THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP AMONG MIDDLE MANAGERS IN NAMIBIA.

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Abstract

Looking at the need for leadership ability from a more global perspective, it is evident that organizations world-wide are undergoing changes. To remain competitive and relevant, Namibian organizations must change to survive in an increasingly globalised and hyper-turbulent global market. Effective leadership is seen as one of the elements that can alter behaviour and make change happen. This study explores the relationship between emotional intelligence traits and leadership among 148 middle managers in Namibia working in Windhoek-based organizations. Its purpose is to investigate if individual traits of emotional intelligence may give an indication of possible leadership behaviour, looking at transformational, transactional and laissez faire leadership styles. Evidence of such a link would be considerable for organizations in their quest to find talent and develop and train this talent to take on future leadership positions. Two instruments were used to collect data relevant to the study, i.e. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) measuring trait emotional intelligence; and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), measuring leadership style. A quantitative approach was followed, where emotional intelligence orientation was matched with the specific leadership style, to draw conclusions on the relationship and inter-relationship between the two constructs.

A detailed statistical analysis was performed, revealing that Namibian middle management is predominantly entrenched within the transactional leadership style. There was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and transactional leadership style. The transformational leadership style was positively related to emotional intelligence. The laissez-faire style was negatively related to emotional intelligence.
Finding, however, a lower emotional intelligence score within the Namibian sample compared to leaders elsewhere, it can be argued that efforts to improve emotional intelligence within middle management leadership will most likely improve transformational leadership abilities. Numerous opportunities are suggested to develop emotional intelligence, focusing on educational institutions, organizations and private sector as well as Government.
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Dedication

To Namibian leaders, current and future! May you embrace your own development to contribute leading our country towards Vision 2030, for the good of all Namibians.
Declarations

I, Birgit Hoffmann, declare hereby that this study is a true reflection of my own research, and that this work, or part thereof has not been submitted for a degree in any other institution of higher education.

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CHAPTER 1

1. Introduction and problem statement

This study investigates the possible relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership, in particular the relationship with transformational leadership. Whereas leadership is defined by Goleman (1998, p. 12) as “the art of persuading people to work towards a common goal”; emotional intelligence refers to “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (Goleman, 1998, p. 317).

The purpose of the study is to investigate if individual traits of emotional intelligence may give an indication of possible leadership behaviour, looking at transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles (Bass, 1985). Evidence of such a link would be considerable for organizations in their quest to find talent, which is generally suitable for the technical part of the position, and develop and train this talent to take on future leadership positions, widening the scope of skills in addition to the technical expertise (Muyia & Kacirek, 2009). All references using management/managers refer to middle management, and incorporate both male and female managers.

It is widely known that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership (Ashkanasy & Tse 1998; Barling, Moutinho & Kelloway, 2000, 2000; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003, Vrba, 2007), and that emotional intelligence can be trained and developed (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000; George,
2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Stuard & Paquet, 2001). Previous research has confirmed transformational leadership to be associated with business unit performance, as well as to dedication and commitment (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996). It has also been identified as improving subordinate contentment (Hater & Bass, 1988) and trust in leadership (Barling et al., 2000a). As these are sought-after behaviours and qualities in organizations, interest has been directed to possibilities of how this ability could be nurtured and developed (Avolio & Gibbons, 1988). Emotional intelligence was explored and identified as one of the possibilities that may predispose leaders to transformational leadership behaviours (Barling et al, 2000a). A study done by Vrba (2007) in South Africa confirmed the relationship between emotional intelligence skills and leadership ability in a South African sample. Moreover, it was found that transformational leadership and leader emotional intelligence were positively related to team commitment and trust (Schlechter & Strauss, 2008), and that emotional intelligence is positively related to transformational leadership (Barling et al., 2000a; Butler & Chinowski, 2006; Gardener & Stough, 2002; Palmer, Wallis, Burgess & Stough, 2001). In contrast to the above, Weinberger (2009) found in a recent study that there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and perceived leadership effectiveness amongst a sample of managers of a manufacturing organization in the United States. As the findings were limited to a single study in one organization in this instance, further research is needed to support this finding.
Significant change and transformation in societies in current times are well documented in management literature. To remain competitive and relevant, Namibian organizations must change to survive in an increasingly globalised and hyper-turbulent global market (e.g. the after effects of the most recent global economic crisis, the challenge of providing effective education and jobs, the call to achieve Namibia’s Vision 2030 (Government Republic of Namibia, 2004), dependence on raw materials in the face of fluctuating prices, the interface between First and Third world economies, diversity, skills shortages). Kotter (1996) states that embracing the past will become increasingly unproductive over the coming decades, and lead to stagnation and failure. Where other re-engineering processes have failed, effective leadership is seen as one of the elements that can alter behaviour and make change happen.

Looking at the need for leadership ability from a more global perspective, it is evident that organizations world-wide are undergoing changes. According to Ackermann, Scheepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2000) these changes are generally happening in the field of organizational structures, management systems and styles as well as information technology and are necessitated for survival. This is re-iterated in the Global CEO Study, Das Unternehmen der Zukunft, in which over 1300 CEO’s in Europe, Asia and America participated (Korsten et al., 2008). They indicated that they expected even more far-reaching and drastic change to happen in the world and in business in the next years. Of the participating CEO’s, over 40% indicated that they themselves were currently making large scale transformations to their companies in order to be able to
deal with the anticipated change and to prevent being taken by surprise by upcoming challenges. At the same time, the CEO’s felt that they personally were on average 22% less skilled than required to deal with the changes effectively, as the change was happening faster than what they and their companies were able to cope with and adjust to. They indicated that technology and the quality of staff (in particular qualifications, leadership and on-going development) had the biggest influence on how a company could deal with challenges and changes in order to survive. Amongst the many suggestions on how to do this, the Global CEO Study mentioned the following factors: differentiation from competitors, developing a solid business model, finding innovative ways to overcome hurdles, building leadership talent and making succession planning a priority as well as creating sustainable networks inside and outside the company. Leadership is seen to play a leading role in this regard (Korsten et al., 2008).

Independently of the CEO’s study, this sentiment was reflected in Namibia in a local business publication. It mentions that to safeguard long term sustainability, economic prosperity, peace and stability, Namibia needs effective leaders (Amupadhi, 2008, February). According to Amupadhi, veteran Namibian politician Andimba Toivo ya Toivo maintains that competent and relevant leadership is needed. Worldwide leadership in its various facets has attracted significant interest over the past decade and a lot has been published in this regard (Bass, 1985, 1998). No specific effort, however, has been undertaken to research the current Namibian scenario.
The difference between effective leaders and those that do not make a real impact stays a source of disagreement among experts. Emotions are increasingly recognized in literature as an important component of leadership, which could contribute as a way to distinguish between effective leaders and non-leaders. For example, being unable to focus on work and lack of clarity of thought sabotages the capability to pay full attention to the job at hand. Unclear thinking can contribute towards decreased outputs and eventually a decline in organizational achievement (Herbst & Maree, 2008). According to Cooper and Swarf (1997) and Wall (2008), leaders with a high degree of emotional intelligence and hence the ability to think clearly and being in tune with themselves, are vital if organizations want to achieve excellence. This poses the question whether the concept of emotional intelligence, measured as a set of traits, might provide insight into the difference between outstanding and mediocre levels of leadership (Herbst & Maree, 2008).

Emotional intelligence (EI) describes capabilities, competencies and skills required to cope with environmental requirements and forces. People need to know how to behave in a host of different situations as well as know how to lead and unite to those they work with (Wall, 2008). The “ability to use awareness of emotions to manage behaviour and relationships with others” is a definition of emotional intelligence offered by Bradberry and Greaves (2003, p. 3). It follows, that emotional intelligence is a person’s skill to exercise recognition of feelings in order to handle and conduct interactions with others.
Goleman (1998) argues that emotional intelligence is a precondition for effective leadership. According to literature, there are various explanations why individuals with high emotional intelligence levels would be more inclined to use transformational leadership behaviours, which is the leadership skill which has proven to be the most effective (Hater & Bass, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1993). These include leaders who display emotional intelligence capacities such as knowing and managing their own emotions, and those who demonstrate self-control and delay of gratification might serve as example for their subordinates, thus improving subordinates’ trust in and respect for their leaders. Being able to understand others' emotions, leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence would be well positioned to understand the degree to which subordinates' hope could be elevated, a feature of inspirational motivation. Lastly, a large facet of individualized consideration is the ability to understand followers' needs and relate to this appropriately. Emphasising empathy and the ability to manage relationships positively, leaders high in emotional intelligence should probably display individualized consideration (Barling et al., 2000a).

Burns (1978) distinguished between different forms of leadership behaviour. He identified that transactional leaders encouraged followers by engaging their self-interest, by exchanging rewards for compliance. In contrast, according to Burns (1978), transformational leaders impact their followers by being trusted, admired and respected by them, and inspiring them to do more than what is expected. It is maintained that transformational leadership is more emotion-based (Palmer, 2001) and that it engages
increased emotional levels (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994). Vrba (2007) argues that the relationship between emotional intelligence and certain leadership styles, such as transformational leadership, is stronger than compared to other leadership styles. Leader behaviour is important in the organizational situation, especially in the development of positive organizational contexts (Pina e Cunha, Campos e Cunha & Rego, 2009).

The above calls for the identification of certain leadership traits and emotional intelligence indicators, assessing the presence of those traits within a sample of the Namibian management cadre, and proving their relationship. If this is supported, identify possible gaps in individual leadership competencies and define these gaps in terms of emotional intelligence factors. It is then recommended to find possibilities in addressing them, with the view to creating additional leadership capacity.

According to the empirical research conducted by Goleman et al. (2002), emotional intelligence is a determinant of leadership in the Western European context. This research study evaluated a Namibian sample of managers in order to investigate specific relationships in the Namibian context and explore how the various subcomponents of EQ and leadership correlate. It will then offer some suggestions on managerial implications of the study, with proposals on how to utilize the research results and conclusions for the purpose of management development.
1.1 Objectives of the study

Based on the problem statement the following objectives have been formulated:

The general objective is to explore a possible relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles within middle management in Namibia.

Specific objectives are to

- conceptualise the constructs leadership and emotional intelligence (EQ) from the literature
- determine the validity and reliability of measures of emotional intelligence and leadership
- describe the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership in Namibian middle managers
- ascertain the extent to which the subscales of EQ will predict the variance of leadership styles
- make recommendations based on the research outcome to improve leaders’ overall leadership ability
- make recommendation for further research into this study

1.2 Research method

A quantitative research method is used. According to Leedy (1998), quantitative research employs variables and investigates these, as well as constructs hypotheses and tests them against reality. The approach is rather clinical and impartial, and uses a
deductive logic – either supporting or disproving a hypothesis. This study is based on a cross sectional sample design. Cross sectional design refers to an observation of a population at one point in time. With this type of sample, participants dropping out of the study do not affect the study. This sample type is good to identify associations, or describe a feature of a population, but cannot be used to ascertain cause and effect (Leedy, 1998).

1.3 Participants

The population consists of the Windhoek-based business population on middle managerial level, working in private companies, parastatals and the public sector. Participants were contacted via their organizations’ human resource department, and as participation was voluntary, this research represents a convenience or accidental sample, which according to Kerlinger (1986) is one of the most widely used sampling methods, albeit also one of its weakest forms. The nature of the participation was on a voluntary, anonymous and confidential basis. Managers were identified according to the organization specific job grading system (e.g. Peromnes, Hay) by their human resources manager, and only candidates graded on management level were considered. It was hoped to obtain sample of equal size between employees in government, parastatals and private sector. Very low participation rates were achieved by government employees and an average response rate was demonstrated by parastatals. Many organizations approached outright declined participation in this study. Participation from private companies had the highest response rate. While the anticipated sample was 200, the
actual sample of 148 un-spoilt responses was deemed a sufficiently large sample to proceed with the study. The size of the populations in Windhoek’s businesses prevented using one industry specific sample only.

1.4 Research instruments

Two instruments will be used to collect data relevant to the study, i.e. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Petrides, 2001) and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio & Bass, 2004). These instruments have been validated to measure the specific constructs under review and will be correlated to indicate a possible relationship between the two entities within the Namibian context.

The following components are measured by the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire: adaptability, assertiveness, emotion expression, emotion management (others), emotion perception (self and others), emotion regulation, impulse control, relationship skills, self-esteem, self-motivation, social competence, stress management, trait empathy, trait happiness, trait optimism (Petrides, 2001).

The individual EQ orientation measured by the TEIQue expressed in factors, namely emotionality, sociability, wellbeing and self-control will be matched with the specific leadership style measured by the MLQ expressed as transformational leadership, transactional leadership and non-leadership or laissez-faire (Avolio & Bass, 2004).
This allows amongst others to draw conclusions on the relationship and inter-relationship between the two constructs. Based on the literature review, the following research model is used:

**Total EQ score**

*Emotionality:*
- Emotion Expression
- Emotion Perception
- Relationship Skills
- Trait Empathy

*Sociability:*
- Assertiveness
- Social Competence
- Emotion Management

*Wellbeing:*
- Self-esteem
- Trait Happiness
- Trait Optimism

*Self Control*
- Emotion Regulation
- Impulse Control
- Stress Management

*Global Factors:*
- Adaptability
- Self Motivation

**Total Leadership score**

*Transformational Leadership*
- Idealised Influence (Attributes)
- Idealised Influence (Behaviours)
- Inspirational Motivation
- Intellectual Stimulation
- Individualised Consideration

*Transactional Leadership*
- Contingent Reward
- Management by Exception (Active)
- Management by Exception (Passive)

*Non-Leadership Factor*
- Laissez-Faire

The TEIQue questionnaire also obtains biographical information from the participants, of which selected information will be used for the purpose of this study.
1.5 Statistical analyses

The SPSS version 19.0 (SPSS, 2010) statistical computation programme will be used to do the statistical analysis. To establish validity, factor analysis of scales will be done to confirm underlying dimensions (Kerlinger, 1986). Exploratory factor analysis will be performed for this study, to investigate the factor structure of the TEIQue and MLQ. Initially a principal component analysis will be conducted on the constructs so that the Eigenvalues (Morgan & Griego, 1998) and Scree plot (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) could be investigated and so the correct number of factors could be extracted. Thereafter a principal axis factor analysis will be performed in order to determine factor loadings (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

To establish reliability, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient will be used. To indicate high reliability, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient should be >0.70. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient helps to indicate the proportion of variance of the items of a scale in terms of total variance of the scale (Kerlinger, 1986).

After the psychometric properties of the scales have been recognised, correlational and hierarchical regression analysis will be done to establish relationships between the variables. The data analysis will include descriptive statistics, e.g. standard deviations, means, skewness (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).
Correlation and hierarchical regression analysis will follow: Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficients will be used to specify the relationship between the variables. Effect sizes will be used to assess the practical significance of the correlation coefficients (Steyn, 1999). A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect) will be set for practical significance of correlation coefficients (Cohen, 1988). Correlational analysis establishes the relationship between the two variables. It does not indicate causality (causal ordering) due to the cross-sectional design.

Hierarchical linear regression determines the impact of the independent variables (e.g. EQ traits) on a dependent variable (e.g. transformational leadership) (Kerlinger, 1986) and will be used to determine whether emotional intelligence has an impact on leadership behaviour.

1.6 Chapters

This research study has been divided into the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement
Chapter 2: Literature review: Leadership
Chapter 3: Literature review: Emotional intelligence
Chapter 4: Empirical study
Chapter 5: Results
Chapter 6: Discussion
Chapter 7: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations
1.7 Conclusion

In the first chapter the problem statement highlights the need to improve leadership skills and explores the advantages of developing these much needed skills amongst managers. It poses the question whether a relationship exists between leadership and emotional intelligence, and allures to the possibility of using emotional intelligence to improve leadership ability. The next two chapters (chapters two and three) review the concepts of leadership and emotional intelligence, as well touching on the relationship between emotions and leadership, as depicted in literature and existing research studies. In the next chapter, the empirical study done for this particular research is described, and in chapter 5 the results are noted down. Chapter 6 is a discussion of the results obtained and the final chapter ends with a conclusion, recommendations based on the findings, as well as recommendations for further research. It also touches on the limitations of this particular study. A comprehensive list of references can be found at the end of the study.
CHAPTER 2

2. Literature review: Leadership

This chapter introduces the multifaceted concept of leadership and attempts to define and conceptualise it, based on literature. Different approaches to leadership are discussed as well as a brief history of leadership, including mention of current developments in leadership such as transformational leadership, positive leadership, authentic leadership and Ubuntu are considered. Effective leadership is imperative for leadership success, and hence a section is spent on discussing effective leadership and what leaders need to be effective. Lastly, the literature review on leadership concludes with discussing the three different leadership styles used for the purpose of this study, namely transactional leadership, transformational leadership and laissez-faire.

According to Herbst and Maree (2008), the difference between leaders and non-leaders stays a source of disagreement among experts. To get this discussion started, a short definition offered is offered, summarising leadership as “the ability to turn vision into a reality” (Alon & Higgins, 2005, p. 502).

2.1 Defining and conceptualising leadership

Leadership is a subject with very many facets and aspects. At the very essence, leadership is about understanding and managing human behaviour. Hitt (1993, p. 5) states that “leadership is generally defined as the art or process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly towards the achievement of group goals.” Groenewald
(2008) concurs by stating it is “the art of moving people and situations profitably”. Leadership is a way of persuading others rather than dictating and controlling them (Charlton, 1993; Goleman, 1995 & Locke, 1991). Accordingly, excellent leadership is about movement, where all stakeholders move towards defined outcomes.

Ilbury (2004) describes leadership as follows: “A leader is someone who emerges, especially in times of uncertainty, because they offer ways forward that others haven’t yet identified and will therefore enthusiastically follow. A great leader shows opportunity where others only see confusion and uncertainty.” (Ilbury, 2004, p. 45). It follows that leadership is a highly complex process, calling for a set of finely developed skills, as leadership mistakes and poor leadership are costly, both in terms of human and organizational costs.

Meyer (2004) considers various aspects concerning leadership, which includes the need to understand leadership within a context (e.g. spiritual, emotional, organizational and cultural) as well as a specific point in time. A host of issues are considered such as enabling ordinary people to do extraordinary things and setting them up for success, the ability to manage through exceptionally difficult times and crises, getting people involved in a goal with a specific purpose, helping people to understand the history (where they come from), current situation and the outlook and prospects (where they are going to), as well as understanding the role and influence of followers.
Moreover, leaders need to be able to value and live diversity, have non-debatable moral and ethical standards, be able to identify and build future leaders (for example by means of succession planning) as well as radiate positive energy (Meyer, 2004). According to Ilbury (2004), leadership, however, also brings along a contextual element in which leaders operate, such as the organizational and psychodynamic dimensions, which needs to be understood and navigated by the leaders. They need the ability to interpret the situation, and offer workable solutions to the situation. The achievements of leaders such as Hitler, Gandhi, Thatcher and Mandela must be seen in this light, offering solutions to challenges arising from their current circumstances.

Alon and Higgins (2005) propose that emotional intelligence, as well as cognitive intelligence (IQ) and leadership skills invariably are moderated by influences of culture, depending on where in the world one leads a group of people, and what the varying cultural differences are. This is called “cultural intelligence” (Alon & Higgins, 2005, p. 503). From the above it can be deducted, that leadership happens in a context, and that leaders need to consider the context as well as the emotions linked to that particular context to manage and lead their teams towards stated goals. Not every leadership situation therefore will be the same, or may require similar skills. This concurs somewhat with the view of Collins, who in his book “Good to Great”, identified reasons that companies became successful (moving from good to great), and found that their success was not due to superior knowledge or strategy, but that leadership played a decisive role. In particular, two virtues were identified that leaders displayed, namely
personal will and humility, which had a huge impact on company performance (Collins, 2001).

2.2 Approaches to leadership

Since the time of Plato and others, leadership has been an issue that is debated and explored (Bower, 2010). However, in many organizations world-wide the same concern relating to lack of leadership seems to be raised repeatedly, be it small organizations, start up or dinosaur conglomerates. Seemingly, the concern with leadership is a topical point on the agenda in highly developed and industrialised countries, as well as emerging economies, and each is concerned with lack of leadership skills and what it may take to develop leadership skills required for the challenges at hand (Bower, 2010; Goffee & Jones, 2000).

Over the years, research into leadership has received significant interest (Yukl, 2002). Nkomo and Kriek (2004) summarise these as including the early trait, behavioural and situational approaches, to the more current topics of charismatic, ethical, transformational, spiritual or principled styles of leadership. The more modern leadership paradigms highlight values, traits and personality of the leaders. Increasingly not only the skill but also the personality of leaders has become important. “We not only need to know what the leader does, but who he or she is” (Atwater & Yammarino, 1993, p. 646).
In the early 1900’s leadership theories focussed on qualities distinguishing leaders and followers. Later on, this evolved to include other variables, such as situational factors and differing skills levels. Over time, many differing leadership theories have evolved. These can be summarised as follows:

The “Great Man theories” of the 1900’s, where great leaders were portrayed as heroic and leadership was seen to be inherent. The trait theories of the 1940-50’s assumed people had certain traits that made them better suited to leadership. The contingency leadership theories followed, and focussed on variables related to the environment, determining which style was most suitable for the situation. Behavioural theories believed that leadership could be learnt in the 1950-60’ies and the situational theories of the 1960-70’s focussed on the leader choosing the best course of action, depending on this situation. Participative theories started encouraging participation and leadership started taking input of others into account. Relationship and management theories followed. Management theories included transactional theories, with a focus on reward and punishment in the 1970’s, whereas relationship theories included transformational leadership theories, where the focus was on leaders inspiring followers with a focus on both performance as well as fulfilment of individual potential (Bower, 2010; Changing minds, 2010; Leadership theories, 2010).

It should be considered that the various theories evolved over time, and while certain timelines are presented in this literature review, these timelines may overlap
significantly with each other. Some theories may have been developed concurrently with each other and there are not fixed beginning and end point for the various theories evolving.

Leaders have a major impact on the well-being of their followers (Pina e Cunha, Campos e Cunha, & Rego, 2009), and most people have an opinion about leadership, good or bad and possible qualities expected from leaders (Bower, 2010). Not only academics and management experts, but increasingly a very wide general audience appears to be interested in leadership, possibly due to its far reaching consequences and impact leaders have on the lives of the general population. A host of popular management literature focuses on leadership, ranging from management gurus to sports celebrities or politicians. A literature review would not be complete without incorporating some of the essence of this information and trying to place it somewhere between academic literature, research results and popular realities.

In the best-selling book, “Leadership Gold”, Maxwell (2008) summarises a lifetime of leadership advice filled with elaboration of successes and failures and shares the wisdom gained from these. According to Maxwell, 90% of failures can be ascribed to quitting and not to actual defeat. Brady and Woodward (2005), describe the five levels of influence a leader should master on the way to become a successful leader. These include relatively straight forward and often motivational issues, such as the ability to learn from any situation; the need to perform, despite possible failures or setbacks;
leading through good people management skills; developing other leaders and learning to trust people; as well as developing leaders who in turn develop leaders and thereby creating a personal legacy. Collins (2009) in his most recent publication “How the mighty fall” outlined five stages that companies may experience in their decline which leaders need to practise to reduce their chances of business failure. Sports personality and Olympic hero, Sebastian Coe (2009), published a book describing what it takes to become a true champion, explaining what qualities from that of a sports person he took along into his career as a successful businessman and politician, also referring extensively to leadership issues. Even South Africa’s arguably greatest national hero, Nelson Mandela, offers valuable leadership advice, usually told in the words of others. He focuses less on what do to, but more on virtues and positive qualities, (found often in articles on ethical leadership) such as the ability to forgive, humility, courage, sharing credit, respect, love and reconciliation (Kalingu-Banda, 2006).

2.3 Positive leadership and other current developments

Positive leadership links to the use of a positive ideology appearing from the newly emerging fields of positive psychology (Seligman, 1999) and positive organizational scholarship (Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003). Positive psychology is generally considered a new emphasis within the field of psychology rather than a separate field on its own, to supplement existing knowledge by looking at psychology from the positive side of human life (the other side being the side of pathology) (Cameron et al., 2003). It
is argued that if the philosophy of positive leadership is put into operation, this will lead to exceptional performance (Cameron, 2008).

Other leadership styles include authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) highlighting the need for the leader to be genuine and dependable, practising what is being preached and charismatic leadership (De Groot, Kiker & Cross, 2001), linking leadership to the powerful and personal appeal of the leader, magnetising others.

The Ubuntu philosophy, used in South Africa, a world view to order society, places significant emphasis on African philosophy and culture, consultation within the group, leaning more towards the collective interest of the group and not the individual interests. It’s a more emotive view of the world and seen as less clinical and rational and aims to integrate modern leadership theories with African perspectives (Broodryk, 2006). Through its collective approach it deviates in some ways from current definitions of leadership, in that it does not portray the leader as all powerful. According to Broodryk (2006), the philosophy of Ubuntu is well integrated into many Southern African management philosophies, where it acknowledges the collective and African context.

2.4 Effective leadership

To a degree, leadership styles can be learnt (Goffee & Jones, 2000), teaching leaders how to behave in certain circumstances. However, the question begs to be asked – what makes leaders effective? How come certain leaders know or apply a specific style but
still do not seem to be very successful as leaders? Perhaps being an effective leader requires more than one style and also relies on additional skills and factors?

George (2000), based on extensive literature reviews in this regard, lists the following key elements comprising effective leadership:

- development of a collective sense of goals and objectives and how to go about achieving them;
- instilling in others knowledge and appreciation of the importance of work activities and behaviours;
- generating and maintaining excitement, enthusiasm, confidence, and optimism in an organization as well as co-operation and trust;
- encouraging flexibility in decision making and change;
- establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organization.

(George, 2000, p. 1039).

The concept of positive leadership encompasses a focus on positive performance, strengths and optimism, and considers the human being to be inherently good (Cameron, 2008). Accordingly, positive leadership applied effectively can help organizations deliver far above the standard expected. In this context, leaders who wish to move from being good leaders to being extraordinary need to apply an intensely positive atmosphere in the workplace. A positive work climate, where compassion, forgiveness,
gratitude is moderated, produces a positive climate (Cameron, 2008), and according to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), organizational accomplishments thrive under these conditions. Maxwell (2006) also points out that the biggest difference between success and failure as a leader is attitude, alluring to the need for a positive leadership style. In addition, Groenewald (2008) points out that confidence, the ability to enjoy life and ability to deal with resistance and confrontation make up valuable leadership skills.

Maxwell (2008), offers very practical tips to leaders or aspiring leaders, such as the importance of networking and developing people. “A leaders’ credibility begins with personal success. It ends with helping others to achieve personal success” (Maxwell, 2008, p. 4). He allures to various concepts which lean on factors uncovered in the emotional make up of a person, such as the need for self-discipline and patience, the ability to handle criticism, the ability to listen and to understand others, and the ability to understand and define reality. Practical tips for leaders accompany the literature. He points out the dangers that lack of experience may have to a leader (Maxwell, 2008).

Organizational and leadership styles develop in different countries, continents and contexts, and typically carry along elements of the countries in which they operate. In Africa the discussion around leadership effectiveness also revolves around developing or using a leadership style relevant to the African context. Such leadership approaches would vary from country to country, but would include African cultural values (Ngambi, 2004). In South Africa the Ubuntu (humaneness) leadership style has evolved and
elements from ancient African cultures and traditions are increasingly considered and applied in everyday management in South Africa, making the style relevant to the rich history and diversity of the people (Broodryk, 2006).

It becomes evident, that leadership styles can be complemented with additional factors to make a leader truly effective or to make the style more suitable to the context (e.g. living in Africa). Merely goal setting and managing targets like for example a transactional leader would do, does not make for really effective leadership.

2.5 Leadership styles

Currently, leadership research is enjoying wide ranging interest world-wide. Recent reviews have commented on a sudden increase in this field, and there are a host of styles worth considering. However, in literature, transactional and transformational leadership enjoys a primary interest (Antonakis & House, 2002). Schriesheim, Wu and Scandura (2007) concur and refer to a strong research interest, indicating that the most widely studied leadership area currently appears to be the domain of transactional and transformational leadership. Antonakis & House (2002) regard the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) as the currently most widely used instrument for measuring transformational and transactional leadership. Based on this observation, the three leadership styles mentioned were chosen as a basis for the research.
The MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) has been chosen as a valid instrument to be used for this research study, to investigate leadership styles of the study sample. It is a tried and tested psychometric tool, and identifies leadership styles relevant to this study.

This study hence uses the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, X5) developed by Avolio and Bass (1997). It uses the different leadership styles identified by this instrument as a basis for analysis. These styles include the laissez-faire or non-leadership style, the transactional management style and the transformational management style. These styles and their respective sub-categories are shortly discussed below.

- Laissez-faire, also known as the non-transactional leadership factor or passive/avoidant behaviour on the part of the leader. It is a passive form of management by exception, avoiding to take a stand and avoiding to address conflict or clarify expectations. The laissez-faire style is known for its inactive approach, characterised by a total absence of leadership or the avoidance of intervention, or both. The leader is not around when needed (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1997; Vrba, 2007).

- Transactional leadership. In contrast to what was allured to above, the transactional leader is one who focuses on interactions with subordinates to address their needs, and as such transactional leaders are concerned with remedial and productive dealings, their focus being outcome-based. Typically, transactional leaders define expectations and manage performance to these levels (Bass, 1985; Vrba, 2007).
“Transactional leaders work towards recognising the roles and tasks required for associates to reach desired outcomes; they also clarify these requirements for associates, thus creating the confidence they need to exert the necessary effort.” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 21).

These types of leaders understand what followers need and generally clarify rewards in exchange for meeting the needs. This will normally result in a motivation to deliver on the part of the follower, indicate a goal and help to direct followers. A leadership style primarily focussed on the transactional style has certain shortcomings over the longer term, as it does not pay sufficient attention on long term development and meaningful organizational change. In this study the following sub-leadership components of the transactional style are considered:

- contingent reward leadership style, which clarifies objectives and exchanges rewards for performance;
- management by exception (active), where leaders systematically monitor mistakes and deviations of standards, and take corrective actions when mistakes occur;
- management by exception (passive), where leaders take corrective actions when mistakes occur but mostly only intervene to make corrections when something goes wrong (Bass, 1997; Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 97).
- Transformational leadership. Goleman (2005) refers to leadership as an art of winning someone over to direct their efforts to a mutual goal. Devir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir (2002, p. 735) go further than that and summarise transformational leadership as
“influencing followers by broadening and elevating followers, providing them with the confidence to perform beyond expectations specified in the implicit and explicit change agreement.” According to this, transformational leaders contribute towards shaping the basic beliefs, attitudes and values of followers, which is an important ingredient if leaders want to meet and survive the market challenges of a rapidly changing world and is very relevant for the challenges posed in Southern Africa (Vrba, 2007).

The transformational leader is described as someone who stimulates responsiveness and interest in the group or organization, increases the self-confidence of individuals or groups, and endeavours to shift the concerns of subordinates to accomplishment and expansion rather than existence (Gardener & Stough, 2002). Transformational leadership may increase customer satisfaction, productivity and profits by enhancing follower’s work engagement (Zhu, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2009). According to literature, transformational leaders are well liked, appreciated, and trusted (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Whereas the transactional leadership style focuses on individual needs, the transformational leadership style focuses on higher order objectives, namely the needs of the organization and the longer term survival in a changing environment.

“Transformational leadership is linked to motivating associates to do more than they originally thought was possible (……) Goals shift from being purely transactional to being transformational because of a development orientation.” (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 27).
Transformational leadership displays a manner of influencing associates to allow them to see the world or specific issues from a different perspective. Largely, leaders using this style are pro-active, search for ways to improve group and individual performance and influence their associates to aim for higher goals, including better moral and ethical standards. The subsections measured on the transformational level include the following leadership components:

- **idealised attributes**, whereby which leaders instil pride in others, they also go beyond self-interest, act in ways to earn respect, display sense of authority and trustworthiness.

- **idealised behaviours**, refer to a situation where leaders talks about values and beliefs, highlight sense of purpose, consider moral and ethical issues in decision making, emphasise collective goals and mission.

- **inspirational motivation**, where leaders provide meaning to work, build team spirit, demonstrate optimism, talk optimistically about the future, build a convincing vision and show confidence in goals.

- **intellectual stimulation**. Here leaders challenge old assumptions and stimulate idea generation, as well as encourage followers to look at a problem from different angles.

- **individualised consideration**. Leaders invest in teaching and coaching, determine individual needs and raise them to higher levels of performance (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bass, 1997; Vrba, 2007).

According to Avolio, Bass and Jung (1999), the best leaders display both the transactional (contingent reward) as well as the transformational style for optimal
results. The contingent rewards style is effective in that it supplements the transformational style as a basis for setting development prospects and building trust by means of reliable keeping of agreements over time.

Increasingly, the transformational leadership style has emerged of the many leadership options available as an appropriate style to deal with the numerous modern leadership challenges and on-going business changes in their quest for survival (Bass, 1985, 1998). It was found to be more definitely related to employees’ commitment to adapt to these changes than change-specific leadership practises, in particular when this adjustment had a noteworthy personal influence (Herold, Fedor, Caldwell, & Liu, 2008).

Ackermann et al. (2000) argue that it appears that transformational leadership has emerged as a possible suitable alternative to traditional styles. In contrast to this, however, some authors claim that current leadership research has discarded the search for one perfect leadership style, but focuses on situational moderators on the effects of leadership (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro, & Klimoski, 2001).

2.6 Conclusion

Leadership is a multifaceted concept and hence requires a multifaceted approach, and largely due to its contextual setting and individual application, it appears that there is no one single and correct way to define leadership. However, leadership is an important facet of modern life and relates largely to the way society is structured.
Leadership always happens in a context – be it a country, a political philosophy or a point in time. As such, the challenges for individual leaders differ. An executive in a first world country dealing with multimillion dollar business deals and highly competent teams faces a different reality than a politician in poverty stricken country or the head of a university. In each instance, however, it is argued that the first requirement is one of competence – regardless of leadership skill – the leader needs to have good factual knowledge of the challenge at hand.

A second aspect of the contextual leadership is the paradigm of the leader. What are the internal, external and personal influences in his/her life? What forces are active outside the organization and what is happening inside the organization and the culture, and how does that influence the situation? Modern leadership paradigms also look into contextual values, such as personality, values and traits of a leader. This is reflected in leadership approaches such as ethical leadership, authentic leadership or positive leadership. In this regard, a general word of caution is expressed.

To identify effective leaders, the clinical aspect of the leader needs also to be taken into consideration, namely the personality factors, especially those that may be problematic in the personal make-up of the leader. What are the underlying factors that have influenced the leader in terms of self-confidence, self-perception and feelings of self-worth, to name a few? Have bad experiences been digested and dealt with, or will situational factors allow these underlying issues to influence the leader in his/her
decision making? Some of these will be relevant and need to be considered, and will be dealt with under emotional intelligence (Famborough & Hart, 2008; Gallos, 2008; Kets de Vries & Engelau, 2004), however, a wider look into possible clinical factors affecting a leader in the personality domain should be explored, considered and eliminated as well.

In conclusion, it is argued that leadership is a complex concept. This literature review discussed some of the important aspects of it. No doubt, there will be many more aspects of leadership and issues influencing leaders and leadership. Nevertheless, effective leaders need the skills and ability to navigate the various challenges posed to them, expected or unexpected, for the good of their organizations, regardless of the circumstances. The study will focus on important aspects around leadership that will contribute towards making the complex and intricate topic more easily understood for human resource managers and industrial psychologists involved in recruitment and leadership development.

In the next chapter the concept of emotional intelligence will be explicated, and its possible relationship to leadership, as depicted in literature, will be discussed.
CHAPTER 3

3. Literature review: Emotional intelligence

“Emotions are implicated in many aspects of everyday life. Their impact and relevance, in combination with the subjective nature of emotional experience, suggest it is important to work towards a comprehensive scientific model of emotion-related self-perceptions, as envisaged in the trait emotional self-efficacy conceptualisation.” (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007, p. 287).

This chapter will define emotional intelligence, distinguish between different schools of thought in the field of emotional intelligence, such as the trait, mixed model and ability-based theories, elaborate on trait emotional intelligence, discuss how emotional intelligence contributes to work performance, and how individuals may improve their emotional intelligence. The chapter will then go on to discuss the impact of emotional intelligence on leadership. The conclusion will wrap up important findings from literature and present them in support of anticipated research findings.

In 1920, the concept of social intelligence was first mentioned by Edward Thorndike (1920) to explain the ability to appreciate and manage others. Since then it has developed significantly, and these developments were spearheaded by Reuven Bar-On, Daniel Goleman and Jack Salovey, expanding the concept and developing a separate field of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006). In 1990, Salovey and Meyer first published an article confirming the existence of emotional intelligence, and in 1995,

Being a relatively new concept, there is on-going debate around the concept of emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Conte, 2005; Famborough & Hart, 2008; Landy, 2005; Locke, 2005; Spector, 2005). Over the past decade and longer, the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) received extensive notice in research. It enjoyed interest in both the popular literature (for example Goleman, 1995a; Hein, 1997; Wall, 2008) as well as the scientific literature (for example Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 2000; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In short, EI, a popular concept in modern management literature, aspires to provide a scientific framework to explain individual differences in how people manage and deal with their own and others’ emotions (Petrides & Furnham, 2003).

3.1 Defining and conceptualising emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is a practical expression for a specific capacity of people, relating to the understanding, expression and management of emotions. As such it forms part of
the complex array of ability or personality of people, and is usually mentioned alongside cognitive or interpersonal ability.

Salovey and Meyer (1990) originally used this term and explained it in four fields, namely knowing and handling one’s own as well as others’ emotions. Other authors, such as Goleman (1998), elaborate on this view and offer definitions such as “Emotional intelligence refers to the capacity for recognising our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing or emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (Goleman, 1998, p. 317). Another definition, concurring with Goleman, states that emotional intelligence is “the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 5).

Emotional intelligence basically illustrates and describes the capacity to join emotions with reasoning to arrive at a decision. Cognitive ability or competence, measured as intelligence quotient (IQ), often does not explain the difference between average and superior work performance, including that of a leader, and this hence indicates that there is another dimension that contributes towards effective leadership (Cameron, 2008; Spencer, 2001).
In line with the definition of emotional intelligence, Damasio (1994) advocates that it is not possible to totally separate cognitive intelligence from emotional intelligence, as emotional intelligence influences cognitive intelligence. In this regard, Mayer and Salovey (1995) point out that EI refers to the skill to merge emotions and reasoning successfully, thereby presenting the degree to which individual’s cognitive abilities are sustained by emotions and the level to which emotions are intellectually dealt with. It follows that emotional intelligence depicts a certain capacity, which is different from, but corresponding to, academic intelligence and the cognitive capacities measured by IQ. Emotional intelligence explains certain behavioural variances not accounted for by general measures of intellect or personality (Goleman, 1995b; Petrides & Furnham, 2001); in fact, intelligence and personality are considered in essence to be independent domains (Eyseneck, 1994; Zeidner, 1995).

Reuven Bar-On (2010) argues that emotional intelligence forms an essential part of positive psychology, and has a positive impact on “performance, happiness, well-being, and the quest for a more meaningful life, all of which are key areas of happiness in positive psychology” (Bar-On, 2010, p. 59). Cameron (2008) elaborates further by stating that in line with positive psychology, positive and emotional intelligent leadership strategies can help with creating a positive organizational outcome.
Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) provide a four point summary of emotional intelligence:

- It is not the same, but positively associated to other intelligences
- It differs from person to person
- It progresses and develops over a person’s life and may be improved by means of training and development initiatives
- It involves the ability to recognise and observe emotions in oneself or others, as well as the competence and skill to comprehend and handle these sentiments effectively

There are different approaches to emotional intelligence, namely an ability-based approach (Caruso, 2003), certain mixed models of emotional intelligence (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2001; Goleman 1998), as well as a trait-based approach (Petrides, 2009). The following short explication describes and distinguishes between the three types of emotional intelligence as well as mentioning one measurement tool each used to evaluate this type of emotional intelligence. As trait emotional intelligence is the model used in the research study at hand, the literature review then focuses in more detail on trait emotional intelligence and the measurement tool used in this regard.

*Ability emotional intelligence* refers to emotion related cognitive ability, which is measured by means of performance tests (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Ability emotional intelligence, called “cognitive-emotional ability” by Petrides and Furnham (2001, p. 427) refers to concrete capabilities connected to emotions. This concurs with Cronbach’s (1949) description that performance-based assessments describe highest
(best) performance. According to this argument, ability-based EI therefore belongs to the domain of cognition (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Petrides, 2010). Salovey and Meyer’s (1990) model of ability-based emotional intelligence assumes that individuals vary in their ability to deal with information of an emotional character and the capability to relate this information to a wider understanding. In other words, this model views emotions as a useful source to help individuals understand and navigate the social environment, but also highlights that individuals have different cognitive capacities to do so (Conte, 2005; Salovey & Grewald, 2005). To measure this construct, Mayer and Salovey, for example, have developed an emotional intelligence ability model assessing emotional intelligence as a kind of cognitive intelligence. The instrument is known as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1997). It is based on a number of emotion-based problem-solving items (Conte, 2005; Salovey & Grewald, 2005) and measures constructs such as perceiving emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions (Bradberry & Su, 2003).

The model of ability-based emotional intelligence has been criticised for missing predictive validity (Bradberry & Su, 2003) and for being scientifically unsupported (Conte, 2005; Petrides, 2010).

*The mixed model of emotional intelligence*, introduced by Goleman (1998), refers to emotional intelligence as learned abilities, and allures to the belief that individuals are
born with a certain level of emotional intelligence that can be further enhanced through training (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2001; Goleman 1998). It focuses on a wide range of competencies and skills, which are grouped under the following four main constructs: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. The ECI, Emotional Competency Inventory, was developed by Boyatzis and Goleman in 1999 to measure emotional competencies and positive social behaviours (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Conte, 2005). To date, no peer reviewed empirical studies have been forthcoming (Conte, 2005), and therefore this tool is not given any serious consideration.

*Trait emotional intelligence* focuses on the emotion related character and self-perceptions of individuals and is measured by a self-report. It consists of individuals’ own perceptions of their abilities and is located in the lower order of personality, and hence trait emotional intelligence is not an ability-based model (Petrides, 2010, Petrides et al., 2007). According to Petrides, trait emotional intelligence is the only effective definition of emotional intelligence that acknowledges the intrinsic bias and subjectiveness of emotional experience. “Trait EI theory enjoys widespread empirical support and consistently replicated findings from numerous studies that are theoretically driven, methodologically sophisticated, and independently conducted” (Petrides, 2010, p. 138). According to Petrides and Furnham (2001) trait EI entails reaction-related behavioural inclinations and self-perceived capabilities referring to typical performance most effectively considered through own account (Petrides, 2010). Petrides and
Furnham (2001, p. 427) identify this as “emotional self-efficacy”. According to this view, the self-rating agrees with the subjective character of emotions.

An important question is, whether trait emotional intelligence belongs to the domain of intelligence or personality (Caruso, 2003; Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl, & Rindermann, 2008; Petrides et al., 2007). It is argued that trait EI belongs into the context of personality, as it refers to behavioural inclinations and self-perceived skills (Petrides, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2001) and not into the actual, measured cognitive skills domain. This concurs with Cronbach’s (1949) description that self-report tools describe characteristic performance.

To minimise misconceptions about emotional intelligence, Petrides and Furnham (2001) highlighted a clear difference between trait EI and ability EI. In contrast, according to Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy and Roy (2007), the two EI concepts (trait and ability EI) are based on the belief that intellectual aptitude is not the singular predictor of adjustment and performance but that emotional ability needs to be taken into account as well.

This study is based on the trait emotional intelligence theory and uses a questionnaire measuring trait emotional intelligence, a concept which will be elaborated in more detail below. The TEIQue (Trait Emotional Intelligence) questionnaire (Petrides, 2010) has been chosen as a valid instrument for this research study, as it is deemed ideally suited
for research of this nature. It is a tried and tested psychometric tool, and identifies trait emotional intelligence styles relevant to this study.

3.2 Trait emotional intelligence

Trait emotional intelligence does not assume there is an ideal emotional intelligence level, but rather different profiles may be relevant to and effective in different situations. This is similar to personality traits, where different personality traits match different job requirements (Petrides, 2010). Trait emotional intelligence is a “constellation of emotional self-perception located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies” (Petrides, 2010, p. 137). According to Mikolajczak et al. (2007), trait EI is mostly used in the health, educational and organizational field. In education, low IQ pupils with a better EI score achieve better at school than their low IQ peers who have a low EI (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004). Research furthermore suggests that trait EI plays a role in work accomplishment (Herbst & Maree, 2008; Petrides, 2010; van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004), that it promotes an improved understanding and prediction of certain behaviour and is more relevant amongst workers and managers who have to include some form of emotional or inter-personal work in their job (Mikolajczak et al., 2007).

The following extrapolation is based on the trait emotional intelligence theory of the TEIQue. The 15 facets of trait EI group into 4 inter-related factors, being emotionality, sociability, well-being and self-control, and two global facets, namely self-motivation
and adaptability. The four factors are each made up of the following facets as well as one global trait:

- **Emotionality** – emotion perception, emotion expression, trait empathy, relationships.
- **Sociability** – social awareness, emotion management, assertiveness.
- **Well-being** – self-esteem, trait happiness, trait optimism.
- **Self-control** – emotion regulation, stress management, impulsiveness.

**Global trait EI** – is made up of all 15 facets.

Adaptability and self-motivation are two global facets that do not contribute to any of the four factors mentioned above, they do however contribute towards the global scale (Petrides, 2009).

The 15 facets make up the four factors or domains. A self-rater would typically assess his/her way of handling each facet and allocate a score, depending how the rater perceives him/herself on that facet. This description of trait emotional intelligence clearly acknowledges the inherent bias of emotional experience (Petrides, 2010). The following table elucidates shortly how high-scorers would perceive themselves on each particular facet of the TEIQue.

Table 1 indicates the domain of trait emotional intelligence in 15 facets as indicated by the TEIQue (Petrides et al., 2007, p. 274; Petrides, 2010, p. 137).
Table 1

*How High-scorers would Perceive Themselves on Each Particular Facet of the TEIQue.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Facets</th>
<th>High-scorers perceive themselves as</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>…flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>…forthright, frank and willing to stand up for their own rights</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion expression</td>
<td>…capable of communicating their feelings to others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion management (others)</td>
<td>…capable of influencing other people’s feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion perception (self and others)</td>
<td>…clear about their own and other people’s feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion regulation</td>
<td>…capable of controlling their emotions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulse control</td>
<td>…reflective and less likely to give in to their urges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship skills</td>
<td>…capable of having fulfilling personal relationships</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>…successful and self-confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>…driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social competence</td>
<td>…accomplished networkers with excellent social skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress management</td>
<td>…capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait empathy</td>
<td>…capable of taking someone else’s perspective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait happiness</td>
<td>…cheerful and satisfied with their lives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait optimism</td>
<td>…confident and likely to “look at the bright side of life”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Posing the question if self-perceptions measured by the TEIQue are accurate, one must bear in mind that who else can answer a question based in one’s own emotions and the perceptions thereof better than the person her or himself (Petrides, 2009). As it is not possible to scientifically score emotional experiences side by side to the cognitive one’s, where a correct answer does exist like in the cognitive domain, priority needs to be given to self-reports in the measurement of subjective emotional understanding (Watson, 2000).

The same can be questioned about possible profile distortion merits when completing the questionnaires, with the view to positively or negatively (fake good, fake bad) influence the outcome of the results. According to literature, the incentive to misrepresent responses in research studies is hardly a problem if the research conforms to the general ethical guidelines of research, including guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality (Petrides, 2009). There are, however, certain statistical ways in which possible profile distortions can be verified.

This study seeks to explore the possible relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. Should a relationship be found, areas of interception to train managers to become effective leaders could be identified, with the view to possibly improving work performance. Based on literature, the following section explicates the possible impact emotional intelligence may have on work performance.
3.3 The impact of emotional intelligence on work performance

It is known that emotions may interfere and twist human decision and judgement (Shafir & LeBoeuf, 2002), as well as critical analysis and logic (Oaksford, Morris, Grainger, & Williams, 1996). Emotion-based assessment and judgement tends to be intuitive and spontaneous, in contrast to clear logical, analytical thinking (Croskerry & Norman, 2008). Hence, some emotion profiles will be beneficial in certain situations or circumstances and not in other situations (Rushton, Murray, & Paunonen, 1983) and individual emotional intelligence profiles will have to correspond to certain leadership profiles in order to meet specified aspects of work objectives (Petrides, 2010). Likewise, Goleman (1998) links emotional intelligence to performance and personal effectiveness at work.

The question how emotional intelligence may contribute to work performance is answered by Seibert, Kraimer and Liden (2001), who suggest that emotional intelligence enables people to nurture positive work relationships and contribute towards them working well in teams. A study done by Lopes, Grewal, Kadis, Gall and Salovey (2006) confirmed that emotional intelligence was linked to various indicators of work performance, including work performance ratings, inter-personal relationships and merit salary increases. Furthermore, as allured to by Lopes et al., (2006), this was due to higher levels of emotional intelligence enabling people manage their emotions better and for example do this to cope better with stress, or perform under pressure.
The ability to understand others’ emotional expressions (such as facial expressions) helps emotionally intelligent individuals to adjust their behaviour to positively manage social relations (Lopes et al., 2006; Wall, 2008). However, when leaders have to primarily rely on web-based innovative communication techniques, the ability of leaders to appropriately use emotional intelligence is restrained and limited (Graham, 2009). Emotional competence also contributes towards reducing negative effects of emotion work in service occupations (Giardini & Frese, 2006), emotional intelligent nurse leadership was linked to an affirmative and constructive empowerment process and encouraging organizational results (Akerjordet & Severinnson, 2008), and it is positively related to team commitment (Schlechter & Strauss, 2008).

Emotional intelligence in the work context is described by Boyatzis (1982) as a contributory feature of a person, which is linked to successful or enhanced work performance. That means that the presence of emotional intelligence is seen to increase performance. It is stated in literature, that emotional intelligence competency is “an individual characteristic (or combination of characteristics) that can be measured reliably and that distinguishes superior from average performance, or effective from ineffective performers, at levels of statistical significance” (Spencer, 2001, p. 3). This is re-iterated by Law, Song and Wong (2004), as well as Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004), whose research findings allure to the fact that people with a high emotional intelligence are better work performers than those with a lower emotional intelligence.
“Fifteen years of published meta-analytical data show that EIC (emotional intelligence competency)-based staffing, training and performance management interventions can (or do) add economic value, although the effect size shifts produced by EIC, as opposed to knowledge content, inputs have not been conclusively established.” (Spencer, 2001, p. 31).

Goleman (2001) contributes to this line of argument by adding that having a high emotional competence alone is not a sufficient indicator for good work performance, but that it needs to be complemented by the underlying ability in the subject matter at hand. For example, having a high level of empathy does not guarantee that a dispute an employee may have with a customer will be handled efficiently unless the employee also has good customer service skills. At the same time, certain skills are not relevant to all professions, such for example in the accounting profession, a high level of empathy won’t make a good accountant, yet for nurses this may be an important factor to be successful at work. It follows, that superior emotional competencies, combined with cognitive competencies and actual job competence, can statistically forecast enhanced or better performance.

Based on the above review of literature, it is clear that emotional intelligence has a distinct positive impact on work performance, and can be seen as a desirable trait in both managers and employees, for a positive and conducive work environment. The usefulness of improving or developing emotional intelligence is evident, and hence the
following section of this literature review deals with the possibility of improving or developing emotional intelligence in individuals.

3.4 Improving or developing emotional intelligence

What differentiates top performers in organizations is not necessarily their high intelligence quotient, but more often their emotional intelligence (Watkin, 2000). The differentiator between technical know-how being applied by means of average or top performance is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence tests or questionnaires help identify characteristics in the emotional make-up which individuals may be lacking, and once identified they can be developed through specific tailor-made training and development initiatives.

According to literature, fifteen years of published data confirm that emotional intelligence training, recruitment and staffing as well as performance management contribute economic and financial value (Spencer, 2001). Organizations that actively use emotional intelligence as part of their people management skills mix use a host of actions in this regard. For example, they may use emotional intelligence screening as one of their decision making tools, with the view to hiring emotionally intelligent staff. They may promote the use of emotional intelligence within their organization, and they may choose to focus on promoting and applying emotional intelligence on all levels of the organization (Watkins, 2000). What, however, if the staff do not have a high level of emotional intelligence?
Based on the preceding literature review, the benefits of emotional intelligence have been demonstrated. The literature review however also allures to the fact that emotional intelligence levels differ among people.

A series of longitudinal studies have shown that people can improve their emotional intelligence abilities and this improvement will remain with them over time (Boyatzis, 2001; Boyatzis & Van Oosten, 2002). This concurs with Bar-On (2006), who confirmed that emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour can, through specific training, be enhanced and improved in adults. A study in Nigeria concurs with this finding (Ogunyemi, 2007), where brainstorming and emotional intelligence training positively affected the emotional intelligence level of participants. The fact that emotional intelligence can be learnt is already commercially used by various organizations who sell training packages, workshops and courses with the promise to enhance emotional intelligence. A quick search on the internet results in numerous such courses on offer.

This study focuses on the trait emotional intelligence theory and uses the TEIQue as measurement. The question is, does it matter which questionnaire is used for identifying emotional intelligence, and would development initiatives differ between the different models of emotional intelligence? According to Petrides (2009), the main foundation for differentiating between trait and ability emotional intelligence is the measurement, and not the theoretical domains of the various emotional intelligence theories (Petrides, 2009). It follows, that regardless of the tool with which emotional intelligence is
measured, development and training initiatives can be identified based on the outcome of the measurement. The following is an extraction of some of the methods promoted to develop emotional intelligence. First, it focuses on learning models, and then it briefly discusses behavioural change and elaborates on ways how to achieve this.

The learning model for emotional intelligence differs to that of cognitive intelligence. Cognitive intelligence is learnt in the neocortex, whereas emotional intelligence is learnt in the subcortex (Turner, 2004). Moreover, because behavioural changes have to take place, teaching emotional intelligence cannot take place in the normal classroom situation (Laabs, 1999). Based on actual needs assessment, a tailor-made intervention should be developed, and may comprise coaching, mentoring (Jonker, 2009), and behavioural training teaching where a range of behavioural responses can be practised (Turner, 2004). Certain types of soft skills, such as inter-personal communication, may also form part of emotional intelligence training (Laabs, 1999), and specific needs may exist in certain professions (Jonker, 2009). According to literature, when using generic training programmes, it is important to evaluate these in advance to ensure they meet the developmental needs as identified by the psychometric screening of emotional intelligence, and comparisons between pre- and post-test scores should be made (Wong, Foo, Wong, & Wong, 2007).

Goleman et al. (2002) identify different emotional intelligence competencies, which are summarised into the four domains of self-awareness and self-management on the
intrapersonal side, as well as social awareness and relationship management on the interpersonal side. They highlight that the domains are inter-connected, and are basically hierarchical in their approach. According to this argument, and following a similar principle to the Maslow hierarchy of needs (Huitt, 2007), a person must progress through the domains according to their hierarchy, moving from self-awareness to self-management, and then to social awareness, culminating in social relationships. “In short, self-awareness facilitates both empathy and self-management, and these two, in combination, allow effective relationship management. EI leadership then, builds up from a foundation of self-awareness” (Goleman et al., 2002, p. 30). Figure 2 illustrates this process.

![The Hierarchical Model of Developing Emotional Intelligence](image)

**Figure 2**
The Hierarchical Model of Developing Emotional Intelligence (Goleman et al., 2002, p. 30).

Behavioural change is facilitated through experience, and practise (Laabs, 1999), although it may be difficult due to the myriads of different emotions that can be experienced. Alon and Higgins (2005) maintain that it may take several months for one identified behaviour to change permanently, and through exercise and experience it needs to be continually re-enforced. While setbacks may occur, it is important to “have
adequate self-efficacy to continue despite setbacks, take corrective action to correct mistakes, and finally, learn from that experience” (Alon & Higgins, 2005, p. 505). Boyatzis theory of self-directed learning (Goleman et al., 2002), illustrates one way in which candidates can, with the help of a trusted person like a coach or mentor, acquire and improve emotional intelligence skills. The role of the coach is to help, support and encourage, as well as reflect to the candidate, to improve emotional intelligence skills by implementing the following steps:

1. **Step 1: My ideal self.**
   - Who do I want to be?
   - What do I want from life and work?

2. **Step 2: My real self.**
   - How do I react?

3. **Step 2: My strengths.**
   - Where do my ideal and real strengths overlap?

4. **Step 2: My gaps.**
   - Where my ideal and real self differ

5. **Step 3: My learning agenda:**
   - Building on my strengths while reducing my gaps

6. **Step 4: Experimenting:**
   - With the new behaviour, thoughts and feelings

7. **Step 4: Practise:**
   - Practise the new behaviour, building new neural pathways through mastery (Goleman et al., 2002).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) caution that some elements of maintenance should be incorporated into the training to ensure long term benefit of emotional intelligence training and enhancement (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001) and ideally these coaching or development programmes should aim to improve one or two items a time and re-
enforce these before the next steps are taken. This process usually happens in intervals and stretches over a number of months (Boyatzis, 2001; Boyatzis & van Oosten, 2002; Jonker, 2009). To ensure economic value of any development interventions, it is important to focus on correctly identified problems which will make the biggest impact on the organization, as well as those that will have the biggest impact on costly problems (Spencer, 2001).

In summing up this chapter so far, it is evident that emotions impact in everyday life, and that a high level of emotional intelligence enables a person to know and handling one’s own emotions as well as these of others more effectively. Emotional intelligence also has the capacity to join emotions and cognitive ability in decision making, and explain certain behavioural variances between people. Emotional intelligence is not static; it develops through experience and specific area can be developed through special longer term interventions, or by means of coaching programmes. Despite different approaches to emotional intelligence (trait, ability or mixed models), any model of analysis can be used to identify areas of desired improvement when it comes to development of emotional intelligence. Ideally, custom-made programmes should be put together to ensure the specific goal is achieved, and maintenance programmes ensure a sustained impact over time. Emotional intelligence not only has an impact on individual work performance and team performance, it may also contribute positively towards organizational climate. Bearing in mind the positive benefits of emotional intelligence, finding a possible relationship between emotional intelligence and
leadership could have a significant positive impact on the development of organizations. The next section explores how literature views the role of emotions in leadership before stepping over to the actual research study and elaborating on the current status quo in this regard in Namibia.

3.5 Emotions and leadership: the role of emotional intelligence (EI)

Emotional competence is particularly central to leadership, a role whose essence is getting others to do their jobs more effectively. Inter-personal ineptitude in leaders lowers everybody’s performance: it wastes time, creates acrimony, corrodes motivation and commitment, builds hostility and apathy. A leader’s strengths or weaknesses in emotional competence can be measured in the gain or loss to the organization of the fullest talents of those they manage. (Goleman, 1998, p. 32).

There is growing evidence that a record number of executives are derailing from their careers (Rosete, 2007). Literature hints that emotional intelligence may offer some insights into success and failure of leaders (Goleman, 1998). This is highlighted by the fact that there is an increasing interest in research to explore whether emotional intelligence makes someone a better leader (Higgs, 2003).

Literature suggests that feelings and emotions play an important role in human behaviour. They influence judgements, memory and reasoning, among others.
Increasingly, it is accepted that feelings also take on a more central role in the leadership process than what was previously considered (George, 2000; Goleman, 1998). Goleman (1998) highlights that studies have shown effective leaders to use more emotional intelligence competencies than other people in leadership positions. Ogunyemi (2007) concurs and adds that especially those leaders whose job demands a high social interaction, need effective emotional intelligence.

Literature (Goleman et al., 2002) advocates that up to 79% of leadership success in the USA is a direct consequence of a high emotional intelligence. It appears that leaders’ level of emotional intelligence has an effect on their behaviour, which makes them either more or less successful leaders. Stein and Book (2000), in research covering thousands of participants in more than 30 professions, found that 47-56% of success in a person’s working- and private life can be accounted to the level of emotional intelligence of that person. They furthermore found that certain emotional competencies had a higher relevance than others in the occupational context, and that different jobs required different emotional intelligence competencies. The research revealed furthermore, that emotional competencies are required for leadership positions differ across various professions (Stein & Book, 2000). According to Goleman et al. (2002), emotional intelligence is an important part of being an effective leader, especially in the team context, and George (2000) highlights the role of the leader to diffuse conflict constructively which promotes trust and co-operation among team members in this regard.
A leader is someone with the power to project either shadow or light onto some part of the world and onto the lives of the people who dwell there. A leader shapes the ethos in which others must live, an ethos as light-filled as heaven or as shadowy as hell. A good leader is intensely aware of the interplay of inner shadow and light, lest the act of leadership do more harm than good (Palmer, 2000, p. 78).

If leaders are able to control their own emotions and practise self-control, they act as role models to their teams (Barling et al., 2000a), and hence have a positive impact on the team. The shadow side being the potential abuse of power, needs to be handled with utmost care by the leader and managed in such a way that at best it is avoided (Bower, 2010).

Relationship approaches to leadership are inherently emotional and the quality of this relationship is enhanced if leaders have good emotional intelligence (Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009). While a rational decision maker can do so without much consideration for emotions or feelings, research suggests that emotions are required to make sound decisions. They assist to weigh up choices and arrive at decisions (Damasio, 1994, Goleman, 2005a). Feelings are intimately connected to the human experience. “Feelings are intricately bound up in the ways people think, behave and make decisions” (George, 2000, p. 1030).
Leaders are humans who potentially experience the full range of emotions. “Both, positive and negative moods and emotions serve numerous functions in people’s lives. Likewise, both positive and negative moods and emotions can sometimes be the cause of human dysfunction” (George, 2000, p. 1032). Understanding the relevance of emotions and the ability to manage and understand these, add to more effective leadership in organizations.

A truly successful leader, however, needs more for universal leadership success. The ability to integrate intelligence and knowledge, leadership skills, geographical and cultural dimensions into the style displayed, makes for more effective leadership (Alon & Higgins, 2005). Figure 3 depicts more detailed information to illustrate this point.

As illustrated in Figure 3, it also follows, that a successful emotionally intelligent leader integrates excellent leadership skills and knowledge of the subject matter at hand in order to lead people effectively. No organization operates in a vacuum, hence Alon and Higgins (2005) advise that to be a successful global leader, organizational and cultural intelligences should be considered. Research has proven that effective leaders incorporate various leadership styles in different contexts, and use varying emotional intelligence skills to achieve their goals for this purpose (Goleman, 2001).
An emotionally intelligent leader will join cultural, ethnic and geographical realities into his/her leadership style, integrating this with corporate culture, in order to align followers behind a common purpose (George, 2000). It can be followed, that emotions, feeling and sentiments are the thread that pull these different angles together.

As has been described above, leadership is an emotion laden-process, for leaders as well as followers, and according to Ferguson and Kelley (2005) research has proven that higher levels of emotional intelligence make teams more effective and productive, create more resilience during changing times and add to an improved retention of talent in the organization. Goleman et al. (2002) identify fifteen different emotional intelligence
competencies, which are allocated to four domains. They allude to the fact that while all good leaders possessed some excellent emotional competencies, very effective leaders generally possess numerous emotional competencies and traits, but there is no one single formula that guarantees leadership success.

Leadership is situational, and hence different qualities may be required for different leadership contexts. However, effective leaders typically display at least one strength in each of the core areas of emotional intelligence. In Goleman’s model these are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management, whereas in Petrides’ trait emotional intelligence fifteen factors are divided up differently into of domains are emotionality, sociability, well-being and self-control. Table 2 below expands on the different core areas of possible leader emotional competencies or traits, as described (Goleman et al., 2002; Petrides, 2010).
### Table 2

*A Comparison of Emotional Intelligence Factors as Presented by the Mixed Model Approach by Goleman and The Trait Emotional Intelligence Model by Petrides.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional intelligence domains as described by Goleman</th>
<th>Trait emotional intelligence domains as described by Petrides</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Leadership domain</strong></td>
<td><strong>Leadership domain</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>Emotional intelligence competency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Accurate self-assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
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<td>Self-management</td>
<td>Self-control</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Transparency</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Adaptability</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Achievement</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Initiative</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Optimism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social awareness</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizational awareness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship management</td>
<td>Inspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Influence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Change catalyst</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conflict management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teamwork and collaboration</td>
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</table>

As the theoretical domain of emotional intelligence theories are essentially the same, and only the measurement differs (Petrides, 2009), a comparison such as this one is in order, and work based on either of them would therefore both yield an improvement in the overall level of emotional intelligence.
George (2000, p. 1039) concurs, highlighting that “appraisal and expression of emotion, use of emotion to enhance cognitive processing and decision making, knowledge about emotions, and management of emotions” has the potential to enhance leadership in various manners. Leaders high on emotional intelligence have the ability to develop a shared sense of purpose, inspire followers to solve problems and feel positive about their own contribution in doing so, generate optimism and confidence, encourage transformation and change (George, 2000), highlighting its emotion-laden process. The more relevant emotional competencies as outlined in Table 2 they can utilise in this process, the more effective they will be as leaders.

If a leader develops the respective emotional competencies, these will contribute towards improved leadership effectiveness, because every rational leadership decision is complemented by an emotional reaction. When a person receives information, it is unconsciously weighed up from an emotional point of view. Managing these emotions effectively is an important part of the leadership process (Wall, 2008). George (2000) links the specific leadership objectives to emotional intelligence and allures to how emotional intelligence may help leaders become more effective in their task.

There are, however, also concerns that the link between emotional intelligence and leadership may be overrated. According to Famborough and Hart (2008), opinions on whether or not emotional intelligence does have a proven link to leadership is not aligned among the academic world. At worst, it could be seen as a process of social
interaction where leaders and supporters are connected through “inspirational, motivational and emotional elements” (Famborough & Hart, 2008, p. 749). They caution to use EI as a complete and singular strategy for leadership development, but simultaneously suggest that leaders will profit from an improved understanding of their own and others’ emotions, as well as the ability to express their own emotions in a suitable manner. In this context, and to offer a holistic approach to leadership, they recommend emotional intelligence training to form part of overall leadership development initiatives, which should include technical and inter-personal competencies, as well as ethical qualities such as integrity, honesty and trustworthiness.

However, counteracting this concern by Famborough and Hart (2008) are a host of studies which have proven a definite link between emotional intelligence and leadership (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008; Barling et al., 2000a; Butler & Chinowski, 2006; Gardener & Stough, 2002; Palmer et al., 2001; Schlechter & Strauss, 2008; Vrba, 2007). In the earlier chapter on leadership in this thesis, transformational leadership was shown to use a number of skills which use emotions, such as inspiring, stimulating and considering others towards a given goal. The literature review above has also outlined that leadership skills can be acquired and learnt. Hence, if transformational leadership relies strongly on certain emotions to influence and direct followers as has been explicated, higher levels of emotional intelligence will give leaders using the transformational leadership style a distinct edge above transactional leaders who are more task and operation focused.
3.6 Conclusion

After offering a definition for emotional intelligence, this chapter outlined the different schools of thought of emotional intelligence, distinguishing between the trait, ability and mixed model approaches. As the trait emotional intelligence model is used in this study, it is elaborated on in more detail. It goes to explain how emotional intelligence is related to the different leadership styles. Transactional leaders clarify objectives and offer incentives in exchange for performance. They use emotional intelligence to understand what followers need and through goal setting and other means, offer rewards to fulfil those needs. Followers will be motivated to achieve the stated goals (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational leaders display certain attributes that instil pride in others and earn respect as well as use certain behaviours that use inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration (Bass, 1997; Avolio & Bass, 2004; Vrba, 2007). This makes transformational leaders well liked, appreciated and trusted (Gardener & Stough, 2002). In displaying the attributes and behaviours mentioned, transformational leaders use a number of emotional intelligence skills or have emotional intelligence traits to achieve the stated transformational leadership outcomes. While both leadership types use a certain level emotional intelligence to achieve their goals, the effective transformational leadership requires significant higher levels of emotional intelligence to influence and motivate followers towards achieving higher order goals, as
it influences followers to achieve much more than the stated goals outlined by the transactional leader.

Emotions are part of being human, yet decisions based on emotions alone are subjective. Being a relatively new scientific subject, there is still on-going debate around emotional intelligence, and various schools of thought are evident. Emotional intelligence is a way to explain individual differences between how people manage and deal with their own and others’ emotions. It illustrates the need and ability to join emotions and reasoning for effective decision making. Different approaches to emotional intelligence include the ability and trait-based approach, yet according to literature, these can equally be considered to contribute towards leadership success.

What makes exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership interesting is that there is no one correct or best trait or mixture of traits of emotional intelligence that is ideal for all circumstances, but that individual situations, job requirements, cultural, geographical and ethничal factors add to the circumstances that leaders need to manage to excel. Having the ideal set of emotional competencies for the particular situation of Namibian leadership is one of the objectives that this study aims to explore in the Namibian context. As emotional intelligence is made of a host of factors, and each applies differently to a certain differentiated situation, it will be good to ascertain which factors make leaders successful.
Emotional intelligence being trainable to some level, and subject to the leader having the right set of cognitive skills for the situation, any possible gaps identified for the Namibian leadership cadre may be developed through a carefully crafted development plan, which – if proven in this study – may be an alternative and solution to the Namibian leadership crisis currently experienced.
CHAPTER 4

4. Empirical study

This chapter describes the research approach and methodology used to determine the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership ability or styles of middle management in Namibia by means of testing the five hypotheses. This chapter is divided into four sections, which respectively describe the research approach, research design, research procedure, the participants and the measuring instruments used.

4.1 Research approach

A quantitative approach has been followed that attempted to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership with middle managers in Namibia.

4.2 Research design

The research design for data collection and analysis was guided by the underlying scientific commitment, the cross-sectional time dimension and the particular data collection method.

4.2.1 Scientific commitment

In this study statistical methods have been employed to test the formulated hypothesis according to Kerlinger and Lee’s understanding of a structured and objective procedure which should be seen as “....systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of natural phenomena guided by theory and hypothesis about presumed relations among such phenomena” (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999, p.12).
Based on the above definition, the study attempted to determine in an objective and scientific way if there is a specific relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence. It was considered to be necessary to employ a quantitative approach, as this facilitates the possibility to measure pre-defined constructs in a tangible way. This is more authoritative than relying on descriptive survey measures, which are based exclusively on narrative constructs to describe what is seen and observed. According to literature, a method to evaluate the properties of the data contributes inherently to the quality of the outcome (Leedy, 1998).

4.2.2 Time dimension

The time dimension of this study was cross-sectional. This implies that a snapshot or point-in-time measurement was taken of constructs that define, inter alia, emotional intelligence and leadership constructs. The advantage of this approach was that results could be obtained quickly and at relatively low cost (Leedy, 1998).

4.2.3 Survey design

Data was collected with two acknowledged and recognized questionnaires, using a convenience sampling method (SPSS, 2010). Data collection involved distributing the questionnaires to willing participants and generating the opportunity for data capturing and measurement on a quantifiable Likert-type scale. The data generated was then analysed with statistical methods to determine the relationships between the different variables representing the research constructs.
4.3 Participants

After a twelve-week period and forty-two call backs (personal telephone calls, emails and personal visits), 148 questionnaires out of 250 were returned, constituting a response rate of 59.2%. Various organizations and government departments refused outright to participate, claiming time constraints, work overload, unwillingness to co-ordinate the distribution of the questionnaires in their organization and other restrictions preventing them from participating.

Table 3 indicates that slightly more than half (54%) of the participants were males, while 43% were females. The ratio was affected by the convenience sampling method used for the study. This would nevertheless indicate that a relatively balanced gender equality exists among the participative group in management positions. The group consisted of ninety-three participants who worked in the private sector (63%), twelve worked in the public sector (8%), and the remaining forty-three participants (29%) worked in parastatal organizations.

The participants came from a very diverse language/cultural background, which included Damara/Nama, Oshiwambo, English, German, Otjiherero, Afrikaans, Lozi, Coloured, Portuguese, Masubia, Rehoboth Baster, Swedish and Mbunda. The majority of the respondents (60%) indicated that their home language is Afrikaans. Language was not restricted to the Caucasian race but included Africans. English as home language was spoken by 5% of the population.
The sample consisted further of nine persons representing 6% of the sample who collectively spoke European languages other than mentioned (German, Portuguese, Swedish). There were thirty-three respondents who spoke an African language as their mother tongue (Lozi, Masubia, Nama/Damara, Otjiherero, Oshiwambo, Mbunda) comprising 22% of the sample.

In terms of employment status two persons (1%) indicated that they were self-employed. Six respondents (4%) worked for an organization that employed less than fifty people. The majority, eighty-four people (58%) worked for organizations that employed between fifty-one and five hundred people. Fifty respondents (34%) indicated that they worked for a company with more than five hundred employees.
Table 3

*Characteristics of the Participants (N= 148).*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undisclosed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language/Cultural</td>
<td>Afrikaans</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>background</td>
<td>English</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other European</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other African</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undisclosed</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment</td>
<td>Private Sector</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Public Sector</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Self-employed</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>&lt; 50 Employees</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp; Size</td>
<td>51-500 Employees</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&gt; 500 Employees</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Undisclosed</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Measuring instruments

The questionnaires under review are both self-report questionnaires. They include the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)* by Petrides and the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)* by Avolio and Bass (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Petrides, 2009).
4.4.1 Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue)

The *TEIQue* questionnaire that was made available for this study was the full form, which consists of 153 items (rated on a seven-point Likert scale). The questionnaire includes 13 facets, organised under four factors that are categorised as: *Well-being*, *Self-control*, *Emotionality* and *Sociability*. Two additional facets (*Adaptability* and *Self-motivation*) contribute directly to the Global Trait score (Petrides, 2009).

The factor analysis required some consideration. According to Cureton and Mulaik (2010), orthogonal rotations such as Kaiser's iterative algorithm for the Varimax rotation fails, when there is a substantial cluster of test vectors near the middle of each bounding segment. This leads to non-bounding segments more heavily over-determined than those at the boundaries of the configuration of test vectors. This is the case with the TEIQue. For this reason, an oblique rotation such as a single structure Promax rotation was considered, which is supported by Petrides (2009).

Descriptive statistics were based on initial solution factor analysis. The correlation matrix was based on coefficients. Extraction was based on primary factor analysis which was analysed by means of a correlation matrix. Scree plot was used as display and extraction based on Kaiser Criterion with an Eigenvalue of 1 or more. Maximum iteration for convergence was set on 25 for both extraction and rotation. Factors were extracted and rotated to simple structure via the Promax algorithm with the Kappa parameter set to 4 (as in the original questionnaire).
4.4.2 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ questionnaire that was made available for this study, was the shortened form (5X Short), which consists of 45 items (rated on a five-point Likert scale). This form is often used for research purposes on grounds of good correlation with the long form and shorter response time. The shorter response time seems to be a very important factor considered by people when making a decision to participate in a study or not. The MLQ evaluates twelve factors that have been identified to contribute to a certain leadership style. It is indicated that Transformational Leadership is supported by the variables idealised influence (attributed), idealised influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. The specific variables that determine the Transactional Leadership style is determined by contingent reward, management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). The third scale indicated by this questionnaire carries the name of the variable and is made up by Laissez-faire. There are some additional factors involved, being extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction which are considered “outcome” factors (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The composite scales were used for statistical analysis in this study, which means that the variables that defined the constructs where accommodated within the main categories Transformational Leaderships, Transactional Leadership and Laissez-faire style.
A detailed evaluation of this construct was not the primary focus of this study. The aim was limited to obtain an indication if the construct is valid, to be included for hypothesis testing. For this reason, goodness of fit was limited only to the Bartlett’s Test for Sphericity to calculate an approximate chi-square value.

Initial principal components factor analysis was conducted only with the leadership factor variables of the MLQ (5X Short Form). The leadership factors are compiled from the individual items and are the constructs that define Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-faire leadership styles.

Due to the different composition of the MLQ compared to the TEIQue, a different procedure could be performed. Apart from the oblique rotation used for the TEIQue, orthogonal rotation as statistical measure was also available for consideration (SPSS, 2010). When using an orthogonal rotation, the factors are kept independent throughout the rotation. This means that any correlation between factors was avoided. Varimax was chosen, as it is an uncomplicated rotation method for the interpretation of factors, and communalities were reviewed as both raw and rescaled data.

4.4.3 Combined measurement analysis

This second section presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations of the study. The means, standard deviations, reliabilities (as measured by Cronbach’s
alpha), kurtosis and skewness of the variables of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire were computed.

The means is computed by adding up all the scores and dividing them by N, (the number of scores). The means is sensitive to extreme values and has been compared to the median as well. The median is the middlemost score when all the scores have been ranked (Gregory, 1996).

Two further key statistics are skewness and kurtosis. These indexes, similar to the mean, determine how much a variable’s distribution deviates from the distribution of the normal curve. In reporting skewness and kurtosis, skewness refers to the tilt in a distribution where kurtosis refers to the peakedness of a distribution where these should fall within the +2 to −2 range when the data is normally distributed (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Skewness refers to the lack of symmetry in a distribution. Distributions that cluster towards the higher end of the spectrum are classified as negative skew, those with a cluster towards the lower end of the spectrum are known to be positive skew. Kurtosis measures whether the peak of the distribution is taller or shorter than the ideal curve and whether the “tails” are higher or lower than the normal curve. Very peaked curves have a positive kurtosis. If a frequency distribution of a variable has a large (plus or minus) skewness and/or kurtosis relative to the specific standard error, that variable is said to deviate from normality. As a rule of thumb it can be argued that if the skewness
and/or kurtosis measure is more than 2.5 its standard error, the assumption of normality has been violated (Morgan & Griego, 1998).

In order to accept the results of the questionnaires, reliability analysis is imperative (Smit, 1980). Reliability analysis is a procedure that determines whether the questionnaire is reliable, i.e. if all questions in the questionnaire are measuring the same properties. This means, that if the questionnaire was to be split into two halves and a score calculated for each half; theoretically, the two halves should be the same for a reliable questionnaire. Different methods were devised for that purpose including Gutman, split-half, parallel, strict parallel and Cronbach alpha (SPSS, 2010).

Due to the fact that questionnaires can be split up in a number of ways, Cronbach’s theory is to split the data into two in every possible manner. The correlation coefficient for each of the sets of halves is calculated subsequently, and an average of these correlation coefficients is provided, which is known as the Cronbach’s alpha. Due to its encompassing combination, this method is regarded the most acceptable at present and is encountered in most recent researches (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999).

Correlation co-efficients are widely reported in research journals as possible measures to determine these properties. According to Kerlinger and Lee (1999) questions about the significance of the coefficients – and the “reality” of the relations they express- must be asked. This relation is expressed as a correlation coefficient that is calculated on 95%,
99% and 99.9% level as expressed in a .05, .01 and .001 significance score respectively. The .01 significance level, for example, would indicate that there is a 99% possibility that there is a relationship between the properties. Significance values vary according to sample size. For the purpose of this study the parameters provided by the SPSS program have been used and indicated (SPSS, 2010). Effect sizes (Steyn, 1999) were used to determine the practical significance of the findings. A cut-off point of .30 medium and .50 for a large effect (Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

4.5 Research procedure

Research procedures entail the steps of data collection and statistical analyses which constitute a major component of the entire study. In the process, the researcher was mindful of following the correct ethical procedures.

4.5.1 Ethics

Participation in the study was on a voluntary basis and all information was handled anonymously and with high regard to the respondent’s privacy.

However, the opportunity that the researcher engages in unethical conduct potentially exists. Struwig & Stead (2004) identified the most common types, being informed consent, confidentiality, deception and plagiarism. All the guidelines in this regard were adhered to.
Informed consent: Participants voluntarily agreed to participate in this study. They were informed of their rights before the research was conducted to ensure that they were free to decline participation or to withdraw at any time during the research process.

Confidentiality: Confidentiality was provided to all participants involved in the research study.

Deception: Deception means that participants are misinformed about the character of the study, and if aware they would not have participated. Participants were informed in writing and via their human resources department about the objectives of the study.

Plagiarism: Plagiarism refers to the use of work originating from someone else without proper recognition of their involvement. APA style was used for referencing the work of other authors to avoid plagiarism.

4.5.2 Data collection

After obtaining the necessary authorization of the two test instrument providers, Namibian organizations found within the private, but also parastatal and public sectors where approached for assistance and participation. The only criterion that was stipulated was that the participants should form part of the middle management team of the organization. It was left to the organization to apply their definition of middle
management, and it was suggested they do this according to their organization specific job grading system.

For the purpose of this study, only the job position and no other variables were identified as source to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership. It was argued, that the main focus should be on the concept “management” that applies to a certain job position involving a certain level of responsibility. This is independent of gender or cultural background, contrary to the approach followed by other studies.

The same research instruments have however been used in similar studies elsewhere. Studies conducted by Ackermann, Scheepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2004), Avolio and Bass (2004), Cooper & Petrides (2009), Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl and Rindermann (2008), Leroy and Roy (2007), Mikolajczak, Luminet and Petrides (2010); Petrides and Furnham (2001), Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki (2007), as well as Vrba (2007), indicated that the questionnaires were suitable to extract information on emotional intelligence and leadership styles. The data scoring mechanisms didn’t rely on gender or culture specific constructs but were standardized on a specific population (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2001).

The questionnaires were not standardized for the Namibian population, which called for proper statistical verification before any findings could summarily be accepted (Hair, Anderson, Tetham, & Black, 1998).
4.5.3 Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis of data commenced after completion of data collection. The statistical analysis package SPSS, version 19.0 (2010) was used. After capturing the data into a spreadsheet, the first step was to verify the properties of the questionnaires.

The procedures reported by Petrides and Furnham (2001), Ackermann, Scheepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2004), Avolio and Bass (2004), Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki (2007), Mikolajczak, Luminet, Leroy and Roy (2007); Vrba (2007), Freudenthaler, Neubauer, Gabler, Scherl and Rindermann (2008), Cooper & Petrides (2009) and Petrides (2010) were emulated to determine the properties of the questionnaires in the local context. This allowed for verification if data collected from the Namibian population displayed similar properties compared to the original standardized versions. It is argued that predictions and recommendation which are based on data that displays specific statistical properties improve the value of subsequent engagement (Gregory, 1996).

The research data was factor loaded to obtain an indication of the validity of the instruments. The primary objective here was to confirm the properties of the instruments, rather than to make a prediction on suitability of the questionnaire for use on the local population for future purposes. This could and should form the basis of further studies. A confirmatory approach was followed. Parameters established for the original studies were investigated and compared to the results of the present study (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).
The properties of the questionnaires were subsequently explored by means of descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, kurtosis and skewness). The Cronbach alpha score was included in Table 5 to indicate the reliability of the data (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999).

Pearson’s product-moment correlation coefficient was used to calculate the relationship between the two questionnaires. Because of the cross-sectional design, no causality (causal ordering) could be indicated with this procedure, which called for additional measures to determine such (Leedy, 1998).

Subsequently, hierarchical linear regression (hierarchical regression) was employed as technique to determine if the independent variables (EQ traits) had any predictive qualities on the different dependent leadership variables (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999).

According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) different regression procedures exist. Regression is a multivariate procedure that can be utilized to test the amount of variance in the dependent variable accounted for by each independent variable. In this study, the different traits that make up the leadership styles are classified as dependant variables. The four emotional intelligence factors are the independent variables. The advantage of this procedure is that the actual relationship between variables is exposed, which otherwise could have been masked, influenced or distorted by other variables.
To achieve this aim hierarchical regression was used. According to Tabachnik and Fidell (2001) hierarchical models provide a way of examining differences across populations. They pool the information for the disparate groups without assuming that they belong to precisely the same population. It is possible to examine differences across populations. They pool the information for the disparate groups without assuming that they belong to precisely the same population. In the context of regression analyses, hierarchical models allow the researcher to examine the extent to which regression coefficients vary across different sub-populations, while borrowing strength from the full sample.

According to Soper (2010) the sample size for hierarchical regression analyses can be calculated by taking into consideration the statistical power level (.8), the anticipated effect size (.15), the number of independent variables (4), the number of dependent variables (3) and the probability level (.001). The statistical calculator provided by Soper (2010) calculates a minimum sample size of $N=121$ to perform a hierarchical regression analysis. The sample size of $N=148$ that constitutes this study is thus adequate to perform hierarchical regression analysis.

### 4.6 Research hypotheses

The research hypothesis guided the research efforts and tried to predict the outcome of relationships between emotional intelligence and leadership styles. Insights obtained from the literature study served as guideline to formulate the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and
leadership styles.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Laissez-faire leadership style.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Transactional leadership style.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Transformational leadership style.

Hypothesis 5: Subscales of EI predict the variance in Transformational leadership style.

4.7 Conclusion

In conclusion it is said that a quantitative approach with two standardized questionnaires holds open the possibility to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. Based on the synergy between leadership style and leadership ability it can be argued that identification of leadership style and level of emotional intelligence can contribute to the understanding of the importance of these factors in leadership training and development.

The research needs to be conducted in a way that allows insight into the validity and reliability of the two questionnaires (Gregory, 1996). The rationale is, that there are a number of variables within the sample that can have a detrimental effect on the outcome of the research. Both instruments are not validated for Namibia and are exposed to several external factors that might limit the suitability of the instruments for local
conditions to reach an informed conclusion. The cultural diversity that was encountered can, according to Nuuyoma (2001), influence the interpretation of respondents engaged in the response process in a big way, and hence will affect conceptualization of information and subsequent answering of the questionnaire. This requires proper clarification through data analysis in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 5

5. Results

This chapter consists of six sections and summarises the results of the data analysis. The first section reviews the psychometric properties of the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* and *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. The second section presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and inter-correlations of the study. In the third section the results of the correlation analysis between emotional intelligence and leadership style are discussed. This section also links the main findings of this study to the research hypotheses. The fourth section investigates the predictive relationship between emotional intelligence as independent variable on leadership styles which are presented as dependable variable.

The results reported in this section were obtained through the procedures described and discussed in Chapter 4.

5.1 Psychometric properties of the constructs

This section reviewed the psychometric properties of the *Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire* and *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. The insights obtained were used to test the different hypothesis.
5.2 Factor Analysis of the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

The sample size in every study needs to be considered to ensure valid results. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy is available to determine if the sample size is adequate for the procedure. Scores for this procedure range from 0 to 1. A measure of above .50 would indicate that the sample is adequate (SPSS, 2010). The score calculated for the Namibian data set achieved a rating of .89. According to Kaiser, a value between .80 and .90 is “great”, which leads to the conclusion that the sample size is adequate (SPSS, 2010).

Results were compared with the data obtained by Petrides and Furnham (2001), to determine if there was any resemblance between the results achieved in the United Kingdom with the standardized version and those achieved in Namibia with the research questionnaire version.

Calculations of Eigenvalues with SPSS version 19.0, according to the Kaiser Criterion, produced a value greater than 1 for the first four factors (10.75, 1.93, 1.33 and 1.12 respectively) after simple structure rotation via the Promax algorithm. The four factors explained 75.83% of the variance of the 15 facets and were identified as Emotionality, Self-control, Sociability and Well-being. This agrees with the findings of Petrides (2009).
Only variances higher than .30 have been reported in Table 4. This includes the communalities for both Namibian and original United Kingdom sample. In this regard the scores were reported in line with the approach followed by Petrides and Furnham (2001) in the original study who only reported the variance once the factors had been extracted.
Table 4

*Factor Analysis: Factor Pattern Matrix Results for the TEIQue.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 1 Nam</th>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 2 Nam</th>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 3 Nam</th>
<th></th>
<th>Factor 4 Nam</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion Perception</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Empathy</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion Expression</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion Regulation</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress Management</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impulsiveness (low)</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adaptability</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-motivation</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertiveness</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion Management</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Awareness</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Happiness</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trait Optimism</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Extraction of four factors was reported by Petrides & Furnham (2001). This was confirmed by the present study. Results indicate a significant resemblance between the scores obtained in the two separate studies.

The items that loaded on factor one, two, three and four were associated with *Emotionality, Self-control, Sociability* and *Well-being* respectively. The factors
correlated well with the facets of which they consist. There were limited cross-loadings between items. The items *adaptability* and *self-motivation* are facets that are linked to the global emotional intelligence scale, which loaded on Factor 2 (*Self-control*). The item *self-esteem* loaded both on Factor 3 and Factor 4, which represents *Sociability* and *Well-being* respectively. The original classification made by Petrides and Furnham (2001) links these items to *Well-being*. It was beyond the scope of this research to restructure items to avoid cross-loadings.

These cross-loadings are not limited to the Namibian study but have been reported by Petrides and Furnham (2001) in the original study. The results suggest that loadings achieved in the Namibian study compared favourably with the original study done in the United Kingdom. Some factors even loaded stronger than the original study.

The outcome suggests that the information gathered with this specific trait emotional intelligence questionnaire can be used with confidence for the study at hand.

### 5.3 Factor Analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was again used to determine the adequacy of the sample size for the procedure. The calculated KMO value of .61 indicated that the sample size of this study is large enough to perform factor analysis (SPSS, 2010).
The data was rescaled after Varimax normalised rotation. Three factors with an Eigenvalue of greater than 1 (5.45, 1.35 and 1.03) were revealed. These factors accounted for 45.43%, 11.29% and 8.57% of the total variance (65.3%), respectively. The scores were obtained after four iterations. In a similar study in South Africa, Schlechter and Strauss (2008) found a similar pattern with three Eigenvalues higher than 1. This resemblance suggests the same principle tendencies between the two data sets. Table 5 shows the result of the rotation.
Table 5

*Factor Analysis: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealised Influence (Attention)*</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealised Influence (Behaviour)*</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Motivation*</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellect Simulation*</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual Consideration*</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contingent Reward**</td>
<td>.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Exception (Active)**</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Exception (Passive)**</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire ***</td>
<td>-.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra Effort</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comments:
Original Scale: Bass and Avolio, 1995
N=132 (case wise deletion of missing data)
Principal components factor analysis with Varimax-normalised rotation.
The descriptors show the leadership factors Transformational Leadership*, Transactional Leadership** and Laissez-faire style *** that represent the original items by Bass & Avolio, 1995.
The factors reported in Table 5 agreed with those identified by Ackermann, Scheepers, Lessing and Dannhauser (2006) in another South African study. Loadings on Factor 1 agreed with *Transformational Leadership* style, loadings on Factor 2 with *Laissez-faire* and those items extracted and listed under Factor 3 agreed with *Transactional Leadership* style. According to the authors of the study, there was a strong correlation between the results of this study and the original study of Bass (1985).

Due to negative correlations all scores have been reported in Table 4. Analysis of the data showed that several correlations were higher than .70 for four of the factors that are associated with *Transformational Leadership* (Factor 1). These were *Idealised Influence (Attributed)*, *Idealised Influence (Behaviour)*, *Inspirational Motivation* and *Individualised Consideration*. *Intellectual Stimulation* scored above .60 and is associated with *Transformational Leadership* as well. The item *Contingent Reward* also scored above .60 but was classified as an item that resorts under *Transactional Leadership*. According to Avolio and Bass (2004) there is a certain flow between *Transactional Leadership* and *Transformational Leadership* styles that suggests that transformational leaders at times also display attributes of transactional leaders. This would place the item *Contingent Reward* on the continuum between the two different styles. It needs to be pointed out though, that this item is cross-loading and should resort under Factor 3. Comparison with the raw data iteration indicated that the item indeed loaded significantly on .55 under Factor 3. Case wise deletion of missing data was necessary to
improve the loadings on the other factors and the allocation of *Contingent Reward* under Factor 1 was accepted.

The outcome variables, *Extra Effort, Effectiveness* and *Satisfaction* also correlated highly with Factor 1. This positioning is in line with the assumption that *Transformational Leaders* are inclined to provide extra effort, subscribe to effective procedures and are generally satisfied, as outcome of the specific style (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The factor *Laissez-faire* and *Management-By-Exception (Passive)* fall within Factor 2 and loaded highly on a score exceeding .80 on the table. The original research indicated that only Laissez-faire loaded highly on Factor 2. According to Avolio and Bass (2004) it is reported by many consultants who use the MLQ that it is useful to label *Contingent Reward* and *Management-By-Exception (Active)* as *Transactional Leadership* style and *Management-By-Exception (Passive)* and *Laissez-faire* as passive/avoidant leadership style. The reviewed classification suggested, there is also a certain flow between *Transactional Leadership* style and *Laissez-faire* style. Based on the above observation, the items loaded correctly.

The data presented on Factor 3 indicated a very strong correlation of higher than .90 with *Management-By-Exception (Active)*. This component is part of the *Transactional Leadership* style and is indicated as such. Drawback is that it was the only factor that
loaded strongly. As was the case with *Contingent Reward*, reiteration with raw data showed a loading of .54 on *Management-By-Exception (Passive)*. Again, case wise deletion of missing data was necessary to improve the loadings on the other factors.

Criticism can be levelled that Factor 3 only showed one significant loading. This needs to be viewed against the properties of the questionnaire, however, it allows movement between the different styles. The specific items that are attributed to Transactional Leadership styles have been observed during the initial rotation. They were subsequently rotated to the adjacent Factors where they linked up appropriately with the associated items.

The negative or low correlations encountered are appropriate for the columns under which they appeared. Despite a single loading on Factor 3, it can be argued within the specified context that the *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire* measures what it is supposed to measure. The deviations encountered have been reported as part of the synergies of the questionnaire that would not alter the properties of the *MLQ*.

Based on the outcome of the factor analysis, sufficient indications have been obtained that the *TEIQue* and *MLQ* are valid instruments for local conditions and data collected can be considered for further analysis.
5.4 Descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations of the variables in the study

This second section presents the descriptive statistics, reliabilities and inter-correlations of the study. The means, standard deviations, reliabilities (as measured by Cronbach’s alpha), kurtosis and skewness of the variables of the questionnaires have been computed.

The aim of this study was to focus on emotional intelligence on the factor level and not the facet level. For this reason only the main factors (Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality and Sociability) and the Global Emotional Intelligence factor where considered for further data analyses. The same applied for the leadership styles which have been reduced to Transformational Leadership style, Transactional Leadership style and Laissez-faire style. The specific properties of the two constructs are presented in Table 6.
Table 6

*Descriptive Statistics of the TEIQue and MLQ.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Cronbach α</th>
<th>Kurtosis</th>
<th>Skewness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>5.49</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>-0.16</td>
<td>-0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionality</td>
<td>5.02</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>4.93</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Trait EI</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>-0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>-0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>-0.45</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Point of departure was to determine whether the individual variables were normally distributed. The Global Trait EI is the composite score derived from all the individual scores and will be used for hypothesis testing. As such, the properties of this score are viewed as important. The mean of the global trait EI (5.07) does not vary significantly from the median (5.05). A similar relation is displayed for the remainder of the scores. The standard error for kurtosis was calculated as 0.40 and 0.20 for skewness. It is obvious that the observed scores didn’t show any significant deviation for both kurtosis and skewness. This distribution should support subsequent calculations.
Reliability was tested with Cronbach alpha. All the constructs under review showed scores in access of .70, which is the minimum value that can still be considered (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999).

The descriptive properties of the Global Trait Emotional Intelligence score has a very significant Cronbach alpha score of .95 and can thus be used with confidence for testing the different hypotheses.

Although it is not the purpose of the study to compare results with other countries it is however interesting to benchmark the results. If the actual performance of Namibian middle management on the TEIQue is compared to that of middle management in a study cited by Petrides (2009) the average score achieved on the Global Intelligence score obtained a mean score of 5.38 (Petrides & Furnham, 2008). If regard is taken to the fact that the mean Global Score achieved for this was 5.07 it is clear that the emotional intelligence score for middle management leaders in Namibia was lower than that achieved by participants in the original study. This suggests higher Emotional Intelligence development in the UK and opens the possibility to investigate the reason for this discrepancy in another study.

The same principles that were used to investigate the EI traits were applied to the MLQ. First step was to ascertain whether the individual variables were normally distributed. The standard deviation of the means when compared to the median was calculated for
the composite scales of Leadership, i.e. *Transformational Leadership* style, *Transactional Leadership* style and *Laissez-faire* style. The mean and median did not show any significant deviation. This can be seen from the score for *Transactional Leadership* which was 3.06 for the mean, and 3.05 for the median respectively. The largest variation was observed for *Laissez-faire*, which obtained a mean of 0.69 and a median of 0.50, indicating some variation in data properties. Acceptable parameters where calculated as 1.17 for kurtosis and 0.53 for skewness. The results show no significant deviation for kurtosis if the individual scales are used.

The reliability calculation as per Cronbach alpha showed a fluctuating reliability for uncorrected *MLQ* items. Out of a total 148 respondents, 23 didn’t complete all the items. List-wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure was applied. Resulting correction produced acceptable alpha scores, all meeting the minimum criterion of at least .70 with a highest score of .88 for the set. Vrba (2007) found a range of Cronbach alpha scores that spanned between .77 and .85 for the four *Transformational Leadership* styles of the *MLQ*. The *Transactional Leadership* style components scored between .60 and .84 respectively. The *Laissez-faire* style scored .76, somewhat lower than the score obtained in this study. Considering that Vrba (2007) found the data reliable, the results for this study can be accepted as well.

Comparison of actual performance by Namibian middle management on the MLQ suggested that the overall average *Transformational Leadership* score was lower than
that reported for the South African and US samples. The performance achieved on Transactional Leadership style exceeded both the South African and US samples. The Laissez-faire leadership style exceeded that of the US sample but not that of the South African sample. This suggests that the Transactional Leadership style and Laissez-faire style is more prominently developed in Namibia than the Transformational Leadership style.

As the factor loadings and Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients indicated that the combined scales of the TEIQue, Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality, Sociability and Global Trait Emotional Intelligence are well represented for this scale, they have been selected to investigate correlations with leadership styles, which is presented in Table 7.
Table 7

*Pearson Product Moment Correlation between TEIQue and MLQ Factors.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Well-being</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Self-control</td>
<td>.55**++</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Emotionality</td>
<td>.55**++</td>
<td>.47**+</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sociability</td>
<td>.62**++</td>
<td>.54**++</td>
<td>.66**++</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Global Trait EI</td>
<td>.81**++</td>
<td>.79**++</td>
<td>.83**++</td>
<td>.83**++</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Transformational Leadership</td>
<td>.61**++</td>
<td>.37**+</td>
<td>.48**+</td>
<td>.47**+</td>
<td>.59**++</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Transactional Leadership</td>
<td>- .05</td>
<td>- .05</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Laissez-faire Style</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
<td>-.36**+</td>
<td>-.33**+</td>
<td>-.34**+</td>
<td>-.39**+</td>
<td>-.27**</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant on the .01 level
* Correlation is significant on the .05 level
+ r > .30 – practically significant (medium effect)
++ r > .50 – practically significant (large effect)

Table 7 shows that *Well-being* as emotional intelligence construct correlated significantly (practically significant, large effect) with the leadership construct *Transformational Leadership*. However, *Transactional Leadership* didn’t correlate practically or statistically significantly with *Well-being*. There was a statistically significant negative correlation with the *Laissez-faire* style. This would mean that non-engagement, which is associated with *Laissez-faire* style, doesn’t seem to show any relationship with *Well-being*. 
Self-control as Emotional Intelligence construct correlated significantly (practically significant, medium effect) with Transformational Leadership. There was a practical significant (medium effect) negative correlation with Laissez-faire. Self-control does not seem to correlate significantly with the Laissez-faire style.

Emotionality as emotional intelligence construct correlated significantly (practically significant, medium effect) with the leadership construct Transformational Leadership style. A practically significant negative (medium effect) correlation exists between Emotionality and Laissez-faire.

Sociability as emotional intelligence construct correlated significantly (practically significant, medium effect) with the leadership style Transformational Leadership. There was a practically significant (medium effect) negative correlation with Laissez-faire and slightly positive correlation with Transactional Leadership.

The Global Emotional Intelligence Score as the central and encompassing emotional intelligence construct correlated significantly with the Transformational Leadership style. The correlation indicates a practically significant correlation and displays a large effect. There was a practically significant (medium effect) negative correlation with Laissez-faire and a very low correlation on Transactional Leadership of which the latter was not significant.
It was obvious from this comparison that the *Global Emotional Intelligence* score confirms the general trend already observed with the other Emotional Intelligence factors. The findings suggest that there is a positive relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and what Avolio and Bass (2004) describe as *Transformational Leadership* style. There seemed to be no statistically relevant relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Transactional Leadership*. The analyses showed that there is a significant negative correlation between emotional intelligence and *Laissez-faire* style.

Correlation analyses confirmed the relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and some components attributed to certain leadership styles. The first research hypothesis could thus be tested, which was formulated as:

\[ H_1: \text{There is a significant relationship between EI traits and leadership styles.} \]

Hypothesis 1 can be partly accepted as there is a significant positive relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Transformational Leadership* and a significant negative relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Laissez-faire* style. Transactional leadership style does not correlate significantly with *Emotional Intelligence* and needs thus be excluded from the hypothesis.

Acceptance of this hypothesis allows consideration to test \( H_2, H_3 \) and \( H_4 \) as well.

It can be stated that the second hypothesis can be accepted as well, i.e.
H2: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Laissez-faire leadership style.

A definite relationship has been found. It needs to be pointed out though that the relationship was a negative one. Causality needs to be evaluated under regression analysis to determine if low emotional intelligence can culminate in a passive leadership style.

H3: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Transactional Leadership style.

There is no significant correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Transactional Leadership styles. This style has the possibility to flow to both sides of the spectrum. It seems that the negative correlation that has been found with Laissez-faire style and emotional intelligence is loaded on some of the factors. The hypothesis needs to be rejected as emotional intelligence did not seem to correlate with this style.

H4: There is a significant relationship between EI traits and Transformational Leadership style.

Hypothesis 4 is accepted due to a significant correlation between this leadership style and the Emotional Intelligence scores. The intensity of the correlations is higher than .30 and can be regarded as strong.
As it is not possible to determine a causal relationship between leadership styles and emotional intelligence, hierarchical regression analysis will be performed in an effort to determine if the selected independent variables allocated to emotional intelligence will impact on the dependent variables represented by the different leadership styles. If causality can be identified it will be possible to organize and structure leadership training efforts in a more tangible and effective way.

5.5 Hierarchical regression to test research hypotheses

In order to test Hypothesis 5, hierarchical regression calculation was used to test the prediction, which allures to the fact that the independent variables represented by Emotional Intelligence factors will influence the dependent variable represented by Transformational Leadership style.

The tables represent the variance expressed as $F$ in the table. The standardized Coefficient Beta score indicates which variable plays a significant role in this regard. The $R^2$ value represents the multiple correlation coefficients and percentage variance predicted by the independent and dependent variables. The adjusted version $R^2$ is used which reflects the number of variables in the equation. The probability value $p$ is indicated on a .05, .01 and .001 level with confidence interval established on $(1-p)$. (SPSS, 2010).
The researcher assessed the contribution that Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality and Sociability had upon Transformational leadership. The results are reported in Table 8.

Table 8

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Transformational Leadership as Dependent Variable and Emotional Intelligence as Independent Variable.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std Er</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>.00**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>-0.57</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotionality</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**P < .001 significance

The adjusted R² score indicates that the combined effect of the four factors on the Transformational Leadership explains 40% of the variance. The data suggests that at least one of the independent variables is a significant predictor. More specifically, it appears that only Well-being with a significant Beta correlation (p < .001) predicted Transformational Leadership.

The results of hierarchical regression analyses with Transactional Leadership as dependent variable and Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality and Sociability as independent variables are reported in Table 9.
Table 9

Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Transactional Leadership as Dependent Variable and Emotional Intelligence as Independent Variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std Er</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>-0.08</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionality</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05 significance

The adjusted $R^2$ score indicates that the combined effect of the four factors on Transactional Leadership explains 6% of the variance. Despite the fact that there is only a low incidence there was nevertheless a significant Beta correlation with Sociability on a p < .05 level.

The information suggests that Sociability as emotional intelligence factor has the potential to predict Transactional Leadership. In the view of the contribution to the total variance, the contribution potential of this Emotional Intelligence factor is seen as rather limited.
The results of hierarchical regression analyses with *Laissez-faire* style as dependent variable and *Well-being*, *Self-control*, *Emotionality* and *Sociability* as independent variables are reported in Table 10.

### Table 10

*Hierarchical Regression Analysis with Laissez-faire Style as Dependent Variable and Emotional Intelligence as Independent Variable.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized coefficients</th>
<th>( R )</th>
<th>( R^2 )</th>
<th>( \Delta R^2 )</th>
<th>( F )</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>( p )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>2.76          0.47</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>9.85</td>
<td>5.92</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-being</td>
<td>0.28          0.11</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-control</td>
<td>-0.19         0.08</td>
<td>-.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.30</td>
<td>.02*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotionality</td>
<td>-0.20         0.10</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-2.01</td>
<td>.04*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>-0.19         0.11</td>
<td>-.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.73</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \( p < .05 \) significance

The adjusted \( R^2 \) score indicates that the combined effect of the four factors on *Laissez-faire* explains 20% of the variance. The indications are that two of the independent variables are significant predictors of causality.

The data set indicates that *Self-control* and *Emotionality* show a significant negative Beta correlation on a \( p < .05 \) level. According to the data it can be argued that persons with low *Self-control* and less obvious traits associated with strong *Emotionality* can be expected to show a *Laissez-faire* style.
It can thus be concluded that a lack *Self-control* and *Emotionality* as emotional intelligence factors can predict the *Laissez-faire* style. It has also been noted that persons who score high on *Self-control* and *Emotionality* present a more constructive leadership style. This emphasizes the importance of structured developmental programs that facilitate improvement of emotional intelligence.

Hierarchical regression analysis indicates that the four emotional intelligence factors can be used to predict the different leadership styles. It has been observed that all four emotional intelligence factors under review can predict in varying level of intensity those variables that are associated with the different *leadership* styles. This insight allows for testing of the last hypothesis that had a bearing on the predictive properties of the independent variables. It was formulated as:

\[ H_5. \text{ Subscales of EI predict the variance in Transformational Leadership style.} \]

The fifth hypothesis can thus be partly accepted. The statistical analyses confirmed that selected subscales of EI predict the variance in *Transformational Leadership* style.

The emotional intelligence factors were not successful to predict *Transaction*al *Leadership* style conclusively. This style didn’t show clear presence of emotional intelligence factors with respondents.
Laissez-faire leadership style correlated negatively with emotional intelligence. This means that there are indications that managers with low emotional intelligence will be more inclined to display an ineffective leadership style such as laissez-faire.

5.6 Conclusion

In this chapter the properties of the questionnaires were analysed with the assistance of factor analysis. The results obtained suggested that there was a strong resemblance between the data reported for the original study compared to that of the Namibian study.

Based on this finding the results could be used to describe the data with reference to the normal distribution and the reliability in terms of Cronbach alpha scores. The properties of the two questionnaires indicated close resemblance to the normal curve and proper reliability, which allowed further investigation.

Direct comparison between scores achieved on the two questionnaires from participants in the United Kingdom, the United States of America and South Africa indicated that Transactional Leadership and Laissez-faire style showed similarities with the local sample. The Namibian sample scored lower on both Transformational Leadership style and Emotional Intelligence than the foreign-based participants, indicating some possibilities for further engagement through training to alleviate the observed discrepancy between the Namibian sample and the rest under review.
Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to establish the correlations between Emotional Intelligence factors and the different leadership styles under review. The results indicated a strong positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence factors and Transformational Leadership style. The outcome indicated no specific correlations between Emotional Intelligence factors and Transactional Leadership styles and a negative correlation between the emotional-based factors and Laissez-faire style.

These findings could be utilized to test four of the five research hypothesis formulated for this study. All formulated hypotheses could be accepted, or partly accepted. This hypothesis specified that Emotional Intelligence factors will correlate with all leadership styles but could only show correlations with Transformational Leadership style and Laissez-faire style but not with Transactional Leadership style.

The fifth hypothesis was tested and accepted with Hierarchical Regression Analysis. The outcome indicated that the independent variable Well-being as Emotional Intelligence construct predicted Transformational Leadership style, (which represented the dependent variable) strongly.

Transactional Leadership style could only be predicted marginally by Sociability. The constructs Self-control and Emotionality suggested a negative predicative quality with Laissez-faire style. This means that people who scored low on these Emotional Intelligence factors are most likely prone to display a Laissez-faire style.
The findings indicated that the two questionnaires could be used in a statistically significant way to illustrate the strong relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Transformational Leadership* style. There was also sufficient evidence that *Laissez-faire* style displayed a negative relationship with *Emotional Intelligence*. This style becomes a possibility when certain *Emotional Intelligence* constructs are not well developed. *Emotional Intelligence* seemed to have only limited value to predict or influence *Transactional Leadership* style.

A more in-depth discussion of the results obtained from the literature review and the research findings that were part of this study will be offered in the next chapter. Some recommendations based on these insights will follow.
CHAPTER 6

6. Discussion of results and recommendations

This chapter will discuss the results obtained in the study, draw certain conclusions and offer suggestions for further development. In particular, the two constructs under discussion presented from literature, as well as the outcomes of the factor analysis and reliability testing are mentioned, findings of the correlations and regressions are summarised, and lastly, suggestions for the development of emotional intelligence as a determinant of leadership potential are offered.

In view of Namibia’s quest to achieve Vision 2030, which relies heavily on good leadership, this chapter provides suggestions on what may be considered and further explored as possible interventions on the level of educational institutions, government as well as the private sector as a whole and individual organizations in particular (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 2004).

This chapter concludes that to uplift the leadership styles and skills of the Namibian middle-management cadre overall, a national approach should be followed.

6.1 Conceptualisation of constructs from literature

Based on the literature review, the construct leadership in essence refers to the understanding and managing of human behaviour towards a specific outcome. Effective leaders need the ability to navigate the various challenges posed to them for the good of
their organizations, regardless of the circumstances. It is the ability to align people behind a goal and to “turn vision into a reality” (Alon & Higgins, 2005, p.502). Leadership in this study has been measured in the following sub-categories, namely Laissez-faire, Transactional Leadership and Transformational Leadership. Literature concluded that the best leaders displayed both Transactional and Transformational Leadership styles.

*Emotional Intelligence* is the capacity to understand, express and manage emotions, and to know and handle these emotions in oneself and in others. Emotional intelligence develops during a person’s life, and may be improved by means of development initiatives. While *Emotional Intelligence* is not a single predictor of performance, it corresponds to certain leadership styles, is linked to various indicators of work performance, and enables people to nurture positive work relationships. The ability to understand other’s emotional expressions helps emotionally intelligent leaders to adjust their behaviour and to positively manage social relations. *Emotional Intelligence* in this study is made up of the following factors: *Emotionality, Sociability, Well-being, Self-control* and a *Global Trait Emotional Intelligence* factor.

### 6.2 Outcome of the factor analysis and reliability of results

Based on the outcome of the factor analysis, sufficient indications have been obtained that the *TEiQue* and *MLQ* are valid instruments for local conditions and data collected can be considered for further analysis.
Reliability of the questionnaires was tested with Cronbach alpha. All the constructs under review showed scores in access of 0.70 which is the minimum value that can still be considered (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999).

It follows, that the results obtained in this study may be deemed valid and reliable, and hence, a conclusion relevant to the Namibian middle management population may be drawn from these results and may be generalized to this population.

6.3 Outcome of the correlation analysis

Correlation analyses confirmed the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and some components attributed to certain leadership styles. In particular, the research hypotheses were confirmed. Firstly, it was confirmed that there is a significant relationship between EI traits and leadership styles. Furthermore, it was confirmed that there is a significant relationship between Emotional Intelligence traits and two leadership styles, namely Laissez-faire and Transformational Leadership style.

Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality and Sociability correlated significantly with the leadership construct Transformational Leadership. The Global Emotional Intelligence score as the central and encompassing emotional intelligence construct correlated significantly with Transformational Leadership.
There seemed to be no statistically relevant relationship between *Emotional Intelligence* and *Transactional Leadership*, however, there was a slightly positive correlation between *Sociability* as an emotional intelligence construct and *Transactional Leadership*.

The analysis showed that there is a significantly negative correlation between emotional intelligence and *Laissez–Faire* style. All four emotional intelligence constructs, namely *Well-being, Self-control, Emotionality* and *Sociability* showed a significant negative correlation with *Laissez-faire*.

### 6.4 Outcome of the hierarchical regression analysis

Hierarchical regression analysis indicates that the four emotional intelligence factors can be used to predict the different leadership styles. It has been observed that all four emotional intelligence factors under review can predict in varying levels of intensity those variables that are associated with the different *leadership* styles.

The statistical analyses confirmed that the selected subscales of EI, i.e. well-being and emotionality, predict the variance in *Transformational Leadership* style. There was a slightly positive correlation with *Sociability* as an emotional intelligence construct and *Transactional Leadership*. The emotional intelligence factors, however, were not successful to predict *Transactional Leadership* style conclusively. This style did not show clear presence of emotional intelligence factors with respondents.
Laissez-faire style correlated negatively with Self-control and Emotionality. This means that there are indications that managers with low emotional intelligence, in particular low self-control and low emotionality, will be more inclined to display an ineffective leadership style such as Laissez-faire.

6.5 Discussion of findings

This Namibian study confirmed the findings that emotional intelligence is directly related to leadership style (Ashkanasy & Tse 1998; Barling et al., 2000; Prati et al., 2003; Vrba, 2007) and that emotional intelligence is a determinant of leadership style (Goleman et al., 2002). The present study also confirmed that the relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership is stronger compared to other leadership styles, thus confirming previous findings of Vrba (2007).

Well-being and to a lesser extent Emotionality were identified as factors that have the potential to predict a Transformational Leadership style.

The factor Well-being is made up of the following facets, namely self-esteem, trait happiness and trait optimism (Petrides, 2009). This indicates that transformational leaders are people that are successful and self-confident, cheerful and satisfied with their lives as well as confident and likely to look on the bright side of life. The factor Emotionality is made up of the facets emotion expression, emotion perception, relationship skills and trait empathy (Petrides, 2009). This means that transformational
leaders are capable of communicating their emotions, are clear about their own and other 
people’s feelings, are capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships and are 
capable of taking someone else’s perspective. Their leadership approach is a process of 
influencing others towards what is important and move them to see themselves and their 
environment in another way. They aim to optimise individual, group and organizational 
development.

The correlation between sociability and transformational leadership is high, yet, based 
on the hierarchical regression analysis, sociability is not a determinant of 
transformational leadership. Leaders high on sociability emphasise social influence and 
social relationships and are very good at social interactions, good listeners and able to 
communicate clearly with others of diverse backgrounds. However, while 
transformational leaders are generally high on sociability, merely having high score for 
sociability does not predict a Transformational Leadership style.

Furthermore, transformational leaders scoring high on self-control have a healthy degree 
of control in respect of their urges and desires. They are also good at regulating external 
pressures and stress. They express their emotions in a suitable manner, being neither 
repressed nor overly expressive.

All emotional intelligence constructs correlated significantly (negatively) with *Laissez-
faire*. Leaders displaying *Laissez-faire* tend to be absent when needed, avoid making
decisions and avoid getting involved when important issues arise. They do not respond to problems and situations systematically. This style has a negative effect on the outcome desired by the leader and has a negative impact on followers. Based on the hierarchical regression analysis, low scores on Self-control and Emotionality can predict Laissez-faire.

*Self-control*, having a healthy control over one’s urges and desires, correlated negatively with *Laissez-faire*. This indicates that leaders are prone to impulsive behaviours and find it difficult to manage stress. Having low emotionality, leaders applying the *Laissez-faire* style also find it difficult to recognise their own emotional states and to express their feelings to others, leading to less rewarding relationships.

No significant correlations were found between emotional intelligence constructs and transactional leadership. Using the *Transactional* leadership style, leaders focus on constructive and corrective actions. They define expectations, focus on correcting mistakes, and promote or incentivize performance to achieve desired levels of output. There was a slightly positive correlation with *Sociability* as an emotional intelligence construct and *Transactional Leadership*. Leaders scoring high on sociability emphasize social relationships and social influence. They are good networkers, and focus on the individual in a social context. Based on the hierarchical regression analysis, the emotional intelligence factor *sociability*, however, was not successful in predicting *Transactional Leadership* style conclusively. This style did not show clear presence of
emotional intelligence factors with respondents and hence transactional leadership style cannot be predicted based on emotional intelligence scores.

The *Global trait emotional intelligence* score is a broad index of general emotional functioning. Leaders with a high score for Global Emotional Intelligence are extraverted, conscientious, have good mental health, enjoy job satisfaction, have organizational commitment and are usually popular leaders. They may be overconfident, sensitive, and prone to social desirability and may over predict emotional reactions in decision making. In general, they do not display neuroticism, anxiety, psychopathology, maladaptive coping and humility. Using the transformational leadership style, these leaders are proactive, convince their peers and subordinates to strive for higher levels of potential, and strive for high moral and ethical standards. They strive to optimise performance, instead of merely aiming to achieve stated expectations.

Figure 4 indicates the specific emotional intelligence factors have a direct impact on a specific leadership style. Well-being and emotionality can predict transformational leadership style, whereas a low score on emotional self-control and low emotionality are predictors of *Laissez-faire* style.

Based on the results obtained, due to its strong positive correlation, a higher score of *Emotional Intelligence* points towards a *Transformational Leader*. As emotional
intelligence is negatively correlated with the *Laissez-faire* style, a lower *Emotional Intelligence* score indicates a *Laissez-faire* style.

Legend:
- High score on emotional intelligence points towards a more effective leadership style
- High score on Well-being is a strong predictor of transformational leadership
- High score on Emotionality is a (lesser) predictor of transformational leadership
- Low emotional self-control and low emotionality are predictors of laissez-faire style

**Figure 4**
*The EQ Factors predicting Transformational Leadership Style and Laissez-faire Style.*
Based on the literature study, it became evident that *Emotional Intelligence* can be improved (Goleman, 1998). This allures to the notion that efforts to improve emotional intelligence within middle management leadership will most likely improve *Transformational Leadership* abilities. The higher the *Emotional Intelligence* levels, the stronger the perceived leadership style leans towards the *Transformational Leadership* style (Goleman, 2002). Based on the findings of this study, effort should be directed towards increasing the factors *Emotionality* and *Well-being*.

The study was also successful in identify exactly which *Emotional Intelligence* factor is linked to effective leadership. Effective leaders generally use a variety of styles suitable to the situation, but tend to have one dominant style (Avolio & Bass, 2004). It follows that, in order to nurture leadership development and cultivate a specific leadership style, specific factors in the emotional make-up of a person should be developed and enhanced to achieve this successfully.

This information is very powerful and can be used when selecting leaders, but also to invest in meaningful leadership development with the specific and measurable outcome to enhance and grow leadership capacity in Namibia. The impact of any such investment will have a direct and rather immediate effect on the individual leadership style, but also a wider effect for Namibia as a country which aims to achieve its strategic Vision 2030 and stated development goals through the people of Namibia within the next twenty years (Government of the Republic of Namibia, 2004).
Each unique situation has a unique set of demands and requires different skills of a leader. Before starting off with a broad brush leadership development approach, the specific factors relevant to the leadership challenge at hand need to be identified.

The following offers a few ideas and suggestions on what could be done to improve leadership capacity in Namibia, bearing in mind the weaknesses as identified by the scientific study. The suggestions follow a three-tiered approach, namely looking at the potential role of educational institutions, organizations providing employment and Government.

6.6 Suggestions for the role of educational institutions in developing leadership skills

During their secondary and tertiary education, potential future leaders are groomed and developed to acquire specific skills relevant to an occupation, i.e. integrating specific leadership skills, such as life skills, work-life balance and the benefits of a healthy lifestyle, communication skills, conflict management skills, as well as general leadership development and entrepreneurial skills programme into the curriculum. Learners should be encouraged early in life to take on positions of responsibility, such as class captain, sport captain, and should also get involved in extra-mural and extra-curricular activities. Output-based training and bursary schemes can be developed, linked to job attachments and holiday work (Friedman, Hemerling & Chapman, 2007).
Education should be made relevant to the current and future needs of the country. This would not only include ensuring that curricula meet job-related skills, but also that softer issues, such as emotional intelligence and leadership training, should be considered. Career counsellors may play a role in this regard. Initiatives such as industry skills committees and the National Qualifications Framework are a first step into this direction, identifying national skills needs, and should ensure that leadership skills development is on their radar in addition to actual job related skills (Mukendwa, 2010).

Leadership initiatives for learners can be developed, such as junior city council, the prefect system at school and young leaders’ programmes. Business leaders should be involved in schools and educational institutions, for example, by making business presentations and thereby linking theory to the practical experience of executives. Business people should be invited to serve on school and educational organizations’ committees, whereby students are given the opportunity to actively interacting with business people. Subject- as well as leadership experts should be invited to serve on curriculum development committees, business leaders should spend a day in the position of a headmaster of a school or educational institution, and vice versa. Investment into emotional intelligence programmes should be considered and emotional intelligence screening should be offered as part of the career counselling and feedback process (Craig, 1996).
6.7 Suggestions for the role organizations and the private sector to develop leadership skills

Parastatals or governments, private companies, non-profit organizations, any organizations or groupings of people, who work towards a common goal, in short – organizations, are critically dependent on competent staff. This includes both staff with technical ability and good leadership style in order to develop these organizations, manage them profitably and ensure their continued existence and possible further development and expansion (Friedman et al., 2007).

Organizations have a host of opportunities to develop their leadership cadre. Utilising the power of emotional intelligence effectively (Wall, 2007), the results of this survey indicate how organizations could make a meaningful impact without major changes to the current structures. A few aspects in this regard are discussed below:

- **Recruitment and selection:** It is postulated that in recruitment and selection of managers and leaders, emotional intelligence screening can give a very good indication as to the potential leadership style of the respective candidate (Watkins, 2000). This could be used as an additional decision making tool in the recruitment process. Individual scores on the emotional intelligence spectrum additionally give a good indication on particular qualities a person with high emotional intelligence brings along.

- **Increasing organizational effectiveness:** Based on this study and literature review, it can be argued that increasing the emotional intelligence levels of an organization in general will improve organizational effectiveness and leadership ability. The existing staff
complement, in particular the management cadre, can undergo a structured leadership development programme, based on their individual needs (Boyatzis, 2001; Boyatzis & Van Oosten, 2002).

This can be broken down into three main components. Firstly, to develop systems that will enhance the overall organizational level of emotional intelligence. Secondly, to offer a specific and tailor-made leadership development programme for different levels of supervisory staff, junior-middle and senior management, and lastly, to offer tailor-made coaching and mentoring programmes to identified high performers, preparing them for leadership positions (Peltier, 2001).

- *Enhancing general levels of emotional intelligence within the organization:* Leadership is directly related to emotional intelligence (Vrba, 2007). Everybody within an organization has the ability to act as a leader within his/her own sphere of influence. Hence, if the general level of emotional intelligence is developed within an organization, positive development within the leadership cadres of the organization is possible.

Literature confirmed that the facets of emotional intelligence are interdependent and hierarchical, and that individuals needs to progress through the different domains in order to develop their emotional intelligence (Goleman et al., 2002). A programme that is aimed at developing overall emotional intelligence levels within the organization would include the following items: a tailor-made wellness programme, which should include stress management training programmes, excellent internal communications strategies, programmes aiming to improve self-knowledge, self-management and conflict management skills. Basic life skills, such as time management, personal
budgeting and career management should form part of the wellness bouquet (Craig, 1996). On an organization-wide level, team building, brainstorming for problem solving and diversity programmes should be considered (Ogunyemi, 2007).

- **Training, development and a talent management strategy:** From a company perspective, a learning environment should be instituted within the organization, taking the principles of adult learning into consideration (Erasmus & van Dyk, 2003). A suitable organization-wide talent-management strategy should be implemented to uplift performance in line with organizational requirements. A tailor-made induction programme for new recruits should include a section on leadership and emotional intelligence training. Performance management and annual or bi-annual performance discussions, where actual job performance, as well as identified skills shortage and specific short and longer term development goals will be evaluated (Craig, 1996; Erasmus & van Dyk, 2003). Here, specific soft skills falling into the range of emotional intelligence and leadership skills can be incorporated.

- **Mentorship and coaching programmes for capacity building:** Different types of tailor-made development programmes with a specific focus on capacity building in the domain of emotional intelligence and leadership development can be considered. Once identified whom to include in the mentorship and coaching scheme, tailor-made leadership development programmes based on psychometric screening of both emotional intelligence and leadership style can be developed. Based on this, each participant should have his/her own uniquely formulated development programme in support of
corporate strategy, which is implemented with the aid of a coach or mentor (Merlevede & Bridoux, 2004).

- **Leadership development programmes**: Each leadership development programme should be linked to the unique emotional intelligence and leadership profile suitable to the organization (for example, soldiers or accountants need different emotional intelligence skills than social workers), as well as the respective business strategy and corporate objectives. Leadership development programmes in organizations may include some of the following items: individual and tailor-made mentorship and coaching programmes, understudies for key positions, individuals career path planning, encouraging and incentivising part time learning and development of staff, investing in employer branding, bursary and trainee schemes, tailor-made corporate induction programmes, offering job attachments and holiday work, incentives to reward positive leadership behaviour, revising remuneration structures to ensure these incentivise and reward desired leadership behaviour, and role modelling (Craig, 1996; Cunningham, 2007; Erasmus & van Dyk, 2003). No leadership development programme can exist in isolation. To be relevant, such programmes need to consider political, cultural and historical matters to develop diversity, embrace differences and leverage off the strengths of potential leaders (Broodryk, 2006; Groenewald, 2008).

### 6.8 Suggestions for the role of Government to develop leadership skills

From a national and holistic perspective, the following should be included in a leadership development strategy, and all efforts should be linked in order to achieve...
Namibia’s development strategy, Vision 2030. Stakeholders should be accountable and measured against agreed outputs. Suitable rewards and incentives should be in place for those groups and organizations that achieve agreed outputs.

Amongst others, Government should develop a national skills shortage needs analysis, with a particular emphasis on soft skills and leadership skills. This information should be built into school and institutions of higher learning’s curriculum. Initiatives such as the National Qualifications Framework, the Industry Skills Committees and the National Skills Levy create incentives for training and development (Mukendwa, 2010). Government should actively support the development of leadership development centres and consider appropriate tax incentives for the establishment of these. Making leadership development initiatives a mandatory section to be reported on in affirmative action reports is another strategy that government could pursue, thus rewarding suitable initiatives and achievements.

Foreign experts should be granted permission to fill nationally identified skills shortages and an outcome-based understudy programme should be linked to the services of these temporarily employed experts to ensure a transfer of skills. However, it is important to establish beyond doubt that the identified experts possess the necessary and required emotional intelligence traits and leadership ability. Business transformation and performance should be rewarded and leadership development programmes and emotional intelligence programmes should be implemented into Government structures.
6.9 Conclusion

The results of this study have been proven to be reliable, and can hence be generalised across the same population as measured. This allows for a meaningful recommendation applicable to the Namibian middle management cadre. Suitable recommendations, spanning Government, educational institutions and organizations were offered, aimed at guiding a process to improve leadership skills in the said target population.

In conclusion, it can be said that, in order to meaningfully uplift the leadership capacity of the Namibian management cadre, a national approach should be followed. While individuals and individual organizations can achieve some successes relevant to their organization, the meaningful transformational change will only come once a critical mass of leaders using effective and transformational leadership styles will be achieved. Working with and developing emotional intelligence is one alternative to meaningfully impact on leadership style. The advantage is, that this may be done on an individual but also a group or national level, as the preceding suggestions have demonstrated.
CHAPTER 7

7. Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

This chapter highlights the on-going debate around emotional intelligence. It links the findings of this study to research findings in various international studies and highlights similarities and agreements. It mentions possible limitations of this study and provides recommendations and suggestions for further research and concludes by highlighting the meaningfulness of the findings. These research findings are highlighted as a powerful tool in understanding current challenges experienced in Namibia’s development and indicate that effective use of emotions and leadership may make a positive contribution to Namibia’s effective functioning and development.

7.1 Conclusion

The general objective of this study was to explore a possible relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership within middle management in Namibia. Specific objectives included to conceptualise the constructs leadership and emotional intelligence (EQ) from the literature, to determine the validity and reliability of measures of emotional intelligence and leadership, to describe the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership in Namibian middle managers, to ascertain the extent to which the subscales of EQ will predict the variance of leadership styles, to make recommendations based on the research outcome to improve leaders’ overall leadership ability and to make recommendation for further research into this study.
The general objective, i.e. to explore a possible relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership within middle management or managers in Namibia, presented the primary focus of this study.

A specific objective was to conceptualise the constructs leadership and emotional intelligence (EQ) from the literature. This was done in Chapters 2 and 3, focussing on leadership and emotional intelligence.

Another objective was to determine the validity and reliability of measures of emotional intelligence and leadership. This was discussed and concluded in Chapter 5, i.e. the results. The factor analysis confirmed that the research instruments used are valid instruments for local conditions and that the collected data can be considered for further analysis. Reliability was tested with Cronbach alpha and the results confirmed the collected data to be reliable.

To describe the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership in Namibian middle managers and to ascertain the extent to which the subscales of EQ will predict the variance of leadership styles, were further specific objectives of the study. These were met in Chapter 5 by means of a correlation analysis and hierarchical regression analysis, followed by a detailed discussion of the results.
In Chapter 6, recommendations based on the research outcome to improve leaders’ overall leadership ability were discussed in detail, highlighting the role of educational institutions, the Government and organizations.

In conclusion, it can be stated that emotions are part of being human, yet decisions based on emotions alone are subjective. As emotional intelligence is a relatively new scientific subject, there is an on-going debate around it, and various schools of thought are evident. Emotional intelligence is a way to explain individual differences between how people manage and deal with their own and others’ emotions. It illustrates the need and ability to join emotions and reasoning for effective decision making.

Different approaches to emotional intelligence include the ability and trait-based approach. The trait-based approach, which is used in this study, focuses on emotion-based self-perceptions and is located in the lower order of the personality hierarchy.

What makes exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership interesting is that there is no correct or best trait or mixture of traits of emotional intelligence that is ideal for all circumstances, but that individual situations, job requirements, cultural, geographical and ethnical factors add to the circumstances in which leaders need to manage to excel. Having the ideal set of emotional competencies for the particular situation of Namibian leadership is one of the objectives that this study aimed to explore in the Namibian context. As emotional intelligence is made of a host of
factors, and each applies differently to a certain differentiated situation, it would be recommendable to ascertain which factors make leaders successful.

Emotional intelligence being trainable to some level, and subject to the leader having the right set of cognitive skills for the situation, any possible gaps identified for the Namibian leadership cadre may be developed through a carefully crafted development plan, which may be an alternative and a solution to the Namibian leadership crisis currently experienced.

In a similar study by Harms and Crede (2010) in the USA moderate correlation between Transformational Leadership and Trait Emotional Intelligence was indicated. A negative correlation was found between a Laissez-faire style and Trait Emotional Intelligence. This is in agreement with findings of this study.

Some critique, articulated by Weinberger (2009), suggests that the concept of Emotional Intelligence in predicting leadership ability is limited. It was not found to be the case with this study, although the correlation was not to be as high as suggested by other authors (Ashkanasy & Tse 1998; Barling, Moutinho & Kelloway, 2000; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003; Vrba, 2007). This called for a further investigation to clarify the reason for the possible discrepancy.
Some of the studies such as Weinberger (2009) indicated that there was no correlation between Transformational Leadership and trait emotional intelligence. The findings of Weinberger (2009) contradict those found by Vrba (2007) who reported high correlations between the constructs emotional intelligence and leadership abilities. A moderate correlation was observed in this study. The descriptive statistics of the Namibian sample showed a deviation from the normal curve on skewness, which can affect the strength of the correlation.

The insights achieved from strong statistical evidence, and confirmed by similar studies on the positive correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership, should be seen as a definite opportunity to transform existing shortcomings amongst managers within the Namibian population into proper leadership qualities.

Although Bower (2010) opposes the notion that managers should be leaders, it is argued that management is associated with activities comprising planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization (a group of one or more people or entities) or effort for the purpose of accomplishing a goal (Drucker, 2005). This confirms the leadership component associated with management.
7.2 Limitations of the study

It is required to specifically highlight and discuss the limitations of a scientific study to prevent that any particular finding is generalised out of context as well as to provide suggestions for further investigation and research.

This study may have some limitations, as reported and discussed at various relevant points within the document. Summarising these, it can be said that, firstly, while both questionnaires used have been translated and validated for various different cultures and language groups, no standardised questionnaire for Namibia and no Namibia-specific norms are available.

The questionnaires provided for research purposes by the developers were made available in English. While English is the official language used in Namibia, only 5% of the sample indicated English as their home language. This may hint to a potential challenge to understand the questions, in particular the more complex ones. For example, a negatively formulated question depicting a specific construct is more difficult to understand than a positive one. (Example: Negatively formulated question: question 31 in the TEIQue: “I’m not able to do things as well as most people”. Positively formulated question in the TEIQue, question 1: “I’m usually able to control other people.” Candidates have a choice of answers ranging between “Disagree completely” to “Agree completely” in both instances.) Although completing the questionnaire is not bound to time limits, various participants indicated that it was not possible for them to
answer the questionnaire within the time indicated by the test supplier. This may point to a lack of mastery of the English language by participants, to whom English may be the second language. This could contribute to the probability that questions were interpreted in a way not congruent with the initial construct design.

At the same time, using more time to answer the questionnaire could have also put some of the participants under pressure, as time set aside for participation in the study may have been overrun. Resulting fatigue and time pressure could have altered the answering style.

A self-report questionnaire may affect the results to a certain degree. The possibility of faking good or faking bad cannot be excluded in this regard, and hence the results may include a certain degree of social desirability bias.

The results can only be compared to the Windhoek-based Namibian business population and not to the entire Namibian population. Further research may include a larger sample including University graduates, the skilled yet unemployed, non-managerial individuals and people from other parts of the country. In particular, newly graduated individuals with a professional qualification could benefit from such an investigation, as findings may help to offer career specific development options to ensure successful growth into leadership positions.
Another limitation of this study is that it is cross sectional, investigating a certain point of affairs at one point in time. A longitudinal study may shed some light to confirm that findings remain stable or develop over a period of time (Leedy, 1989).

7.3 Recommendations and suggestions for future research

The final objective of this study was to make recommendation for further research into this field. This is the first study of its kind in Namibia. It is recommended that further research uses different evaluation tools and considers a 360 degree rating, where leadership style is reflected on by various parties for a more comprehensive and possibly a more accurate evaluation of the status quo (Bass & Avolio, 1997). A further study could also investigate the actual performance of individuals via performance ratings compared to their leadership profile and emotional intelligence traits. This would give more insight into the role of leadership and emotional intelligence in actual leader performance.

A comparative study could also be done, evaluating leadership skills before and after undergoing an emotional intelligence training programme in order to determine if there was a significant improvement in leadership style or ability.

Another recommendation is to expand the sample to senior and general management level. Furthermore, a distinction could also be made between politicians and senior corporate executives, and look into their leadership styles as principle decision makers,
and learn more about what to include into leadership development programmes at junior levels.

### 7.4 Final conclusion

The results of this study are deemed to be significant. The sample was large enough to generalise the findings, which increases its importance (SPSS, 2010). Namibia does not only face a serious skills shortage, it also has serious leadership challenges (Amuphadi, 2008, December). The research findings showed that Namibia’s leadership is rather more transactional and laissez fair than transformational. It was found that Transactional Leadership style was not correlated with good Emotional Intelligence skills, but that EI skills are significantly related with the Transformational Leadership style and inversely related to Laissez-faire style. This opens the possibility of constructive leadership development by broadening amongst others emotional intelligence skills in an attempt to improve Transformational Leadership skills in the Namibian context.

Based on this information, the study hints to a possible starting point in leadership development and offers practical suggestions for implementation on various levels countrywide, from policy development to implementation at the lowest level. This study makes a valuable contribution to building theory and a body of knowledge about Namibian leadership, and it also contributes towards industrial psychology knowledge gathered in the Southern African context. The findings are a powerful tool to understand current challenges experienced in Namibia’s development and indicate that effective use
of emotions and leadership may make a positive contribution to Namibia’s effective functioning and development. The knowledge gained from this study may increase general perceptions of what is considered to be effective leadership and offers tangible suggestions to develop suitable and tailor-made programmes for effective development, recruitment and training of leaders. The results strengthen and highlight the need for effective leadership development in Namibia in its quest to achieve the national development goals as outlined by Namibia’s Vision 2030.
8. References


*Personality and Individual Differences, 36, 277-293.*


