

**CORRELATES AND OUTCOMES OF
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN
ORGANISATIONS**

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ABSTRACT

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership are two very important constructs to organizations. Likewise concepts like OCB, conflict handling and intention to quit of employees are equally important constructs to organizations. The primary aim of the present study was to determine how well Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and intention to quit as well as the conflict handling style of subordinates could be predicted by means of leadership style, and the emotional intelligence of leaders. A secondary aim was to determine whether a causal model could be built to represent the relationships among the variables included in the study. Relationships among these constructs were investigated in a South African sample of employees (N=470) working for various organisations. The construct validity and internal consistency of the measuring instruments were investigated. The finally accepted factor structure of not one of the measuring instruments matched the original structure as found by the authors/developers of the measuring instruments.

It was therefore decided that in all cases the factor pattern as determined on the responses of the present sample would be used in further analyses of the data. Emotional intelligence of leaders as seen by subordinates and the self-perceived conflict handling styles of subordinates seem to be related in the case of Integrating and Obliging conflict handling styles and both the emotional intelligence sub-scales, i.e. Motivation and Vigilance. The Multiple Regression analysis indicated that the emotional intelligence sub-scales scores played a minor role in the prediction of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Models of the relationships among the variables were built by studying the results of

previous as well as the present study. The model, in which emotional intelligence is depicted as a causal variable influencing - through leadership behaviour - organizational citizenship behaviour and the integrating style of handling interpersonal conflict represented a good fit with the data. These results seem to provide some structure for thinking about the relationships among the variables and can possibly serve as frames of reference in future studies.

EKSERP

Emosionele intelligensie en Leierskap kan as twee baie belangrike konstrunkte beskou word vir enige organisasie. Insgelyks word konsepte soos die diskresionêre en vrywillige gedrag van werknemers (“organizational citizenship behaviour”) binne ‘n bepaalde organisasie, asook die konflikthantering, en die voorneme van werknemers om te bedank as van groot belang beskou vir organisasies. Die primêre doelwit van hierdie studie was om te bepaal hoe die “organizational citizenship behaviour” van ondergeskiktes, hul voorneme om te bedank asook hul konflikthanteringstyl voorspel kan word deur middel van hul leiers se emosionele intelligensie en leierskapsgedrag. ‘n Verdere oogmerk was om ‘n oorsaaklike model te bou om die verhoudings en verbande tussen die veranderlikes soos gebruik in hierdie studie, te reflekteer. ‘n Steekproef, bestaande uit respondente (N=470) vanuit verkillende Suid-Afrikaanse organisasies is gebruik om die verbande tussen hierdie konstrunkte te ondersoek. Die konstruktgeldigheid en interne konsekwentheid van die meetinstrumente soos gebruik in hierdie studie, is ondersoek. Die faktorstruktuur van alle meetinstrumente is deur middel van Eksploratiewe en Bevestigende faktor-analise geëvalueer. Daar is bevind dat nie een van die meetinstrumente se oorspronklike faktorstruktuur konstant gebly het nie. ‘n Nuwe faktorstruktuur is vir elke meetinstrument – soos gebruik in hierdie studie - is deur middel van Bevestigende faktor-analises geskep.

Hierdie nuwe faktorstrukture - soos verky in die steekproef – is gebruik in die verdere ontleding van die data. ‘n Positiewe korrelasie is verkry tussen die Emosionele intelligensie van leiers soos waargeneem deur hul ondergeskiktes, en

twee konflikthanteringstyle, soos selfwaargeneem deur ondergeskiktes, naamlik "Integrating" en "Obliging". 'n Analise van meervoudige regressie toon aan dat Emosionele intelligensie subskakel (soos verkry in hierdie studie) 'n minimale bydrae gelewer het in die voorspelling van die diskresionêre, en vrywillige gedrag ("organizational citizenship behaviour") van die onderskiktes.

Verskillende oorsaaklike modelle – gebaseer op die resultate van vorige, sowel as die huidige studie – is ontwikkel ten einde moontlike verbande tussen die konstrunkte soos in die studie gebruik, aan te dui. Een model toon aan dat emosionele intelligensie - as 'n oorsaaklik veranderlike - deur bepaalde leierskapsgedrag, die diskresionêre en vrywillige gedrag van die ondergeskikte, asook sy/haar Integreerende konflikthanteringstyl positief beïnvloed. Hierdie resultate voorsien 'n moontlike struktuur vir die verdere denke oor en ondersoek van die verbande tussen die bepaalde veranderlikes. Dit kan ook moontlik dien as 'n verwysingsraamwerk vir verdere studies in hierdie verband.

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CHAPTER 1

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

1.1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to determine whether relationships exist between the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership styles and the organizational citizenship behavior, conflict handling and intention to quit of their followers/subordinates.

There is no doubt that the world is changing rapidly. Around the 1960's and on to today, the environment of today's organizations has changed a great deal. Globalisation, virtual teams, outsourcing, e-commerce, increased pressure for employee empowerment and participation in decision-making have all contributed to the emergence of a set of new rules and games for managing an organization (Ferres & Connel, 2003). As a result of the constancy of change, organizations are moving from a zone of comfort to a zone of opportunity on a continual basis (Prahalad, 2002). He further contends that the art of organizational survival lies in the management of this process.

What seems clear, given the complexities that the challenge of change involves, is that business success in the 21st century will require more than just the development of a learning culture. It is common knowledge that change often impacts on the emotional environment of organizations;

it influences the attitudes of employees and often results in employee resistance. It is, thus, safe to assume that this phenomenon will have a very significant implication for the leadership process and - more specifically - leadership behaviour in an organization. In this regard, one of the main challenges facing both managers and employees in the organization of today will be to cope with the changing environment in which they have to operate and still be successful in terms of task accomplishment. Issues such as organisational survival, productivity and profitability have therefore become of paramount importance to every organization operating in this highly competitive business environment. Increasing diversity of workers has brought in a wide array of differing values, perspectives and expectations among workers. As a result of all these driving forces, organizations have to adopt a "new paradigm" or view on the world and be more sensitive, flexible and adaptable to the demands and expectations of their stakeholders; the most important one being, its employees. In his best-selling book "Who Moved my Cheese", Johnson (1999) advocates that it is better to adapt to all these changes, than to be opposed to it.

These intensified pressures facing organisations today have generated major challenges in terms of how organisations will need to manage their human resources and, more specifically, the employment relationship. This view is clearly stated by Schmidt (1997). Turnipseed (2001) goes further by contending that behaviours that may have a positive effect on both individual and organisational efficiency have become more valuable to organisations. Therefore, for an organization to be able to respond rapidly and appropriately to changes in both the internal and external environment of organizations, fundamental changes will need to take

place in the way people work together. Furthermore, emotions in the workplace will need to be accommodated and appropriately managed as it will be critical to the success of any organization in future (George, 2000).

This propagates a significant implication for the leadership process in organizations. Leaders and/or managers in organizations must increasingly deal with continual change (Conger & Kanungo, 1990). According to Wanous, Reicher and Austin (2002), this is often associated with employee cynicism and resistance. More and more organizations must rely on employee initiative in order to perform effectively (Katz & Kahn, 1978). Recent trends emphasizing delegation, empowerment, groups and self-managed teams further emphasize the importance of cooperative, discretionary behaviour at all levels of the organisation (Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990). All of these environmental pressures have elevated the need for leaders/managers to have sufficient interpersonal abilities (Argyris, 1993; Schmidt, 1997). At the foundation of these attributes are the related constructs of emotional intelligence, which involves the ability to perceive and manage emotion in oneself and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; 1997), and of leadership. Bass (1990) supports this by postulating that the leadership construct has both a social and an emotional component. Zaccaro, Gilbert, Thor & Mumford, (1991) state that leadership, even at the dyadic level, requires some social relationship as every leadership situation essentially involves interaction between a leader and a follower. By its very nature then, leadership includes a social component. It is not surprising that individuals who are better able to assess and adapt to social situations are expected to be leaders (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro, et al., 1991).

Along with the social component of leadership, there is also an emotional component. Social interactions are laden with affective interpretations (Kobe, Reiter-Palmon & Rickers, 2001). Individuals assess the intentions and the behaviours of others and make judgements based on these interpretations. It is therefore not surprising that individuals who are able to assess their own and others' emotions and appropriately adapt their behavior to a given situation based on this assessment are expected to be leaders (Bass, 1990).

1.2. DEFINING THE CONSTRUCTS USED IN THIS RESEARCH

1.2.1. Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is an emerging topic for psychological, educational, and management researchers and consultants (Shapiro, 1997; Weisinger, 1997). Many organizations have sent their employees to various EI training courses offered by management consultants. Proponents of the Emotional Intelligence concept argue that it affects one's physical and mental health as well as one's career achievements (Goleman, 1995). Some emerging leadership theories also imply that emotional and social intelligence are even more important for leaders and managers, because cognitive and behavioural versatility and flexibility are important characteristics of competent leaders (Boal & Whitehead, 1992).

Although creative problem-solving, diversity and other characteristics of a learning organisation are important for business success in the 21st century, emotional intelligence has to be fostered for a company to remain competitive in a dynamic environment (Fox, 2002). It is a reality

that the internal environment of any organisation requires regular interpersonal interaction among its members. For employees to perform their job duties effectively, they need to interact with one another. In this regard Bass (1990) expresses the notion that individuals will assess the intentions and the behaviours of others on a continual basis and make judgements based on these interpretations. Ashkanasy and Hooper (1999) proposed that affective commitment towards other people is a necessary component of effective social interaction. These authors further argued that displaying positive emotions would increase the likelihood that an individual will have success at work.

Recently, an increasing number of researchers have argued that emotional intelligence is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders (Goleman, 1998a, 2000; Langley, 2000; Wong & Law, 2002). Goleman (1998a) states that effective leadership has become more dependent on the interpersonal skills of the leader within the reciprocal relationship between leader and follower. It is therefore not surprising that individuals who are able to assess their own and others' emotions and – based on this assessment - appropriately adapt their behavior for a given situation, are expected to be leaders (Bass, 1990). Leaders who are able to regulate their emotions, demonstrate self-motivation and show high levels of energy, have a learning orientation, and who take pride in their work output, are likely to be adaptive and more able to create and maintain an environment of trust and fairness (Goleman, 2000). They will display consideration for other's feelings in the process of making intelligent decisions (Sosick & Megerian (1999; Fox, 2002). Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) extends this argument by expanding the traditional role of the leader of planning, controlling and supervising the

overall functioning of an organization. According to them, today's service oriented business environment also requires of the leader the ability to motivate and inspire others, to foster positive attitudes at work and to create a sense of contribution and importance among employees.

Gardner and Stough (2002) concur that Emotional Intelligence has become very popular within the management literature as an underlying attribute of effective leadership. Emotionally intelligent leaders are thought to be happier and more committed to their organisation (Abraham, 1999), achieve greater success (Miller, 1999), perform better in the workplace (Goleman, 1998a,b; Watkin, 2000), take advantage of and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning (George, 2000). Furthermore, they use emotions to improve their decision-making and instil a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation in other employees through interpersonal relationships (George, 2000). He further indicates that in order to be a successful leader, one must not only possess theoretical knowledge and technological competence, but also emotional intelligence.

With regard to the improvement of organisational effectiveness, the importance of a manager's emotional intelligence have been emphasised as of paramount importance by various researchers and popular authors (e.g. Cooper, 1997; Harrison, 1997; Hesselbein, Goldsmith & Beckhard, 1996; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Downing (1997) pointed out that the increasing growth in interest in emotional intelligence as a construct is closely associated with the increase in organisational contextual volatility and change. According to him, where emotional intelligence is present, a significant part of an organisation's profitability is linked to the quality of

individuals and/or organization members' work life. This can largely be ascribed to the amount of trust and loyalty individuals and/or organization members experience as a result of the level of emotional intelligence present in a particular work environment (Morris & Feldman, 1996; Downing, 1997;). Cooper (1997) also highlights the fact that the profitability of an organisation is linked to the way employees feel about their job, colleagues and the organisation.

It is thus obvious from the existing literature that Emotional Intelligence has emerged as a key construct in modern-day psychological research. Although first mentioned in the professional literature nearly two decades ago, Emotional Intelligence has received extensive attention in the popular media in the past five years (Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2002). Yet, despite the flourishing research programs and broad popular interest, Mayer, Perkins, & Caruso (2001) hold the view that scientific evidence for a clearly identified and defined construct of Emotional Intelligence is sparse, as it carries multiple meanings and connotations. Salovey and Mayer (1990) were among the earliest to propose the term "Emotional Intelligence" to represent the ability of people to deal with their own and others emotions. They referred to it as a type of social intelligence that involves the "ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Both Weisinger (1998) and Langley (2000) state that Salovey and Mayer's (1990) views amount to Emotional Intelligence consisting of four distinct dimensions:

- the ability to accurately perceive, appraise and express emotion;
- the ability to access or generate feelings on demand when they can facilitate understanding of oneself or another person;
- the ability to understand emotions and the knowledge that derives from them; and
- the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Subsequent to this conceptualisation, the emotional intelligence concept has been developed over several theoretical articles – in both scientific and popular writings (e.g. Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Cooper & Sawaf, 1997) and is based on a growing body of relevant research (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Mehrabian, 2000; Newsome, Day & Cantano, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Parker, Taylor, & Bagby, 2001; Matthews, et al., 2002).

Goleman (1995) adopted Salovey and Mayer's definition, and proposed that Emotional Intelligence involves abilities that can be categorized as self-awareness, managing emotions, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relationships/social skills. A more elaborate discussion of the competency model of Emotional Intelligence, comprising of the above-mentioned five areas of emotional competencies is found in Chapter Two. Bar-On (1997, p. 14) developed a model of emotional intelligence and defined it as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures".

However, in the present study, the five emotional competencies – as defined by Goleman (1995) and operationalized by Rahim (2002) will be used as the basis of measuring the Emotional Intelligence of leaders.

1.2.2. Leadership

Leadership is an integral part of our everyday existence, especially in the workplace. Because of its ubiquitous presence in all of our lives, understanding who may be a good leader is an important issue that deserves attention. A decade ago Van Rooyen (1991) already stated that the management of organizations is increasingly realising the importance of leadership as a critical success factor in business. According to him a number of studies have also indicated that effective leadership can improve organizational performance (Van Rooyen, 1991).

Bass (1998) contends that the leadership construct ranks among the most researched and debated topics in the organisational sciences. Various leadership theories and approaches have been proposed, researchers have analysed what leadership is all about, how leaders motivate and/or influence their followers and how they can make changes in their organisations (Yukl, 1998). Behavioural scientists have attempted to discover which traits, abilities, behaviours, sources of power, or aspects of the situation determine how well a leader is able to influence followers and accomplish group objectives. The reasons why some people emerge as leaders and the determinants of the way a leader acts are important questions that have been investigated, but the predominant concern has been leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1998). While research has been conducted which generally support (but sometimes fail to support)

currently popular theories of leadership, how and why leaders have (or fail to have) positive influences on their followers and organisations, is still a compelling question for research.

As highlighted by George (2000), previous studies of leadership have examined what leaders are like, what they do and how they make their decisions. However, the majority of research has yet to identify the effect of leaders' emotions on their work and subordinates, and in general the role emotions play in leadership (George, 2000). Despite this observation, she suggested that feelings (moods and emotions) play a central role in the leadership process. More specifically, it is proposed that emotional intelligence, the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in the self and others, contributes to effective leadership in organisations. This proposition is in line with the view expressed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). However, with the exception of research on charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1990) leadership theory and research have not adequately considered how leaders' moods and emotions influence their effectiveness as leaders. Goleman (1998b) does claim that effective leaders all have a high degree of Emotional Intelligence.

From the above discussion, it seems that both leadership behaviour and emotionally intelligent behaviour are important constructs and are of paramount importance in leading modern day organisations. The notion is supported by Tucker, Sojka, Barone and McCarthy (2000), saying that Emotional Intelligence will be of increasing importance to leaders in organisations. Earlier, Abraham (1999) illustrated in his research how emotional intelligence is closely related to various dimensions of effective leadership. Emotional intelligence has been found to be directly related to

work-group cohesion by creating harmonious relationships and creating and sustaining informal networks among workers. Emotional intelligence can also improve performance feedback. In particular, the dimension of empathy permits emotionally intelligent leaders to place themselves in the position of the subordinate, understand the distress they are undergoing, experience those feelings themselves and modify their communication appropriately (Abraham, 1999).

Researchers have long been interested in leaders' socio-emotional competency commonly known as "people skills" or "soft skills", but until recently empirical evidence about the importance of these has been lacking (Cross, Heathcote, Bore & Ferres, 2003). The importance of the interpersonal skills of the leader was realised by Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan (1994). They contended that - in addition to their traditional role of planning, organising and controlling - leaders must also possess the ability to motivate and inspire followers, create and maintain positive attitudes at work and establish a sense of contribution and importance among employees. In this regard and according to Goleman (1998b) effective leadership has become more dependent on the interpersonal skills of the leader within the reciprocal relationship between leader and his/her follower.

There has therefore been ample evidence that Emotional Intelligence is related to leadership and leadership effectiveness in general (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995, Goleman, 1995, 1998b; George, 2000; Wong & Law, 2002). Leadership concerns the interaction of a leader with other individuals. Once social interactions are involved, emotional awareness and emotional regulation become important factors affecting the quality of

such interactions (Wong & Law, 2002). In the trait approach to leadership, intelligence (as defined in the traditional sense of the word) was regarded as being important for leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990). However, recently emotional intelligence has emerged as having a more profound effect on leadership and leadership effectiveness than traditional IQ has ever had (Sternberg, 1997; Matthews, et al., 2002).

According to House and Shamir (1993), contemporary research on intelligence offers renewed potential for leadership trait research. According to them, leadership is embedded in a social context, and the idea of social intelligence as a required leadership trait is a powerful one. Pillai, Schriesheim & Williams (1999) expressed the view that the leadership research focus had shifted from traditional or transactional models of leadership to a new genre of leadership theories, all of which had charisma as their central concept. This may be, in part, because of their promise of extra-ordinary individual and organizational outcomes found by authors like House & Shamir (1993) and Meindl (1990). Studies have shown that transformational leadership is positively related to employee satisfaction and those in-role behaviours that constitute job performance (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Bass (1985) and Shankar and Eastman (1997) found that a transformational leader is more effective during times of organisational change and turbulence. Researchers such as Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000) and Sosik and Megerian (1999) also found that transformational leaders possess high levels of emotional intelligence. They found Emotional Intelligence to be related to successful change behaviours; behaviours typically exhibited by transformational leaders. According to

Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000) the link between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence is based on transformational leaders' multiple types of intelligence of which Mayer and Solovey (1990) stress Emotional Intelligence is a critical component. They also called for more research into the moderating effects of Emotional Intelligence on transformational leadership. Also Conger and Kanungo (1990) postulated earlier that we have a very limited understanding of which leadership behaviour would be essential for effective change in organisations. Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001) expressed the concern that the extent to which emotional intelligence accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. They (Palmer, et al., 2001) found that despite much interest in relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership, there has been little research published that explicitly examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership.

The debate regarding the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership becomes even more complex if one adds to this equation the reality of continual change in the current business environment. For organisations to thrive – let alone survive in a rapidly changing business environment, they must be led by individuals with a strong commitment to change (Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). Due to the rapid growth in technological development during the latter part of the 20th century, leaders within organisations are faced with the challenge of constantly adapting to a continuously changing business environment (Ekval & Arvonen, 1991, 1994). In this regard, various studies have demonstrated leaders' strategic importance in the process of change (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Roberts, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986).

For an extended period of time the two-dimensional model of leadership, which focuses on concern for people (i.e. "Consideration") and concern for production (i.e. "Initiating structure") behaviour was accepted and applied in leadership and organisational research (Blake & Mouton, 1981; Hersey & Blanchard, 1993; Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999). However, during the early 1990's, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, 1994) identified a third dimension of leadership behaviour, i.e. Change-oriented leadership behaviour. The emergence of the third dimension of leadership behavior was mainly the result of the degree of change leaders had to cope with. Prior to this period, life in organizations was relatively stable, with not much change taking place in work methods and demands. The radical changes that took place within the operating environment of organizations during the 1990's have already been referred to. The result of this has been that pressure on companies and leaders to cope with change has increased enormously. As indicated earlier, any such change will require new behavioural patterns from leaders.

Change-oriented leadership behaviour refers to the leader who "creates visions, accepts new ideas, makes quick decisions, encourages cooperation, who is not overcautious and does not stress plans that must be followed" (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, p. 18). Since the present study focuses – amongst other constructs - on emotional intelligence and the process of leadership, the definition of leadership will include "the ability to create and articulate a realistic, credible, attractive vision of the future for an organization which grows out of and improves upon the present" (Sashkin, 1992). For purposes of this study, the Three-dimensional Leadership Behaviour questionnaire, as developed by Ekvall and Arvonen

(1991) will be used and the responses correlated with the Emotional Intelligence of leaders.

1.2.3. Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

The causes of employee job performance, referring specifically to assigned task-related activities has been one of the major focus areas in organizational research according to Fox & Spector (2000). However, these authors also observe that there has been a shift in emphasis in recent years to include voluntary behaviour that goes beyond task performance. Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) earlier indicated that work behaviour that goes beyond the boundaries of traditional job descriptions and measures of job performance, but holds promise for long-term organizational success was – during the 1990's - already receiving increasing attention. A reality is that organisations comprise of different types of individuals that display a wide range of behaviours. Some individuals will do the least possible to maintain membership to an organisation. On the contrary, organizations also have individuals who will be prepared to go beyond all expectations and do more than what is actually required and/or expected of them (Tunipseed, 2001). The importance of such employee behaviour was realized by Katz (1964) who postulated that for an organization to be effective, it would require three ingredients, namely the organisation must recruit and retain excellent employees; these employees must carry out the requirements of their jobs, and; they must engage in innovative, spontaneous activity that goes beyond formal job descriptions or role requirements.

The management theorist, Chester Barnard, already realised the importance of this type of behavior in 1937 when he stated that “it is clear that the willingness of persons to contribute efforts to the cooperative system is indispensable” (Organ, 1990a, p. 43). These observations are still very relevant and applicable today in an endeavour to define organisation excellence. Positive extra-role behaviours exhibited by employees are discretionary in nature. It is normally not recognised by the formal reward system of the organisation, but holds promise for long term organisational success as it promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Van Dyne, Graham & Dienesch, 1994). Van Dyne, Cummings, and McClean Parks (1995, p. 218) defined this extra-role behaviour as “behaviour which benefits the organisation and/or is intended to benefit the organisation, which is discretionary and which goes beyond existing role expectations”. It is generally accepted that this type of organisational behaviour is highly desirable and assists the effective operation of an organisation; hence its considerable importance to organisations (Turnipseed, 2001).

Bateman and Organ (1983) proposed the term “Organizational citizenship behaviour” to refer to those organizationally beneficial behaviours and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor be elicited by contractual guarantee of recompense. Organ defined organizational citizenship behaviour as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation” (Van Dyne, et al., 1995, p. 237). Two critical components of Organ’s definition are: (a) the behaviour is not part of the employee’s job responsibilities and is not rewarded explicitly,

and (b) the behaviour is usually not obvious but does in aggregate benefit the organization (Van Dyne, et al., 1995). This study will focus on organizational citizenship behaviour as defined by Organ (Van Dyne, et al., 1995).

1.2.4. Handling of Interpersonal Conflict

Conflict is inevitable in any intimate relationship. The social structure of society consists of human interaction and for this very reason there is, to a lesser or greater extent, conflict potential (Van Aarde & Nieuweijer, 2000). They postulate that conflict is an inherent part of any structure in which people are involved or when a group should co-operate and there is interdependence among its members. Shi (1999) postulate that when two or more persons come in contact with one another in attaining their objectives, the relationship may become incompatible or inconsistent. Hence, the reason why conflict can be regarded as a natural part of social processes, and it occurs in all organizations according to Yukl (1998). The causes for conflict are varied and may include competition for resources, incompatible task goals, role ambiguity, status struggles, communication barriers, and incompatible personalities (Yukl, 1998). More conflicts are likely to occur when people have interdependent jobs requiring substantial cooperation, but different objectives, when people must work together in close proximity under stress for long periods of time, and when differences in values and beliefs are likely to cause suspicion, misunderstanding, and hostility (Yukl, 1998).

There has been little research on the relationship between conflict management, the behaviour of leaders and subordinate satisfaction or

performance (Jamieson & Thomas, 1974; Yukl, 1998;). However, in a superior-subordinate relationship it is likely that the subordinate will engage in a specific conflict handling style based on his or her perception of the quality of the relationship with the respective leader/superior (Yukl, 1998; Rahim, 2001). In this regard, Jamieson and Thomas (1974) reported that subordinates' perceptions of their superiors' bases of power influenced their own methods of handling conflict with their superiors. Where more coercive power was used, subordinates applied less accommodating and more competing (dominating) conflict handling styles with them.

As stated, conflict is inevitable in any social relationship, and conflict resolution is an important predictor of relationship satisfaction. This also applies to the internal environment of an organization, and more specifically to the relationship between leaders/managers and their subordinates in organizations (Van Aarde & Nieumeijer, 2000). Dealing effectively with conflict is not easy as it requires mature traits such as intellectual understanding, honest self-examination, reaching out to others, and a mature management of feelings (Van Aarde & Nieumeijer, 2000, p. 21-35). However, people in the workplace today differ in how they handle and manage conflict (Van Aarde & Nieumeijer, 2000).

Blake and Mouton (1964) presented a conceptualisation for classifying the styles for handling interpersonal conflicts into five types: forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem-solving. Following a reinterpretation of Blake and Mouton's conceptualisation by Thomas (1976), and Rahim and Bonoma (1979), Rahim (1983) differentiated the styles of handling interpersonal conflict along two basic dimensions and/or

variables: Concern for self and Concern for others. Various combinations of these variables produce five different conflict-handling styles: integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising (Rahim, 1997). According to Kreitner & Kinicki (1998) there is no single best style; each has strengths and limitations and is subject to situational constraints.

For purposes of this study, Rahim's (1983) conceptualisation of handling interpersonal conflict will be used.

1.2.5. Intention to Quit

The problem of employee turnover has continued to be a problem to many organisations in recent years, despite an increase in investigations into factors affecting such behaviour. According to Steers and Mowday (1981) organizations prefer to have a stable work force. Intention to quit has received a great deal of attention as a precursor of the separation decision. Elangovan (2001) defines intention to quit as the strength of an individual's conviction that he or she will stay with or leave the organisation in which he or she is currently employed. It is usually seen as a dependent variable and serves as an indicator of the strength of the probability that a person will leave his or her organisation in the foreseeable future. In view of the importance of having a stable work force, it is important for organizations to identify the factors that are involved in the intention of an employee to either leave or remain with the organization. According to Steers & Mowday (1981), intention to quit is influenced by a wide range of factors.

Wong and Law (2002) argued that emotional intelligence should be positively related to job outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and the intention to stay with an organization or quit. The presence of positive emotional states of employees will, in terms of this argument, lead to positive feelings and affection towards the work environment and organisation.

It thus seems logical to assume that as a result of this (i.e. the positive experience on the job and positive affective emotions), employees would feel more committed to the organisation and that satisfaction on the job would be a major determinant of an employee's Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about the organisation, help others and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Consistent with this thinking early discussions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour assumed that it was closely linked with satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

In this study, intention to quit as defined by Elangovan (2001) will be studied in relation to the other constructs, mentioned previously.

1.3. OBJECTIVES OF THIS RESEARCH

One realises from the preceding argument that emotional intelligence and effective leadership are two very important constructs to organizations. However, organizational citizenship behaviour of employees, their conflict handling behavior and intention to quit or to remain with an organization

are also important to an organization. Recently, an increasing number of researchers have argued that emotional intelligence could be regarded as a core variable that affects the performance of leaders and their effectiveness. Despite the interest in relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership behaviour, empirical evidence is lacking, according to Palmer, et al., 2001). Most of the claims and assumptions made with regard to the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their effectiveness have proved to be theoretical and intuitive (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Furthermore, no research and/ or empirical evidence could be found in the existing literature where the relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership style and the impact thereof on the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling styles and intention to quit of their followers were researched in **one study before**. Most of the constructs used in this study have been researched, either individually or in relation with one another; the results of which are available (e.g. George & Brief, 1992; Dulewicz & Higgs, 1998; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997; Langley, 2000; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Gardner & Stough, 2002).

However, the questions that one is left with are: "What is the relationship between leader's emotional intelligence and their overall effectiveness? What are the factors that lead individuals to engage in various forms of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour?" Why do certain employees go "beyond the call of duty" in performing their jobs and others not? What is the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership and OCB? Can OCB be predicted? Can conditions be created in the organization that is conducive to employees displaying OCB? How do various organizational

constructs relate to OCB? What effect can leadership have on employees' OCB? What is the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style the conflict handling style of their followers? How do emotional intelligence of leaders and their leadership style relate to their followers' intention to quit?"

The **primary purpose** of this exploratory study is to determine the relationship(s) between the emotional intelligence of leaders and their leadership style as perceived by their subordinates/followers. The relationship(s) between the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling styles and intention to quit of their subordinates/followers will also be explored.

The objectives of this study will be to answer the following research questions:

- (a) What are the relationships among leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and organizational citizenship behaviour of subordinates/followers?
- (b) What are the relationships among the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership style and the conflict handling style of subordinates/followers?
- (c) What are the relationships between leadership style, and emotional intelligence of superiors and the strength of the sub-ordinate's

intention to leave or to stay with the organization of current employment?

- (d) What are the relationship between demographic/biographical characteristics of sub-ordinates and superiors and the other variables included in the study?

As a **secondary aim**, this study will also explore some causal relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour of followers, their conflict handling style and strength of their intention to leave or stay with the organization of current employment.

Although most of the constructs used in this study have been researched, either individually or in relation with one another, no empirical research results could be found in which these constructs and their relationship(s) were investigated in one study before. However, this study will be unique in the sense that these constructs and their relationship(s) with one another will be researched.

The study will not only determine the relationships among the variables, but, especially, provide information on the strength of the prediction of two important organizational variables, i.e. organizational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave or to stay with an employer. In a sense criterion variables and the antecedents of such variables will therefore be studied. Valuable information on variables that can play an important role in future organizational success will potentially be gained.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

2.1.1. Introduction

Many writers agree that human emotions and qualities are developed through participation in social contexts (Vygotsky, 1985; Bruner, 1990; Mole, Griffiths, & Boisot, 1996). However, the importance of being able to deal with emotions effectively during human interaction was first realised by Aristotle who, according to Langley (2000, p. 177), said that “those who possess the rare skill to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way” are at an advantage in any domain of life. In this regard, several psychologists have proposed that an understanding of the emotions of oneself and others is the key to a satisfying life. They contend that people who are self-aware and sensitive to others manage their affairs with wisdom and grace, even in adverse circumstances (Matthews, et al., 2002). On the contrary, those who are “emotionally illiterate, blunder their way through lives marked by misunderstandings, frustrations, and failed relationships” (Matthews, et al., 2002, p. 3). Moreover, people with this ability will excel at four interrelated skills:

- The ability to persist and stay motivated in the face of frustration;
- The ability to control impulses;

- The ability to control their emotions; and
- The ability to empathize with others (McGarvey, 1997).

Although first mentioned in the psychological literature about two decades ago, it is only in the past five years or so that emotional intelligence (EI) has received extensive attention in both the scientific and public circles. This widespread interest in the construct: Emotional Intelligence appears to be strongly related to the ongoing search for a way of securing sustainable competitive advantage which can be developed through attention to people issues by individuals and organizations. For this and many other reasons, the EI concept seems to continue its escalation as an influential framework in the fields of personality, intelligence and applied psychology, according to Dulewicz and Higgs (2000). A further reason for the heightened sense of awareness and interest in this topic seems to be the realisation that "people skills" have become of paramount importance to any organization. More and more researchers have embraced this concept, realising its applicability and importance to workplace issues such as performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, organizational commitment and leadership issues (see Cooper and Sawaf, 1997; Gates, 1995; Megerian and Sosik, 1996, Wright and Staw, 1999; Gardner & Stough, 2002). Furthermore - despite the heightened interest - little research on emotional intelligence has been conducted in an organisational context and research evidence has been largely drawn from physiological research developments and educational based research (Steiner, 1997).

Be it as it may, Emotional Intelligence has grabbed the attention and imagination of many researchers, and popular writers on this subject. Although much work has gone into the development and application of

emotional intelligence in people's lives, it should be remembered that there has been a general lack of independent, systematic analysis of the construct and of the claim that Emotional Intelligence increases individual performance over and above the level expected from traditional notions of general intelligence (Lam and Kirby, 2002).

Fisher and Ashkanasy (2000) contend that the interest in workplace emotions has accelerated rapidly over the past decade and various research projects have been undertaken in this regard. One of the reasons for this revived interest in the role of emotions (as a core ingredient of organizational life), is the realisation that effective learning, leadership and human relationships play a vital part in helping organizations to achieve a competitive advantage in a constantly changing business environment. In this regard, it is important to realize that the internal environment of an organization represents a social setting that requires substantial and continual interpersonal interaction among its members. Although the nature of most of these interactions will revolve around the performance of job duties, receiving and responding to superiors' instructions, and/or cooperating with colleagues, emotions will still form a core ingredient of such interaction. It is then logical to assume that the ability of an individual to be aware of his/her emotions, to regulate such emotions and interact effectively with others will – to a large degree - determine his/her effectiveness in the workplace.

This assumption can also be applied to the leadership process in organizations (Hooijberg, Hunt & Dodge, 1997; Day, 2000). Environmental pressures, such as the ever-increasing volatility of the business environment coupled with constant change, will according to

these authors, require of leaders to have more effective interpersonal abilities to work with their subordinates/followers. Also Tucker, et al. (2000) are of the opinion that the emotional intelligence of leaders will be of increasing importance in future in view of the continuous change experienced in the work environment.

Emotional intelligence is – furthermore - claimed to be positively related to academic achievement, occupational success and satisfaction, and emotional health and adjustment (Elias, Zins, Weissberg, Frey, Greenberg, Haynes, Kessler, Schwab-Stone & Shriver, 1997). In fact, EI has been claimed to be even more important than intellectual intelligence in achieving success in life (Goleman, 1995). According to Goleman, EI is now considered to have greater impact on individual and group performance than traditional measures of intelligence such as IQ (also Johnson & Indvik, 1999).

In the light of the great interest in the topic and the claims made with regard to the importance of the phenomenon, it seems necessary to look at the origins of the concept.

2.1.2. Historical roots of Emotional Intelligence

Barchard (2002) notes that the construct, Emotional Intelligence is not well defined. An analysis of the existing literature on this construct confirms this lack of a commonly held definition. As a result of this, a wide range of terminology has been applied in an effort to describe an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influences a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures.

Some of the terminology tend to be confusing and include interpersonal intelligence (Gardner & Hatch, 1989), social intelligence (Thorndike, 1920), personal intelligence (Gardner, 1993), emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Goleman, 1995; Cooper, 1977) and emotional literacy (Steiner 1997).

This wide variety of conceptions, definitions and claims with respect to the usefulness of Emotional Intelligence raise an important issue: What does the term "emotional intelligence" really mean when used? To what extent has the concept of Emotional Intelligence been used consistently by its various proponents? Does EI really denote a scientific construct? The reason why these questions should be asked is because of an apparent need expressed in the literature for the application of strict, logical principles in formulating the scientific boundaries and delimiting conditions of Emotional Intelligence (see Davies, et al., 1998; Roberts, Zeidner & Matthews, 2001).

The question then arises: "What exactly is this Emotional Intelligence?"

In order to find an answer to this question, it would therefore be necessary to provide an overview of the concepts and models underlying Emotional Intelligence in order to gain a full understanding of Emotional Intelligence. It would further be prudent to provide a brief historical background in which Emotional Intelligence has emerged.

2.1.3. Conceptual development of Emotional Intelligence as a construct.

A paradigm “is an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions” (Kuhn, 1970, p.23). He (Kuhn, 1970, p.91) adds that once a model or paradigm has been articulated, the sign of scientific vigour includes “the proliferation of competing articulations, the willingness to try anything, the expression of explicit discontent, the recourse to philosophy and to debate over fundamentals.” By Kuhn’s criteria, the Emotional Intelligence paradigm shows signs of having reached a state of scientific maturity.

It has taken decades to reach this point. In the field of psychology, the roots of Emotional Intelligence theory go back at least to the beginnings of the intelligence testing movement. For many years, psychologists and researchers have endeavoured to find an acceptable answer as to what general intelligence is all about and whether the notion of intelligence has any validity at all. According to Cherniss (2000), they focused mainly on memory and problem solving and for many years the primary focus to determine an individual’s potential for success in life, was on the Intellectual Quotient. Very little attention was given to other types of intelligence. However, there were researchers who recognized early on that the non-cognitive aspects were also important (Goleman, 1995). In fact, various research findings point to the fact that a high IQ does not necessarily guarantee success in life (Goleman, 1995; Salovey and Mayer, 1990), but that other intrinsic factors play as great, if not greater, a role in determining individual success. Traditional measures or “rational thinking” (e.g. IQ test, SAT scores, etc.) revealed an inability to predict who will

succeed in life. According to Goleman (1996), research indicates that IQ at best contributes about 20 percent of the factors that determine success in life.

Many academics and researchers are beginning to argue that emotional intelligence (EQ) may be more important for success than IQ (see Salovey, et al., 1993; Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000).

(a) Thorndike's Social Intelligence

According to Taylor (1990), Thorndike was one of the first individuals to identify the aspect of EI he called "social intelligence". He referred to "social intelligence" as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls—to act wisely in human relations" (Walker and Foley, 1973, p. 840). This definition implies the ability of a person to be aware of and perceive his/her and others' emotional state, motives and behaviour and to react positively to them based on this information (Walker, Foley, 1970). This type of intelligence emphasized the importance of appropriate social behaviour and effective functioning of an individual within a given social context and environment. Thus, social intelligence as a concept was developed in an effort to explain variations in outcome measures (i.e. behavior) not accounted for by IQ.

(b) Wechsler Non-intellective and Intellective elements

Wechsler (1940) again referred to "non-intellective" as well as "intellective" elements by which he meant affective, personal and social factors. He defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the

individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (Wechsler, 1958, p. 7). He further proposed that non-intellective abilities are essential for predicting one's ability to succeed in life and that total intelligence cannot be measured until tests also include some measures of non-intellective factors.

Subsequent to the research work by Thorndike and Wechsler, psychology was dominated by the behaviourist paradigm on the one hand and the IQ testing movement on the other for almost half a century. During this period, the ideas of a construct "emotional intelligence" were conveniently ignored.

(c) Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Unfortunately, much of the conceptualisations of Emotional Intelligence by the early pioneers were ignored. Although Thorndike was one of the earliest psychologists to explore the "social intelligence" construct and offered the idea of a single, and probably uni-dimensional concept, more recent psychologists have appreciated the complexity of Emotional Intelligence (as a construct) and have described it in terms of multiple capabilities (Bar-On, 1997; Saarni, 1988). The interest in a broader view of the totality of intelligence was resurrected by researchers such as Gardner (1983). He argued that contemporary models of human intelligence were too restrictive in their subject matter and began to write about multiple intelligences (see Langley, 2000). Instead of defining intelligence in terms of performances on mental tests, Gardner (Sternberg & Williams, 1998) defines intelligence as the ability to solve problems or fashion products that are valued in at least one culture and suggest that

all human beings possess at least seven relatively independent faculties; hence the concept of multiple intelligences (Sternberg & Williams, 1998).

He (Gardner in Sternberg & Williams, 1998) defines the seven types of intelligences as follows:

Table 2.1: Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Intelligences	Description
1. Linguistic intelligence	Allow individuals to communicate and make sense of the world through language. Typical professions include journalists, novelists and lawyers.
2. Logical-mathematical intelligence	Enables individuals to use and appreciate abstract relations. Typical professions include scientists, accountants and philosophers.
3. Spatial intelligence	Makes it possible for people to perceive visual or spatial information, to transform this information, and to recreate visual images from memory. Typical professions include architects, sculptors, and mechanics.
4. Musical Intelligence	Allows people to create, communicate, and understand meanings made out of sound. Typical professions include composers, conductors and singers.
5. Bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence	Allows individuals to use all or part of the body to create products or solve problems. Typical professions include athletes, dancers and actors.
6. Intra-personal intelligence	Helps individuals to distinguish among their own feelings, to build accurate mental models of themselves, and to draw on these models to make decisions about their lives. Typical profession include therapists and certain kinds of artists and religious leaders.
7. Interpersonal intelligence	Enables individuals to recognise and make distinctions about others' feelings and intentions. Typical professions include teachers, politicians and salespeople.

According to Gardner (1983) there is a wide spectrum of intelligences contributing to the ultimate success of a person in life and not just one kind of intelligence. He includes "personal intelligence" in this wide spectrum of intelligences. Gardner (1983) further subdivides personal intelligences into **interpersonal** and **intra-personal** intelligence and proposed that "intra-personal" and "inter-personal" intelligence are as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ and other related tests (Gardner, 1983).

According to Gardner (1983), the core of interpersonal intelligence includes the capacity to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations and desires of other people. It further encompasses the ability to interact with others, understand them and interpret their behavior; in other words the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them. (Carvin, undated). This understanding is presumed to guide one's behavior (Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2001; Quebbeman & Rozel, 2002).

According to Gardner (1993) an individual with a high level of intra-personal intelligence is able to detect and express his own complex and differentiated set of feelings. It refers to the ability to form an accurate model of one self and then use that model to operate effectively in life. The basic level of this intelligence is the capacity to distinguish feelings of pleasure from emotional pain. On the basis of such discrimination a person will become more involved in or withdraw from a situation (Schutte & Malouff, 1999 in Lourens, 2001).

Gardner' s writing on the latter two types of intelligences, i.e. intra-personal and interpersonal intelligence set the stage for subsequent, more elaborate theorizing on Emotional Intelligence as a type of intelligence.

2.1.4. Clarifying Emotional Intelligence as a construct – Definition

The first formal mention of emotional intelligence appears to derive from a German article entitled "Emotional Intelligence and Emancipation", published in the journal *Praxis der Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatie*, by Leuner in 1966 (Matthews, et al., 2002). However, the first time that the term "emotional intelligence" appeared in the English literature was in an unpublished doctoral dissertation by Payne in 1986 (Matthews, et al., 2002). Since then, Emotional intelligence has captured the interest of both the popular press (e.g. Cooper & Sawaf, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1996; Hein, 1997; Stiener, 1997; Wessinger, 1998) and of the scientific researchers (e.g. Davies, et al., 1998; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001).

However, to answer the question: "What is Emotional Intelligence?" is no easy task as it has been defined in many different ways by different authors and researchers.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were some of the first researchers who used the term Emotional Intelligence to describe the ability of a person to monitor his/her own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide his/her thinking and action (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). More recently, Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey (2000) have taken a more cognitive ability approach in describing this

ability, focusing on four aspects: perceiving emotions in oneself and others, assimilating emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions in oneself and others. Others define emotional intelligence more broadly and include personality variables such as persistence and optimism (Goleman, 1995), the tendency to make decisions based on feelings rather than logic (Tett, Wang, Gribler, & Martinex, 1997), and/or the tendency to express one's emotions non-verbally (Tett, et al., 1997). Bar-On (1997) defined Emotional Intelligence as "the ability to understand oneself and others, relate to people, and adapt to and cope with the immediate surroundings (p.3).

Cooper and Sawaf (1998, p. 13) define emotional intelligence as "the ability to sense, understand, and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence." In their book, *Executive EQ*, Cooper and Sawaf (1993) describe four cornerstones of emotional intelligence at executive level: emotional literacy (i.e. the knowledge and understanding of one's own emotions and how they function), emotional fitness (i.e. trustworthiness and emotional hardiness and flexibility), emotional depth (i.e. emotional growth and intensity), and emotional alchemy (i.e. using emotions to discover creative opportunities). A more concise definition (Martinez, 1997, p.72) refers to emotional intelligence as being "an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures".

Other definitions also exist for Emotional Intelligence. Examples include:

- The ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997).
- An array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Stein & Book, 2000).

Goleman (1997) provides a useful description of the construct of emotional intelligence, indicating that it is about:

- Knowing what you are feeling and being able to handle those feelings without having them swamp you;
- Being able to motivate yourself to get jobs done, be creative and perform at your peak, and
- Sensing what others are feeling, and handling relationships effectively.

According to Martinez (1997) the concept of Emotional Intelligence is an umbrella term that captures a broad collection of individual skills and dispositions, usually referred to as soft skills or inter and intra-personal skills, that are outside the traditional areas of specific knowledge, general intelligence, and technical or professional skills. Some researchers such as Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (1999) refer to Emotional Intelligence as a cognitive ability; it is the ability to think intelligently about emotions. It may include the ability to understand emotions in one-self and others, knowledge of how different situations cause different emotions and how

emotions change over time, and the ability to manage one's own and others' emotions.

Most of the authors on the topic note that in order to be a well adjusted, fully functioning member of society or a productive employee, one must possess both traditional intelligence (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EQ). Emotional Intelligence involves being aware of emotions and how they can affect and interact with traditional intelligence. This view fits well with the commonly held notion that it takes more than just brains to succeed in life – one must be able to develop and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships. Taken from this perspective, Emotional Intelligence is nothing new.

Table 1.2 (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000, pp. 343 – 345) provides an overview of the component elements of emotional intelligence, developed from a relatively simple content analysis of the literature:

Table 2. 2: Elements of Emotional Intelligence

COMPONENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE					
Goleman (1996, 1997)	Gardner (1983)	Salovey and Mayer (1990)	Gardner and Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper and Sawaf (1997)
<p>SELF AWARENESS</p> <p>Know own feelings</p> <p>In touch with feelings</p> <p>Use feelings to make decisions with confidence</p>	<p>Ability to relate inner and outer world</p> <p>Self-knowledge</p>	<p>Knowing one's emotions</p> <p>Self-awareness Recognising a feeling as it happens.</p>		<p>Ability to understand own emotions</p>	<p>Identify, value and make most of own strengths.</p>
<p>EMOTIONAL MANAGEMENT</p> <p>Not reflecting on own moods</p> <p>Focus on results (what needs to be done)</p> <p>Express feelings (not passive)</p>	<p>Ability to form an accurate and truthful model of oneself and use model to work effectively.</p>	<p>Managing emotions</p> <p>Handling feelings so that they are appropriate.</p>		<p>Express own emotions productively.</p> <p>Manage and control own emotions.</p>	

Table 2.2 (Continued)

Goleman (1996, 1997)	Gardner (1983)	Salovey and Mayer (1990)	Gardner and Hatch (1989)	Steiner (1997)	Cooper and Sawaf (1997)
<p>SELF-MOTIVATION</p> <p>Delay gratification</p> <p>Do not use impulse in pursuing goals</p>		<p>Motivating oneself</p> <p>Delaying gratification</p>			<p>Effectiveness under pressure.</p> <p>Initiative, focus and drive.</p>
<p>Use anxiety to help perform well</p> <p>Do not give up in face of setbacks</p> <p>Maintain optimism</p>		<p>Marshalling emotions in search of a goal</p>			
<p>EMPATHY</p> <p>Sense what others are feeling</p> <p>Feel rapport with others</p> <p>Interactions go smoothly</p> <p>Social effectiveness</p> <p>Good at handling emotional upsets</p>	<p>Ability to understand others, what motivates them and how they work.</p> <p>Discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments and motivations of others.</p>	<p>Recognising emotions in others.</p> <p>Empathy built on self-awareness.</p>	<p>Personal connection.</p> <p>Recognising and responding to people's feelings and concerns.</p> <p>Preventing and resolving conflicts.</p> <p>Deal making</p> <p>Insights into others' feelings, emotions and concerns.</p>	<p>Empathising with emotions of others.</p>	<p>Constructive discontent</p> <p>Turning divergent views into creative energy.</p> <p>Identify, value and make most of strengths of others.</p>

<p>Can sense pulse of relationships in groups.</p> <p>Can articulate unstated feelings.</p> <p>Naturally takes lead in organising groups</p> <p>People appreciate leadership</p> <p>Talent for settling disputes.</p> <p>Talent for negotiating</p> <p>Talent for deal making.</p>					
<p>RELATIONSHIPS</p> <p>Balancing compassion and caring</p> <p>Persuading others to work to a common goal.</p> <p>Helping others to learn.</p> <p>Promoting social harmony</p> <p>Trust building</p> <p>Networking: building rapport with a key network</p> <p>Promoting and exhibiting cooperation with others.</p> <p>Effective team working</p>	<p>Working cooperatively.</p>	<p>Handling relationships</p> <p>Managing emotions in others</p> <p>Social competencies</p>	<p>Organising groups</p> <p>Initiating and coordinating the efforts of a network of people.</p> <p>Preventing conflicts.</p> <p>Social analysis</p> <p>Rapport building</p>	<p>Emotional inter-activity.</p>	<p>Trusting relationships.</p> <p>Emotional honesty</p> <p>Integrity</p> <p>Turning divergent views into creative energy.</p>

Consensus building Collaboration					
COMMUNICATION Open communications Listening Speaking one's mind.				Listening to others Express own emotion productively	
PERSONAL STYLE Balance hard/soft in decisions. Stress management Accept personal responsibility Little need for control.				Repairing emotional damage	Effectiveness under pressure Accountability

(Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000)

Be it as it may, to find an answer to the question of what emotional intelligence is and what it is all about, is more complex than what it may seem. No simple answer to this question exists, mainly because it has been defined in many different ways by different researchers. In this process several distinctive Emotional Intelligence models have been developed. In fact, an analysis of existing literature highlights the fact that two main approaches to the study of Emotional Intelligence have evolved. The first approach, typified by the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) focuses on the cognitive abilities related to emotions, whilst the second

approach, typified by the work of Petrides and Furnham (2001) focuses on personality traits related to emotions. These areas are referred to as Ability EI and Trait EI respectively (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Studying this distinction in Emotional Intelligence research provides more insight into the conceptual development of the construct and aids in defining and understanding Emotional Intelligence.

2.1.5. Approaches to the studying of Emotional Intelligence

(a) Theories of Emotional Intelligence: Ability Approach

As stated earlier, much of the recent work on emotional intelligence is based on the foundation provided by Gardner (1983), as he referred to intra-personal and interpersonal intelligence. This has been used as a foundation in more recent models on Emotional Intelligence. Salovey and Mayer (1990) - in their first conceptualisation of and earlier work on Emotional Intelligence – defined emotional intelligence according to the abilities involved in it. They defined it as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and action” (1990, p. 189.) This definition included three mental processes:

- the appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and others;
- the regulation of emotion in oneself and others, and
- the utilization of emotion to facilitate thought.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally set out to investigate why certain people are more successful than others in both their life and work, even

though they have similar intelligence levels. The distinguishing factor was labelled “emotional intelligence” (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). It refers to an ability to recognize the meanings of emotions and their relationships, and to reason and problem-solve on the basis of them. The first of the three mental processes stated above is subdivided into those processes dealing with oneself and those pertaining to others. Regulation of emotion – the second mental process involved in Emotional Intelligence – also includes the subcomponents of regulation of emotions in the self and in others. The third process, utilization of emotion, encompasses the abilities of flexible planning, creative thinking, redirecting attention and motivation (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; 1995). However, this definition and other earlier definitions of Emotional Intelligence only referred to perceiving and regulating emotion, and omitted thinking about feelings.

This led to a revision of the original definition on Emotional Intelligence and they now regard Emotional Intelligence as involving the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Thus, this reformulated model and definition identified four building blocks that represent the abilities that combine one’s emotional intelligence (Weisinger, 1998; Langley, 2000; George, 2000; Rozell, et al., 2001):

- The ability to accurately perceive, appraise and express emotion

This relates to the ability of an individual to understand his/her own deep emotions and be able to express these emotions naturally. According to Wong and Law, 2002, people who have great ability in this area will sense and acknowledge their emotions well before most other people.

Appraisal and expression of emotion pertain to both the self and other people. Emotional self-appraisal includes the ability to identify and categorize one's own feelings through words as well as facial expressions (Abraham, 1999). People differ in terms of the degree to which they are aware of the emotions they experience and the degree to which they can verbally and non-verbally express these emotions to others. Accurately appraising emotions facilitates the use of emotional input in forming judgements and making decisions. The accurate expression of emotion ensures that people are able to effectively communicate with others to meet their needs and accomplish their goals or objectives (George, 2000). Appraising and expressing the emotions of others is the ability to accurately determine the emotions other people are experiencing and the ability to accurately convey or communicate these feelings. Much of the appraisal of emotion in others comes from non-verbal cues, i.e. body language.

In relation to others, empathy forms the cornerstone of emotional appraisal through gauging of feelings in others, re-experiencing those feelings, and as a result, choosing socially adaptive responses (Abraham, 1999; Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972; Wispe, 1986). Empathy

– a very definite contributor to emotional intelligence – is an important skill that enables people to provide useful social support and maintain positive interpersonal relationships (Batson, 1987; Kessler, Price & Wortman, 1985; Thoits, 1986).

- The ability to access or generate feelings on demand when they can facilitate understanding of oneself or another person.

Emotional intelligence does not only pertain to being aware of one's emotions and being able to express it, as proposed in the previous section, but also being able to use these emotions in functional ways.

In the first place, emotions can be useful in terms of directing attention to pressing concerns and signalling what should be the focus of attention (Frigda, 1988; George & Brief, 1996). Secondly, emotions can also contribute in that the individual is able to anticipate how he/she would feel if certain events took place and therefore can help decision makers to choose among options and making decisions (Damasio, 1994). Thirdly, emotions can be used to facilitate certain kinds of cognitive processes. Positive moods can facilitate creativity, integrative thinking, and inductive reasoning, and negative moods can facilitate attention to detail, detection of errors and problems, and careful information processing (Sinclair & Mark, 1992; Isen & Baron, 1985, 1987; Salovey, Hsee, & Mayer, 1993).

- The ability to understand emotions and the knowledge that derives from them.

Knowledge about emotions is concerned with understanding both the determinants and consequences of moods and emotions, and how they evolve and change over time. People differ in their awareness and understanding of how different situations, events, people, and other stimuli generate emotions. Furthermore, emotions change over time and leaders need to be aware of such changes to understand the normal emotional reactions in followers during certain circumstances (George, 2000).

Appreciation of the consequences of moods and emotions also varies across individuals. Some people have a rudimentary knowledge and understanding of how they (and other people) are influenced by feelings, and they use this knowledge in a functional way (George, 2000).

- The ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Emotional intelligence also includes a more proactive dimension with regard to feelings; the management of one's own and other people's moods and emotions (George, 2000). However, individuals also differ in the extent to which one is able to successfully manage moods and emotions in these ways. Management of one's own moods and emotions also relies on knowledge and consideration of the determinants, appropriateness, and malleability of moods and

emotions (George, 2000). This regulation entails a reflective process, which has been referred to as the meta-regulation of mood (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

The four building blocks intelligence representing the abilities associated with emotional intelligence are summarized in Table 3.

Table 2.3: Categories of abilities associated with Emotional Intelligence

REFLECTIVE REGULATION OF EMOTIONS TO PROMOTE EMOTIONAL AND INTELLECTUAL GROWTH			
Ability to stay open to feelings, both those that are pleasant and those that are unpleasant	Ability to reflectively engage or detach from and emotion depending upon its judged informativeness or utility	Ability to reflectively monitor emotions in relation to oneself and others, such as recognizing how clear, typical, influential, or reasonable they are.	Ability to manage emotion in oneself and others by moderating negative emotions and enhancing pleasant ones, without repressing or exaggerating information they may convey.
UNDERSTANDING AND ANALYZING EMOTIONS; EMPLOYING EMOTIONAL KNOWLEDGE			
Ability to label emotions and recognize relations among the words and the emotions themselves, such as the relation between liking and loving	Ability to interpret the meanings that emotions convey regarding relationships, such as that sadness often accompanies a loss.	Ability to understand complex feelings: simultaneous feelings of love and hate, or blends such as awe as a combination of fear and surprise.	Ability to recognize likely transitions among emotions, such as the transition from anger to satisfaction, or from anger to shame.
EMOTIONAL FACILITATION OF THINKING			
Emotions prioritise thinking by directing attention to important information.	Emotions are sufficiently vivid and available that they can be generated as aids to judgement and memory concerning feelings.	Emotional mood swings change the individual's perspective from optimistic to pessimistic encouraging consideration of multiple points of view.	Emotional states differentially encourage specific problem approaches such as when happiness facilitates inductive reasoning and creativity.

Table 2.3 (Continued)

PERCEPTION, APPRAISAL, AND EXPRESSION OF EMOTION			
Ability to identify emotion in one's physical states, feelings, and thoughts.	Ability to identify emotions in other people, designs, artwork, etc., through language, sound, appearance, and behaviour.	Ability to express emotions accurately, and to express needs related to those feelings.	Ability to discriminate between accurate and inaccurate, or honest versus dishonest expressions of feeling.

Mayer & Salovey, 1997

The most basic level of processing involves "the perception, appraisal and expression of emotion. As these skills are mastered, one would advance to the emotional facilitation of thinking and then on to the understanding and analysis of emotions and the utilization of emotional knowledge. The most integrated and highest level of processing involves the reflective regulation of emotions to further emotional and intellectual growth". (Rozell, et al., 2001, p. 274). According to Mayer and Salovey, many people primarily identify emotional intelligence with emotional management. They hope emotional intelligence will be a way of getting rid of troublesome emotions or emotional leakages into human relations, and rather hope to control emotions.

(b) Theories of Emotional Intelligence: Trait Approach

Building on the work of Mayer and Salovey, Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) has suggested that Emotional Intelligence comprises of 5 competencies. Each of the 5 competencies can greatly impact the manner in which an individual perceives and reacts to all types of organizational events and involves abilities that may be categorized into five domains:

- ***Self-awareness:*** This forms the keystone of Emotional Intelligence and refers to the ability to accurately recognise and express one's own emotions. This implies that the individual has a sound understanding of his emotions, strengths, weaknesses, needs and drives. People with a high level of self-awareness are neither overly critical nor unrealistically hopeful. They are also able to recognise what effect their feelings will have on themselves, as well as on other people and also their job performance. They would further demonstrate an openness towards constructive criticism and would also not have a serious problem to talk about their limitations and strengths.
- ***Managing emotions (Self-regulation):*** This element represents the second of Goleman's core competencies and involves managing one's internal states, impulses and resources (Goleman, 1995).

More specifically it refers to handling feelings so that they are appropriate; realizing what is behind a feeling; finding ways to handle fears and anxieties, anger and sadness. This component of emotional intelligence enables the individual to control his feelings and emotions and to channel it in useful ways. It also involves the propensity to suspend judgement, to think before acting. It involves an ability to suppress impulsive urges. This element of Emotional intelligence, according to Goleman (1995) includes self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability and innovation. It further involves self-monitoring which refers to an individual's ability to adjust his/her behaviour to external situational factors (Rozell, et al., 2001).

- **Motivating oneself:** This involves the control of emotional tendencies that guide or facilitate reaching goals (Goleman, 1995). Channelling emotions in the service of a goal; emotional self-control; delaying gratification and stifling impulses form part of this element.

Motivating oneself – as a component of emotional intelligence – refers to the drive and passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status. It further refers to the propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence. Highly self-motivated individuals thrive on creative challenges, take pride in a job well done and enjoy learning. Energy is specifically directed toward doing things better and not just to accept the status quo. Set procedures are challenged and exploring new ways and/or approaches to their work are an integral part of their normal behaviour. (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

- **Empathy:** Sensitivity to others' feelings and concerns and taking their perspective; appreciating the differences in how people feel about things.

As the definition implies, empathy refers to the ability to understand the emotions of other people. Empathy enables an individual to treat other people according to their emotional reactions. Other peoples' feelings are taken into account. According to Salovey & Mayer (1990) empathy is of great importance in the leadership process because of: the increasing use of teams in the work place, the rapid pace of change and globalisation, and the growing need to retain talented people. People who display empathy are sensitive to the subtleties in body language, they can "hear" the unspoken word, and have a

thorough understanding of the existence and importance of cultural and ethnic differences (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

- **Handling relationships (Social skills):** Managing emotions in others; social competence and social skills.

Social skills lead to a proficiency in managing relationships, building networks, finding common ground and building rapport. Social skills enable a person to move people in a certain desired position, whether it is agreement on a new strategy or enthusiasm about a new vision. Socially skilled people tend to have an ability to build rapport with people (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Bar-On developed a non-cognitive model, defining Emotional Intelligence as “an array of non-cognitive, competencies and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). He conceptualised his model as comprising of 15 components that pertain to five specific dimensions of emotional and social intelligence, namely:

- **Emotional intelligence** – representing abilities, capabilities, competencies and skills relating to the inner self;
- **Interpersonal emotional intelligence** – representing interpersonal skills and functioning;
- **Adaptability emotional intelligence** – referring to the ability of an individual to cope with environmental demands by effectively interpreting and dealing with problematic situations;

- **Stress management emotional intelligence** – referring to the ability to manage and cope effectively with stress; and
- **General mood emotional intelligence** – pertaining to the ability to enjoy life and to maintain a positive disposition (Bar-On, 1997).

According to this conceptualisation by Bar-On, the various components of this model develop over a period of time, change over time and can be improved via appropriate training and development programs.

2.2. LEADERSHIP

2.2.1. Introduction

There is no doubt that leadership is often regarded as the single most important factor in the success or failure of institutions (Bass, 1990); hence, its status as one of the most observed and studied concepts in the social sciences. Questions about leadership have long been the subject of speculation. However, it was only during the 20th century that scientific research on leadership commenced. Since that time, there has been a continual effort to define and clarify the complexities associated with the concept: Leadership. Yukl (1998) points out that most of the research in this regard have focused on clarifying the determinants of leadership effectiveness. Over many years, researchers have tried to find out which traits, abilities, behaviours, sources of power or situational aspects determine how well a leader influences his/her followers and accomplishes objectives. The reason why some people emerge as leaders and the determinants of the way a leader acts have been important

questions that have been investigated, but the predominant concern has been with leadership effectiveness.

However, despite progress in clarifying some of the questions with regard to leadership and – more specifically – leadership effectiveness, many questions still remain unanswered. Burns (1978) stated that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. In this regard, Stogdill (1974, p. 7) concluded in his 1974 review of leadership studies:

“Four decades of research on leadership have produced a bewildering mass of findings ... the endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership.”

2.2.2. Defining Leadership: WHAT IS LEADERSHIP?

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. As Pfeffer (1977) noted, many of the definitions are ambiguous. Furthermore, the distinction between leadership and other social-influence processes is often blurred. As a result, leadership researchers disagree considerably over what does and does not constitute leadership. Most of this disagreement amongst researchers stems from the fact that leadership is a complex phenomenon involving a complex interaction among the leader, the followers, and the situation. The many dimensions into which leadership has been cast and their overlapping meanings have added to the confusion (Pfeffer, 1977).

Some researchers define leadership in terms of personality, physical traits or behaviours of the leader. Others have studied the relationships between leaders and followers; whilst others believe leadership is represented by a set of prescribed behaviours within a given situation (Bass, 1990). In contrast, other researchers believe that the concept of leadership does not really exist (Meindl, Ehrlich and Dukerich, 1985). This group of researchers argue that organizational successes and failures often get falsely attributed to the leaders, but the situation often has a much greater impact on how the organization functions than does any individual, including the leader (Meindl, et al., 1985). Perhaps the best way to begin to understand the complexities of leadership is to see some of the ways leadership has been defined.

Yukl (1998) comments that the term leadership is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined. As a consequence, much of the literature on leadership is confusing and contradictory. An observation by Bennis (1959, p259) is as true today as when he made it many years ago:

"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 and endless proliferation of terms to deal with it ... and still the concept is not sufficiently defined".

Yukl (1994) states that researchers define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them. The terms leadership means different things to different

people; hence the reason why (Spitzberg, 1987) contends that the meaning of leadership may depend on the kind of institution in which it is found. After a comprehensive review of the leadership literature, Stogdill (1974, p.259) concluded that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept." However, sufficient similarity does exist among definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification. Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a differentiated role, as initiation of structure and as many combinations of these definitions (Bass, 1990, p. 11).

Despite these observations, new efforts to define Leadership have continued. Based on a review of definitions by Yukl (1994, p.2), it can be said that researchers - during the last part of the twentieth century - have defined leadership as follows:

- Leadership is "the behavior of an individual ... directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p.7);
- Leadership is "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528);
- Leadership is "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement" (Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46);

- Leadership is the process of transforming followers, creating visions of the goals that may be attained, and articulating the ways to attain those goals (Bass, 1985; Tichy and Devanna, 1986);
- Leadership is about “articulating visions, embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished” (Richards & Engle, 1986, p. 206).
- Leaders are “those who consistently make effective contributions to social order and who are expected and perceived to do so ” (Hosking, 1988, p. 153);
- Leadership is “a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose” (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p. 281);
- Leadership ... “is the ability to step outside the culture ... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive” (Schein, 1992, p. 2);
- Leadership “is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed” (Drath & Palus, 1994, p. 4); and

From the wide array of definitions presented it is clear that leadership has been defined in many different ways. However, most definitions share the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people in an attempt to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization. This aspect is included in the Schriesheim, Tolliver, and Behling, (1978, p. 35) view that is very specific, stating that leadership can be defined as “a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates or followers in an effort to reach

organizational goals". This definition is supported by Avery and Baker (1990, p.453) who viewed leadership as the "process of influence between a leader and his followers to attain group, organizational and societal goals".

2.2.3. A brief overview of Leadership Theories

There is a great deal of literature on leadership and the field has many specific streams such as decision making, leader-follower interaction, power of the leader, cultural and gender differences of leadership and many other concepts that have made important contributions to our understanding of the concept. However, the field of Leadership is still in a state of ferment, with many continuing controversies about conceptual and methodological issues. Like definitions of leadership, conceptions of effective leadership behaviour differ. In this regard, Yukl (1998) contends that leaders' behaviour is often evaluated in terms of its consequences for his/her followers. Many different outcomes have been used in this regard including the performance and growth of the leader's group or organization, its preparedness to deal with challenges, follower satisfactions with leader and the leader's retention of high status in the group (Yukl, 1998). One of the most commonly used measures to evaluate the effectiveness of a leader's behaviour has been the attitudes of followers, including their respect for the leader, and commitment to carrying out the leader's requests. However, it is not always easy to evaluate the effectiveness of a leader's behaviour. Leadership behaviour and the effectiveness of such behaviour can only be analysed in terms of the wide array of leadership approaches that have emerged over many years. It is therefore helpful to have some framework in which to

consider different approaches to the study of the subject. In the following section a brief overview of the various approaches to studying the concept of Leadership will be provided.

(a) TRAIT APPROACH

As stated above leadership itself has been accompanied throughout time by numerous theories, all claiming to answer the following question(s): (1) Why do individuals become leaders?, and (2) Why are some people effective leaders? This also raised an intriguing question: What sets effective leaders apart from most others? One of the most widely studied approaches to this question suggests that effective leadership is based on the characteristics people have. In short, people become leaders because – in some special ways – they are different from others (Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Those who accept the verdict that leaders are born and not made, maintain, "... that there are certain inborn qualities such as initiative, courage, intelligence and humour, which altogether pre-destine a man to be a leader ...the essential patterns is given at birth" (Adler & Rodman, 1991, p. 4). These questions lead to the Trait Approach to Leadership.

Two leadership theories that concentrate on this point, are the Great Man and the Trait Theories.

The Great Man theory

According to this orientation, great leaders possess key traits that set them apart from most others humans. Furthermore this theory contends

that these traits remain stable over time and across different groups. Thus, it suggests all great leaders share these characteristics regardless of when or where they lived or the precise role they played (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

The Trait Theory of Leadership

The Trait theory of leadership expands further on this conjecture, by concentrating on the personal characteristics of the leader. This theory of leadership, which until the mid-1940's formed the basis of most leadership research, cited traits believed to be characteristic of leaders, the list of which grew in length over the years, to include all manner of physical, personality and cognitive factors, including height, intelligence, and communication skills. However, few traits emerged to conclusively differentiate leaders from non-leaders. The traits an individual may have increase the probability that a person will become a leader. Though, whether such leadership is guaranteed, is uncertain. Nevertheless, it can be seen to be true that some people are more likely than other to assume leadership positions. Thus, early research attempting to find consistent and unique personality traits that all leaders possessed showed no definite pattern. More recent studies have found six traits that differentiate leaders from non-leaders; honesty, integrity, high energy level, ambition and the desire to lead, intelligence, self-confidence and task relevant knowledge (Kilpatrick and Locke, 1991; Stogdill, 1974). The results of a study by Kouzes and Posner (1993) show the six highest characteristics that people most admire in leaders are: honesty, forward looking, inspiring, competent, fair-minded and supportive.

(b) BEHAVIORAL THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

Since the Trait approach reached a dead end and interest in this approach to the study of leadership declined, researchers started to focus their attention on the leaders' actions instead of their attributes. This new interest gave rise to the emergence of the **Behavioural Theories of Leadership** (Mullins, 1994). The most comprehensive and replicated of the behavioural theories resulted from research conducted during the 1950's at the Ohio State University. Based on this research, two independent leadership dimensions were identified, i.e. Initiating structure and Consideration.

Initiating structure (or production-orientation) refers to the extent to which a person is likely to define and structure his/her role and those of employees (followers) in the search for goal attainment (Robbins, 2001). Thus, the primary focus is on getting the job done. An individual in a leadership position and/or role will then engage in actions such as organizing work, setting goals, compelling subordinates to follow rules and making the leaders and subordinate (follower) roles explicit (Robbins, 2001; Greenberg & Baron, 2000). Consideration can be described as the extent to which a person is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for employees' (followers') ideas, and regard for the feelings. He or she shows concern for followers' wellbeing and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration could be described as one who opens communication channels, helps employees with their personal problems, is friendly and approachable and treats all employees (followers) as equals (Robbins, 2001; Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

Researchers at the University of Michigan also identified two kinds of leadership (i.e. employee-orientation and production-orientation). According to this theory, the two kinds of leadership are at the ends of a continuum – a bi-polar scale. The conclusions arrived at by the Michigan researchers strongly favoured the leaders who were employee oriented in their behaviour as they were associated with higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction (Robbins, 2001).

Perhaps the most widely publicized exponent of the Behavioural approach was Robert Blake and Jane Mouton's Managerial Grid. The Managerial Grid described leadership styles in terms of a "concern for people" and a "concern for production". This essentially represented the Ohio dimensions of Consideration and Initiating structure or the Michigan dimensions of Employee orientation and Production orientation (Robbins, 2001). Blake and Mouton (Robbins, 2001) attempted to explain that there was one best style of leadership, by various combinations of two factors regarding a concern for production and a concern for people. In terms of the Managerial Grid approach, leaders can identify their own assumptions about people and the job to be done. By knowing the styles of others leaders and their own leadership style, leaders will be better equipped to appraise themselves and others more objectively, to communicate better, to understand where differences originate and to assist and lead others in being more productive. Five leadership styles were determined from this conceptualisation. One of these styles, the team management style indicating a synergistic combination of high concern for both people and production, was deemed as preferable (Greenberg & Baron, 2000).

The Behavioural Theories of Leadership have had modest success in identifying consistent relationships between leadership behaviour and follower performance. Consideration of situational factors that might have an influence on the success or failure of the leader seems to be missing (Robbins, 2001). Due to the disillusionment with the fore-mentioned theory, the Contingency **approach to leadership** arose.

(c) CONTINGENCY THEORIES OF LEADERSHIP

According to Kabanoff (1981) it became increasingly clear during the 1970's that predicting leadership success and effectiveness is much more complex than just isolating a few traits of preferable behaviours. More and more researchers emphasized the effect and/or impact of situational influences on leadership behaviour and effectiveness. The **Contingency approach to Leadership** represented a major advance in the evolution of leadership theory (Van Seters & Field, 1989). This approach proposed that both the characteristics of the individual, and the situation in which the group found itself, accounted for who would become the leader. The view that leaders are both born and made - due to the leader requiring certain abilities and skill, but as the situation and the needs of the group changed, so too the person acceptable as leader changed - resulted from this conceptualisation. Hence the view that effective leadership was seen as dependent on one or more of the factors of behaviour, personality, influence and/or situation

Fiedler's Theory of Leadership

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fred Fiedler (Robbins, 2001). It related the effectiveness of the leader and his/her behaviour to aspects of the situation in which the group operated, suggesting that factors such as the task structure, the leaders personal relations with the group and his/her power basis, interact to determine what style of leadership would be effective for the situation, i.e. a task-oriented or group-oriented approach. In this regard, Saks and Krupet (1988, p. 490) said: "At one extreme, is the leader who values successful interpersonal relations to the exclusion of task accomplishment. The leader at the other extreme, places the highest value on task accomplishment, at the expense of interpersonal relations".

To determine whether a leader was task-oriented or group-oriented, Fiedler devised a model, which used as its basis, the measurement of a leader's perceptions and relations to the least preferred co-worker (LPC), with whom he/she has ever worked with. Those with a high score, were deemed group-oriented, while those with a low score, were task-oriented. Fiedler's research concluded that a task oriented approach was more effective when conditions were either highly favourable (good leader/group relations, weak leadership position and an ambiguous task). A group-oriented approach, was deemed as preferable, when conditions were comparatively stable so more attention is paid to the preservation of group relationships, to avoid conflict and inefficiency that could eventuate from any disharmony in the group setting.

From this research, we can discern that there are no necessarily good or bad leadership styles, but their behavioural effectiveness depends on how appropriate they are to the group situation. However, Fiedler's theory had its critics, who questioned its use of a model to measure leadership style and situational favourability, and emphasised its inconclusiveness.

Situational Theory of Leadership

The Situational Theory of leadership was developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard. It is a contingency theory that focuses on the followers and suggested that the traits required of a leader differed, according to varying situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). The Situational leadership theories grew out of an attempt to explain the inconsistent findings about traits and styles (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). Situational theories propose that the effectiveness of a particular style of leader behavior depends on the situation. As situations change, different styles become appropriate. This directly challenges the idea of one best style of leadership to be used in all situations.

According to Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory of Leadership (Kreitner, et al., 1998, p. 507) successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, in line with the level of readiness of the followers. Readiness is defined as the extent to which a follower possesses the ability and willingness to complete a task. Willingness is a combination of confidence, commitment and motivation (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). Thus, the emphasis on the followers in leadership effectiveness – according to the Situational Theory – reflects the reality that it is the followers who accept or reject the leader. The effectiveness

of the leader depends on the leader's followers, regardless of what the leader does. This is an important dimension that has been overlooked in most leadership theories (Robbins, 2001).

The situational approach, which predominated in the 1950's held that whether a given person became a leader of a group, had nothing to do with his/her personality. On the contrary, it had everything to do with such factors as the flow of events and circumstances surrounding a group. To put it simply, the leader was a person who was in the right place at the right time. In this regard, Adair, (1984,p.8) commented: "Rather than a great man causing a great event to happen, the situational approach claims that great events are the product of historical forces that are going to happen whether specific leaders are present or not".

Unfortunately, this theory still did not answer why one member of a group emerged as the leader, rather than another, or why one particular leader proved to be a better leader in some situations than another.

House's Path Goal Theory of Leadership

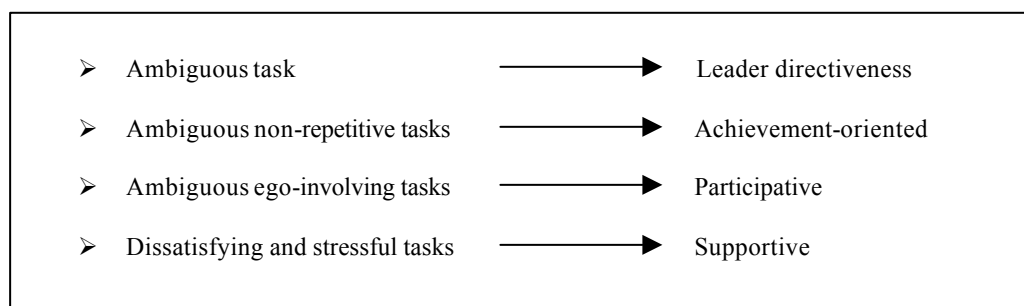
Robert House's **Path-goal theory** proposed a leader's effectiveness was based on the leader's ability to raise satisfaction and motivation in group members by use of an incentive scheme to reward or punish those responsible for success or failure in reaching group objectives (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998). The theory addresses the unique need of leaders to perform different styles of leadership in order to provide for general follower satisfaction, motivation and performance. In this regard House (1974, p. 141) stated the following: "The motivational functions of the

leader consist of increasing the number and kinds of personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making paths to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying the paths, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing opportunities for personal satisfaction en route”.

Thus leadership behavior is acceptable when employees view it as a source of satisfaction or as paving the way to future satisfaction. In addition, leadership behavior is motivational to the extent it reduces barriers that interfere with goal accomplishment, provides the guidance and support needed by employees, and ties meaningful rewards to goal accomplishment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998, p. 506). In order to accomplish these goals, a leader would be required to adopt differing styles of leadership behaviour as the situation dictated. According to House (1974), four different leadership styles will lead to motivation and job satisfaction in four different task situations; the four leadership styles being, directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and achievement-oriented leadership (Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998, p. 506).

It can be illustrated as follows:

Figure 1: House’s Path Goal Theory – The Path from Task to Leadership Style



According to this theory, the degree of correlation between relation-oriented behaviour and job satisfaction is expected to be higher in structured situations than in unstructured situations. The opposite is true of initiating structure (Bass, 1990; House 1974).

However, the content of the model is very complex, and hence, very difficult to test. This caused highly differing empirical results. Altogether the model has been acknowledged to some extent, but is also viewed as having "limitations" (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1989).

Vroom and Yetton: Normative theory of Leadership

Vroom and Yetton's normative theory of leadership was developed in 1973. This theory related leadership behavior and participation to decision making (Yukl, 1998). More specifically, it focused on the degree of participation a leader would allow in making any given decision and the selection of an approach which would maximise benefits, and at the same time minimise potential obstacles to the group goals within and dictated by different types of situations (Yukl, 1998).

(d) TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES (Neo-Charismatic Leadership)

As can be seen from the fore-going sections on leadership, various lines of research and theory have emerged in an attempt to improve our ability to understand leadership and leadership behaviour. The two-dimensional model of leadership that focuses on concern for people and concern for production has been part of a long tradition in leadership research.

However, during the late 1970's leadership research started to focus on the importance of leadership behaviour within an organizational change and development framework (Skogstad & Einarsen, 1999); so-called **Transformational Leadership**.

Van Seters and Field (Lourens, 2001, p. 34) contend that the Transformational Leadership theory represents the latest phase in the evolutionary development of leadership theory. This approach to studying leadership goes a step further and helps lift the follower beyond personal goals and self-interests to focus on goals which contribute to a greater team and/or organizational good. Yukl (1998) refers to this development as a rising interest in the emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership influence. It focuses on the identification and examination of those leader behaviours that influence followers' values and aspirations, activate their higher-order needs and arouse them to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the organization (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1989b). These transformational behaviours are believed to augment the impact of transactional forms of leader behaviour and employee outcome variables, because "followers feel trust and respect toward the leader and they are motivated to do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl, 1989b, p. 272).

Robbins (2001) elaborates on this and states that the Transformational Theories of leadership have three common themes. First, they stress symbolic and emotionally appealing leader behaviours. Second, they attempt to explain how certain leaders are able to achieve extra-ordinary levels of follower commitment. And thirdly, they de-emphasize theoretical

complexity and look at leadership more the way the average “person on the street” today view the subject (Robbins, 2001, p. 327).

Examples of this new focus on leadership include the work of Burns, Bass, House and others (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985; Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987; Bass, Waldman, Avolio & Bebb, 1987; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Boal & Bryson, 1988; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977; House, Spangler & Woycke, 1991; Howell & Frost, 1989, Shamir, House & Arthur, 1993; Tichy & DeVanna, 1986). Although these approaches differ somewhat from each other, as noted by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter (1990), the majority of them share a common perspective. By articulating a vision of the organization’s future, providing a model which is consistent with that vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals and providing individualized supports, effective leaders change the basic values, beliefs and attitudes of followers (Podsakoff, et al., 1990). This is supposed to have such a positive effect on followers that they would be willing to perform beyond the minimum levels specified by the organization.

It was during the early stages of the Transformational Leadership era that the importance of leadership in introducing change increasingly came to the attention of various researchers (Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kotter, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Along with Downton (1973), Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational and transactional leadership. Leaders with a transformational disposition can be distinguished from leaders with a more transactional disposition because the former tend to focus more on their vision of the future, strategies to achieve that vision, and deciding how to cope with change

(Burns, 1978; Kotter, 1990). Transactional leadership was viewed as an exchange of rewards for compliance and as a style in which followers are motivated by appealing to their self-interest. In contrast, Transformational leaders motivate the followers by inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization (Burns, 1978). Thus, transformational leadership refers to a process of empowering employees to participate in the process of transforming the organization and thereby initiating major changes. Burns (1978) conceived leaders to be either transformational or transactional. However, this paradigm was modified by Bass (1985). He proposed that transformational leadership augments the effects of transactional leadership on the efforts, satisfaction and effectiveness of subordinates. According to Bass (1985), transformational leadership would reduce the inclination on the part of the subordinate to quit the organization.

Bass (1985) elaborated on the earlier work and ideas of Burns and proposed a theory of transformational leadership. The theory includes two distinct types of leadership processes, i.e. transactional and transformational leadership. According to Bass (1985) transformational leaders motivate people to do more than they originally intended, often even more than they thought possible. Like Burns (1978), Bass views transactional leadership as an exchange of rewards for compliance. The transactional leader will guide or motivate his/her follower in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements.

However, the transformational leader will inspire followers to go beyond their self-interests for the good of the organization. Such a leader is

further capable of having a profound and extra-ordinary effect on his/her followers.

Transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations by activating followers' higher order needs, promoting a climate of trust and encourage followers to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1994). According to them, transformational leadership include charisma (i.e. developing followers' trust leading to emotional identification with the leader), inspirational motivation (i.e. followers are provided with emotional appeals directed at goal achievement), intellectual stimulation (i.e. followers are encouraged to question their own way of doing things or to break with the past, and individualized consideration (i.e. assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities).

Transactional leadership differs form transformational leadership in that – according to Bass (1990, 1998) – transactional leaders clarify for their followers their responsibilities, expectations of the leaders, the tasks that must be accomplished and the benefits for compliance. The primary factors involved in this leadership style are contingent reward (i.e. followers and leaders have a positively reinforcing interaction on a continual basis) and the leader intervenes when things go wrong.

Thus, Transformational leadership is defined in terms of the leader's effect on followers: they feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do (Yukl, 1998, p. 325).

According to Bass (Yukl, 1998, p. 325), the leader transforms and motivates followers by:

- Making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes;
- Inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization, and
- Activating their higher-order needs.

Although the underlying influence processes for transformational leadership are not clearly explained, the major premise of the theory is that follower motivation and performance are enhanced more by transformational leadership than by transactional leadership (Yukl, 1998). It is further noted by Bass (in Yukl, 1998) that transactional and transformational leadership are reflected by distinct, but not mutually exclusive processes. This implies that the same leader may use both types of leadership processes at different times in distinct situations.

According to Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy, (1994) transformational leaders have the ability to align people and systems in such a way that there is an integrity throughout the organization towards this vision. Such leaders also have the vision and an ability to inspire followers to incorporate higher values. It pulls them towards achieving an important challenge.

- An evaluation of Transformational Leadership

Research on the transformational leadership paradigm has proven to be rather promising. For example, Bryman (1992) cites a variety of

organizational studies demonstrating that transformational leader behaviours are positively related to employees' satisfaction, effort and performance. Similar results have been reported in several field studies (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Trice & Beyer, 1986; Bass, Avolio & Goodheim, 1987; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Avolio & Bass, 1988) from a variety of samples and organizational settings.

In addition, in a laboratory study designed to examine the relative impact of directive leader behavior versus charismatic leader behavior, Howell and Frost (1989) found that charismatic leader behavior produced higher performance, greater satisfaction and greater role clarity than directive behavior.

However, the transformational leadership theory has also been criticized for a variety of reasons, such as lacking clearly defined parameters, resulting in the synonymous interpretation of this theory in relation to other theories of leadership (such as charismatic and transformational leadership) (Bryman, 1992). Furthermore, transformational leadership is often treated as a personal disposition rather than learnt behaviour.

(e) *CHANGE-CENTERED LEADERSHIP*

Due to the rapid rate of change in the business environment, pressure on organizations - and more specifically the leadership of organizations - to deal and cope with change effectively has increased tremendously over the last couple of years. As a result of this continual change experienced in the business environment, individuals in leadership positions within organizations has to become more concerned with issues such as

organizational renewal, increased organizational efficiency, and other related interventions aimed at securing the continual growth and survival of the enterprise. Due to this phenomena, there has been a shift in the focus of leadership research during the late 1970's. Leadership research started to highlight the importance of leadership behaviours within an organization that experienced and operated in an environment characterised by continual change and development (Skogstad and Einarsen, 1998).

As eluded to in the previous sections on leadership, a distinction can be drawn between transactional and transformational leadership. Whereas the first leadership approach implies directing subordinates to perform predefined tasks and to resolve problems together with other group members, the latter approach emphasizes the setting of new goals, and applying innovative ways for accomplishing them.

However, as a result of changing conditions and demands in the business environment, and the importance of adapting the organization to this changing environment, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994) suggested a new dimension of leader behaviour, which they coined "Change-centred leadership". Change-centred leadership – as a leadership dimension – seemed to have emerged in the 1980's and was mainly the result of Ekvall's (1991) questioning of the possibility of the existence of an additional leadership dimension. This new development was inspired by the empirical results obtained by the Scandinavian researchers and was regarded as an addition to the existing leadership dimensions of "initiating structure" (i.e. production centred) and "consideration" (i.e. employee centred) (Ekvall, Arvonen & Nylstrom, 1987; Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall &

Arvonen, 1991, 1994; Lindell & Rosenqvist, 1992; Skogstad & Einarson, 1999).

This was mainly due to the fact that researchers were of the opinion that the Ohio State and other similar studies failed to consider the relevance of change in modern day society (Robbins, 2001). In this regard, Ekvall (1991, p. 22) stated the following: "Technically speaking, there is no reason why this change orientation should not have been revealed in the Ohio research. The behaviour descriptive questionnaire used by the Ohio group included seven questions about the managers' behaviour in relation to change. However, the question did not generate a separate factor on its own. Instead they were divided between the other two dimensions".

One explanation cited for this development is the reality of an increased rate of change. During the Ohio research, the necessity for change was not that rife and organizations operated in a relatively stable business environment. The production philosophy on which companies based their operations presupposed rational control, efficiency and the absence of change (Ekvall and Arvonen, 1991). However, the rate of change has increased rapidly and is much higher now than what it was in the 1940's and 1950's, when the major research programmes produced the classical leadership dimensions, i.e. people orientation and task orientation. Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) argued that competition in the business environment is much greater than what it was like in the past. The implication of all these pressures has been that the pressure on companies to cope with change has increased dramatically during the past couple of years. As a result, business management has become more concerned with renewal and change than ever before and less concerned with established and

stable efficiency (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991). Increasingly leaders and/or managers must deal with continual rapid change. Management techniques must continually notice changes in the environment and organization, assess this change and manage it (Ferguson, 1993). Obviously, this would require a new type of leadership behaviour that is alert to change and open to new ideas (Ekvall, 1991).

According to Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994), a change-centred leader encourages discussions about future possibilities, promotes new ideas for change and growth, and stimulates new projects, products and ways of doing things. More specifically, change-centred leadership describes a leader who initiates new projects, offers new ideas and ways of doing things, has a creative attitude and likes to discuss new ideas, is willing to take risks in decisions, and offers ideas and plans about the future.

2.2.4. Research status: Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

According to Luthans (2000), not much theory development or research has been done on Emotional Intelligence in the workplace. This view was supported by Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) who stated that research demonstrating the impact of Emotional Intelligence on the success and performance of individuals in an organizational context remained uncommon. Although Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) are of the view that Emotional Intelligence - as a construct - is based on extensive scientific and research evidence by Salovey and Mayer (1990), Cooper (1997), Cooper and Sawaf (1997) and others, they also comment that very little research has been done with regard to the application of emotional Intelligence in an organizational context. They further contend that in

such cases where Emotional Intelligence was applied in an organizational context, it was mainly based on derivative arguments, case descriptions and - in some cases - rhetoric.

Rozell, et al. (2001) concur by stating that questions relating to the pertinence of Emotional Intelligence in a business setting remain unanswered, despite claims in the literature of a relationship between emotions and workplace behaviour.

As regards the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership, Palmer, et al. (2001) postulate that the extent to which emotional intelligence accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. According to them little research has been published that explicitly examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership, despite much interest in this relationship. They further state that popular claims regarding the extent to which Emotional Intelligence accounts for effective leadership skills are very often misleading. Despite such misleading claims, popular literature has sought to highlight the utility a priori, of this potential relationship, and drawn important theoretical links between Emotional Intelligence and leadership performance (Palmer, et al., 2001). Along a similar line of argument, Ashkanasy and Daus (2002, p. 9) contend that "the connection between emotional intelligence and leadership is intuitive".

Palmer, et al. (2001) state that speculations - aimed at examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership - applied the transactional/transformational leadership model of Bass and Avolio (1994) and Bass (1985). This research also applied the "ability"

model of Emotional Intelligence of Mayer and Salovey. According to Palmer, et al. (2001), this provided an intuitive basis for which to examine the relationship between EI and effective leadership. It was predicted that there would be a stronger relationship between EI and transformational leadership than between EI and transactional leadership. However, insufficient evidence to support this hypothesis was found. Only significant relationships between selected components of transformational leadership and the Emotional Intelligence sub-scales were found (Palmer, et al., 2001).

Despite limited research, Lourens (2001) state that the construct of Emotional Intelligence and its applications are gaining in popularity in the Organization Behaviour field. The increasing importance of Emotional Intelligence was also identified by Downing (1997). He ascribed this growth in interest in Emotional Intelligence to the increasing volatility and change, experienced in the environment in which organizations found itself. He pointed out that organizational change is often associated with emotional or interpretative conflict. Tucker, et al. (2000) also identified that current changes in the work environment suggest that Emotional Intelligence might be of increasing importance to managers in the new millennium.

In decades past, workers were told to leave their emotions at home and most of them complied. This is not the situation anymore. According to Johnson and Indvik (1999) a person with high emotional intelligence has the ability to understand and relate to people. In fact, McGarvey (1997) found that individuals with the highest emotional intelligence excel at four interrelated skills, i.e. the ability to persist and stay motivated in the face

of frustration, the ability to control impulses, the ability to control their emotions and the ability to empathize with others. According to Johnson and Indvik (1999), this skill can now be considered to have a greater impact on individual and group performance than traditional measures of intelligence, such as IQ. These authors found that when emotional intelligence is present, there is increased employee cooperation, increased motivation, increased productivity and increased profits.

Blackman (2001, p. 626) also noted the relevance of emotional intelligence "when one considers that where individuals become more emotionally intelligent, they can build an emotionally intelligent organization with everyone taking the responsibility for their own emotional development". He referred to the phenomena of flatter, empowered organizational structures as being instrumental in creating a growing need for individuals to manage their relationships more effectively.

Hogan, et al. (1994) state that research on emergent leadership identifies the factors associated with someone being perceived as leader-like when there is only limited information about that person's actual performance. In this regard, various studies (i.e. Ellis, 1988; Rueb & Foti, 1990; Zaccaro, Foti & Kenny, 1991) have shown that the ability to control one's expressive behaviours (i.e. self-monitoring) is positively related to leadership emergence. The aspect of controlling one's expressive behaviour is also contained in Snyder's (1974) self-monitoring scale, consisting of three dimensions – concern for social appropriateness, sensitivity to social cues, and the ability to control one's behaviour according to social cues.

According to Cacioppe (1997), the research on emotional intelligence combined with managers' and professionals' perceptions of leaders suggests that successful leaders show an ability to be aware and manage their own emotions while being responsive to other people's feelings. He postulates that they have an ability not to react or get caught up in their own or other people's negative emotions such as anger, impatience, negative judgements and anxiety.

The successful leader – according to Cacioppe (1997) - has an ability to be in the present and see the situation free from preconceived ideas. In his research, Goleman (1998b) found that effective leaders, both in the business world and elsewhere, share one common characteristic: they all have a high level of emotional intelligence. According to him, leaders who are capable of regulating their emotions are more likely to be adaptive and able to create an environment of trust and fairness. Goleman (1998b) further states that emotionally intelligent leaders are self-motivated, have a passion to seek challenges, love to learn, take pride in a job well done, and have the energy to do things better.

In a more academic analysis, Abraham (1999) indicates that emotional intelligence has been found to be directly related to work-group cohesion by creating harmonious relationships and creating and sustaining informal networks among workers. According to him, Emotional intelligence can also improve performance feedback. In particular, the dimension of empathy permits emotionally intelligent leaders to place themselves in the position of the subordinate, understand the distress they are undergoing, experience those feelings themselves and modify their

communication strategy. Finally, emotional intelligence has also been found to be associated with organizational commitment of employees. More specifically, Abraham (1999) notes that 15 percent of the variance in the organizational commitment of followers can be explained by leaders' emotional intelligence.

According to Vermeulen (1999) Emotional Intelligence is about how people manage their energy and power. He contends that leaders or followers with a high EQ are more likely to master life's ups and downs than those with a high IQ, but few life skills. Others (Steiner, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Farnham, 1996) also point to the impact of IQ and emotional intelligence, in combination, on determining successful performance outcomes. Goleman (1998) regards emotional intelligence as entry-level requirements for executive (leadership) positions, and – as he states – the “sine qua non of leadership”.

According to Dulewicz and Higgs (1998), the core of Goleman's findings (1995, 1998a, 1998b) is that emotional intelligence makes a difference in terms of individual and organizational success. In practice this implies that if managers and employees develop their emotional intelligence, both parties will benefit. This view is supported by Langley (2000). He concurs that managers will have a workforce willing to engage with passion, and employees will have managers who are receptive and open to their needs.

When it comes to improving organizational effectiveness, various researchers (Hesselbein, et al., 1996; Morris & Feldman, 1996; Cooper, 1997; Harrison, 1997;) have emphasized the importance of a manager's

or leader's emotional intelligence. Emotional Intelligence – as previously stated and defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) - represents a set of dispositional attributes (i.e. self-awareness, emotional management self-motivation, empathy, and relationship management) for monitoring one's own and others' feelings, beliefs, and internal states in order to provide useful information to guide one's and others' thinking and action.

The concept of Primal Leadership was developed by Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee (2002) and refers to a new leadership model. In their work it is argued that the fundamental task of leaders is to foster good feelings in those they lead. They contend that the success of leaders depends on how they do things. According to them "that occurs when a leader creates resonance – a reservoir of positivism that frees the best in people."

Several reviews (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1997) and meta-analyses (Gaspar, 1992; Patterson, Fuller, Kester, & Springer, 1995; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996) have identified transformational leadership as a particularly powerful source of effective leadership in a variety of organizational contexts. As regards the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership, researchers (Bennis, 1989; Megerian & Sosik, 1996) have argued that one aspect of EQ, self-awareness, is integral to transformational leadership effectiveness. Studies conducted by Atwater and Yammarino (1992; 1997) support the notion that managers who are highly self-aware compare their leadership behaviours against the information they receive from other (e.g. followers) about their behaviours. Research conducted by Cooper (1997) suggests that aspects of Emotional intelligence may underlie a manager's exhibition of

transformational leadership which involves a strong emotional relationship between the leader and follower.

Various authors/researchers are of the view that research, examining the utility of emotional intelligence in predicting effective leadership, is gaining momentum in Industrial Psychology (Miller, 1999; Sosick & Megerian, 1999; Barling, Slater, Kelloway, 2000; George, 2000; Watkin, 2000; Palmer, et al., 2001:). In this regard, Abraham (2000) found emotionally intelligent leaders to be happier and more committed to their organization. According to Goleman (2000) emotionally intelligent leaders can be regarded as better performers in the workplace, whilst Miller (1999) perceives emotionally intelligent leaders as leaders that achieve greater success in the workplace. Furthermore, emotionally intelligent leaders take advantage of and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning, use emotions to improve their decision making and instil a sense of enthusiasm, trust and cooperation in other employees through interpersonal relationships (George, 2000).

However, Gardner and Stough (2001) contend that these links were all theoretical or speculative links. The complementary transformational/transactional leadership model of Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1990, 1994) has generally provided the framework for the limited examination of these relationships. Asforth and Humphrey (1995) noted that transformational leadership appears to be dependent upon the evocation, framing and mobilisation of emotions, whereas transactional leadership appears to be more dependent upon subordinates' cognitions, and tends to follow a rational model of motivation (i.e. motivate employees to achieve basic goals with the reward of pay and security).

Barling, et al. (2000) noted that those with high emotional intelligence would be more likely to display the behaviours of transformational leadership. They have proposed that emotional intelligence characteristics such as managing one's emotions, displaying self-control, understanding others emotions, and exhibiting empathy are all closely related with idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration – all distinct features of transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1988). In their research, Barling, et al. (2000) were able to demonstrate a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and all three aspects of transformational leadership.

George (2000) states that previous studies of leadership have examined what leaders are like, what they do and how they make their decisions. However, the majority of research has yet to identify the effect of leaders' emotions on their work and subordinates, and in general the role emotions play in leadership. She suggests that emotional intelligence plays an important role in leadership effectiveness and proposes that the ability to understand and manage moods and emotions in oneself and in others theoretically contributes to the effectiveness of leaders.

It is thus clear from the literature that, although there is growing interest in Emotional Intelligence, the extent to which it accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. According to Gardner and Stough (2001), there has been relatively little empirical research examining the relationship between emotional intelligence in the workplace and effective leadership. Lourens (2001) also concluded that there is almost a complete lack of knowledge on the relationships between leadership

behaviour and Emotional Intelligence. In view of this shortcoming identified in the literature, this study is aimed at investigating the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their behaviour.

2.3. ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

2.3.1. Introduction

It is commonly accepted in the management literature that organizations need employees who are willing to exceed their formal job requirements. This is evident from the growing body of research results and management literature in this regard during the past decade (Morrison, 1994; Cohen & Vigoda, 2000). Organizations that compete in fast-paced, dynamic environments must rely on employee initiative in order to perform effectively. Nearly two decades ago, Katz (according to Smith, Organ & Near, 1983) identified three basic types of behaviour essential for any organization in order to be successful. These behaviours are: (a) people must be induced to enter and remain with the organization; (b) they must carry out specific role requirements in a dependable fashion; and (c) there must be innovative and spontaneous activity that goes beyond the formal prescribed roles to perform such actions as cooperating with and protecting other organization members, undertaking self-development, and representing the organization favourably to outsiders (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Since this observation, there has been a growing realisation of the importance of the last category of behaviour for organizations; i.e. work behaviour that is in some way beyond the reach of traditional measures of

job performance, but which holds a promise for long term organizational success (e.g. McNeely & Meglino, 1994; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996). George and Brief (1992) view such behaviour on the part of an employee as more spontaneous and/or discretionary than those prescribed by formal organizational roles or job descriptions. Organ (1988) referred to these as organizational citizenship behaviours, or OCB's. He viewed such behavior as individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization.

However, the rapid growth of research on organizational citizenship behaviours has resulted in some conceptual confusion about the nature of the construct. It would therefore be necessary to critically examine the literature on organizational citizenship behaviour in order to gain a thorough understanding of the construct and other related constructs.

2.3.2. The importance of extra-role behaviour

For many years researchers recognized the importance of positive discretionary behaviours which go beyond the delineated role expectations and also benefit the organization (e.g. Dozier & Miceli, 1985; Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the 1930's Chester Barnard observed the phenomena of organizational citizenship behaviour, which he then termed "extra role behaviours" (Organ, 1988). He also referred to the concept of "willingness to cooperate". Barnard's notion that employees demonstrated OCB is the earliest example identified in this review. Katz

and Kahn (in Ortiz, 1999) referred to this type of behaviour as any “gestures that lubricate the social machinery of the organization and do not directly adhere to the usual notion of task performance” (p. 5). The extra-role behaviours identified included helping other workers with work-related problems, accepting others into the work group without a fuss, either putting up with or minimizing interpersonal conflict in the organization, and protecting and conserving organizational resources. Katz and Kahn also used the term “citizenship” to represent the workers as “organizational citizens”, displaying these extra-role behaviours.

From the existing literature it appears as though the concept, extra-role behaviour, has not been well defined, despite the fact that this type of behaviour in organizations has been the focus of much research effort (e.g. Organ, 1988; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Podsakoff, et al., 1990; Staw & Boettger, 1990; Van Dyne, et al., 1994). In order to gain a clear understanding of the concept “extra-role behaviours”, it will also be important to differentiate between “in-role” and “extra-role” behaviours at work.

According to Ortiz (1999), in-role behaviour refers to behaviour that is acceptable to management. Extra-role behaviour on the other hand, is referred to as “innovative and spontaneous behaviour”. According to Organ and Bateman (1983) extra-role behaviours include in-role behaviour and extra-role gestures that enhance or improve organizational effectiveness, informal acts of cooperation, goodwill, and helpfulness. In a further effort to clarify extra-role behaviour as a construct, Van Dyne, et al. (1995) described extra-role behaviour as behaviour that benefits the organization and/or is intended to benefit the organization. This

behaviour is discretionary in nature and normally goes beyond the existing role expectations. In essence, extra-role behaviour as conceived by Van Dyne, et al. (1995) implies that:

- The behaviour of the individual must be voluntary. It is therefore not part of the formal job duties of an individual, and is not formally rewarded. Furthermore, failure to engage in this behaviour cannot be formally penalized.
- The employee's actions must be intentional. This implies that the individual must make an active decision to engage in the behaviour.
- The behaviour of the individual must be positive, in other words, it must either be intended positively by the individual himself/herself or it must be perceived positively by somebody else, and
- The employee must engage in the behaviour primarily to benefit someone or something other than him/herself.

2.3.3. Conceptualising the construct: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Researchers have proposed a number of different conceptualisations of OCB and other related constructs (e.g. Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Organ, 1988; Graham, 1991; Williams & Anderson, 1991; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Van Dyne, et al., 1994; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996; George & Jones, 1997; Moorman, Blakely, Niehoff, 1998). Organizational Citizenship Behaviour – identified as one form of extra role behaviour (Van Dyne, et al., 1995), was defined by Organ (1988, p.4) as “individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the

formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization”.

An analysis of Organ’s definition reveals two very important components: (1) the behaviour is not part of the employee’s job responsibilities and is not rewarded explicitly, and (2) the behaviour is usually not obvious or very visible, but does benefit the organization. Based on prior research (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, et al., 1983; Graham, 1986), Organ (1988) identified five dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. They are:

- **Altruism** – This refers to acts which help a specific person;
- **Conscientiousness** – Attendance, cleanliness, and punctuality that go beyond minimum required levels;
- **Sportsmanship** – Characterized by maintaining a positive attitude;
- **Courtesy** – Includes keeping the immediate and other relevant superiors and co-workers informed; and
- **Civic Virtue** – Refers to the responsible participation in the political life of the organization such as attending meetings, and reading company mail.

Graham (1986) used the geo-political theory to develop a theoretical foundation for Organization Citizenship Behaviour. She proposed that the definition and dimensions of Organizational Citizenship be based on Inkeles’ (1969) three categories of geo-political citizenship: Obedience, Loyalty, and Participation. She also contends that Organizational Citizenship Behaviour should be regarded as an over-performance by the employee as a result of a positive relationship with others in the

organization. Van Dyne, et al. (1994) extended Graham's work on OCB and identified five dimensions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour: Loyalty (i.e. allegiance to and promotion of the organization), Obedience (i.e. respect for rules and policies), Advocacy Participation (i.e. innovation and proactively synergizing others), Functional Participation (i.e. work oriented effort and self development), and Social Participation (i.e. engaging in meetings and group activities).

In a review of the existing literature on OCB, Podsakoff (et al., 2000) found that the proliferation of research on OCB's and other forms of extra-role behaviour has resulted in a lack of recognition of some of the similarities and differences in some of these constructs. It has further revealed a lack of consensus about the dimensionality of the construct (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). Hence, there seems to be little consensus on a definition of organizational citizenship behaviour.

2.3.4. Types of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Despite this, Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) observe that commonalities of OCB include behaviours that are extra-role, entirely voluntary, constructive, not formally assigned, non-compensated, but desired by the organization. These behaviours contribute to effective functioning of the organization, and consequently, its competitiveness (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Organ, 1990a). Almost 30 potentially different forms of citizenship behaviour have been identified resulting in a great deal of conceptual overlap between the various constructs (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

In a review of the OCB literature, Podsakoff, et al. (2000) developed a new conceptualisation of OCB that integrates the models presented in previous research. This framework consists of seven dimensions, being: (1) Helping behaviour, (2) Sportsmanship, (3) Organizational Loyalty, (4) Organizational Compliance, (5) Individual Initiative, (6) Civic Virtue, and (7) Self Development (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

With reference to this framework, a short discussion of each of the 7 themes follows:

- **Helping behaviour:** Helping behaviour has been identified as an important form of citizenship behaviour by virtually everyone who has worked in this area (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, 1997; George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997; Organ, 1990a, 1990b; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Conceptually, helping behaviour involves voluntarily helping others with, or preventing the occurrence of, work related problems. The first part, according to Podsakoff, et al. (2000) refers to Organ's altruism, peacemaking, and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1988, 1990b), interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989), OCB-I (Williams & Anderson, 1991), interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996) and helping other constructs (George & Jones, 1997).

The second part of the definition refers to Organ's (1988, 1990b) notion of courtesy, which involves helping others by taking steps to prevent the creation of problems for co-workers. Empirical research has generally confirmed the fact that all of these various forms of helping behavior load on a single factor (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

- **Sportsmanship:** Organ (1990b, p.96) defined sportsmanship as “a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining.” However, Podsakoff, et al. (2000) referred to sportsmanship as behaviour displayed by those people who not only not complain when they are inconvenienced by others, but who also maintain a positive attitude even when things do not go their way; people who are not offended when others do not follow their suggestions, and who are willing to sacrifice their personal interest for the good of the work group. Such people will also not take the rejection of their ideas personally.

- **Organization loyalty:** Organizational loyalty refers to behavior directed at boosting loyalty towards the organization (Graham, 1989, 1991), spreading goodwill and protecting the organization (George & Brief, 1992), and the endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives. Organization loyalty implies that an employee (i.e. “the organizational citizen”) would promote the organization to outsiders, protect and defend the interests of the organization and will remain committed to the organization, even under adverse conditions (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

- **Organization compliance:** Podsakoff, et al. (2000, p. 6) refer to this dimension as “a person’s internalisation and acceptance of the organization’s rules, regulations, and procedures, which results in a scrupulous adherence to them, even when no one observes or monitors compliance”. Other researchers referred to this dimension as “generalized compliance” (Smith, et al., 1983), organizational obedience (Graham, 1991); OCB-O Williams and Anderson (1991);

and following organizational rules and procedures (Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1993).

- **Individual initiative:** Podsakoff, et al. (2000) refers to this form of OCB as extra-role behaviour in the sense that it involves engaging in task-related behaviours at a level that is so far beyond minimally required or generally expected levels that it takes on a voluntary flavour. This type of behaviour includes voluntary acts of creativity and innovation designed to improve one's task or the organization's performance, persisting with extra enthusiasm, and effort to accomplish one's job, volunteering to take on extra responsibilities, and encouraging others in the organization to do the same (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). This type of OCB implies that the individual employee is prepared to go above and beyond his/her normal call of duty. Organ (1988) refers to this dimension as "conscientiousness". Borman and Motowidlo (1997) refers to this dimension as "persisting with enthusiasm and volunteering to carry out task activities", whilst Van Scotter and Motowidlo ((1996) construes it as "job dedication". George and Brief (1992) refers to this dimension as "making constructive suggestions" and Morrison & Phelps (1999) as "taking charge at work".
- **Civic virtue:** This dimension, according to Podsakoff, et al. (2000) refers to an individual's commitment to an organization as a whole. This type of OCB is normally demonstrated by a willingness to participate actively in an organization's governance (e.g. attending meetings, engaging in policy debates, expressing one's opinion about what strategy the organization ought to follow, etc.). It is further

demonstrated by monitoring the organization's environment for threats and opportunities (e.g. keeping up with changes in the industry that might affect the organization; and looking out for its best interests (e.g. reporting fire hazards or suspicious activities, locking doors, etc.) even at great personal cost. Demonstrating this type of behaviour reflects a person's recognition of being part of a larger whole in the same way that citizens are members of a country and accept the responsibilities which that entails. Organ (1988, 1990b) referred to this dimension as civic virtue, whilst Graham (1989) referred to it as organizational participation. George and Brief (1992) referred to it again as "protecting the organization".

- **Self-development:** Both Katz (1964) as well as George and Brief (1992) regarded developing oneself as a key dimension of citizenship behaviour. Self-development – according to Podsakoff, et al. (2000) – refers to voluntary behaviours of employees to improve their knowledge, skills and abilities. According to George and Brief (1992, p.155) this might include "seeking out and taking advantage of advanced training courses, keeping abreast of the latest developments in one's field and area, or even learning a new set of skills so as to expand the range of one's contributions to an organization." Although "self-development" dimension has not received any empirical confirmation in the citizenship behavior literature, it does appear to be a discretionary form of employee behaviour that is conceptually distinct from the other citizenship behaviour dimensions. It might be expected to improve organizational effectiveness through somewhat different mechanisms than the other forms of citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

2.3.5. Antecedents of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, or extra-role behaviour, has received a great deal of attention from organizational behaviour researchers in the last two decades. It was in the early 1980's that several empirical studies first addressed the notion of OCB (Alotaibi, 2001). However, because investigations into this topic are still at an early stage, relatively little is known about the antecedents of, or key influences on Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Job satisfaction and affective commitment have sometimes been considered antecedents to pro-social, extra-role behaviour in organizations, but this is not always the case, according to Van Dyne, et al. (1995). Organ and Rayan (1995) found in their meta-analytic review of 55 studies, that satisfaction, fairness and organizational commitment were the only correlates of OCB in a considerable number of cases. Podsakoff, et al. (2000) contends that empirical research has focused on four major categories of OCB antecedents: individual characteristics, task characteristics, organizational characteristics and leadership behaviours. He (Podsakoff, et al., 2000) reports on the meta-analytic results on relationships between OCB's and their antecedents.

However, the earliest research in this area (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Organ, 1988; Smith, et al., 1983) concentrated primarily on employee attitudes, dispositions, and leader supportiveness. Subsequent research in the leadership area (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996) expanded the domain of leadership behaviours to include various forms of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours.

According to Podsakoff, et al. (2000) early research efforts on employee characteristics focused on two main causes of organizational citizenship behaviours. The first of these refers to a general affective "morale" factor. In this regard, Organ and Rayan (1995) referred to this affective "morale" factor as an underlying aspect to employee satisfaction, organizational commitment, perceptions of fairness, and perceptions of leader supportiveness. According to Organ and Rayan (1995), these variables have been the most frequently investigated antecedents of OCB. Variables comprising employee "morale" do appear to be important determinants of citizenship behaviour, according to Podsakoff, et al. (2000).

Due to the importance of OCB for organizational efficiency, prior research has examined various factors associated with sub-ordinate OCB. For instance, OCB has been linked with job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, et al., 1983), workplace justice (Moorman, Niehoff & Organ, 1993), trust in and loyalty to the leader (Deluga, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990), and perceptions of supervisor fairness (Niehoff & Moorman, 1993; Organ & Konovsky, 1989). According to Organ, (1988) perceived supervisor fairness could be a primary factor behind OCB.

Organ and Konovsky (1989) state that subordinates who are treated fairly throughout an organization, will more likely feel the need for a reciprocal social exchange relationship with the organization, provided they are confident that such fair treatment will continue. They contend that if subordinates are treated unfairly, their perception of their relationship with the company will more likely be one of an economic exchange. In

such case, they will simply execute actions that guarantee compensation for themselves. Feelings of fair treatment will increase the chances that OCB will occur (Organ & Konovsky, 1989). Organ and Rayan (1995) also argued that various dispositional factors, such as agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affectivity and negative affectivity “predispose people to certain orientations vis-à-vis co-workers and managers”. They (Organ & Rayan, 1995) regarded these dispositional variables as indirect contributors of OCB's with the potential of increasing the likelihood of receiving treatment they would recognize as satisfying, supportive, fair and worthy of commitment.

Finally, leadership behaviours also play a key role in influencing organizational citizenship behaviour. In the meta-analysis conducted by Podsakoff, et al.(2000), the leader behaviour antecedents investigated were divided into different categories. These leadership behaviour categories were:

- Transformational leadership behaviours (i.e. articulating a vision, providing an appropriate model, fostering the acceptance of group goals, high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation);
- Transactional leadership behaviours (i.e. contingent reward behaviour, contingent punishment behaviour, non-contingent reward behaviour, non-contingent punishment behaviour);
- Behaviours associated with the Path-goal theory of leadership (i.e. role clarification behaviour, specification of procedures, or supportive leader behaviour), and;
- Leader-member exchange theory of leadership.

Almost all of the leader behaviour-OCB relationships were found to be significant. Leader supportiveness was found to be strongly related to organizational citizenship behaviour. It was also established that transformational leadership had strong positive relationships with certain OCB factors (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). This is to be expected, since the essence of transformational leadership is the ability to get employees to perform above and beyond expectation (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

2.3.6. Consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Podsakoff, et al. (2000) contend that the majority of earlier research efforts focused on the antecedents of citizenship behaviour. More recent research, however, has devoted an increasing amount of attention to the consequences of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. Two key issues have become the focal point for research in recent years: (a) the effects of organizational citizenship behaviours on performance evaluations, judgements and decisions made by managers in regard to pay increases, promotions, etc., and (b) the effects of organizational behaviours on the overall performance and success of organizations. Empirical evidence suggests that OCB's do influence managers' evaluations of performance and other related decisions (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

A key question however is: "What are the effects of organizational citizenship behaviours on organizational performance and success?"

When analysing Organ's definition of organizational citizenship behaviour, it is clear that OCB – when taken over time – does impact positively on

organizational performance and effectiveness. This notion was accepted for many years on the basis of its conceptual plausibility, rather than direct empirical evidence (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 1994). Conceptually, there are several reasons why citizenship behaviours might influence organizational effectiveness (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Karambayya, 1990; Organ, 1988, 1990a, 1990b). These reasons are summarized in Table 4.

Table 2.4: Summary of Reasons - OCB's possible influence on organizational effectiveness

Potential reasons	Examples
OCB's may enhance co-worker productivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees who help another co-worker "learn the ropes" may help them to become more productive employees faster. • Over time, helping behaviour can help to spread "best practices" throughout the work unit or group.
OCB's may enhance managerial productivity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If employees engage in civic virtue, the manager may receive valuable suggestions and/or feedback on his or her ideas for improving unit effectiveness. • Courteous employees, who avoid creating problems for co-workers, allow the manager to avoid falling into a pattern of "crisis management".

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Potential reasons	Examples
<p>OCB's may free up resources for more productive purposes.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • If employees help each other with work-related problems, then the manager does not have to; consequently, the manager can spend more time on productive tasks, such as planning. • Employees who exhibit conscientiousness require less managerial supervision and permit the manager to delegate more responsibility to them, thus, freeing up more of the manager's time. • To the extent that experienced employees help in the training and orienting of new employees, it reduces the need to devote organizational resources to these activities. • If employees exhibit sportsmanship, it frees the manager from having to spend too much of his/her time dealing with petty complaints.
<p>OCB's may reduce the need to devote scarce resources to purely maintenance functions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A natural by-product of helping behaviour is that it enhances team spirit, morale, and cohesiveness, thus reducing the need for group members (or managers) to spend energy and time on group maintenance functions. • Employees who exhibit courtesy toward others reduce inter-group conflict, thereby diminishing the time spent on conflict management activities.

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Potential reasons	Examples
<p>OCB's may serve as an effective means of co-ordinating activities between team members and across work groups.</p> <p>OCB's may enhance the organization's ability to attract and retain the best people by making it a more attractive place to work.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exhibiting civic virtue by voluntarily attending and actively participating in work unit meetings would help the co-ordination of effort among team members, thus potentially increasing the group's effectiveness and efficiency. • Exhibiting courtesy by "touching base" with other team members, or members of other functional groups in the organization, reduces the likelihood of the occurrence of problems that would otherwise take time and effort to resolve. • Helping behaviours may enhance morale, group cohesiveness, and the sense of belonging to a team, all of which may enhance performance and help the organization to attract and retain better employees. • Demonstrating sportsmanship by being willing to "roll with the punches" and not complaining about trivial matters sets an example for others and thereby develops a sense of loyalty and commitment to the organization that may enhance employee retention.
<p>OCB's may enhance the stability of organizational performance.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Picking up the slack for others who are absent, or who have heavy workloads, can help to enhance the stability (reduce the variability) of the work unit's performance. • Conscientious employees are more likely to maintain a consistently high level of output, thus reducing variability in a work unit's performance.

Table 2.4 (Continued)

Potential reasons	Examples
OCB's may enhance an organization's ability to adapt to environmental changes.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees who are in close contact with the market place volunteer information about changes in the environment and make suggestions about how to respond to them, which helps an organization to adapt. • Employees who attend and actively participate in meetings may aid the dissemination of information in an organization, thus enhancing its responsiveness. • Employees who exhibit sportsmanship, by demonstrating a willingness to take on new responsibilities or learn new skills, enhance the organization's ability to adapt to changes in its environment.

Adopted from Podsakoff & MacKenzie (1997).

Despite the conceptual plausibility of the assumption that OCB's contribute to the effectiveness of work teams and organizations, little empirical research was done in this regard. In this regard, Podsakoff, et al. (2000, p. 18) state the following: "...although 160 studies have been reported in the literature to identify the antecedents of OCB's, only five studies have attempted to test whether these behaviours influence organizational effectiveness". However, the available empirical research clearly supports Organ's fundamental assumption (Organ, 1988) that organizational citizenship behaviour is related to performance, although the evidence is stronger for some forms of citizenship behaviour (i.e. helping) than for others (i.e. sportsmanship and civic virtue) (Podsakoff, et al., 2000).

2.4. HANDLING OF INTERPERSONAL CONFLICT

Conflict, like power, is one of those fascinating, but frequently abused and misunderstood subjects. Until recently, social scientists have been most aware of conflict's destructive capability. This awareness seems to have given conflict an overwhelming connotation of danger and to have created a bias toward harmony and peacemaking in the social sciences. However, a more balanced view of conflict seems to be emerging. More and more, there is the realisation that conflict itself is no evil, but rather a phenomenon that can have constructive or destructive effects depending upon its management.

2.4.1. Defining Organizational Conflict

There has been no shortage of definitions of conflict (Robbins, 2001). Despite the divergent meanings the term has acquired, several common themes underlie most definitions. Conflict must be perceived by the parties to it; whether or not conflict exists is a perception issue. If no one is aware of a conflict, then it is generally agreed that no conflict exists. Additional commonalities in the definitions are opposition or incompatibility and some form of interaction. These factors set the conditions that determine the beginning point of the conflict process (Wall & Callister, 1995).

According to Thomas (Dunnette & Hough, 1992), conflict can be defined as a process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party cares about. Rahim (1986, p. 13) defines conflict as "an

interactive state manifested in incompatibility, disagreement, or difference within or between social entities – individuals, groups, organizations or societies”. Conflict occurs when a person holds a behavioural preference the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person’s implementation of his or her preference. Another possible source of conflict is some mutually desirable resource that is in short supply, such that the wants of everyone may not be satisfied fully. Differences in attitudes, values, skills, and goals can also cause conflict. Some examples of conflict behaviours are interference, rivalry, verbal abuse, tension, frustration, and annoyance (Rahim, 1986).

Organizational conflict can be classified as intra-personal, interpersonal, intra-group, or inter-group. The literature on interpersonal conflict is concerned mainly with the styles of handling conflict rather than the intensity or amount of conflict. It then follows that organizational members can apply different styles in dealing with their conflicts with superiors, sub-ordinates and also with peers.

2.4.2. Importance of conflict handling

Conflict is a natural part of social processes, and it occurs in all organizations. In order to build and maintain cooperative working relationships within a working environment and/or between a leader and his/her followers, it is imperative that conflict should be managed and/or handled in some or other appropriate manner. Conflicts are caused by a variety of factors, and often more than one is present in a conflict situation. The causes include competition for resources, incompatible task

goals, status struggles, communication barriers, and incompatible personalities (Yukl, 1998).

Often such conflicts have negative consequences such as disruption of communication, reduced cooperation, and diversion of time and energy from accomplishing task objectives to “winning the conflict” (Yukl, 1998). Individuals in prolonged conflicts typically experience stress, frustration, anxiety, difficulty in concentrating on the work and lower job satisfaction.

As stated, conflict will always be a reality within social systems and processes. Conflict is often a reflection of resistance by one party to innovations recommended by the other party, but it may also be a source of motivation for both parties to seek innovative solutions that will resolve the conflict in a mutually satisfactory way.

2.4.3. Styles of Handling Inter-personal Conflict

A good deal of literature exists on the styles of handling inter-personal conflict (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Rahim & Bonoma, 1979; Rahim & Psenicka, 1984; Rahim, 1983, 1992; Psenicka & Rahim, 1989; Thomas, 1976, 1992). Follet (Rahim & Magner, 1995) identified three main ways of dealing with conflict – domination, compromise and integration. She also identified other secondary ways of dealing with conflict, i.e. avoidance and suppression.

According to Rahim, Buntzman & White (1999), Blake and Mouton were the first to present a conceptual scheme for classifying the styles of handling interpersonal conflicts into five types: forcing, withdrawing,

smoothing, compromising, and problem-solving. The conflict handling styles identified by Blake and Mouton (according to Rahim, et al., 1999) were classified along two dimensions related to the attitudes of the manager: concern for production and concern for people. Blake and Mouton's (1964) classification was reinterpreted and refined by Thomas (1976). He considered the intentions of a party (i.e. cooperativeness – “attempting to satisfy the other party's concerns” and assertiveness – “attempting to satisfy one's own concerns”) in classifying the modes of handling conflict into five types (Rahim, Buntzman & White, 1999).

Rahim & Bonoma (1979) also differentiated the styles of handling conflict on two basic dimensions: concern for self and concern for others. The first dimension explains the degree to which a person attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns. The second dimension explains the degree to which a person wants to satisfy the concerns of others. It should be pointed out that these dimensions reflect the motivational orientations of an individual during conflict (Rubin & Brown, 1975). A study by Ruble and Thomas (1976) yielded support for these dimensions. Further support for these dimensions was found in a study by Van de Vliert and Kabanoff (1990).

A combination of the two dimensions results in five specific styles of handling interpersonal conflict, such as integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising (Rahim & Bonoma, 1979). The styles of handling interpersonal conflict are described as follows (Rahim, et al., 1999):

(a) *Integrating:*

This style is characterized by collaboration between the parties, i.e. openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach a solution acceptable to both parties. It involves high concern for self as well as the other party involved in conflict.

(b) *Obliging:*

This style involves attempting to play down the differences and emphasizing commonalities to satisfy the concern of the other party. There is an element of self-sacrifice in this style. It may take the form of selfless generosity/ charity, or obedience to another person's order. An obliging person neglects his or her own concern to satisfy the concern of the other party. This style reflects low concern for self and high concern for the other party involved in conflict.

(c) *Dominating:*

This style is associated with a win-lose orientation or with forcing behaviour to win one's position. A dominating or competing person goes all out to win his or her objective, and, as a result, often ignores the needs and expectations of the other party. Dominating may mean standing up for one's rights and/or defending a position that the party believes to be correct. A dominating leader is likely to use a position of power to impose his or her will on followers and

command obedience. This style is characterized by high concern for self and low concern for other party involved in conflict.

(d) *Avoiding:*

This may take the form of postponing an issue until a better time or simply withdrawing from a threatening situation. An avoiding person fails to satisfy his or her own concern as well as the concern of the other party. This style is often characterized as an unconcerned attitude toward the issues or parties involved in conflict. Such a person may be unwilling to acknowledge in public that there is a conflict that should be addressed. Low concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict is a key feature of this style of handling interpersonal conflict. It has also been associated with withdrawal, passing-the-buck, and sidestepping tactics.

(e) *Compromising:*

This involves give-and-take, or sharing, whereby both parties give up something to make a mutually acceptable decision. It may mean splitting the difference, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground position. A compromising party gives up more than a dominating party, but less than an obliging party. Likewise, such a party addresses an issue more directly than would an avoiding party, but does not explore it in as much depth as would an integrating party. This style involves moderate concern for self as well as the other party involved in conflict.

According to Rahim, et al. (1999), various international studies have established the construct validity of these styles of handling interpersonal conflict in organizational and social contexts. Specific reference is made to studies by Ting-Toomey, Gao, Grubisky, Yang, Kim, Lin and Nishida (1991) and Rahim & Magner (1995).

Although Pruitt (1983) suggested and provided some empirical evidence from laboratory studies that there are four styles of handling conflict (i.e. yielding – ‘obliging’, problem-solving – ‘integrating’, inaction – ‘avoiding’, and contending – ‘dominating’, this study made use of the conceptualisation of the five styles of handling conflict by Rahim (1983) and Rahim and Bonoma (1979).

2.4.4. Research on the consequences of conflict handling behaviour.

Kim and Yukl (1995) state that there has been little research on the relationship between the conflict handling styles of leaders and the impact thereof on their followers’ satisfaction and performance. The few studies that have measured conflict management and team building behaviours found little evidence of a relationship to indicators of leadership effectiveness (Wilson, O’Hare, & Shipper, 1990; Yukl, Wall, & Lepsinger, 1990).

2.5. INTENTION TO QUIT

Studies of employee turnover from work organizations abound in the literature on organizational behaviour (e.g. Mobley, 1982; Campion, 1991; Hom & Griffeth, 1995). According to Mitra, Jenkins and Gupta (1992)

turnover is one of the most popular outcomes examined in organizational research, because it is related to an organization's bottom line in a competitive market. In this regard, Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole and Owen (2002) contend that organizations generally tend to prefer to have a stable work force. According to them it will therefore be of paramount importance to determine the variables that are involved in the intention to leave or remain with an organization.

Over the last 20 years, a considerable amount of research has been devoted to developing predictive models of voluntary turnover (Tett & Meyer 1993). Job satisfaction and intention to quit have then also been identified as some of the most commonly proposed antecedents. Elangovan (2001) also identified intention to quit as probably the most important decision in the turnover decision. This view was also further supported by other researchers (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981; Michaels & Spector, 1982; Lee & Mowday, 1987) who also found that turnover intention was the strongest cognitive precursor of turnover.

Intention to quit has been defined as the strength of an individual's conviction to stay with or leave the organization in which he/she is currently employed (Elangovan, 2001). It is usually seen as a dependent variable and used as an indication of the probability that an employee will leave the organization in the foreseeable future (Boshoff, Van Wyk, Hoole, & Owen, 2002). Tett and Meyer (1993, p. 262) conceived turnover intention "to be a conscious and deliberate wilfulness to leave the organization". It is often measured with reference to a specific interval (e.g. within the next 6 months) and has been described as the last in a sequence of withdrawal cognitions, a set to which thinking of quitting and

intent to search for alternative employment also belong (Mobley, Horner & Hollingsworth, 1978).

In view of the afore-said, determining the antecedents that lead to an individual's intention to leave or stay (i.e. intention to quit/leave) with an organization is therefore seen as important. Mobley (1977) and Steers and Mowday (1981) at an early stage of the interest in the topic developed models of how an employee takes the decision to leave his/her current employing organization. These models all illustrate the cognitive and affective events preceding resignation decisions (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). The model of employee turnover as developed by Mobley (1977) suggests several possible intermediate steps in the withdrawal decision process and specifically, the decision to quit a job. Porter and Steers (1973) suggested that expressed "intention to leave" might represent the next logical step after experienced dissatisfaction in the withdrawal process.

However, the withdrawal decision process presented in the model of Mobley (1977) suggests that thinking of quitting is the next logical step after experienced dissatisfaction and that "intention to leave" following several other steps, may be the last step prior to actual quitting. According to Mobley's model of the employee turnover decision process, intention to quit or stay with an organization is based on an individual's evaluation and comparison of his/her present job to alternatives that may exist (Mobley, 1977). This process will only take place once the individual has evaluated his/her existing job followed by a resultant emotional state of some degree of satisfaction-dissatisfaction experienced by the individual him/herself. If the comparison favours the alternative, it will

stimulate a behavioural intention to quit. The final outcome of this process of evaluating and comparing alternatives and the existing job can be a decision to leave the organization (Mobley, 1977).

A large number of studies on the antecedents of intention to quit followed during the 1980's (Boshoff, et al., 2002) and the 1990's (Dalton, Johnson, and Daily, 1999).

2.6. RESEARCH STATUS: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR, CONFLICT HANDLING AND INTENTION TO QUIT OF FOLLOWERS AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organizational citizenship behaviour has been defined variously within the literature according to Lee and Allen (2002). Central to all definitions, however, is the idea that OCB's are employee behaviours that, although not critical to the task or job, serve to facilitate organizational functioning. Examples of OCB include helping co-workers, attending functions that are not required, and so on (Lee & Allen, 2002). It is not surprising that understanding why employees engage in OCB is of considerable interest. Several researchers have demonstrated that OCB is related to job satisfaction (Organ, 1988, 1990a). According to him, two different theoretical explanations for this relationship have been forwarded. One explanation, provided by Organ (1990a), emphasizes the role of cognitions (Organ & Konovsky, 1989; Farth, Padsakoff & Organ, 1990; Moorman, 1990), and, in particular, perceptions of fairness. Employees who feel fairly treated are likely to engage in OCB to maintain equilibrium between them and the organization; those who feel that they are treated unfairly

will withhold OCB behaviour (Lee & Allen, 2002). According to them, this perspective views OCB as controlled and deliberate behaviour that is primarily influenced by cognitive, rather than affective factors.

A second explanation of the relation between OCB and job satisfaction suggests the primacy of affective over cognitive factors in influencing OCB. George and Brief (1992) also suggested that a positive mood can lead to extra-role behaviours as protecting the organization, making constructive suggestions, developing oneself, and spreading goodwill. In the study conducted by Lee and Allen (2002) job affect was associated more strongly than were job cognitions with OCB directed at individuals, whereas job cognitions correlated more strongly than did job affect with OCB directed at the organization.

Netemeyer and Boles (1997) investigated the antecedents of organizational citizenship behaviours in a personal selling context. Perceived job satisfaction was proposed as a direct predictor of OCB's and perceived level of person-organization fit, leadership support, and fairness in reward allocation were posited as indirect predictors through their effects on job satisfaction. In this study (Netemeyer & Boles, 1997) leadership support was defined as the degree of support and consideration a person received from his or her immediate supervisor. This definition is consistent with the path-goal theory view that a supportive leader provides guidance to his or her subordinates, treats them fairly, and considers their input valuable (House & Dessler, 1974). Path-goal theory states that job satisfaction is a consequence of leadership support, and numerous empirical tests support this premise in various organizational contexts

(Brown & Peterson, 1993; Wofford & Liska, 1993; Podsakoff, Niehoff, MacKenzie & Williams, 1993).

Literature further suggests a relationship between leadership support and the performance of OCB's (Netemeyer & Boles, 1997). According to path-goal theory a leader attains performance from subordinates by making the path to their goals easier and increasing personal job satisfaction (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1993; House & Dessler, 1974). This suggests a leadership support to job satisfaction to OCB's linkage.

According to researchers such as Folger & Konovsky (1989), Konovsky & Pugh (1994) and Tyler & Lind (1992) it is expected that subordinate participation in decision-making – amongst others - is associated with positive evaluations of the supervisor and sense of support from the supervisor. Research further suggests that high-quality relationships with supervisors are related to extra-role behaviours, including OCB's (Farh, et al., 1990; Deluga, 1995; Settoon, Bennet & Liden, 1996). High quality leader-member exchange has been positively associated with subordinate-supervisor mutual support, subordinate in-role performance as well as extra-role activity such as organizational citizenship behavior and supervisory effectiveness (Deluga, 1998). On the basis of social exchange principles and reciprocity norms, exhibiting OCB can be considered as a method of maintaining balance in the relationship between employee and supervisor (leader) or organization, according to Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff (1998). If an employee's sense of support from the supervisor (leader) is violated, he or she will subsequently reduce or withhold OCB (Van Yperen, Van den Berg, & Willering, 1999).

Podsakoff, et al. (2000) examined the direct and indirect effects of transformational leadership on OCB's and found that transformational leadership indirectly influenced OCB's through trust. They (Podsakoff, et al., 2000, p. 138) concluded that "assessing employees' perception of fairness in future research may help us better understand how to build employee trust and citizenship behaviours.

In a field study of a small manufacturing plant, the relationships between five dimensions of OCB and three sets of predictors (i.e. leadership, perceived equity, and job satisfaction) were explored by Schnake, Cochran and Dumler (1995). Two dimensions of leadership, consideration and initiating structure were included in this study. Results of this research showed that the two dimensions of leadership, consideration and initiating structure, were related to four of the five dimensions of OCB (i.e. altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue), while consideration was related to a fifth dimension of OCB, courtesy, as well (Schnake, et al., 1995).

With regard to the relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour, limited research results could be found in the literature indicating a direct relationship between the three constructs. One such example is the research done by Lourens (2001). More specifically, little evidence in the existing literature of the direct relationships between emotional intelligence, visioning ability of leaders and the OCB of subordinates could be found. In a review of empirical research during this study, the conclusion by Podsakoff, et al., 2000) that only relationships of leadership theories (such as transformational,

transactional and leader-member exchange theory) with OCB have been investigated is supported.

However, Wong and Law (2002) argued that emotional intelligence should be positively related to job outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and intention to quit. They argued that the ability to apply emotion regulation should enable employees to have better relationships with co-workers and supervisors, as well as greater satisfaction in their jobs. The continual presence of positive emotional states of the employee will also lead to positive affection towards the work environment and the organization. Wong and Law (2002) further contend that the positive experience on the job and positive affective emotions should make employees more committed to the organization and less likely to leave their jobs.

It thus seems logical to assume that as a result of this (i.e. the positive experience on the job and positive affective emotions), employees would feel more committed to the organisation and that satisfaction on the job would be a major determinant of an employee's Organisational Citizenship Behaviour. Satisfied employees would seem more likely to talk positively about the organisation, help others and go beyond the normal expectations in their job. Moreover, satisfied employees might be more prone to go beyond the call of duty because they want to reciprocate their positive experiences. Consistent with this thinking, early discussions of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour assumed that it was closely linked with satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983).

Wong and Law (2002), in their research, found preliminary support for researchers who have proposed the importance of leader emotional intelligence (e.g. Sternberg, 1997). Their results showed that the emotional intelligence of leaders is positively related to the job satisfaction and extra-role behaviour of followers.

As regards the relationship between the variables included in this study and the conflict handling style of subordinates/followers, no empirical evidence of any research and/or research results in this regard could be found. There is thus a definite need for rigorous research to underpin relationships between the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership style and the conflict handling styles of their subordinates and/or followers.

The problem of employee turnover has continued to be a concern to organizations in recent years despite an increase in investigations into factors affecting such behaviour. With few exceptions, attitudinal studies of turnover have focused on the construct of job satisfaction as a predictor of tenure. In this regard a moderate and consistent relationship has generally been found across various samples between greater job satisfaction and the propensity to remain with an organization (see Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1994). In a study conducted by Weisman, Alexander, and Chase (1981), job satisfaction was found to be the strongest single predictor of turnover intention amongst professional nurses. They further concluded that as much as 75 percent of "contemplated turnover" may be attributed to job conditions. A similar finding was obtained by Prescott and Bowen (1987). They found that work-related factors such as work schedules, supervision, lack of

stimulation, etc. were among the reasons most frequently mentioned by nurses who had resigned from their jobs

According to Tett and Meyer (1993), considerable research has been devoted to developing predictive models of voluntary turnover, with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and intention to quit among the most commonly proposed antecedents. Individual studies have generally supported hypothesized linkages among turnover and those variables. In various studies (see Tett & Meyer, 1993) job satisfaction and commitment have invariably been reported as negatively related to turnover and intention to leave. Consistent with theories stressing the importance of intent in predicting behaviour, results of some studies (e.g. Mowday, Koberg, & McArthur, 1984) show that intent to leave completely mediates attitude-turnover relations.

Chen and Sego (1998) conceptualised levels of organizational citizenship behaviour performance as a behavioural predictor of employee turnover and empirically examined the strength of this relationship. Data were collected from 205 supervisor-subordinate dyads across 11 companies in the People's Republic of China. The results provided considerable support for the hypothesis that supervisor-rated OCB was a predictor of subordinates' actual turnover. In particular, subordinates who were rated as exhibiting low levels of OCB were found to be more likely to leave an organization than those who were rated as exhibiting high levels of OCB. They further found that the self-report turnover intention was a predictor of turnover.

2.7. CONCLUSIONS

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership behaviour have - without doubt - become two very important constructs to organizations. More specifically, emotional intelligence and its applications have received widespread attention in the literature and has been the focus of various research efforts during the last couple of years. Despite the fact that evidence exists of a relationship between emotions and workplace behaviour, the role and relevance of emotional intelligence within a business environment remains a compelling question for research. The impact of Emotional Intelligence on the success and performance on people within an organizational environment remains phenomena; hence the reason of widespread speculation and diverse conceptualisations in this regard. However, the increased focus on and interest – both scientific and popular - in this construct cannot be ignored.

The connection and/or relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership is also currently unknown. Some researchers such as Palmer, et al. (2001) claim that there is an intuitive connection between the two constructs. Very little research published to date has explicitly examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. Leadership has become of paramount importance to any organization operating in an constantly changing environment. This continual change faced by organizations will have a significant effect on and will require a different behavioural pattern from individuals incumbering leadership positions in the organization.

Popular claims regarding the extent to which Emotional Intelligence accounts for effective leadership skills are at present misleading; the main reason being that theoretical links are very often drawn between emotional intelligence and leadership performance (Palmer, et al., 2001).

In addition to emotional intelligence and leadership behaviour being identified as of paramount importance to organizations, organizational citizenship behaviour has also received a fair amount of attention in the literature in recent years. Empirical research results have provided evidence of a direct relationship between leadership behaviours and OCB. However, the relationships among leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour are unclear. The same research question also exists with regards to the conflict handling style and intention to quit of subordinates/followers.

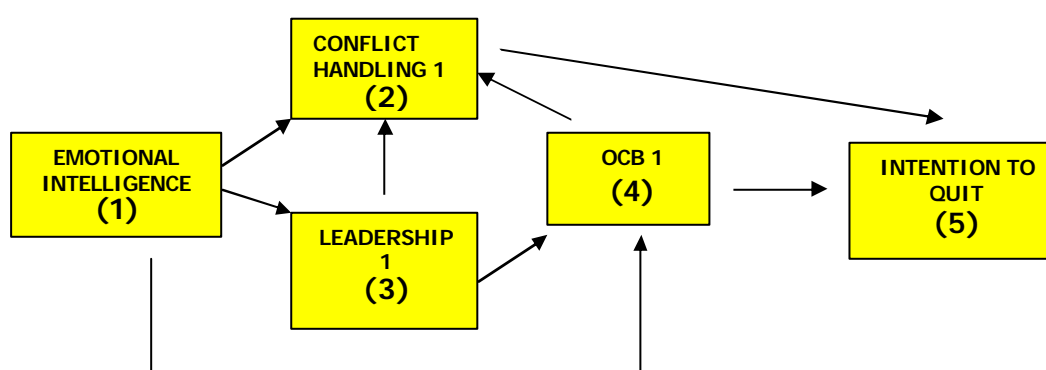
Most of the constructs used in this study have been researched, either individually or in relation with one another. In this study these constructs and their relationship with one another will be investigated. As far as it could be ascertained, these variables have not been researched together in any one study before; hence the exploratory nature of this study.

The **primary aim** of the present study will be to determine how well Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and intention to quit as well as the conflict handling style of subordinates could be predicted by means of leadership style, and the emotional intelligence of leaders. As a **secondary aim**, this study will also explore some causal relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour of followers, their conflict handling

style and strength of their intention to leave or stay with the organization of current employment. The study will not only determine the relationships among the variables seen as independent, but especially, provide information on the strength of the prediction of two important organizational variables, i.e. organizational citizenship behaviour and intention to leave or to stay with an employer. In a sense criterion variables and the antecedents of such variables will therefore be studied. Valuable information on variables that can play an important role in future organizational success will therefore be gained.

From the objectives of this study and based on the existing literature, the following four models indicating potential causal relationships among the various constructs used in this research have been developed:

FIGURE 2: POTENTIAL CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS - MODEL 1



Potential causal relationships:

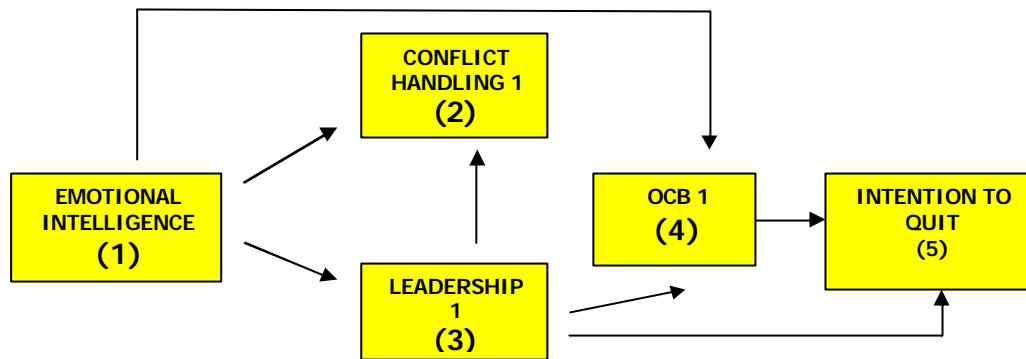
2 = 1,3,4

3 = 1

4 = 1,3

5 = 2,4

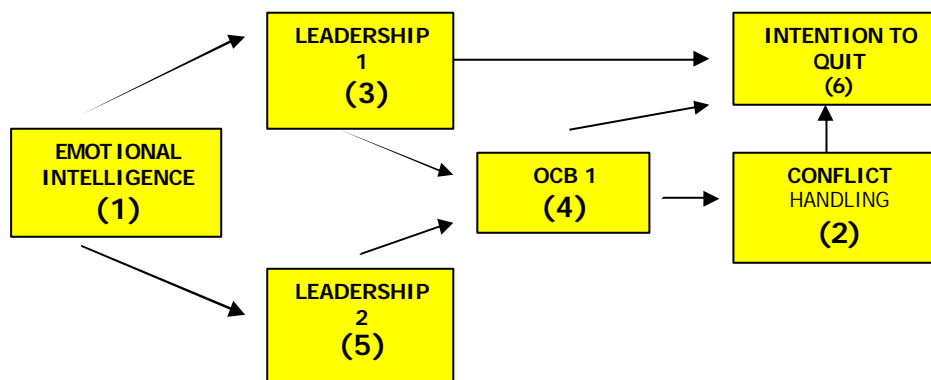
FIGURE 3: POTENTIAL CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS - MODEL 2



Potential causal relationships:

- 2 = 1,3
- 3 = 1
- 4 = 3,1
- 5 = 3,4

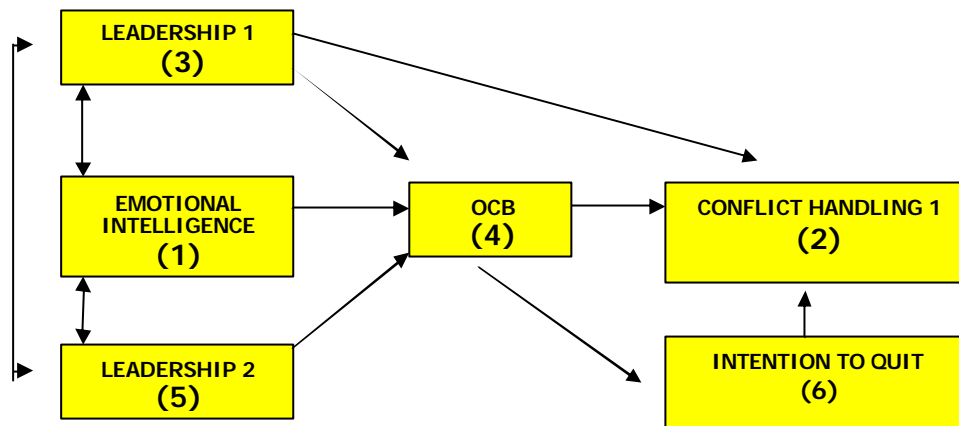
FIGURE 4: POTENTIAL CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS - MODEL 3



Potential causal relationships:

- 3 = 1
- 5 = 1
- 4 = 3,5
- 2 = 4
- 6 = 3,4,2

FIGURE 5: POTENTIAL CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS - MODEL 4



Potential causal relationships:

4 = 3,1,5

2 = 3,1,5,4,6

6 = 3, 1, 5, 4

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this study is to investigate emotional intelligence and various of its correlates within the South African business context. More specifically the emotional intelligence and leadership style of managers and its relationship with the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling styles and intention to quit of their subordinates/followers are investigated. As indicated in the previous chapter, the constructs used in this study have been researched, either individually or in relation with one another. As far as it could be ascertained, the relationships between the emotional intelligence and leadership style of managers and the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling style and intention to quit of subordinates have not yet been researched together in any one study in South Africa or other parts of the world before; hence the exploratory nature of this study.

Participants completed questionnaires regarding their leaders' behaviours and more specifically their leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership style. They also completed three more questionnaires on their own behaviour (i.e. their Conflict handling style and Intention to Quit behavior) as well as the Organizational Citizenship Behaviour or their fellow employees.

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

Kerlinger and Lee (2000) note that the research design of any study has two basic purposes: (a) to provide answers to research questions, and (2) to control variance. It further enables the researcher to answer specific research questions as validly, objectively, and accurately as possible. According to these authors, the research plan is therefore deliberately and specifically conceived and executed to generate empirical evidence to bring to bear on the research problem. In line with the objectives of this study and in order to control error variance, the psychometric properties of each of the measuring scales used in the research, were examined prior to investigating the relationships between emotional intelligence and the other constructs, such as leadership style of managers and the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling style and intention to quit behaviour of subordinates/followers. Potential causal relationships among the constructs mentioned, were also investigated.

In the present study, a sample of organizational members in leadership roles and/or positions within the participating organizations was drawn. Individuals reporting to the same leaders from the participating organizations were also drawn and included in the sample. The sample contained both genders and no discrimination was made on the basis of race, age, and ethnic origin.

Information on the following demographic variables for both groups of participants, i.e. individuals in leadership roles, and their direct subordinate(s)/follower(s) was obtained:

- Age
- Gender
- Hierarchical level in the organization
- Level of qualifications
- Functional area within which he/she works
- Economic sector

3.2.1. Respondents

The biographical characteristics of the sample of respondents used in this study are reflected in the next section in order to get a broad overview and a better understanding of the nature of the survey group. The demographic information of the leaders assessed and his/her sub-ordinate is provided in tabular form.

The age distribution of all the respondents is shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Age distribution of the Respondents (n=4 69)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
18	1	0.21	1	0.21
20	2	0.43	3	0.64
21	4	0.85	7	1.49
22	5	1.07	12	2.56
23	9	1.92	21	4.48
24	6	1.28	27	5.76
25	8	1.71	35	7.46
26	14	2.99	49	10.45
27	13	2.77	62	13.22
28	23	4.90	85	18.12
29	14	2.99	99	21.11
30	18	3.84	117	24.95
31	17	3.62	134	28.57
32	13	2.77	147	31.34
33	17	3.62	164	34.97
34	17	3.62	181	38.59
35	25	5.33	206	43.92
36	26	5.54	232	49.47
37	25	5.33	257	54.80
38	31	6.61	288	61.41
39	29	6.18	317	67.59
40	17	3.62	334	71.22
41	20	4.26	354	75.48
42	16	3.41	370	78.89
43	19	4.05	389	82.94
44	10	2.13	399	85.07
45	7	1.49	406	86.57
46	8	1.71	414	88.27
47	9	1.92	423	90.19

Table 3.1 (Continued)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
48	7	1.49	430	91.68
49	10	2.13	440	93.82
50	4	0.85	444	94.67
51	6	1.28	450	95.95
52	3	0.64	453	96.59
53	2	0.43	455	97.01
54	5	1.07	460	98.08
55	2	0.43	462	98.51
56	3	0.64	465	99.15
59	1	0.21	466	99.36
61	2	0.43	468	99.79
69	1	0.21	469	100.00

The age of the respondents (n=469) ranged between 18 and 69 years with the average age being 36.59 years ($SD=8.06$), with the largest single group of the respondents being 38 years of age. Categorising the respondents' age into different age categories (i.e. =25, 26 – 35, 36 – 45, 46 – 55 and 56 – 69), it becomes clear that 7.46% of all the respondents were 25 years of age and younger. Only 1,49% of the respondents were 56 years and older. The 26 – 35 and 36 – 45 age categories contained 36,46% and 44, 35% of the respondents. The age category, 46 – 55, represented only 10,24% of the respondents. It is clear from Table 3.1 that the majority of respondents were between the ages of 36 and 55, representing a total of 80.81% of all the respondents.

The age distribution of the respondents' direct superior (i.e. individuals in a leadership role) is shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Age distribution of respondents' leaders (n=469)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percent - %
23	3	0,61	3	0,64
24	5	1,07	8	1,71
25	7	1,49	15	3,20
26	3	0,64	18	3,84
27	5	1,07	23	4,90
28	5	1,07	28	5,97
29	12	2,56	40	8,53
30	29	6,18	69	14,71
31	6	1,28	75	15,99
32	21	4,48	96	20,47
33	13	2,77	109	23,24
34	9	1,92	118	25,16
35	22	4,69	140	29,85
36	14	2,99	154	32,84
37	20	4,26	174	37,10
38	24	5,12	198	42,22
39	14	2,99	212	45,20
40	41	8,74	253	53,94
41	11	2,35	264	56,29
42	16	3,41	280	59,70
43	16	3,41	296	63,11
44	15	3,20	311	66,31
45	31	6,61	342	72,92
46	11	2,35	353	75,27
47	14	2,99	367	78,25
48	23	4,90	390	83,16
49	10	2,13	400	85,29
50	20	4,26	420	89,55
51	6	1,28	426	90,83

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
52	10	2,13	436	92,96
53	8	1,71	444	94,67
54	7	1,49	451	96,16
55	9	1,92	460	98,08
56	3	0,64	463	98,72
57	4	0,85	467	99,57
58	1	0,21	468	99,79
59	0	0	0	0
60	1	0,21	469	100

The respondents' immediate superiors/leaders had an age range of 23 to 60 years with a mean age of 40.29 years ($SD = 8.06$). If the same age categories are applied as in the previous table (i.e. Table 3.2), it becomes clear that the greatest proportion (i.e. 43.07%) of the respondents' leaders were in the age category of 36 – 45 years. Only 3.20% of the respondents' leaders were 25 years old and younger, while 26.65% and 25.16% of the leaders were in the age categories of 26 –35 and 46 – 55 respectively. Only 1.92% of the respondents' leaders were 56 years of age and older.

The age of the respondents' co-workers are reflected in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Age of respondents' co-worker (n=469)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
20	1	0,21	1	0,21
21	4	0,85	5	1,07
22	8	1,71	13	2,78
23	3	0,64	16	3,42
24	7	1,50	23	4,91
25	17	3,63	40	8,55
26	9	1,92	49	10,47
27	12	2,56	61	13,03
28	19	4,06	80	17,09
29	17	3,63	97	20,73
30	32	6,84	129	27,56
31	27	5,77	156	33,33
32	13	2,78	169	36,11
33	12	2,56	181	38,68
34	14	2,99	195	41,67
35	21	4,49	216	46,15
36	17	3,63	233	49,79
37	20	4,27	253	54,06
38	24	5,13	277	59,19
39	14	2,99	291	62,18
40	37	7,91	328	70,09
41	10	2,14	338	72,22
42	22	4,70	360	76,92
43	14	2,99	374	79,91
44	10	2,14	384	82,05
45	17	3,63	401	85,68
46	6	1,28	407	86,97
47	11	2,35	418	89,32
48	8	1,71	426	91,03

Table 3.3 (Continued)

Age	Frequency	Percent %	Cumulative frequency	Cumulative percentage
49	6	1,28	432	92,31
50	14	2,99	446	95,30
51	2	0,43	448	95,73
52	6	1,28	454	97,01
53	3	0,64	457	97,65
54	4	0,85	461	98,50
56	1	0,21	462	98,72
57	2	0,43	464	99,15
58	2	0,43	466	99,57
61	1	0,21	467	99,79
62	2	0,43	469	100,00

The co-workers of the respondents were between 20 and 62 years old. The mean age of the respondents' co-workers was 36.36 years ($SD=8.06$).

Categorising the age of the co-workers of respondents' into different age cohorts (i.e. =25, 26 – 35, 36 – 45, 46 – 55 and 56 – 62), it becomes clear that 8.55% of all the respondents' co-workers were 25 years of age and younger. Only 1,50% of their co-workers were 56 years and older. The 26 – 35 and 36 – 45 age cohorts contained 37.60% and 39.53% of the respondents' co-workers. The age category, 46 – 55, represented only 12.82% of their co-workers. An analysis of the age distribution of the respondent's co-workers indicates that the majority of co-workers respondents were between the ages of 26 and 55; a total of 77.13% (i.e. the sum total of co-workers in the age cohorts 26 – 35 and 36 – 45).

The gender division of the sample is shown in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4: Gender division of respondents (n= 469).

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Male	332	70.79	332	70.79
Female	137	29.21	469	100,00

The respondents that provided information on their gender were predominantly male (n=332), i.e. 70.79% of the total sample.

The gender division of the respondents' leaders are shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5: Gender division of respondents' leaders (n=469)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Male	389	82.94	389	82,94
Female	80	17.06	469	100,00

From Table 3.5 it is clear that the leaders of respondents were also predominantly male (n=389), representing 82.94% of the total.

The gender division of the respondents' co-workers are shown in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Gender of respondents' co-worker (n=469)

Gender	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Male	322	68,95	322	68,95
Female	147	31,05	469	100,00

Table 3.6 indicate the gender division of the respondents' co-workers. From this Table it can be seen that more than two thirds (68.95%) of the co-workers (n=322) were males, whereas only less than one third (31.05%) or 147 were females.

Table 3.7 indicates the distribution of the respondents' position in the organizational hierarchy.

Table 3.7: Respondents' position in organizational hierarchy (n=469)

Leaders' level in organisation	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Top Management	33	7,04	33	7,04
Middle Management	198	42,22	231	49,25
Lower Management	149	31,77	380	81,02
Non-management	89	18,97	469	100,00

The respondents were at different hierarchical levels in their organisations. The single largest group (42.2%) perceived themselves as members of the middle management level (n=198) in their organisation, whilst 7.0% and 31.8% regarded themselves as respectively top (n=33) and lower management (n=149). A number of respondents in top management positions was expected as this group formed a relatively small proportion of the population and therefore also the sample.

The distribution of the respondents' leaders in the organizational hierarchy is reflected in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Leaders' position in organizational hierarchy (n=469)

Leaders' level In organisation	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Top Management	174	37,10	174	37,02
Middle Management	218	46,48	392	83,40
Lower Management	77	16,42	469	100,00

From Table 3.8 it can be seen that the single largest group of respondents indicated that the majority (n=218; 46.48%) of their leaders occupied leadership positions/roles in the middle management level of their organizations. Only 16.42% of respondents' leaders (n=77) found themselves on the lower management levels, while 37.10% (n=174) of leaders were in top management positions/roles. This last figure is surprising and not fully understood as it seems unlikely that more than a third of the respondents' superiors would occupy top management positions.

The distribution of the highest qualifications of respondents is indicated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Respondents' level of qualification (n=469)

Highest Qualification	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Secondary School	22	4,69	22	4,69
Std. 10 or equivalent	149	31,77	171	36,46
Post-school certificate	74	15,78	245	52,24
National Higher Diploma	122	26,01	367	78,25
Bachelors Degree or equivalent	46	9,81	413	88,06

Table 3.9: (Continued)

Highest Qualification	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Honours degree or equivalent	44	9,38	457	97,44
Masters degree or equivalent	8	1,71	465	99,15
Doctorate degree	4	0,85	469	100,00

A total of 298 respondents (i.e. 63.54%) obtained a qualification after they had completed formal schooling. A large proportion (n=122; 26.01%) of the sample is in possession of a National Higher Diploma, whereas only 9.81% (n=46) and 9.38% (n=44) of the respondents have obtained Bachelor degrees or Honours degrees respectively. Thus, of the respondents 36.4% had up to 12 years of formal schooling, 41.7% had post-school diplomas or certificates whilst 21.9% had obtained one or more university degrees.

Only 12 respondents are, however, in possession of an advanced academic qualification, i.e. Masters (n=8; 1.71%) and Doctorate (n=4; 0.85%) degrees.

Cognisance should be taken of the fact that 4.69% (n=22) of the respondents only obtained a secondary school qualification whilst a fairly large proportion (i.e. nearly one third) of the total sample (i.e. n=149; 31.77%) is in possession of a Standard 10 or equivalent qualification. It should further be noted that the respondents are employed by organizations who have stringent employment equity targets and who have made significant progress with the attainment of their employment equity targets in their senior leadership positions. Although the racial

distribution of the respondents were not obtained, one should be careful not to favour any particular racial group or generalise any of the qualifications reflected in Table 3.9 to any group in particular.

The level of qualification of the respondents' leaders is indicated in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Leaders' level of qualification (n=468)

Highest Qualification	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Secondary School	10	2,14	10	2,14
Std. 10 or equivalent	92	19,66	102	21,80
Post-school certificate	63	13,46	165	35,26
National Higher Diploma	137	29,27	302	64,53
Bachelors Degree or equivalent	73	15,60	375	80,13
Honours degree or equivalent	45	9,62	420	89,75
Masters degree or equivalent	33	7,05	453	96,80
Doctorate degree	15	3,21	468	100,00

A total of 137 (i.e. 29.27%) of the respondents' leaders indicated that they had obtained a National Higher Diploma as their highest qualification. Seventy-three (15.60%) of the respondents' direct superiors/leaders are in possession of a Bachelors degree or equivalent qualification, while 45 (9.62%) have obtained a Honours degree or equivalent qualification. From Table 3.10 it is clear that a relatively large proportion of the respondents' leaders are in possession of advanced level academic qualifications (i.e. Masters and/or doctorate degrees), i.e. 33 (7.05%) and

15 (3.21%) respectively. This represents a total of 10.26% (n=48). The highest qualification of one of the respondents' leaders was not provided.

Table 3.11 indicates the qualification level of the respondents' co-workers.

Table 3.11: Level of qualification of respondents' co-worker (n=469)

Highest Qualification	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Secondary School	32	6,82	32	6,82
Std. 10 or equivalent	170	36,25	202	43,07
Post-school certificate	75	15,99	277	59,06
National Higher Diploma	112	23,88	389	81,94
Bachelors Degree or equivalent	42	8,96	431	90,90
Honours degree or equivalent	23	4,90	454	95,80
Masters degree or equivalent	11	2,35	465	98,15
Doctorate degree	4	0,85	469	100,00

Table 3.11 indicates that the majority of the respondents' co-workers (59.06%, n=277) are in possession of a maximum of a post-school certificate as their highest qualification. A total of 112 (23.88%) co-workers are in possession of a National Higher Diploma. Sixty-five of the co-workers (13.86%) of respondents have obtained a Bachelors degree or a Honours degree as their highest qualification.

The current functional area of the respondents is shown in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Respondents' current functional area (n=469)

Functional Area	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
General Management	25	5,33	25	5,33
Production	164	34,97	189	40,30
Marketing	10	2,13	199	42,43
Human Resources	60	12,79	259	55,22
Research and Development	5	1,07	264	56,29
Accounting and Finance	95	20,26	359	76,55
Information Technology	19	4,05	378	80,60
Others	91	19,40	469	100,00

Respondents came from different functional areas in their respective organizations. The largest proportion of respondents (34.97, n=164) works in a production environment. A large group of the respondents (20.26, n=95) operate in the functional area of Accounting and Finance. Only 25 respondents (5.33%) were from a general management background. The marketing, human resources, information technology and research and development areas were represented by 2.13% (n=10), 12.79% (n=60), 4.05% (n=19) and 1.07% (n=5) respondents respectively.

The economic sector of the respondents employing organization is reflected in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Current economic sector of respondents' employing organizations (n=469)

Economic Sector	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percentage
Mining and Quarrying	297	63.33%	297	63.33%
Medical Services	103	21.96%	400	85.29%
Agriculture (Primary)	16	3.41%	416	88.70%
Fruit Packaging and Processing (Secondary)	53	11.30%	469	100.00%

The majority of respondents (63.33%, n=297) are employed in the Mining sector of the South African economy. The second largest group of respondents came from the Medical Services sector with n=103 (21.96%). A total of 14.71% (n=69) of the respondents were employed in the Agricultural sector (i.e. both Primary and Secondary Agriculture). Of this group, 53 respondents (11.30%) were employed in the fruit packaging and processing section of the Agricultural sector of the South African economy.

3.2.2. Measuring Instruments

(a) Emotional Intelligence Index

In the present study, Emotional Intelligence was measured using the original 40-item measuring scale developed by Rahim and Minors (Rahim, 2002), called the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI). This 40-item measuring scale EQI was developed to assess Emotional Intelligence on the following five sub-scales:

- Self-Awareness: (Items, 5, 7, 8, 12, 14, 26, 28, and 33);
- Regulating behaviour: (Items 1, 4, 17, 18, 21, 23, 36, and 37);
- Empathy: (Items 2, 6, 15, 16, 22, 27, 38, and 40);
- Motivation: (Items 3, 19, 20, 30, 31, 34, 35, and 39); and
- Social Skills: (Items 9, 10, 11, 13, 24, 25, 29, and 32).

Rahim (2002) reported Cronbach Alphas for the five sub-scales ranging from 0.62 to 0.98 for the six countries where he did his research. However, Rahim and Minors (personal communication in Schlechter & Boshoff, 2003) - after doing an Exploratory Factor Analysis (using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation) - presented a five-factor solution comprising of the same factors as had been conceptualised by Goleman (1995) at the 10th Annual ICAM Conference in Boston. These five factors explained 67.70 percent of the variance in their data: (1) Self-motivation – 16.10% (Eigenvalue – 18.43), (2) Empathy – 10.60% (Eigenvalue – 4.25), (3) Social Skills – 4.40% (Eigenvalue - 1.76), (4) Self-regulation – 3.60% (Eigenvalue – 3.60), and (5) Self-awareness – 3.00% (Eigenvalue 1.19).

In a study conducted by Lourens (2001), the portability of this measuring instrument to South African research samples was investigated. An exploratory Factor Analysis using Principal Factor Analysis with oblique rotation of the axes on the responses of this sample indicated the existence of four factors, retaining 26 items of the original instrument. The factors with Cronbach Alphas and number of items in brackets were identified as, Motivation (0.929; 9 items), Self-regulation (0.925; 7 items), Empathy (0.932; 5 items) and Self-awareness (0.843; 5 items). These factors tended to have high common variance (Lourens, 2001). This

study indicated that in a limited sample from one organization the factor structure of the measuring scale could not be replicated fully. However, based on the statistical and psychometric properties of this scale, it was decided to still use the Emotional Intelligence Index as developed by Rahim and Minors (Rahim, 2002) as no information on the validity of other instruments measuring emotional intelligence for South African samples could be found. Furthermore, this South African sample differed significantly from the sample Rahim and Minors used in the United States of America. It was felt that this would potentially add to the understanding of the nature of the emotional intelligence construct.

In the present study the respondent had to react to the 40 statements, each with a seven-point response scale (1 – “Strongly disagree” to 7 – “Strongly agree”) to measure Emotional Intelligence in the leader/superior as perceived by the respondent. A higher score on the scale indicates a perceived greater emotional intelligence of the leader/superior. The portability of this scale to South African samples was then also investigated; the results of which are being reflected later on in this dissertation.

(b) Leadership behaviour

In this study the leadership behaviour of the respondents' direct superiors was measured by means of Ekvall and Avonen's Three-dimensional CPE (i.e. Change, Production and Employee Centred) leadership behaviour scale. This measuring scale comprises of 36 items (1991; 1994), describing the behaviour of a manager. Responses to the items on the measuring scale are reflected on a four-point Likert-type scale ranging

from 1 to 4 (i.e. 1 – Seldom/never to 4 – Most of the time) and the respondents had to respond to each of the 36 items to measure the their leader/immediate superiors' leadership behaviour as perceived by the respondent.

This measuring scale has been proved to have acceptable psychometric qualities (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991; 1994). According to Lourens (2001) this measuring instrument is entirely portable to a South African sample.

During a study in 1991 Ekvall and Arvonen hypothesised the existence of a leadership style adapted to creating and supporting renewal (1991). A Factor Analysis supported this hypothesis. During research studies in Sweden (n = 346), Finland (n = 229) and the USA (n = 123) they reported Cronbach Alpha coefficients for the three dimensions: Change-centred (Factor 1), 0,94; Employee-centred (Factor 2), 0,93, and Production-centred (Factor 3), 0,93. Various studies were conducted in a wide variety of industries and organizational levels across a range of countries regarding the three leadership styles and provided research results on the three leadership styles studies. They found unequivocal evidence for a three-factor model of leadership behaviour, comprising of three distinctive leadership styles, i.e. task-oriented leadership style, people-oriented leadership style and a change-oriented leadership style (Ekvall and Arvonen, 1994). In their research, the three-dimensional leadership behaviour questionnaire was factor analysed in order to confirm the factor structure from their earlier studies on 698 leaders in three countries. Three factors with Eigen values >1.0 emerged in this study and explained 97 percent of the total variance. The first factor was identified as the employee/relations factor, the second as the

change/development factor and the third as the production/task/structure factor (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1994). The three factors with the selected items and factor loadings (only items with the highest loadings were selected) are:

- **Employee/Relations Factor:** Cronbach Alpha = 0,73
 - Shows regard for the subordinates as individuals (0,73);
 - Is considerate (0,62);
 - Allows his/her subordinates to decide (0,55);
 - Relies on his/her subordinates (0,53);
 - Is friendly (0,52).

- **Change/Development Factor:** Cronbach Alpha = 0,85
 - Offers ideas about new and different ways of doing things (0,71);
 - Pushes for growth (0,69);
 - Initiates new projects (0,67);
 - Experiments with new ways of doing things (0,65);
 - Gives thought and plans about the future (0,56).

- **Production/Task/Structure Factor:** Cronbach Alpha = 0,63
 - Plans carefully (0,69);
 - Is very exact about plans being followed (0,63);
 - Gives clear instructions (0,61);
 - Is controlling in his/her supervision of the work (0,57);
 - Makes a point of following rules and principles (0,56).

During subsequent studies the factor structure of the three dimensional leadership behavior questionnaire was confirmed (Arvonen, 1995; Skogstad, & Einarsen, 1999). Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) concluded that the Factor Analysis performed in their study yielded support for the existence of a change-centred leadership dimension by giving substantial support for a three-factor leadership model, i.e. CPE model.

(c) Organizational Citizenship Behaviour

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour was measured by a scale developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). This instrument is based on a conceptualisation of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour by Organ (1988) and measures five dimensions: (1) altruism, (2) conscientiousness, (3) sportsmanship, (4) courtesy and (5) civic virtue.

In this study, respondents assessed their co-workers' organizational citizenship behaviours on 7-point Likert-type scales: 7 – "Strongly agree" to 1 – "Strongly disagree"

This questionnaire yielded acceptable psychometric qualities when applied to research samples in the United States of America. However, the responses to the questionnaire will be analysed by means of exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis to determine factor structure when applied to a South African sample.

(d) Conflict Handling style

The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict have become very important in empirical research. This is evident from a number of doctoral dissertations and other empirical studies that have utilized the conceptualisation and operationalisation of the five styles of conflict handling, as postulated by Rahim (1983).

In the present study, the conflict handling style of respondents was assessed by means of the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (Rahim, 1983), as this measuring scale proved itself to have acceptable psychometric properties and is generally a wide used instrument to assess the interpersonal conflict handling styles of individuals. The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory - comprising of 28 items - was designed by Rahim (1983) to measure five independent dimensions of interpersonal conflict handling styles with superiors, subordinates and peers . The five styles, as described in Chapter 2, are:

- Integration;
- Obliging;
- Dominating;
- Avoidance; and
- Compromising.

According to Rahim (1997) this measuring scale was designed on the basis of repeated feedback from respondents and a process of factor analyses of various sets of items in six samples (n = 2452) (Rahim, 1997).

Rahim and Magner (1995) performed Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the 28 items of the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory in five samples with LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1988). The primary objective of this study was to test the construct validity for the five subscales of the instrument as measures of five styles of handling conflict. This was done, in part, by comparing two, three, and four-factor models with the five-factor model of conflict styles. The goodness-of-fit indexes (GFI's), adjusted goodness-of-fit indexes (AGFI's) and relative non-centrality indexes (RNI's) ranged between 0,68 – 0,97, 0,61 – 0,93 and 0,40 – 0,94 respectively. Each of the goodness-of-fit indexes suggests that the five-factor model has a better fit with the data than the two to four-factor models.

Additional Confirmatory Factor Analyses provided evidence of both the convergent and discriminant validities of the ROCI-II subscales in diverse samples. (Rahim, 1997). Evidence of these validities together with the evidence reported in other field and experimental studies (Lee, 1990; Levy & Davis, 1988; Psenicka & Rahim, 1989; Wardlaw, 1988) provide support for the construct validity of the instrument (Van de Vliert and Kabanoff, 1990). Subsequent tests, conducted by Van de Vliert and Kabanoff (1990) and using another analytic technique such as non-metric distance-scaling of the theory, found further empirical support for the theory. According to them, statistics from these advanced analytic techniques suggest that the taxonomy of the five conflict styles exists and is adequately measured.

(e) Intention to quit

Intention to leave or remain with the respondents' current organization was measured on a semantic differential scale, anchored on five points, suggested by Cohen (1993).

In this study, respondents assessed their own attachment to their organization on a 5-point Likert-type scale: 1 – "I intend to stay with my present organisation/employer until the end of my work career" to 5 – "I will soon leave my present organisation/employer".

3.2.3. Procedure for data gathering

(a) Sampling

Questionnaires were distributed to randomly selected employees in four organisations from different industrial sectors within the South African economy. Organizations participating in this study came from the Medical services (Pathology) industry, Mining Industry, Fruit packing and processing industry, and the Primary Agricultural sector of South Africa.

The most senior official in the Human Resources Department of the respective participating organization was approached by the researcher and was requested to provide a list of the names, positions and levels of employees working in the organization. The following criteria were stipulated as prerequisites for participation by any individual in this study:

- The respondent had to report to a person in a more senior position who fulfill a leadership role; and

- The respondent had to have co-workers working in the same work group and/or department as the respondent him/herself, and
- The co-worker had to report to the same immediate superior as the respondent him/herself.

The sample used in this study, included employees selected from all managerial and supervisory layers within the participating organizations.

(b) Data Gathering

The study was carried out as a field survey. A composite questionnaire was compiled. The questionnaire contained the instruments used to measure leadership style and emotional intelligence of leaders (superiors), the interpersonal conflict handling style of respondents, the strength of the respondents' intention to stay or leave the organisation, the OCB of a co-worker of the respondent and some demographic and work experience variables describing the respondent, his/her superior and the co-worker involved in the study.

This composite questionnaire was distributed to respondents via the Human Resources Department of the respective participating organization. Questionnaires had to be returned to the researcher in pre-addressed envelopes. As an alternative to this, completed questionnaires could also be handed in at the Human Resources Department of each of the participating organisations. Completed questionnaires could be deposited into sealed document containers to ensure confidentiality of responses and anonymity of respondents. The sealed containers with completed questionnaires were personally collected by the researcher at the

respective Human Resources Department of the participating organisation. To ensure a high response rate, the Human Resource Department of all the participating organisations were involved and their assistance requested in sending out reminder letters to individuals included in the chosen sample after one week. The Human Resources Manager of the participating organization sent out a formal internal letter to the individuals included in the chosen sample after one month; the main objective being, to remind participants once again of the questionnaire and to encourage them to return their confidential and anonymous questionnaires to the researcher. Only completed questionnaires were included in the analysis if received within six weeks after having been distributed. A questionnaire was excluded from this study and statistical analyses if:

- The questionnaire was not fully completed;
- A definite trend of central tendency in the responses of the respondents was observed; and/or
- A clear trend of response set in the responses of the respondents was identified (e.g. where the respondent only selected the highest alternative on a given scale's items, or where the respondent only selected the middle or lowest alternative on a given scale's items.).

The data gathering design was developed in an effort to curb and lessen the problems of mono-rator bias and the tendency towards response set operating together with mono-method bias. It was considered that the possibility of social desirability could influence responses to the OCB questionnaire. Hence, respondents were requested to assess the behaviour of a colleague and not his/her own behaviour.

Respondents had completed the Ekvall & Arvonen scale in terms of their perceptions of the leadership behaviour of their immediate superiors. They were asked to describe their own behaviour when in conflict situations with their superior. Simultaneously, respondents were also asked to select a co-worker, reporting to the same superior (leader) as the respondent and to complete the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour instrument in terms of their perceptions of the co-worker's behaviour. Respondents were finally asked to complete the Rahim Emotional Intelligence questionnaire in terms of their perceptions of the behaviour of their immediate superior. Respondents also had to indicate the strength of their own intention to remain or leave the employment of their present organisation.

In total 469 of these completed questionnaires were returned, representing a response rate of 72%.

3.2.4. Procedures for Data Analysis

Data were entered into the computer system of the University of Pretoria by research assistants specializing in this work. The questionnaire contents used in this study was pre-coded in an effort to simplify the entry of raw data into the computer system for purposes of processing.

The focus in the statistical analysis was on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and other variables and on the relative role of emotional intelligence of the leader in the behaviour of his/her subordinates. The factor structures of the different measuring

instruments as determined in the present study were used in the analyses in order to reduce error variance in the measurements. Product-moment Correlation, Multiple Regression and Structural Equations Modelling were applied to analyse the data.

The data was analysed by means of statistical procedures in the SAS programme and was initially inspected by means of Proc Frequency, and Proc Univariate. Exploratory Factor Analysis is normally used to identify the number and nature of the underlying factors, based on measures obtained on a number of variables. Exploratory Factor Analyses were therefore carried out to determine the factor structure of each of the measuring instruments utilized in the research, followed up with a Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The existence and strength of relationships identified amongst the various constructs used in this research were studied by applying correlation methods. Structural equation modelling was also applied in order to investigate relationships and generate a theoretical conceptualisation of possible causal relationships based on the empirical results of this research.

(a) Psychometric properties of measuring instruments

(i) *Specifying decision rules*

In order to analyse the structure and internal reliability of the measuring instruments used in this study, the instruments were revalidated by means of Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The following steps were executed during the Exploratory Factor Analysis for each of the constructs measured in this research.

Eigenvalues = 1.00 were identified. A Scree test was applied to identify "clear breaks" between the Eigenvalues =1.00 and the identified breaks were accepted as an indication of the number of possible factors. Based on the number of factors identified, a Principal Factor Analysis with Direct Quartimin Rotation was carried out. These breaks served as indicators of the number of possible factors. A Principal Factor Analysis Direct with Direct Quartimin Rotation was carried out according to the number of determined factors. For example, if the Scree test identified a potential three, four and five factors, then a Principal Factor Analysis was done on all the items specifying three, four and five factor solutions.

The following decision rules were applied in evaluating the results of the Principal Factor Analyses carried out:

- Items which did not load ≥ 0.25 on any factor in any solution had to be identified;
- Items loading ≥ 0.25 on more than one factor in any solution had to be identified as well;
- Should an item not load ≥ 0.25 on any factor in any solution or loaded ≥ 0.25 on more than one factor in any solution, such items were removed from further analysis.

This process was repeated until no "problematic" items remained on any factor. Confirmatory Factor Analysis was then carried out on each of the structures to determine how well the obtained structure fitted the data, obtained through the Exploratory Factor Analysis.

(ii) Determining the psychometric qualities: Emotional Intelligence Scale

The structure and internal reliability of the Emotional Intelligence Scale was revalidated by means of Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Exploratory Factor Analysis is normally executed where measures consist of a number of dimensions, and where the factor structure (i.e. the number and nature of the underlying factors) needs to be identified.

A preliminary step was to determine the factor structure for the Emotional Intelligence Scale, developed by Rahim and Minors (Rahim, 2002), when applied to the responses of the present sample. More specifically, this was done to determine whether the emotional intelligence scale comprises of 5 dimensions/sub-scales as suggested by Rahim and Minors (Rahim, 2002) and whether the questionnaire had acceptable construct validity and other psychometric qualities when applied to a South African sample.

Exploratory Factor Analysis was carried out on the responses of the total sample ($n = 469$) to the responses in the questionnaire. This analysis was executed by means of the SAS Principal Factor Analysis programme with Direct Quartimin Rotation.

In the first round of Factor Analysis four Eigenvalues >1.0 were obtained. Clear breaks between the Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 were identified by means of a Scree test. These identified breaks were taken as indications of the number of possible factors. These Eigenvalues were respectively 21.67, 2.01, 1.33, and 1.17. A one-factor solution was initially specified. The one-factor solution explained 53,01% of the total variance. Factor

loadings of between 0,614 and 0,825 were obtained. This indicated that all the items in the measuring instrument could be seen as part of the same construct. This was confirmed by the value of a Cronbach Alpha of 0,98 for this scale.

On the basis of the Eigenvalues obtained, it was then decided to specify two, three and four factors in further solutions.

An Exploratory Factor Analysis, specifying a four-factor solution was carried out, but was in the end abandoned as four non-interpretable factors were yielded by the analysis. This solution yielded many cross loadings. Items v7, v8, v26, v27, v31, v38, v40, and v42 initially had high cross loadings and were rejected because of the cross loadings. The factor pattern finally obtained consisted of non-interpretable factors. In addition, high inter-correlations of between 0,470 and 0,645 among the factors were found. This was deemed undesirable.

As a result of this, further Exploratory Factor Analysis specifying a three factor solution was then executed, but was from the start also likely to be abandoned as the third factor explained only 2,30% of the total variance, whereas – as a general rule – a minimum of 5% of the total variance should be explained. Due to nine items not loading satisfactorily during the first round of analysis, nine items (i.e. v7, v8, v18, v26, v27, v31, v38, v40 and v42 as reflected in the composite questionnaire) were left out of the second round of analysis, specifying a three -factor solution.

In the second round of Exploratory Factor Analysis specifying a three-factor solution, an additional five items (i.e. v9, v10, v12, v14, and v16)

were eliminated due to the fact that these items cross-loaded on more than one factor. In a third round of Exploratory Factor Analysis, specifying a three-factor solution, three more items (i.e. v13, v23 and v29) were rejected/eliminated due to them also cross loading on other factors. Further analyses, specifying a three-factor solution were then abandoned.

Based on these results it was decided to explore a two- factor solution. In this round 17 items cross-loaded unacceptably. The second round of Exploratory Factor Analysis with these items excluded - extracting two factors - an additional three items (i.e. v4, v17 and v24) had to be eliminated due to unacceptable levels of cross loading. When this was done a two-factor solution was acceptable in terms of the rules stated earlier.

The final Two- Factor solution is shown in Table 3.14.

TABLE 3.14: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE - RESULTS OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (TWO FACTOR SOLUTION).

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
	<u>My Supervisor:</u>		
V3	Keeps his or her distressing emotions in check	-.003	<u>.802</u>
V5	Accepts rapid change to attain the goals of his or her group/organization.	<u>.615</u>	.158
V6	Keeps his or her anger in check	-.131	<u>.944</u>
V11	Confronts problems without demeaning those who work with him or her	.244	<u>.454</u>
V15	Recognise the political realities of the organization	<u>.517</u>	.165
V19	Remains calm in potentially volatile situations.	.248	<u>.585</u>
V20	Keep his or her disruptive impulses in check	.207	<u>.638</u>
V21	Has strong drive to attain organisational goals	<u>.830</u>	-.089
V22	Has high motivation to set and attain challenging goals.	<u>.846</u>	-.063
V25	Takes responsibility for his or her performance.	<u>.756</u>	.020
V28	Is well aware of his or her capabilities	<u>.795</u>	-.100
V30	Is well aware of how his or her gut feelings influence decisions.	<u>.752</u>	.020
V32	Operates from hope of success rather than fear of failure	<u>.682</u>	.094
V33	Stays focused on goals despite setbacks.	<u>.855</u>	-.026
V34	Manages task-related conflicts effectively.	<u>.754</u>	.106
V35	Is well aware of his or her limitations.	<u>.713</u>	.039
V36	Stays positive and generates innovative solutions to problems.	<u>.773</u>	.102
V37	Does not hesitate to make sacrifices to achieve important organisational goals.	<u>.839</u>	-.036
V39	Is self-disciplines and does the right thing even when it is unpopular.	<u>.786</u>	-.007
V41	Seeks fresh ideas from a variety of sources.	<u>.744</u>	.001
Eigenvalue		11.1141	1.58317
Percentage of total variance explained		.5358	.0613
Percentage of common variance explained		.8973	.1027

(Note: n = 469; value underlined indicates factor loadings of items selected to measure the variable)

As reflected in Table 3.14, the following items loaded satisfactorily on Factor 1: v5, v15, v21, v22, v25, v28, v30, v32, v33, v34, v35, v36, v37, v39, and v41. This factor was named **Emotional Vigilance** for purposes of this study. Items that loaded satisfactorily on Factor 2 are: v3, v6, v11, v19 and v20. This factor was named **Motivation** for purposes of this study.

In this solution, 59,71% of the total variance was explained by the two factors, which respectively contained 53.58% and 6.13% of the total variance. Of the common variance, Factor 1 explained 89.73% and Factor 2, 10.27%.

Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,96 and Factor 2 a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,87. The two factors correlated 0.65 with each other. Based on these results it was decided to explore the two factor solution further. A one-factor solution was not accepted or explored further as an attempt was made to include as much variance as possible in further analyses.

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was then executed on the Two-Factor solution, using Proc Callis in SAS. In this process the danger of underestimation of the fit indices was taken into account. Item scores were therefore aggregated in each factor. The high correlation between the factors caused a decision to include in the program specification that the factors should be seen as non-orthogonal.

Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis are shown in Table 3.15.

TABLE 3.15: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE - RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS.

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM TWO FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Fit Function	0.0147
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.9953
Goodness of Fit Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	0.9877
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.0105
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	0.5308
Chi-Square (df)	6.9006 (8)
Pr > Chi -Square	0.5474
Independence Model Chi-Square	2480.1
Independence Model Chi-Square DF	15
Root Mean Square Estimate A	0.0000
RMSEA 90% Lower Confidence Limit	.
RMSEA 90% Upper Confidence Limit	0.0491
ECVI Estimate	0.0710
ECVI 90% Lower Confidence Limit	.
ECVI 90% Upper Confidence Limit	0.0928
Probability of Close Fit	0.9543
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (BCFI)	1.0000
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	6.6320
Akaike's Information Criterion	-9.0994
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-50.3213
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-42.3213
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	1.0012
Bentler & Bonett's (1980) Non-normed Index	1.0008
Bentler & Bonnett's NFI (BBNFI)	0.9972
James, Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	0.5318
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	-0.1218
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rhoi (BNIR)	0.9948
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	1.0004
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	1055

From Table 3.15 it is evident that a good fit was found between the data and the factor structure.

(iii) Determining the psychometric qualities: Three-dimensional Leadership Behavior Scale (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, 1994).

The same procedure for determining the factor structure of the Ekvall and Arvonen' Three-dimensional CPE leadership behaviour scale was followed as in the case of determining the factor structure of the Emotional Intelligence Scale reflected upon in paragraph (ii). Lourens (2001) found this measuring instrument to be entirely portable to a South African sample. In his research, Lourens (2001) obtained a three-factor structure very similar to that found by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991, 1994) and Arvonen (1995).

Despite this research finding, the question of whether the Leadership Behaviour construct exists in the three-dimensional form and whether the questionnaire developed by Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) had acceptable psychometric qualities when applied to the sample used in the present study, was once again addressed. The structure and internal reliability of the Ekvall and Arvonen leadership behaviour scale was therefore subjected to a revalidation by means of Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Exploratory Principal Factor Analysis was carried out on the responses of the total sample (n = 469) to the items in the questionnaire. This analysis

was executed by means of the SAS programme. Direct Quartimin Rotation was specified.

In the first round of Exploratory Factor Analysis four Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 were obtained. Clear breaks between the Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 were identified by means of a Scree test. These identified breaks were taken as indications of the number of possible factors. These Eigenvalues were respectively 15.45, 1.92, 1.41 and 1.24. A one-factor solution was initially specified. The one-factor solution explained 41.34%% of the total variance. Factor loadings of between 0.328 and 0,756 were obtained. This was interpreted to imply that all the items in the measuring instrument could form part of one underlying and same construct, namely leadership behaviour. This was confirmed by the value of a Cronbach Alpha of 0,0.9608 for this scale. It was decided not to extract one factor only so as to increase the amount of variance and degree of dimensionality to be included in further analyses.

On the basis of the Eigenvalues obtained, it was then decided to specify two, three and four factors in further solutions.

Based on these results, an Exploratory Principal Factor Analysis, specifying a four-factor solution was carried out. This yielded a factor pattern in which a loading ≥ 0.25 on a specific factor with no cross loading on another factor was found. Many other items also cross-loaded in this solution. Attempts to identify a four-factor structure were therefore abandoned.

As a result of this, further Exploratory Principal Factor Analysis specifying a three-factor solution was then executed. This factor solution was rejected as no item, loading ≥ 0.25 on a factor and no cross loading on other factors, was found.

Based on these results it was decided to explore a two-factor solution. In the first round of Exploratory Analysis eight items (i.e. v101, v102, v104, v107, v109, v119, v128, and v129) cross-loaded unacceptably and were excluded from further analysis. In the second round of Exploratory Factor Analysis, extracting two factors, an acceptable solution was obtained with the remaining items loading satisfactorily on two factors and in accordance with the rules stated earlier.

The final Two- Factor solution is shown in Table 3.16.

TABLE 3.16: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURAL SCALE - RESULTS OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (TWO FACTOR SOLUTION).

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
	<u>My Supervisor:</u>		
V94	Is friendly	-.002	<u>.596</u>
V95	Listens to ideas and suggestions	.139	<u>.636</u>
V96	Creates order	<u>.588</u>	.108
V97	Relies on his/her subordinates	.034	<u>.322</u>
V98	Is willing to take risks in decisions	<u>.332</u>	.156
V99	Is very clear about who is responsible for what	<u>.716</u>	-.085
V100	Has an open and honest style	.073	<u>.665</u>
V103	Criticises in a constructive way	.064	<u>.481</u>
V105	Makes a point of following rules and principles	<u>.542</u>	.040
V106	Creates trust in other people	.129	<u>.654</u>
V108	Gives information about the results of the unit	<u>.539</u>	.193

Table 3.16 (Continued)

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
V110	Pushes for growth	<u>.565</u>	.115
V111	Sets clear goals	<u>.693</u>	.053
V112	Is considerate	.012	<u>.716</u>
V113	Initiates new projects	<u>.596</u>	.157
V114	Is very exact about plans being followed	<u>.851</u>	-.109
V115	Stands up for his/her subordinates	.220	<u>.524</u>
V116	Experiments with new ways of doing things	.558	.166
V117	Is controlling in his/her supervision of work	<u>.730</u>	-.195
V118	Creates an atmosphere free of conflict	-.060	<u>.726</u>
V120	Defines and explains work requirements clearly	<u>.612</u>	.185
V121	Is just in treating subordinates	-.035	<u>.572</u>
V122	Makes quick decisions when necessary	<u>.455</u>	.214
V123	Plans carefully	<u>.583</u>	.174
V124	Allows his/her subordinates to decide	-.033	<u>.642</u>
V125	Is flexible and ready to rethink his/her point of view	.016	<u>.709</u>
V126	Gives clear instructions	<u>.620</u>	.180
127	Shows regard for subordinates as individuals	.018	.765
Eigenvalue		11.6963	1.89157
Percentage of total variance explained		.3988	.0484
Percentage of common variance explained		.8918	.1082

(Note: n = 469; value underlined indicates factor loadings of items selected to measure the variable)

As reflected in Table 3.16, the following items loaded satisfactorily on Factor 1: v96, v98, v99, v105, v108, v110, v111, v113, v114, v116, v117, v120, v122, v123, and v126. This factor was named **Initiating Structure** for purposes of this study. Items that loaded satisfactorily on Factor 2 are: v94, v95, v97, v100, v103, v106, v112, v115, v118, v121, v124, v125, and v127. This factor was named **Consideration** for purposes of this study.

In this solution, 44.72% of the total variance was explained by the two factors obtained, which respectively contained 39.88% and 4.84% of the total variance. Of the common variance, Factor 1 explained 89.18% and Factor 2, 10,82%.

Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,92 and Factor 2 a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,90. The two factors correlated 0,70 with each other. Based on these results it was decided to explore the two factor solution further. A one-factor solution was not accepted or explored further as an attempt was made to include as much variance as possible in further analyses. A Confirmatory Factor Analysis was then executed on the Two Factor solution, using Proc Callis in SAS.

Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis are shown in Table 3.17.

TABLE 3.17: LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURAL SCALE - RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS.

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM TWO FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Fit Function	0.2664
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.9363
Goodness of Fit Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	0.8793
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.0341
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	0.6353
Chi-Square (df)	124.9395 (19)
PR>Chi-Square	<0.0001
Independence Model Chi-Square	2630.1
Independence Model Chi-Square (df)	28

Table 3.17 (Continued)

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM TWO FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Root Mean Square Estimate A	0.1090
RMSEA 90% Lower Confidence Limit	0.0913
RMSEA 90% Upper Confidence Limit	0.1276
ECVI Estimate	0.3403
ECVI 90% Lower Confidence Limit	0.2723
ECVI 90% Upper Confidence Limit	0.4247
Probability of Close Fit	0.0000
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (BCFI)	0.9593
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	127.6649
Akaike's Information Criterion	86.9395
Bozcogan's (1987) CAIC	-10.9624
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	8.0376
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	0.8934
Bentler & Bonnetts' (1980) Non-Normed Index	0.9400
Bentler & Bonnett's NFI (BBNFI)	0.9525
James, Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	0.6463
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	8.1849
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rhoi (BNIR)	0.9300
Bollen (1988) Non-Normed Index Delta2	0.9594
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	115

From Table 3.17 it is evident that a good fit was found between the data and the factor structure.

The two factors seem to represent classic elements of leadership behaviour, identified in the 1950s in the Ohio Leadership studies. It can be seen that the items forming the third factor (Change orientation) in the

Ekvall & Arvonen (1991, 1994) and Arvonen (1995) studies all disappeared in the present analysis.

(iv) Determining the psychometric qualities: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour was measured by means of a 20-item questionnaire developed by Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990). This instrument, which is based on a conceptualisation of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, developed by Organ (1990), measures altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue.

To determine whether the Organizational Citizenship Behaviour construct had 5 dimensions – as listed above – and whether the questionnaire developed by Podsakoff, et al. (1990) had acceptable psychometric properties when applied to the sample used in this research, Exploratory Factor Analysis using the Principal Factor method and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were carried out on the responses of the total sample (n = 469) to the items in the questionnaire.

The first round of Exploratory Factor Analysis (specifying a one-factor solution) of the responses to the 20 items in the Organizational Citizenship Behaviour yielded four Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 . Clear breaks between the Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 were identified by means of a Scree test. These identified breaks were taken as indications of the number of possible factors. The eigenvalues obtained were respectively 7.62, 2.49, 1.03,

and 1.01. Four items (i.e. v80, v84, v85 and v87) did not load ≥ 0.25 on the one-factor solution.

As a result of this, a decision was made that to firstly explore a four-factor solution. In the first round of analysis, v86 did not load on any of the four factors and v90 and v93 cross-loaded on more than one factor. This means that only 2 items (i.e. v91 and v92) loaded satisfactorily on the fourth factor. This Four Factor solution was therefore not explored any further.

In the first round of Exploratory Factor Analysis, specifying a three-factor solution, one item (i.e. v86) did not load on any of the factors and another three (i.e. v78, v89, and v93) cross-loaded. These items were excluded from the next round of analysis. In the next round of analysis, the third factor made only a small contribution to the variance explained. It only contained 3.06% of the common variance. The three-factor solution was therefore abandoned and not explored any further.

Based on these results, it was decided to carry out a final round of Exploratory Factor analysis with a two-factor solution specified. In this two-factor solution all the items loaded satisfactorily on one of the two factors in the first round of analysis in accordance with the rules stated earlier.

The final Two-Factor solution is shown in Table 3.18.

TABLE 3.18: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR SCALE - RESULTS OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (TWO FACTOR SOLUTION).

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2
	<u>My Co-worker:</u>		
V74	Keeps abreast of changes in the organization	<u>.616</u>	.067
V75	Never takes long lunches or breaks	<u>.600</u>	-.107
V76	Consults with his or her supervisor or other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions.	<u>.744</u>	-.002
V77	Informs his or her supervisor before taking any important actions	<u>.750</u>	.070
V79	"Keeps up" with developments in the company	<u>.770</u>	-.012
V80	Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters	.136	.704
V81	Takes steps to prevent problems with other employees	<u>.671</u>	.055
V82	Is always punctual	<u>.635</u>	.020
V83	Helps orient new people even though it is not required	<u>.653</u>	.052
V84	Consistently talks about wanting to quit his/her job	-.019	<u>.659</u>
V85	Always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation, rather than the positive side of it	-.013	<u>.746</u>
V87	Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (makes problems bigger than they are)	-.141	<u>.673</u>
V88	Does not abuse the rights of others	<u>.568</u>	.015
V90	Helps others who have heavy workloads	<u>.713</u>	-.031
V91	Attends and participates in meetings regarding the organization	<u>.659</u>	-.087
V92	Willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work related problems	<u>.729</u>	-.102
Eigenvalue		6.16714	2.42210
Percentage of total variance explained		.3530	.1199
Percentage of common variance explained		.7463	.2637

(Note: n = 469; value underlined indicates factor loadings of items selected to measure the variable)

As reflected in Table 3.18, the following items loaded satisfactorily on Factor 1: v74, v75, v76, v77, v79, v81, v82, v83, v88, v90, v91 and v92.

This factor was named **Functional participation** for purposes of this study. Items that loaded satisfactorily on Factor 2 are: v80, v84, v85, v87
This factor was named **Sportsmanship** for purposes of this study.

In this solution, 47.29% of the total variance was explained by the two factors identified, which respectively contained 35.30% and 11.99% of the total variance. Of the common variance, Factor 1 explained 74.63% and Factor 2, 26.37%.

Factor 1 had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,91 and Factor 2 a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0,79. The two factors correlated -0.137 with each other. Based on these results it was decided to explore the two- factor solution further.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was carried out on the two-factor structure. This analysis yielded the indices reflected in Table 3.19.

TABLE 3.19: ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR SCALE - RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS.

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM TWO FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Fit Function	.1716
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	.9628
Goodness of Fit Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.9295
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.0595
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.6533
Chi-Square	80.4687
Chi-Square df	19
PR> Chi-Square	<.0001

Table 3.19 (Continued)

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM TWO FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Independence Model Chi-Square	1618.9
Independence Model Chi-Square df	28
Root Mean Square Estimate A	.0831
RMSEA 90% Lower Confidence limit	.0648
RMSEA 90% Upper Confidence limit	.1022
ECVI Estimate	.2455
ECVI 90% Lower Confidence Limit	.1939
ECVI 90% Upper Confidence Limit	.3135
Probability of Close Fit	.0019
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (BCFI)	.9614
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	72.4789
Akaike's Information Criterion	42.4687
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-55.4332
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-36.4332
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	.9367
Bentler & Bonnett's (1980) Non-Normed Index	.9431
Bentler & Bonnett's NFI (BBNFI)	.9503
Maems, Mulaik, & Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.6448
Z-Test of Wilson & Hilferty (1931)	5.8218
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rhoi (BNIR)	.9267
Bollen (1988) Non-Normed Index Delta2	.9616
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	177

Based on the results reflected above, the portability of the Organizational Citizenship Behavior scale developed by Podsakoff, et al., (1990) is questionable as the same five-factor structure could not be found in the present study. Only a two-factor structure was found. This two-factor

structure as represented in Table 3.18 was used for further analyses in order to answer the research questions.

The indices in Table 3.19 were interpreted as representing a good fit between the two-factor structure and the data.

(v) Determining the psychometric qualities: Rahim Organisational Conflict Inventory

The Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory was used to measure the styles of handling interpersonal conflict . This questionnaire comprises of 28 items measuring 5 independent dimensions of styles of handling interpersonal conflict (Rahim, 1997). The five styles, as described in Chapter 2, are:

- Integration;
- Obliging;
- Dominating;
- Avoidance; and
- Compromising.

The structure and internal reliability of this measuring instrument (i.e. ROCI-II) was revalidated – as in the case with all the other constructs and measuring instruments used in this study - by means of Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

The first step was to determine the factor structure of the Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI -II) (Rahim, 1997) when applied to the responses

of the present sample. This was done to determine whether the scale measures 5 dimensions as suggested by Rahim (1997) and whether the questionnaire had acceptable construct validity and other psychometric qualities when applied to a South African sample. Exploratory Factor Analysis using the Principal Factor method and Confirmatory Factor Analysis by means of the SAS programme with Direct Quartimin Rotation was carried out on the responses of the total sample ($n = 469$) to the responses in the questionnaire.

In the Exploratory Factor Analysis (specifying a five factor solution) of the responses to the 28 items in the Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory five Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 were yielded. Once again a Scree test was applied to identify clear breaks between the Eigenvalues ≥ 1.0 . These identified breaks were taken as indications of the number of possible factors. The Eigenvalues obtained were respectively 9.76, 3.04, 2.27, 1.24, and 1.21.

As a result of this, a decision was made to explore a five-factor solution in terms of the original findings of Rahim. Exploratory Factor Analysis was carried out and a five factor structure was obtained in which 3 items (i.e. v64, v65, and v66) loaded ≥ 0.25 on factor five. These items also cross-loaded on other factors and this solution had therefore to be rejected.

As a result of this, a four-factor solution was then specified. In the first round of analysis, items v44, v45, v62 cross-loaded on more than one other factor. During the second round of analysis, specifying a four-factor solution with these items (i.e. v44, v45, and v62) deleted, a solution was yielded in which only item, v61, cross-loaded .

This item (i.e. v61) was then eliminated in a final round of Exploratory Factor analysis with a four-factor solution specified. In this four-factor solution all the items loaded satisfactorily on one of the four factors in accordance with the rules stated earlier.

The final Four-Factor solution is shown in Table 3.20.

TABLE 3.20: ROCI-11 - RESULTS OF EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (FOUR-FACTOR SOLUTION).

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
V43	I try to investigate an issue with my supervisor to find a solution acceptable to us.	<u>.734</u>	-.123	.031	.036
V46	I try to integrate my ideas with those of my supervisor to come up with a decision jointly.	<u>.739</u>	-.071	-.014	.185
V47	I try to work with my supervisor to find a solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations.	<u>.792</u>	-.086	-.039	.141
V48	I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my supervisor.	-.066	<u>.558</u>	.035	.140
V49	I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	.194	<u>.370</u>	.119	.057
V50	I use my influence my influence to get my ideas accepted.	.023	-.001	<u>.774</u>	-.015
V51	I use my authority to make a decision in my favour.	-.209	-.062	<u>.795</u>	.164
V52	I usually accommodate the wishes of my supervisor.	.284	.119	.007	<u>.562</u>
V53	I give in to the wishes of my supervisor.	.020	.152	.026	<u>.761</u>
V54	I exchange accurate information with my supervisor to solve a problem together.	<u>.694</u>	-.070	.010	.206
V55	I usually allow concessions to my supervisor.	.217	.107	.129	<u>.505</u>
V56	I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	<u>.413</u>	.150	.168	.156
V57	I negotiate with my supervisor so that a compromise can be reached.	<u>.685</u>	.125	.049	-.024
V58	I try to stay away from disagreement with my supervisor.	.003	<u>.822</u>	-.004	.008
V59	I avoid an encounter with my supervisor.	-.089	<u>.852</u>	-.022	-.030
V60	I use my expertise to make a decision in my favour.	.153	.070	<u>.484</u>	.051

Table 3.20 (Continued)

ITEM	DESCRIPTION	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4
V63	I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	<u>.572</u>	-.010	.291	-.136
V64	I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	<u>.816</u>	.035	-.061	-.152
V65	I collaborate with my supervisor to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	<u>.777</u>	.083	-.015	-.034
V66	I try to satisfy the expectations of my supervisor.	<u>.444</u>	.217	-.054	.170
V67	I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	.060	.060	<u>.617</u>	-.119
V68	I try to keep my disagreement with my supervisor to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	-.038	<u>.661</u>	.028	-.004
V69	I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my supervisor.	.112	<u>.707</u>	-.042	.011
V70	I try to work with my supervisor for a proper understanding of a problem.	<u>.732</u>	.086	-.052	.037
Eigenvalue		8.39325	2.89389	2.13572	1.20755
Percentage of total variance explained		.3306	.1024	.0696	.0330
Percentage of common variance explained		.6174	.1912	.1299	.0615

(Note: n = 469; value underlined indicates factor loadings of items selected to measure the variable)

As reflected in Table 3.20, the following items loaded satisfactorily on Factor 1: v43, v46, v47, v54, v56, v57, v63, v64, v65, v66, and v70. This factor was named **Integration** for purposes of this study. Items that loaded satisfactorily on Factor 2 are: v48, v49, v58, v59, v68, and v69. This factor was named **Avoidance** for purposes of this study. The following items loaded satisfactorily on Factor 3: v50, v51, v60, and v67. This factor is called **Dominating**. Factor 4 comprised of the following items as they loaded satisfactorily on this factor: v52, v53, and v55 and was called **Obliging** for purposes of this study.

In this solution, 53.56% of the total variance was explained by the 4 factors obtained, which respectively contained 33.06% (Factor 1),

10.24%(Factor 2), 6.96% (Factor 3) and 3.30%(Factor 4) of the total variance.

Of the common variance – as reflected in Table 3.20 – Factor 1 explained 61.74%, Factor 2 explained 19.12%, Factor 3 explained 12.99% and Factor 4 explained 6.15% respectively.

Based on the results of the Exploratory Factor Analysis specifying a four-factor solution, further analysis was done. The Four Factor solution was subjected to a Confirmatory Factor Analysis, using Proc Callis in SAS.

Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis are shown in Table 3.21.

TABLE 3.21: ROCI-11 - RESULTS OF THE CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS.

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM FOUR FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
Fit Function	0.8093
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	0.8945
Goodness of Fit Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	0.8440
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	0.0680
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	0.6979
Chi-Square (df)	379.5710 (71)
Independence Model Chi-Square (df)	3201.6 (91)
Root Mean Square Estimate A	0.0963
RMSEA 90% Lower Confidence Limit	0.0869

Table 3.21 (Continued)

INDICES OF FIT OBTAINED FROM FOUR FACTOR SOLUTION	VALUE
RMSEA 90% Upper Confidence Limit	0.1059
ECVI Estimate	0.9591
ECVI 90% Lower Confidence Limit	0.8353
ECVI 90% Upper Confidence Limit	1.0995
Probability of Close Fit	0.0000
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (BCFI)	0.9008
Normal Theory Reweighted LS Chi-Square	387.2376
Akaike's Information Criterion	237.5710
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-128.2730
Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion	-57.2730
McDonald's (1989) Centrality	0.7202
Bentler & Bonnett's Non-normed Index	0.8729
Bentler & Bonnett's NFI (BBNFI)	0.8814
James, Mulaik and Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	0.6877
Z-Test of Wilson and Hilferty (1931)	13.4360
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rhoi (BNIR)	0.8480
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	0.9014
Hoelter's (1983) Critical N	115

From Table 3.21 it is evident that a reasonable fit was found between the data and the factor structure.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

As stated in Chapter 2, the primary aim of this study is to determine how well Organizational Citizenship Behaviour, Intention to quit as well as the conflict handling style of subordinates could be predicted by means of the leadership behaviour and emotional intelligence of leaders. Furthermore, this study will also explore some causal relationships between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour of followers, their conflict handling style and strength of their intention to leave or stay with the organization of current employment.

This chapter reflects on the results of the analyses to find answers to the research questions.

The variables included in the analysis are shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Description of Different Continuous Variables as Applied in Statistical Analyses

Variable	Description
OCB1	Functional participation
OCB2	Sportsmanship
OCB T	Total OCB score (OCB1+OCB2)
L1	Leadership: Initiating structure
L2	Leadership: Consideration
K1	Conflict handling style: Integrating
K2	Conflict handling style: Avoiding
K3	Conflict handling style: Dominating
K4	Conflict handling style: Obliging
EI1	Emotional Intelligence: Vigilance
EI2	Emotional Intelligence: Motivation
EIT	Emotional Intelligence Total Score (EI1 + EI2)
Intention to quit	Respondents' estimate of likelihood of leaving organisation
V133	Total full-time work experience
V134	Total work experience with present supervisor
V135	Number of employees in organization
V136	Number of employees in work group
V137	Gender of respondent
V138	Supervisor's Gender
V139	Age of participant
V140	Age of supervisor
V141	Title of Supervisor
V142	Position of Supervisor
V143	Participant's position
V144	Supervisor's highest qualification
V145	Name of functional area of work group
V146	Participant's highest educational attainment
V147	Age of co-worker
V148	Co-worker's gender
V149	Co-worker's highest educational attainment
V150	Economic sector

To determine the inter correlations among the variables, Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients were calculated. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Pearson Product Moment Correlation between OCB sub-scales and total with psychometric factors and biographic variables on continuous scales (n=469).

Variable	OCB 1	OCB 2	OCB T	L 1	L 2	K 1	K 2	K 3	K 4	EI 1	EI 2	EI T
	Functional Participation	Sportsmanship	OCB Total	Initiating structure	Consideration	Integrating Conflict Handling style	Avoiding Conflict Handling style	Dominating Conflict Handling style	Obliging Conflict Handling style	Emotional Intelligence Vigilance	Emotional Intelligence Motivation	Emotional Intelligence Total
OCB1	1.000											
OCB2	-.12 .01	1.000										
OCBT	0.95 .0001	.19 .0001	1.000									
L1	.40 .0001	-.02 .61	.39 .0001	1.000								
L2	.32 .0001	-.04 .44	.30 .0001	.73 .0001	1.000							
K1	.56 .0001	.08 .08	.57 .0001	.41 .0001	.42 .0001	1.000						
K2	.27 .0001	.19 .0001	.33 .0001	.11 .02	.04 .37	.38 .0001	1.000					
K3	.20 .0001	.21 .0001	.26 .0001	.02 .69	.08 .08	.29 .0001	.26 .0001	1.000				
K4	.40 .0001	.18 .0001	.45 .0001	.28 .0001	.23 .0001	.57 .0001	.52 .0001	.28 .0001	1.000			
EI1	.50 .0001	-.03 .58	.48 .0001	.69 .0001	.62 .0001	.65 .0001	.20 .0001	.10 .03	.42 .0001	1.000		
EI2	.33 .0001	-.11 .81	.32 .0001	.44 .0001	.63 .0001	.48 .0001	.18 .0001	.13 .00	.33 .0001	.68 .0001	1.000	
EIT	.48 .0001	-.02 .61	.47 .0001	.67 .0001	.67 .0001	.65 .0001	.21 .01	.12 .01	.42 .0001	.98 .0001	.82 .0001	1.000

Table 4.2 (Continued)

Variable	OCB 1	OCB 2	OCB T	L 1	L 2	K 1	K 2	K 3	K 4	EI 1	EI 2	EI T
	Functional Participation	Sportsmanship	OCB Total	Initiating structure	Consideration	Integrating Conflict Handling style	Avoiding Conflict Handling style	Dominating Conflict Handling style	Obliging Conflict Handling style	Emotional Intelligence Vigilance	Emotional Intelligence Motivation	Emotional Intelligence Total
V133	.02 .64	.05 .27	.04 .42	-.00 .94	-.03 .46	.05 .26	-.02 .67	.05 .26	-.02 .64	-.02 .60	-.02 .60	-.03 .58
V134	.04 .45	.04 .44	.05 .32	-.03 .53	-.02 .60	-.01 .79	.03 .57	.02 .74	.00 .95	-.03 .57	-.03 .56	-.03 .54
V135	-.26 .0001	-.02 .63	-.26 .0001	-.11 .02	-.14 .00	-.34 .0001	-.09 .05	-.01 .77	-.17 .0001	-.24 .0001	-.18 .0001	-.24 .0001
V136	-.36 .0001	-.05 .32	-.37 .0001	-.20 .0001	-.21 .0001	-.38 .0001	-.23 .0001	-.10 .03	-.28 .0001	-.33 .0001	-.23 .0001	-.32 .0001
V139	.00 .94	.01 .90	.01 .91	-.05 .30	-.08 .074	-.03 .52	-.04 .42	.04 .40	-.04 .36	-.07 .14	-.04 .43	-.06 .16
V140	-.07 .14	-.01 .85	-.07 .13	-.15 .00	-.08 .07	-.06 .21	-.06 .20	.12 .01	-.05 .24	-.09 .05	-.01 .84	-.07 .11
V147	-.02 .61	.02 .60	-.02 .73	-.04 .42	-.04 .35	-.05 .27	-.08 .08	.10 .03	-.07 .16	-.09 .05	-.06 .16	-.09 .05

With $n=469$ most of the inter-correlations are statistically significant. These findings therefore have to be interpreted with caution. The common variances between OCB variables and biographic/psychometric variables were processed to 100 r^2 . Only relationships between OCB variables and continuously scaled variables above .25 are summarized in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Common variance between OCB and different psychometric and biographic scales (n=469).

Common Variance 100r ²	Psychometric scales		
	OCB 1 Functional Participation	OCB 2 Sportsmanship	OCB Total Score
6.25-10.00	K2, V135		L2, K3, V135
6.25-10.00	L2, EI2, V136		L1, K2, EI2, V136
15.10-20.00	L1, K4		L2, K3, E2
20.10-25.00	EI1, EI T		K4, EI1, EI T
25.10-30.00			
30.10-35.00	K1		K1
35.10-40.00			

The results shown in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 seem to form a discernable pattern. Organizational Citizenship behaviour of co-workers of the respondents was, in the form of Functional Participation (OCB1), related to several of the psychometrically measured variables. Only two biographic variables were substantially related to OCB 1. The same pattern seems to exist with regard to the inter-correlations between the total OCB score and other variables. On the other hand no substantial relationships between OCB 2 and the other variables were found. The relatively high correlations between a number of the variables in the study is also clear from the information in Table 4.2.

To determine the relative ability of the different psychometric variables to predict the level of OCB, Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was carried out. The prediction model with OCB1 (Functional Participation) as dependent variable is shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Results of Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis with OCB1(Functional Participation) as dependent variable (n=469)

Variable entered	F(df)	p	R ²	100R ²
K1	208.37 (1:469)	<.0001	.3081	30.81
L1	25.68 (2:468)	<.0001	.3441	34.41
K4	6.31 (3:467)	.0123	.3529	35.29

When the same analysis was carried out with OCB2 as dependent variable, the results shown in Table 4.5 were obtained.

Table 4.5: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with OCB2 (Sportsmanship) as dependent variable (n=469)

Variable entered	F(df)	p	R ²	100R ²
K3	21.94 (1:469)	<.0001	.0448	4.48
K2	10.20 (2:468)	<.0015	.0652	6.52

From Tables 4.4 and 4.5 it can be seen that the prediction of OCB1 was at a higher level than that for OCB2 (35.29% common variance in Table 4.4 versus 6.52% common variance in Table 4.5). The results of the Stepwise Multiple Regressions analyses with OCB total as dependent variable is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis with OCB Total as dependent variable (n=469)

Variable entered	F(df)	p	R ²	100R ²
K1	230.06 (1:469)	<.0001	.3296	32.96
K4	20.73 (2:468)	<.0001	.3581	35.81
L1	15.18 (3: 467)	.0001	.3783	37.83
K3	7.59 (4: 466)	.0061	.3883	38.83

From Table 4.6 it can be seen that conflict style variables (i.e. K1 and K4) made the major contribution towards predicting the total score on the OCB scale. The K1 (Integrating) style of handling interpersonal conflict contributed by far the largest part of the total common variance.

In view of the results obtained, it was decided to build some causal models to be tested by means of the Structural Equations modelling approach. The models were built empirically as well as theoretically. Available knowledge about relationships among the variables, gained from existing academic literature was principally used. The causal models that were developed are reflected in Chapter Two. The models tested were the same as in Chapter 2, with deletion of the Intention to Quit variable. The Intention to Quit items were left out of further analyses as the other variables in the models did not correlate highly enough with Intention to Quit (See Table 4.8, p. 185).

The indices obtained from the Structural Equations Analysis, carried out by means of Proc Callis in SAS are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Indices obtained from Structural Equations Analyses

Index	Model			
	1	2	3	4
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	.9385	.9240	.8669	.9052
Goodness of Fit Adjusted for Degrees of Freedom (AGFI)	.9155	.8966	.8316	.8778
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR)	.1013	.1076	.1321	.2093
Parsimonious GFI (Mulaik, 1989)	.7743	.7700	.7574	.7765
Chi-Square (df)	242.30(99)	302.65(100)	771.31(166)	485.62(163)
Independence Model Chi-Square (df)	6185.8(120)	6185.8(120)	7700.1(190)	7700.1(190)
RMSEA	.0556	.0657	.0882	.0650
RMSEA 90% range	.0467-.0645	.0573-.0743	.0819-.0945	.0583-.0717
ECVI Estimate	.6804	.8046	1.8410	1.2452
ECVI 90% range	.59-.7877	.6998-.9263	1.6616-2.0373	1.1101-1.3975
Bentler's Comparative Fit Index (BCFI)	.9764	.9666	.9194	.9570
Akaike's Information Criterion	44.31	102.65	439.31	159.62
Bozdogan's (1987) CAIC	-465.82	-412.62	-416.04	-680.28
RNI	.9764	.9666	.9194	.9570
Bentler & Bonnett's Non-normed Index	.9714	.9599	.9077	.9499
Bentler & Bonnett's NFI (BBNFI)	.9608	.9511	.8998	.9369
James, Mulaik and Brett (1982) Parsimonious NFI	.7927	.7926	.7862	.8038
Bollen (1986) Normed Index Rhoi (BNIRhoi)	.9525	.9413	.8853	.9265
Bollen (1988) Non-normed Index Delta2	.9765	.9667	.9197	.9572

The indices in Table 4.7 all seem to indicate a reasonable fit between the models tested and the data. However, the first model seems to represent the best fit with the data. The values of RMR seem to be the one indication that an entirely good fit between model one and the data was not obtained.

During the second phase of the data analyses, the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence variables as independent and

intention to quit of subordinates as dependent variable was examined. The Product-Moment correlation coefficients are shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Correlation coefficients between Intention to Quit and other variables (n=469).

Variable	Intention to Quit
OCB1	-.24
OCB2	.02
OCB T	-.20
L1	-.40
L2	-.35
K1	-.25
K2	-.05
K3	-.05
K4	-.11
EI 1	-.35
EI 2	-.24
EI T	-.34

Most of the correlation coefficients in Table 4.8 are significant and in the expected direction. Statistically, only the correlations between Intention to Quit and OCB 2, Conflict Handling style 2 and Conflict Handling style 3 are not significant. Product-moment correlation is, however, not robust against large samples as with $n=100$ a correlation coefficient of .18 will already be statistically significant. With $n=469$, as in the present study, correlation coefficients indicating a common variance as low as 1% between two variables will be statistically significant. To get a clearer picture of the relationships between the variables, Table 4.9 was constructed.

Table 4.9: Common variance between Intention to Quit and other variables (n=469)

Percentage common variance(with Intention to quit) 100r ²	Variables in group	
	Psychometric scales	Biographic
0-5.5	K2, K3, K4, OCB2, OCBT	V133, V134, V135, V136, V139, V140, V147
5.6-10.5	K1, E2, OCB1	
10.6-15.5	L2, EI1, EIT	
15.6-20.5	L1	

Stepwise Regression Analysis was carried out to determine how well Intention to Quit could be predicted by the other variables. The result of this analysis is shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10: Results of Multiple Regression analysis with Intention to Quit as dependent variable

Variable entered	F(df)	p	R ²	100R ²
L1	87.83(1:469)	.0001	.1580	15.80
K1	13.73(1:468)	.0002	.1821	18.21

From Table 4.10 it is evident that the greatest part of the prediction was made by Leadership (Initiating structure – L1). The percentage of common variance between the dependent and the predictor variables

tends to be minimally lower than was the case when OCB scores were predicted.

Stepwise Regression Analysis was also carried out to determine how well conflict handling styles of subordinates could be predicted by the other variables. The results of this analysis is shown in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Results of Multiple Regression analysis with Conflict handling style of subordinates as dependent variable

Variable entered	F(df)	p	Partial R ²	R ²	100R ²
K1: Integrating					
EI1	345.71(1:468)	<.0001	.4249	.4249	42.49
OCB1	66.44 (2:467)	<.0001	.0716	.4965	49.65
OCB2	16.80(3:466)	<.0001	.0175	.5140	51.40
L1	7.50(4:465)	.0064	.0077	.5217	52.17
V130	4.69 (5:464)	.0308	.0048	.5265	52.65
L2	3.93 (6:463)	.0479	.0040	.5305	53.05
K2: Avoiding					
OCB1	37.05 (1:468)	<.0001	.0734	.0734	7.34
OCB2	27.44 (2:467)	<.0001	.0514	.1248	12.48
EI2	4.52 (3:466)	.0341	.0084	.1332	13.32
L2	8.56 (4:465)	.0036	.0157	.1489	14.89
K3: Dominating					
OCB1	21.94(1:468)	<.0001	.0448	.0448	4.48
OCB2	26.87(2:467)	<.0001	.0520	.0968	9.68
K4: Obliging					
EI1	101.14 (1:468)	<.0001	.1777	.1777	17.17
OCB1	30.45(2:467)	<.0001	.0503	.2280	22.80
OCB2	29.93(3:466)	<.0001	.0466	.2746	27.46

From Table 4.11 it can be seen that Emotional Intelligence of leaders (i.e. EI1 – Vigilance) made the major contribution towards predicting the conflict handling style of subordinates, and more specifically the Integrating conflict handling style. More information on this relationship is provided in paragraph 2.2 of Chapter 5.

The implications of the present findings are discussed in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

As stated in Chapter 1 the primary purpose of the present study was to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and a number of other constructs often seen in the literature on Organizational Behaviour. More specifically the aim of this study was to determine whether relationships exist between the emotional intelligence of leaders, their leadership styles and the organizational citizenship behavior, conflict handling and intention to quit of their followers/subordinates. A further aim of this study was to explore some **causal relationships** between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership style and the organizational citizenship behaviour of followers, their conflict handling style and strength of their intention to leave or stay with the organization of current employment.

In this final chapter the major findings of the study will be discussed. Thereafter the limitations and contributions of the present study will be reflected upon and recommendations will be made for future research.

In the process of addressing the research objectives as stated in Chapter One and Two, it was deemed necessary and beneficial to firstly examine the measuring instruments with regard to their construct validity and

internal consistency. A quite striking result from these analyses was that the finally accepted factor structure of not one of the measuring instruments applied in the present sample matched the original structure as found by the authors/developers of the measuring instruments. It was therefore decided that in all cases the factor pattern as determined on the responses of the present sample would be used in further analyses of the data.

5.2. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSTRUCTS USED IN THIS STUDY

The first research objective enquires into the relationship between emotional intelligence and the other variables as applied in the present study.

5.2.1. The relationship between leaders' Emotional Intelligence and leadership behaviour

From Table 4.2 (page 179-180) it can be seen that correlations obtained between the sub-scale scores for leadership behaviour and leaders' emotional intelligence sub-scales were conceptually significant at the 95% confidence level ($p < .0001$). It is evident that the leadership behaviour dimensions, L1: Initiating structure and L2: Consideration – as derived – correlated significantly with the Emotional Intelligence dimensions for leaders, EI1: Vigilance and EI2: Motivation in this study. The strong relationship between the Initiating of structure sub-scale in the Ekvall and Arvonen instrument and both the Emotional Intelligence sub-scales, i.e. Vigilance ($r = .69$) and Motivation ($r = .44$), is a useful finding. A

significantly strong relationship was also obtained between the leadership sub-scale: Consideration and the two Emotional Intelligence sub-scales (Vigilance, $r=.62$; Motivation, $r=.63$). The correlation between the total emotional intelligence score and L1(Initiating structure) and L2(Consideration) was both $.67$.

From these results it seems as if the participants' perceptions of their leaders' behaviour (i.e. the level of consideration and initiating structure displayed) are quite strongly related to their views of the level of emotional intelligence displayed by their leaders. It is thus evident that the respondents (i.e. subordinates) in this study perceived these variables to share considerable common variance.

The significant relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership behaviour as found in this study, is in agreement with previous findings that showed a direct relationship between the two constructs. Lourens (2001) investigated the perceived (by their subordinates) leadership styles of leaders/managers as identified by the three-dimensional model of Ekvall (1991) and the perceived Emotional Intelligence behaviours of leaders/managers as measured by the Emotional Intelligence scale of Rahim (2002). He found that employee-centred leadership behaviour was significantly related to the emotional intelligence dimensions for the leader. The highest common variance was for the relationship with empathy (56.1%), followed by self-regulation (40.6%), self-motivation (34%) and finally, self-awareness (30.7%). He further found that change-centred leadership behaviour was strongly related to the self-motivation and empathy sub-scales and related to the self-awareness Emotional Intelligence sub-scale for the leader. The

common variances were 62.4%, 23.3% and 17.6% respectively. The production-centred leadership behaviour sub-scale was related to the self-motivation Emotional Intelligence sub-scale for the leader (common variance 19.6%). Lourens (2001) therefore found that the participants' perceptions of the level of employee orientation of their leaders were quite strongly related to their views of the level of emotional intelligence displayed by their leaders.

The present study could not find the same factor structure for the three-dimensional leadership behaviour model as was found by Lourens (2001) in a South African context and also the CPE model in Scandinavian countries by Ekvall (1991), Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994), Linden and Rosenquist (1992) and Skogstad and Einarson (1999). The present study found no empirical proof for the third dimensions of leadership, i.e. Change-centred leadership; hence no proof of a relationship between the leaders' emotional intelligence and their change-oriented leadership behaviour could be established.

However, this study did show a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and their leadership behaviour with specific reference to Consideration (i.e. people oriented behaviour) and Initiating of structure (i.e. production-oriented behaviour). No further evidence in the literature could be found where the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and the three-dimensional leadership behaviour model of Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994) was investigated.

Various other studies investigated the relationship between leadership behaviour and emotional intelligence. However, the focus of such studies

was on the relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and emotional intelligence. These studies (i.e. Barling, et al., 2000; Palmer, et al., 2001; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002; Megerian & Sosik, 1999) all found a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and their transformational leadership behaviour.

Examining leadership styles and emotional intelligence of 49 managers, Barling et al. (2000) concluded that 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). Palmer, et al. (2001) also found significant correlations between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Gardner and Stough (2002) furthermore found that emotional intelligence correlated highly with all the components of transformational leadership, with the components of understanding of emotions and emotional management the best predictors of this type of leadership style.

5.2.2. The relationship between Emotional Intelligence of leaders and the self-perceived conflict handling styles of subordinates.

From Table 4.2 it is evident that the emotional intelligence of leaders as seen by subordinates/followers and the self-perceived conflict handling styles of subordinates/followers seem to be related in the case of the Integrating and Obliging conflict handling styles and both the emotional intelligence sub-scales. The Integrating and Obliging sub-scales respectively correlated .65 and .42 with the total EI score. The

relationships are in the expected direction and seem to be intuitively understandable. It seems possible that high motivation and vigilance with regard to emotions on the part of leaders can quite possibly contribute to an Integrating (K1) conflict handling style as well as to an Obliging (K4) style of handling interpersonal conflict in their followers.

The relationship between the Emotional Intelligence of leaders and their subordinates'/followers' conflict handling behaviour have not been investigated previously, as far as could be established. However, it seems as though subordinates'/followers' perceptions of their leader's level of emotional intelligence impact on their conflict handling behaviour.

Mayer and Geher (1996) noted that the self-awareness aspect of Emotional Intelligence allows individuals to connect emotions, thoughts and actions. Results of a study conducted by Sosik and Megerian (1999) suggested that self-awareness might support a leader's translation of purpose and meaning in life into invigorating challenges for followers. Such translation of thoughts into action may enhance ratings of transformational leadership behaviour by followers. In addition, they found that self-awareness might help leaders to better "hear" the emotional implications of their own thoughts and the feelings of others'. It is thus possible that an emotional understanding of one's own and others feelings could be a central aspect of the motivational mechanism of leadership. This aspect was also confirmed by other studies such as Bass (1998), Ross and Offerman (1997) and Shamir (1999). According to Salovey and Sluyter (1997), self-awareness promotes a sense of personal control and efficacy.

It is therefore possible that the emotional intelligence of leaders may have positive relationship with the conflict handling style of subordinates. In the present study, it is evident that the emotional intelligence of leaders have a positive relationship with subordinates obliging and integrating styles of handling interpersonal conflict.

5.2.3. The relationship between Emotional Intelligence of leaders and Organizational Citizenship Behaviour of subordinates.

As indicated in Table 4.2, both the leaders' emotional intelligence sub-scales correlated at significant levels with one of the OCB sub-scales, i.e. Functional participation as perceived by subordinates. The two emotional intelligence dimensions for leaders, i.e. Vigilance and Motivation respectively correlated .50 and .33 with the OCB sub-scale: Functional participation. With the total OCB score, the two emotional intelligence sub-scales yielded a correlation coefficient of $r=.48$ (Vigilance) and $r=.32$ (Motivation) respectively.

It is thus evident from these results that leaders' emotional intelligence as perceived by their followers/subordinates plays a significant role in the OCB of subordinates with specific reference to the Functional participation of subordinates or vice versa. Results obtained in the present study also indicate a non-significant relationship between both sub-scales of the leaders' Emotional Intelligence and the Sportsmanship behaviour of subordinates (as one of the dimensions of the OCB).

This finding is important in that it implies that subordinates do not perceive the leaders' behaviour of Consideration and Initiating structure to

be conceptually significantly related to the functional participation of subordinates (as perceived by other subordinates).

5.2.4. The relationship between leadership and the conflict handling style of subordinates

Possible relationships between leadership as measured through the Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994) questionnaire and the conflict handling styles of subordinates, using the ROIC-11 measuring instrument were also investigated. The relationship between these two constructs was investigated through the application of the statistical procedure of determining the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients.

The two leadership behaviour dimensions, identified in the present study, showed a statistically significant relationship with only the Integrating style of conflict handling. The leadership behaviour dimension, Initiating structure, correlated .41 with the conflict handling style, Integrating. The second sub-scale of leadership, i.e. Consideration, correlated .42 with the Integrating style.

Another interesting aspect is the lack of a statistically significant relationship between leadership and the other conflict handling styles of subordinates as measured in this study. The reasons for this finding are not clear and might warrant further research. The present results may, however, be interpreted that a possibly causal relationship exists between the behaviour of a leader and the conflict handling style of his/her subordinates.

5.3. MULTIPLE PREDICTION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITITENSHIP BEHAVIOUR, INTENTION TO QUIT AND CONFLICT HANDLING STYLE OF SUBORDINATES.

In line with the objectives of this study, it was also the aim of the present study to determine how well Organisational Citizenship Behaviour and Intention to quit as well as the Conflict handling style of subordinates could be predicted by means of leadership style, and the emotional intelligence of leaders. This information was used to determine whether a causal model could be built to represent the relationships among the variables included in the study.

The Multiple Regression analysis indicated that the emotional intelligence sub-scales scores played a minor role in the prediction of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour. This is an unexpected result compared to Goleman's (1998) views about the centrality of emotional intelligence in organizational life. It seems as if leaders' emotional intelligence as perceived by subordinates is less strongly related in a unique way to OCB than the interpersonal conflict handling styles of subordinates as seen by themselves. In summary it can be said that the common variance between the conflict handling style of subordinates and their perception of the level of OCB of their colleagues seems to be quite unique when compared (by means of multiple regression) with the relationship between emotional intelligence of leaders and the OCB of followers (subordinates).

Models of the relationships among the variables were built by studying the results of previous as well as the present study. It seems as if the model, in which emotional intelligence is depicted as a causal variable influencing

- through leadership behaviour – organizational citizenship behaviour and the integrating style of handling interpersonal conflict represented a good fit with the data. These results seem to provide some structure for thinking about the relationships among the variables and can possibly serve as frames of reference in future studies.

5.4. CONTRIBUTIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THIS STUDY

Recently an increasing number of researchers such as Goleman (1998; 2000), Langley (2000), Tucker, Sohka, Barone and McCarthy (2000) have argued that emotional intelligence is a core variable that affects the performance of leaders. This notion was also supported by Wong and Law (2003). Despite these claims and much interest in relating emotional intelligence to effective leadership behaviour, there has been little research published that explicitly examined this relationship.

The present study contributed some understanding of the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership behaviour (in terms of initiating structure and consideration) as perceived by their subordinates/followers. As regards leadership behaviour, no support could be found in this study for the existence of a third leadership dimension (i.e. Change orientation) as identified in the CPE model of Ekvall and Arvonen (1991; 1994). This is in contrast to the finding of Lourens (2001) who found empirical evidence of the existence of this third leadership dimension in a South African context. However, in the present study a statistically significant relationship was found between leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership behaviour (i.e. both

Consideration and Initiating structure) as perceived by their subordinates/followers.

A further contribution was made in this exploratory study in that the relationship(s) between leaders' emotional intelligence, their leadership behaviour and the organizational citizenship behaviour, conflict handling style and intention to quit of their followers was investigated in one study. Most of these constructs have been researched, either individually or in relation with one another in separate investigations. However, these constructs and their relationship with one another have – as far as it could be ascertained – not been researched in one study before.

Models of the relationships among the variables were built by studying the results of previous as well as the present study. The results suggest that the model in which emotional intelligence is depicted as a causal variable influencing – through leadership behaviour – organizational citizenship behaviour and the integrating style of handling conflict represented a good fit with the data. These results seem to provide some structure for thinking about the relationships among the variables and can possibly serve as frames of reference in futures studies.

Emotional Intelligence has caught the imagination of the general public, the business world, and the scientific community. Despite the high promise offered by emotional intelligence in the literature, and the many claims in this regard made by both scientists and popular writers, questions still exist as to what "emotional intelligence" really means. Without a clear conception of what emotional intelligence means, it is difficult to judge whether existing measures assess Emotional intelligence

or perhaps some other constellation of psychological constructs. In this regard some theorists conceptualise Emotional Intelligence as a well-defined set of emotion-processing skills (e.g. Mayer, Salovey, et al., 2000). Others adopt a broader definition encompassing multiple aspects of personal functioning that are more loosely related to emotion (e.g. Goleman, 1997; Bar-On, 1997). Unfortunately both approaches appear to lack a firm foundation in the existing research literature on both intelligence and emotion. Matthews, et al. (2000, p. 539) in this regard concur by saying that "... in general, the significance of emotional intelligence for applied psychology is very limited. The root problem is that emotional intelligence is too generalized a construct to be useful". They continue by saying "... there is not one single study that shows that emotional intelligence predicts occupational success/performance above (and beyond) that predicted IQ" (p. 540).

In a study conducted by Kobe, et al. (2001) both emotional intelligence and social intelligence separately accounted for variance in leadership experiences. However, social intelligence accounted for a larger proportion of the variance in leadership experiences than did emotional intelligence. This finding suggested that social intelligence might be a primary component of leadership. In this regard Mayer and Salovey (1990) and Salovey and Mayer (1993) asserted that social intelligence is a broader construct that subsumes emotional intelligence.

In the present study, the relative influence of Emotional Intelligence on the OCB of subordinates, their conflict handling styles and intention to quit, was also disappointing. This leaves the questions as to whether the current focus/hype on Emotional Intelligence

is really worth its while or whether it is simply a matter of – in a proverbial sense – “putting old wine in a new bottle”.

The measurement problem with regard to emotional intelligence and what the construct encompasses has recently been further investigated by Gardner & Stough (2002). Emotional Intelligence was measured by a recently developed measure of workplace emotional intelligence, The Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) (Palmer and Stough, 2001). The SUEIT is a self-report instrument specifically designed for use in the workplace, which indexes individuals' perceptions of the way they feel, think and act at work, with emotions, and on the basis of emotional intelligence (Gardner & Stough, 2002). The SUEIT was developed from a large factor analytic study involving the factors from six other emotional intelligence scales. Five factors accounted for 58 percent of the variance and thus provide the framework for the SUEIT: emotional recognition and expression (in oneself), emotions direct cognition, understanding of emotions external, emotional management and emotional control.

The SUEIT brought more clarity on the contents of the construct: Emotional Intelligence. This measuring instrument developed by the Swisburne group should probably be used in future studies.

A further limitation of the present study is that the study was limited. It was done on a South African sample of convenience. An attempt was made to limit mono-rator bias, response set and the effect of the mono method approach. The degree of success achieved in this is very difficult to assess. The poor portability of the measuring instruments and the

limited range of measurement of the constructs resulting from this, is a shortcoming, but also a warning to researchers working inter-culturally to take care when instruments developed in one culture is used in a different country. Despite these limitations this study demonstrated that the inter-relationship between various constructs can be researched in one study, thus providing a holistic overview to the reader.

5.5. RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The results of the present study should be cross-validated in South Africa as well as in other countries. It seems as if the result of the present study give only limited, and somewhat contradictory information on the role of emotional intelligence in organizations. Further exploration of this phenomenon is needed.

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APPENDIX

STUDY OF REACTION TO LIFE IN ORGANISATIONS

A research project undertaken by the University of Pretoria

Responsible researchers

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Dear Sir or Madam

We are humbly asking for your co-operation in a major research programme on employees' reaction to life in organisations. This research program is simultaneously carried out in ten different countries over the world. You can help us to execute the South African part of the project by completing the attached questionnaire.

Completion of the questionnaire is obviously voluntary but your help will be highly appreciated and is essential for the successful execution of the project. There are no right or wrong answers. The "right" answer is the one that represents your feelings or behaviour accurately. Please be honest to give a true reflection of how you feel and act. Please answer every question, as the omission of one answer will make the total questionnaire useless.

We guarantee confidential treatment of all responses. Completed questionnaires will be destroyed after the data has been entered into the computer. Responses will only be seen by the researchers whose names are listed on the front page.

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Please turn to the next page and respond to the statements according to the instructions and scales provide

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY						
1 Respondent number		V1	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table> 1 - 3			
2 Card number		V2	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table> 4			

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Section I. In this section we are interested in how you perceive your supervisor. Please indicate by checking the appropriate box the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements.

My Supervisor:	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	For office use
1. Keeps his or her distressing emotions in check.	7	1	V3 5
2. Helps others feel better when they are down.	7	1	V4 6
3. Accepts rapid change to attain the goals of his or her group/organisation.	7	1	V5 7
4. Keeps his or her anger in check.	7	1	V6 8
5. Is well aware of which emotions he or she is experiencing and why.	7	1	V7 9
6. Understands why people feel the way they do.	7	1	V8 10
7. Is well aware of the effects of his or her feelings on others.	7	1	V9 11
8. Is well aware of his or her moods.	7	1	V10 12
9. Confronts problems without demeaning those who work with him or her.	7	1	V11 13
10. Does not allow the negative feelings of others to inhibit collaboration.	7	1	V12 14
11. Sets aside emotions in order to complete the task at hand.	7	1	V13 15
12. Is well aware of his or her impulses.	7	1	V14 16
13. Recognise the political realities of the organisation.	7	1	V15 17
14. Is well aware of the non-verbal messages he or she sends to others.	7	1	V16 18
15. Provides emotional support to people during stressful conditions.	7	1	V17 19
16. Understands the feelings transmitted through non-verbal messages.	7	1	V18 20
17. Remains calm in potentially volatile situations.	7	1	V19 21
18. Keep his or her disruptive impulses in check.	7	1	V20 22
19. Has strong drive to attain organisational goals.	7	1	V21 23
20. Has high motivation to set and attain challenging goals.	7	1	V22 24
21. Maintains composure irrespective of his or her emotions.	7	1	V23 25
22. Understands the links between employees' emotions and what they do.	7	1	V24 26
23. Takes responsibility for his or her performance.	7	1	V25 27
24. Does not allow his or her own negative feelings to inhibit collaboration.	7	1	V26 28
25. Inspires and guides employees to improve their job performance.	7	1	V27 29

My Supervisor:	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree				For office use		
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
26. Is well aware of his or her capabilities.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V28	30
27. Understands the emotional cues from others.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V29	31
28. Is well aware of how his or her gut feelings influence decisions.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V30	32
29. Handles emotional conflicts with tact and diplomacy.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V31	33
30. Operates from hope of success rather than fear of failure.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V32	34
31. Stays focused on goals despite setbacks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V33	35
32. Manages task-related conflicts effectively.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V34	36
33. Is well aware of his or her limitations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V35	37
34. Stays positive and generates innovative solutions to problems.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V36	38
35. Does not hesitate to make sacrifices to achieve important organisational goals.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V37	39
36. Manages his or her stress well.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V38	40
37. Is self-disciplined and does the right thing even when it is unpopular.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V39	41
38. Provides useful and timely feedback.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V40	42
39. Seeks fresh ideas from a variety of sources.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V41	43
40. Understands the feelings transmitted through verbal messages.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V42	44

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Section II. Please check the appropriate box after each statement, to indicate *how you handle your disagreement or conflict with your supervisor*. Try to recall as many recent conflict situations as possible in reacting to these statements.

	Strongly Agree		Strongly Disagree				For office use		
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
1. I try to investigate an issue with my supervisor to find a solution acceptable to us.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V43	45
2. I generally try to satisfy the needs of my supervisor	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V44	46
3. I attempt to avoid being "put on the spot" and try to keep my conflict with my supervisor to myself.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V45	47
4. I try to integrate my ideas with those of my supervisor to come up with a decision jointly.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V46	48
5. I try to work with my supervisor to find a solution to a problem that satisfies our expectations.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V47	49
6. I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V48	50
7. I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V49	51
8. I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V50	52
9. I use my authority to make a decision in my favour.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V51	53
10. I usually accommodate the wishes of my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V52	54

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>							<i>Strongly Disagree</i>							For office use		
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1			
11. I give in to the wishes of my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V53		55
12. I exchange accurate information with my supervisor to solve a problem together.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V54		56
13. I usually allow concessions to my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V55		57
14. I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V56		58
15. I negotiate with my supervisor so that a compromise can be reached.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V57		59
16. I try to stay away from disagreement with my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V58		60
17. I avoid an encounter with my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V59		61
18. I use my expertise to make a decision in my favour.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V60		62
19. I often go along with the suggestions of my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V61		63
20. I use "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V62		64
21. I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V63		65
22. I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V64		66
23. I collaborate with my supervisor to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V65		67
24. I try to satisfy the expectations of my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V66		68
25. I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V67		69
26. I try to keep my disagreement with my supervisor to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V68		70
27. I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my supervisor.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V69		71
28. I try to work with my supervisor for a proper understanding of a problem.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1								V70		72

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1 Respondent number		V71	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table> 1 - 3				
2 Card number		V72	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table> 4				

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Section III. We ask you to provide information on the behaviour of one of your co-workers, who functions at more or less the same organisational level, and reports to the same supervisor as you do. It is important for you to know that this information will be kept strictly confidential. Think of a co-worker with whom you work and interact daily.

How long have you known him/her?years

V73			5-6
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Please indicate, by circling a number on the scale provided, the extent to which you agree/disagree with each of the following statements regarding your co-worker.

My co-worker (as identified above)	<i>Strongly Agree</i>							<i>Strongly Disagree</i>							For office use		
1. Keeps abreast of changes in the organisation	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V74		7
2. Never takes long lunches or breaks	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V75		8
3. Consults with his or her supervisor or other individuals who might be affected by his/her actions or decisions	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V76		9
4. Informs his or her supervisor before taking any important actions	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V77		10
5. Helps others who have been absent	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V78		11
6. "Keeps up" with developments in the company	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V79		12
7. Consumes a lot of time complaining about trivial matters	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V80		13
8. Takes steps to prevent problems with other employees.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V81		14
9. Is always punctual	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V82		15
10. Helps orient new people even though it is not required	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V83		16
11. Consistently talks about wanting to quit his/her job	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V84		17
12. Always focuses on what's wrong with his/her situation, rather than the positive side of it	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V85		18
13. Attends functions that are not required, but that help the company image	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V86		19
14. Tends to make "mountains out of molehills" (makes problems bigger than they are).	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V87		20

My co-worker	<i>Strongly Agree</i>				<i>Strongly Disagree</i>				For office use		
	7	6	5	4	3	2	1				
15. Does not abuse the rights of others	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V88		21	
16. Does not take extra breaks	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V89		22	
17. Helps others who have heavy workloads	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V90		23	
18. Attends and participates in meetings regarding the organisation	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V91		24	
19. Willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work related problems	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V92		25	
20. Obeys company rules, regulations and procedures even when no one is watching	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	V93		26	

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

Seldom or never	=	1
Sometimes	=	2
Often	=	3
Most of the time	=	4

Please draw an X in the appropriate block

My Supervisor:	Seldom/ never	Some- times	Often	Most of the time	For office use		
1. Is friendly.	1	2	3	4	V94		27
2. Listens to ideas and suggestions.	1	2	3	4	V95		28
3. Creates order.	1	2	3	4	V96		29
4. Relies on his/her subordinates.	1	2	3	4	V97		30
5. Is willing to take risks in decisions.	1	2	3	4	V98		31
6. Is very clear about who is responsible for what.	1	2	3	4	V99		32
7. Has an open and honest style.	1	2	3	4	V100		33
8. Encourages thinking along new lines.	1	2	3	4	V101		34
9. Is consistent.	1	2	3	4	V102		35
10. Criticises in a constructive way.	1	2	3	4	V103		36
11. Likes to discuss new ideas.	1	2	3	4	V104		37
12. Makes a point of following rules and principles.	1	2	3	4	V105		38
13. Creates trust in other people.	1	2	3	4	V106		39
14. Gives thoughts and plans about the future.	1	2	3	4	V107		40
15. Gives information about the results of the unit.	1	2	3	4	V108		41
16. Shows appreciation for good work.	1	2	3	4	V109		42
17. Pushes for growth.	1	2	3	4	V110		43

My Supervisor:	Seldom/ never	Some- times	Often	Most of the time	For office use		
18. Sets clear goals.	1	2	3	4	V111		44
19. Is considerate.	1	2	3	4	V112		45
20. Initiates new projects.	1	2	3	4	V113		46
21. Is very exact about plans being followed.	1	2	3	4	V114		47
22. Stands up for his/her subordinates.	1	2	3	4	V115		48
23. Experiments with new ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	V116		49
24. Is controlling in his/her supervision of work.	1	2	3	4	V117		50
25. Creates an atmosphere free of conflict.	1	2	3	4	V118		51
26. Sees possibilities rather than problems.	1	2	3	4	V119		52
27. Defines and explains work requirements clearly.	1	2	3	4	V120		53
28. Is just in treating subordinates.	1	2	3	4	V121		54
29. Makes quick decisions when necessary.	1	2	3	4	V122		55
30. Plans carefully.	1	2	3	4	V123		56
31. Allows his/her subordinates to decide.	1	2	3	4	V124		57
32. Is flexible and ready to rethink his/her point of view.	1	2	3	4	V125		58
33. Gives clear instructions.	1	2	3	4	V126		59
34. Shows regard for subordinates as individuals.	1	2	3	4	V127		60
35. Offers ideas about new and different ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	V128		61
36. Analyses and thinks through issues before deciding.	1	2	3	4	V129		62

Section V. Indicate your view about your attachment to your organisation on the following scale. Mark only one alternative.

Concerning my present position:	I agree with statement:	For office use		
1. I intend to stay with my present organisation/employer until the end of my work career.	1	V130		63
2. I intend to stay with my present organisation/employer for the foreseeable future.	2			
3. I am not sure how long I would like to stay with my present organisation/employer.	3			
4. I intend to leave my present organisation/employer in the foreseeable future.	4			
5. I will soon leave my present organisation/employer.	5			

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY						
1 Respondent number		V131	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table> 1 - 3			
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		3				

Demographic information:

1. Full-time work experience (in years):
 - (a) Total _____
 - (b) With present supervisor _____
2. Number of employees in your organisation: _____ (local site only)
3. Number of members in your work group: _____
4. Your gender: Male

	1
--	---

 Female

	2
--	---
5. Your **supervisor's** gender: Male

	1
--	---

 Female

	2
--	---
6. Your age: _____
7. Your **supervisor's** age: _____
8. Your **supervisor's** title:

Owner/Entrepreneur	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr></table>	1	CEO	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr></table>	2	GM	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr></table>	3
1								
2								
3								
Department Head	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr></table>	4	Assistant Manager	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">5</td></tr></table>	5	Other	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">6</td></tr></table>	6
4								
5								
6								
9. Your **supervisor's** position by organisational level is considered to be:

Top	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr></table>	1	Middle	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr></table>	2	Lower	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr></table>	3	Non-management	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr></table>	4
1											
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10. Your position by organisational level is considered to be:

Top	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">1</td></tr></table>	1	Middle	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">2</td></tr></table>	2	Lower	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">3</td></tr></table>	3	Non-management	<table border="1" style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"><tr><td style="text-align: center;">4</td></tr></table>	4
1											
2											
3											
4											
11. Your **supervisor's** highest educational attainment (highest level only).

For office use only			
V133			5-6
V134			7-8
V135			9-14
V136			15-17
V137			18
V138			19
V139			20-21
V140			22-23
V141			24
			25
V142			
V143			26

Secondary school			1
St 10 or equivalent			2
Post-school certificate/diploma			3
National Diploma/National Higher Diploma			4
Bachelor's degree or equivalent			5
Honours degree or equivalent			6
Master's degree or equivalent			7
Doctoral degree or equivalent			8

V144			27
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12. The name of your functional area or work group:

General Management Production Marketing
 Personnel R&D Accounting & Finance
 Information Technology Others _____
 (Specify)

V145		28
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13. Your highest educational attainment (highest level only):

Secondary school		1
St 10 or equivalent		2
Post-school certificate/diploma		3
National Diploma/National Higher Diploma		4
Bachelor's degree or equivalent		5
Honours degree or equivalent		6
Master's degree or equivalent		7
Doctoral degree or equivalent		8

V146		29
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14. Your **co-worker's** age _____

V147		30-31
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15. Your co-worker's gender

V148		32
------	--	----

16. Your **co-worker's** highest educational attainment (highest level only):

Secondary school		1
St 10 or equivalent		2
Post-school certificate/diploma		3
National Diploma/National Higher Diploma		4
Bachelor's degree or equivalent		5
Honours degree or equivalent		6
Master's degree or equivalent		7
Doctoral degree or equivalent		8

V149		33
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17. The economic sector in which your organisation falls:

V150			34-35
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Primary Sector		
Agriculture, forestry and fishing		01
Mining and quarrying		02
Secondary sector		
Manufacturing		03
Electricity, gas and water		04
Construction (contractors		05
Tertiary sector		
Wholesale and retail trade, catering and accommodation		06
Transport, storage and communication		07
Financial intermediation, insurance, real estate and business services		08
Community, social and personal services		09
General government services		10
Others (please name)		11
Other producers		12

If you are interested in receiving feedback with regard to the information provided, please provide your name and address below. The results will then be sent to you:

You can, if you wish attach this slip to your questionnaire. If you prefer to keep the slip separate from the questionnaire, you can mail it to:

Prof. AB Boshoff

Study of Reaction to Life in Organisations

NRF Project

Postnet Suite no 256

Private Bag X15

MENLO PARK

0102