. (1969). What is Job Satisfaction?. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 4, 309-336.
- Lok, P., & Crawford, J. (2004) The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Journal of Management Development*, 23, 321-338.
- Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *Leadership Quarterly*, 7, 385–425.
- Maertz, C.P., Jr., Griffeth, R.W., Campbell, N.S., & Allen, D.G. (2007). The effects of perceived organizational support and perceived supervisor support on employee turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28(8), 1059-1075.
- Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 17(3), 387-404.
- Mardanov, I.T., Heischmidt, K., & Henson, A. (2008). Leader-Member Exchange and Job Satisfaction Bond and Predicted Employee Turnover. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 15(2), 159-175.

- Martin, A., & Ernst, C. (2005). Leadership, learning and human resource management. Exploring leadership in times of paradox and complexity. *Corporate Governance*, 5(3), 82-94.
- Mast, M.S., Jonas, K., Cronauer, C.K., & Darioly, A. (2011). On the Importance of the Superior's Interpersonal Sensitivity for Good Leadership. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 1-26.
- Mastrangelo, A., Eddy, E.R., & Lorenzet, S.J. (2004). The importance of personal and professional leadership. *The Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, 25, 435-451.
- Mayer, J.D., Caruso, D.R., & Salovey, P. (1999). Emotional intelligence meets traditional standards for an intelligence. *Intelligence*, 27, 267–298.
- Mayer, J.D., Roberts, R.D., & Barsade, S.G. (2008). Human Abilities: Emotional Intelligence. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 59, 507-536.
- Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3 – 31) New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). *Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) item booklet*. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: MHS Publishers.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D.R. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: Theory, Findings, and Implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15(3), 197 – 215.
- McCarthy, J.F. (2008). Short Stories at Work: Storytelling as an Indicator of Organizational Commitment. *Group & Organization Management*, 33(2), 163 – 193.
- McColl-Kennedy, J. R., & Anderson, R. D. (2002). Impact of leadership style and emotions on subordinate performance. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 545–559.
- McEnrue, M.P., Groves, K.S., Shen, W. (2009). Emotional intelligence development: leveraging individual characteristics. *Journal of Management Development*, 28(2), 150–174.

- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 1(1), 61-89.
- Meyer, J.P., & Allen, N.J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace. Theory, Research, and Application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Miles, S.F., & Mangold, G. (2002). The impact of team leader performance on team member satisfaction: the subordinate's perspective. *Team Performance Management: An International Journal*, 8(5/6), 113-121.
- Modassir, A., & Singh, T. (2008). Relationship of Emotional Intelligence with Transformational Leadership and Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 4(1), 3-21.
- Mohamadali, N. A. K., (2012). *Exploring New Factors and the Question of 'Which' in User Acceptance Studies of Healthcare Software*. Doctor of Philosophy, University of Nottingham, Nottingham.
- Moshavi, D., Brown, F.W., & Dodd, N.G. (2003). Leader self-awareness and its relationship to subordinate attitudes and performance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(7), 407-418.
- Mowday, R.T., Porter, L.W., & Steers, R.M. (1982). *Employee-organization linkages*. New York: Academic Press.
- Munir, R.I.S., Rahman, R.A., Malik, A.M.A., & Ma'amor, H. (2012). Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Employees' Job Satisfaction among the Academic Staff. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 65, 885-890.
- Murry, D.M., Sivasubramaniam, N., & Jacques, P.H. (2001). Supervisory support, social exchange relationships, and sexual harassment consequences. A test of competing models. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 1-29.
- Naznin, H. (2013). Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Behaviour. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 13(2), 64-67.
- Nelis, D., Quoidbach, J., Mikolajczak, M., & Hansenne, M. (2009). Increasing emotional intelligence: (How) is it possible? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 47, 36-41.

- Nemanich, L.A., & Keller, R.T. (2007). Transformational leadership in an acquisition: A field study of employees. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18, 49-68.
- Nicholsan, N., Audia, P.G., & Pillutla, M.M. (Eds.), (2005). *The Blackwell Encyclopedia Of Management* (2nd ed.). UK: Blackwell Publishing.
- Nielsen, K., Yarker, J., Randall. R., & Munir, F. (2009). The mediating effects of team and self-efficacy on the relationship between transformational leadership, and job satisfaction and psychological well-being in healthcare professionals: A cross-sectional questionnaire survey. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 46, 1236–1244.
- Nourollahi, H., Nikbakhsh, R., & Esmaeili, M.R. (2011). The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership of Female Coaches on Golestan Province. *Researcher in Sport Science Quarterly*, 2(1), 31-38.
- Nunnally, J.C., & Bernstein, I.H. (1994). *Psychometric Theory* (3rd ed.), New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Oginska-Bulik, N. (2005). Emotional Intelligence In The Workplace: Exploring Its Effects On Occupational Stress And Health Outcomes In Human Service Workers. *International Journal of Occupational Medicine and Environmental Health*, 18(2), 167 – 175.
- Olmstead, J.A. (2000). *Executive leadership: building world class organizations*. Houston, Tex : Cashman Dudley.
- Palmer, B.R., Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2003). *The relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and effective leadership*. Paper presented at 5th Australian Industrial and Organizational Psychology Conference, Melbourne.
- Palmer, B., & Stough, C. (2001). *SUEIT Interim Technical Manual (Version 2)*. Swinburne University: Swinburne Organisational Psychology Unit.
- Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., & Stough, C. (2001). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(1), 5 – 10.

- Pazy, A., & Ganzach, Y. (2009). Pay Contingency and the Effects of Perceived Organizational and Supervisor Support on Performance and Commitment. *Journal of Management*, 35(4), 1007-1025.
- Piccolo, R.F., & Colquitt, J.A. (2006). Transformational Leadership and Job Behaviors: the Mediating Role of Core Job Characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(2), 327 – 340.
- Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C.A., & Williams, E.S. (1999). Fairness Perceptions and Trust as Mediators for Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Two-Sample Study. *Journal of Management*, 25(6), 897-933.
- Pillai, R., & Williams, E.A. (2004). Transformational leadership, self-efficacy, group cohesiveness, commitment, and performance. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 17(2), 144 – 159.
- Podsakoff, P.M., Mackenzie, S.B., & Bommer, W.H. (1996). Transformational leadership behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 22, 259 -298.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Mackenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1, 107–142.
- Polychroniou, P.V. (2009). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership of supervisors. The impact on team effectiveness. *Team Performance Management*, 15(7/8), 343-356.
- Pool, S., & Pool, B. (2007). A Management development model. Measuring organizational commitment and its impact on job satisfaction among executives in a learning organization. *Journal of Management Development*, 26(4), 353-369.
- Popper, M., & Zakkai, E. (1994). Transactional, Charismatic and Transformational Leadership: Conditions Conducive to their Predominance. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 15(6), 3-7.

- Rahim, A., & Psenicka, C. (2002). A model of emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies. A study in seven countries. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 10(4), 302 – 326.
- Rahim, M.A., & Minors, P. (2003). Effects of emotional intelligence on concern for quality and problem solving. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 18(2), 150-155.
- Rahim, S.H. (2010). Emotional Intelligence and Stress: An Analytical Study of Pakistan Banks. *International Journal of Trade, Economics and Finance*, 1(2), 194-199.
- Rahman, M., Ferdousy, S., & Uddin, M. (2012). Examining the relationships between emotional intelligence and the components of transformational leadership. *The ABAC Journal*, 32(1), 45-59.
- Roberts, R. D., Zeidner, M., & Matthews, G. (2001). Does emotional intelligence meet traditional standards for an intelligence? Some new data and conclusions. *Emotion*, 1, 196-231
- Rocha, C., & Chelladurai, P. (2008). Perceived organizational support and employee performance: The mediating role of organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior. North American Society for Sport Management Conference (NASSM 2008). 231-232.
- Rode, J.C., Mooney, C.H., Arthaud-Day, M.L., Near, J.P., Baldwin, T.T., Rubin, R.R., & Bommer, W.H. (2007). Emotional intelligence and individual performance: Evidence of direct and moderated effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28, 399 – 421.
- Rosete, D., & Ciarrochi, J. (2005). Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 26(5), 388-399.
- Salovey, P., & Grewal, D. (2005). The Science of Emotional Intelligence. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(6), 281 – 285.
- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J.D. (1990). Emotional Intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3), 185 – 211.
- Sarros, J.C., & Santora, J.C. (2001). The transformational-transactional leadership model in practice. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(8), 383-393.

- Sayeed, O. B., & Shanker, M. (2009). Emotionally intelligent managers and transformational leadership styles.. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, 44(4), 593-610.
- Schutte, N.S., Malouff, J.M., Hall, L.E., Haggerty, D.J., Cooper, J.T., Golden, C.J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25, 167 -177.
- Schutte, N.S, Malouff, J.M., & Thorsteinsson, E.B. (2013). Increasing Emotional Intelligence through Training: Current Status and Future Directions. *The International Journal of Emotional Education*, 5(1), 56-72.
- Shi, Y., Olson, D.L. & Stam, A. (2007) *Advances in Multiple Criteria Decision Making and Human Systems Management: Knowledge and Wisdom*, IOS Press, Amsterdam.
- Sivanathan, N., & Fekken, G.C. (2002). Emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and transformational leadership. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 23, 198–204.
- Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2002). Health, performance and emotional intelligence: an exploratory study of retail managers. *Stress and Health*, 18, 63 – 68.
- Slaski, M., & Cartwright, S. (2003). Emotional intelligence training and its implications for stress, health and performance. *Stress and Health*, 19, 233-239.
- Smith, P.C., Kendall, L.M., & Hullin, C.L. (1969). *The measurement of Satisfaction in Work and Retirement*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Sosik, T.J., & Megerian, L.E. (1999). Understanding Leader Emotional Intelligence and Performance: The Role of Self-Other Agreement on Transformational Leadership Perceptions. *Group & Organization Management*, 24(3), 367 – 390.
- Spector, P.E. (1997). *Job Satisfaction: Application, Assessment. Causes and Consequences*. USA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Spielberger, C. (Ed.). (2004). *Encyclopedia of Applied Psychology*, Oxford, Boston: Elsevier Academic Press.

- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: dimensions, measurement and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 1442–1465.
- Staniforth, D., & West, M. (1995). Leading and managing teams. *Team Performance Management*, 1(2), 28 – 33.
- StatSoft, Inc. (2012). STATISTICA (data analysis software system), version 11. Retrieved from www.statsoft.com.
- Storey, J. (Ed.). (2004). *Leadership in organizations : current issues and key trends*. London: Routledge.
- Straub D., Boudreau M. C., & Gefen D. (2004) Validation Guidelines for IS Positivist Research. *Communication of the Association for Information Systems*, 14, 380–426.
- Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L.A. (2006). Relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 68, 461-473.
- Thorndike, E.L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Magazine*, 140, 227 – 235.
- Urbach, N., and Ahlemann F. (2010). Structural Equation Modeling in Information Systems Research Using Partial Least Squares. *Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application*, 11(2), 5 - 40.
- Vandenberghe, C., Stordeur, S., & D'hoore, W. (2002). Transactional and Transformational Leadership in Nursing: Structural Validity and Substantive Relationships. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 18(1), 16-29.
- Van Rooy, D.L., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004). Emotional Intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65(1), 71-95.
- Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J.K., Verbeek, J.H.A.M., & Frings-Dresen, M.H.W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction – a systematic review. *Occupational medicine*, 53(3), 191-200.
- Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2004). Strategic Leadership and Organizational Learning. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(2), 222 – 240.

- Wang, H., Law, K. S., Hackett, R., Wang, D. X., & Chen, Z. X. (2005). Leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and followers' performance and organizational citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48(3), 420 – 432.
- Wang, Y.S., & Huang, T.C. (2009). The relationship of transformational leadership with group cohesiveness and emotional intelligence. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 37, 379-392.
- Wayne, S.J., Shore, L.M., & Liden, R.C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Wells, J.E., & Peachy, J.W. (2011). Turnover Intentions. Do leadership behaviors and satisfaction with the leader matter? *Team Performance Management*, 17(1/2), 23-40.
- Wexley, K.N., & Yukl, G.A. (1984). *Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology*. United States of America: Richard D.Irwin, Inc.
- Whittington, J.L., Goodwin, V.L., & Murray, B. (2004). Transformational leadership, goal difficulty, and job design: Independent and interactive effects on employee outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 593-606.
- Wolff, S.B. (2006). *Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), Technical Manual*, Hay Group, McClelland Center for Research and Innovation, Boston, MA.
- Woo, B., & Chelladurai, P. (2012). Dynamics of perceived support and work attitudes: The case of fitness club employees. *Human Resource Management Review*, 2 (1), 6-18.
- Yeo, R.K. (2006). Developing tomorrow's leaders: why their worldviews of today matter? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38(2), 63 – 69.
- Yoon, M.H., Seo, F.H., & Yoon, T.S. (2004). Effects of contact employee supports on critical employee responses and customer service evaluation. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 18(5), 395-412.
- Yousef, D.A. (2000). Organizational commitment: a mediator of the relationships of leadership behaviour with job satisfaction and performance in a non-western country. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(1), 6-28.

Zeidner, M., Matthews, G. ,& Roberts, R.D. (2004). Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace: A Critical Review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 53(3), 371 – 399.

Zopiatis, A., & Constanti, P. (2010). Leadership styles and burnout: is there an association? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 22(3), 300 – 320.

APPENDIX ONE: CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITEIT•STELLENBOSCH•UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

ORGANISATIONAL CONSENT FORM

Hereby I, _____ (Name and Surname) give Chené Roux (Master's student at the University of Stellenbosch) permission to distribute questionnaires comprising the relevant measures for the purpose of generating data for her master's thesis (*Modification, Elaboration and Empirical Evaluation of the Beyers' Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership Model*) within _____ (Name of organization). The purpose of the study has been explained as well as the manner in which the data generated will be used.

A coding system will be used to ensure the anonymity of the participants. Managers/Supervisors/Team leaders will be rating themselves with informed consent on the following constructs:

- Emotional Intelligence
- Transformational Leadership

Managers will also be informed that they will be rated by their subordinates on their emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviours.

Subordinates will be rating the managers/supervisors/team leaders on:

- Emotional Intelligence
- Transformational Leadership

Subordinates will also be rating themselves with regard to:

- Job satisfaction
- Organizational Commitment
- Perceived Supervisor Support

Signed (please print name and sign): _____

Position in the participating organisation: _____

Date: _____

APPENDIX TWO: SUBORDINATES INFORMED CONSENT FORM



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH: SUBORDINATES

MODIFICATION, ELABORATION AND EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE BEYER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATION LEADERSHIP MODEL

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Miss Chené Roux, from the Industrial Psychology Department at Stellenbosch University. The results obtained will contribute to the completion of a Masters of Commerce degree in Human Resource Management. The results of this study will contribute to the completion of the thesis component of this postgraduate programme. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a subordinate in an organisation who can give a valuable input to the data gathering process of this study.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Research has confirmed the vital role of leadership in organizations. Leaders' behaviour affects employees' attitudes and performance, and therefore also organizational success. It is therefore critical to identify factors that contribute to leadership effectiveness. It has been argued that leaders with a higher level of Emotional Intelligence are more effective. In this light, the present study will therefore analyse the effect of emotional intelligence of the effectiveness of leaders by assessing the perceived supervisory support of subordinates, as well as their levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

2. PROCEDURE

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to evaluate yourself and the behaviours of your supervisor / manager by means of filling out a questionnaire. There are no right or wrong responses; we are merely interested in your personal opinions. The completion of the questionnaires will take place at a time and location that is convenient to you and the researcher and would require approximately 35 - 40 minutes of your time.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Given that you as a subordinate will rate your own perceived supervisory support, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as the behaviours of your manager / supervisor (emotional intelligence and leadership) there is a slight risk of discomfort for you due to the knowledge that you are rating your supervisor / manager. Furthermore, your satisfaction with your manager / supervisor may be implicitly reflected in your rating of your manager / supervisor. However, please note that these ratings will be completely confidential and anonymous (a coding system will be used to protect your identity) and no information will be shared with any decision makers in the participating company. The data will only be utilised for research purposes and will not in any way inform any performance management decisions related to yourself or your manager / supervisor.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Participation in this study has no direct benefit to the individual participant. Feedback on the results of the survey will be provided to the organisations in aggregated form, which participated in this study. The results can show whether the need exists to develop interventions and training programmes in terms of these constructs. It may prove to be beneficial in terms of the recruitment and retention of effective employees, as well as serve as a basis for developing leaders.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No payment will be made to participants for taking part in this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of a coding procedure. The results of this study will be published in the form of a completed dissertation as well as in an accredited journal, but confidentiality will be maintained. Participant's names will not be published.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Chené Roux (14616580@sun.ac.za / 071 854 0800) or Dr G Görgens (ekermans@sun.ac.za / 021 808 3596).

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University.

CONSENT FORM (please tick the appropriate box):

I hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study. I agree that my data may be integrated into a summary of the results of all the questionnaires without identifying me personally.

I don't want to participate in this study.

APPENDIX THREE: SUPERVISORS INFORMED CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY**CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH: MANAGERS / SUPERVISORS**

MODIFICATION, ELABORATION AND EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF THE BEYER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATION LEADERSHIP MODEL

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Miss Chené Roux, from the Industrial Psychology Department at Stellenbosch University. The results obtained will contribute to the completion of a Masters of Commerce degree in Human Resource Management. The results of this study will contribute to the completion of the thesis component of this postgraduate programme. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are a manager / supervisor in an organisation who can give a valuable input to the data gathering process of this study.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Research has confirmed the vital role of leadership in organizations. Leaders' behaviour affects employees' attitudes and performance, and therefore also organizational success. It is therefore critical to identify factors that contribute to leadership effectiveness. It has been argued that leaders with a higher level of Emotional Intelligence are more effective. In this light, the present study will therefore analyse the effect of emotional intelligence on the effectiveness of leaders by assessing the perceived supervisory support of subordinates, as well as their levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

2. PROCEDURE

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked to evaluate yourself by means of filling out a questionnaire measuring your transformational leadership and emotional intelligence behaviours. There are no right or wrong responses; we are merely interested in your personal opinions. The completion of the questionnaires will take place at a time and location that is convenient to you and the researcher and would require approximately 20 minutes of your time.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Given that each participating manager's employees (a minimum of two employees) will rate their own perceived supervisory support, job satisfaction and organisational commitment, as well as their leader / supervisor's emotional intelligence and transformational leadership behaviours, there is a slight risk of discomfort to yourself (the manager / supervisor) due to the knowledge that your performance as a supervisor / manager may be implicitly reflected in the rating of the employee. However, these ratings will be completely confidential and no information will be shared with any decision makers in the participating company. The data will only be utilised for research purposes and will not in any way inform any performance management decisions.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

Participation in this study has no direct benefit to the individual participant. Feedback on the aggregated results of the survey will be provided to the organisations that participated in this study. The results can be an indication of whether the need exists to develop interventions and training programmes in terms of these constructs. It may prove to be beneficial in terms of the recruitment and retention of effective employees, as well as serve as a basis for developing leaders.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

No payment will be made to participants for taking part in this study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of a coding procedure. The results of this study will be published in the form of a completed dissertation as well as in an accredited journal, but confidentiality will be maintained. Participant's names will not be published.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact Chené Roux (14616580@sun.ac.za / 071 854 0800) or Dr G Görgens (ekermans@sun.ac.za / 021 808 3596).

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development, Stellenbosch University.

CONSENT FORM (please tick the appropriate box):

I hereby consent to voluntarily participate in this study. I agree that my data may be integrated into a summary of the results of all the questionnaires without identifying me personally.

I don't want to participate in this study.