

**EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORK ENGAGEMENT OF LEADERS
IN A FINANCIAL SERVICES ORGANISATION UNDERGOING CHANGE**

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Magister Commercii in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of
Economic and Management Sciences, at the University of the Western Cape.



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May 2011

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the “Emotional Intelligence and Work Engagement of Leaders” is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other institution of higher learning, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references. It is being submitted for the degree of Magister Commercii at the University of the Western Cape.

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Date:

May 2011

Signed:



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

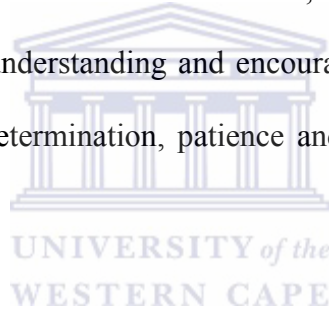
This dissertation is dedicated to my late grandfather, Ronald Dennis McAvoy, who passed away on

April 13, 2011.

I hereby wish to express my gratitude to the following people who played a role in enabling me to complete this dissertation:

First, I give praise and honour to my God and Saviour for blessing me with the necessary talents, courage, strength and tenacity to persevere.

To my parents, Leon and Laetitia Permall and sister, Roche Permall who gave their blessing, complete support, understanding and encouragement. Thank you for being role models of hard work, determination, patience and perseverance to achieve my dreams. I love you dearly.



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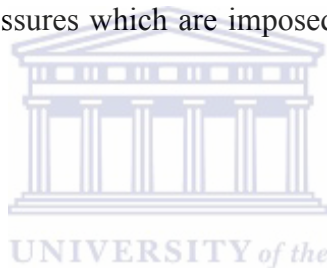
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ABSTRACT

Beeka (2006), postulates that “Leadership is the single most important catalyst for change in any country or organisation”. It is hence important for organisations to ensure that they and their employees are prepared for change. Ndlovu and Parumasur (2005) maintain that tremendous pressure is put on organisations to improve their performance and increase their competitiveness in this continuously changing world of work, which is characterised by life-long learning, risk taking, speed and change, networking and measuring outputs (Wentzel & Geldenhuis, 2005). Organisations are by nature, dynamic entities that continuously undergo transformation in response to both internal and external pressures which are imposed on them (Robbins, Odendaal & Roodt, 2003).



The 21st Century has awakened a call for “new” leaders to cope with the demands of the hyperturbulent and dynamic nature of organisations which are increasingly being based on flatter structures, and a more democratic style of leadership. Lewis, Goodman and Fandt (1998, p. 14, cited by Beeka, 2006) maintain that “We are faced with a condition of rapid, dramatic, complex and unpredictable change that has a significant effect on the ways in which organisations are managed.” When looking at the changing competencies of the “new” leader, Coetzee and Schaap (2005) postulate that leadership takes into consideration the emotional attributes as well as the rational aspects of the individual, as leadership, relationships and the culture of the organisation play an important role in an organisations’ success (Nowack, n.d). From this it is clear that the leaders of today would have to be emotionally intelligent to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals.

Van Schalkwyk, Du Toit, Bothma and Rothmann (2010) state the earlier view on management, that is based on the maxim that ‘the manager in control and the employee being controlled’, leaders influence, rather than empower, their subordinates is outdated (Kark, Shamir & Chen, 2003). It is therefore necessary to move toward a leadership style that allows for the empowerment and engagement of employees (Carson & King, 2005).

Employee engagement (May, Gilson & Harter, 2004) is argued to be an important concept to consider when dealing with changes at work and improving performance. Engaged employees have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities and see themselves as able to deal completely with the demands of their jobs (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzáles-Romá & Bakker, 2002). According to Kahn (1990, p. 700), employee engagement entails ‘the simultaneous employment and expression of a person’s preferred self in task behaviours that promote connections to work and others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active full role performances’. Kahn (1990) and May et al. (2004) note that, in order for the human spirit to thrive at work, individuals must be able to engage themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically.

Employee engagement is defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, et al., 2002, p. 74). Sartain, Lin and Schumann (2006) maintains that it is imperative for leaders to understand about employees as a basis for how to reach out to them in new ways – and consider, as leaders, how leader behaviour may need to change.

Research (Sartain et al., 2006) indicates that engagement demands a more thoughtful way to address the everyday realities of organisational life. The current research endeavours to elucidate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement amongst leaders in a financial service organisation undergoing change.

A sample size of 104 middle and senior level managers were requested to complete a biographical questionnaire, Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and the Employee Engagement survey. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between the dimensions of employee engagement and emotional intelligence in a financial services organisation undergoing change. Moreover, these variables (vigour, dedication and absorption) significantly explained the variance in emotional intelligence. Due to the research design involving a non-probability sample, the results, should, however, be interpreted with caution. Nevertheless, some useful insights into the nature of the relationship between these constructs serves as an impetus for future research.

Key Words:

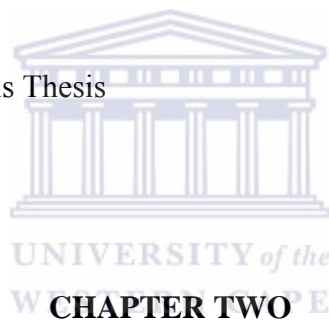
Emotional Intelligence, Emotions, Intelligence, Work Engagement, Leadership, Management, Emotional Competence, Social Competence, Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

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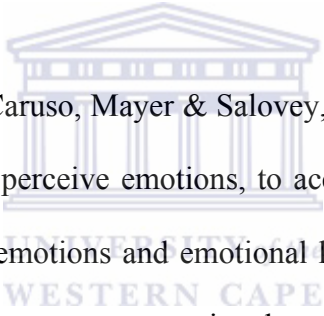


CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction

In recent years there has been renewed interest in emotional intelligence and work engagement amongst leaders. Suchy (2002, p. 1) postulates that when a good leader can engage the hearts of others, others are inclined to follow. This she maintains, does not relate to leaders “wearing their hearts on their sleeves or necessarily following their hearts. It is about leadership using emotional intelligence competencies”.



Mayer and Salovey (cited in Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002, p. 56) define emotional intelligence as the “ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth”. This essentially means that emotional intelligence refers to one’s ability to recognize and regulate emotions in oneself and others (Goleman, 2001).

Kapp (2000, p. 151) proffers the view that emotional intelligence can be perceived as “that part of the human spirit which motivates us to perform, which gives us energy to demonstrate behaviours such as intentionality, persistence, creativity, impulse control, social deftness, compassion, intuition and integrity. It provides the individual with the personal power to demonstrate a positive outlook, trust other people and to perform optimally”. For this study Emotional Intelligence looks at the four branch ability

model which is divided into: identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

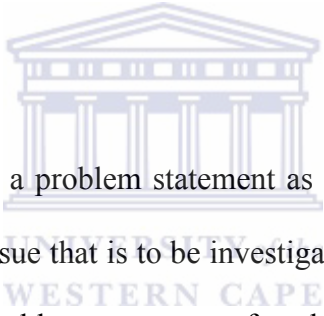
The four branch ability model according to Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004, p. 199), describes the following: The first branch, identifying emotions refers to the ability to recognize how an individual and those around them feel. The second branch, using emotions focuses on the ability to generate an emotion, and then reason with that emotion. The third branch Understanding Emotion describes the ability to understand complex emotions and emotional chains. The last branch, Managing Emotions allows one to manage emotion in oneself and others.

Amongst the variables which emotional intelligence has been shown to influence relates to the concept of employee engagement, which has been defined as “a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption” (Schaufeli, Salanova, González-Romá & Bakker, 2002, p. 74). This has led to an increasing emphasis in shifting the focus toward a leadership style that allows for the empowerment of employees (Carson & King, 2005).

1.2 Motivation for the study

Leadership and relationships play a key role in organisational success. Recent research on the association between employee satisfaction and job performance suggests that the single most important contributor to the feelings of employee engagement is based on the relationship they have with the leaders of the organisation. It is important for leaders to be aware of the way they engage with their subordinates and relates to several competencies including self awareness, empathy, adaptability and self confidence. Emotional Intelligence can be learned and it affects the way leaders make decisions. (Nelson & Quick, 2006).

1.3 Problem Statement



Sekaran (2000, p. 68) defines a problem statement as a “clear, precise, and succinct statement of the question or issue that is to be investigated with the goal of finding an answer or solution”. The problem statement for this study therefore relates to exploring whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement of leaders in a financial services organisation undergoing change.

1.4 Objectives

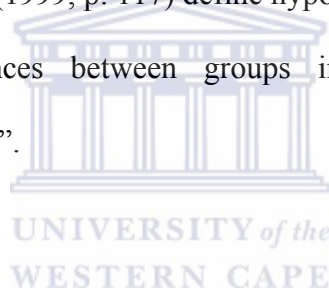
The primary objective of this study is to establish whether or not there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement amongst middle and senior managers in a financial services organisation undergoing change.

The research aims to achieve the following objectives:

- To identify whether or not there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement of leaders
- To unpack the importance of emotional intelligence and work engagement in leaders within an organisation undergoing change
- To make suggestions to leaders for adapting to a changing environment within a financial services organisation

1.5 Hypothesis

Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 117) define hypotheses as “educated guesses or expectations about differences between groups in the population or about relationships among variables”.



1.5.1 Hypothesis 1

There is a statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence and work engagement of leaders in a financial services organisation undergoing change.

1.6 Structure of thesis

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the research topic. The motivation, objectives of the investigation and the problem statement are delineated. In addition, hypotheses are developed.

Chapter 2 represents an overview of the theoretical background of the two variables: emotional intelligence and engagement.

Chapter 3 addresses the research design and methodology which focus on the research problem with specific reference to how this study was conducted, highlighting the sampling design, measuring instruments and statistical tests to be conducted.

Chapter 4 provides a presentation of the analysis and research findings obtained from conducting the statistical tests to test the hypotheses.

Chapter 5 discusses the most significant results of the previous chapters. Based on the emanating results, inferences are drawn and incorporated with existing literature. Furthermore, limitations and practical implications of the research findings are accentuated and recommendations for future research are delineated.

1.7 Conclusion

In this chapter the objective of introducing the variables, which are of relevance to this study are accomplished. The study also highlights the motivation for conducting this study and the problem statement has been accurately defined. The objective of the study has been explored, the hypotheses introduced and the structure of the thesis delineated. This chapter is a preamble to the chapters which follow.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The current chapter serves to review important perspectives and more recent models of the emotional intelligence construct; bind it to the work environment and leadership; and review criticism that has been levelled in this regard.

2.2 Historical Roots of Emotional Intelligence

Wechsler (1940, cited in Prins, 2006), who referred to EQ as the non-cognitive intellectual aspects of general intelligence, defined intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his (or her) environment”. This was followed up by the theories which were proposed by Gardner (1983; 1993; 1999) who maintained that intrapersonal intelligence, intrapsychic capacity and interpersonal skills constituted the ability to understand oneself. On the other hand, interpersonal intelligence was postulated to include the ability to read moods, desires and intentions of others and to act on this knowledge (Bar-On, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1995).

In later years, Bar-On (1997), argued that general intelligence includes both cognitive and emotional intelligence and viewed personal intelligence as the precursors of emotional intelligence.

Prins's (2006) research contends that, based on earlier conceptions, emotional intelligence aims at understanding and relating to the self and others and coping successfully with the immediate context.

According to Bar-On, emotional intelligence is tactical and aimed at immediate functioning, whilst cognitive intelligence is more strategic, with long-term capacity. Emotional intelligence reflects one's ability to manage the immediate situation successfully by applying available knowledge. EI thus measures a person's "common sense" and ability to adapt to the world's demands. (Prins, 2006).

2.2.1 Definition of emotions

In order to understand the concept of emotional intelligence, it is deemed expedient to first understand and unpack the concept of emotions. Caruso (2000, p. 267, cited in Beeka, 2006), defines emotions as "internal events that co-ordinate many psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions, and conscious awareness. Kapp (2000, p. 151), posits the view that the average usage of the term refers to "a state of consciousness having to do with arousal or feeling".

De Villiers and Nel (2004, p. 76), present a definition of emotion based on the perspective of Leeper (1948), which depicts emotion as "organising". Moreover, they propose an alternative view which is presented by Arnold (1970), and sees emotion as "more chaotic, disorganizing and interfering in human behaviour" (Beeka, 2006).

Cooper (1998, cited in Rothman, Scholtz, Sipsma & Sipsma, 2002, p. 2), highlighted research that showed that “emotions when properly managed, drive trust, loyalty and commitment and account for productivity gains, innovations and individual, team and organisational accomplishments”. In conjunction with this, Bergh and Theron (2004), are of the opinion that emotions can be seen as skills in themselves that play a part in motivation. According to Mayer and Salovey (2002), a manager who can think about emotions accurately and clearly may often be better able to anticipate, cope with and effectively manage change.

2.2.2 Definition of intelligence

Sternberg (cited in Louw, 1991), defines intelligence as the individual’s ability to represent information mentally, process information and solve problems. Intelligence, in psychology, refers to the general mental ability involved in calculating, reasoning, perceiving relationships and analogies, learning quickly, storing and retrieving information, using language fluently, classifying, generalizing and adjusting to new situations. Binet, defined intelligence as the totality of mental processes involved in adapting to the environment. Although there remains a strong tendency to view intelligence as a purely intellectual or cognitive function, considerable evidence suggests that intelligence has many facets. Pfeiffer (cited in Koonce, 2006, p. 1) has suggested that most theorists tend to agree that intelligence is “goal-directed mental activity that is marked by efficient problem solving, critical thinking, and effective abstract reasoning.” (Beeka, 2006).

Sadock and Sadock (2000, p. 684) define intelligence as the: “capacity for learning and ability to recall, integrate constructively and apply what one has learned; the capacity to understand and think rationally”. This capacity was, traditionally measured and expressed as an “IQ” or intelligence quotient. However, as early as 1920, Thorndike (as quoted by Hedlund & Sternberg, 2000) already argued in favour of social ability as an important component of intelligence. He defined social intelligence as the ability to act or behave wisely in relation to others and distinguished social intelligence from the mechanical and abstract forms of intelligence (Prins, 2006)

2.2.4 Definition of emotional intelligence

As a relatively new concept, the term emotional intelligence has a plethora of definitions. Theorists have proposed a multitude of definitions with one such proponent, Bar-On (1997, p. 14) defines as “an array of noncognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. The central tenet of Bar-Ons’ (1997) hypothesis pivots on the axial point that emotional intelligence is an important predictor of success in life and directly influences an individual’s general psychological well-being and health.

Bar-On (2003, p. 4) defines emotional intelligence thus: “to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express ourselves, to understand and relate well to others, and to successfully cope with daily demands and pressures.

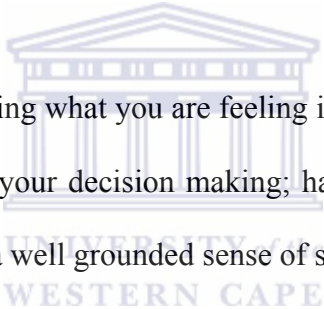
This is based, first and foremost, on our intrapersonal ability to be aware of ourselves, to understand our strengths and weaknesses, and to express our thoughts and feelings non-destructively. On the interpersonal level, being emotionally and socially intelligent encompasses our ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, to be compassionate and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships". Similarly, Bradberry and Greaves (2003) define EQ as an individual's ability to use awareness of emotions to manage behaviour and relationships with others (Vrba, 2007).

Coetzee and Schaap (2005) cite the work of Weisinger (1998, p .xvi), by offering a simplified definition of emotional intelligence as: "the intelligent use of emotions: you intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to help guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhances your results". In a similar vein, Elder (1997, p. 41) suggests that emotional intelligence can thus most simply "be conceived as a measure of the degree to which a person successfully (or unsuccessfully) applies sound judgment and reasoning to situations in the process of determining an emotional or feeling response to those situations".

Senge (1990), links emotional intelligence to elevated levels of personal mastery and maintains that emotional intelligence allows scanning through choices or scenarios, to facilitate efficient and effective decision-making. Goleman (2001, p. 27) defines EI as "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work".

Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000) provide a broader definition and explain that it encompasses a set of mental abilities, including the ability to perceive emotions, access and generate emotion to assist thought, understand and reason about emotion, and reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Goleman (1998) adapted Salovey and Mayers definition of emotional intelligence, able to monitor and regulate ones' own feelings and others' feelings, and to use feelings to guide thought and action, into understanding how these talents matter in the work life. The adaption includes these five basic emotional and social competencies (Elliott, n.d):

- 
- **Self awareness-** knowing what you are feeling in the moment, and using those preferences to guide your decision making; having a realistic assessment of our own abilities and a well grounded sense of self confidence;
 - **Self regulation-** handling our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand; being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals; recovering well from emotional distress.
 - **Motivation-** using our deepest preferences to move and guide us toward our goals, to help us take initiative and strive to improve, and to persevere in the face of setbacks and frustrations
 - **Empathy-** sensing what people are feeling, being able to take their perspective, and cultivating rapport and attunement with the broad diversity of people

- **Social skills-** handling emotions in relationships well and accurately reading social situations and networks; interacting smoothly; using these skills to persuade and lead; negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork.

According to his model of EQ- emotional-social intelligence is an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies and skills that determine how effectively individuals understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures (Bar-On, 2010).

2.2.5 Concepts related to EQ competencies

2.2.5.1 Social Competence

According to Topping, Bremner and Holmes (2000, p. 32), social competence is “the possession and use of the ability to integrate thinking, feeling, and behaviour to achieve social tasks and outcomes valued in the host context and culture”. Socially competent people select and control which behaviours to apply in pursuit of any given objective either set by them, or prescribed by others, and within a given context. Thus, within the work context, such individuals may be self-assertive without being aggressive, thereby regulating the environment to their advantage (Prins, 2006).

2.2.5.2 Emotional Competence

Saarni (2000, pp. 68-69) views emotional competence as “the demonstration of self-efficacy in emotion-eliciting social transactions” and “Mature emotional competence assumes that moral character and ethical values influence one’s emotional responses in ways that promote personal integrity”. Prins (2006) maintains, however, that all individuals will at some stage experience some emotional incompetence when unprepared for or overextended within a particular social context.

According to Saarni (2000), the most important contributor to the development of emotional competence is the self (or ego identity), the moral disposition, and a person’s developmental history - all situated in a particular cultural context and time. The consequences of emotional competence include an effective skill to manage one’s emotions (critical in negotiating one’s way within interpersonal exchanges); a sense of subjective well-being, together with adaptive resilience when faced by stressful circumstances. When individuals acquire the skill of emotional competence, their behaviour will mirror it (Prins, 2006).

2.3 Models of Emotional Intelligence

Today, there are three generally accepted conceptual models of EI:

- (1) **The Salovey-Mayer model**, which is primarily cognitive.
- (2) **The Goleman model**, which is directed at emotional domains and competencies.
- (3) **The Bar-On model** focuses on behavioural traits.

2.3.1 Mayer and Salovey's Four branch Framework of Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Salovey (1997) conceptualise EI as a four branch model describing four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many areas of emotional intelligence. This model (as depicted in Figure 2.1) defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities to:

1. **Accurately perceive emotions in oneself and others:** this has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion.
2. **The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others** provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.
3. **Use emotions to facilitate thinking:** this refers to the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking.
4. **Understand emotional meanings:** understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill.
5. **Manage emotions:** emotions often can be managed, it becomes possible to regulate and manage one's own and others' emotions so as to promote one's own and others' personal and social goals.

Mayer (cited in Mayer et al., 2004, p. 197) explains that the “order of the branches, from perception to management, represents the degree to which the ability is integrated within the rest of an individuals' major psychological subsystems—that is, within his or her overall personality”.

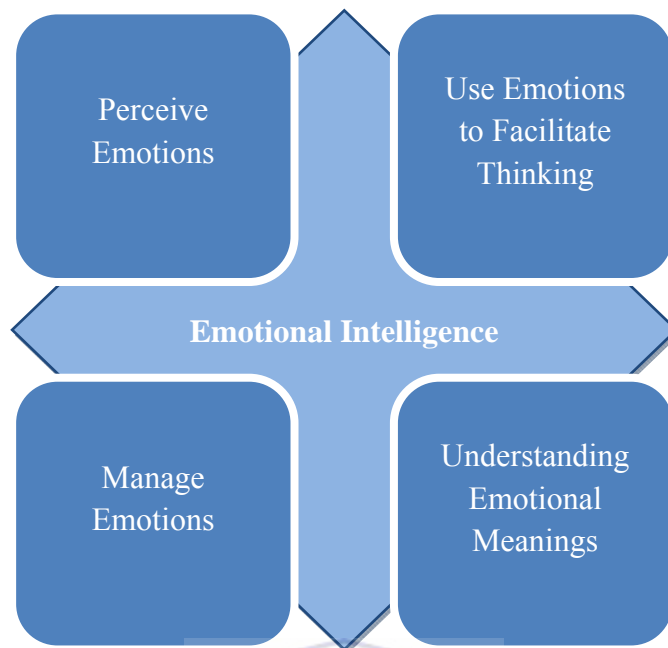


Figure 2.1: Mayer and Salovey's Four Branch Framework of Emotional Intelligence



2.3.2 Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory

Goleman (2001, p.27) defines EI as “a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work”. Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000) demonstrate a longstanding interest in the workplace and what supports exceptional leadership, management and effectiveness in the work context. These authors base their model of EI on those competencies enabling individuals to demonstrate intelligent use of their emotions in effectively managing both themselves and others at work. They view EI as a convenient phrase to focus attention on human talent and to anchor the consequences of the individual's behaviour; and more specifically, success or effectiveness at work.

An early model of Goleman (1999), where he developed a theory of work performance based on social and emotional competencies, which reflects a tradition that emphasises the identification of competencies that can be used to predict work performance across a variety of organisational settings, often with an emphasis on those in leadership positions. He presented a model of emotional intelligence with twenty-five competencies arranged in five clusters:

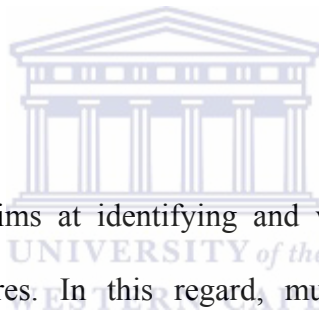
Table 2.1 - (Adapted from The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence In Organisations).

Personal Competence	Social Competence
<p style="text-align: center;">Self-Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence 	<p style="text-align: center;">Social Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Service orientation • Developing others • Leveraging diversity • Political Awareness
<p style="text-align: center;">Self-Regulation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Innovativeness 	<p style="text-align: center;">Social Skills</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Influence • Communication • Leadership • Change catalyst • Conflict Management • Building bonds • Collaboration & cooperation • Team capabilities
<p style="text-align: center;">Self-Motivation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement drive • Commitment • Initiative • Optimism 	

McGarvey (1997) maintains that those individuals with the highest emotional intelligence excel at four interrelated skills:

1. the ability to persist and stay motivated in the face of frustration;
2. the ability to control impulses;
3. the ability to control their emotions; and
4. the ability to empathize with others.

McGarvey (1997) claims that these factors are now considered to have greater impact on individual and group performance than traditional measures of intelligence such as IQ.

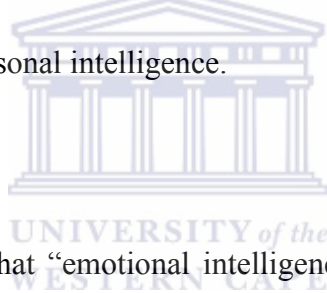


The competency approach aims at identifying and validating specific capabilities against effectiveness measures. In this regard, much research has focused on explaining and predicting effectiveness in various occupations with a particular focus on managers and leaders (Boyatzis, 1982, Luthans, Hodgetts & Rosenkrantz, 1988; McClelland, 1973; Spencer & Spencer, 1993). Goleman's (1995) interest lies with linking emotional intelligence to a theory of action and job performance.

Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee's (2000), attempted to provide an insight into the characteristics that predict better performance in a quest for greater effectiveness at work whilst simultaneously striving for more fulfilling and balanced lives.

They maintain that clusters of behavioural groups constitute desired competencies, defined by a theory, often linked conceptually, and provide a convenient way to describe which competencies are associated with or related to others.

In later studies, Goleman (2001), his most parsimonious definition suggests that EI includes the abilities to recognise and regulate emotions in oneself and in others. Four domains, namely Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management are included. According to Goleman (2001) the concepts of *self awareness and self management* relate to what Gardner (1983) labels as intrapersonal intelligence, whilst Social Awareness and Relationship Management fit into his definition of inter-personal intelligence.



Boyatzis et al. (2000) hold that “emotional intelligence is observed when a person demonstrates the competencies that constitute self-awareness, self- management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times and in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation” (p.344).

Personal Competence includes the abilities to manage oneself, whilst Social Competencies determine how individuals manage their relationships with others. Goleman (2001, p. 28) maintains that “Twenty competencies nest in four clusters of general EI abilities”, and that individuals cannot demonstrate competencies of Trustworthiness and Conscientiousness if they have not yet mastered the fundamental ability of Self-Management.

Goleman (2001) maintains that EI underscores an individual’s potential for learning those practical skills that underlie the four EI clusters. Moreover, he maintains that competence pertains to what extent individuals have realised this potential by learning and mastering skills to translate intelligence to on-the-job capabilities (Goleman, 2001, p. 28). Table 2.2 provides the framework of emotional competencies as conceptualised by Goleman (2001).

Table 2.2 - A Framework of Emotional Competencies (Goleman, 2001, p.28).

	Self (Personal Competence)	Other (Social Competence)
Recognition	<p>Self-Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-awareness • Accurate self-assessment • Self-confidence 	<p>Social Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Empathy • Service orientation • Organizational awareness
Regulation	<p>Self-Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional self-control • Trustworthiness • Conscientiousness • Adaptability • Achievement drive • Initiative 	<p>Relationship Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing others • Influence • Communication • Conflict management • Visionary leadership • Catalyzing change • Building bonds • Teamwork and collaboration

The above conceptualisation of emotional competencies forms the basis of the accompanying assessment instrument.

Based on empirical evidence, Goleman (1995; 2002) in conjunction with Boyatzis, developed the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI), which is a 360-degree instrument that gathers information from the self, subordinate, peer and supervisor on twenty social and emotional competencies (Gowing, 2001). The earlier instrument (Self-Assessment Questionnaire, SAQ), was developed from competencies validated against performance in numerous competency studies of managers. The questionnaire was also previously validated in a number of organisations in Italy and one large financial institution in Brazil (Prins, 2006).

The instrument, has however, been subjected to criticism by Mayer et al. (2000), who posit the view that Goleman, in attempting to capture almost everything but IQ under the term emotional intelligence, stretches the definition of intelligence beyond acceptable limits. Goleman (1998, pp. 26-27) includes emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, innovation, achievement drive, commitment, initiative, optimism, understanding others, influence, communication, cooperation, etcetera, in his conceptualisation of EI. According to Mayer et al. (2000) has yet to present any hard validity evidence substantiating that what he has defined as emotional intelligence, and has not provided empirical evidence for any of the variance in educational or job performance beyond IQ.

They (Mayer et al., 2000) further maintain that Goleman's work is primarily based on anecdotal evidence and furthermore (questionably) extrapolates from past research and his approach to EI was constantly changing to reflect a somewhat different set of personality attributes and then finally covering almost all of personality.

2.3.3 Bar-On's Model of Emotional Social Intelligence (ESI)

Bar-On's model of emotional social intelligence, influenced by the work of Darwin, Thorndike and Weschsler provides the theoretical basis for the EQ-i. According to this model, emotional-social intelligence is a cross section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands (Bar-On, 2005).

The Bar-On model of emotional social intelligence views EI in terms of the following dimensions:

1. Social awareness and interpersonal relationship:

- To be aware of and understand how others feel.
- To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others.
- To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.

2. Emotional management and regulation:

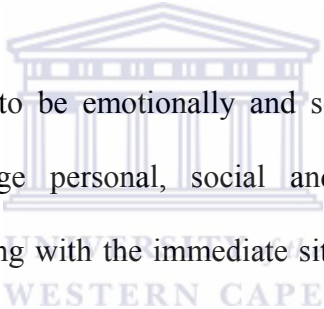
- To effectively and constructively control emotions.
- To effectively and constructively manage emotions.

3. Change management:

- To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality.
- To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations.
- To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.

4. Self-motivation:

- To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.
- To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.



Bar-On (2005) proffers that to be emotionally and socially intelligent implies the ability to effectively manage personal, social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation, solving problems, and making decisions.

Bar-On (1997, p. 14) views emotional intelligence as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures”. He adopted the term “emotional intelligence” since it reflects an aggregate of abilities, competencies and skills necessary to cope successfully with life’s demands, whilst the adjective emotional differentiates it from cognitive intelligence.

Bar-On's (1997), multi-factorial model broadened the view of the factors or emotional skills involved in emotional intelligence and postulates that the factorial components of emotional intelligence resemble personality and are open to change throughout life. His model is based on a faceted approach which covers 5 Composite Scales and 15 Content Scales, while also providing a Total EQ score for each individual.

1. Intrapersonal

This Component reflects an individual's understanding, expression and development of the inner self. Individuals who are on average well-developed in this area are in touch with their inner feelings, feel good about themselves and are positive about their lives. Well-developed individuals are competent at expressing their feelings, independent, strong and confident in expressing their ideas and beliefs.

2. Interpersonal

This reflects interpersonal skills and functioning. Individuals who are well-developed in this area are responsible, dependable and have well-developed social skills so that they interact and relate well with others.

3. Adaptability

This aspect relates to how competently an individual copes with environmental demands by being able to size up situations realistically and to deal with problematic situations. Individuals well-developed in this sphere are on average flexible, realistic, effective at understanding problematic situations and more competent at creating adequate solutions.

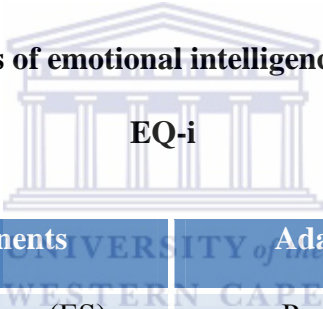
4. Stress Management

The stress management component relates to the ability to withstand stressors without losing control or falling apart. Individuals with more highly developed skills in this sphere tend to be calmer, are rarely impulsive, and tend to work well under pressure.

5. General Mood

This aspect of emotional and social functioning reflects the individual's ability to enjoy life and general level of contentment. Individuals who are well-developed in regard to this component tend to be positive, cheerful, hopeful and know how to enjoy life.

Table 2.3: The components of emotional intelligence measured by the Bar-On

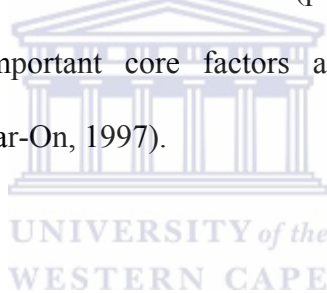


Intrapersonal Components	Adaptability Components
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emotional Self-awareness (ES) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Problem Solving (PS)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Assertiveness (AS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reality Testing (RT)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-Regard (SR) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Flexibility (FL)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Self-Actualisation (SA) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Independence (IN) 	<p style="text-align: center;">Stress Management</p>
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stress Tolerance (ST)
<p style="text-align: center;">Interpersonal Components</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Impulse Control (IC)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Empathy (EM) 	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Interpersonal Relationship (IR) 	<p style="text-align: center;">General Mood Components</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Social Responsibility (RE) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Happiness (H)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Optimism (OP)

(Bar-On, 1997 p.6)

Each of the components is made up of a number of sub-components as are reflected in Table 2.3 above (Bar-On, 1997).

Bar-On's (1997) research is conceptualised from two different perspectives: systemic and topographic. The *systemic view* holds that similar types of factors logically and statistically go together as is depicted in Table 2.3, for example, Interpersonal Components that include empathy, interpersonal relationship and social responsibility. In the topographic view, factorial components are grouped according to Core factors (emotional self-awareness, empathy, assertiveness); Supporting Factors (Self-regard, independence, optimism), and Resultant factors (problem solving, interpersonal relationships). The most important core factors are emotional self-awareness, assertiveness and empathy (Bar-On, 1997).

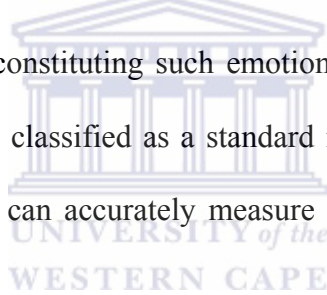


2.3.4 Emotional intelligence as a cognitive ability

Mayer et al. (2000) question portraying multiple aspects of personality such as assertiveness, Bar-On (1997), or service orientation, (Goleman, 1998), as a fair application of the mental ability concept. Mayer et al. (2000, p. 107) maintains that “personality traits such as sociability, conscientiousness or optimism do not, by themselves, indicate an intelligence is present, because none of them centrally concern problem solving”. Therefore, cognition, emotion and motivation saturate all personality (Mayer et al., 2000), and, as stated previously, it is important to note that the mere presence of some cognitive mental ability does not necessarily indicate an intelligence.

Some proponents of emotional intelligence surmise that intelligence rather consists of an array of mental abilities, and is characterised by an individual's ability to successfully complete a task of defined difficulty, against the background of favourable testing conditions (Carroll, 1993). Therefore, mental ability, is argued to be equated to mental capacity, or mental skill or mental competence.

Mayer et al. (2000, p. 105) hold the opinion that the term “emotional intelligence” should rather be considered as a more focused portion of personality constituting mental abilities, skills, or capacities. For them the term represents “the concept of an intelligence that processes and benefits from emotions”, with their interest residing in conceptualising the abilities constituting such emotional intelligence, determining if emotional intelligence can be classified as a standard intelligence and to construct a measurement instrument that can accurately measure this ability based on stringent criteria.



2.3.5 Mayer et al's (2000) ability theory of emotional intelligence

According to Mayer (1998), an intelligence system has a capacity for identifying (or inputting) information together with the capacity to process information and the association with expert knowledge. Mayer and Salovey (1997) argue that emotional intelligence operates across both the cognitive and emotional systems. This view subsequently evolved to develop a framework which succinctly depicts emotional intelligence in terms of the various abilities they conceptualise to be involved in the adaptive processing of emotionally relevant information.

These abilities, despite mostly operating in a unitary fashion, are subdivided into four branches as depicted in the table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Emotional intelligence as mental ability

BRANCHES	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS MENTAL ABILITY
1	Emotional perception and identification
2	Emotional facilitation of thought
3	Emotional understanding
4	Emotional management

Mayer and Salovey (1997) report that the first component refers to the accurate perception and identification of emotions in oneself and in others; the second to the applying of emotional experiences in cognition; the third to the recognition; understanding and reasoning about emotions, and the fourth to the adaptive regulation of emotions in oneself and in others.

They maintain that a growing body of research supports the idea that emotional intelligence can be conceptualised as a unitary intelligence or a mental ability, and measured by means of objective tasks. In conjunction with their theory, they developed a test of emotional intelligence, called the MSCEIT and its precursor the MEIS, that measures the four branches as conceptualised by them and depicted in Table 2.4.

Notwithstanding its reported wide application in several settings, Saarni (2000) maintains that needs to distinguish between emotional competence and the construct of emotional intelligence. Saarni (2000) questions the interaction between an individual and the eliciting context when emotional competence is being evaluated. She further argues that emotional competence is better described as a transaction, rather than constituting a characteristic of a person and maintains that emotional competence may be equated to being emotionally skilled.

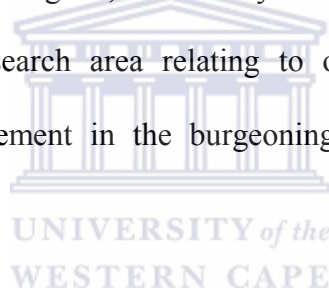
2.4 Critique of emotional Intelligence Construct

Whilst emotional intelligence grew exponentially in terms of its popularity, it has been criticised as lacking empirical validity (Barrett, 2000; Davies & Roberts., 1998). Of late, management science scholars have taken a more serious academic interest in the emotional intelligence construct (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Originally researchers were optimistic that it would be possible to clearly differentiate emotional intelligence from academic intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). However, it appears as though EI hinges on both ability and personality and accordingly a number of divergent definitions have since evolved to explain the construct.

This has led some researchers, including Davies et al. (1998), to question whether emotional intelligence is indeed anything more than a set of personality variables (for which adequate measures already exist).

According to Landy (2005), there are, historically, scientifically, conceptually and psychometrically, many substantial questions relating to the emotional intelligence construct. Locke (2005) argues that EI is an invalid concept, representing, inter alia, a political rather than a scientific agenda with the ultimate motivation of egalitarianism, “redefining what it means to be intelligent so that everyone will, in some form, be equal in intelligence to everyone else” (p. 426). Validity evidence for EI measures are also lagging behind reliability evidence. More specifically, content validity is lacking due to the vague theoretical development underpinning many of the measures.

Despite the skepticism regarding EI, Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) state EI is an exciting and developing research area relating to organisational behaviour, and represents an important element in the burgeoning interest in emotions within organisations.



2.5 Work Engagement

Strümpfer (2003) maintains that the workplace presents employees with opportunities and challenges. In his description of competency models of wellness and reflecting on a number of psychological constructs involved, he includes engagement as a fortigenic construct. The fortigenic paradigm has been applied in an attempt to shift thinking about burnout (a pathogenic construct), to help understand alternatives to this construct and move in the opposite direction. He believes that the psychological experiences at work drive people’s attitudes and behaviours.

Abraham (2004) contends that employers are best advised to create work environments in which the positive effects of emotional competencies flourish. “Companies are charged with providing psychologically safe and meaningful work environments that promote engagement and work involvement” (p. 137). Individuals are argued to vary in terms of their level of engagement according to how they perceive the benefits, meaningfulness, safety and guarantees within a situation. Engagement also co-varies with the resources that individuals perceive to be at their disposal to leverage their situation.

Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) propose a model that helps distinguish between two dimensions that may be applied to classify four types of well-being at work. The vertical axis represents the mobilisation of energy, ranging from energetic to exhausted; and the horizontal axis, the extent of pleasure derived at work, ranging from pleasurable to unpleasurable. This taxonomy allows for a distinction between burnout and engagement and workholism, versus the work experience called “nine-to-five”.

Positive mood also enhances persistence on work tasks via mood-congruent effects on evaluation and goal- setting. In contrast, negative mood shifts attention away from job performance (to the source of the disturbance), reducing resources available for producing high performance.

Consequently, individuals who experience high personal engagement (Kahn, 1990; 1992) and “flow” become emotionally, physically and cognitively immersed in the experience of the activity and the pursuit of a goal. It is for this very reason that employers would wish to enhance worker engagement with the job. It is also characterised as the antithesis of burnout (Jonker & Joubert, 2009).

Previous studies have revealed positive relationships between emotion work and well-being (Asforth & Humphrey, 1993). Zapf and Holz (2006) find that the display of positive emotions and sensitivity requirements have positive effects on personal accomplishments. Engagement, which can be seen as a positive consequence of emotion work, is defined by Schaufeli and Bakker (2001) as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour (high levels of energy and mental resilience), dedication (deriving a sense of significance from one's work) and absorption (being immersed in one's work).

Maslach and Leiter (1997), on the other hand, describe work engagement as being characterised by energy, involvement and efficacy. Work engagement is also conceptualised as the positive antithesis of burnout (Maslach, Schaufeli & Leiter, 2001). According to Maslach and Leiter (1997), burnout is an erosion of work engagement by means of which energy turns into exhaustion, involvement into cynicism, and efficacy into ineffectiveness. Engagement and burnout can thus be regarded as two prototypes of employee wellbeing, as viewed by the two independent dimensions of pleasure and activation. Low levels of activation and pleasure can indicate burnout, whereas high levels of activation and pleasure indicate engagement.

2.5.1 Definition of employee engagement

Schutte, Toppinen, Kalimo and Schaufeli (2000) define work engagement as an energetic state in which employees are both dedicated to excellent performance at work and feel confident of their effectiveness. Subsequent to this, Schaufeli et al. (2002) defined engagement as a positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption. Rather than depicting a momentary and specific state, engagement is viewed as a more persistent and pervasive affective-cognitive state that does not focus on any particular object, event, individual or behaviour. Work engagement consists of three dimensions, namely vigour, dedication and absorption.



2.5.1.2 Dimensions of work engagement

According to Prins (2006), the following dimensions of work engagement have been proposed:

- **Vigour**, characterised by high levels of energy and mental resilience whilst working; the willingness to invest effort in the work; not becoming tired easily, and persisting even in the face of difficulties.
- **Dedication**, characterised by finding one's work significant; feeling enthusiastic and proud about one's job, and by experiencing both challenge and inspiration in the work.
- **Absorption**, characterised by being happily and totally immersed in one's work whilst finding it difficult to detach oneself from it. Time passes quickly and one becomes oblivious of one's surroundings.

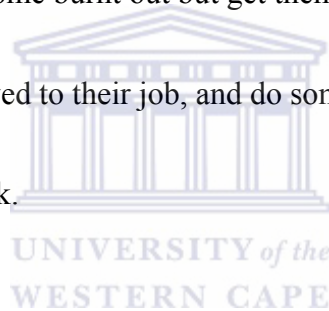
Schaufeli, et al. (2001) describe the following characteristics of engaged workers:

1. they take initiative, and self-direct their lives;
2. they generate their own positive feedback, and so self-encourage;
3. they are also engaged outside of their employment;
4. their values and norms are in agreement with those of the organisation

they work for;

5. they do become fatigued, but the fatigue speaks of satisfaction;
6. they may also become burnt out but get themselves out of the situation;
7. they are not enslaved to their job, and do sometimes wish to do something

other than work.

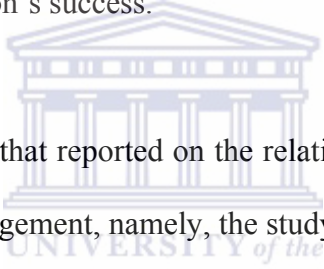


Cant (2000), working on the related theme of proactive behaviour in organisations, assumes that proactive behaviour entails challenging and improving current circumstances rather than passively adapting to reigning conditions.

According to Kahn (1990, p. 700), employee engagement entails the simultaneous employment and expression of a person's preferred self in task behaviours that promote connections to work and others, personal presence (physical, cognitive, and emotional), and active full role performances. Specific psychological conditions contribute to engagement (Kahn, 1990). Kahn (1990) distinguished three such

psychological conditions, namely, psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability.

Van der Walt and Bezuidenhout (2006) argue that passion, enthusiasm and involvement characterises engaged employees. They maintain that commitment to the success of the organisation, fostered by management's ability to inspire a strong desire for excellence in their work teams, is what differentiates engaged organisations. In addition, they contend that employee engagement encapsulates the enthusiasm and involvement of employees about their jobs and their organisation, and the willingness to contribute to the organisation's success.



Two studies have been found that reported on the relationship between psychological conditions and employee engagement, namely, the study by May et al. (2004) and that by Olivier and Rothmann (2007). The study by May et al. (2004) confirmed that psychological meaningfulness, psychological safety and psychological availability predict employee engagement. In a South African study, Olivier and Rothmann (2007) confirmed that two psychological conditions, namely, psychological meaningfulness and psychological availability predict employee engagement.

Macey and Schneider (2008) distinguish between three broad conceptualisations of employee engagement, namely, state, trait and behavioural engagement. State engagement, can be seen as an extension of the self to a role (Kahn, 1990). According to Kahn (1990, p. 694), engagement refers to the harnessing of organisation members selves to their work roles.

2.5 Conclusion

In the current chapter, the evolving construct of emotional intelligence and employee engagement were introduced. The next chapter provides an insight into the research methodology utilised in the current study to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and employee engagement in a financial service organisation undergoing change.

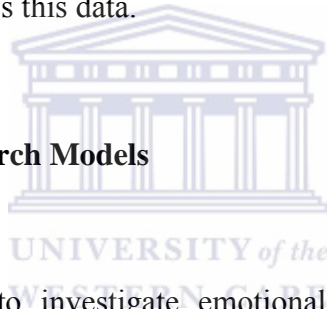


CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the methods applied in the current investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement, the research design and the participating respondents are discussed. The measuring instruments are presented together with the process followed to gather the research data, and the statistical procedures followed to process this data.



3.2 Specific Aims and Research Models

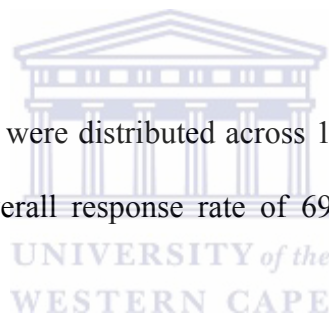
The goal of this study is to investigate emotional intelligence and its various correlates in the South African organisational context. More specifically, interest lies with establishing whether emotionally intelligent leaders/managers contribute to effects on employee well-being, that is, employee engagement.

Flowing from the above, the **primary** aim of the researcher is to investigate whether managers' emotional intelligence mediates indices of work-related well-being in their subordinates. For purposes of this study, the indices include work engagement.

3.3 Research Design

A cross sectional correlational design is used in this research study. An organisation from the financial services industry was approached in participating in the current investigation. After official informed consent was obtained, the study was carried out by distributing the questionnaires across the business. A composite questionnaire was compiled. The questionnaire included a biographical scale together with the instruments used to measure the emotional intelligence of the leader/line-manager and the employee and work engagement. After consent was obtained from the Human Resources Director, middle and senior management was contacted and the procedure explained.

A total of 150 questionnaires were distributed across 10 business units. A number of follow-ups resulted in an overall response rate of 69% or a total of 104 returned questionnaires.



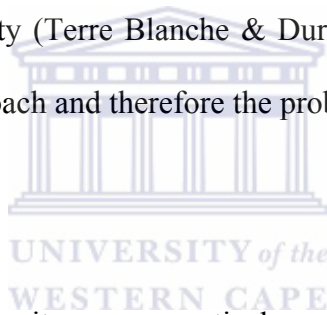
3.4 Selection of the sample

According to Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 274), sampling is “the process used to select cases for inclusion in a research study.” Sekaran (2003, p. 266), postulates that sampling is “the process of selecting a sufficient number of elements from the population, so that a study of the sample and an understanding of its properties or characteristics would make it possible for us to generalise such properties or characteristics to the population elements”.

A population refers to the entire group of people, events or things of interest that the researcher wishes to investigate (Sekaran, 1984). The population that forms part of this study includes senior and middle management from Nashua, an office automation company, from across the country. Accordingly, the sample consists of all senior and middle managers available to participate.

3.4.1 Convenience Sampling

A non-probability sampling design was used, based on the method of convenience. In convenience sampling, the selection of units from the population is based on easy availability and/or accessibility (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Non-probability sampling is a subjective approach and therefore the probability of selecting population elements is unknown.

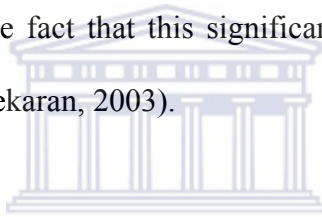


Cooper and Schindler (2001) cite some practical considerations for using this less precise method compared to probability sampling:

- It satisfactorily meets the sampling objectives.
- Less costly and time consuming-carefully controlled non-probability sampling often seems to give acceptable results, so the investigator may not even consider probability sampling.
- The possibility also exists that non-probability sampling may be the only feasible alternative as the total population may not be available for study in certain cases.

3.5 Procedure

A cross-sectional research method, based on the survey approach was used. One hundred and fifty (150) senior and middle managers were targeted in business units across the organisation. A cover letter, which explained the nature of the study and a guarantee of anonymity, accompanied each questionnaire. Each respondent had to complete two questionnaires viz., the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Each questionnaire had detailed instructions as to how the questionnaires were to be completed and returned. The motivation for providing clear instructions and guaranteeing confidentiality is based on the fact that this significantly reduces the probability of obtaining biased responses (Sekaran, 2003).



The initial cover letter was followed by a reminder after the first week of distributing the questionnaires. A total of one hundred and fifty questionnaires were administered, with one hundred and four (104) fully completed questionnaires being returned, thereby constituting a 69% return rate. Sekaran (2003) maintains that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research.

3.6 Measuring Instruments

3.6.1 Biographical Questionnaire

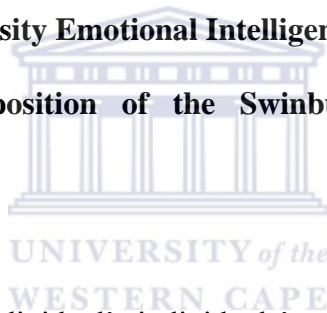
A biographical questionnaire requesting respondent information regarding age, race, gender, level of education and position within the organisation was compiled. The data with respect to these biographical questions was subsequently graphically

presented and discussed to provide an indication of the most significant findings with respect to these variables.

Within the emotional intelligence paradigm there exists several theories by amongst other, Bar-On, 2003/2005; Caruso et al. 2000, Goleman, 1995, each of which has been advanced in an attempt to gain insight into the skills, traits and abilities associated with social and emotional intelligence. However, the EQ tool that was decided upon was the SUEIT, which is described below.

3.6.2 The Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT)

3.6.2.1 Nature and Composition of the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT)

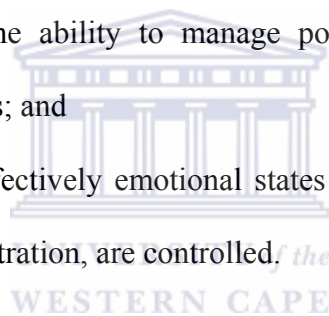


The SUEIT, which indexes individual's individuals' perceptions of the way they feel, think and act at work, with emotions, and on the basis of emotional information, is a self-report instrument specifically designed for use in the workplace. This uni-dimensional model was developed from a large factor-analytic study involving the factors from six other emotional intelligence scales (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

The SUEIT comprises of 65 items and is measured on a five-point Likert-type scale (1=never, 5=always). Respondents must indicate the extent to which each statement is true of the way they typically think, feel and act at work (Gardner & Stough, 2002). The measurement has both general and executive norms. Palmer and Stough's study (2000, p. 72) in Gardner et al.(2002), found that the SUEIT provides a total emotional

intelligence score as well as scores on five factors which accounts for 58 percent of the variance and thus provided the framework for the SUEIT (Gardner, et al., 2002, p. 72).

- a. Emotional recognition and expression (in oneself)-the ability to identify one's own feelings and emotional states, and the ability to express those inner feelings to others;
- b. Emotions direct cognition-the extent to which emotions and emotional knowledge are incorporated in decision making and/ or problem solving;
- c. Understanding of emotions external-the ability to identify and understand the emotions of others and those that manifest in external stimuli;
- d. Emotional management-the ability to manage positive and negative emotions within both oneself and others; and
- e. Emotional control-how effectively emotional states experienced at work, such as anger, stress, anxiety and frustration, are controlled.



3.6.2.2 Reliability of the SUEIT

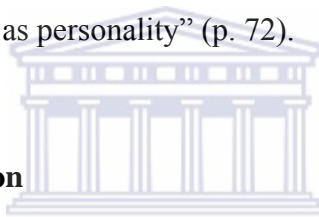
According to Terre Blance et al. (1999), reliability refers to the “extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trails” (p. 88) despite changes in test taker, administrator or conditions under which the test is administered (Sekaran, 2003).

Palmer and Stough (2000) present the following coefficient alphas for the five subscales were: ER&C ($r = .74$); EDC ($r = .78$); UEE ($r = .69$); EM ($r = .73$) and EC ($r = .76$) with an overall reliability of $r = .72$ for the SUEIT EI. A study conducted by Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001), to explore the relationship between

emotional intelligence and effective leadership, on managers showed that the transformational leadership style scale reliability estimate is 0.89, and that of transactional is 0.71.

3.6.2.3 Validity of the SUEIT

Cooper and Schindler refer to validity as “the extent to which differences found with a measuring tool reflect true differences among respondents being tested” (p. 211). Palmer and Stough (2000), proffer that the SUEIT “possesses discriminant validity from neuroticism, extraversion and openness, which suggests that scores on this measurement may account for variance above and beyond that explained by other psychological constructs such as personality” (p. 72).



3.6.2.4 Rationale for Inclusion

The rationale for the use of the SUEIT is that it is a reliable and valid instrument that assesses the way people typically think, feel and act with emotions in the workplace (Palmer & Stough, 2000).

3.6.3 Utrecht Work Engagement

Recent confirmatory factor-analytic studies confirmed the factorial validity of the UWES (Schaufeli et al., 2002a; Schaufeli, 2001).

3.6.3.1 Reliability of the UWES

Regarding the psychometric qualities of the UWES, preliminary results show that the three engagement scales have sufficient internal consistencies after an iterative process was used to remove items that negatively influenced values or did not make a positive contribution, after which three subscales emerged with the minimum number of items and maximum consistency (Schaufeli et al., 2002a).

For a sample of 1 314 undergraduate students from Spain) and Sample 2 619 private and public company employees from Spain) respectively, the Cronbach α 's were as follows: Vigour (9 items), $\alpha = 0.68$ and 0.80 ; Dedication (8 items), $\alpha = 0.91$ (both samples); Absorption (7 items), $\alpha = 0.73$ and 0.75 . In the student's sample, the value of α could be improved for Vigour when three items were eliminated ($\alpha = 0.78$). The three scales are moderately to strongly related (mean $r = 0.63$ in Sample 1 and mean $r = 0.70$ in Sample 2). In addition, the fit of the hypothesised three-factor model to the data was found superior to a one-factor solution (Maslach et al., 2001; Schaufeli et al., 2002a).

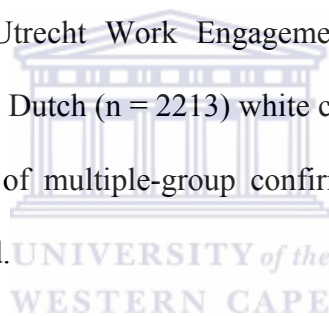
3.6.3.2 Validity of the UWES

In a South African study Storm and Rothmann (2003), found that a re-specified one-factor model fit the data better in their random, stratified sample of police officers in South Africa (N=2396). The model was re-specified after deleting items 3, 11, 15 and

16 and then based on the 13-item revision. The fit indices indicated a better fit for the re-specified model. ($\chi^2 = 2250.37$; $df = 18.91$; GFI 0.87, AGFI 0.85, PGFI 0.68, NFI 0.90; TLI 0.90, CFI 0.91, RMSEA 0.09. Internal consistencies of the three subscales were confirmed at acceptable levels according to the guideline of $\alpha = 0.70$ (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Cronbach alphas were determined at 0.78 (Vigour); 0.89 (Dedication), and 0.78 (Absorption). No evidence of structural inequivalence or item bias was found for the UWES in this particular study.

3.6.3.4 Rationale for inclusion

Balducci, Fraccaroli and Schaufeli (2010), investigated the psychometric properties of the Italian version of the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES-9) using 2 samples: Italian ($n = 668$) and Dutch ($n = 2213$) white collar employees. In addition to reliability analyses, a series of multiple-group confirmatory factor analyses of the UWES-9 were also conducted.



Validity of the UWES-9 was investigated by studying its correlations with the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS) and with a measure of work performance. Results showed that a three-factor solution of the UWES-9 is invariant across the Italian and Dutch samples, with data supporting factor variance and covariance invariance in addition to metric invariance. Internal consistencies of the vigour, dedication and absorption scales are good.

3.7 Statistical Methods

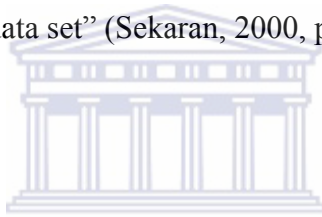
Two major categories of statistical procedures, namely, descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were utilised to test the research hypotheses.

3.7.1 Descriptive Statistics

According to Sekaran (2000), descriptive statistics is a statistical technique whereby raw data is transformed into a “form that would provide information to describe a set of factors in a situation” (p. 395). The mean and standard deviation will be used to describe the data collected from the UWES and the SUEIT.

3.7.1.1 Mean

The mean (μ) refers to the arithmetic average which is a measure of central tendency that gives us a “general picture of the data without unnecessarily inundating one with each of the observations in a data set” (Sekaran, 2000, p. 397).



3.7.1.2 Standard Deviation

Cooper and Schindler (2001, p. 443), define the standard deviation as summarising “how far away from the average the data values typically are”.

3.7.2 Inferential Statistics

Sekaran (2000, p. 401), posits that inferential statistics allows inferences to be drawn from the data which can determine:

- The relationship between two variables.
- Differences in a variable among different subgroups.

How several independent variables might explain the variance in a dependent variable.

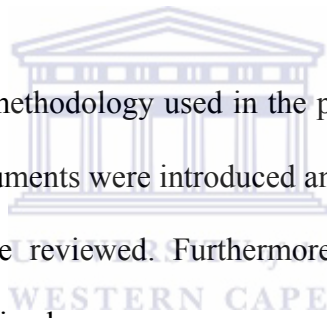
The following inferential statistics are used for the purposes of analysis: Pearson Correlation.

3.7.2.1 Pearson Correlation

To determine whether a significant relationship exists between emotional intelligence and leadership style, the Pearson Correlation matrix will provide this information as it describes the direction, strength and significance of the relationship of the variables in the study (Sekaran, 2000).

3.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, the research methodology used in the present study was discussed. A variety of the most used instruments were introduced and the two instruments, namely the SUEIT and UWES were reviewed. Furthermore, the sample, procedure and statistical methods were examined.



CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In the previous section, the research methodology and design utilised during the current study were outlined. The information provided and discussed in the previous chapters will serve as a background against which the contents of this chapter will be presented and interpreted and is based on the empirical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18. The descriptive statistics computed for the study are presented first in an outline of the characteristics of the sample with regards to the variables included in the study.

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the four measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

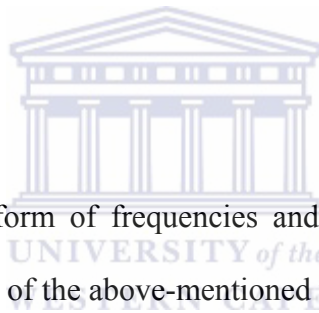
This is followed by presentation of the inferential statistics based on examination of each hypothesis formulated for the research. The upper level of statistical significance for null hypothesis testing was set at 5%.

All statistical test results were computed at the 2-tailed level of significance in accordance with the non-directional hypotheses presented (Sekaran, 2003).

4.2 Descriptive Statistics

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. The demographic variables that receive attention are:

- Gender,
- Age and
- Tenure

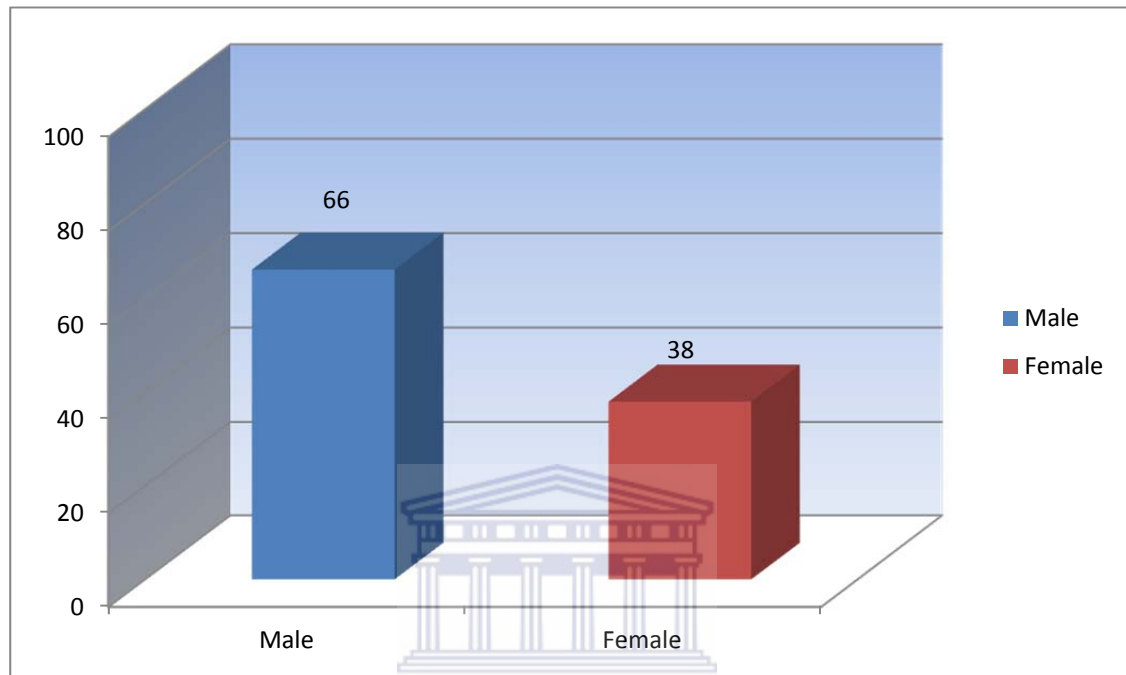


Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables.

4.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL CHARACTERISTICS

The respondents' gender is depicted in Figure 4.1

Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents



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In terms of Figure 4.1, the majority of the respondents (n=66) or 63% were male, while females represented 37% of the respondents (n=38).

The subjects' responses with regard to their ages are presented graphically in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2: Age distribution of respondents

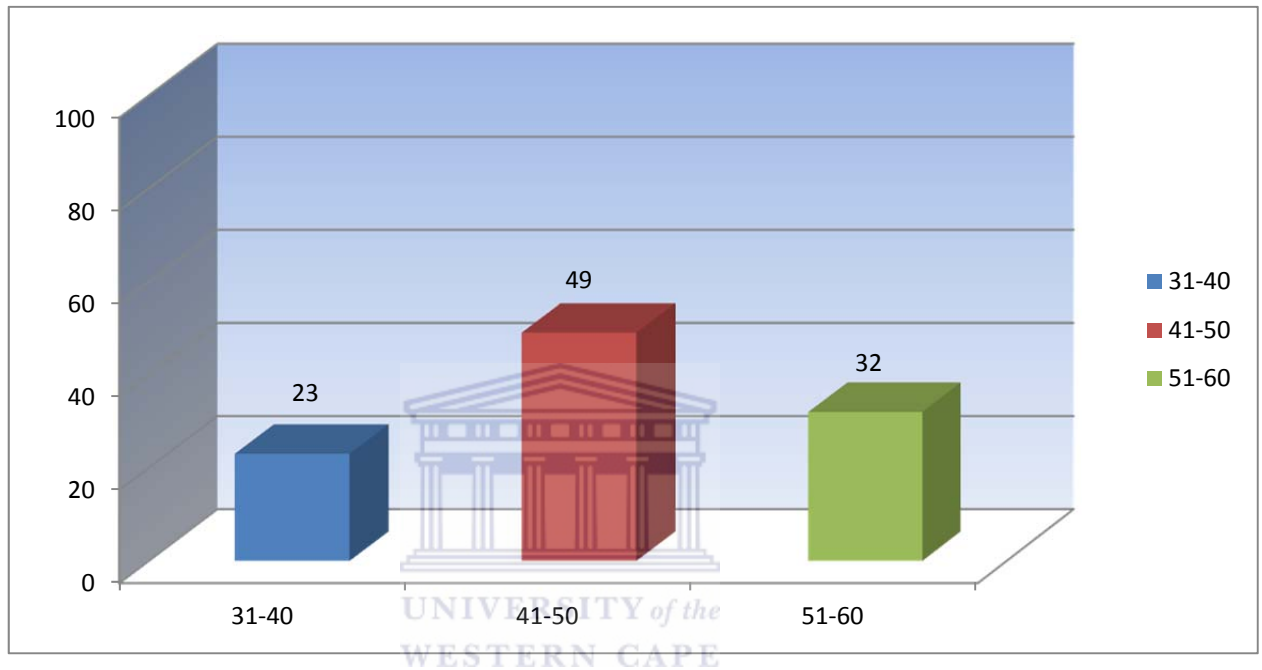
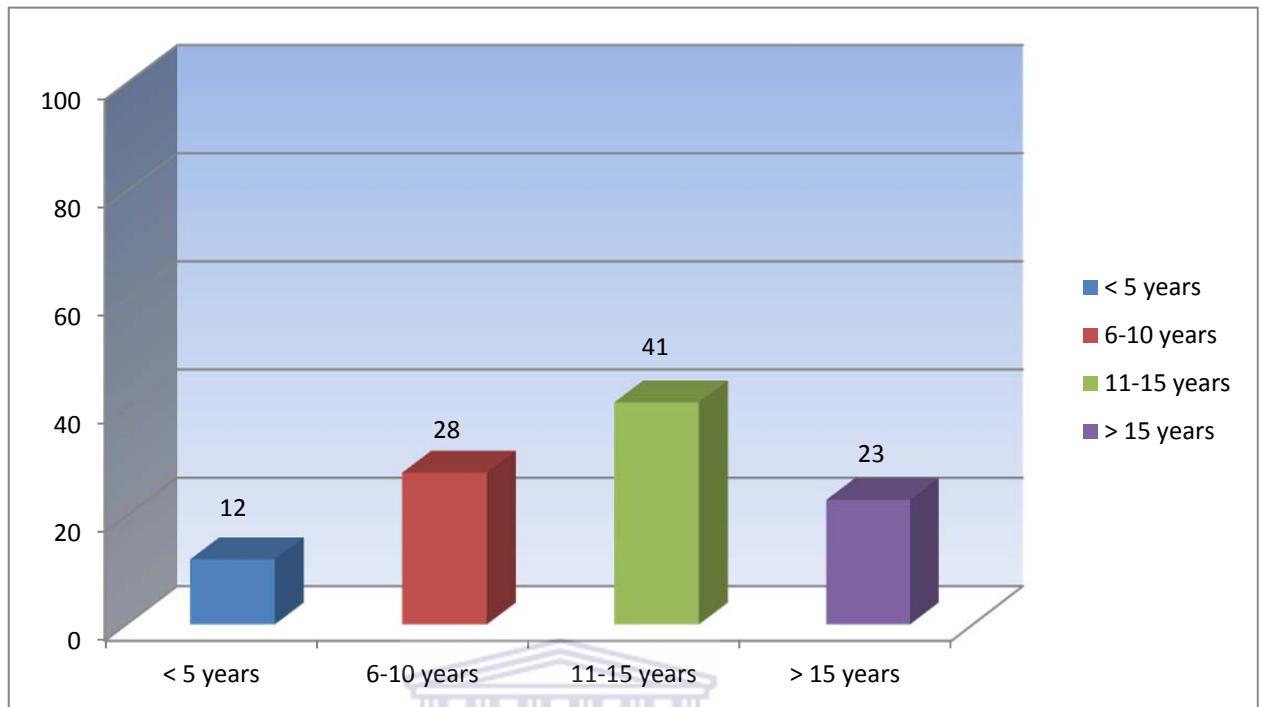


Figure 4.2 shows that the majority of respondents in the sample, (47%, n=49), are between the ages of 41-50 years old. This category is followed by the age group 51-60 years, into which 31% (n=32) of the respondents' fall, while 22% of the respondents were between the ages of 31-40.

Figure 4.3: Tenure of respondents



With respect to tenure, Figure 4.3 indicates that the majority of the respondents (n=41) or 39% of the respondents worked for between 11-15 years. A further 27% (n=28) worked at the organisation for between 6-10 years. While 22% of the respondents (n=23) had worked for the organisation for a period in excess of 15 years, 12% of the respondents (n=12) had worked in the organisation for less than 5 years.

4.2.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. That is, the data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the three measuring instruments employed, are summarised by means of graphic representation and the calculation of descriptive measures. In this manner, the properties of the observed data clearly emerge and an overall picture thereof is obtained.

4.2.2.1 MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY AND DISPERSION

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated on the basis of the variables included in the questionnaire. The measures of central tendency and dispersion for the dimensions of work engagement are shown in Table 4.1.

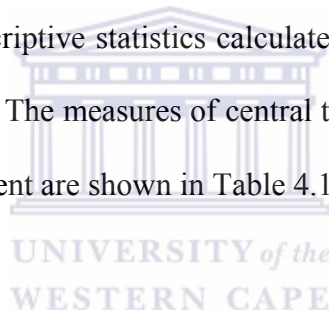


Table 4.1 Means, Standard deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of emotional intelligence

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.
Emotional recognition and expression	104	1	5	3.28	.32
Emotions direct cognition	104	1	5	2.56	.69
Understanding of emotions	104	1	5	2.33	.30
Emotional management	104	1	5	3.19	.45
Emotional control	104	1	5	2.38	.49

The mean score ($M=3.28$) for emotional recognition and expression indicates that respondents this aspect was rated highest (.32) shows that moderate variation in the responses that were obtained with respect to emotional recognition and expression. This was followed by the dimension of emotional management for which the mean score was ($M=3.19$). The standard deviation (.45) indicates that there was similarity in the responses obtained.

The mean score ($M=2.56$) for emotions direct cognition indicates that respondents rated this the third highest, with a standard deviation (.69) which shows that the responses did not differ substantially with respect to this dimension. Emotional control emerged as one of the averages with respect to EQ ($M=2.38$), with a standard deviation (.49). Understanding of emotions was rated the lowest with respect to EQ ($M=2.33$, $sd=.30$).

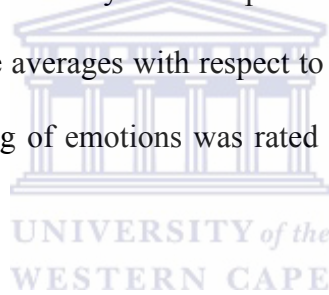


Table 4.2 Means, Standard deviation, Minimum and Maximum scores for the dimensions of employee engagement

Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. dev.
Vigour	104	1	5	3.1	.82
Dedication	104	1	5	3.7	.34
Absorption	104	1	5	2.2	.72

Table 4.2 provides the descriptive statistics for the dimensions of employee engagement. The highest mean value was for Dedication (Mean=3.7, s.d = .34), followed by Vigour (Mean = 3.1, sd = .82), while the lowest mean value was for Absorption (Mean = 2.2, s.d = .72).



4.3 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics in the form of Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was computed to determine the relationship between employee engagement and emotional intelligence.

Table 4.3: Pearson's correlation matrix between the job satisfaction dimensions and OCB

	Emotional Intelligence	
Variable	Pearson correlation	Significance (2-tailed)
Vigour	.387**	.005
Dedication	.412**	.001
Absorption	.272*	.047

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

Table 4.3 indicates that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between vigour and EQ ($r=.387$, $p<0.01$). Similarly, there is a statistically significant positive relationship between dedication and EQ ($r=.412$, $p<0.01$). There is a statistically significant and direct relationship between absorption and EQ ($r=.272$, $p<0.05$).

Table 4.4 Stepwise regression for emotional intelligence and employee engagement

Multiple Regression	0.5422			
R squared (R²)	0.2940			
R squared (Adjusted R²)	0.2753			
Standard error	38.2852			
			F = 15.69	Significant F = 0.00**
Variables in the equation	B	Std Error for B	T	P
Vigour	-1.5232	1.2863	5.32	0.00**
Dedication	-3.7542	1.1452	1.79	0.00**
Absorption	-2.7949	0.9857	-2.36	0.02*

The results shown in Table 4.4 suggest a moderate percentage of the variation in emotional intelligence explained by the employee engagement variables entered in the equation ($R^2 = 29.4\%$; R^2 (adjusted) = 27.53%). Thus 27.53% of the variance in EQ can be explained by the employee engagement dimensions.

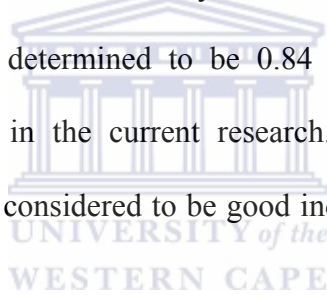
The F-ratio of 15.69 ($p = 0.00$) indicates the regression of these dimensions expressed through the adjusted squared multiple (R^2 (adj.) = 27.53%) is statistically significant. These variables account for 27.53% of the variance in EQ and suggests that other unexplored variables could potentially influence the results.

4.4 Reliability analysis

Table 4.5 Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the EQ and UWES questionnaires

Reliability Coefficient			
	No. of cases	Alpha	No. of items
SUEIT	104	0.91	65
UWES	104	0.84	24

Cronbach coefficient alpha was computed for the SUEIT and UWES. Based on the 65-item questionnaire, the SUEIT's reliability was computed to be 0.91. In addition, the UWES's reliability was determined to be 0.84 based on the sample of 104 employees who participated in the current research. Sekaran (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. .



4.5 Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the most important findings which emerged from the empirical analysis. The next section presents a discussion of the findings obtained and compares findings obtained with other research conducted in this field.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement of leaders within a Financial Services organisation undergoing change.

5.2 Descriptive Statistics

The mean score (M=3.28) for emotional recognition and expression indicates that this aspect was rated highest, followed by the dimension of emotional management (M=3.19). The mean score (M=2.56) for emotions direct cognition was rated the third highest, and while emotional control emerged as the second lowest rated aspect, understanding of emotions was rated the lowest with respect to EQ (M=2.33).

With respect to the dimensions of employee engagement, the highest value was for Dedication (Mean=3.7), followed by Vigour (Mean=3.1), while the lowest value was for Absorption (Mean=2.2).

5.3 Inferential Statistics

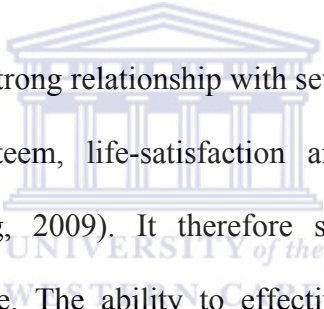
The results which emerged from the current research indicate that there is a statistically significant and direct correlation between employee engagement and emotional intelligence. Moreover, the results suggest a moderate percentage of the variation in emotional intelligence can be attributed to employee engagement.

These variables account for 27.53% of the variance in EQ and suggest that other unexplored variables could potentially influence the results. **Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.**

With organisations competing in the global market they are facing enormous challenges in the effective management of organisations and human resources. When it comes to improving organisational effectiveness, more emphasis is being placed on the importance of a manager's emotional intelligence. Agor (cited in Downey, Papageorgiou & Stough, 2006), maintain that in today's organisational climate, leaders are persistently working within an ever changing environment that is becoming more complex and increasingly filled with uncertainty.

Johnson and Indvik (1999, p. 84) postulate that when “emotional intelligence is present, there is increased employee cooperation, increased motivation, increased productivity, and increased profits. The authors further postulate that the characteristic which most distinguishes star performers from average workers, is emotional intelligence which is a bigger predictor of workplace success. Martinez (cited in Johnson & Indvik, 1999, p. 87), asserts that “an individual's success at work is 80 percent dependent on emotional intelligence, and only 20 percent dependent on IQ”. Humphrey and Pirola-Merlo et al. (cited in Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2005), maintain that follower performance is strongly influenced by the leaders ability to influence behaviour because leadership is seen as an intrinsically emotional process, whereby after recognising followers' emotional states, leaders seek to manage these emotional states accordingly.

Bennis (1999) as well as Barling et al., Barling and Avolio (cited in Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002), highlight the fact that whether or not leadership is well understood, its impact on the bottom line is dramatic. Bennis (1999), cites a study conducted by Fortune in 1998 to identify the common denominator of America's most admired companies. It was reported that no one factor makes a company admirable, but if forced to choose, leadership would be the one that makes the most difference. Bennis (1999) proffers that in tomorrow's world exemplary leaders will be distinguished by their mastery of the softer side: people skills, taste, judgment, and, above all, character.

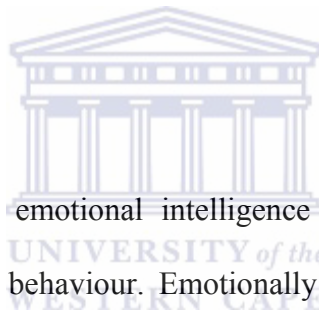


Emotional intelligence has a strong relationship with several psychological well-being components, namely self-esteem, life-satisfaction and self-acceptance (Carmeli, Yitzhak-Halevy & Weisberg, 2009). It therefore shows promise of predicting engagement in the workplace. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in coping with occupational stress (Oginska-Bulik, 2005). The ability to cope with stress is a component of emotional intelligence, while stress can be either an input or an outflow of emotional intelligence or a lack thereof.

Employee engagement (May, Gilson & Harter, 2004) is an important concept to consider when dealing with changes at work and improving performance. Engaged employees are argued to have a sense of energetic and effective connection with their work activities and see themselves as able to deal completely with the demands of their jobs (Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzales-Roma & Bakker, 2002).

Kahn (1990) and May et al. (2004) note that, in order for the human spirit to thrive at work, individuals must be able to engage themselves cognitively, emotionally and physically.

Nowack (n.d.), conducted a study to explore the relationship between two wellness constructs, emotional intelligence and self- actualisation. The sample consisted of 71 employees from the South African mining industry. Participants were assessed using the BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (BarOn EQ-i) to measure emotional intelligence and the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) to measure self-actualisation.



Herbst (2003) contends that emotional intelligence and self-actualisation have a positive effect on workplace behaviour. Emotionally intelligent and selfactualising employees show characteristics of effective intra- and interpersonal behaviour, as well as constructive work-related attitudes and behaviour. Such workers realise their full potential and make productive contributions in organisations as well as in other aspects of their lives (Herbst 2003).

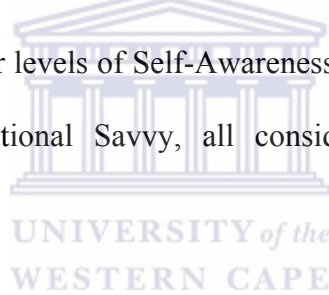
5.4 Conclusion

Organisational structures are, of late, changing from hierarchical to flat structures enhancing the need for individuals to be interpersonally more effective (Blackman, 2001). Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) are of the opinion that research demonstrating the impact of EI on employee performance and success in organisations is relatively uncommon. George (2000) adds that the majority of research has still to identify conclusively the effect of leaders' emotions on their work, subordinates and, in general, the role emotions play in leadership.

According to Herbst and Maree (n.d.), increased recognition of the importance of emotions in leadership literature has arisen, where the question arises as to whether the concept of emotional intelligence, measured as a set of abilities, might provide insight into the differences between outstanding and below par levels of leadership performance. In this study, a sample of 138 managers within the higher education institution were used to assess the relationship between thinking style, EQ and leadership effectiveness. The findings showed that there is a relationship between these constructs, where age emerged as a significant predictor in respect of leadership practices.

Leadership comprises both intellectual and emotional facets and both these facets need to be attended to during the training of managers in order to equip them with sufficient leadership skills. In changing and unstable times such as ours, it is imperative to investigate the subtle interplay between cognitive and affective processes that impact on leadership skills in times of change (Herbst & Maree, n.d).

Cavallo and Brienza (2002), discuss the importance of emotional intelligence (EI) in leadership success, and cited several studies that demonstrated that EI is often the distinguishing factor between great leaders and average leaders. High performing managers at the Johnson and Johnson Consumer and Personal Care Group were seen to possess significantly higher levels of Self-Awareness, Self-Management capability, Social Skills, and Organisational Savvy, all considered part of the Emotional Intelligence domain.



According to Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002), a fundamental task of leaders is to foster positive feelings in their subordinates and to unlock the gains thereof in the workplace. They use positive emotions to advance major improvements; apply emotions to enhance their decision making, and enthuse their employees with trust and cooperation by means of their interpersonal relationships (George, 2000).

Goleman (2002, p. 18) maintains that emotionally intelligent leadership is important in creating a working climate that nurtures employees and encourages them to deliver their best. In addition, he argues that the relationship between EI strengths in leaders and the concomitant performance of their unit, appears to be mediated by the climate the leader creates, setting the tone for employee morale. He asserts that “50%-70% of how employees perceive their organisations’ climate can be traced to the actions of one person: the leader” and that the leader is therefore the major creator of conditions that determine employees’ ability to work well.

Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) believe an intuitive connection exists between EI and leadership, and research has since substantiated this intuition (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). Stuart and Paquet (2001) conducted a study in which a sample of 31 employees of a financial institution were used to compare who displayed leadership potential compared to a group who displayed little EQ. Factors such as optimism and self-actualisation scored higher in groups who displayed leadership potential. Their research found that even employees who did not occupy positions of authority, had a responsibility to themselves and others. It is those individuals who embrace the challenge to face who they are, they are more likely to possess leadership ability.

Lourens (2001) and Downing (1997) state that EI and its application are increasingly popular in the Organisation Behaviour field, and this may relate to the spiralling organisational change and volatility that goes along with both emotional and interpretative conflict that organisations seek answers to. The utility of EI in

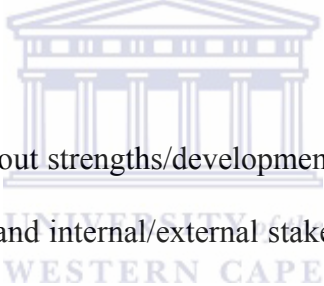
predicting effective leadership is gaining momentum in Industrial Psychology (George, 2000; Palmer et al., 2001).

Coetzee and Schaap (2005) indicate that managers of the future will have to cope with change if they are to be effective. They require abilities such as being team orientated, strong communication, team players, problem solvers, change-makers and leaders. A leader will play various roles within this new, changing environment. More attention will be focused on developing the “people” aspect of the organisation. Leadership then takes into account both the emotional attributes and the rational aspects of every individual. In this regard, management is realizing the importance of emotional intelligence in improving organisational effectiveness. An EQ leader focuses on the shared values, training and development of his/her followers and is able to instill vision and purpose. Bliss (2000) states that a leader has to be emotionally intelligent in order to motivate his/her followers to achieve company outcomes.

Dealing with these challenges, according to both bodies of research, requires an entirely different leadership mindset. This capacity to identify the interrelationship between emotions, thoughts and behaviour is considered a vital skill when reactions to business decisions are often not based on rational analysis, but on feelings and perceptions. Faced with the challenge of reinventing themselves, many of the leading business schools globally are taking a close look at their offerings and how to best nurture these qualities in executives. The result has been an explosion of innovation in the realm of executive education design (Gillet, 2008).

For South African leaders, there are unique pressures to take into account as South Africa gets to grips with a host of social and economic development challenges and redresses past imbalances. It is precisely an adeptness at re-invention, though, that stands South Africans in good stead to deal with the growing complexity of the business landscape (Gillet, 2008).

Leadership appears to be one key contributor to the development of a psychologically healthy workplace. Leaders can directly influence morale, retention, commitment, satisfaction and perceptions of stress. A variety of approaches exist for leaders to consider employing in the development of a healthy workplace. These include, inter alia:

- 
- Gathering feedback about strengths/development areas from other senior team leaders, direct reports and internal/external stakeholders by using a multi-rater feedback instrument
 - Conducting a senior leadership team analysis of strengths/development areas using interviews or team based multi-rater feedback tools
 - Undertaking annual employee engagement surveys to better understand how leaders can change policies, procedures, processes, systems and management practices to enhance satisfaction
 - Utilising a department wide “balanced scorecard” to measure and monitor internal customer satisfaction of talent within your department
 - Constructively and consistently managing the performance of underperforming talent

- Creating and utilizing employee teams to increase participation of employees in problem solving, decision making and planning processes
- Analyzing exit interviews for trends and develop strategies to increase retention of high potential talent
- Supporting and implementing work balance and family friendly policies, procedures and programs to enhance engagement (telecommuting, child care, flex time, wellness/health promotion programs).

In the final analysis, Landa, Martos and Lopez- Zafra (2010, pp. 791-792) maintain that “Individuals who are aware of what they are feeling would exhibit abilities to manage emotional problems and to maintain or enhance the intensity of positive emotions and to reduce or eliminate negative emotions, thereby experiencing emotional well-being. This would result in the independence of the individual and his/her capacity to resist social pressure.

5.5 Limitations

One of the major limitations of this study relates to the sampling method used. Research indicates that using probability sampling where “elements in the population have a known chance of being chosen in the sample’ (Sekaran, 2000, p. 271) is the preferred sampling method.

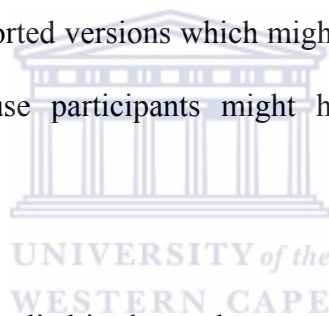
For the purposes of this study, a non-probability sampling method was used which means that the findings from the study of the sample cannot be confidently

generalized to the population of middle and senior managers within the Financial Services Industry.

Furthermore, linked to this method of sampling, convenience sampling was used which may be the quickest and least time consuming method of gaining information, but it is in fact the least reliable of all sampling designs.

The use of a single organisation is a potential limitation on the generalisability of these results.

Both instruments are self reported versions which might skew compromise the results of the investigation because participants might have given socially desirable responses.



The measuring instruments applied in the study were all developed and standardised in relation to populations outside of South Africa. Applying them in a South African context brings to bear differences in interpretation of the items included in the questionnaire to the extent that different factors emerged.

5.6 Recommendations for future research

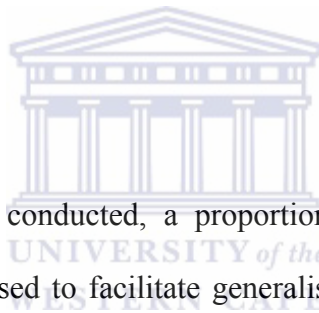
- 1) Further studies are warranted within the discipline to determine the critical variables that influence employee engagement in addition to emotional intelligence. Qualitative knowledge could also be gathered in order to build the constructs and lead to more valid and reliable operationalization of the construct in empirical testing.

- 2) Theories and models must be generated in order to develop hypothetical links between these constructs. Once preliminary theories have been articulated, empirical studies need to be conducted, testing specific hypotheses. Representative samples need to be utilised in order to develop complete conceptualizations.

- 3) A similar study be conducted on larger samples comparing various areas or regions, either locally or nationally and amongst different race groups and occupations to make more conclusive statements and to facilitate cross-cultural comparisons.

- 4) If a similar study is conducted, a proportionate stratified random sample should ideally be utilised to facilitate generalisation to the entire population. This would enhance the scientific quality of the research.

- 5) To enhance external validity, the sample size of 104 should be expanded, both to reach a larger sample size as well as to obtain the involvement of more organisations. It would be beneficial to investigate the effect of leader empowering behaviour, role clarity, psychological empowerment and work engagement on other important variables within the field of Industrial/Organisational Psychology.



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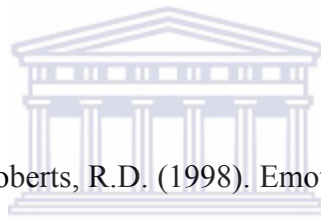
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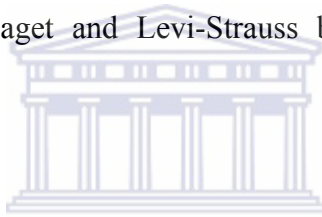
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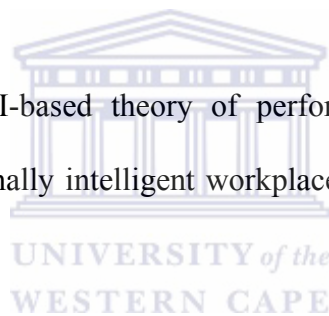
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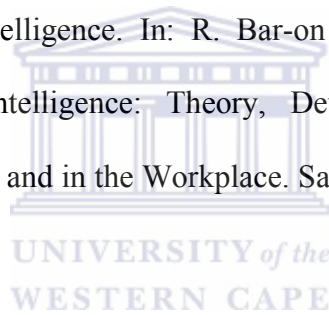
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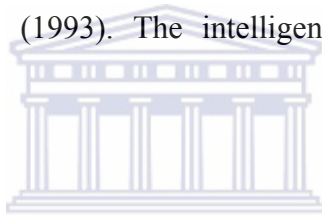
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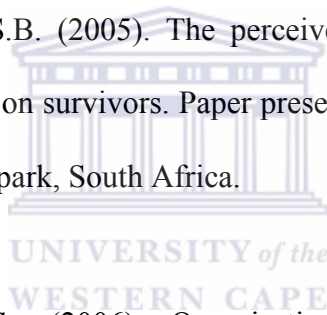
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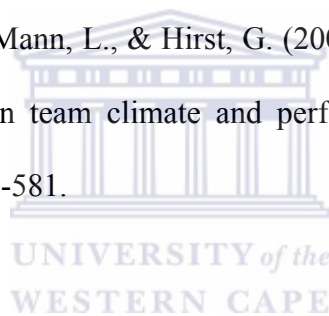
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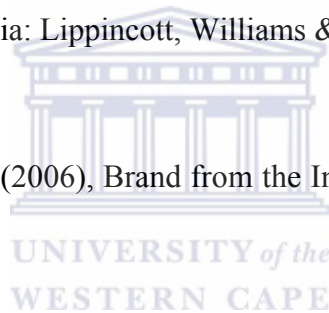
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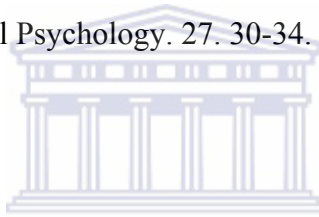
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