

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND  
LEADERSHIP STYLE

KAY JULIA BEEKA



Mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Commercii in the Department of Industrial Psychology, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, at the University of the Western Cape.

Supervisor: Karl Heslop

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## Declaration

I hereby declare that the “Relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style” 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.

Full Name: Kay Julia Beeka

Date: 15 November 2006

Signed: .....



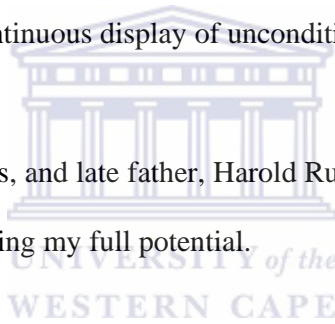
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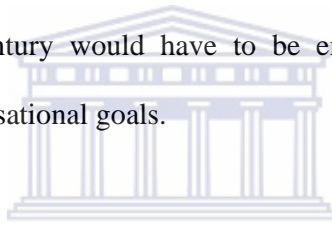


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## ABSTRACT

The 21<sup>st</sup> Century has awakened a call for “new” leaders to cope with the demands of the rapidly changing world of work which emphasises flatter structures, and a more democratic style of leadership. In research conducted by Coetzee and Schaap, it is cited by Lewis, Goodman and Fandt (1998, p. 14) 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 postulate that leadership takes into consideration the emotional attributes as well as the rational aspects of the individual. From this it becomes evident that the leaders of the 21<sup>st</sup> Century would have to be emotionally intelligent to motivate employees to achieve organisational goals.



The aim of this study was to investigate if there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles in middle to senior managers within a large Office Automation organisation, operating within the ICT (Information, Communication and Telecommunication) Sector with offices based nationally. The Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5x (MLQ - Form 5x) was administered. The sample group (N=104) comprised of male and female middle to senior managers using the convenience sampling method. Statistical analysis involved both descriptive and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation).

Results indicate there are significant relationships between total emotional intelligence and leadership, between total emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership, between total emotional intelligence and laissez-faire leadership and between

total emotional intelligence and outcomes of leadership. There was, however, no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transactional leadership style. The findings highlight the need for future research, implications of emotional intelligence and that of leadership for the individual as well as the organisation are highlighted and recommendations are presented.

**Key Words:**

Emotional Intelligence

Leadership styles

Self-awareness

Transformational

Transactional

Laissez-faire

Competencies

Outcomes of Leadership

Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5x

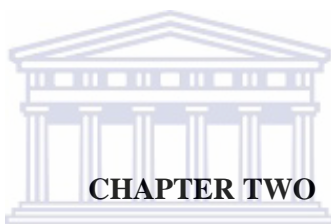


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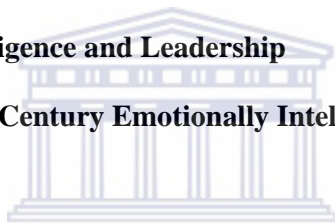
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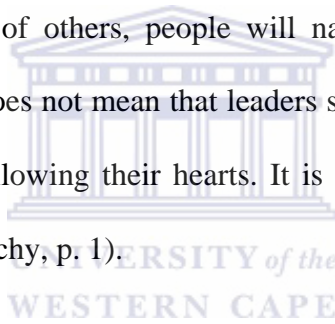


## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style has been a topic of great interest and a plethora of research has been conducted on the subject. Organisations have come to realise that they need leaders, not bosses and are looking to enhance their potential leaders through emotional intelligence. Suchy (2002) postulates that when a good leader can engage the hearts of others, people will naturally follow. She defends this statement by saying that this does not mean that leaders should be “wearing their hearts on their sleeves or necessarily following their hearts. It is about leadership using emotional intelligence competencies” (Suchy, p. 1).



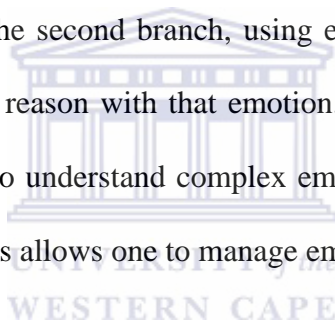
Mayer and Salovey (cited in Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2000, p. 267) describe emotional intelligence as “the ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem – solve on the basis of them”. It has also been defined as the ability “to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathise and to hope” (Goleman, 1995, p. 34).

Kapp (2000, p. 151) summarises a few definitions on emotional intelligence 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.



The second variable discussed in this paper is leadership. When discussing leadership, it is important to bear in mind that there is a difference between leadership and leadership style: Leadership refers to “the lifting of people’s vision to a higher sight, the raising of their performance to a higher standard, the building of their personality beyond its normal limitations” (Drucker, 1985, p. 85). The forward to the Drucker Foundation's “The Leader of the Future” sums up leadership as: “The only definition of a leader is someone who has followers.”

Leadership style, on the other hand, refers to “the way in which the functions of leadership are carried out and the way in which the manager typically behaves towards members of



the group” (Mullins, 1999, p. 267). For the purposes of this study leadership style has been broken up into four categories: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, non-transactional laissez-faire leadership and outcomes of leadership.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 3), transformational leaders “motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often more than they thought possible. They set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performances.” These leaders behave in ways to achieve one or more of the following: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and/ or individualised consideration. Transactional leadership emphasises the transaction or exchange that takes place among leaders, colleagues, and followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p.3). Non-transactional leaders abdicate responsibility and avoid making decisions (Robbins, 1998). Outcomes of leadership refers to the extra effort employees are willing to invest in order to achieve set goals.

Research has been done to prove that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. A good example is the study conducted by Johnson and Johnson Consumer Care and Personal Care Group (cited by Cavallo, in Schaap & Coetzee 2003, p. 3) which showed that the highest performing managers have significantly more emotional intelligence than other managers. Another study which links emotional intelligence to leadership style, was conducted by Gardner and Stough (2002) to examine this relationship in senior level managers. Leban and Zulauf (2003) reported a relationship in their study linking emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership style. A study undertaken by Duckett and Macfarlane (2003) in a retail management context further

demonstrates a relationship between success, emotional intelligence and transformational leadership.

Goleman (1998, p. 93) provides research data, based on 15 years of empirical studies that tie strengths in emotional intelligence to enhanced business results. Kapp (1993, p. 153) postulates that “according to some of the literature on the value of emotional intelligence, it seems that success in leadership and the workplace is often attributed to emotional intelligence”.

## **1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY**

Within the 21<sup>st</sup> century, greater emphasis is being placed on the importance of leadership compared to management. Dasnois, maintains that “leadership is the single most important catalyst for change in any country or organization” (2003, p. xi). She further postulates that “for South Africa to realise greatness, we need men and women who can steer us through stormy waters. They are not necessarily the chief executives; in many instances the significant leader is a middle manager who has been able to find the key to unlock the great human potential within a company”.

### **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: Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment?

### **1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**



The primary objective of this study is to establish whether or not there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.

### **1.5 HYPOTHESES**

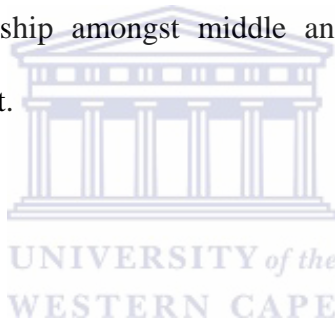
Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999, p. 117) define hypotheses as “educated guesses or expectations about differences between groups in the population or about relationships among variables”.

***Hypothesis 1:***

There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.

***Hypothesis 2:***

There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.



***Hypothesis 3:***

There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transactional leadership amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.

***Hypothesis 4:***

There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and non-transactional (laissez-faire) leadership amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.

***Hypothesis 5:***

There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and outcomes of leadership amongst middle and senior managers in an office automation environment.

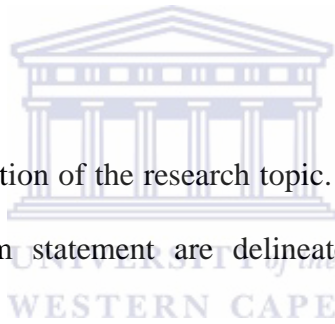
**1.6 STRUCTURE OF THIS THESIS**

The structure of this dissertation comprises of five chapters, with each having its unique content and purpose.

Chapter 1 provides an introduction of 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 leadership style.

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 TWO

### EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

*“Anyone who has been studying leadership will know that it is an exponentially accelerating arena, though this does not mean we are getting even nearer understanding what leadership is”* (Grint, 2001, p. 2).

According to Bennis and Nanus (in Avery, 2004, p. 3), “Leadership is both the most studied and the least understood topic in the social sciences”. The leadership paradigm includes classical, transactional, visionary and organic leadership. Bennis and Nanus (in Avery, 2004, p.4) further postulate that “the concept of leadership remains elusive and enigmatic, despite years of effort at developing an intellectually and emotionally satisfying understanding. This is probably because people discussing leadership are likely to have different concepts in mind”. Some of these concepts conjure up images of powerful dynamic individuals who lead nations and conquer empires.

The concept of leadership has excited curiosity among society for a long time, and studies have focused on a range of explanations, from classical, traditional, modern and mythical to alternative leadership (Grint, 2001).

## 2.2 DEFINING LEADERSHIP

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

Avery (2004, p. 4), cites the following challenges in understanding leadership:

- 2.2.1 There is no agreed definition of leadership or what the concept should embrace.
- 2.2.2 Most ideas about leadership have been intentionally broken down into smaller components so that scholars could conduct publishable research into them. As a result, much of the work on leadership is currently too simple to reflect the full richness and complexity that practitioners face on the job.
- 2.2.3 Theories and research into leadership are far from complete, with little consistent theories.
- 2.2.4 The ideas underlying concepts of leadership have changed over the course of history, paralleling many social and other changes.

It has become apparent through all the research done on the subject of leadership that “there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Stogdill in Yukl, 2002, p. 2). It has been estimated that in 1999 alone, over 2 000 books were published on the topic of leadership.



According to Daft (1999, p. 5), “leadership studies are an emerging discipline and the concept of leadership will continue to evolve”.

**Definitions of leadership include:**

- a. “Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or a restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members...Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group. Any member of the group can exhibit some amount of leadership...” (Bass, 1990, p. 19).
- b. “Leadership is the ability to inspire confidence and support among the people who are needed to achieve organizational goals” (Dubrin, 1998, p. 2).
- c. “Leadership involves influence, it occurs among people, those people intentionally desire significant changes, and the changes reflect purposes shared by leaders and followers” (Daft, 1999, p.5).
- d. “Leadership is a process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish the shared objectives” (Yukl, 2002, p. 7).
- e. “Leadership is a skill...involved in a process of two-way communication, a continuous feedback. This interaction sustains the working morale and the feeling of personal worth of each member of the team, and is in turn sustained by

them....True leadership is characterized not by dominion, but by service” (Marrow in Cooper, 2003, p. 18).

### **2.3 THE CHANGING FACE OF LEADERSHIP IN THE 21<sup>st</sup> CENTURY**

Avery (2004, p. 9) stresses that definitions of leadership should be “capable of adapting to new ideas and circumstances. These new ideas and circumstances originating in an ever changing world of technology and multi-culturalism”. Research undertaken by Hesselbein, Goldsmith and Beckhard (1996) supports this view that the world is changing at a dizzying pace, fueled by changes in technology and innovation. Avery (2004, p. 9), cites “changing business environments which also affect ideas about leadership” as the primary motivator because “face to face leadership is no longer tenable in an increasingly virtual world, where some leaders and followers interact solely via communication and information technology, and may never meet in person”.

This perspective of a rapidly changing environment which is causing fundamental transformations, presenting new challenges for leadership can be seen in Daft’s (1999, p. 8) illustration of shifting from a traditional to a new paradigm, a new reality which “effective leaders will respond to”. Leaders will require abilities such as being team-orientated, problem-solvers and change agents (Fandt, Goodman & Lewis, 1998). Bridges (in Hesselbein, et al., 1996, p. 14), quotes Drucker when emphasizing that “every organisation has to build the management of change into its very structure”.

**Table 2.1** *The New Reality for Leadership*

<b>Old Paradigm</b>	<b>New Paradigm</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Industrial Age</li><li>● Stability</li><li>● Control</li><li>● Competition</li><li>● Things</li><li>● Uniformity</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>● Information Age</li><li>● Change</li><li>● Empowerment</li><li>● Collaboration</li><li>● People and Relationships</li><li>● Diversity</li></ul>

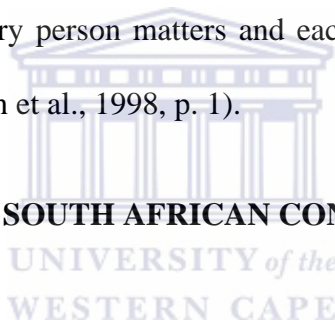
Source: Daft, R. L. (1999) Leadership. Theory and Practice. U.S.A: Harcourt College Publishers, p. 9.

Leadership practices that distinguish diversity as a positive asset of organisations and communities will need to be adopted. New systems thinking will be required to create processes that increase inclusiveness and diversity in decision making (Daft, 1999).

As the demand for this new leadership grows, the command and control leaders at the top of the pyramid are being challenged to change. They are expected to become leaders who are facilitators, stewards, coaches, designers and teachers (Senge, in Kellogg Leadership Studies Project, 1996). They are being challenged to become leaders who "walk their talk" and model the way, inspiring others, delegating and serving. Effective leaders are recognizing that every person has leadership qualities that can and must be recognized and used. A leader will have various roles to play within this new changing environment (Drucker, 1996; Nanus, 1992).

Allen, Bordas, Hickman, Matusak, Sorenson and Whitmire (1998), offer a very succinct approach to the new leadership paradigm in saying it involves restructuring the conceptual framework of what the practice of leadership is and the general understanding of what effective leaders do. They suggest that instead of trying to find a definition to describe the nature of leadership, we should rather be focussing on the purpose of leadership in the twenty first century. They propose that the following be seen as the ultimate purpose of leadership:" To create a supportive environment where people can thrive, grow, and live in peace with one another; to promote harmony with nature and thereby provide sustainability for future generations; and to create communities of reciprocal care and shared responsibility - one where every person matters and each person's welfare and dignity is respected and supported" (Allen et al., 1998, p. 1).

#### **2.4 LEADERSHIP IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN CONTEXT**



The first democratic election in South Africa has resulted in a new and exciting period for South Africans which among others, initiated a paradigm shift for organizational leadership. A time where the country has entered the global arena which on the one hand opens doors of opportunity, but at the same time, brings new leadership challenges. Visagie (1997, p. 660), proposes that “managing change effectively begins with the recognition that change requires altering the attitudes and behaviour of individuals”.

This important task lies with the leaders who will drive the process and be change agents in the transformation process.

Roodt (1997) in Luthans, Van Wyk and Walumbwa (2004, p. 512) purport that “a bigger challenge was to deal with the post-apartheid organizational culture and business dynamics such as heightened ethnic and language diversity, legally sanctioned affirmative action and its consequences, adverse labour relations with the tendency toward open conflict and violence, and the continuing wide gap between the “haves” and the “have nots” in terms of income level, education, and opportunities”. New systems thinking will be required to design processes that increase inclusiveness and diversity in decision making.

South Africa has seen a change from the more traditional and bureaucratic organisational structures to more flexible structures that have a broader span of control and decentralised decision making in line with international trends (Denton & Vloeberghs, 2003).

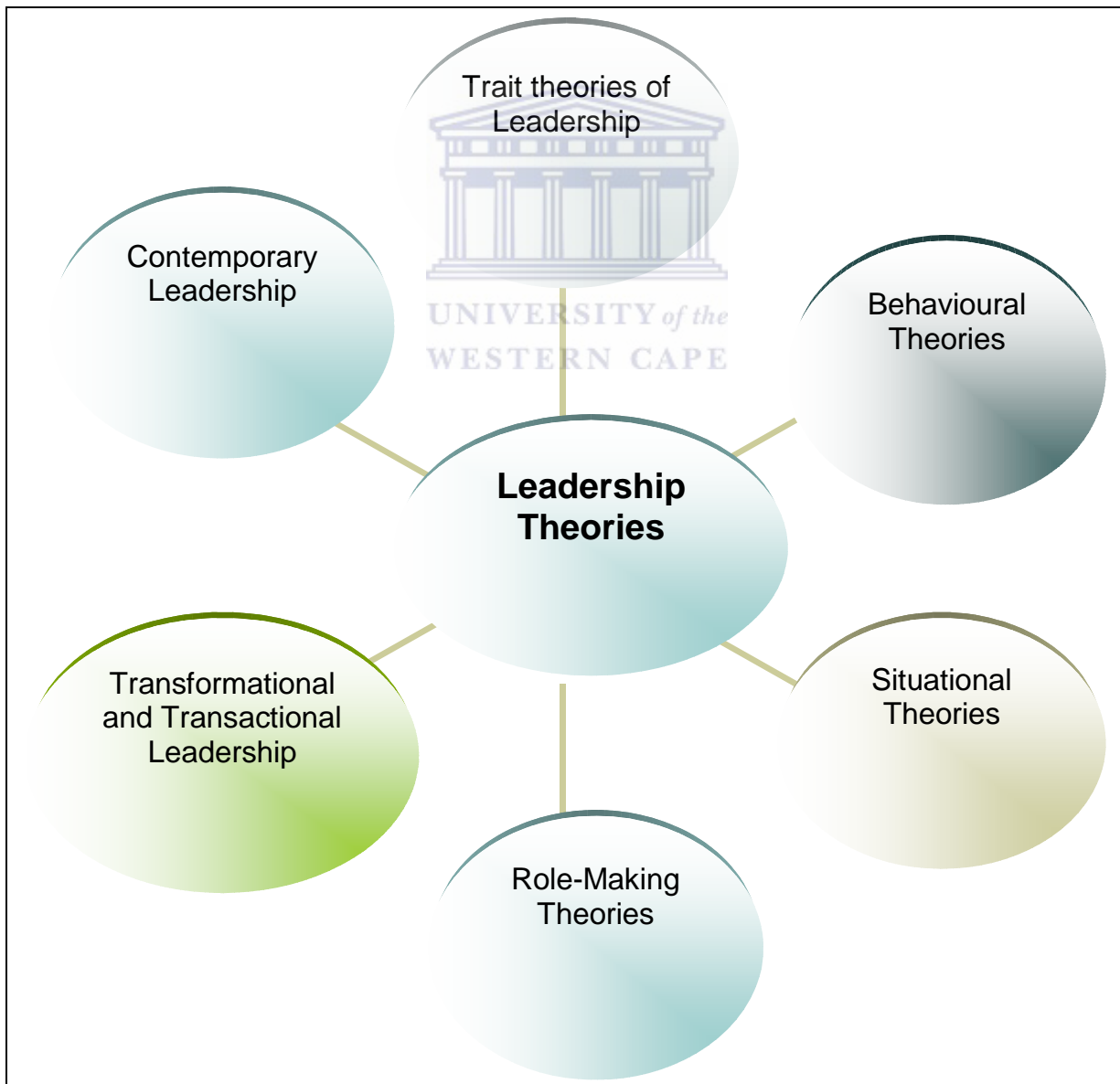
Swanepoel, Erasmus, Schenk and van Wyk (2000, p. 398) confirm these new challenges facing South African organisations and adds that “the implementation of affirmative action and equal opportunity programmes, changes in workplace values and in people’s values and norms are taking place, which impacts on styles of management and leadership.

What South Africa needs to deal with the plethora of changes is transformational leadership, which is “about change, innovation and leadership” (Tichy & Devana, 1986, p. 27).

## 2.5 LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND LEADERSHIP STYLE

Given the plethora of literature available on the subject of Leadership, it is best understood within a theoretical framework. Figure 2.1 has been designed for the purpose of depicting the flow of the leadership information in this chapter, each component of which is separately addressed.

**Figure 2.1: Flow of Leadership Information for this Study**



### 2.5.1 Trait Theories of Leadership

The trait approach to understanding leadership assumes that certain physical, social, and personal characteristics are inherent in leaders. Most literature refers to trait theory as the earliest approaches to studying leadership. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996, p.101) maintain that this approach concentrated on “leadership traits per se, suggesting that certain characteristics, such as physical energy or friendliness, were essential for effective leadership”.

The underlying assumption of this approach is:

- ✚ People are born with inherited traits.
- ✚ Some traits are particularly suited to leadership.
- ✚ People who make good leaders have the right (or sufficient) combination of traits.

According to Yukl (2002, p. 175), the term trait refers to “a variety of individual attributes, including aspects of personality, temperament, needs, motives, and values”. He cites examples to include: “self-confidence, extroversion, emotional maturity, and energy level”.

Theorists believe that leadership effectiveness is strongly determined by personal characteristics (DuBrin, 1998). These personal characteristics and skills which contribute to leadership effectiveness in many situations are referred to as the “universal theory of leadership” (DuBrin, 1998, p. 25). Characteristics that can be associated with leadership are personality traits and motives (Dubrin, 1998).

### **2.5.1.1 Personality Traits**

This is a trait that is observable both within and outside the context of work. Examples of these traits include: self-confidence, trustworthiness, assertiveness, emotional stability, enthusiasm, warmth, self-awareness and self-objectivity (Dubrin, 1998).

### **2.5.1.2 Leadership Motives**

This refers to a strong desire to occupy a position of responsibility for others and to control them. Examples include: power motive, drive and achievement motive, and strong work ethic and tenacity. According to Greenberg (1999), leadership motivation can take two distinct forms:

- a. Personalised power motivation: there is a “wish to dominate others, and their desire to do so is often reflected in an excessive concern for status” (Greenberg, 1999, p. 176).
- b. Socialised power motivation: “leaders can seek power as a means to achieve desired, shared goals through co-operating with subordinates instead of attempting to dominate and control them” (Greenberg, 1999, p. 176).

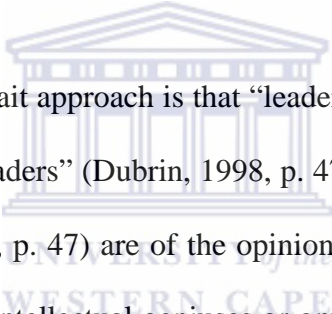
There has been much debate around the question whether leaders possess certain personality traits which distinguish them from followers and the legendary question: “Are some people really born leaders?” Daft (1999, p.20) proffers that “almost everyone has the potential to be a leader. We all have the seeds of leadership within us; our experiences can



either kill them or help them to grow. We can either invest in developing leadership qualities or allow those qualities to lie dormant”.

A study by Stogdill (Yukl, 2002, p. 177) emphatically proved that there was no evidence of universal leadership traits. He concluded that “possession of some traits and skills increases the likelihood that a leader will be effective, but they do not guarantee effectiveness” (Stogdill, in Yukl, 2002, p. 11).

### **2.5.1.3 The Strengths and Limitations of the Trait Approach**



An argument in favour of the trait approach is that “leaders possess personal characteristics that differ from those of non-leaders” (Dubrin, 1998, p. 47). After extensive research, Lock and Kirkpatrick (DuBrin, 1998, p. 47) are of the opinion that: "Leaders do not have to be great men or women by being intellectual geniuses or omniscient prophets to succeed. But they do need the ‘right stuff’ and this stuff is not equally present in all people”.

Later research, particularly more recent and more sophisticated work has found a consistent and strong relationship between certain traits and leadership. Research conducted on more than 100 studies based on the trait approach by Stogdill (cited in Daft, 1999) uncovered several traits that appeared consistent with effective leadership. This review further revealed that “several traits appeared in effective leaders, the importance of a particular trait was often relative to another factor-the situation” (Daft, 1999, p. 65).

A constraint of the trait approach according to DuBrin (1998, p. 47) is the fact that it “does not tell us which traits are absolutely needed in which leadership situation. We also do not know how much of a trait, characteristic, or motive is the right amount”. Trait theory posits key traits for successful leadership (drive, desire to lead, integrity, self-confidence, intelligence, and job-relevant knowledge) yet does not make a judgment as to whether these traits are inherent to individuals or whether they can be developed through training and education.

Drucker (in DuBrin, 1998) is of the opinion that leaders cannot be placed into a specific category based on a particular set of traits. Researchers such as Mann and Stodgill found no consistent correlate between particular traits and leadership (Stogdill, in Yukl, 2002).

A possible premise to the two trains of thought could be to argue that certain traits increase the probability of effective leadership, although not guaranteed. On the other hand, the leadership situation could be a determinant when deciding which traits are the most important (DuBrin, 1998).

## 2.5.2 Behavioural Theories of Leadership

The assumption underlying the behavioural theory of leadership is that “anyone who adopts the appropriate behaviour can be a good leader” (Daft, 1999, p. 69). The premise of the behavioural theory is different to the premise of the trait theory in that it advocates that behaviours can be learnt more readily than traits. Thus, this implies that leadership is accessible to all (Daft, 1999). Greenberg (1999), postulates that the possibility exists that most people can become effective leaders by emulating the behaviour of successful leaders.

Studies of importance to the behaviour approach are the Iowa State University study conducted by Kurt Lewin, and the University of Michigan studies and the Ohio State Studies.



### 2.5.2.1 The University of Michigan Studies

A famous series of studies on leadership were done in Michigan University, starting in the 1950s. These studies, which centred on the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors, found two critical types of leadership behaviour, each consisting of two dimensions (Daft, 1999).

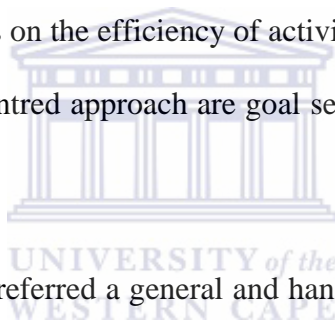
#### a. Employee centred leaders

Effective leaders studied focused on the human needs of their subordinates. The two underlying dimensions of employee-centred behaviour are leader support and interaction facilitation. They also spent time demonstrating support and guiding subordinates in

setting task goals that were both challenging and achievable (Daft, 1999). The author provides us with a case in point example of an employee-centred leader, namely Jamie Bonini, manager of a large Chrysler manufacturing plant near Windsor Ontario. Bonini demonstrated concern for managers as well as employees and most of his activities addressed the human needs of the workers. According to Daft, Bonini “is one of a new generation of plant managers who are as quick to apply touchy-feely leadership techniques as they are to use their advanced technical degrees” (1999, p. 74).

**b. Job-centred leaders**

The job-centred leader focuses on the efficiency of activities, cost-cutting and scheduling. The dimensions of this job-centred approach are goal setting and work facilitation (Daft, 1999).



Overall, the effective leader preferred a general and hands-off form of supervision rather than close control. They set goals and provided guidelines, but then gave their subordinates plenty of latitude as to how the goals would be achieved.

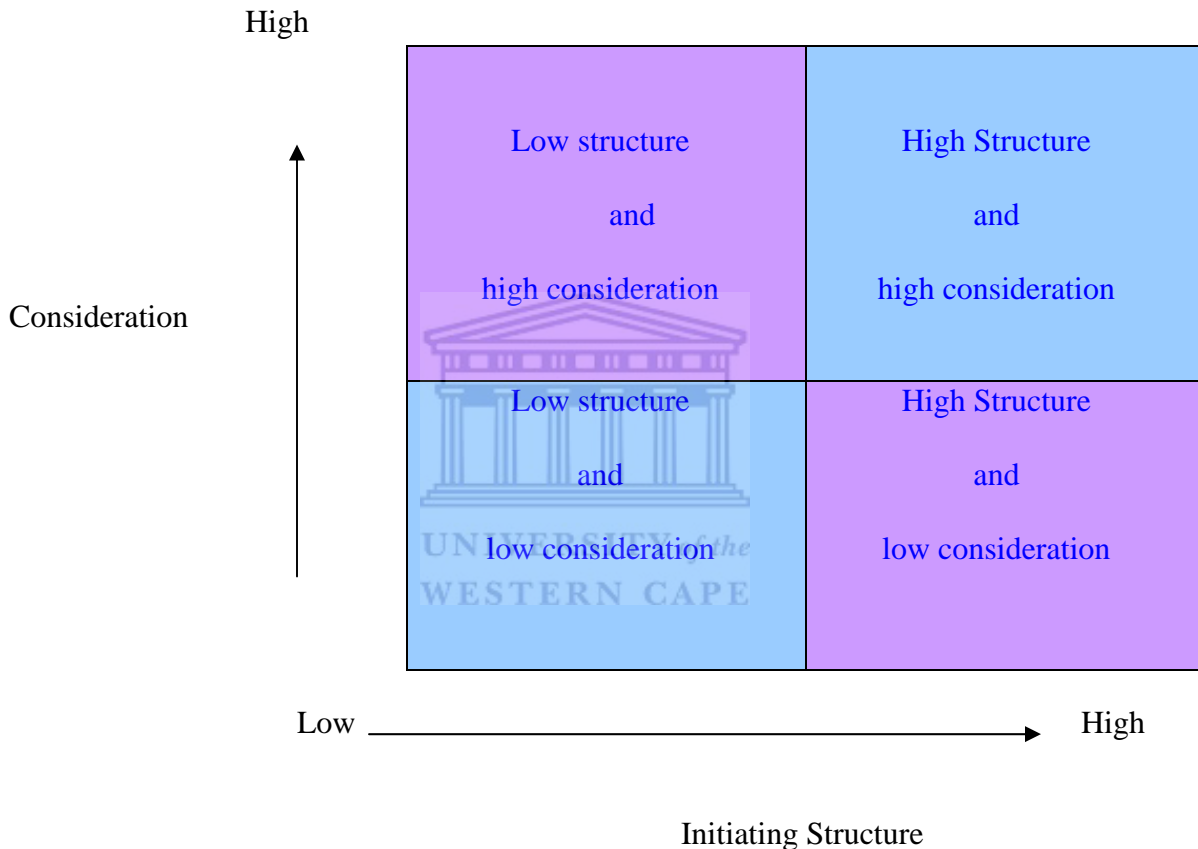
**2.5.2.2 The Ohio State Studies**

Research based on questionnaires to leaders and subordinates indicates two critical characteristics either of which could be high or low and were independent of one another.

**a. Consideration:** This is the degree to which leaders act in a friendly and supportive manner towards their subordinates (Yukl, 2002).

**b. Initiating structure:** This is the degree to which leaders define and structures their role and the roles of the subordinates towards achieving the goals of the group (Yukl, 2002).

**Figure 2.2: Four Combinations of Initiating Structure and Consideration**



Source: DuBrin, A. J. (1998) Leadership. Research Findings, Practice, and Skills. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, p. 83.

DuBrin (1998, p. 83), proffers an explanation of the four leadership styles:

- a. Low Structure, High Consideration: There is less emphasis on employee tasks, with greater emphasis on employee needs.

- b. High Structure, High Consideration: This leader provides guidance on tasks and cares about employee needs.
- c. Low Structure, Low Consideration: This leader does not provide structure and has little consideration for employee needs.
- d. High Structure, Low Consideration: This leader emphasises structuring tasks with little consideration for employee needs.

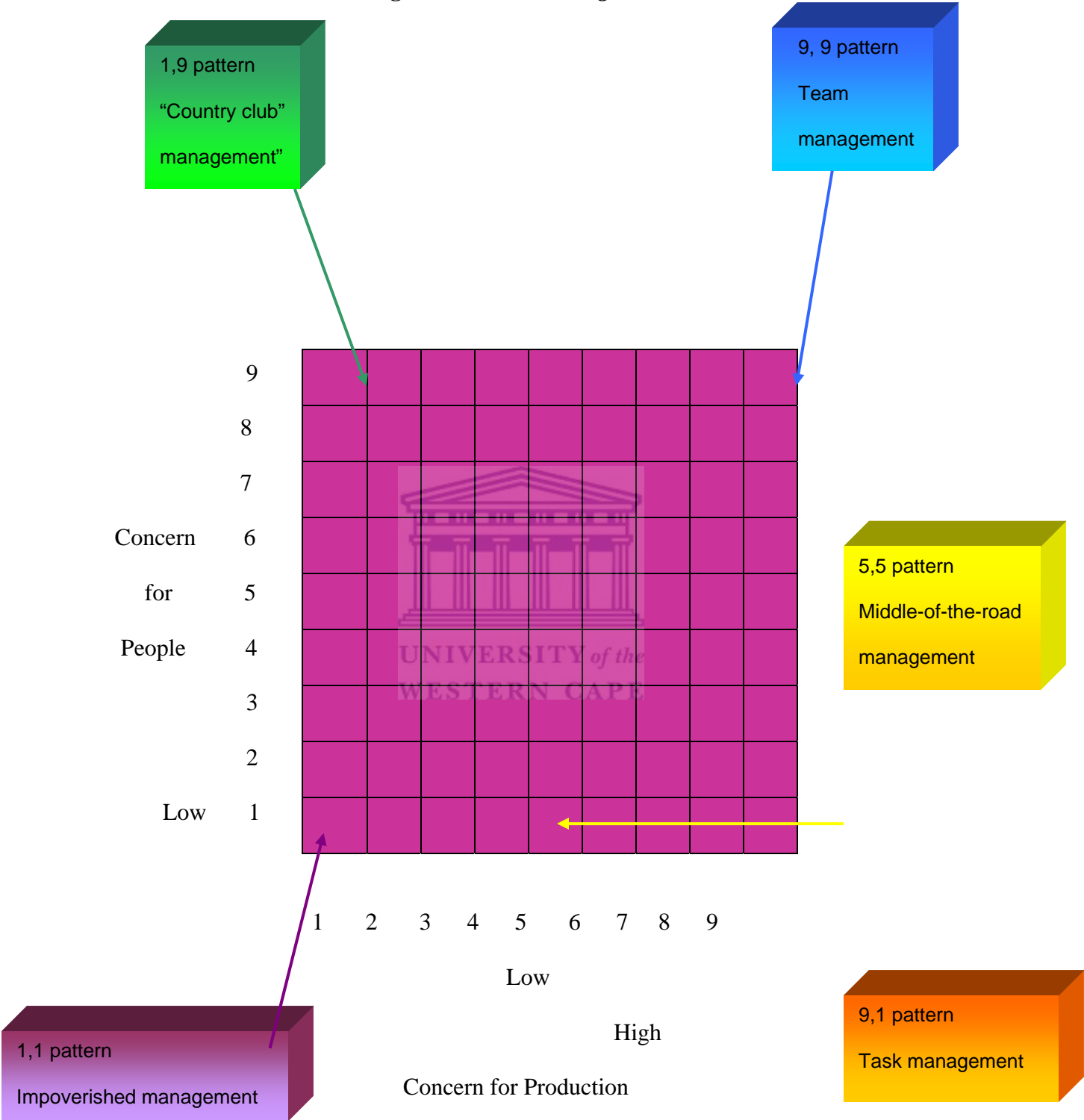
Studies by Greenberg (1999) denote that choosing the best leadership style is a complex issue. Having identified the complexities of choosing one leadership style over another, there is “one specific pattern of behaviour in which leaders are likely to be highly successful. This is a pattern in which leaders demonstrate high concern for both people and production” (Greenberg, 1999, p.180). It is suggested that skilful leaders can combine these two orientations to generate favourable results. Greenberg (1999) further postulates that “although no one leadership style is best, leaders who combine these two behaviours may have an important edge over leaders who show only one or the other” (p. 180).

### **2.5.2.3 Developing Successful Leader Behaviours: The Leadership/ Managerial Grid**

After much research conducted on the behaviour which guarantees better leadership results and having established that a combination of high concern for people and production give leaders the edge, it becomes apparent that these two forms of leadership have to be developed. A technique known as grid training is used because it is considered to be a highly “effective way of improving leadership behaviours of people in organisations” (Greenberg, 1999, p. 181).

Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid (in Greenberg, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001) is a questionnaire that allows managers to assess where they stand with respect to concern for people as well as concern for production. Each participant’s approach is scored on a scale of 1 (low) to 9 (high). The most desirable score would be 9, 9 which is indicative of the most desirable pattern, known as team management. Once a manager’s position along the grid is determined, training begins to reach the ideal 9,9 state.

Figure 2.3 The Managerial Grid



Source: Greenberg, J. (1999). Managing Behaviour in Organisations (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) New Jersey: Prentice Hall. p. 181.



#### **2.5.2.4 Limitations of Behavioural Theories**

A refinement of the behavioral approach to studying leadership is needed to support the premise that leaders are made not born. It would thus be beneficial to “identify which clusters of behaviours and attitudes will achieve the intended results in a given situation” (DuBrin, 1998, p.101). According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001), behavioural style research revealed that there is no one best way of leadership. The authors argue that “the effectiveness of a particular leadership style depends on the situation at hand” (Kreitner and Kinicki, p. 560).

#### **2.5.3 Situational Leadership Theories**



When researchers realised that it was near impossible to find universal traits and behaviours that could be used to determine effective leadership, it became apparent that they would have to focus their attention on the situation in which leadership occurred (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1991). This theory examines the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness in specific situations. According to Daft (1999, p. 93), “for a leader to be effective there must be an appropriate fit between the leader’s behaviour and style and the conditions in the situation”. It becomes apparent that a leadership style that works in one situation may not necessarily function in another situation.

The main function of this approach is to define the characteristics of situations and followers and to examine the leadership styles that can be used effectively.

### 2.5.3.1 Fiedler's Contingency Model

Fiedler's model, which is one of the most well known models of this theory, "proposes that leadership effectiveness is a function of the match between a leader's style and the leadership situation" (Avery, 2004, p. 81).

He distinguishes between two types of leaders:

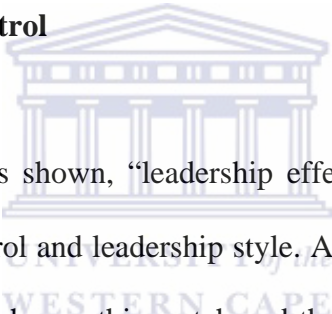
- a. **Task-motivated leaders:** these leaders draw self-esteem from accomplishing tasks. They are interested in completing assignments and getting the work done.
- b. **Relationship-motivated leaders:** these leaders draw self-esteem from interpersonal relations. They are concerned with group maintenance, are people-centered, facilitative, supportive, interaction-orientated and have a high need for affiliation.

Central to Fiedler's contingency model is the congruence between the leader's style and the situation. The model "predicts that task-motivated leaders will be more effective than relationship-orientated leaders where there is either high or low control over the situation. Relationship-motivated leaders will be effective under conditions of moderate situational control" (Avery, 2004, p. 82).

Fiedler (in Avery, 2004) proffers the view that the leader's style is long lasting and constant and recommends that instead of changing the leader's style to match the situation, leaders should learn how to diagnose and modify situational control.

Although Fiedler's theory "has been one of the most widely researched theories in Industrial Psychology" (Dubrin, 1998, p. 137), a criticism of this theory is that in today's turbulent environment, being able to control a situation is possibly an exercise in futility. A feasible argument that the contingency theory is too intricate to have much of an impact on leaders is that "it is difficult to make generalizations about leadership performance when leaders are compared from one situation to another" (Dubrin, 1998, p. 138). Therefore it is argued that this theory would be more applicable to classical and transactional leadership than to visionary paradigms (Avery, 2004).

### **2.5.3.2 Situational Control**



As the Contingency Model has shown, "leadership effectiveness depends on the proper match between situational control and leadership style. A major change in the organisation or in the leader will necessary change this match and thus increase or decrease leadership performance" (Fiedler, in Grint, 2001, p. 133).

The following three aspects of the situation are considered:

- a. Leader-Member Relations: "the extent to which the leader has the support and loyalty of subordinates, and relations with subordinates are friendly and cooperative" (Yukl, 2002, p. 209).

b. Position Power: The extent to which the leader has authority to evaluate subordinate performance and administer rewards and punishments (Yukl, 2002, p. 209).

c. Task Structure: The extent to which there are standard operating procedures to accomplish the task, a detailed description of the finished product or service, and objective indicators of how well the task is being performed (Yukl, 2002, p. 209).

**Figure 2.4: Fiedler's Contingency model of Leadership**

Situational Control	High Control Situations			Moderate Control Situations			Low Control Situations	
Leader-member relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Poor	Poor	Poor	Poor
Task structure	High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Position power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak
Situation	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Optimal Leadership Style	Task-Motivated Leadership			Relationship-Motivated Leadership			Task-Motivated Leadership	

Source: Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2004). Organisational Behaviour.(6<sup>th</sup> ed.).

New York: Irwin/ McGraw-Hill, p. 607.

### 2.5.3.3 Evaluation of the Theory

Fiedler's theory was one of the earliest contingency theories of leadership and its biggest contribution lies in cultivating interest in situational factors. Fiedler's theory has become renowned for prompting further research to examine the contingency nature of leadership. This research "reinforced the notion that there is no one best style of leadership" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001, p. 607).

### 2.5.4 Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

The path-goal leadership theory is a development of the contingency approach (House & Mitchell, 1974). This is an approach in which the key role of a leader is to clear the way for others to accomplish goals in different situations. The leader identifies goals, available rewards and the paths that must be taken to achieve these goals. In this approach "leaders and followers establish a transactional relationship that revolves around the exchange of the leader's guidance or support for the followers' productivity and satisfaction" (Avery, 2004, p. 84).

According to Cooper (2003, p. 26), there are four leadership styles identified by House:

1. *Directive*: The leader gives specific directions and the sub-ordinate does not participate.
2. *Supportive*: The leader is friendly and shows concern for subordinates.
3. *Participative*: The leader asks for suggestions but still makes decisions.

4. *Achievement-orientated:* The leader sets challenging goals and shows confidence in subordinate ability and willingness to perform well.

Daft (1999, p. 104), suggests that these four types of leader behaviour “are not considered ingrained personality traits as in the earlier trait theories; rather they reflect types of behaviour that every leader is able to adopt, depending on the situation”. To aid potential followers in achieving their goals, leaders influence their perceptions by engaging the different styles of leadership in different situations.

#### **2.5.4.1 Evaluation of House’s Path-Goal Theory**

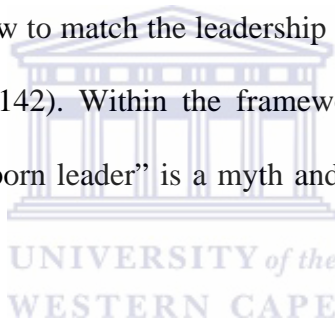
Schriesheim and Kerr (cited in Avery, 2004) concluded that the path-goal theory appears internally consistent, but needs testing in practice. After more research conducted on the theory, diverse empirical support has emerged.

Daft (1999, p. 107) claims that “the four types of leader behaviour and the ideas for fitting them to situational contingencies provide a useful way for leaders to think about motivating subordinates”.

#### 2.5.4.2 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

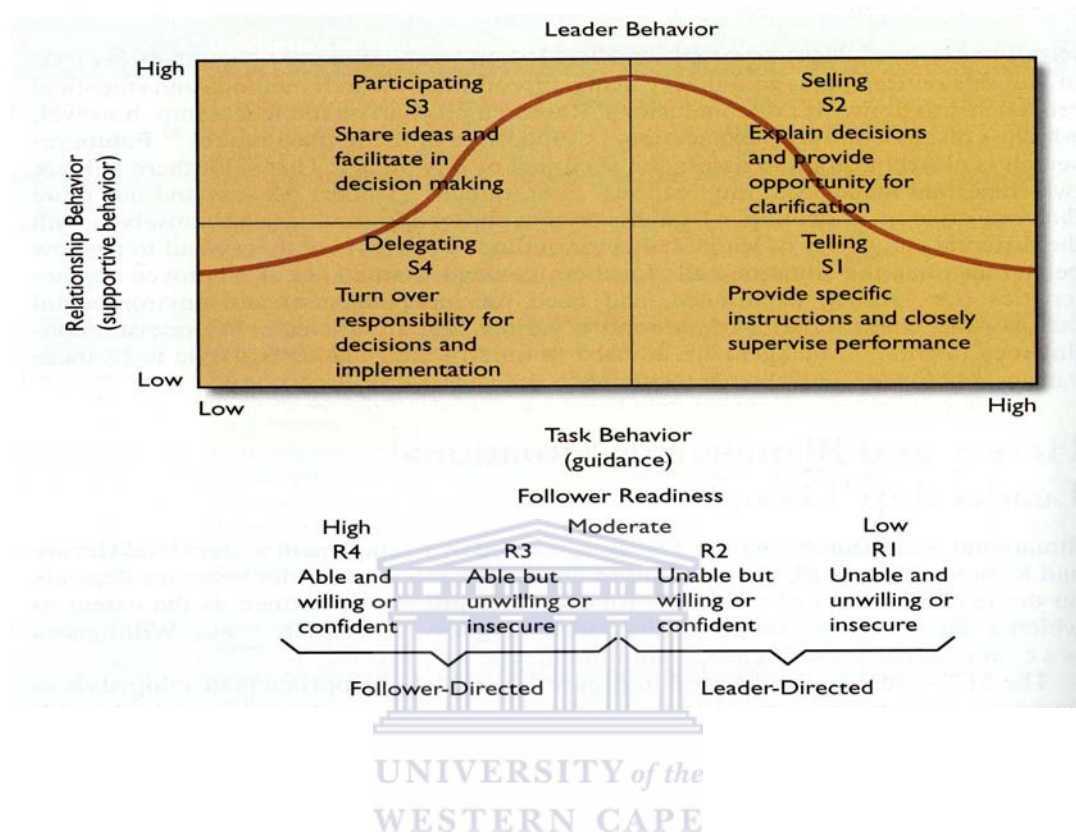
The two afore-mentioned contingency approaches to leadership, namely, Fiedler's contingency theory and the path-goal theory, collectively examined the task, the leader's authority, and the subordinate's nature. This theory focuses on the characteristics of group members and style is defined according to the relative amount of task and relationship behaviour the leader engages in.

The basic premise of this model of Hersey and Blanchard, known as the situational leadership model, "explains how to match the leadership style to the readiness of the group members" (DuBrin, 1998, p. 142). Within the framework of this theory, Adair (1997) argues that the concept of a "born leader" is a myth and highlights the importance of the situation instead.



- ✚ **Task behaviour** refers to the extent to which the duties and responsibilities of an individual or group is spelled out by the leader.
- ✚ **Relationship behaviour** refers to the extent to which the leader engages in communication through listening, providing encouragement and coaching.

**Figure 2.5:** *Situational Leadership Model*



Source: Kreitner, R. & Kinicki, A. (2004). *Organisational Behaviour*. (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Irwin/ McGraw-Hill, p. 612.

Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory as represented by Daft (1999, p. 99) is as follows:

- a. Telling: this is a very directive style which involves giving explicit direction about how tasks should be accomplished.
- b. Selling: this involves providing direction, but also seeking input from others before making decisions.



- c. Participating: this is a style that focuses on supporting the growth and improvement of others by guiding skill development and acting as a resource for advice and information.
- d. Delegating: this is a style that affords little direction and little support. Under such conditions, employees assume responsibility for their work – and for the success of their organisation.

Daft (1999), contends that when deciding on the appropriate leadership style, the readiness of employees will be a determining factor. In this context, the word “readiness” refers to ability and willingness.

- a. Ability refers to the knowledge, experience and skill in which a particular task or activity is handled by an individual or group.
- b. Willingness refers to the confidence, commitment and motivation used by an individual or group to accomplish specific tasks.

Daft (1999) further postulates that through situational leadership theory, it becomes apparent that as the readiness of a group member increases, there should be more reliance on relationship building and less on task activity.

### 2.5.4.3 Evaluation of the Situational Model

An advantage of this model is that it builds on other explanations of leadership and emphasises the role of tasks and relationship behaviours.

A critique of this model includes the fact that it is not realistic when portraying the leadership situations as clear-cut as suggested by the four quadrants (Daft, 1999).

### 2.5.4.4 Vroom-Yetton Yago Leadership Theory

Although similar to previous models with regard to some basic principles, the focus of the Vroom-Yetton model is on the varying degrees of participative leadership, and how quality and accountability of each level is influenced by each level (Daft, 1999).

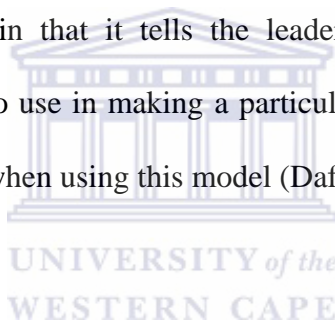
The decision procedure is pivotal to this model in that the quality of a decision and the acceptance of that decision by the people who are expected to implement that decision is affected (Yukl, 2002). The author further highlights the fact that “the effect of the decision procedures on decision quality and acceptance depends on various aspects of the situation” (p. 88). The importance of the effectiveness of a procedure in some situations which may be ineffective in other situations, is highlighted.

- a. *Situational Variables*: Several aspects of the decision situation have to be considered to guarantee effectiveness, for example: the amount of relevant information possessed by both leader and subordinates.

- b. *Decision Acceptance*: this refers to the degree of commitment to effectively implement a decision.
- c. *Decision Quality*: The quality of the decision is high when the best alternative is selected.
- d. *Decision Rules*: A set of rules for identifying inappropriate decision procedure is provided.

#### **2.5.4.5 Evaluation of the Vroom-Yetton Yago Leadership Model**

This model is very applied, in that it tells the leader exactly the correct amount of participation by subordinates to use in making a particular decision and leaders can make timely, high quality decisions when using this model (Daft, 1999).



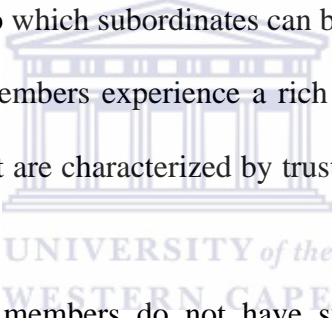
#### **2.5.5 Dyadic Approach**

The focal point of Dyadic Theory is the exchange between a leader and a follower. This theory sets out to examine why leaders have more influence over and greater impact on some followers than on others (Yukl, 2002).

### **2.5.5.1 Vertical Dyas Linkage model of Leadership/Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX)**

The Vertical Dyas Linkage model “argues for the importance of the dyad formed by a leader with each member of the subordinate group” (Daft, 1999, p. 80). Thus, the basic premise of this theory is that leaders develop a “separate exchange relationship with each individual subordinate as the two parties mutually define the role of the subordinate” (Yukl, 2002, p. 116).

Two groups were identified into which subordinates can be classified:

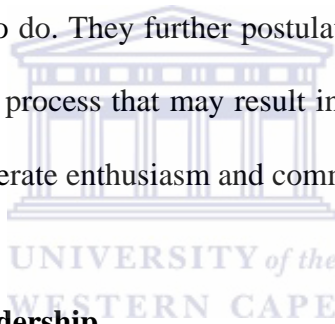
- 
- a. “In-group”: these members experience a rich exchange, enjoying relationships with their leader that are characterized by trust, loyalty, and a sense of common fate.
  - b. “Out-group”: these members do not have such close relationships with the leader, have few opportunities to interact with the leader and are often excluded from important decisions or activities.

The LMX model has been extensively researched, but questions such as how in and out groups are formed have remained unanswered and whether people can move from one group to another.

## **2.6 Transformational and Transactional Leadership**

There has been extensive interest in testing new paradigms of leadership. Bass and Avolio (1991) and Bass (1990) in Leban and Zulauf (2004) cite that in response to previous models failing to explain the full range of existing leadership styles and behaviours, the concepts of transformational and transactional leadership emerged.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), with transformational leadership, followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do. They further postulate that transactional leadership, in contrast, involves an exchange process that may result in follower compliance with leader requests but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives.



### **2.6.1 Transformational Leadership**

Transformational leadership has emerged as one of the most widely researched leadership paradigms on organisational psychology. Transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership, which focuses on “what the leader accomplishes, rather than on the leader’s personal characteristics and her or his relationship with group members” (Dubrin, 1998, p. 67).

According to Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 2) transformational leadership is seen when leaders:

- ✚ Stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives.
- ✚ Generate awareness of the mission and vision of the team and organization.
- ✚ Develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential.
- ✚ Motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group.

Transformational leaders are charismatic. Charisma refers to the “special quality of leaders whose purposes, powers, and extraordinary determination differentiate them from others” (DuBrin, 1998, p. 54). These leaders have a vision and a sense of mission, and they have the respect, confidence, and loyalty of group members.

Bass and Avolio (1994, p. 3), postulate that these leaders behave in ways to achieve superior results by employing one or more of the following “Four I’s”:

- a. *Idealised influence*: They become role models for their followers. They can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct. He or she avoids using power for personal gain and only when needed.
- b. *Inspirational stimulation*: These leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers’ work.
- c. *Intellectual stimulation*: Followers’ efforts are stimulated to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged and followers are encouraged to

try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leader's ideas.

- d. *Individualised consideration*: Leaders pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor.

Cardona (2000) argues that there are two types of transformational leaders, namely, pseudo-transformational and authentic transformational leaders. Pseudo-transformational leaders are ethically questioned because they appeal to the emotions, rather than reason and may manipulate followers' ignorance to further their own interest. Authentic transformational leaders are "engaged in the moral upliftment of their followers, share mutually rewarding visions of success and empower them to transform their visions into reality" (Cardona, 2000, p. 201). The author cites Nelson Mandela and mother Theresa as examples of the latter.

Transformational leaders are consistently rated by subordinates as being more effective leaders and have been consistently linked with greater organizational performance and success (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

### **2.6.2 Transactional Leadership**

The premise of transactional leadership is that it is a transaction or exchange process between leaders and followers. “Good transactional leaders are usually good negotiators, authoritarian or even aggressive, so that they obtain the maximum benefit from the economic influence relationship that they have created (Cardona, 2000, p. 204). Once the transformational leader recognises the specific desires of followers, he or she provides goods that meet those desires in exchange for followers meeting specified objectives. In this way, leaders benefit from task completion while followers receive rewards for job performance. Goods that are specific, tangible and calculable are involved in these exchanges. When an organisation needs change, a different type of leadership is needed because, although these leaders often maintain stability, what is needed is change. Thus, a leader will have various roles to play within this new changing environment (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

### **2.6.3 Transcendental Leadership**

Cardona (2000, p. 204) defines transcendental leadership as “a contribution based exchange relationship. In this relationship the leader promotes unity by providing fair extrinsic rewards, appealing to the intrinsic motivation of the collaborators, and developing their transcendent motivation”.

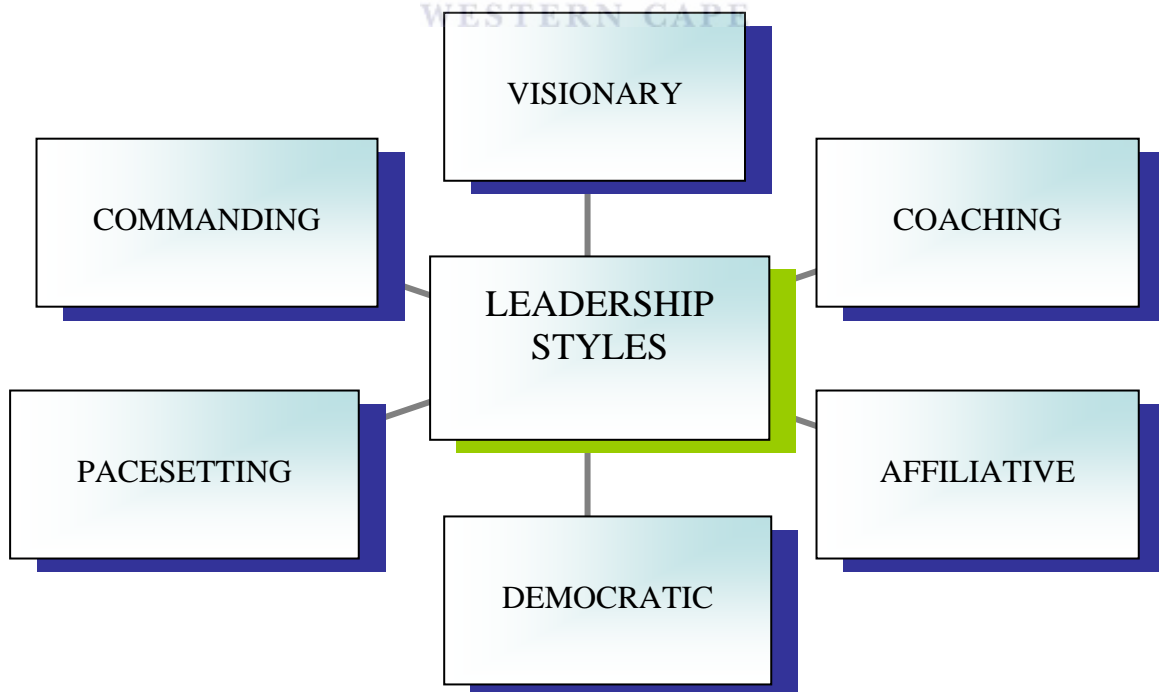


Hopkins (2003) purports that transcendental leadership finds its foundation in spirituality that is ultimately concerned with purpose and meaning in life. This translates into a commitment to God or a higher power, acknowledgment of the transcendent in daily experience, a selfless focus, and a set of beliefs and practices that facilitates a relationship with the transcendent.

#### 2.6.4 Contemporary Leadership

A new model of leadership, which has been identified previously by different names, is all encompassing of the emotional intelligence capabilities that each approach requires. The six Leadership styles proposed by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002, p. 70):

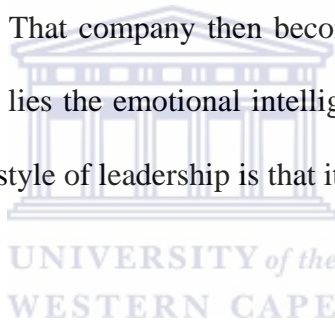
**Figure 2.6: Six Leadership Styles Proposed by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002).**



**a. Visionary**

“A shared vision is not an idea. It is not even an important idea such as freedom. It is rather, a force in people’s hearts, a force of impressive power” (Senge, 1990, p. 35).

According to Goleman, et al. (2002, p. 72), visionary leaders “articulate where a group is going, but not how it will get there-setting people free to innovate, experiment and take calculated risks”. This type of leadership optimally utilizes buy-in for the organization’s long-term goals and strategies. Organisational loyalty is another benefit of visionary leadership in that employees “resonate with the company’s values, goals and mission” (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 27). That company then becomes their employer of choice. At the basis of the visionary style lies the emotional intelligence competence of inspirational leadership. A limitation of this style of leadership is that it doesn’t work in every situation.



**b. Coaching**

Coaching focuses on personal development in which personal conversations with employees establishes rapport and trust. In defining coaching, Coleman, et al. (2002, p. 77), offer the following explanation: “Coaches help people identify their unique strengths and weaknesses, tying those to their personal and career aspirations. They encourage employees to establish long-term development goals, and help them to conceptualise a plan for reaching those goals, while being explicit about where the leader’s responsibility lies and what the employee’s role will be”.

**c. Affiliative**

A trait of the affiliative leadership style is the open sharing of emotions. People and their feelings / emotional needs are valued, placing less importance on completion of tasks and goals. This style of leadership works well in an organisation where diverse or even conflicting individuals can be brought together to work harmoniously. Goleman et al. (2002), emphasise that this style of leadership should best not be used alone but rather in conjunction with the visionary approach.

**d. Democratic**

The democratic leader keeps morale high and works best if the leader is unsure about what direction to take and needs ideas from employees. Even if the leader has a vision, the democratic style works best to generate ideas for executing it. A limitation of this style of leadership is when a leader over-relies on the inputs of subordinates, resulting in endless meetings to find solutions which could leave him/her indecisive which could be misconstrued as confusing and lacking direction with resulting delays (Goleman, et al., 2002).

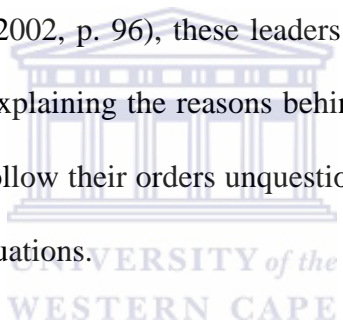
**e. Pacesetter**

This approach should be used cautiously because if applied incorrectly, it can leave employees feeling frustrated by the unyielding demands of the leader, but works well with

other leadership styles. Pacesetter demands exceptionally high standards of excellence, impatience with poor performance and a readiness to take over for people when they get into difficulty. Goleman et al. (2002), proffer that the best situation to use the pacesetter approach, would be when employees are self-motivated, highly competent and need little direction. Pacesetter can work well with other leadership styles.

**f. Commanding**

The commanding approach is best explained by the motto “do it because I say so”. According to Goleman et al. (2002, p. 96), these leaders “demand immediate compliance with orders, but don’t bother explaining the reasons behind them.” These leaders resort to threats if subordinates fail to follow their orders unquestioningly. This leadership approach is the least effective in most situations.



It is important to note that the first four styles of leadership, namely, visionary, coaching, affiliative and democratic can foster resonance, that is, harmony. The last two styles of leadership, namely, pacesetter and commanding can foster dissonance, that is, a lack of harmony.

## 2.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emmerling and Goleman (2003), postulate that the influence of emotional intelligence on popular culture and the academic community has been rapid and widespread. They further suggest that whilst this has stimulated a number of research initiatives across a wide range of domains within psychology, the swiftness with which the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has become a trend, perhaps inevitably created a gap between what is known and what needs to be known.

Bar-On (2005, p. 41) postulates that despite the current excitement around emotional intelligence, “the historical roots of this broader area can actually be traced back to the first part of the nineteenth century”.

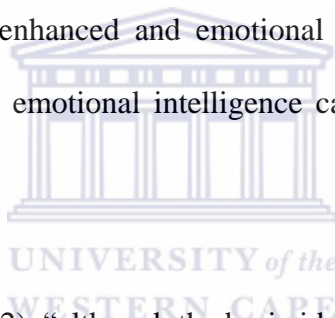
He strongly believes that credit should be given to Darwin who started studying aspects of this construct as early as 1837. More than 130 years ago Darwin concluded that “emotional awareness and expression play a major role in survival and adaptation, which remains an important axiom of EI to the present day, that is the use of emotions in tactical and strategic reasoning, problem solving and decision making” (Bar-On, 2005, p. 42).

According to Bar-On (2005) and Fatt (2002), Thorndike was the pioneer of the concept “social intelligence” in 1920, followed by numerous other publications, many of which focused primarily on defining this construct as “the ability to perceive one’s own and other’ internal states, motives and behaviours, and to act toward them optimally on the basis of

that information (1920)” (Bar-On, 1995, p. 42). Bar-On maintains that this definition has become the cornerstone of emotional intelligence as it is currently conceptualised.

Vitello-Cicciu (2003, p. 30) posits the view that Mayer and Salovey, initially viewed “emotional intelligence” as part of “social intelligence” which they perceived as “an ability to recognize the meaning of emotions and their relationships and to reason and solve problems on the basis of them”.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) argue that emotional intelligence develops with age and that emotional knowledge can be enhanced and emotional skills can be learnt. In contrast, Goleman (1995) contends that emotional intelligence can be learned and improves with age.



According to Avery (2004, p. 92), “although the basic idea behind emotional intelligence is not new, there is much controversy and disagreement as to exactly what emotional intelligence is”.

### 2.7.1 Defining Emotion

Caruso et al. (2000, p. 267), define emotions as “internal events that co-ordinate many psychological subsystems including physiological responses, cognitions, and conscious awareness. Emotions typically arise in response to a person’s changing relationships”.

Kapp (2000, p. 151), declares 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 views emotion as “organising”. They also propose a contrasting definition presented by Arnold (1970), which sees emotion as “more chaotic, disorganizing and interfering in human behaviour”.

Cooper (1998) in Rothman, Scholtz, Sipsma and 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”.

Based on the afore-mentioned definitions, it becomes apparent that no consensus can be reached in terms of defining emotions. What can be agreed on is the fact that emotion serves important functions in human behaviour, for example, preparing for action, aiding cognition, and communications and its importance in the workplace has increased significantly (Schaffer & Schafer, 2005).

### 2.7.2 Defining 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 (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopaedia, 2003). Wechsler (1958, p. 7), defines intelligence as, "the global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment". 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."

Indvik and Johnson (1999, p. 84), report that psychologists group intelligence into three main clusters:

- a. Abstract intelligence: which refers to the ability to understand and manipulate with verbal and mathematical symbols.

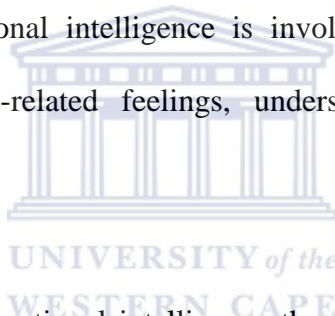


- b. Concrete intelligence: which refers to the ability to understand and manipulate with objects.
- c. Social intelligence: which refers to the ability to understand and relate to people.

### **2.7.3 Defining Emotional Intelligence**

Literature indicates that a plethora of definitions of EI have been advanced:

According to Mayer, et al. (2000, p. 267), “emotional intelligence refers to an ability to recognise the meanings of emotions and their relationship, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. Emotional intelligence is involved in the capacity to perceive emotions, assimilate emotion-related feelings, understand the information of those emotions, and manage them”.



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”. Chopra (2001, p. 13) is of the opinion that compassion is “one of the most honoured and saintly emotions”.

Goleman (1995, p. 34), defines emotional intelligence as the “ability to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one’s moods and to keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to empathise and to hope.”

Weisinger (1998, p .xvi), offers 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”.

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”.

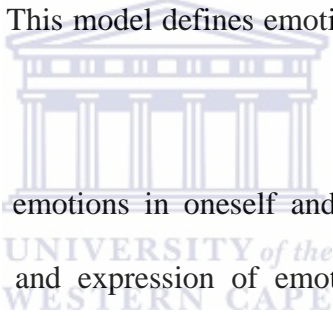
Senge (1990), links emotional intelligence to elevated levels of personal mastery. He believes that emotional intelligence allows scanning, in moments, through hundreds of possible choices or scenarios, to arrive at the best solution in a matter of seconds instead of hours. It enables an individual to come up with solutions while others may still be finding out what the problem is.

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.

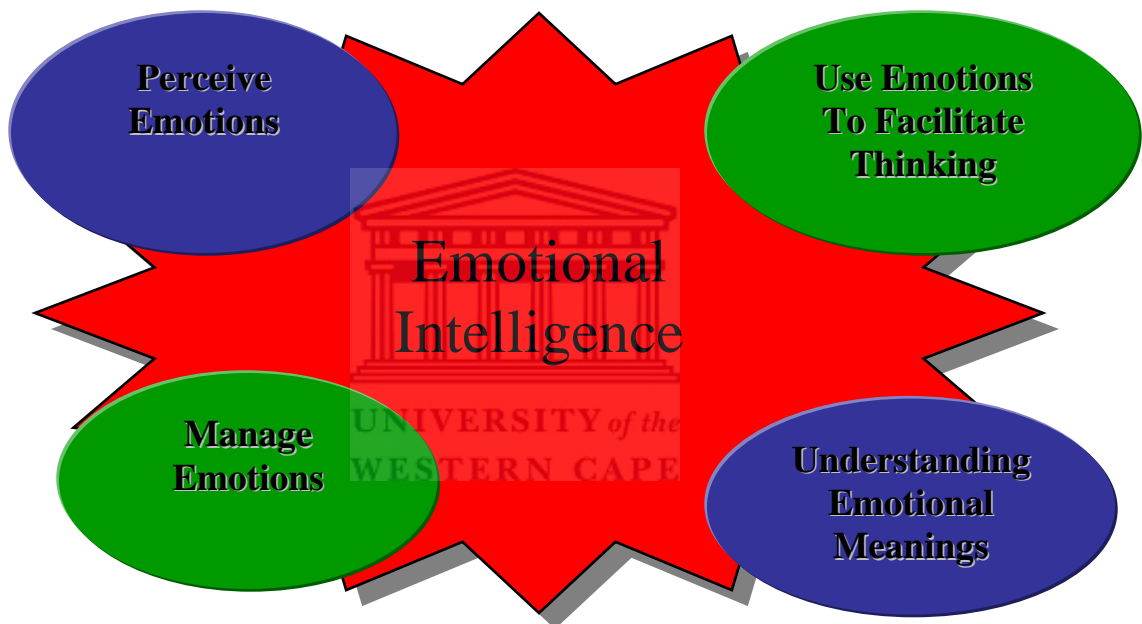
### 2.7.3.1 Mayer and Salovey's Four Branch Framework of Emotional Intelligence

This framework of emotional intelligence presented by Mayer and Salovey (1997), is a four branch model describing four areas of capacities or skills that collectively describe many areas of emotional intelligence. This model defines emotional intelligence as involving the abilities to:

- 
- ✚ Accurately perceive emotions in oneself and others: this has to do with the nonverbal reception and expression of emotion. The capacity to accurately perceive emotions in the face or voice of others provides a crucial starting point for more advanced understanding of emotions.
  - ✚ Use emotions to facilitate thinking: this refers to the capacity of the emotions to enter into and guide the cognitive system and promote thinking.
  - ✚ Understand emotional meanings: understanding emotional messages and the actions associated with them is one important aspect of this area of skill.
  - ✚ 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) 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” (p. 197).

**Figure 2.7** *Mayer and Salovey’s Four Branch Framework of Emotional Intelligence*



### **2.7.3.2 Goleman’s Emotional Competence Inventory**

The most recent addition to theory within the emotional intelligence paradigm is the framework of emotional intelligence put forward by Goleman (1999) which was an improvement of Boyatzis model. This model of Goleman seeks to develop a theory of work performance based on social and emotional competencies. This competency based

approach 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.

Goleman presented a model of emotional intelligence with twenty-five competencies arranged in five clusters:

**Table 2.2: Goleman’s Model of Emotional Intelligence**

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

*(Adapted from The Consortium for Research on Emotional Intelligence In Organisations).*

According to McGarvey (1997), experts say individuals with the highest emotional intelligence excel at four interrelated skills:

- a. the ability to persist and stay motivated in the face of frustration;
- b. the ability to control impulses;
- c. the ability to control their emotions; and
- d. 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.

### **2.7.3.3 The Bar-On 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, which was originally developed to assess various aspects of this construct as well as to examine its conceptualization. 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:

- a. **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.

b. **Emotional management and regulation:**

To effectively and constructively control emotions.

To effectively and constructively manage emotions.

c. **Change management:**

To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality.

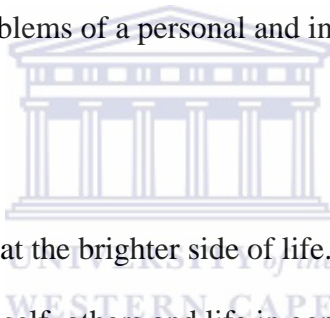
To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations.

To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.

d. **Self-motivation:**

To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.

To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.



(Adapted from Bar-on, R. (2003). How important is it to educate people to be emotionally and socially intelligent, and can it be done? Perspectives in Education, 21(4), p. 3-15).

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.

The three models presented by Mayer and Salovey, Goleman and Bar-on are similar but each one is unique. A quotation by Aristotle (cited in Goleman, 1996, p. ix) summarises the concept of emotional intelligence very succinctly: “Anyone can become angry-that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way-that is not easy”.

## **2.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP**

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. Bennis (1999) as well as Barling et al., Barling and Avolio (cited in Fekken & Sivanathan), 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. Daniel Goleman makes clear that leadership success or failure is usually due to "qualities of the heart".

Indvic and Johnson (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 Indvic & Johnson, 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 Boyle, Garvin, Heaton & Kerr, 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.

Leban et al. (2004), claim that there is minimal empirical research examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership. They have thus embarked on a study to link emotional intelligence abilities to transformational leadership that provides data taken from real-world situations where project managers require leadership skills to do their job.

The study addressed 24 project managers and their associated projects in six organisations from varied industries. Data collection instruments included use of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Ability Test (MSCEIT) and the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X.

The results of the study showed that:

- ✚ There are a number of linkages between emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership style.
- ✚ Overall emotional intelligence and the ability to understand emotions were found to relate significantly with the inspirational motivation (provide challenge and a mutual understanding of objectives) component of transformational leadership.
- ✚ In addition, the strategic use of emotional intelligence was found to relate significantly with the idealized influence (demonstration of high standards of conduct, self-sacrifice and determination) and individual consideration (provide support, mentoring and coaching while accepting follower's individual differences) components of transformational leadership.
- ✚ Finally, both the management-by-exception (failing to interfere unless problems become serious) component of transactional leadership and laissez-faire or non-leadership were found to have a significant negative relationship with the strategic emotional intelligence and understanding emotions component of emotional intelligence.
- ✚ Correlation studies run between the leader behaviour factors and the emotional intelligence factors showed significant relationships between components of all

leader behaviour styles (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) and both strategic emotional intelligence and understanding emotions task.

The results of this study provide further evidence that project managers use a transformational leadership style and emotional intelligence abilities to enhance actual project performance. In addition, the study shows that there are a number of linkages between transformational leadership style and emotional intelligence ability (Leban et al., 2004).

A study by Barling, Slater and Kelloway (2000) with 49 managers, using the EQ-I to examine the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence concluded the following:

- ✚ Emotional intelligence is positively related to three components of transformational leadership (i.e. idealised influence, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) and contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership).
- ✚ The two leadership styles most unrelated to emotional intelligence were Laissez-faire leadership and active and passive management-by-exception.
- ✚ The highest correlation was between emotional intelligence and inspirational motivation, which indicates demonstrating that the emotional intelligence element of understanding emotions is mostly important in leadership effectiveness.

A study by Palmer and Stough (2001) cited in Gardner, et al. (2002), to examine the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers, using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test to assess emotional intelligence and

the MLQ Form 5X was used to assess the different styles of leadership. The results supported the existence of a strong relationship between transformational leadership and overall emotional intelligence.

Gardner et al. (2002, p. 68), suggest that “research examining the utility of emotional intelligence in predicting effective leaders is gaining momentum.”

An empirical study by Duckett and Macfarlane (2003) examined the relationship between EI and transformational leadership of a group of retail managers within a small retail organisation operating from 21 stores in the United Kingdom. The results of this study demonstrate a relationship between success, EI and transformational leadership.

Goleman et al. (2002, p. 3), argue that “Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions” Campbell (2005), claims that some of the most notable business people of the last ten years, for example, Mark Cuban, Jack Welsh and Michael Dell, to name a few, are the most emotional people.

## **2.9 DEVELOPING 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERS**

A plethora of studies have shown that effective leaders use more emotional intelligence competencies every day than others in leadership positions (Goleman, 1998). Emotional intelligence has become a vital part of how today's leaders meet the significant challenges they face. Emotional Intelligence can help leaders in an evermore-difficult leadership role and can give developing leaders a competitive edge.

Suchy (2000/2003) offers three skills for developing high emotionally intelligent leaders:

- a. Self-awareness: a variety of assessment and feedback tools can be used to heighten this skill.
- b. Development of the mentoring, coaching and counselling skill.
- c. Self-coaching: encouraged through the use of leadership development journals.

She is of the opinion that for a leadership development programme to bring about significant and lasting change, there needs to be an opportunity to implement the skills acquired. She advises that for any change to take place, a minimum of 21 days of consistent practice should take place. After three months the distance between the ideal and real should be minimal. After a year, the new competency should be unconscious behaviour.

## 2.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter highlighted the literature as well as the theories that pervade the debate pertaining to emotional intelligence and leadership style. A few of the multitude of theories discussed were trait, behavioural, path-goal, situational, transactional and transformational leadership, as well as contemporary theories. The changing face of leadership was also highlighted to further emphasise the challenges facing South African leadership within the context of a new democracy. The variables emotional intelligence and leadership style were further explored. The following chapter investigates the research methodology and design used to complete the research.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter delineates the research methodology used in the investigation of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. A plethora of leadership and emotional intelligence measuring instruments will be discussed. The selection of the sample, measuring instruments, procedure for data collection and the statistical techniques utilised reliant to the research are outlined.

#### **3.2 MEASUREMENTS OF LEADERSHIP**



One of the more popular measurements of leadership is:

##### **3.2.1 The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ):**

- ✚ This is a 45-item questionnaire that provides a systematic means of measuring specific leadership factors (Bass & Avolio, 1997).
- ✚ Participants are expected to read a scenario and then rate how well it describes their own leadership style on the proximity interval scale (0= not at all, 4= frequently, if not always).
- ✚ It reports excellent validity and reliability and has been used extensively worldwide.
- ✚ It has proven to be a strong predictor of leader performance across a broad range of organisations.

- ✚ On the least effective end of the range, it measures perceptions of leadership behaviours that represent avoidance of responsibility and action (laissez-fair).
- ✚ On the most effective end of the range it measures perceptions of leadership behaviours that generate the higher order developed and performance effects, namely, transformational leadership.
- ✚ Success can be measured through a retesting program to track changes in leadership style.
- ✚ The MLQ has become the benchmark measure of Transformational Leadership (Source: Bass, B.M. & Avolio, B. (2005). The benchmark measure of transformational leadership. Mindgarden.)



**According to Bass et al. (2005), effective leaders exhibit the following behaviours:**

- ✚ ***Idealized Influence:*** leaders display conviction, emphasise trust, take stands on difficult issues, etc. Such leaders are admired as role models; they generate pride, loyalty, confidence.
- ✚ ***Inspirational Stimulation:*** leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenging followers with high standards, provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done.
- ✚ ***Intellectual Stimulation:*** leaders question old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs; and encourage the expression of ideas and reasons.
- ✚ ***Individualised Consideration:*** leaders deal with others as individuals; consider their individual needs, abilities and aspirations, listen attentively; further their development; advise; and coach.



**A range of leadership behaviours are measured, including transactional leadership:**

✚ ***Contingent Reward:*** leaders engage in a constructive path-goal transaction or reward for performance. They clarify expectations, negotiate for resources and provide commendations for successful follower performance.

✚ ***Management-by-Exception: Active*** – leaders monitor followers' performance and take corrective action if deviations from standards occur. They enforce rules to avoid mistakes.

Passive – leaders fail to intervene until problems become serious. They wait to take action until mistakes are brought to their attention.

**A non-leadership (non-transactional) component:**

✚ ***Laissez Faire Leadership:***

Leaders avoid accepting their responsibilities, are absent when needed, fail to follow up requests for assistance, and resist expressing their views on important issues.

**The MLQ measures the outcomes of leadership**

✚ ***Extra Effort:*** Getting others to do more than they expected to do, try harder and desire to succeed.

✚ ***Satisfaction:*** Working with others in a satisfying way.

✚ ***Effectiveness:*** Meeting job-related needs and leading an effective group.

Figure 3.1 *A Model/ Framework of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X*



### 3.2.2 The development of a uniquely South African Leadership

#### Questionnaire

According to Spangenberg and Theron (2002), there was an urgent need for South Africa to develop its own leadership questionnaire for the following reasons:

- ✚ To accommodate not only cultural diversity but also gender equality.
- ✚ Language constraints in terms of misinterpretation of foreign words/ language if not first-language English speaking people.
- ✚ Exorbitant costs of importing foreign questionnaires.
- ✚ Needs of managers and leaders in the South African context are not being fulfilled.

For the afore-mentioned reasons, the Centre for Leadership Studies decided to develop a uniquely South African leadership questionnaire, namely, the Leadership Behaviour Inventory (LBI).



The Leadership questionnaire would encompass the following characteristics:

- ✚ Be based on a leadership model that encompasses and acknowledges the importance of change.
- ✚ Address the major elements of the leadership and change or transformation processes.
- ✚ Accommodate the diversity of the managerial population of South African organisations.

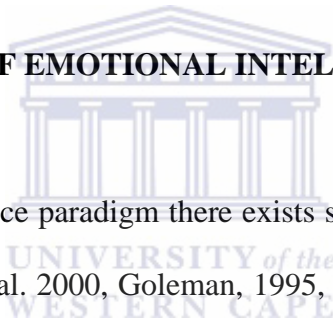
House (cited in Spangenberg & Theron, 2002), differentiates between management, supervisory leadership and general leadership. General leadership constitutes charismatic or transformational leadership.

The Leadership Behaviour Inventory (LBI):

- ✚ Consists of 235 items, 360° assessment.
- ✚ Leadership model comprises four stages, measured on 26 dimensions.

Results indicate that a 96 item questionnaire format consisting 24 dimensions with four items each could be used with confidence.

### **3.3 MEASUREMENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**



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.

As Kuhn (1970) notes in Emmerling et al. (2003), scientists' efforts to deal with data in a systematic fashion, guided by deeply held theories, led to the formation of distinct research paradigms. Each of these paradigms has its own unique history, methods, and assumptions for dealing with its focal topic, and, in this sense, the emotional intelligence paradigm is no different than any other paradigm within psychology.

### 3.3.1 Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i)

The Emotional Quotient Inventory, developed by Professor Reuven Bar-On over a 17 year period, was the first test of emotional intelligence to be published by a psychological test publisher (Bar-On, 2005).

#### **The Emotional Quotient Inventory:**

- ✚ Is a self-report measure which measures emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour which provides an estimate of the underlying emotional-social intelligence.
- ✚ Contains 133 brief items, using a 5-point response scale with a textual response format ranging from “seldom or not true of me” (1) to “very often true of me or true of me” (5).
- ✚ The individuals responses render a total EI score and scores on the following 5 composite scales comprising 15 subscale scores:
  - 1 Intrapersonal (comprising Self-Regard, Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence, and Self-Actualisation);
  - 2 Interpersonal (comprising Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship);
  - 3 Stress Management (comprising Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control);
  - 4 Adaptability (comprising Reality Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving); and

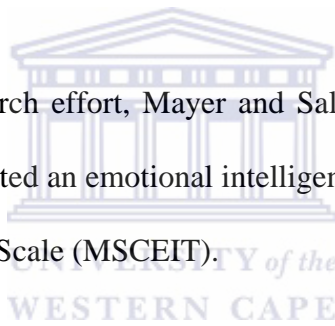
5 General Mood (comprising Optimism and Happiness);

- ✚ Raw scores are computer-tabulated and automatically converted into standard scores based on a mean of 100 and standard deviation of 15;
- ✚ Has a built- in correction factor which automatically adjusts the scale scores based on scores obtained from two of the instrument's validity indices (the Positive Impression and Negative Impression scales).

(Adapted from Bar-On, 2005)

### 3.3.2 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale V2.0 (MSCEIT V2.0)

As part of their ongoing research effort, Mayer and Salovey, joined by David Caruso, a management psychologist, created an emotional intelligence test called the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale (MSCEIT).



#### The MSCEIT V 2.0:

- ✚ This is the most recent of a series of ability scales of emotional intelligence
- ✚ It's predecessor was the MSCEIT Research Version 1.1 and prior to that was the Multi-Factor Emotional Intelligence Scale.
- ✚ Is a 141 item scale (pencil-and-paper or on-line version) designed to measure four branches, or skill groups, of emotional intelligence:
  1. Perceiving emotions accurately.
  2. Using emotions to facilitate thought.
  3. Understanding emotions, and

4. Managing emotions.
- ✚ Each of the four branches is measured with two tasks:
    - a. Perceiving emotions is measured with the faces and pictures tasks.
    - b. Facilitating thought is measured with the sensations and facilitation tasks
    - c. Understanding emotions is measured with blends and changes tasks.
    - d. Managing emotions is measured with emotion management and emotional relationships tasks
  - ✚ The rating scale: 5 point rating scale and a multiple choice response format
  - ✚ Achieved reasonable reliability and confirmatory factor analysis supported theoretical models of emotional intelligence.

(Adapted from Caruso, Mayer, Salovey and Sitarenios, 2003)



### 3.3.3 Goleman's Emotional Competence Inventory

The most recent addition to theory within the emotional intelligence paradigm is the framework of emotional intelligence put forward by Goleman. This was an improvement of Boyatzis model. This model of Goleman seeks to develop a theory of work performance based on social and emotional competencies. This competency based approach 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.

Goleman presented a model of emotional intelligence with twenty-five competencies arranged in five clusters (*refer to Table 2.2, p. 61*).

According to Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (1999), grounding his theory specifically within the context of work performance, separates Goleman's model from the EQ-I and the MSCEIT. Where the latter frame their theories as general theories of social and emotional intelligence and emotional intelligence respectively, Goleman's theory is specific to the domain of work performance.

The following about the Emotional Intelligence Framework are important to note:

- ✚ The most desirable method to use was the questionnaire, although numerous methods can be used to assess these behavioural competencies, e.g. behavioural event interviews, simulations and assessment centres.
- ✚ Respondents are asked to describe themselves or another person on each item on a scale of 1 to 6.
- ✚ Reliability and construct validity had been established.

### **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).

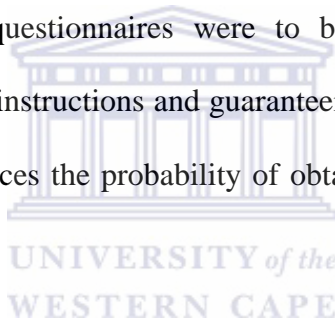
Non-probability sampling is a subjective approach and therefore the probability of selecting population elements is unknown. Cooper and Schindler (2001) cite some practical considerations for using this less precise method compared to probability sampling:

- ✚ 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.

### 3.4.2 Procedure

A cross-sectional research method, based on the survey approach was used. Two hundred (200) senior and middle managers were targeted in areas across the country.

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 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ Form 5X) and the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT). 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. Self-administered questionnaires were returned after two weeks to the designated contact person. A total of two hundred questionnaires were administered, with one hundred and four (104) fully completed questionnaires being returned, thereby constituting a 52% return rate. Sekaran (2003) maintains that sample sizes of between thirty and five hundred subjects are appropriate for most research.

### **3.5 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.

### **3.6 THE SWINBURNE UNIVERSITY EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TEST (SUEIT)**

#### **3.6.1 Nature and Composition of the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT)**

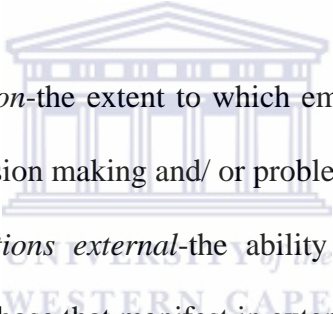


The SUEIT, which indexes individual's individuals' perceptions of the way they feel, think and act at work, with emotions, and on the basis of emotional information, is a self-report instrument specifically designed for use in the workplace. This uni-dimensional model was developed from a large factor-analytic 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 (2002, 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 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 (2002) present the following coefficient alphas for the five sub-scales 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 (2000), 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.

### **3.6.3 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).

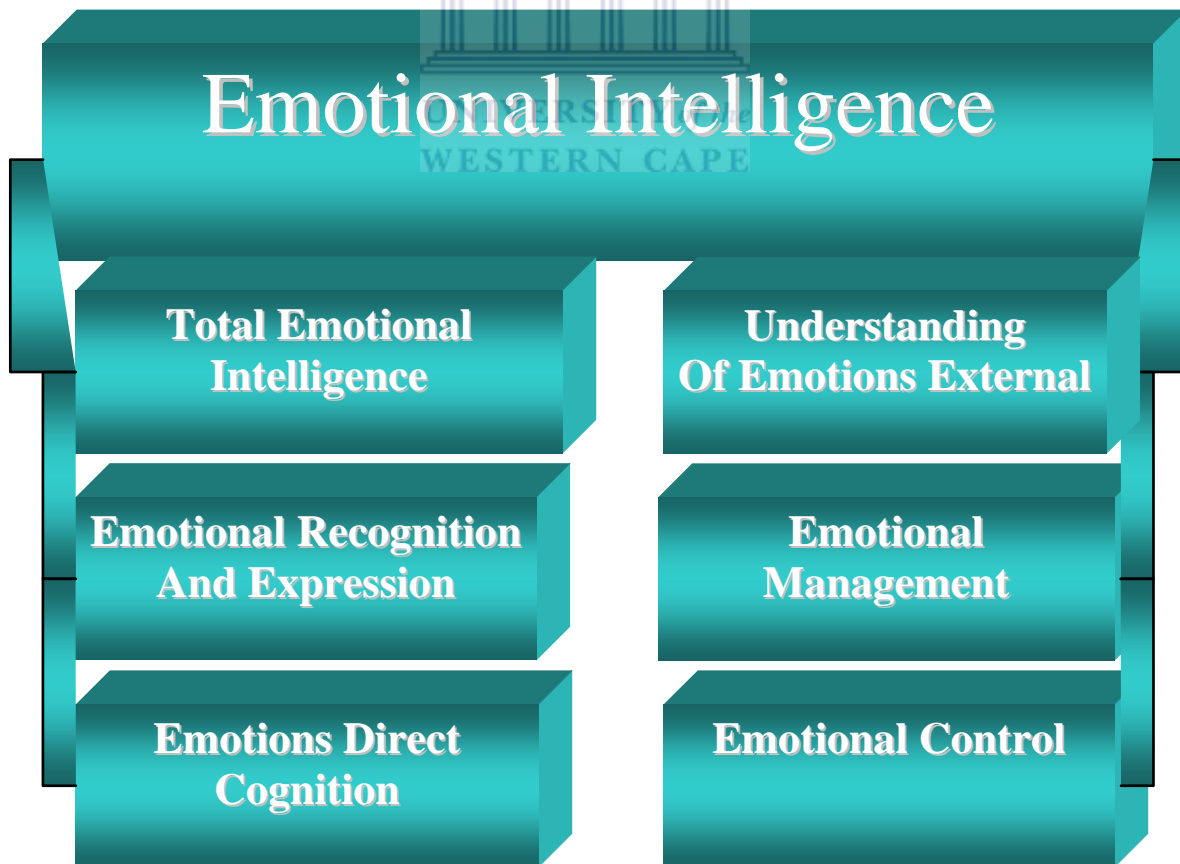
Palmer and Stough (2001), proffer that the SUEIT “possesses discriminant validity from neuroticism, extraversion and openness, which suggests that scores on this measurement

may account for variance above and beyond that explained by other psychological constructs such as personality” (p. 72).

### 3.6.4 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, 2001).

**Figure 3.2 : A Model/ Framework of the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT).**



### **3.7 MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MLQ FORM 5X)**

#### **3.7.1 Nature and Composition of the MLQ Form 5X**

The initial Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass (1985) included the five subscales of charisma, individualised consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward and management by exception. This original version of the questionnaire was followed by Bass and Avolio's 1990 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5R (MLQ Form 5R) with the following six subscales: Charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward and management by exception.

Subsequent research resulted in Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X). This is a self-scoring instrument, using 36 items to measure the following nine subscales: idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management by exception and laissez-fair. A five-point Likert rating scale is used with anchors labelled as 0=not at all, 1=once in a while, 2=sometimes, 3=fairly often, 4=frequently, if not always.

Five sub-scales measure transformational leadership (inspirational motivation; idealised behaviours; idealised attributes; intellectual stimulation; and individualised consideration).

Three sub-scales measuring transactional leadership include: contingent reward; management by exception (active); and management by exception (passive). The MLQ

also measures laissez-faire or non-transactional leadership (Bass & Avolio cited in Downey, Papageorgiou & Stough, 2005).

### **3.7.2 Reliability of the MLQ Form 5X**

Authors, Bass and Avolio (cited in Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam , 1996; Downey, et al. (2005), report reliabilities for each of the scales of The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X ranging from .74 to .94.

Howell and Hall-Merenda (1999), in a study of 109 community banking managers and their employees in a large Canadian financial institution, reported individual item reliability was determined by examining factor loadings of the measures on their associated constructs. Examination of the composite scale reliabilities for the leadership behaviour measures, indicated that all the internal consistency reliabilities for the constructs are greater than .70.

Awamleh, Evans and Mahate (2005) computed the reliability coefficients (Cronbach Alphas) for all measures in their study of 194 full time bank employees, working in non-managerial positions and reported the following results: transformational leadership style scale reliability estimate is 0.89, and that of transactional is 0.71. Transformational and transactional styles of leadership are highly correlated ( $r = 0.66, p < 0.001$ ).

Krishnan (2001) in a test to determine if transformational leaders have a different value system than those who are less transformational found that all the scores for each of the



four factors for transformational leadership had high reliability, with the cronbach alpha being not less than 0.91. The scores of the four factors were highly correlated ( $p < 0.001$ ) with correlation ratios being not less than 0.85.

### **3.7.3 Validity of the MLQ Form 5X**

Fourteen samples, involving 3786 respondents, were used to validate the MLQ with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .91 to .94. Howell and Hall-Merenda's (1999), study revealed adequate discriminant validity among the respective leadership constructs.

### **3.7.4 Rationale for Inclusion**



The Mlq form 5X has been proven to demonstrate excellent reliability and validity and its credibility has been substantiated globally.

## **3.8 STATISTICAL METHODS**

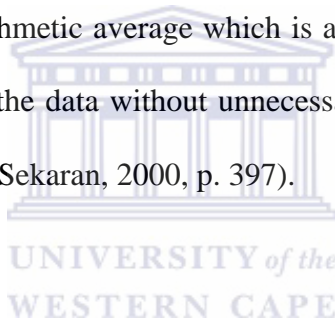
Two major categories of statistical procedures, namely, descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were utilised to test the research hypotheses.

### **3.8.1 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 MLQ Form 5X and the SUEIT.

#### **3.8.1.1 Mean**

The mean ( $\mu$ ) 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).



#### **3.8.1.2 Standard Deviation**

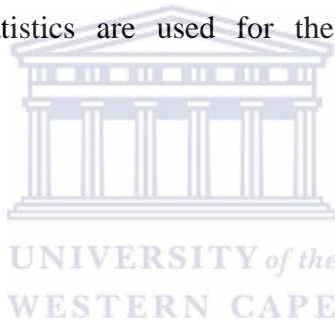
Cooper and Schindler (2001, p. 443), define the standard deviation as summarising “how far away from the average the data values typically are”.

### 3.8.3 INFERENCE 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.



#### 3.8.3.1 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).

### 3.9 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 MLQ form 5X and the SUEIT were reviewed. Furthermore, the sample, procedure and statistical methods were examined.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PRESENTATION OF RESULTS**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

The aim of this chapter is to present the findings obtained in the research investigation on the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. The chapter proceeds with an overview of the most salient research findings obtained with respect to the sample characteristics and descriptive statistics for the measuring instruments which were administered. Thereafter, the analyses of the constructs relevant to the study, that is, emotional intelligence and leadership, are presented in tabular format based on the application of inferential statistical procedures. For the purpose of this research, the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was computed with the aid of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

In this section the results of the empirical analysis are reported and presented. The presentation proceeds with an analysis of the descriptive statistics on the variables under consideration. To facilitate ease in conducting the empirical analyses, the results of the descriptive analyses are presented first, followed by the inferential statistical analysis.

The statistical programme used for the analyses and presentation of data in this research is the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12. The descriptive statistics

utilized are based on frequency tables and graphical illustrations to provide information on key demographic variables in this study. 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, 2000).

## **4.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS**

The descriptive statistics calculated for the sample are provided in the sections that follow. The data pertaining to the variables included in the study, as collected by the two 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 a feel for the data can be established (Sekaran, 2003).

### **4.2.1 Results of the Biographical Questionnaire**

This section outlines the descriptive statistics calculated as obtained by the variables included in the biographical questionnaire. These include the:

- ✚ gender of the respondents
- ✚ education of the respondents
- ✚ race distribution of the respondents
- ✚ position of the respondents

Descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and percentages are subsequently graphically presented for each of the above-mentioned variables. The results of the statistical analyses are presented in tabular format below. The presentation commences with the biographical data and the descriptive statistics for the emotional intelligence scale as well as the leadership questionnaire.

Descriptive statistics (Mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum) were computed for the sub-dimensions of the MLQ Form 5X as well as for the SUEIT, which are presented in Tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively.

Figure 4.1 provides an overview of the gender distribution of the sample based on the organisation at which the research was undertaken.

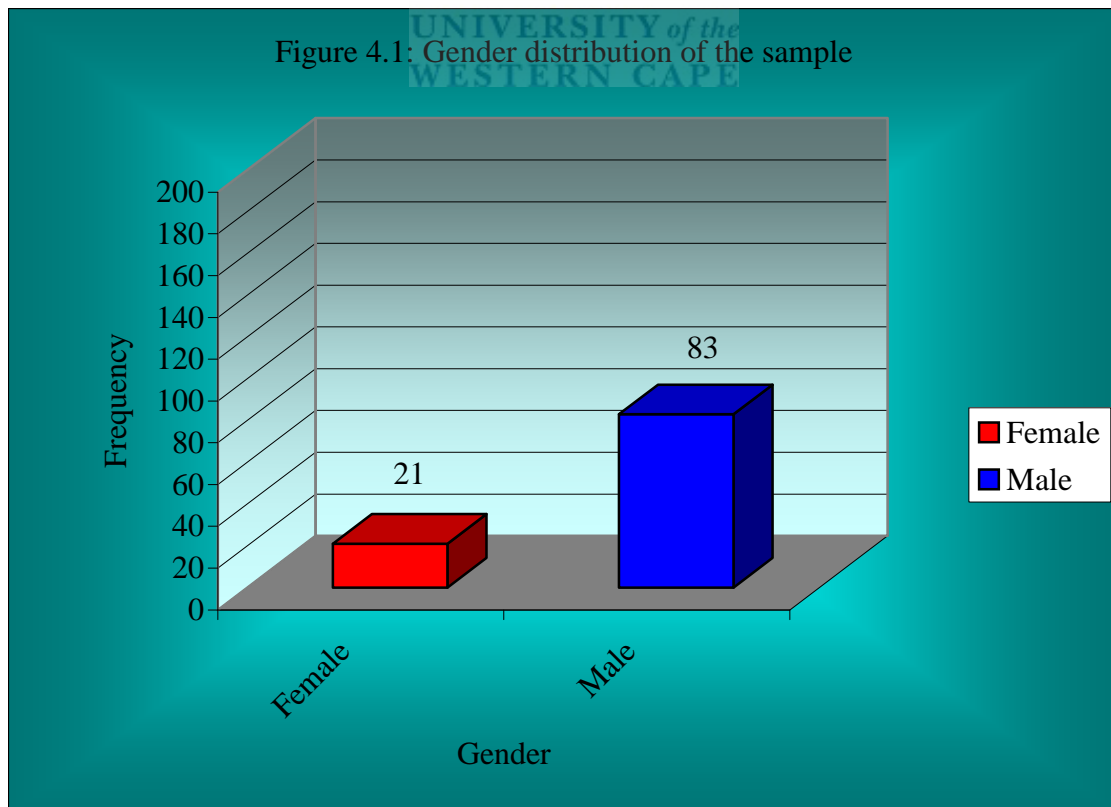


Figure 4.1 indicates the gender distribution of the sample of respondents from the organization at which the research was conducted. As can be seen from the figure, the majority of the sample (n = 83) or 80% was male, while the remaining 20% (n = 21) comprised of female respondents.

Figure 4.2 provides an overview of the race distribution of the sample based on the organisation at which the research was undertaken.

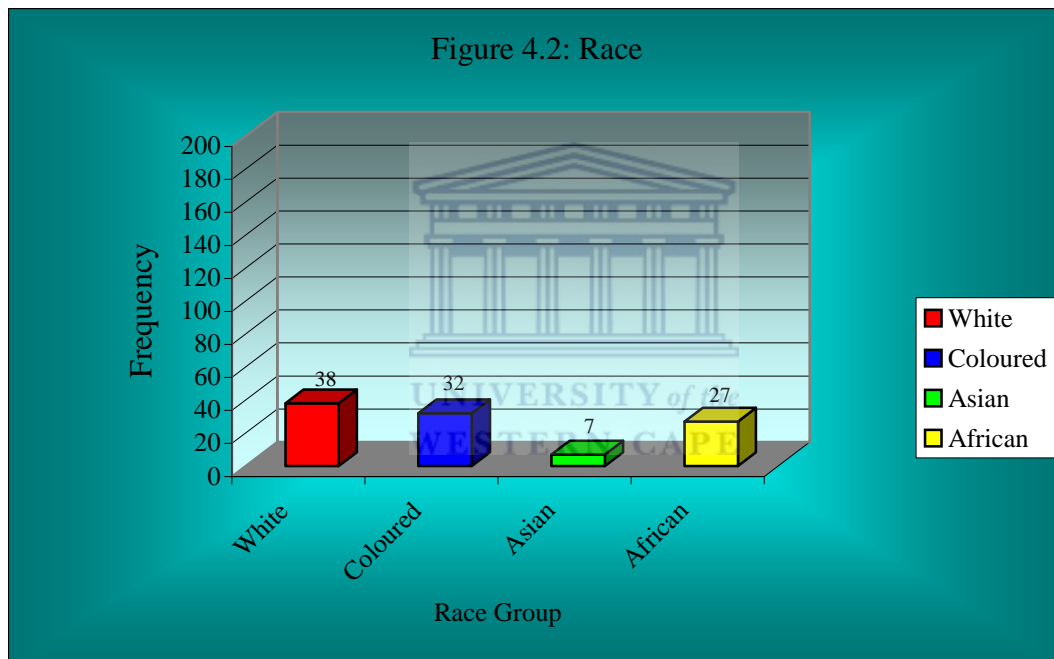
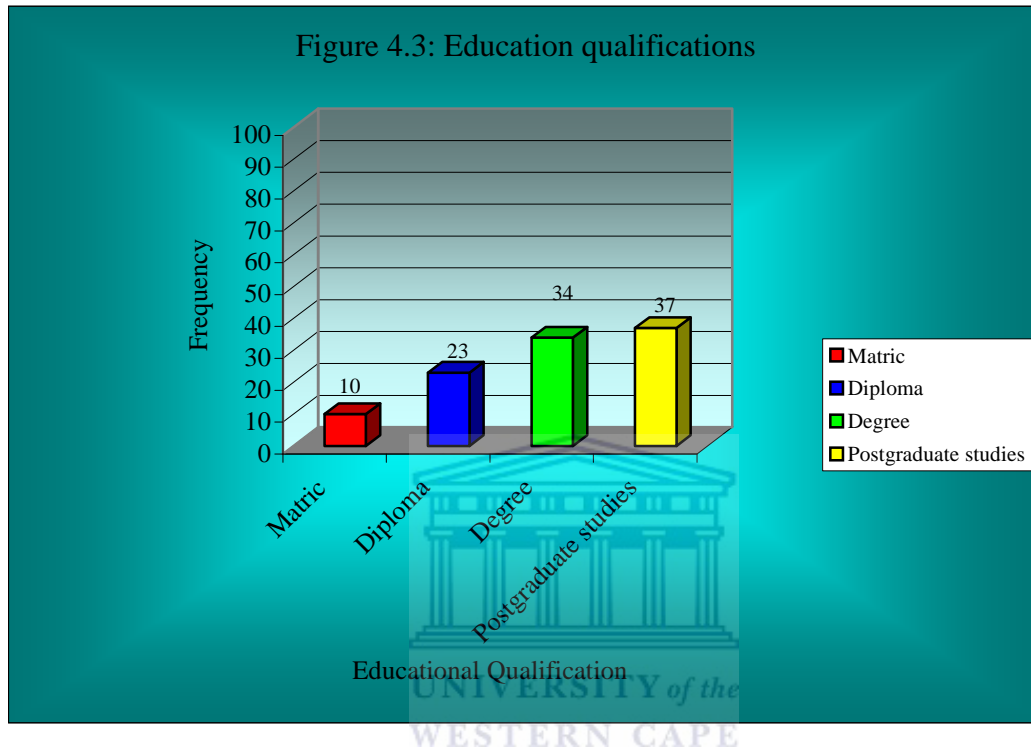


Figure 4.2 contains the racial composition of the respondents at the organisation where the research was conducted. From the frequency distribution in the graph it can be seen that whites (n = 38) or 37% represented the largest number of respondents, followed by coloured respondents (n = 32) who comprised 31% of the sample. The least represented groups are the Asian group (n = 7) or 6% of the sample, as well as African respondents (n = 27) who comprised 26% of the sample.



Figure 4.3 provides an overview of the educational qualifications distribution of the sample based on the organisation at which the research was undertaken.



In terms of Figure 4.3, it can be seen that the majority of respondents ( $n = 37$ ) or 36% of the sample has completed a postgraduate qualification, followed by those with degrees ( $n = 34$ ) or 33%. Those with diplomas ( $n = 23$ ) comprised a further 22%, while the remaining respondents ( $n = 10$ ), that is 9% had completed matric.

Figure 4.4 provides an overview of the position distribution of the sample based on the organisation at which the research was undertaken.

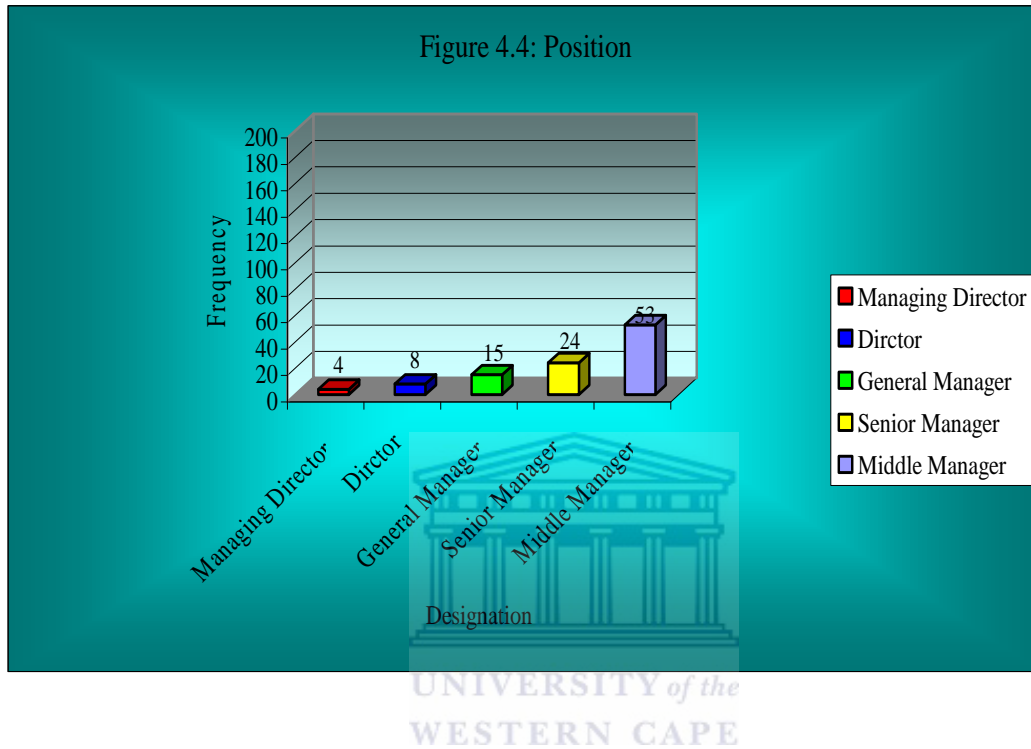


Figure 4.4 indicates that the majority of respondents ( $n = 53$ ) or 51% of the sample occupied the position of middle manager, senior managers comprised 23% ( $n = 24$ ) of the sample. General managers ( $n = 15$ ) constituted a further 14% of the sample, while directors ( $n = 8$ ) comprised 8% of the sample, and the remaining 4% being comprised of managing directors.

**Table 4.1 Descriptive Statistics for the MLQ FORM 5X**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
<b>Transformational leadership</b>	3.38	0.12
<b>Idealised influence (attributed)</b>	3.27	0.43
<b>Idealised influence (behaviour)</b>	3.17	0.84
<b>Inspirational motivation</b>	3.92	0.27
<b>Intellectual stimulation</b>	3.24	0.45
<b>Individualised consideration</b>	3.75	0.16
<b>Transactional leadership</b>	2.65	0.32
<b>Contingent reward</b>	3.65	0.24
<b>Management-by-exception (active)</b>	1.23	0.91
<b>Management-by-exception (passive)</b>	1.03	0.58
<b>Laissez-faire leadership</b>	0.34	0.46
<b>Outcomes of leadership</b>	3.34	0.55
<b>Extra effort</b>	3.29	0.38
<b>Effectiveness</b>	3.62	0.45
<b>Satisfaction</b>	3.54	0.52

The results depicted in table 4.1 indicate that the mean scores obtained on the Multifactor leadership questionnaire range from a low of 0.34 on the laissez faire scale and 3.92 on the inspirational motivation scale of the MLQ Form 5 X. The standard deviation scores range between 0.12 on the transformational leadership scale and 0.91 on management by exception (active).

**Table 4.2 Descriptive Statistics for the SUEIT**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Dev</b>
<b>Total Emotional intelligence</b>	235.34	26.32
<b>Emotional recognition and expression</b>	43.12	5.31
<b>Emotions direct cognition</b>	39.37	8.68
<b>Understanding of emotions external</b>	76.32	7.93
<b>Emotional management</b>	48.32	6.52
<b>Emotional control</b>	31.56	5.32

The descriptive statistics of the SUEIT are presented in Table 4.2. The mean total emotional intelligence for the sample was 235.34, with a standard deviation of 26.32.

The mean scores range from a low of 31.56 on the emotional control to a high of 76.32 for the understanding of emotions external scale. The standard deviations range from 5.32 for the emotional recognition and expression scale to 8.68 on the emotions direct cognition scale.

### **4.3. INFERENCE STATISTICS**

#### **Hypothesis 1**

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership amongst middle and senior managers within an office automation environment.*

#### **Hypothesis 2**

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership within an office automation environment.*

#### **Hypothesis 3**

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transactional leadership within an office automation environment.*



#### **Hypothesis 4**

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and non-transactional (laissez-faire) leadership within an office automation environment..*

#### **Hypothesis 5**

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and outcomes of leadership within an office automation environment.*

**Table 4.3 Dimensions of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style**

	<b>Total EI</b>	<b>Emotional recognition and expression</b>	<b>Emotions direct cognition</b>	<b>Understanding of emotions external</b>	<b>Emotional management</b>	<b>Emotional control</b>
<b>Transformational leadership</b>	0.692**	0.465**	0.447**	0.647**	0.556**	0.512**
<b>Idealised attributes</b>	0.554**	0.318*	0.396*	0.553**	0.472**	0.428*
<b>Idealised behaviours</b>	0.542**	0.426*	0.443**	0.476**	0.418**	0.357*
<b>Inspirational motivation</b>	0.565**	0.354*	0.346*	0.563**	0.542**	0.479**
<b>Intellectual stimulation</b>	0.597**	0.397*	0.387*	0.518**	0.562**	0.458**
<b>Individualised consideration</b>	0.545**	0.337*	0.265	0.612**	0.419**	0.399*
<b>Transactional leadership</b>	0.231	0.119	0.163	0.112	0.103	0.118
<b>Contingent rewards</b>	0.573**	0.429*	0.334*	0.576**	0.418*	0.439*
<b>Management by Exception (active)</b>	0.114	0.109	0.126	0.104	0.128	0.102
<b>Management by Exception (passive)</b>	-0.351*	-0.298	0.115	-0.317*	-0.318	-0.328*
						-0.392*
<b>Laissez-faire leadership</b>	0.596**	-0.378*	0.128	-0.462**	-0.459**	0.449*
<b>Outcomes of leadership</b>	0.478**	0.285	0.363*	0.601**	0.487**	0.376*
<b>Extra effort</b>	0.515**	0.239	0.254	0.517**	0.402*	0.412*
<b>Effectiveness</b>	0.598**	0.257	0.317*	0.512**	0.458**	0.418*
<b>Satisfaction</b>	0.577**	0.272	0.428**	0.592**	0.421*	0.336*

\* p < 0.05

\*\* p < 0.01

Correlation coefficients were computed between the MLQ Form 5 X variables and the SUEIT. Table 4.3 highlights the correlations between the specific leadership behaviour identified by the MLQ Form 5 X and the emotional intelligence subscales.

In terms of Table 4.3 it can be seen that there is a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.692$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). There was also a statistically significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.596$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). There was no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.231$ ,  $p > 0.05$ )



## **TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

**The following relationships were significant at the 0.01 level:**

Transformational leadership and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = 0.465$ )

Transformational leadership and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.447$ )

Transformation leadership and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.647$ )

Transformational leadership and Emotional management ( $r = 0.556$ )

Transformational leadership and Emotional control ( $r = 0.512$ )

Idealised attributes and Total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.554$ )

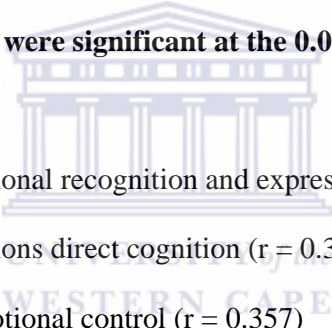
Idealised attributes and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.553$ )

Idealised attributes and emotional management ( $r = 0.472$ )

Idealised attributes and emotional control ( $r = 0.428$ )

Inspirational motivation and Total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.565$ )  
Inspirational motivation and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.563$ )  
Inspirational motivation and emotional management ( $r = 0.542$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.597$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.518$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and emotional management ( $r = 0.562$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and emotional control ( $r = 0.458$ )  
Individualised consideration and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.545$ )  
Individualised consideration and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.612$ )

**The following relationships were significant at the 0.05 level:**



Idealised attributes and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = 0.318$ )  
Idealised attributes and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.396$ )  
Idealised behaviours and emotional control ( $r = 0.357$ )  
Inspirational motivation and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = 0.354$ )  
Inspirational motivation and managing emotions in others ( $r = 0.28$ )  
Inspirational motivation and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.346$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = 0.397$ )  
Intellectual stimulation and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.387$ )  
Individualised consideration and emotional expression and recognition ( $r = 0.337$ )  
Individualised consideration and emotional control ( $r = 0.399$ ).



## TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

There was no statistically significant relationship between transactional leadership and emotional intelligence. However, some of the dimensions of transactional leadership were significantly correlated with emotional intelligence.

### **The following relationships were significant at the 0.01 level:**

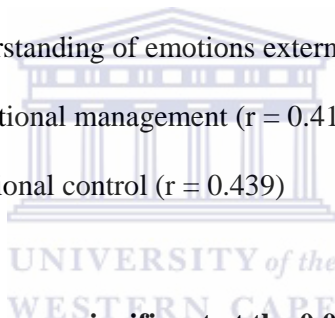
Contingent reward and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.573$ )

Contingent reward and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = 0.429$ )

Contingent reward and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.576$ )

Contingent rewards and emotional management ( $r = 0.418$ )

Contingent reward and emotional control ( $r = 0.439$ )



### **The following relationships were significant at the 0.05 level:**

Contingent reward and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.334$ )

Management by exception (passive) and total emotional intelligence ( $r = -0.351$ )

Management by exception (passive) and understanding of emotions external ( $r = -0.317$ )

Management by exception (passive) and emotional management ( $r = -0.318$ )

Management by exception (passive) and emotional control ( $r = -0.328$ ).

## **NON-TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP (LAISSEZ FAIRE)**

**The following relationships were significant at the 0.01 level:**

Laissez faire leadership and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.596$ )

Laissez faire leadership and understanding of emotions external ( $r = -0.462$ )

Laissez faire leadership and emotional management ( $r = -0.459$ )

Laissez faire leadership and emotional control ( $r = -0.449$ )

**The following relationships were significant at the 0.05 level:**

Laissez faire leadership and emotional recognition and expression ( $r = -0.378$ )



## **OUTCOMES OF LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE**

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**The following relationships were significant at the 0.01 level:**

Outcomes of leadership and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.478$ )

Outcomes of leadership and understanding of emotions external

Outcomes of leadership and emotional management ( $r = 0.487$ )

Extra effort and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.515$ )

Extra effort and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.517$ )

Extra effort and emotional management ( $r = 0.402$ )

Extra effort and emotional control ( $r = 0.412$ )

Effectiveness and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.598$ )

Effectiveness and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.517$ )

Effectiveness and emotional management ( $r = 0.458$ )

Effectiveness and emotional control ( $r = 0.418$ )

Satisfaction and total emotional intelligence ( $r = 0.577$ )

Satisfaction and emotions direct cognition ( $r = 0.428$ )

Satisfaction and understanding of emotions external ( $r = 0.592$ )

**The following relationships were significant at the 0.05 level:**

Extra effort and emotional management ( $r = 0.402$ )

Extra effort and emotional control ( $r = 0.412$ )

Effectiveness and emotions direct cognitions ( $r = 0.317$ )

Effectiveness and emotional control ( $r = 0.418$ )

Satisfaction and emotional management ( $r = 0.421$ )

Satisfaction and emotional control ( $r = 0.336$ )

The remaining correlations were not significant.

#### **4.3.1 Reliability Analysis**

Cronbach's Alpha is viewed as an index of reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct (Cronbach, 2004). Alpha coefficients range in value from 0 to 1 and may be used to describe the reliability of factors extracted from dichotomous and or multi-point formatted questionnaires or scales. However, there is no lower limit to the coefficient, however, the closer

Cronbach's coefficient alpha is to 1, the greater the internal consistency of the items of the scale (Cronbach, 2004).

**Table 4.4: Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha for the SUEIT and MLQ Form 5X**

<b>Reliability Coefficient</b>			
<b>SUEIT</b>		<b>MLQ Form 5X</b>	
<b>No. of cases</b>	104	<b>No. of cases</b>	104
<b>Alpha</b>	0.925	<b>Alpha</b>	0.942
<b>No. of items</b>	64	<b>No. of items</b>	36

According to research, such a score can be regarded as excellent in terms of the reliability of the instrument. George and Mallery (2003) argue that coefficients above 0.8 can be considered to be good indicators of the reliability of an instrument. Hence with the current study, this was exceeded, indicating a high degree or reliability.

#### **4.4 CONCLUSION**

This chapter has focused on the presentation of results achieved in this study. Descriptive statistics were used to indicate the feel for the data, and Pearson's product moment correlation was used to indicate relationships between emotional intelligence and leadership as measured by the instruments administered to respondents. In the following chapter, the data will be discussed and where available, existing literature is integrated with results emanating from the current study to draw comparisons.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a synopsis of the most salient research findings originating from the research which will be discussed within the framework of relevant supporting literature on emotional intelligence and leadership style.

This chapter aims to corroborate the following:

- ✚ In leadership, if emotions are effectively dealt with it might contribute to the effective handling of the needs of the individual and how best employees can be effectively motivated (Goleman, 1998b).
- ✚ Effective leadership depends, to a large extent, on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated with EI (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997, Goleman, 1998a, & Ryback, 1998).
- ✚ Emotions play a pivotal role in effective leadership in organisations. George (2000) posits that effective leadership is about the ability to understand and manage feelings, moods and emotions in the self and others.
- ✚ The relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership, despite much interest in establishing a significant relationship, provides little research that has been published which unequivocally examines this relationship (Palmer, et al., 2000).

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. Conclusions will be presented based on the findings of the study and proffers recommendations for future research.

## **5.2 DISCUSSION**

### **5.2.1 Descriptive Results**

The sample consisted of 104 middle to senior managers. Majority of the respondents were male [(N=80)(83%)] as evident in Figure 4.1. As observed in Figure 4.2, the majority of the respondents were white [(N=38)(37%)]. In terms of Figure 4.3, it can be seen that the majority of respondents [(N=37)(36%)] of the sample has completed a postgraduate qualification which indicates that the majority of respondents as seen in Figure 4.4 occupied the position of middle manager [(N = 53)(51%)] of the sample.

### **5.2.2 Descriptive Statistics for the dimensions of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X**

The descriptive statistics for the MLQ Form 5X revealed the following results:

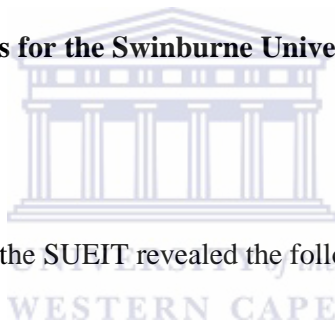
Transformational leadership revealed a mean=3.38) (SD=0.12), idealised influence (attributed) (mean=3.27) (SD=0.43), idealised influence (behaviour) (mean=3.17) (SD=0.84), inspirational motivation (mean=3.92) (SD=0.27), intellectual stimulation (mean=3.24) (SD=0.45) and individualised consideration (mean=3.75) (SD=0.16).

Transactional leadership revealed a (mean=2.65) (SD=0.32), contingent reward (mean=3.65) (SD=0.24), management by exception (active) (mean=1.23) (SD=0.91) and management by exception (passive) (mean=1.03) (SD=0.58).

Laissez-faire leadership revealed a (mean=0.34) (SD=0.46).

Outcomes of leadership revealed a (mean=3.34) (SD=0.55), extra effort (mean=3.29) (SD=0.38), effectiveness (mean=3.62) (SD=0.45) and satisfaction (mean=3.54) (SD=0.52).

### **5.2.3 Descriptive Statistics for the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT)**



The descriptive statistics for the SUEIT revealed the following results:

Transformational leadership revealed a total emotional intelligence (mean=235.34)(SD=26.32), emotional recognition and expression (mean=43.12) (SD=5.31), emotions direct cognition (mean=39.37) (SD=8.68), understanding of emotions external (mean=76.32) SD=7.93), emotional management (mean=48.32) (SD=6.52) and emotional control (mean=31.56) (SD=5.32)

### 5.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

This section explores the results obtained for the inferential statistics to determine the relationship between total emotional intelligence and leadership style, the relationship between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership, the relationship between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transactional leadership style, the relationship between emotional intelligence and laissez-fair leadership and the relationship between emotional intelligence and the outcomes of leadership.

#### 5.3.1 Hypothesis 1

*There is no statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and leadership.*



Results of this study indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and leadership. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Research examining the utility of emotional intelligence in predicting effective leaders is gaining momentum in Industrial/ Organisational psychology. Recently a new paradigm of research has focussed on the role of emotional intelligence in different styles of leadership brought about by growing changes in business life in general and the realities of managing increasingly brief, fast paced, trusting,



collaborative and innovative human interactions at work which has seen a shift in leadership capacity (Stuart & Paquet, 2001).

De Vries (1993), Higgs and Rowland (2000) and Higgs (2003) postulate that although a substantial amount of research has been undertaken on the topic, there is still much uncertainty about the competencies of a successful leader.

Avolio and Bass (1999), Bass and Steidlmeier (1998) and Hartog and Van Muijen present an interesting theory which asserts that effective leaders use a combination of distinct leadership styles, each in the correct amount and at the appropriate time.

Abraham (2000), postulates that when leaders are emotionally intelligent, it is more likely that they are happier and as a result, tend to be more committed to their organisations, which enables them to achieve greater success (Miller, 1999) which, according to George (2000), ultimately leads to them envisioning major improvements in organisational functioning by taking advantage of and utilising positive emotions. George (2000), further postulates that interpersonal relationships can be used as a platform where emotions can be used to improve decision making abilities and a place where trust and co-operation can be instilled.

A study was conducted by Rothmann, et al. (2002), to examine the relationship between personality preferences and the emotional intelligence of 71 full-time postgraduate management students at a South African University. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and preferences for extraversion, intuition, feelings and perception.

Sunindijo and Hadikusumo (2005) presented a study investigating the benefits of emotional intelligence to project management: a study of leadership and conflict resolution style of project management in Thailand. The Emotional Intelligence Appraisal questionnaires created by Talentsmart were distributed to project managers of contractors within 54 construction sites in Bangkok. Their study to investigate the effects of EI on leadership behaviours shows there is a significant difference in open communication leadership behaviour. Goleman (cited in Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2005, p. 7), postulates that open communication is a “key factor in organisational success as it opens the possibility of getting out the best from people”.

Findings which support the premise that emotional competence differentiates successful leaders was presented by Cavallo (2000), who embarked on a study at Johnson and Johnson Consumer and Personal Care Group to assess if specific leadership competencies distinguish high performers from average performers. The study, comprising 358 managers globally, across the organisation using a one hundred and eighty three question multi-rater survey that was a blend of the J and J leadership competency model, the Standards of Leadership (SOL), and the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI). High Performing Managers were seen to possess significantly higher levels of self-awareness, self-management capability, social skills and organisational savvy.

The results of an exploratory study of 49 managers by Barling et al. (2000), examining the relationship between the transformational/transactional leadership paradigm and emotional intelligence, revealed the following:

- ✚ Emotional intelligence is positively related to three components of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, and individualised consideration) and contingent reward (a component of transactional leadership).
- ✚ Laissez-faire leadership and active and passive management-by-exception were unrelated to emotional intelligence.
- ✚ The highest correlations were between emotional intelligence and inspirational motivation, which is indicative of the fact that in leadership effectiveness the emotional intelligence dimension of understanding emotions is particularly important.

Despite research presented which proves the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership, Antonakis (2003), proffers evidence that emotional intelligence does not predict leadership effectiveness. He asserts that emotional intelligence should not be seen as a panacea for organisational malaises.

### 5.3.2 Hypothesis 2

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership.*

Results of the study indicate that there is a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transformational leadership ( $r = 0.692$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Similarly, there was a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and idealised attributes ( $r = 0.554$ ,  $p$

< 0.01), idealised behaviours ( $r = 0.542$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), inspirational motivation ( $r = 0.565$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), intellectual stimulation ( $r = 0.597$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and individualised consideration ( $r = 0.545$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) respectively. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Research on the full range of leadership styles, namely, transformational, transactional and laissez fair, has revealed that transformational leadership is typically more effective than transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles.

The authors, in a study conducted by Palmer, et al. (2001), forecasted that the leadership style most emotion based, is transformational leadership style, therefore a stronger relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence should exist. Transformational leaders have been rated as being more effective and correlated highest with superior organisational performance and success (Lowe, et al., 1996). George (2000), identified management of emotions, of both the leaders and the followers, as being critical to leadership.

Bass (1985), Den Hartog van Muijen and Koopman (1997), Yammarino and Bass (1990) define transformational leaders as articulating a realistic vision of the future, which can be shared, stimulate subordinates intellectually and paying attention to subordinates differences.

According to Hater and Bass (1988), transformational leaders should educate employees to reach beyond ordinary expectations. Mester, Visser, Roodt and Kellerman (2003) support this by positing that transformational leadership theorists

imagine emotional attachment to the leader and emotional and motivational arousal of followers are a consequence of the behaviour of the transformational leader.

Based on the premise of Barbuto (1997), Bass and Avolio (1997), Bass and Steidlmeier (1998), Hartog and Van Muijen (1997) and Tracey and Hinkin (1998), the four dimensions which underlie the transformational leadership construct are:

- ✚ charismatic leadership or idealised influence: pride and faith is instilled in followers, a vision and a sense of mission is instilled by leaders and these leaders gain respect and trust, setting high standards of emulation;
- ✚ inspirational leadership: followers are inspired to accept challenging goals and their enthusiasm and optimism arouses team spirit;
- ✚ individualised consideration: individual uniqueness is recognised, the individuals' current needs are linked to that of the organisation and leaders provide coaching, mentoring and opportunities for growth;
- ✚ intellectual stimulation: followers are encouraged to approach problems in novel ways, promoting creative thinking around how best daily responsibilities can be carried out.

In his study of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership in a hospital administrative environment, based on a sample of 101 hospital administrators, Spinelli (2006), found that the more the subordinate perceived the leader as exhibiting transformational behaviours, the greater he or she reported exerting extra effort, expressed satisfaction with the leader, and believed the leader to be more effective. The relationship between transformational leadership and the outcome factors were more positive than the transactional styles and laissez-faire. Contingent reward

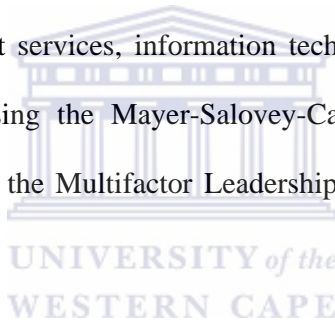
correlated less positively with the outcomes; management by exception (active and passive) and laissez-faire correlated negatively with the outcome factors. According to Spinelli (2006), these findings are consistent with the hierarchal patterns reported by Avolio, Bass and Jung, Bass, Bass and Avolio, Hater and Bass, and Seltzer and Bass.

Similarly, Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) conducted a study to enhance an understanding of transformational leadership by evaluating its associations with emotional intelligence and moral reasoning to leadership style and effectiveness. The authors used 58 residence student leaders, 12 university residence supervisors and 232 resident participants who had to complete the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi); the Defining Issue Test (DIT), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X), which assesses transformational, transactional and laissez-faire styles of leadership; lastly, two external criterion measures were collected to evaluate the effectiveness of each resident student leader. The results of this study revealed that followers evaluations of leaders' transformational behaviours were positively related to leaders' self-reports of emotional intelligence and resident ratings on leadership effectiveness.

In a study conducted by Palmer et al. (2001), on 43 managers using the self-report EI measure, they found significant correlations with several components of the transformational leadership model, specifically the inspirational, motivation and individualised consideration components of transformational leadership correlated with the ability to monitor emotions and the ability to manage emotions. Thus, according to the author, the ability to manage emotions within oneself and others may be an underlying competency of transformational leadership.

Küpers and Weibler (2005) investigated the significance of emotions in transformational leadership, particularly the explicit and implicit coverage of emotional dimensions and emotional intelligence competencies within the specific components of transformational leadership. The results indicate that emotions and emotional competencies should be considered more comprehensively in the debate surrounding transformational leadership.

This result can be further corroborated by a study undertaken by Leban and Zulauf (2004), which addressed 24 project managers and their associated projects in six organisations from varied industries, including healthcare, manufacturing and sales service, project management services, information technology services and training and consulting services, using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Ability Test (MSCEIT) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X.



The results revealed that there are a number of linkages between emotional intelligence abilities and transformational leadership and the ability to understand emotions were found to relate significantly with the inspirational motivation component of transformational leadership. Also, emotional intelligence was found to relate significantly with idealised influence (namely, demonstration of high standards of conduct, self-sacrifice and determination) and individual consideration (providing support, mentoring and coaching while accepting follower's differences). Which are components of transformational leadership (Leban & Zulauf, 2004).

Studies indicate that transformational leadership results in higher levels of satisfaction, commitment, organisational citizen behaviour, cohesion, motivation, performance, satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness (Mester, et al., 2003). Recent supporting studies undertaken by Barling et al. (2000), Gardner and Stough, (2002); Palmer et al. (2001); Leban and Zulauf (2004); Sivanathan and Fekken, (2002); Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), Küpers and Weibler (2005), have provided evidence that a relationship does exist between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence.

### 5.3.3 Hypothesis 3

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transactional leadership.*

This research revealed that there was no statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and the dimensions of transactional leadership ( $r = 0.231$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Similarly, there was no statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and management by exception (active) ( $r = 0.114$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ) and total emotional intelligence and management by exception (passive) ( $r = -0.351$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ), respectively. There was, however, a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and contingent reward ( $r = 0.573$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Compared to transformational leadership where subordinates are encouraged to perform beyond expectation, transactional leadership is “based on the traditional,



bureaucratic authority and legitimacy where followers receive certain valued outcomes when they act according to the leader's wishes" (Mester & Visser, 2003, p. 73). Thus, with transactional leadership, emphasis is placed on task completion and compliance and employee performance is influenced by organisational rewards and punishment.

According to Bass and Steidlmeier (1998), Hartog and Van Muijen (1997), Hater and Bass (1988) and Tepper and Percy (1994), there are three dimensions underlying the transactional leadership construct:

- ✚ contingent rewards or reinforcement: rewards, promises and praise to motivate followers are used by the leader to achieve performance levels contracted by both parties,
- ✚ active-management-by-exception: followers' performance is monitored and when irregularities occur, corrective action is taken in expectation of problems,
- ✚ passive management-by-exception: the leader waits passively for mistakes to occur before taking corrective action, accompanied by negative feedback.

In their study to investigate emotional intelligence and transformational leadership within the retailing industry, Duckett and Macfarlane (2003), using 20 store managers across 21 stores in the UK, it was found that there was also a requirement for retail managers to exhibit transactional characteristics.

This result can be further corroborated by a study undertaken by Leban and Zulauf (2004), which addressed 24 project managers and their associated projects in six

organisations from varied industries, including healthcare, manufacturing and sales service, project management services, information technology services and training and consulting services, using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Ability Test (MSCEIT) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5X. Their studies revealed evidence that both, the management-by-exception (failing to interfere unless problems became serious) component of transactional leadership and laissez-faire were found to have a significant negative relationship with the strategic emotional intelligence and understanding of emotions component of emotional intelligence.

Similarly, a study investigating the emotional intelligence and effective leadership, using a sample comprising of 43 past and current students of the Swinburne University Centre for Innovation and Enterprise Programmes was undertaken by Palmer et al. (2000), using the Modified Trait Meta Mood Scale and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). In contrast, this study revealed that there is a significant positive correlation between the contingent reward component of transactional leadership and the ability to monitor emotions in oneself and others. However, they reported that contingent reward also correlated significantly with total transformational leadership components including idealised influence, inspirational motivation and individual consideration.

#### 5.3.4 Hypothesis 4

*There is no statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and non-transactional (laissez-faire) leadership.*

Results indicate a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and laissez-faire leadership ( $r = 0.596$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

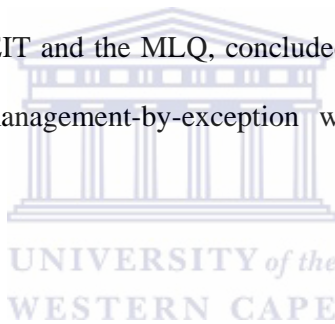
This form of leadership is often evaluated against transactional and transformational styles of leadership. Mester and Visser (2003, p. 73), conclude that this type of leadership is “indicative of an absence of leadership” because no effort is made to motivate others or to identify and satisfy individual needs. Hartog and Van Muijen (1997) claim that for the laissez-faire leader, decision-making, the provision of rewards and positive/ negative feedback to subordinates is negated. This style of leadership creates a negative relationship between leadership and subordinate performance.

Downey, et al. (2006), in their research examining the relationship between leadership, emotional intelligence and intuition in senior female managers consisting of 176 managers from several industries across Australia, using the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT), The Trait meta-mood scale (TMMS), the Cognitive Style Index(CSI) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 5x Short, found a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and four facets of EI measured by the workplace SUEIT. Bass (cited in Downey, et al., 2006) posit that leaders who display a preference for laissez-faire

leadership tend to defer leadership responsibilities, are absent when needed, fail to follow-up on request for assistance and refuse to express their views on vital issues.

Similarly, a study comprising of 110 senior managers conducted by Gardner and Stough (2002) to investigate whether emotional intelligence predicted transformational, transactional for laissez-faire leadership styles, found a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and emotional intelligence.

An exploratory study by Barling et al. (2000), examining the relationship between the transformational/transactional leadership paradigm and emotional intelligence using 49 managers, using the SUEIT and the MLQ, concluded that laissez-faire leadership and active and passive management-by-exception were unrelated to emotional intelligence.



### **5.3.5 Hypothesis 5**

***There is no statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and the outcomes of leadership.***

Results of this study indicate there is a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and outcomes of leadership ( $r = 0.478$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). Similarly, there was a statistically significant relationship between total emotional intelligence and extra effort ( $r = 0.515$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), effectiveness ( $r = 0.598$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) and satisfaction ( $r = 0.577$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) respectively. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

While there is a well established connection between desirable outcomes and transformational leadership, ongoing investigation is being conducted on how best to include emotional intelligence theoretically in the relationship between leadership and outcomes (Lowe, et al., 1996). However, studies demonstrate that transformational or charismatic leaders have positive effects on their organisations and followers (Hartog, Shippers, & Koopman, 2002).

The study conducted by Gardner and Stough (2001), found the outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction) all correlated significantly with the components of emotional intelligence.

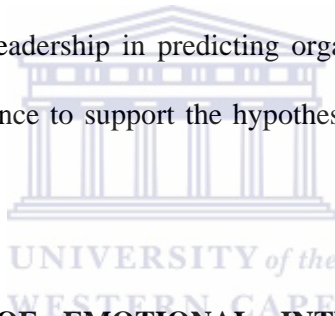
Avolio and Howell (1992), Bass (1985), Hater and Bass (1988), Ross and Offerman (1997), Seltzer and Bass (1990), in their studies of a new leadership, postulate that desirable leadership outcomes measured in terms of subordinates' satisfaction with the leader and their assessment of the leader's skills are the result of transformational leadership.

Research undertaken by Rosete and Ciarrochi (cited in Rosete, 2005) with 41 senior executives using the MSCEIT, 16PF5 and the Wechsler abbreviated scale of intelligence (WASI) in a large Australian public service organisation, investigated the relationship between an ability measure of EI, personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Their findings revealed that it is more probable that executives who scored higher on EI will achieve business outcomes and be seen by their subordinates and direct manager as effective leaders. Thus, the results revealed

that higher emotional intelligence was associated with higher leadership effectiveness and that EI explained variance not explained by either personality or IQ.

Similarly, an empirical study was conducted by Brown, et al. (2006), using a sample of 2 411 manufacturing workers, engineers and professional staff within a large US manufacturing facility, using the MLQ and the EQI. This study examined the impact of EI on organisational outcomes; the ability of transformational leadership to predict those outcomes, and the relationship between EI and transformational leadership.

Although the results confirm previous studies of the extraordinary effectiveness power of transformational leadership in predicting organisational outcomes, it does not, however, provide evidence to support the hypothesised relationship between EI and desirable outcomes.



#### **5.4 IMPLICATIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE FOR THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE ORGANISATION**

Studies have shown that with the presence of emotional intelligence, an organisation's profitability is linked to the quality of its work life. George (2000) argues that emotional intelligence enhances leaders' ability to solve problems and to address issues and opportunities facing them and their organisation. To a great extent this is based on trust and loyalty with both the organisation and customers or suppliers (Johnson & Indvik, 1999). Cooper (1997) posits that the way employees feel about their job, colleagues and the organisation also influences profitability. Cooper further illustrates that at the heart of many of the best decisions, most dynamic organisations

and most satisfying and successful lives, lies not IQ, but emotional intelligence as employees are being asked to bring both their brains and hearts to work to foster commitment and passion, as organisations are moving towards a more team-based approach.

Emotionally intelligent leaders are thought to be happier and more committed to their organisation, achieve greater success, perform better in the workplace, take advantage of and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning, and use emotions to improve their decision making and instil a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation in other employees through interpersonal relationships (Abraham, 2000, George, 2000, & Miller, 1999).

In organisations where the dominant leadership style is transformational, where leaders use emotions to guide decision making, open-minded idea generation and decision making and planning are encouraged which ultimately leads to greater creativity and an advantage for the business as a whole.

Damasio (1994) cautions that while excessive emotions can temporarily disrupt reasoning or analysis, recent research claims that too little emotion can be even more damaging to a career or company. Many organisational researches are in agreement that emotions are an integral and inseparable part of organisational life and emphasize that more attention should be given to the employees emotional experience.

Goleman (1998) notes the following: “The difference between those at the high and low ends of the emotional intelligence scale is very large, and being at the top confers

a major competitive advantage. Thus, “soft” skills matter even more for success in ‘hard’ fields. (p. 20)”.

## **5.5 IMPLICATIONS OF LEADERSHIP FOR THE INDIVIDUAL AND THE ORGANISATION**

Spinelli (2006), suggests that in order to improve the organisation’s leadership process, individuals must be identified who have the capacity to be effective leaders at all organisational levels.

Research conducted by Perkins (1995), Cooper and Sawaf (1997), Cherniss and Goleman (1998) and Goleman (1998), suggest that emotional intelligence can be developed and improved at any stage of life using a systematic and consistent approach. Based on this finding, it is advisable for organisations to develop training programmes in order to develop the emotional competencies of not only their managers but also their subordinates.

Bass (1985) asserts that the development of transformational leaders should receive priority in organisations, given the wide range of positive outcomes associated with this leadership style. He claims that one of the benefits for the organisation is the achievement of exceptional levels of performance when followers have developed trust and confidence in their leaders, and are in line with the organisational mission.



### 5.5.1 Training

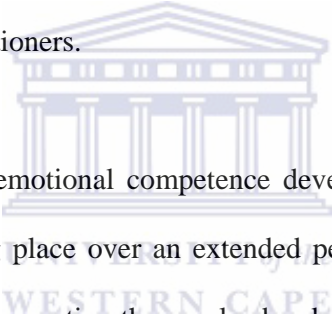
Within organisations, where effective leadership is continually been emphasised, leadership can be improved through training individuals in affective-cognitive and behavioural aspects of transformational leadership, enhancing understanding and improving sensitivity and regulation of emotions.

However, Leban and Zulauf (2004), cautions that emotional intelligence training may only be able to address idealised influence, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration. They are of the opinion that intellectual stimulation, not amenable to improvement through training, may require conventional intelligence.

In industries, where service-orientation is paramount, leadership requirements, which include inspiring and motivating others, fostering positive attitudes at work and creation of a sense of contribution and importance with and among team members and stakeholders, new demands have been placed on emotional intelligence training to develop these skills in evolving leaders (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994).

Based on her current experience with leadership development programmes, Suchy (2003, p. 5), contents that the three factors to consider for emotional intelligence development programmes are self-evaluation and feedback from significant others to increase self-awareness, allow time for competency development in a nominated skill area with self-directed learning projects, and develop a framework for understanding that encourages self-directed leadership skill development. She further proposes the usefulness of coaching, mentoring and counselling skills for leadership development.

Emotional intelligence training should be undertaken by all people entering the sales and marketing arena. The merits of such training can be substantiated by a study conducted by Manna and Smith (2004) in which they explored the need for emotional intelligence training and awareness and to investigate whether it is a predictor for success in the sales profession. Their study comprised a sample of 515 professional sales representatives located in Pittsburgh. Participants had to respond to a number of questions relating to sales training and related sales experience. The results of the study indicate that emotional intelligence as well as communication skills, negotiating skills, presentation skills and the need to differentiate between personality types was imperative to the sales practitioners.



The fundamental nature of emotional competence development is that it has to be self-directed learning, taking place over an extended period, when the individual is ready for it, needing time to practice the newly developed competencies and needs support and encouragement while trying out the new behaviour. The good news is that theorists believe that emotional intelligence can be enhanced. They posit that people are very good at learning, and emotions are fairly well understood (Manna & Smith, 2004).

“Simply being high in emotional intelligence does not guarantee that a person will have learned the emotional competencies that matter for work; it means only that they have excellent potential to learn them” (Goleman, 1998, p. 25)

Laabs, (1999, p. 69) advises “Developing emotional competences requires learners to unlearn old habits of thought, feeling and action that are deeply ingrained and learn new ones. Such a process takes motivation, effort, time, support and sustained practice”

### **5.5.2 Recruitment, Selection and Development**

Today’s rapidly expanding competitive global economy has seen the emergence of a new talent war for outstanding leaders. Selection, promotion and development decisions have become critical to the success of the organisation. Emotional intelligence can be used to assist organisations in identifying potential candidates, thus enhancing leadership selection (Fulmer, 1997). Gardner and Stough (2001, p. 76), purport that “emotional intelligence testing may improve an organisations ability to predict who will be an effective leader, who will manage a productive group and who will be satisfied in their own job but who will not avoid responsibility or be absent when needed”.

Recruiters should embrace new ways of recruiting if they are striving to win this talent war. They should not only be knowledgeable about what emotional intelligence is, but learn how to recognise and select those with already high levels of this competency. “The danger lies in assuming that because a person is optimistic or confident, he or she is also emotionally intelligent, when, in fact, the presence of those traits will tell you nothing of the sort,” (Mann, 2004, p. 13). Recruiters therefore, need to be trained to ask appropriate questions that test the competencies of self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

If people with high emotional intelligence are recruited, working relationships could potentially be improved and some of these recruits, with high levels of emotional intelligence, will become the leaders in the organisation who would be able to influence the emotional intelligence of their subordinates. Evidence increasingly shows that the “higher one goes in an organisation, the more important emotional intelligence can be” (Kemper, 1999, p. 16). Subsequently, the permeation of such emotionally intelligent people into higher positions will ultimately lead to a shift in the culture of the organisation and affect everything from employee morale to productivity. The development of a new leadership will emanate within the organisation when human resources realises that emotional intelligence should become common practice in organisations. This could potentially produce a motivated workforce, with higher retention rates.



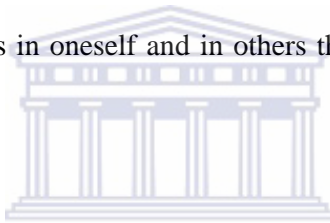
## 5.6 LIMITATIONS

- ✚ One of the major limitations of this study was 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 office automation managers.

- ✚ 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.
- ✚ Little empirical research has been conducted examining the relationship between emotional intelligence in the workplace and effective leadership.
- ✚ There are many variables, not necessarily related to EI which could possibly have an effect on leadership style.
- ✚ Although data triangulation was achieved by having participants complete two separate instruments, all of the data is from the same respondent, and no repeat measures were taken.
- ✚ Both instruments are self reported versions which might skew compromise the results of the investigation because participants might have given socially desirable responses.

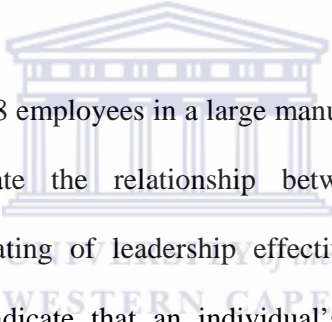
## 5.7 CONCLUSION

Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002, p.4) posit that emotional intelligence has been advertised as the “panacea for modern business”. Organisations are conscious of the fact that they are facing a future of rapid and convoluted change. Mester et al. (2003), posit that the perceptions of leadership have changed dramatically, especially with regard to the respective roles played by the leader and the follower. Research indicates that we need to complement styles of leadership with emotional intelligence. To further substantiate this, George (2000), suggests that leadership effectiveness is strengthened by emotional intelligence and suggests that the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in oneself and in others theoretically contributes to the effectiveness of leaders.



George (2000) and Mayer et al. (2000), corroborate that in order for an individual to be socially effective, EI is a key factor and according to Ashkanasy and Tse (2000), Boal and Hooijberg (2000) and George (2000), EI is observed in literature as a key determinant of effective leadership. Mayer et al. (cited in Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006), “hypothesised that the possibility exists that employees who have high levels of EI may have smoother interactions with members of their work teams. Salovey, Bedell, Detweler, and Mayer (1999), assert that individuals, who have the capacity to accurately perceive, appraise and understand the emotions of others, are more likely to respond flexibly to changes in their social environments and build supportive networks.

With particular reference to the sales industry, Manna and Smith (2004), contend that although the industry is becoming technologically advanced, sales are mostly about the successful interaction with the client and that customer expectation has dramatically changed. They further postulate that a “transactional sales representative will not have the effective personal skill set to become an effective sales representative in the near future as customers are becoming more empowered and expecting more in terms of service” (p. 67). This view is supported by Nel and De Villiers (2004, p. 75) who posit that “due to today’s lower level of differentiation between competing products, customers choose service and support above product performance”.



In their study involving 1 258 employees in a large manufacturing organisation, using the MSCEIT to investigate the relationship between managerial emotional intelligence levels and a rating of leadership effectiveness, Kerr, et al. (2006), maintain that the results indicate that an individual’s EI may indeed be a key determinant of effective leadership.

In the South African context, with its diverse cultural and language differences, it has become imperative to develop high levels of empathy and emotional maturity to better understand and deal with people in the workplace which will potentially enhance organisational climate and performance.

## 5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for future research include the following:

- ✚ According to Boyatzis (1996), common practice in human resource management, is to identify the competencies needed for effective job performance and then either find people with those competencies and hire them for the job or develop them in people already in the organization.
- ✚ In order to attain a more profound understanding of emotional intelligence and effective leadership, further theoretical and empirical research is required.
- ✚ Empirically, the use of several combined and complementary methods and employing triangulation and comparative studies may result in less limited perspectives and yield a more inclusive picture of leadership issues being investigated.
- ✚ In future research, it would be interesting to if a larger sample size would yield the same or similar results. One must be cautious in making too wide a generalisation of these findings based on the fact that the sample size is small.
- ✚ A proportionate stratified random sample should ideally be used
- ✚ A longitudinal study can be conducted which involves measuring EI before newly recruited executives assume their positions.
- ✚ Future research should focus on whether and how EI competencies can be developed through selection, training and development programmes. Current research supports the idea that managers can be trained to use

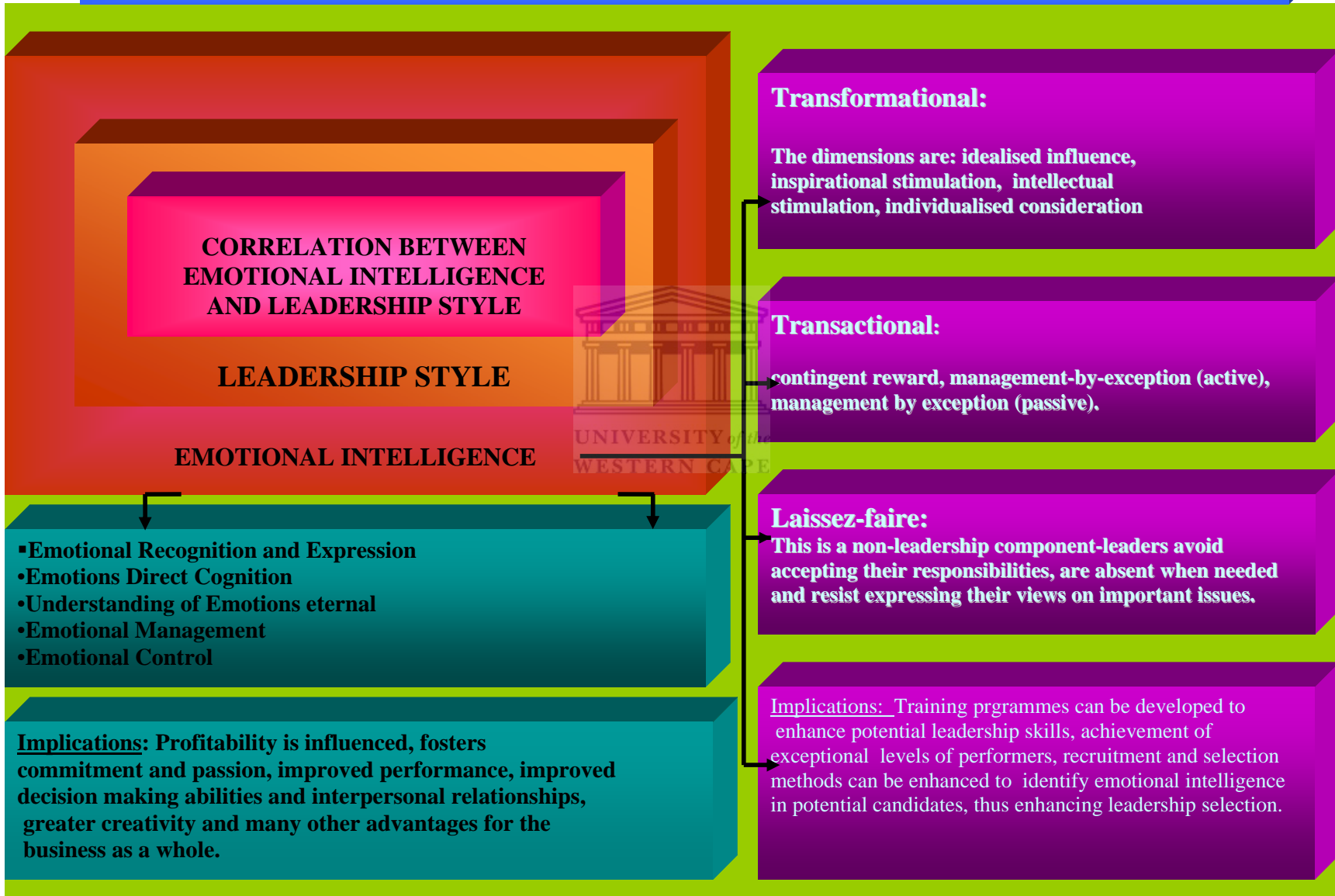


transformational leadership behaviours (Barling et al. 1996, Kouzes & Posner, 1995).

- ✚ It would be interesting to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and EI in number of organisations within the office automation industry.
- ✚ Further research should be conducted to investigate whether emotionally intelligent managers foster emotionally intelligent subordinates.
- ✚ The sample should encompass followers which will establish whether there is congruence between the followers' perception of leadership and those of the individual leaders.
- ✚ Further research can be conducted on the relationship between actual performance indicators and emotional intelligence.
- ✚ There is a need to complement the self-report measure of workplace emotional intelligence with a 360 degree measure of workplace emotional intelligence.
- ✚ Future research should include a sample of effective managers from a variety of industries and from different levels of leadership.

Based on the results of the study, a heuristic model/framework was developed as a tool to assist in the understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style (see Figure 5.1).

**Figure 5.1 Model/Framework for Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style with Regards to the Key Variables of the Study**



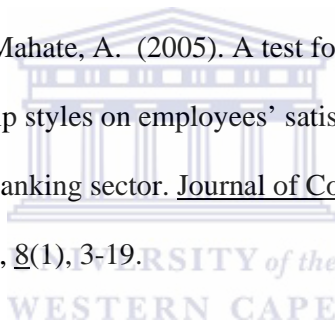
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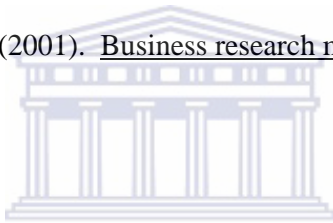
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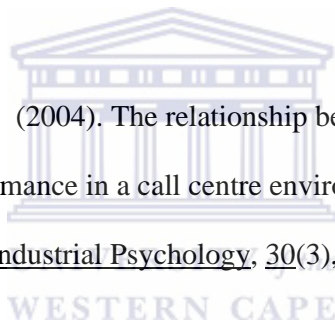


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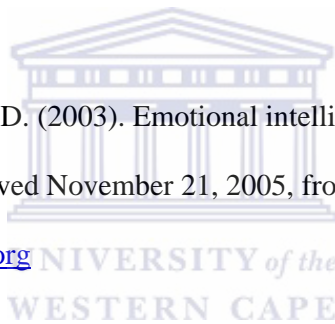
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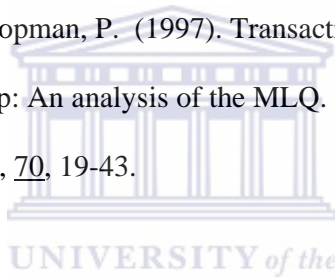
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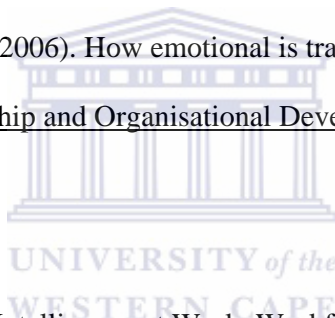
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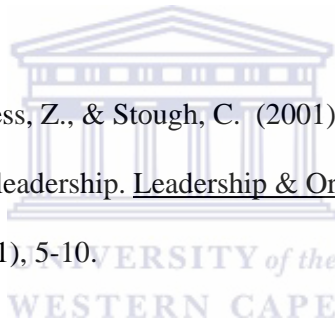


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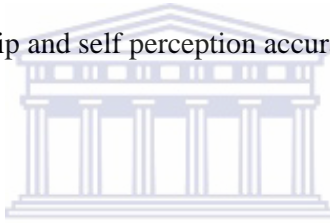
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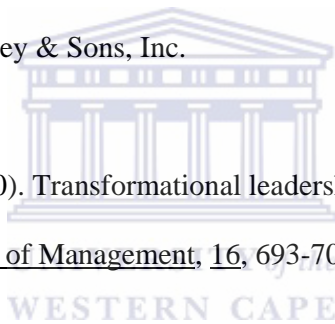
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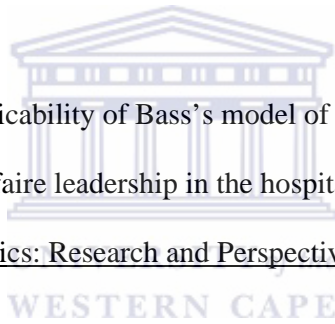
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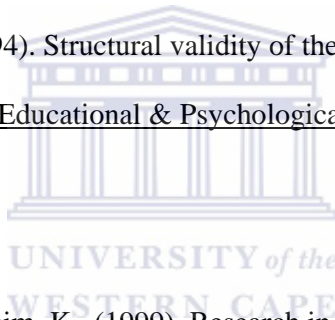
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