

AN ANALYSIS ON THE EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE, ON WORK ENGAGEMENT AND JOB SATISFACTION AT A
SELECTED PARASTATAL IN WINDHOEK, NAMIBIA.

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CHARMAINE V. TIBINYANE

200704532

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SUPERVISOR: DR. C.K. HLATYWAYO

THE UNIVERSITY OF NAMIBIA

ABSTRACT

The current work environment is highly complex, multi-dimensional, and ever-changing and thus increasing the call for research on the current leadership style and emotional intelligence in organisations. Leadership style and emotional intelligence are known to be key determinants of work engagement and job satisfaction. The studies sought to explore to collect the variance of leadership style and emotional intelligence on work engagement and job satisfaction among NamPower employees. A quantitative study was conducted to accomplish the objectives of the study. Convenience sampling was used to obtain data. The study employed a cross-sectional research design and gathered data via online questionnaires. The data was analysed using Process Macro and SPSS version 27. There was a total of 135 NamPower employees who responded and gave their feedback for this study. The findings revealed that for the linear relations between leadership style and emotional intelligence. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and emotional intelligence ($r=0.430^{**}$; $p<.001$). On the other hand, leadership style and job satisfaction ($r=-.148$; $p=.086$) had no significant. Leadership style and work engagement ($r=-.142$; $p=.101$). Emotional intelligence had a negative and statistically significant relationship to job satisfaction ($r= -.242^{**}$; $p=.005$). Emotional intelligence had a low to moderate relationship to work engagement ($r=.415^{**}$; $p<.001$) and lastly Work engagement was negatively related to job satisfaction ($r= -.477^{**}$; $p<.001$).

Keywords: Leadership style; Emotional intelligence; Job Satisfaction; Work Engagement; NamPower employees; Namibia

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DEDICATION

The purpose of my thesis is to honour my husband, Mr. Martinianus T Tibinyane and my children Kerapetse AM, Luhandro KO Tibinyane and Veripi Karupa who have been my biggest supporters and cheerleaders.

I appreciate you giving me the chance to accomplish this goal. Without you, I would not be in my current situation!

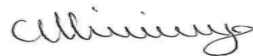
DECLARATION

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April 2024

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Table of Contents

CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Orientation of the study.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	2
1.3 Objectives of the study.....	3
1.4 Hypothesis.....	3
1.5 Significance of the study.....	4
1.6 Limitation of the study.....	4
1.7 Limitation of the study.....	4
1.8 Conclusion	5
CHAPTER TWO.....	6
LITERATURE REVIEW	6
2.1 Introduction.....	6
2.2 Conceptual Literature.....	6
2.2.1 Concept of Leadership	6
2.2.2 Defining Leadership styles.....	8
2.2.2.1 Autocratic Leadership	9
2.2.2.2 Democratic Leadership	9
2.2.2.3 Transformational Leadership	9
2.2.2.4 Transactional Leadership	12
2.2.2.5 Laissez-faire leadership.....	14
2.3 Defining Emotional Intelligence.....	15
2.3.1 Conceptual definition of emotional intelligence.....	18
2.3.2 Outcomes of Emotional Intelligence.....	19
2.3.2.1 Goleman’s Model of Emotional Intelligence.....	22
2.4 Defining Job satisfaction.....	24
2.4.1 Conceptual definition of Job Satisfaction	26
2.4.2 Antecedents of Work engagement	26
2.4.3 Outcomes of Work Engagement	28
2.5 The Effect of Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction	29
2.6 The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction	31
2.6.1 Emotion Regulation and Job Satisfaction	32

2.6.2	Social Skills and Job Satisfaction	33
2.6.3	Self-Awareness and Job Satisfaction	33
2.7	The Effect of Leadership Styles on Work Engagement	33
2.8	The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Work Engagement	36
2.9	Theory	39
2.9.1	Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMR).....	39
2.10	Conclusion	41
CHAPTER 3		43
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY		43
3.1	Introduction.....	43
3.2	Research design	43
3.2.1	Quantitative Research	44
3.2.2	Validity	45
3.2.3	Reliability.....	47
3.3	Population	48
3.4	Sample.....	48
3.5	Research Instruments	49
3.5.1	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire instrument	49
3.5.2	Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.....	50
3.5.3	Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)	50
3.5.4	The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES).....	51
3.6	Procedure	52
3.7	Data Analysis	53
3.8	Research Ethics	54
3.9	Conclusion	56
CHAPTER 4		57
RESULTS		57
4.1	Introduction.....	57
4.2	Reliability	57
4.3	Demographic variable.....	58
4.3.1	Gender.....	59
4.3.2	Age	59
4.3.3	Number of years.....	60

4.3.4 Marital status.....	61
4.3.5 Number of dependents	62
4.3.6 Highest qualification.....	62
4.3.7 Management level.....	63
4.4 Mean analysis on perception of participants.....	64
4.4.1 One sample T-Test.....	64
4.5 Inferential statistics	65
4.5.1 Pearson correlation.....	66
4.5.2 Hypothesis testing.....	67
4.6 Conclusion	73
5.1 Introduction.....	74
5.2 Discussion.....	74
5.2.1 Demographical Data	74
5.3 Leadership Styles and its Effect On Job Satisfaction of Employees.....	75
5.4 Emotional Intelligence’s Effect on the Job Satisfaction of Employees	75
5.5 Leadership Styles and its effect on Emotional Intelligence of Employees	77
5.6 Leadership Styles and its effect on Work Engagement of Employees	77
5.7 Emotional Intelligence and its effect on Work Engagement of Employees.....	78
5.7.1 Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMRT) linkage between Leadership Styles, Emotional Intelligence, Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction.	78
5.8 Research Implications and Limitations.....	80
5.8.1 Research Limitations	81
5.9 Recommendations and suggestions for future research	82
5.10 Conclusion	83
Reference List.....	85
ANNEXURE 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE.....	137
ANNEXURE 2 QUESTIONNAIRE	138

TABLES

Table 4. 1 Reliability Analysis	57
Table 4. 2 Descriptive statistics for personal biographical profile of participants	58
Table 4. 3 Summary of descriptive statistics of study variables	64
Table 4. 4 One sample T Test for the mean responses on study variables	65
Table 4. 5 Pearson correlation coefficient and significant probabilities in relation to study variables	66
Table 4. 6 Correlation Hypothesis Testing	67
Table 4. 7 Model summary Job satisfaction	68
Table 4. 8 Coefficients job satisfaction	68
Table 4. 9 Model summary on work engagement	71
Table 4. 10 Coefficients on Work engagement	71

FIGURES

Figure 2: Work engagement (Source: Goleman's model (1995))	17
Figure 3: Emotional Intelligence Competencies	24
Figure 4. 1 Gender	59
Figure 4. 2 Age distribution	60
Figure 4. 3 Number of years	61
Figure 4. 4 Marital status	61
Figure 4. 5 Number of dependents	62
Figure 4. 6 Highest qualification	63
Figure 4. 7 Management level	63
Figure 4. 8 Plot collective influence on Job satisfaction	69
Figure 4. 9 Scatter plot on Job satisfaction	70
Figure 4. 10 Plot collective influence on work engagement	72
Figure 4. 11 Scatter plot work engagement	73

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Orientation of the study

There is a growing need for research on contemporary leadership in organisations due to the complexity, multifaceted nature, and constant change of the work environment (Gandolfi & Stone, 2018). There is a developing leadership crisis that requires attention, which has led to increased calls for clarification on what constitutes an appropriate leadership style (Koech & Namusonge, 2012). Higgs (2009) asserts that the presence of ineffective leadership within an organisation can yield immediate performance gains, but ultimately result in long-term issues and impaired performance. Effective leaders in the workplace not only possess the necessary skills, but they also need to have a personal connection with their staff.

Good leaders, according to Jin (2010), center on and connect with their emotions. Boren (2010) defines emotional intelligence (EI) as the ability to effectively manage one's own emotions and understand and navigate the emotions of others. A low level of emotional intelligence indicates a lack of emotional awareness (Yahaya et al., 2012). These professionals encounter elevated levels of stress and diminished levels of job satisfaction due to their limited capacity to regulate their emotions during challenging circumstances. Literature provides evidence of a strong positive correlation between employee work satisfaction and leadership (Khalid et al., 2011; Sudiantini & Saputra, 2022). The significance of leadership styles in an organisation is highly significant and serves as a crucial determinant of employee satisfaction and the cultivation of their potential

(Cummings et al., 2010; Saputra & Mahaputra, 2022). Employees that are engaged tend to experience a greater range of good emotions, including happiness, satisfaction, and enthusiasm (Cummings et al., 2010; Sudiantini, & Saputra, 2022). In their study, Goswami et al. (2016) asserted that employees who are actively involved in their work exhibit higher levels of productivity and creativity. Participating employees, according to Solaja and Ogunola (2016), ought to exhibit higher levels of activity, demonstrate enhanced work-related skills on an ongoing basis, treat colleagues with greater respect, and assist others in improving their work efficacy. Based on the previous discussion, the study aimed to investigate how the variables affected the job satisfaction of parastatal employees. A multitude of determinants influence job satisfaction; thus, this research investigated the interplay between work engagement, emotional intelligence, leadership style, and job satisfaction.

1.2 Statement of the problem

There are increasing calls as to what constitutes an appropriate leadership style as there is a growing leadership crisis that needs to be tackled (Solaja & Ogunola, 2016). Lee and Ok (2012) stated that comprehending how the job satisfaction of an employee is affected by the emotional intelligence of the leader is crucial in the organisation. Poor leadership style is known to not only affect the satisfaction of employees; but also their work engagement (Hajiali et al., 2022). Taking note of the role of state-owned entities in development; there is a need to explore the extent of such variables in low which there are industrial psychology variables. Prior research has demonstrated that employee participation positively correlates with emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and employee engagement. Individuals that possess a high level of commitment towards their

profession are likely to have a more advantageous background and can make a more meaningful impact on their organisations (Alismail, et al., 2022). In the current turbulent work environment, it is imperative to find viable low-cost solutions to ensure organisations remain afloat. The lack of emotional intelligence and poor leadership practices all have negative effects to employee satisfaction and levels of engagement. The researcher was keen to explore leadership style and emotional intelligence influence on work engagement and job satisfaction at the selected organisation in Windhoek.

1.3 Objectives of the study

From the above discussion, the researcher set the following objectives;

- To investigate the effect of leadership style on job satisfaction.
- To investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction
- To investigate the effect of leadership style on work engagement.
- To investigate the effect of emotional intelligence on work engagement

1.4 Hypothesis

H₁: The variance in leadership style has a statistically significant and positive effect on job satisfaction.

H₂: The variance in emotional intelligence has a statistically significant and positive effect on job satisfaction,

H₃: The variance in leadership style has a statistically significant effect and positive on work engagement.

H₄: The variance in emotional intelligence has a statistically significant effect and positive on work engagement.

1.5 Significance of the study

This study will assist the business units within the energy sector to be productive which contributes to the country's economic growth (Chen et al., 2021). This study created awareness of the importance of employees' leadership style, emotional intelligence, work engagement and job satisfaction (Sudibjo & Sutarji, 2020). In organisations where leaders possess emotional intelligence and employ successful leadership styles. Productivity is likely to occur, particularly if it improves job satisfaction and engagement. Individuals who experience high job satisfaction typically possess a high proficiency in their professional abilities and possess the belief that they are capable of effectively managing, organising, and executing specific activities and behaviours, even in the event of failure. The study adds to the industrial psychology literature as there is too little literature on the subject matter in Namibia.

1.6 Limitation of the study

The data gathered might not be broadly applicable because the study was centred around one specific parastatal NamPower without including the entire parastatals in Namibia.

1.7 Limitation of the study

The sample size was one of the study's weaknesses because it wasn't a complete representation because it was limited to NamPower employees and not the other energy sector parastatals. The study was quantitative thus leaving out the experiences of the voice of the participants. The generalizability of study results will be impacted by this.

Thesis outline

This thesis is divided into five chapters:

Chapter One introduced the study's concept.

Chapter Two will provide a review of related and relevant literature.

Chapter Three will outline the methodology used to conduct the study.

Chapter Four will present the analysis of the results obtained from the study.

Chapter Five will discuss the results of the study, conclude the thesis and offer recommendations and future research.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter presented the introduction and background of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, and the significance of the study. The limitations and delimitations of the study were discussed. The next chapter discusses the literature related to this study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter established the study's goals. The objective of this chapter was to define and put into practice the research constructs, examine the relevant literature, and explore the adopted theory. The literature on emotional intelligence, work engagement, job happiness, and leadership styles—transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire—was examined. The objective of this chapter was to conceptualise the constructs and their associative interrelationships by conducting a thorough examination of the literature. An exhaustive analysis was conducted on each construct, encompassing details regarding its inception, development, characteristics, and operationalization contexts. The variables were developed, considering their antecedents, outcomes, and multiple theoretical links. In addition, a critical analysis was conducted on previous scholarly works and the interconnections among the various factors were examined.

2.2 Conceptual Literature

This section defined the terms adopted in the study. The terms being leadership style, emotional intelligence, work engagement and job satisfaction.

2.2.1 Concept of Leadership

Leadership has a crucial role in improving organisational success. Leadership entails guiding employees in effectively executing their jobs, overseeing the fulfillment of obligations, setting and achieving goals, taking decisive action, and overcoming obstacles (Aula et al., 2020). Effective leadership necessitates demonstrating a resilient and strong

character. Leaders demonstrate qualities such as honesty, integrity, trustworthiness, and ethics. Aula et al., (2020) asserted that while the terms leadership and management are sometimes used interchangeably, their definitions entail distinct tasks and sets of skills. Rajagopalan (2009) argues that motivation is the main differentiating factor between management and leadership. Leaders possess an innate ability to motivate and direct their subordinates (Jain & Kumar, 2013). Conversely, managers are usually responsible for the management of resources (López-Fernández et al., 2018). While there is a substantial body of literature on management and leadership, the primary focus lies on the concept of leadership. López-Fernández et al. (2018) asserted that the primary goal of leaders, irrespective of their chosen leadership style, is to exert influence over subordinates in order to encourage responsible behaviour that benefits the business, such as profitability and the provision of high-quality services and goods. The study conducted by Yang et al. (2023) showcases the demonstration of skills such as leadership, strategic decision-making, influence, and the application of management principles. It refers to an individual's ability to motivate and engage others in the assessment of problem-solving strategies (Yang et al., 2023).

According to Agboola and Benmira (2021), leaders need to possess the ability to adjust and embrace different leadership styles in the current rapidly changing, dynamic, and intricate business landscape. This is crucial for effectively overseeing their subordinates, taking into account the specific circumstances, organisational requirements, and goals. Every leadership approach possesses advantages and disadvantages, and none of them is superior to the others (Hundt et al., 2015). Leaders must possess the readiness to employ diverse leadership philosophies in order to effectively influence and motivate their followers

towards the accomplishment of a specific objective (Mansaray, 2019). This phenomenon was referred known as the Hawthorne effect.

Leadership is the primary factor in establishing trust through the act of showing respect towards others (Tamara et al., 2021). Leadership is intricately linked to the activities that individuals are devoted to (Raelin, 2011). Leadership encompasses two distinct connotations. Firstly, it pertains to the individuals who hold the responsibility of guiding and directing a corporation. Furthermore, it delineates the procedure of exerting influence over individuals' behaviours and actions in order to achieve organisational or collective goals. The primary elements of leadership style encompass transformative, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership (Adnan & Mubarak, 2010; Breevaart et al., 2019). Leadership style refers to the specific approach employed by a leader to influence the behaviours and activities of their followers.

2.2.2 Defining Leadership styles

Leadership style refers to the approach by which individuals guide and direct their followers. Leadership styles encompass the diverse methods and actions employed by individuals in positions of power to direct and impact their subordinates in attaining organisational objectives (Wen et al., 2019). Varying leadership styles can exert unique influences on team dynamics, motivation, and overall performance (Vasilescu, 2019).

Below are many well-acknowledged leadership styles:

2.2.2.1 Autocratic Leadership

Leaders in this manner exercise unilateral decision-making, without seeking input from their team members (Amanchukwu et al., 2015). They possess absolute authority in the decision-making process and frequently impose stringent adherence to their instructions (Sharma et al., 2014). Autocratic leaders typically adopt a centralised and hierarchical approach to leadership.

2.2.2.2 Democratic Leadership

Democratic leaders engage their team members in the process of making decisions (Ejimabo, 2015). They actively solicit input, comments, and feedback from their followers, establishing a collaborative atmosphere. Ejimabo (2015) asserts that democratic leaders prioritise the viewpoints of their team members and strive to establish consensus.

2.2.2.3 Transformational Leadership

As stated by Andriani et al. (2018), transformational leaders have the ability to motivate and inspire their subordinates to attain outstanding levels of performance. According to Andriani et al. (2018), they effectively express a persuasive vision, establish ambitious standards, and promote individual development. They frequently display charisma and cultivate robust ties with their team members.

It is noteworthy that leadership styles can be flexible, and successful leaders frequently utilise a blend of many styles depending on the circumstances and the requirements of their team (Mba and Teresa, 2013). The primary responsibility of leaders is to offer guidance, execute organisational plans and strategies, foster a sense of vision, and inspire individuals (Chanana & Sangeeta, 2021). The organization's strategic vision frequently establishes an

appropriate leadership style and determines the type of leadership that can yield optimal outcomes.

Nevertheless, Thanh and Quang (2022) assert that leadership style can occasionally be influenced by leaders' personal inclinations and their commitment to organisational objectives. The leadership styles of transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, democratic, and autocratic are frequently employed. However, this research will specifically concentrate on the first three leadership styles. A transformational leader motivates and guides people, and has a clear vision for implementing change within a company (Thamrin, 2012). Previous research indicates that this particular leadership approach enhances organisational performance, workforce motivation, and morale (Aula et al., 2020). The objective of transformational leadership is to enhance the motivation, morale, and performance of followers in order to cultivate their leadership abilities (Aula et al., 2020).

Transformational leadership involves leaders assuming responsibility for the growth and development of their followers from the beginning of the leader/follower interaction (Mishra et al., 2019). Transformational leaders aim to strengthen the relationship by stimulating and sustaining trust, confidence, and motivation (Mishra et al., 2019). The primary purpose of transformational leaders is to elevate and cultivate followers to a point where they can effectively achieve organisational objectives and responsibilities without the leader's direct involvement (Sijabat, 2021). Ciulla (2020) posited that transformational leaders are driven by intrinsic values such as justice, equality, and human rights. Empirical data indicates that implementing transformational leadership can result in substantial organisational growth and rewards (Ciulla, 2020). Additionally, it is worth noting that research has shown that transformational leadership has a beneficial effect on follower

happiness, effort, leadership effectiveness, and overall organisational performance (Abasilim and Ejer, 2013). The study conducted by Ejere and Abasilim (2013) found that there is a correlation between transformational leadership behaviour and practice, and employee commitment, trust in leadership, and positive organisational citizenship. Transformational leadership operates under the assumption that people and workers have inherent needs and that it is important to foster their growth by establishing a conducive environment and favourable conditions (Choi et al., 2016). Instilling confidence in employees and empowering them to cultivate their self-esteem is a characteristic of leadership that demonstrates a belief in individuals and aligns with the fundamental principles of McGregor's Theory Y assumptions (Choi et al., 2016).

The recognition of transformational leadership as a significant leadership approach is commonly regarded as the initiation of leadership (Mesterova et al., 2015). Burns argues that the aim of leadership is to motivate followers to seek lofty ideals that go beyond immediate self-interest (Nikezić et al., 2012). Bass (1978) and his colleagues pioneered the contemporary framework of transformative leadership predominantly in non-academic settings. The authors Shurbagi and Zahari (2012) developed the two-factor approach, which specifically examines transactional and transformative leadership. Bass (1978) also stated that there are four types of transformational leadership behaviour, specifically idealised influence (charisma) and inspiring motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised concern.

(i) Individualised consideration is exemplified by a leader who adopts a coaching approach and considers the unique needs of each individual for their personal development and achievement. (ii) Leaders are given intellectual stimulation, which motivates followers to

seek new ways to challenge and create inventive solutions. (iii) Inspirational motivation is demonstrated by leaders who invigorate their employees' tasks in order to convince and motivate them. (iv) Idealised influence encompasses the qualities of respect, admiration, and trust that leaders contemplate. Leaders are revered because they serve as exemplars of ethics, morality, and ideals for their followers. Therefore, it seems that there is a favourable correlation between transformative leadership and a leader's effectiveness.

2.2.2.4 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders motivate their people by engaging in a reciprocal process of give and take (Sundi, 2013). Additionally, he stated that employees who effectively fulfil their duties are given rewards, whilst inefficient personnel face disciplinary action. Consequently, transactional leaders place importance on motivating people through the use of systems that involve both punishment and reward. Transactional leadership is characterised by leaders who view their followers as a means to achieve an exchange of goods or services (Yahaya et al., 2011). The majority of interactions between leaders and followers consist of such transactions, as indicated by (Yahaya et al., 2011). The transactional leadership style places significant focus on the transactions and exchanges that take place between leaders, coworkers, and followers. Transactional leaders employ traditional tactics of reward and punishment to secure the obedience of their followers (Van Hoang et al., 2020). The utilisation of extrinsic motivators, such as rewards and penalties, to secure the commitment of workers, results in only marginal compliance from followers (Van Hoang et al., 2020). Leaders who employ the transactional style of leadership typically exhibit a directive and dominating approach, prioritising action over the well-being of their followers (King, 2013). If individuals fail to achieve their goals, a transactional leader may necessitate more one-

on-one meetings or check-ins. This leadership style operates under the assumption that teams require a well-defined framework and supervision in order to achieve business objectives and that they are driven by incentives (Inam et al., 2023). Transactional leadership, by its very nature, tends to conform to the goals, structures, and cultures of the existing organisation. As a result, it is often ineffective in facilitating change (Inam et al., 2023). This leadership style prioritises achieving desired outcomes and emphasises diligent effort, regardless of any associated expenses. Leaders who employ this leadership style hold fundamental assumptions that are inspired by the philosophy of Theory X.

According to Hasija et al. (2019), transactional leadership is defined by three main elements: contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception. Contingent reward, as defined by Judge and Piccolo (2004), pertains to the degree to which a leader generates mutually beneficial transactions or exchanges with followers by clarifying expectations and setting up rewards for satisfying those expectations. "Management by exception" refers to the degree to which a leader takes corrective measures based on the outcomes of leader-follower interactions. This approach can be either active or passive, depending on the level of involvement of the leader. Proactive leaders vigilantly monitor the behaviour of their followers, anticipate potential problems, and take prompt action to address them before they escalate. Passive leaders refrain from intervening unless the behaviour has caused tangible issues.

Transactional leaders prioritise establishing explicit objectives and performance standards for their team members (Ogbonna, 2013). Transactional leaders prioritise the preservation of the existing state of affairs and the efficient management of duties. Transaction refers to an exchange, specifically in the context of transactional leadership. This type of leadership

involves discussing and exchanging rewards for the efforts of followers, as well as addressing the immediate interests of subordinates (Chipunza & Gwarinda, 2010; Bian et al., 2019). Transactional leaders provide several advantages such as commendation, salary increases based on performance, career advancements, financial rewards, and enhanced status (Palmer & Riordan, 2023). The contingent rewards ultimately enhance the subordinates' job performance. The leader's performance is determined by assessing their behaviour, output in achieving the organization's objectives, accomplishments aligned with the organization's goals, and suitability for fostering interpersonal behaviours that adhere to organisational norms.

Contingency pay, active management by exception, and passive management by exception are all components of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership places a higher emphasis on achieving achievement and personal growth rather than on ensuring security and safety.

2.2.2.5 Laissez-faire leadership

This form of leadership allows employees to operate independently without supervision and provides no guidance or direction to the workforce. Aigbogun and Beauty (2022) additionally assert that this leadership style fails to foster a conducive environment for development, resulting in a lack of dedication and motivation to succeed. Leaders' lack of interest in workers leads to worker frustration and subsequent displays of hostility. Laissez-faire leadership lacks team cohesion. This leadership style is shaped by the Theory X ideology (Demo et al., 2013).

According to Khan et al. (2019), the laissez-faire style is defined as "stepping down on responsibilities and avoiding making decisions". The leader with a passive demeanour refrains from intervening until issues escalate to a critical level. Laissez-faire leaders provide neither feedback nor support to their followers. Laissez-faire leadership refers to a style where leaders adopt a "hands-off" stance (Scandura, 2022).

Laissez-faire leaders employ a non-interventionist style, granting their team members substantial autonomy and liberty to exercise decision-making authority (Ali & Ullah, 2023). They offer limited direction and oversight, enabling individuals to operate autonomously. This approach necessitates team members that are highly motivated and capable of working independently.

2.3 Defining Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) pertains to the capacity to regulate and discern emotions inside oneself and others (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Huang et al., 2019). As stated by Parker (2014), emotional intelligence refers to the ability to self-motivate and persevere despite obstacles, to exercise self-control and delay immediate gratification, to manage one's emotions and prevent them from overwhelming cognitive abilities, and to demonstrate empathy and maintain a positive outlook. Emotional intelligence can be attained through experiential learning or formal education. Another definition of emotional intelligence (EQ) is the ability to deliberately harness your emotions to influence your behaviour and thoughts in order to improve your outcomes (Parker, 2014). Emotional intelligence (EQ) is commonly employed to characterise enhanced cognitive and emotional capacities in individuals (Fernández-Abascal & Martín-Díaz, 2015). EQ, in a professional context, refers to the ability to collaborate with others while also possessing the cognitive ability and

understanding to perceive others. Hess & Bacigalupo (2011) concluded that individuals with high emotional intelligence exhibit strong dedication to the organisation and leverage positive emotions to enhance their decision-making abilities. According to Asad et al. (2022), individuals with high emotional intelligence possess the ability to accurately recognise and adapt to their own emotions as well as the emotions of others in a more efficient manner.

Low emotional intelligence employees, according to Shooshtarian et al. (2013), are less cognizant of their own emotions and consequently less capable of managing their emotions when confronted with challenging situations; this, in turn, increases their stress levels and decreases their job satisfaction. The term "emotional intelligence" has gained popularity and become a commonly used term with the publication of Daniel Goleman's influential book in 1995. The increasing recognition of Goleman and other scholars regarding emotional intelligence has played a significant role in fostering the realisation that the study of emotions in the workplace is necessary (Villagran & Martin, 2022). Given the ongoing changes in the nature of work and the current situation of the world's economies, the study of emotional intelligence in organisations is increasingly crucial in the 21st century (Chigeda et al., 2022).

In 1990, Mayer and Salovey introduced their ability-based theory of emotional intelligence, categorising it as a subtype of social intelligence. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to identify and differentiate various emotions, and to utilise emotional knowledge to impact one's own and others' thoughts and actions (Jonker, 2009; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Individuals vary in their ability and proficiency to regulate and concentrate their attention in reaction to emotions, which are regarded as driving factors (Khan et al., 2021). Emotional

intelligence, as defined by Chigeda et al. (2022), refers to the capacity to effectively reason about emotions, recognise and regulate emotions, and utilise emotional awareness and knowledge to enhance cognitive abilities. Emotion refers to a classification of sensations, such as danger, anxiety, and joy, that arise as a reaction to a particular circumstance. An individual's response is driven or instructed when it is rooted in emotional comprehension and personal encounters (Mayer et al., 2004). Emotional intelligence, according to this viewpoint, is characterised as the capacity to comprehend emotional data and react to it in a manner that is both adaptable and pragmatic (Chigeda et al., 2022). The Salovey and Mayer (1990) model posits that emotional intelligence encompasses a valuable array of skills for effectively analysing emotional information and employing it to inform decision-making, address challenges, and prioritise actions crucial for achieving success. Salovey and Mayer (1990) identified four interconnected domains or branches associated with emotional intelligence: perception of emotions, utilisation of emotions to enhance thinking, comprehension of emotions and emotional information, and regulation of emotions (Mayer et al., 2012).

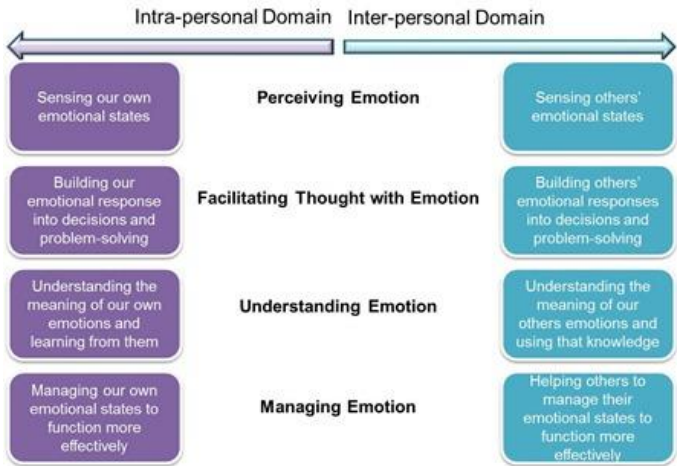


Figure 1: Work engagement (Source: Goleman’s model (1995))

2.3.1 Conceptual definition of emotional intelligence

The concepts of emotion and intelligence were studied and addressed as distinct, independent concepts prior to the conceptualization of emotional intelligence (Ain et al., 2021). According to Lee et al. (2019), research on emotions at work concentrated on topics including emotional labor, emotional expressiveness, and the impact of mood at work. According to Mayer, Caruso, Panter, and Salovey (2012), general intelligence and intelligence measures were the main topics of intelligence research. Following the publication of Gardner and Sternberg's multiple intelligence theories, there was a rise in interest in multiple intelligences in the 1980s and 1990s (Mayer et al., 2008; Ekinci, 2014). Salovey and Mayer (1990) established the connection between emotion and intelligence for the first time.

An emotion is a chemical and neurological reaction to a stimulus at the biological level (Hartikainen, 2021). According to Mayer et al. (2008), the definition of emotion is "changes in physiological, motor skills, behavior, cognition, and subjective experience as a result of the evaluation of the self or situation." Given that it lasts for shorter periods and is stronger, emotion is seen differently from mood (Ramesar et al., 2009; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Traditionalists believed that emotion was a disordered, disruptive mental activity that needed to be regulated, according to Salovey and Mayer (1990). However, according to the developing theory of emotion, feelings are beneficial because they help prioritize action, focus attention, motivate behavior, and produce better social and personal and outcomes (Hartikainen, 2021).

On the other hand, intelligence enables people to adjust to their surroundings and manage their lives (Mayer et al., 2008). According to many sources (including Dahl and Cilliers (2012), Mayer et al. (2004), Salovey & Mayer (1990), intelligence is commonly understood to be a mental ability or capacities that enables the recognition, learning, memory for, and capacity to reason about different types of information and abstract thought. However, multiple intelligences theories have developed because of traditional one-dimensional notions of intelligence being viewed as too constrained (Davis, Christodoulou, Seider, & Gardner, 2011).

This perspective holds that emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise and react to emotions. It is generally accepted that a construct needs to meet certain criteria in order to be categorised as an intelligence (Boyatzis, 2011; Dahl & Cilliers, 2012; MacCan et al., 2014; Mayer et al., 2004). It must meet the following criteria: (1) it must be a mental ability rather than a trait, disposition, or nonintellectual construct; (2) it must be psychometrically related to other recognised forms of intelligence; (3) it must be shown to have a developmental trajectory from childhood to adulthood; and (4) it must be a unique form of intelligence.

2.3.2 Outcomes of Emotional Intelligence

Like in any other industry, emotional intelligence (EI) is critical in the energy sector. Employees with high emotional intelligence can significantly influence a range of workplace outcomes (Edward & Purba, 2020). In the energy industry, emotional intelligence has the following specific results:

Effective Leadership:

Improved Decision-Making: Leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to make well-informed decisions by taking into account both the practical and emotional ramifications of their decisions (Ahsan, 2023).

Resolution of Conflict: Leaders are better at handling interpersonal and organisational problems, which makes activities in the energy sector run more smoothly (Abiodun and Omisore, 2014).

Team Collaboration:

Better Team Dynamics: Workers with high emotional quotients are able to comprehend and control both their own and their coworkers' emotions (Sharma et al., 2014). Better teamwork, collaboration, and communication are encouraged as a result of this knowledge.

Increased Innovation: Promoting innovation within the industry, supportive and emotionally intelligent work environments allow individuals to discuss ideas and take calculated risks (Alzoubi & Aziz, 2021).

Customer Relationships:

Improved Customer Service: Staff members who are empathetic to the wants and concerns of customers offer better service, which increases customer satisfaction and loyalty (Balinado et al., 2021).

Effective Stakeholder Management: Employees in the energy sector can manage relationships with a variety of stakeholders, including clients, vendors, and government agencies, to encourage productive collaborations (Majava et al., 2013).

Protection and wellbeing:

Increased Safety Awareness: Employees who possess emotional intelligence are more conscious of their surroundings and their coworkers' emotions, which can make the workplace safer (Sembiring et al., 2021). This is important in the energy industry, where safety is of the utmost importance.

Stress management: Working in the energy business can be challenging. Effective stress management results in less burnout and greater overall health thanks to emotional intelligence (Bittinger et al., 2020).

Change Management: Emotionally intelligent leaders can lead teams through changes, like as technical improvements or changes in corporate rules, with empathy and understanding, reducing opposition and boosting the likelihood of effective implementation (Quisenberry, 2018).

Retention and satisfaction of employees:

Higher Job happiness: Emotionally intelligent leaders foster a sense of value and understanding among their workforce, which increases job happiness (Richard E. Boyatzis et al., 2013).

Increased Employee Retention: Employees are more inclined to stick with a company and lower turnover rates when they feel emotionally supported and respected (Hussein Alkahtani, 2015).

CSR: Corporate Social Responsibility

Increased CSR activities: People with emotional intelligence are better able to recognise and address the requirements of local stakeholders and other parties impacted by energy projects, which results in increased CSR activities (Goldston, 2020).

In conclusion, emotional intelligence in the energy sector promotes better corporate social responsibility, leadership, teamwork, and customer connections. It also improves safety and change management. Energy businesses may improve workplace conditions, industry outcomes, and relationships by encouraging emotional intelligence among executives and employees.

2.3.2.1 Goleman's Model of Emotional Intelligence

In 1995, Daniel Goleman published the seminal book "Emotional Intelligence," which is credited with popularizing the idea of emotional intelligence. According to him, having emotional intelligence includes "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and survive in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to manage one's moods and keep distressed from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope."

The four primary emotional intelligence constructs are described in Goleman's paradigm. Self-awareness, the first quality, is the capacity to recognise one's emotions and their effects while employing intuition to inform judgments (Dehn et al., 2023). The second construct, self-management, is managing one's emotions and impulses as well as responding to

changing situations (Müller et al., 2023). The third component, social awareness, refers to the capacity to see, grasp, and respond to the emotions of others while being aware of social networks (Müller et al., 2023) . The fourth construct, relationship management, is the ability to motivate, influence, and foster growth in others while handling disagreement (Goleman, 1998).

Each component of emotional intelligence in the paradigm contains a set of emotional competencies. According to Goleman, emotional skills must be developed and practised in order to perform at a high level. They are not innate qualities. Goleman's conceptual framework for emotional intelligence and its accompanying emotional abilities are shown in Figure 3. The concepts and skills fall into one of four categories, including the ability to identify emotions in oneself or others and control those feelings.

	SELF	OTHERS
AWARENESS	<p>Self-Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness of own values and emotions and how they impact our performance 	<p>Social Awareness</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tuning in to others' emotional states and concerns; having empathy
ACTIONS	<p>Self-Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keeping focused when things are tough • Regulating our emotions and ensuring own responses are under control • Providing a positive role model to others 	<p>Relationship Management</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Effectiveness in our interactions and influencing others • Reinforce purpose and contribution • Motivate teams and individuals to work together • Improve system performance

Figure 2: Emotional Intelligence Competencies

Source Goleman's (2001)

2.4 Defining Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is defined as an inner feeling caused by various factors and identifies how individuals feel about their environment and work respectively (Krishna, 2018). The joy experienced while performing work is referred to as job satisfaction. Making sure that their employees are happy in their positions is a difficult task for managers. In an organisation, a happy employee is more productive and efficient (Haque & Aston, 2016; Haque et al., 2015). If they are treated nicely, subordinates will be happier (Aziri, 2011; Haque, Faizan & Cockrill, 2017). The attitude people have toward their employment is a good indicator of how satisfied they are with their jobs. When compared to dissatisfied workers, highly

satisfied individuals have a positive and favorable attitude about their employment (Armstrong, 2006). Brown (2009), however, defined job satisfaction as being content with one's organization, one's work or profession, and one's pay or benefits. Brown (2009) widened the definition of job satisfaction to include organizational management and policy. Interpersonal interactions with peers and superiors, pay and benefits, job stability, individual considerations, working environment, and social standing were also covered. Job satisfaction is divided into categories based on organizational factors, personal characteristics, and job-specific factors by Berman and West (2008).

Lehtonen et al., (2022), state that job satisfaction refers to an individual's subjective evaluation of their work experience, including their overall contentment and fulfillment with various aspects of their job. It is a crucial factor influencing employee motivation, commitment, and well-being.

According to Karabay and Efe (2012), findings have shown that leadership styles and job satisfaction have a significant relationship based on the role of job satisfaction and leadership among public organisation staff and how important satisfaction can be as a basic human need. Leadership styles have a considerable role in organisational behavior and society and can change a considerable amount of job satisfaction among staff (Tesfaw, 2014). The standard definition of job satisfaction is how much a person favours or hates their line of work (Fitriastuti et al., 2021). Job satisfaction grows and has positive effects on welfare and employee retention when employees' internal needs are met (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014). A person's feelings and beliefs are reflected in their job satisfaction and are the outcome of cognitive and emotional processes (Yalabik et al., 2013). Therefore, job

satisfaction is an emotional state depending on how people perceive and experience their work (Alexopoulos et al., 2014).

2.4.1 Conceptual definition of Job Satisfaction

As stated by Mafini and Dlodlo (2014), job satisfaction is a complicated construct with numerous linked antecedents. According to several studies by Bhatia and Mohsin, (2020) , job satisfaction is described as a subjectively favourable evaluation and emotional reaction of a worker with respect to their position. According to Diestel, Wegge, and Schmidt (2014), workplace practices, interpersonal factors, and intrapersonal factors are all elements that affect how satisfied employees are with their jobs. Jorfi and Jorfi (2011), defined the term job satisfaction as an employee's affective reaction to his job in terms of how much it satisfies his desired outcome. Job satisfaction is an integral component of organizational climate and an important element in management-employee relationships (Coertzee & Schreuder, 2013). Many organizations are aware that having a workforce that is extremely content with their work can significantly increase the organization's chances of survival and effectiveness. The character of the environment outside of the workplace also influences how people feel and act when at work (Duche-Pérez & Galdos, 2019).

The emotions people have about their work, whether they are bad or positive, are referred to as job satisfaction Fiori, Bollmann & Rossier (2015).

2.4.2 Antecedents of Work engagement

The antecedents of work engagement refer to the factors or conditions that contribute to the development and maintenance of high levels of work engagement among employees (Mäkikangas et al., 2022). Understanding these antecedents is crucial for organizations to

foster a positive work environment that promotes employee engagement. Here are some key antecedents of work engagement to support the findings:

Job Resources: Job resources are the aspects of the work environment that facilitate goal attainment, reduce job demands, and stimulate personal growth (Corin & Björk, 2016). They include factors such as social support, feedback, autonomy, opportunities for skill development, and task variety. Several studies have shown that job resources positively influence work engagement.

Organizational Support: Perceived organizational support refers to employees' perceptions of how much their organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (Kalidass & Bahron, 2015). Research has consistently found a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and work engagement (Yongxing et al., 2017).

Transformational Leadership: Transformational leaders inspire and motivate their followers by creating a vision, providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualized support, and serving as role models (Murthy, 2017). Numerous studies have indicated that transformational leadership is positively associated with work engagement (Gözükara & Şimşek, 2015).

Job Autonomy: Job autonomy refers to the degree of independence and discretion employees have in performing their work tasks Kumar (2011). Research has consistently shown that higher levels of job autonomy are related to increased work engagement (Gozukara & Simsek, 2015).

Positive Psychological States: Individual factors such as positive psychological states, including self-efficacy, optimism, and psychological capital (PsyCap), have been found to be positively associated with work engagement (M. S. Saleem et al., 2022).

2.4.3 Outcomes of Work Engagement

Work engagement refers to the positive, fulfilling, and energizing state of mind that employees experience when they are fully absorbed and immersed in their work (Bakker, 2017). Engaged employees are enthusiastic, dedicated, and committed to their tasks, which leads to several positive outcomes for both individuals and organizations (Shahid & Azhar, 2013). Work engagement has been linked to improved customer satisfaction, higher profits, safer and healthier working conditions, lower employee turnover, lower absenteeism, higher discretionary effort, and improved productivity (Chutke, 2016). Here are some key outcomes of work engagement, supported by research findings:

Job Performance: Engaged employees tend to demonstrate higher levels of job performance (Ariani, 2014). They are more likely to exert discretionary effort, go the extra mile, and achieve better results in their work tasks and responsibilities (Ariani, 2014). Engaged employees are also more innovative, and productive, and demonstrate better problem-solving skills (Saxena, 2014).

Job Satisfaction: Work engagement is positively related to job satisfaction. Engaged employees experience a sense of fulfillment and enjoyment in their work, leading to higher levels of overall job satisfaction (Chatzoudes & Chatzoglou, 2022). They find their work meaningful, experience positive emotions, and have a greater sense of accomplishment (Chatzoudes & Chatzoglou, 2022).

Employee Well-being: Work engagement is related to higher levels of psychological well-being and lower levels of burnout (Engelbrecht et al., 2020). Engaged employees experience positive emotions, higher self-esteem, and a sense of accomplishment, leading to better overall mental health and lower levels of stress and exhaustion (Wang et al., 2017).

Organizational Commitment: Engaged employees tend to exhibit higher levels of organizational commitment (Agyemang & Ofei 2013). They feel a strong emotional attachment to their organization, identify with its goals and values, and are more likely to stay with the organization in the long term (Sokro, 2012). Engaged employees perceive their organization as supportive, and they are willing to invest extra effort to contribute to its success (Sokro, 2012).

Employee Motivation: Engaged employees are more motivated and driven to excel in their work (Agyemang & Ofei, 2013). They have a strong internal motivation, intrinsic satisfaction, and a desire to continuously improve their skills and performance (Clack, 2021). Engaged employees also demonstrate higher levels of self-efficacy and a belief in their ability to successfully accomplish tasks (Clack, 2021).

These outcomes of work engagement contribute to various organizational benefits, including increased productivity, higher customer satisfaction, lower turnover rates, and enhanced organizational performance (Kataria et al., 2012).

2.5 The Effect of Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction

According to earlier research, leadership style has a significant impact on job satisfaction (Barling et al., 2002). According to Gong, Huang, and Farh (2009), flexible firms have a participative management style, an interactive work environment, and a satisfied workforce.

According to Lok and Crawford (2004) and Medley and Larochelle (1995), the transformational leadership style is quite effective at raising job satisfaction. According to Lok and Crawford (2004), both transactional and transformational leadership have an impact on how satisfied employees are at work. However, compared to transactional leadership, transformational leadership has a stronger impact on job satisfaction (Awamleh & Al-Dmour, 2004). Prior research has concluded that transformational leaders believe in empowering employees which enhances their motivation and satisfaction level (Herman & Chiu, 2014; Top, Akdere, & Tarcan, 2015). However, the transactional leadership approach uses incentives and sanctions. Employees who meet the desired goals are rewarded by the transactional leader (Saleem, 2015). On the other hand, underperforming employees face consequences. Promotions and pay increases are two examples of rewards. Termination and a reduction in wage advancements are examples of possible sanctions (Jansen, Vera, & Crossan, 2009).

Leadership style has a positive impact on job satisfaction and public teachers have a high level of job satisfaction rather than private teachers (Bhatti et al., 2012). There is a notable correlation between transformational leadership style and job satisfaction. Male and female principals have similar leadership styles, but male educators are less satisfied with their jobs compared to female teachers (Nazim, & Mahmood, 2018). The study further supported this by establishing that a correlation between leadership style and job satisfaction is statistically significant. Increased implementation of transformational leadership style is associated with a higher likelihood of improving the job satisfaction levels of MSEs (Birbirsa & Lakew, 2020). Anastasiou and Garametsi (2021) revealed that private school teachers have a better level of job satisfaction than public school teachers due in part to variations in

environmental factors including work circumstances and motivation provided by the school principal.

Employees with strong emotional intelligence will have higher job happiness, according to research by Abi and Jijo (2012) on the topic of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. This is because employees with higher emotional intelligence can devise ways to deal with potential stress-related effects, but those with lower emotional intelligence won't be able to handle stressful situations. Additionally, in a group situation, workers with greater EI will have the ability to affect others' emotions in a way that will help them increase their own and their coworkers' morale (Cooper & Sawaf, 1997). High emotional intelligence allows a leading employee to react effectively to both the emotional behavior of their subordinates and workplace stress (Lubbadeh, 2020). It is projected that these skills will significantly increase job satisfaction. Additionally, studies have already demonstrated that emotional intelligence promotes leadership skills, organizational performance, long-term mental health, and high job satisfaction (Muhammad, 2009).

The effect of leadership styles on job satisfaction has been extensively studied in the field of organizational psychology and management.

2.6 The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Job Satisfaction

Saatci et al., (2016) mentioned that the emotional intelligence of the individuals affects both organizational and personal performance. In support of this, Hutchinson et al., (2014) noted that managers' subordinates will be passionately invested in their work, and managers will, on the other side, be receptive and open to their employees' requirements. According to

numerous authors and academics Hornung and Smolnik (2022) research on the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership is gaining momentum.

Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have a very strong positive association. The study indicated that an employee's job satisfaction and emotional intelligence are not influenced by their job title (Ealias & George, 2012). Employees' emotional intelligence was discovered to have a positive correlation with job happiness and performance, as anticipated by Sy et al. (2006).

Nordin (2012) argues that emotionally intelligent executives significantly increase an organization's chances of success. Additionally, an emotionally intelligent leader uses interpersonal relationships to foster a sense of trust and cooperation among staff members (Issah, 2018). Leaders who use their emotions well not only make better decisions but also improve the efficiency of their organizations (Rodriguez & Walters, 2017). When emotions are handled properly, they can produce positive results. Employee unhappiness will be caused by leaders' inability to control their own emotions, the caliber of their work, their own thinking and decision-making processes, and their interactions with others (Ghafourzay, 2021).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction has received considerable attention in research on organizational behavior and employee well-being (Li et al., 2021). Here is an overview of the effect of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction.

2.6.1 Emotion Regulation and Job Satisfaction

Emotional intelligence plays a crucial role in regulating one's own emotions and effectively managing interpersonal interactions in the workplace (Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2017).

Individuals with high emotional intelligence are better equipped to handle workplace stress, conflicts, and challenges, which can lead to higher job satisfaction (Arora, 2017). Research has found a positive association between emotional intelligence, particularly emotion regulation, and job satisfaction (Sharfras Navas & Vijayakumar, 2018).

2.6.2 Social Skills and Job Satisfaction

Emotional intelligence also encompasses social skills, such as empathy, interpersonal communication, and collaboration (Singh et al., 2013). Employees who possess strong social skills tend to have better relationships with colleagues and supervisors, leading to a more positive work environment and increased job satisfaction (Pitaloka & Sofia, 2014).

2.6.3 Self-Awareness and Job Satisfaction

Self-awareness, an essential component of emotional intelligence, involves recognizing and understanding one's emotions, strengths, and limitations (Danquah & Wireko, 2014). Individuals with high self-awareness are more likely to align their career choices, job roles, and work environments with their personal values and strengths, leading to increased job satisfaction (Seyal & Afzaal, 2013). Research has shown a positive relationship between self-awareness and job satisfaction (Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2017; O'Connor & Athota, 2017).

2.7 The Effect of Leadership Styles on Work Engagement

Organisational psychology and management research have both shown an interest in the impact of leadership styles on employee engagement (Abasilim et al., 2019). Work engagement refers to the level of energy, dedication, and enthusiasm employees have towards their work. Transformational and transactional leadership styles can have varying

effects on employee engagement, ultimately influencing their motivation, satisfaction, and performance (Saleem, 2015).

Transactional and transformative leadership appear to have a major impact on work engagement, according to studies in a variety of industries (Li, Castao, & Li, 2018; Manning, 2016; Popli & Rizvi, 2016). Li et al.'s (2018) study revealed that both transactional leadership and transformational leadership are effective predictors of workplace engagement. Manning (2016) concentrated on how leadership styles affected the energy sector employees' work engagement, and the study likewise produced statistically significant results. The favourable association between transactional leadership, transformational leadership, work engagement, and psychological capital is also supported by research (Li et al., 2018). The study also shows that transactional leadership and transformational leadership predict employee psychological capital and levels of engagement, with psychological capital serving as a mediator between the impacts of leadership styles on workplace engagement (Li et al., 2018). Furthermore, compared to transactional leadership, transformational leadership has a greater positive influence on workplace engagement (Li et al., 2018; Manning, 2016).

Hayaati et al., (2018) investigated the relationship between leadership styles and work engagement, providing valuable insights into this area. Here are some key findings from relevant research:

Transformational Leadership: Transformational leaders are known for their ability to inspire and motivate their employees. They encourage personal growth, set high expectations, and provide support and recognition. A study by Datche and Mukulu (2015)

showed that transformational leadership significantly predicted work engagement among healthcare professionals.

Authentic Leadership: Authentic leaders are characterized by their genuineness, transparency, and ethical behavior. They build trust, foster positive relationships, and encourage open communication. Research suggests that authentic leadership positively influences work engagement. For instance, a study by (Shu, 2015) found that authentic leadership was significantly related to work engagement among employees in a Chinese firm.

Transactional Leadership: Transactional leaders focus on setting clear goals, providing rewards and punishments based on performance, and ensuring compliance with rules and procedures. While transactional leadership may not directly foster work engagement to the same extent as transformational or authentic leadership, it can still have a positive influence. Research has shown that contingent reward, a component of transactional leadership, is positively associated with work engagement.

Shu, (2015) study showed that authoritarian leadership has a negative relationship with subordinates' work engagement when obedience was considered, while authentic leadership had a positive relationship with work engagement. The association between authentic leadership and work engagement was positively influenced by intrinsic motivation, which also mitigated the negative effects of authoritarian leadership on work engagement. Leaders can influence the level of involvement of those they lead in multiple ways. Engagement can be improved by adjusting job demands and resources, and by boosting employees' psychological need satisfaction through treatments that focus on autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Leaders should enhance their engagement levels as it can influence both

their leadership and the engagement of their followers through emotional contagion, role modelling, and social exchange processes (Decuyper & Schaufeli, 2020). Leadership styles have a significant impact on employees' psychological capital and work engagement. Specifically, transformational and transactional leadership styles were found to have a positive influence on employees' psychological capital and work engagement. Transformational leadership showed a stronger predictive ability compared to transactional leadership. Additionally, employees' psychological capital was found to have a positive effect on their work engagement. Furthermore, employees' psychological capital was identified as a partial mediator between leadership styles and employees' work engagement (Li et al., 2018).

2.8 The Effect of Emotional Intelligence and Work Engagement

The effect of emotional intelligence on work engagement has also been a topic of research interest. Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to recognize, understand, and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others. It is believed to play a crucial role in interpersonal relationships, job performance, and employee well-being. Here are some key findings from studies that have examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and work engagement:

Emotional Intelligence and Work Engagement: Employees with higher emotional intelligence tend to exhibit greater enthusiasm, energy, and dedication towards their work. For example, a study by Codier and Codier (2017) conducted among registered nurses found that emotional intelligence was positively related to work engagement.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership: The emotional intelligence of leaders can also have an impact on work engagement. Leaders who possess higher emotional intelligence are better equipped to understand and manage the emotions of their team members, leading to higher levels of work engagement. A study by Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) found that leaders' emotional intelligence positively influenced employee work engagement.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Resources: Emotional intelligence can facilitate the creation and utilization of job resources, such as social support, positive work relationships, and effective communication.

Leaders who possess high levels of emotional intelligence are better able to comprehend and control both their own emotions and those of their team members (Lubbbadeh, 2020). Empathetic, socially conscious, and good at managing interpersonal connections are leaders with high EI (Lambert, 2021). They are more inclined to use inspirational and motivating transformational leadership philosophies (Cetin & Kinik, 2015).

According to Atikur Rahaman and Md (2022) employees' level of contentment and fulfilment at work is measured by job satisfaction. It is influenced by a number of variables, such as the emotional intelligence of leaders and their leadership philosophies (Moon, 2021). Job satisfaction is more likely to be positively impacted by transformative and supportive leadership philosophies (Holbert et al., 2021). Increased job satisfaction among the workforce is a result of leaders with high emotional intelligence being able to grasp the wants and concerns of their workforce (Sembiring et al., 2021).

Davis (2019) stated that employees with strong emotional intelligence can navigate social complexity at work, efficiently manage their emotions, and develop good working

relationships with coworkers. Individuals are more capable of managing interpersonal issues and workplace challenges, there is a higher level of work engagement (Obiekwe et al., 2019).

Job satisfaction is known to rise with supportive and transformative leadership styles, both of which are linked to strong emotional intelligence (Jufrizen et al., 2022). While transformational leaders inspire and challenge people, increasing job satisfaction, supportive leaders foster a healthy work environment (Jabbar et al., 2020).

In conclusion, leaders with high emotional intelligence often adopt transformative and nurturing leadership philosophies, which in turn raise employee job satisfaction and work engagement (Majeed et al., 2019). The general health and productivity of the workers within an organisation are greatly influenced by these interrelated elements (Chong et al., 2020).

George et al. (2022) emphasised the importance of how employees perceive organisational support in motivating them to utilise their personal resources to achieve work goals. Emotionally intelligence employees are more likely to comprehend how to effectively regulate their own and others' emotions, which increases their level of work engagement, according to the findings of this study. Nursing professionals' work engagement was significantly influenced by emotional intelligence and organisational justice, which together explained 44%. Bootstrap analysis verified that emotional intelligence had an indirect impact on work engagement through organisational fairness. Emotional intelligence and organisational justice are strong indicators of work engagement according to Zhu et al. (2015). The study by Alotaibi et al. (2020) presented evidence supporting the impact of Emotional Intelligence on empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, and work engagement in private hospitals. Work engagement and

emotional intelligence, together with their components, demonstrate a strong correlation and are also found to be mutually predictive in the workplace (Selvi & Aiswarya, 2023).

2.9 Theory

2.9.1 Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMR)

For this study, the relationship between EI and work engagement and job satisfaction will be described by using the Cognitive Motivational Relational (CMR) theory of emotions (Tesfaw, 2014). This theory can predict the emotions of individuals when it comes to their work environment. It outlines three aspects of emotions, which is cognitive (relating to an individual's knowledge and evaluation of what is happening in an environment), relational (emotions relating to individuals and their environment that can change over time) and motivational (emotions relating to the status of one's goals). This theory advises that the motivation of an individual's goal or investment into a role (e.g. work engagement) will be affected by the environment's cognitive appraisal of the subsequent emotions (Calvo et al., 2010). This theory represents that an individual's emotions (emotional management and regulation) will lead to positive work engagement experiences. The ability of an individual to respond positively to his/her emotions will lead to higher work engagement. Research also shows that EI has positive effects on employees' work engagement in terms of social responsibility towards the social community, engagement towards the organisation and organisational citizenship behaviour towards individuals (Pradhan et al., 2016).

The effect of positive leadership styles is an important, cognitive pathway concerning the leadership influence satisfaction and employee engagement (Alsaqqaf, 2023). This is so as

leadership style may influence work characteristics and psychological need satisfaction (Specchia et al., 2021).

Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMR) is a psychological theory developed by Bernard Weiner that focuses on the role of attributions and beliefs in motivating human behavior. It provides insights into how individuals' perceptions and interpretations of events influence their motivation and subsequent actions.

According to the Cognitive Motivational Relational (CMR) theory, individuals' motivation is influenced by three key factors: causal attributions, affective reactions, and achievement-related behaviors.

Causal attributions: CMR theory emphasizes the importance of how individuals explain the causes of their successes and failures. Weiner identified three dimensions of attributions:

Internal/External: This dimension refers to whether individuals attribute their performance to factors within themselves (internal) or factors outside their control (external).

Stable/Unstable: This dimension reflects whether individuals perceive the causes of their performance as enduring over time (stable) or as more variable (unstable).

Controllable/Uncontrollable: This dimension relates to whether individuals perceive the causes of their performance as within their control (controllable) or beyond their control (uncontrollable).

These dimensions interact to form attributional styles that influence motivation. For example, individuals who attribute their successes to internal, stable, and controllable factors are more likely to have high self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, while those who

attribute their failures to internal, stable, and uncontrollable factors may experience learned helplessness and reduced motivation.

Affective reactions: CMR theory suggests that individuals' emotional responses to success and failure experiences play a significant role in motivating subsequent behavior. Positive emotions, such as pride and happiness, can enhance motivation, while negative emotions, such as shame and guilt, can dampen motivation. The emotional reactions to achievement outcomes can further influence individuals' self-esteem, self-worth, and future expectations.

Achievement-related behaviors: CMR theory posits those attributions and affective reactions, in turn, shape individuals' subsequent achievement-related behaviors. These behaviors include choices, effort expenditure, persistence, and goal setting. Individuals' attributions and emotions can either enhance or undermine their engagement in these behaviors. For instance, individuals who attribute their failures to external and unstable factors may be more likely to exert effort and persist in the face of challenges.

CMR theory provides a framework for understanding how individuals' interpretations and emotional responses to success and failure experiences impact their motivation and subsequent behavior. It has been influential in various domains, including education, sports, and work settings, where understanding motivation is crucial for enhancing performance and well-being.

2.10 Conclusion

In this chapter, the ideas of emotional intelligence, work engagement, job satisfaction, and leadership style were covered. The dimensions and antecedents of emotional intelligence were discussed in relation to leadership style. The definition and discussion of job satisfaction took its predecessors into account. Finally, the notion and factors of work

engagement were debated, work engagement was comprehensively studied and defined, and its antecedents were carefully considered. A conceptual synthesis was given, and the relationship between the cognitive motivational relational theory and motivation was also covered. Lastly, the Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory was used to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence, work engagement, job happiness, and leadership style. The study's methodology will be covered in the third and final chapter.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the literature on the presented variables. This chapter will concentrate on the various processes that will be followed in the research process to gather data, including the study's makeup, demographic groupings, measurement tools, scoring systems, and data and result interpretation. A review of the methods and analysis, together with the instruments and their dependability, will be discussed.

3.2 Research design

This study utilised a quantitative research methodology with a non-experimental research design. Data was collected through the use of questionnaires for this cross-sectional study design (Asenahabi, 2019). A cross-sectional design is a research method that involves measuring all relevant variables at a certain moment in time. It is commonly used in social research to investigate theoretical models within a specific demographic group (Koob et al., 2021). A cross-sectional approach is suitable for social research when analysing theoretical models within a population group and aims to evaluate all relevant factors simultaneously at a certain moment in time (Bostley, 2019). The researcher can gain a larger sample size by doing quantitative research, which allows for the collection of information more efficiently and with a focus on numerical data. Additionally, the use of a quantitative approach makes it possible to replicate results (Mohajan, 2020). One potential limitation of using a quantitative method is the insufficient availability of resources, which can be attributed to the need for a large sample size (Tam, et al., 2019). Researchers often have challenges in

maintaining control over the context in which respondents provide answers to survey questions (Baxter, 2008). This study employed a systematic questionnaire consisting of closed-ended questions, which is a common tool in quantitative research. The research findings were constrained due to this (Baxter, 2008). The questionnaires collected data on the employees' demographics, emotional intelligence, work engagement, and job satisfaction levels (Nurjanah & Indawati, 2021). Surveys were conducted, and the results can be extrapolated to the entire organisation.

3.2.1 Quantitative Research

A cross-sectional survey design was utilised in accordance with a quantitative research methodology for this investigation. Quantitative research refers to the process of gathering numerical data and subjecting it to statistical analysis (Devault, 2019). Quantitative research enables a researcher to acquire accurate numerical data that can be used to infer the opinions of a larger population. A cross-sectional design is a research approach that involves measuring all relevant variables at a certain moment in time (Shaw et al., 2010). This design is suitable for social research when investigating theoretical models within a specific demographic group. This study employed a quantitative methodology to gather data and applied the cognitive motivational relational theory. Data was collected using online surveys and examined using a cross-sectional research design, which is a type of observational research.

Considering the assurance provided by positivism that the researcher's values and biases have no impact on the collected results, a cross-sectional study design was deemed the most suitable (Marczyk et al., 2021). The questionnaires provided insights into the employees'

demographics, leadership styles, emotional intelligence, work engagement, and job satisfaction levels.

The objective of qualitative research is to comprehend and analyse individuals' experiences, perspectives, and significances in connection to a specified context (Geale & Wang, 2015). This is a methodological approach commonly employed in the social sciences and other fields. Its objective is to explore and comprehend the intricacy of human cognition, behaviour, and incentives. Qualitative research, unlike quantitative research, focuses on the subjective aspects of human life rather than providing precise numbers (Roller, 2019). The objective of qualitative research is to gather comprehensive and contextualised information through techniques such as interviews, observations, focus groups, and textual analysis. In contrast, quantitative research focuses more on numerical data and statistical analysis (Nimehchisalem, 2018). The surveys were used to gather data on the employees' demographic factors, leadership styles, emotional intelligence levels, work engagement, and job satisfaction levels. Quantitative research allows researchers to gain a larger sample size compared to qualitative research (Plonsky, 2017). According to Neumayr and Plümper (2017), the collected data is also reported to be faster, simpler, and more dependable to collect. Since the quantitative investigation yielded consistent data, the results can be replicated.

3.2.2 Validity

There are four main categories of validity. The four types of validity mentioned are statistical conclusion validity, concept validity, external validity, and internal validity (Christensen et al., 2011). Internal validity refers to the extent to which the study's results truly represent the population and are not influenced by any errors in the research

methodology (Heppner et al., 2015). External validity refers to the extent to which a researcher may generalise study findings to various populations or contexts (Findley et al., 2021). Construct validity refers to the extent to which the measure selected by the researcher is consistent with the identified hypotheses (Marczyk et al., 2021). Statistical conclusion validity refers to the situation when the researcher's findings from their investigation are both statistically significant and accurate (Heppner et al., 2015). Hess and Bacigalupo (2011) state that internal validity often encompasses face, content, construct, and criterion validity. Quantitative methods exhibit a higher degree of validity compared to qualitative ones. Similarly, quantitative approaches tend to have higher external validity compared to qualitative methods since they often involve bigger sample numbers, which are usually lacking in qualitative research (Farh et al., 2012). Farh et al. (2012) argue that the suitability of a quantitative research design is determined by its ability to efficiently and effectively achieve the study's objectives. Validity pertains to the extent to which a study effectively measures the outcomes. The surveys were used to gather data on the employees' demographic factors, emotional intelligence levels, quality of work-life, and job satisfaction levels. This study utilised pre-existing instruments instead of creating new ones, which were readily available and did not require any additional development. The instruments utilised underwent testing both inside the study's specific environment and in comparable scenarios.

3.2.3 Reliability

Olsen et al. (2022) define reliability as the ability to produce consistent results and assesses it through several methodologies. Reliability refers to the degree of stability exhibited by a measure of a concept. (Bryman & Bell 2012). Reliability is the measure of data consistency, indicating the extent to which measuring equipment consistently generates dependable and predictable outcomes. The researchers employed Cronbach's Alpha and Composite dependability as measures of reliability (Matosas-López & Cuevas-Molano, 2022).

This study assessed the internal consistency of each idea through reliability analysis to ensure strong generalisation across test items. The researchers in this study calculated Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha to assess the reliability of the measurements (Gadernann et al., 2012). Table 4.1 displays the outcomes of the reliability statistics. The generally accepted threshold for internal consistency dependability is 0.6 to 0.7. The study instruments achieved scores above 0.7, above the level of satisfaction. The data-gathering procedure mostly relies on the element of validity. Repeatability was evaluated by incorporating research that examined internal consistency, which refers to the stability at a group level, under identical conditions. Reliability pertains to the precision and correctness of the measuring equipment or technique. The main concern regarding the method of data gathering is its reliability, which is a key aspect of validity. According to Bonnet and Wright (2014), Cronbach's Alpha is the predominant measure used to assess the reliability of variables in research conducted in the fields of organisational and social sciences. The purpose of a reliability test is to eliminate bias, minimise errors, enhance the accuracy of the assessment, and enhance the evaluation of the research study (Mohajan, 2017). It is

imperative that the same methodologies employed by other studies yield comparable outcomes. The statistical methodologies employed to assess each sub-problem and the results of the investigation are documented in chapter four.

3.3 Population

A group of individuals with specific traits required for a researcher to conduct a study can be referred to as the population within a study (Marczyk et al., 2021). The study looked at the employees of Nampower based in the capital city and the chosen population consists of an overall total of 1700 employees.

3.4 Sample

In a study, the sample is the subset of a population (Khan et al., 2021). Sampling is essential in research studies as it is often not feasible to analyse the entire population. Therefore, researchers use samples to make inferences about the complete population (Neumayer & Plümper, 2017). The convenience sample technique will be employed, meaning only individuals who are willing to participate will be included. Haslam and McGarty (2019) classify this method as a non-probability sampling methodology. Participants who are easily accessible are selected for study using the convenience sampling technique (Beins & McCarthy, 2012). Kitchenham and Pflieger (2002) contend that the only requirement for the sampling strategy is the availability of individuals, hence making convenience sampling the suitable approach. The sample methodology was implemented on a voluntary and anonymous basis. The test often challenges multiple individuals while deliberately avoiding any bias by not allowing the researcher to determine the selection of participants (Coolican, 2014). Consequently, all those who were inclined participated in the study. The Roasoft

sample size calculator determined that the optimal sample size for the study was 314 employees from NamPower nationwide, which is 179 participants less than the originally planned sample size. The sample size calculator was utilised to ascertain the sample size of 314 individuals with a 95% confidence level. This number was chosen based on its reliability (Ebling, 2004). Consequently, the study's response rate was $43\% = 135/314 \times 100/1$ which is an average response rate. To note, emails were sent to all employees within the selected work station, however, only 179 responded.

3.5 Research Instruments

The data was collected using an online survey that comprises four sections. The demographic data of the respondents was incorporated in Section A. This encompasses their level of expertise, ethnicity, sex, marital status, number of dependents, and managerial role within the parastatal. The survey consists of five sections. The first section assessed the respondent's age, gender, highest educational attainment, years of experience in the field, number of dependents, marital status, and employment status. The next sections consist of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1994), and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli et al., 2006).

3.5.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire instrument

Leadership styles were measured using an adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Avolio, Bass, and Jung in 1995 (Pahi et al., 2016). The purpose of the questionnaire was to distinguish the three leadership styles. The measuring instrument consisted of 18 items, and it measures 5 transformational leadership factors, 2

transactional leadership factors and 2 laissez-faire leadership factors using a set of 18 questions. Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) for each question. The questions ranged from statements such as “Employees need to be supervised closely, or they are not likely to do their work” or “providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good supervisor”. Each question is ranked and the overall score for a factor is calculated using the average score of the questions related to the factor being measured. Instructions were given regarding the rating of the questions.

3.5.2 Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

The Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire developed by Şahin et al., (2013) and all dimensions will be focused on in this study, and it consists of 20 items and it was discovered to have test-retest scale reliability of 0.76 and internal consistency of 0.71, respectively. The statements on this 3-point Likert scale questionnaire ranged from “I realise immediately when I lose my temper”, or “I know what makes me happy” to “I never interrupt other people’s conversations”. Responses range from 1 (does not apply) to 3 (always applies) for each question. These measurement tools have been extensively used in research and have demonstrated good reliability and validity. However, it is essential to select a measurement tool that aligns with the specific objectives and context of the study or organizational assessment.

3.5.3 Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) developed by Umuzdas, (2020) consists of 36 items. This study will measure Job Satisfaction by using the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) Questionnaire adapted from the Job Diagnostic Survey by Tsounis and Sarafis (2018).

Responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) for each question. The questions ranged from statements such as “My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job”. “I feel that my job is valuable” and “In my job, I feel that I am doing something worthwhile”). Responses were then averaged to provide a total job satisfaction score. Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS): The JSS is a widely used questionnaire that assesses overall job satisfaction as well as satisfaction with specific facets, such as the work itself, promotion opportunities, supervision, pay, and coworkers. It provides a comprehensive assessment of job satisfaction. These measurement tools have been extensively used in research and have demonstrated good reliability and validity. However, it is essential to select a measurement tool that aligns with the specific objectives and context of the study or organizational assessment.

3.5.4 The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) was developed by Simbula et al. (2013); and measures the cognitive, emotional and physical conditions of engagement (May et al., 2004; Olivier & Rothmann, 2007; van Zyl et al., 2010) and focusing on three subscales vigor (VI), dedication (DE), and absorption (AB). The first version of the scale (Schaufeli, 2002) had 24 items that assessed the three subdimensions of work engagement: vigour, devotion, and absorption. There were nine items associated with vigour, eight with devotion, and seven with absorption (Uhunoma, et al., 2020). After a cross-sectional investigation and the validation of three items for each subdimension (Schaufeli et al., 2006), the original scale (UWES-24) was reduced to nine items (UWES-9). The instrument responses range from 1 (a few times a year or less) to 6 (every day) e.g., “At my work, I feel bursting with energy

that I forget about everything else” and “I get carried away when I am working”). Responses were then averaged to provide a total work engagement score. This measurement tool has been extensively used in research and has demonstrated good reliability and validity across different industries and cultures. However, it is important to select a measurement tool that aligns with the specific context and objectives of the study or organizational assessment. Researchers and practitioners can also develop customized measures of work engagement based on their specific needs, provided they follow rigorous psychometric procedures.

3.6 Procedure

The research project was evaluated and accepted by the Ethics Committee of the University of Namibia, the Ethical Clearance Reference Number: SAH30/23. Written permission was obtained from the managing director and manager of education training and development to conduct the study within their organisation. An approval letter for permission to conduct an academic research study at NamPower was given.

Participants were given a covering letter detailing the purpose of the project, the roles and responsibilities of the role players and the rights to confidentiality of the participants. No names will be obtained from the respondents to maintain anonymity and confidentiality. Participation was voluntary with each participant being provided an informed consent form to sign prior to completing the questionnaire. Participants were given the opportunity to raise any questions and to receive feedback on the results of the study. A secure, online questionnaire system was used for the purpose of generating and distributing the questionnaire. Employees within the participating organisation were sent an electronic link allowing them to access and complete the questionnaire.

Before proceeding to the questions on the first page, participants were required to select the consent option. The online questionnaire was made available to participants between 09 June 2023 and 23 June 2023. However, the paper to cancel the survey would be given to those participants not comfortable with the online surveys. The online survey was terminated at the conclusion of the data collection period, and the information was transferred into an Excel spreadsheet. The information and sheet are password-protected and only the researcher and supervisor have access to them electronically. The request for permission to conduct an academic research study at NamPower is as per the attached annexures.

3.7 Data Analysis

The data was analysed using SPSS. SPSS is an abbreviation for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences and is employed for the analysis of statistical data (Bryman & Cramer, 2012). Data encoding of electronic data commenced promptly upon receipt of the completed surveys from all participants. Demographic differences were described using descriptive statistics. The descriptive data provided includes the number of responses (n), the mean (\bar{x}), the median (med), the mode (m), and the standard deviation (sd), where appropriate for all demographic and survey responses. Statistical inference was utilised to test the respective hypotheses. The significance level (α) was chosen at 0.05 to determine the threshold for Type I error in all inferential statistics. Alpha levels less than or equal to 0.05 indicated support for the alternate hypothesis, whereas alpha values greater than 0.05 indicated support for the null hypothesis. The SPSS software employed Pearson's method to calculate the correlation coefficients between leadership styles, job satisfaction, work engagement, and emotional intelligence, with emotional intelligence acting as the mediator. A highly

efficient approach The Pearson Correlation coefficient was utilised to assess the magnitude of the association and the connection between the variables. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) is a statistical method frequently employed in psychology using SPSS. It enables the researcher to condense a large number of variables into a smaller set of factors. These factors provide useful insights into the extent to which the data aligns with the theoretical model (Yong & Pearce, 2013). The data was analysed using the SPSS software version 27.

3.8 Research Ethics

The significance of research ethics cannot be overstated. McKenna and Grey (2018) define ethics as a comprehensive set of rules, both explicit and implicit, that govern the conduct of individuals and others. The purpose of ethics in research is twofold: to establish accountability for researchers' activities and to provide guidance for the ethical acquisition of scientific data (Resnik, 2018). Research ethics ensures the adherence to ethical standards and the preservation of confidence and trust among all parties participating in a study, particularly when it involves human or animal subjects (Joly et al., 2015).

In accordance with the research code of ethics, it is imperative that the study is carried out on a voluntary basis. Consequently, participants will be duly notified of their entitlement to withdraw from the study and decline participation without facing any repercussions. The participants will additionally endorse a permission form as evidence of their voluntary involvement. The data collected from the questionnaires will be handled as confidential, and no personal identifiers, such as names or contact details, will be collected.

During the process of conducting research, it is common to encounter five significant ethical considerations. The initial aspect is obtaining informed consent. Informed permission is

given by a participant when they willingly and consciously agree to allow their data to be used for a study and actively take part in it (McKenna & Grey, 2018). In the second category, known as anonymity, the participant's identity is safeguarded (Resnik, 2018). If it is not possible to retain anonymity, confidentiality is the subsequent measure employed. Confidentiality refers to the act of refraining from sharing with those who are not part of the approved participants of a study any information that has been gathered about an individual (Embregts et al., 2022). The fourth domain pertains to the preservation of privacy, ensuring that individuals possess the autonomy to determine the manner, timing, and content of information that is shared or withheld (McKenna & Grey, 2018). The safeguarding of susceptible populations is the ultimate domain. Gillan and Pickerill (2012) define vulnerable groups as individuals who lack the ability to protect their rights or well-being within society. The Ethics Committee of the University of Namibia has granted ethical approval for this project (Ethical approval Reference Number: SAH30/23/27/04/2023). The study has to be conducted on a voluntary basis, in accordance with the research code of ethics. Participants were informed about their option to withdraw from the study and assured that there would be no negative consequences if they choose not to participate. Each participant granted their consent to be included in the study by choosing the appropriate option before completing the questionnaire. In order to safeguard the privacy and confidentiality of the participants, no names or contact information were collected. Given that the entirety of the data was collected from online sources, it was securely stored on Google's cloud storage, which is safeguarded by a password and can only be accessed by the researcher and supervisor. The data will be stored for a duration of five years, following which it will be deleted and all remnants of it will be eliminated.

3.9 Conclusion

This chapter explored the demographic characteristics, sample selection, instruments used, research procedure, data processing methods, research ethics considerations, and research design that were considered for the study. The document contained a succinct summary of each component, along with a comprehensive elucidation of how each part contributes to the overarching investigation. The study's primary goal and secondary objectives were deliberated upon. The study employed descriptive research to elucidate the properties of variables.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter investigated the methodology adopted. The chapter will present the study findings. The internal consistency; demographic variables; descriptive statistics and inferential statics are presented. The discussion of the results will be conducted in the following chapter. The demographic variables were gender, age, marital status, years in the profession, number of dependents, level of management, and highest qualification. data from the correlation analysis presented.

4.2 Reliability

Table 4.1 below shows the internal consistency of the data research instrument adopted. To test the internal consistency of the research instrument Cronbach's alpha coefficient was used. All the scales adopted scored acceptable reliability. The generally accepted internal consistency indicates 0.6 to 0.7 as acceptable levels of reliability. The study instruments scored above 0.7, which is higher than satisfactory.

Table 4. 1

Reliability Analysis

<i>Main theoretical variable</i>	<i>Valid Items used N</i>	<i>Cronbach's alpha</i>
<i>Emotional intelligence</i>	20	0. 832**
<i>Leadership style</i>	18	0. 751**
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	20	0. 861**
<i>Work engagement</i>	9	0. 929**

**significantly acceptable reliability

Source: author's own creation

4.3 Demographic variable

Prior to conducting a detailed data analysis, a descriptive approach was used to describe the biographical variables in the study. The basic distribution is shown in Table 4.2 below.

Table 4. 2 Descriptive statistics for personal biographical profile of respondents

Variable	Level	F	Valid %
Gender	Male	82	60.7
	Female	53	39.3
Age	Below 24	1	0.7
	24-28	10	7.4
	29-31	8	5.9
	32-35	22	16.3
	36-40	22	16.3
	41-45	30	22.2
	46-50	42	31.1
	51+	0	0
Number of years	Less 1	3	2.2
	1-2	3	2.2
	3-4	12	8.9
	5-6	11	8.1
	7-8	10	7.4
	9-10	7	5.2
	11-15	34	25.2
	16+	55	40.7
Marital status	Single	49	36.3
	Married	83	61.5
	Divorced	3	2.2
	widowed	0	0
Number of dependents	None	14	10.4
	1-2	47	34.8
	3-4	45	33.3
	5-6	25	18.5
	7-9	3	2.2
	10+	1	0.7

Highest qualification	Grade 12	10	7.4
	Certificate	14	10.4
	Diploma	31	23
	Degree	36	26.7
	Honors degree	25	18.5
	Masters degree	17	12.6
	PhD degree	2	1.5
Management level	Non-managerial	102	75.6
	Mid-level management	32	23.7
	Senior management	1	0.7

$N=135$

The description and graphical presentation are outlined in the headings below.

4.3.1 Gender

Figure 4.1 below depicts the gender of the participants. From the figure, it can be observed that (61%, $n=82$), the female participants comprised 39% of the sample $n=53$.

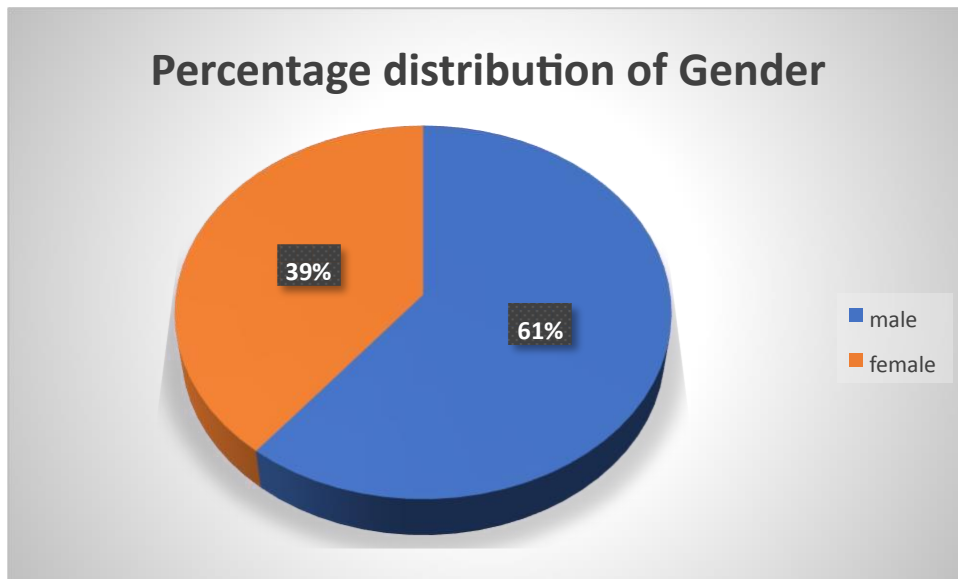


Figure 4. 1 Gender

4.3.2 Age

From figure 4.2 below, the frequency distribution of age is presented. From the figure, it can be observed that most participants $n=42$ were between the ages of 46-50 followed by

n=30 for the ages of 41-45. There were no participants above 50 and only 1 participant was below the age of 24.

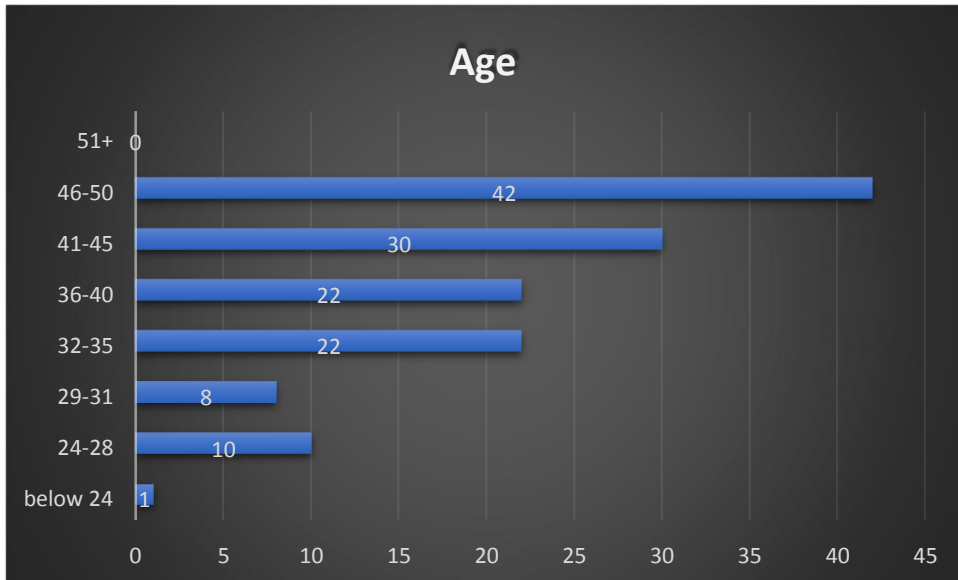


Figure 4. 2 Age distribution

4.3.3 Number of years

As shown in figure 4.3 below; participants were required to indicate their years of experience in the respective organisation. The results show that n=55 (41%) had more than 16 years in the profession. Only 18 participants had less than 5 years of service within the respective organisation.

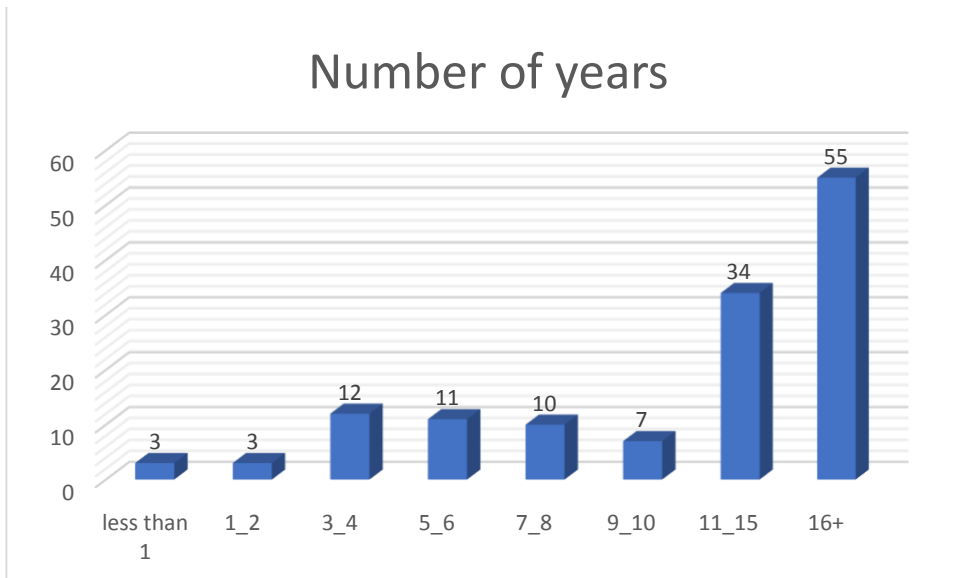


Figure 4. 3 Number of years

4.3.4 Marital status

From figure 4.4 below, it can be observed that the least number of participants $n=3$ (2%) were divorced. There were more married participants $n=83$ (62%) and $n=49$ (36%) were single.

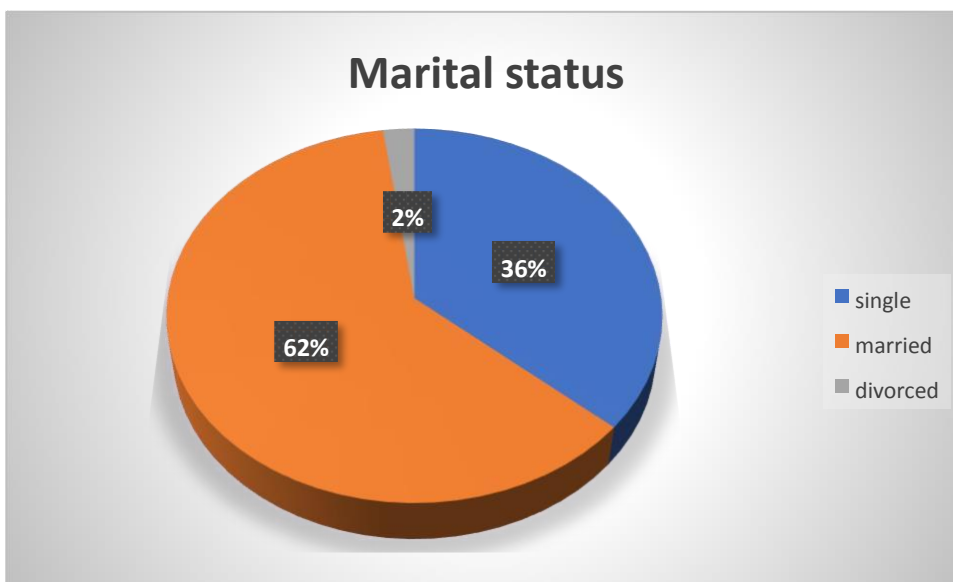


Figure 4. 4 Marital status

4.3.5 Number of dependents

Figure 4.5 below shows the distribution in respect to the number of dependents. The most respondents (n=47) had 1-2 years, while 3-4 years had (n=45) and n=25 were between 5-6 years.

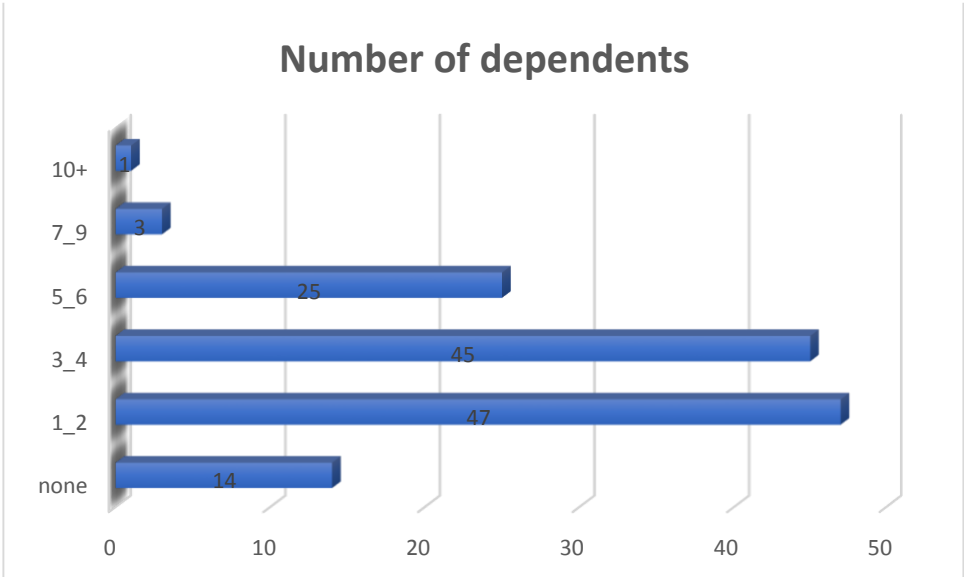


Figure 4. 5 Number of dependents

4.3.6 Highest qualification

As depicted in Figure 4.6 the highest academic/ educational qualification was a PhD with (n=2; 2%) participants. Of the 135 respondents (n=36; 27%) had a degree; only (n=10; 7%) participants had a grade 12 and (n=17; 13%) had a master’s degree in their possession.



Figure 4. 6 Highest qualification

4.3.7 Management level

Figure 4.7 shows by percentage the distribution of positions in relation to the level of management that one occupies. Most of the participants (n=102; 75%) were in non-managerial positions. Only (n=1; 1%) occupied senior management and (24%; n=32) were in mid management.

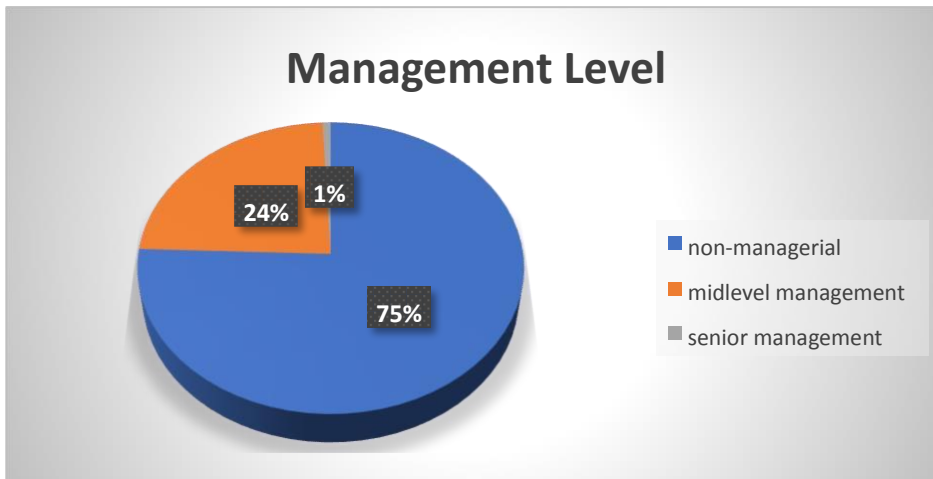


Figure 4. 7 Management level

4.4 Mean analysis on perception of participants

Table 4.3 below shows the summary of the descriptive statistics of the study variables.

Guided by the study objectives the respective constructs were deemed not essential.

The table presents the data from the standard deviation, mean score, minimum, maximum and the total number of respondents.

Table 4.3
Summary of descriptive statistics of study variables.

<i>Main theoretical variable</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
<i>Leadership style</i>	135	1.911	4.141	3.254	0.335
<i>Emotional intelligence</i>	135	1.859	2.889	2.438	0.058
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	135	2.770	5.096	4.140	0.521
<i>Work engagement</i>	135	3.430	4.778	4.177	0.155

Using a 5-point Likert scale to measure leadership style; the results show a moderate mean (mean=3.254 SD=0.335). In relation to the 3-point emotional intelligence scale, the results indicate a high mean of 2.438. Job satisfaction was measured using a 6-point Likert scale (mean=4.140; SD=0.521) and lastly, work engagement (7-point Likert scale) had a moderate mean (mean=4.177; SD=0.155).

4.4.1 One sample T-Test

Table 4.3 above shows that the participants agreed to the items used to measure the scales. However, in order to establish evidence of significance, a one-sample t-test was conducted, and the results are shown in table 4.4 below. Leadership style had a 5-point Likert scale, an observed mean of above 3 indicates that participants moderately agreed with the items in the moderating scale as indicated by the upper and lower means with a 95% confidence interval. Emotional intelligence was measured using a 3-point Likert

scale. The upper mean of 2.49 which is above the theoretical mean of 2. This implies that participants generally agreed on the items in the measuring instrument. For both job satisfaction and work engagement the means were above 4. in relation to job satisfaction on a 6-point Likert scale. An observed mean of above 4 reflects that participants agreed slightly with the items in the measuring scale for job satisfaction. Lastly, for work engagement, a mean of above 4 indicates that participants expressed that they experienced at least once a week in relation to agreement.

Table 4. 4 One sample T Test for the mean responses on study variables

<i>Variable</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Observed mean</i>	<i>Significance 2 tailed test</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
<i>Leadership style</i>	4.5	3.25	<.001	0.335	3.17	3.33
<i>Emotional intelligence</i>	4.9	2.43	<.001	0.058	2.389	2.486
<i>Job satisfaction</i>	3.302	4.14	<.001	0.521	4.01	4.26
<i>Work engagement</i>	4.17	4.18	<.001	0.155	3.957	4.396

4.5 Inferential statistics

The first step was to explore whether a linear relationship in the data allowed for a linear regression analysis. To achieve this a parametric person correlation coefficient (one-tailed test) was used. Table 4.5 below shows the Pearson correlation (r) and significance probabilities for relations of the hypothesis frameworks.

4.5.1 Pearson correlation

Table 4. 5 Pearson correlation coefficient and significant probabilities in relation to study variables.

Variable	Leadership style	Emotional intelligence	Job satisfaction	Work engagement
Leadership style	1	r=.430** P=<.001	r=-.148 P=.086	r=-.142 P=.101
Emotional intelligence	r=.430** P=<.001	1	r=-.242** P=.005	r=.415** P=<.001
Job satisfaction	r=-.148 P=.086	r=-.242** P=.005	1	r=-.148 P=.086
Work engagement	r=-.142 P=.101	r=.415** P=<.001	r=-.477** P=<.001	1

The findings revealed that for the linear relations between leadership style and emotional intelligence. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between leadership style and emotional intelligence ($r=.430^{**}$; $p<.001$). On the other hand, leadership style and job satisfaction ($r=-.148$; $p=.086$) had a negative relationship between them although it was not significant. Leadership style and work engagement ($r=-.142$; $p=.101$). As shown in the table above emotional intelligence had a negative and statistically significant relationship to job satisfaction ($r=-.242^{**}$; $p=.005$). Emotional intelligence had a low to moderate relationship to work engagement ($r=.415^{**}$; $p<.001$) and lastly Work engagement was negatively related to job satisfaction ($r=-.477^{**}$; $p<.001$).

Table 4.6 below shows that when combined; leadership style and emotional intelligence have a positive statistically significant relationship to work engagement ($r=.329^{**}$; $p<.001$). However, leadership style and emotional intelligence had a

positive relationship with job satisfaction. It was not statistically significant ($r=.055$; $p=.523$).

Table 4. 6 Correlation Hypothesis Testing

Variable	<i>Job satisfaction</i>	<i>Work engagement</i>
<i>Leadership style and emotional intelligence</i>	$r=-.055$ $P=.523$	$r=.329^{**}$ $P=<.001$

4.5.2 Hypothesis testing

In this section, the hypothesis of the study will be addressed. From the above, it can be observed that the hypothesized framework shows existing statistical significance in some cases. Linear regression models were thus used to further test the hypothesized frameworks in order to establish the usable models and effects thereof. The hypothesis sought to explore the combined effect of leadership style on individual job satisfaction and work engagement.

H₁; Collectively the variance in leadership style and emotional intelligence has a statistically significant and positive effect on job satisfaction,

To determine whether there is a significant effect of collective variance of leadership style and emotional intelligence on job satisfaction a simple linear regression model was examined. Job satisfaction was modeled as an explanatory variable, and this resulted in a significant model ($F = 10.437$; $p = <.001$). The model fit and model summary statistics are presented in Table 4.7 below. In this model, job satisfaction explained a significant amount of the variation in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .137$, R^2 Adjusted = .123). The Durbin-Watson $d = 0.93623777$, is between the two critical values of $0 < d < 2$ and

therefore we can assume that there is no first-order linear autocorrelation in our linear regression data. Values from 0 to less than 2 points to positive autocorrelation and values from 2 to 4 means negative autocorrelation. The data is presented in the table below.

Table 4. 7 Model summary Job satisfaction

Model Summary^b									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.370 ^a	.137	.123	.93623777	.137	10.437	2	132	<.001
a. Predictors: (Constant), emotional_intelligence, leadership_style									
b. Dependent Variable: Zscore(job_satisfaction)									

Table 4. 8 Coefficients job satisfaction

Coefficients^a									
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients Beta	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics Tolerance
		B	Std. Error				Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
1	Constant	-.533	.845		-.631	.529	-2.204	1.138	
	job_satisfaction	.006	.010	.055	.640	.523	-.013	.026	1.000 1.000
a. Dependent Variable:									

As shown on the shows that the parameter estimates of the resultant model were not statistically significant ($\beta_0 = -0.533$; $t = -0.631$; $p = 0.529$ and $\beta_1 = 0.006$; $t = .640$; $p = <0.0001$). Since our β_1 coefficient is not significant, thus there is sufficient evidence at 5% level of significance to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that collectively the variance in leadership style and emotional intelligence has no statistically

significant and positive effect on job satisfaction at the selected parastatal in Windhoek Namibia.

Figure 4.8 shows a P-P plot. The observed cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the standardised residual versus the expected CDF of the normal distribution is shown below. To determine the normalcy of the residuals. The dotted lines are concentrated around the horizontal line, indicating that the data distribution is normal.

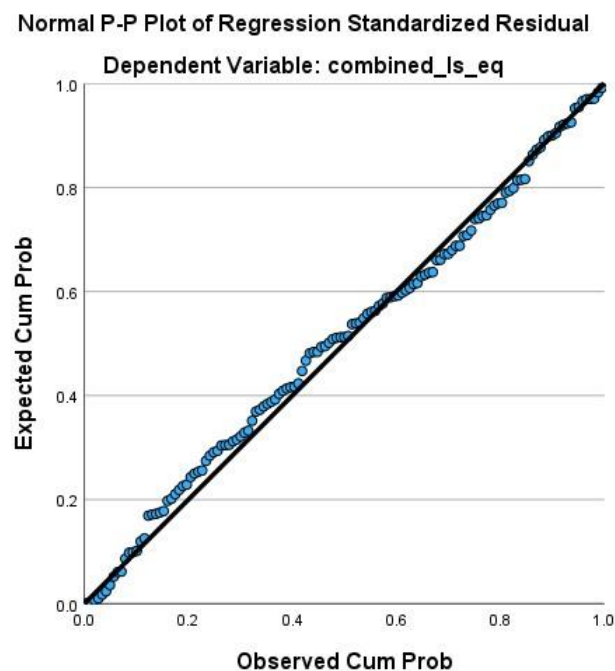


Figure 4. 8 P Plot collective influence on Job satisfaction

Figure 4. 9 below shows that combining leadership style with emotional intelligence had an adverse influence on job satisfaction. The new residual data is centered around zero, but the variation around zero is distributed equally and randomly. We get the conclusion that if we run the fully described predictive model, both the linearity and heteroskedasticity assumptions

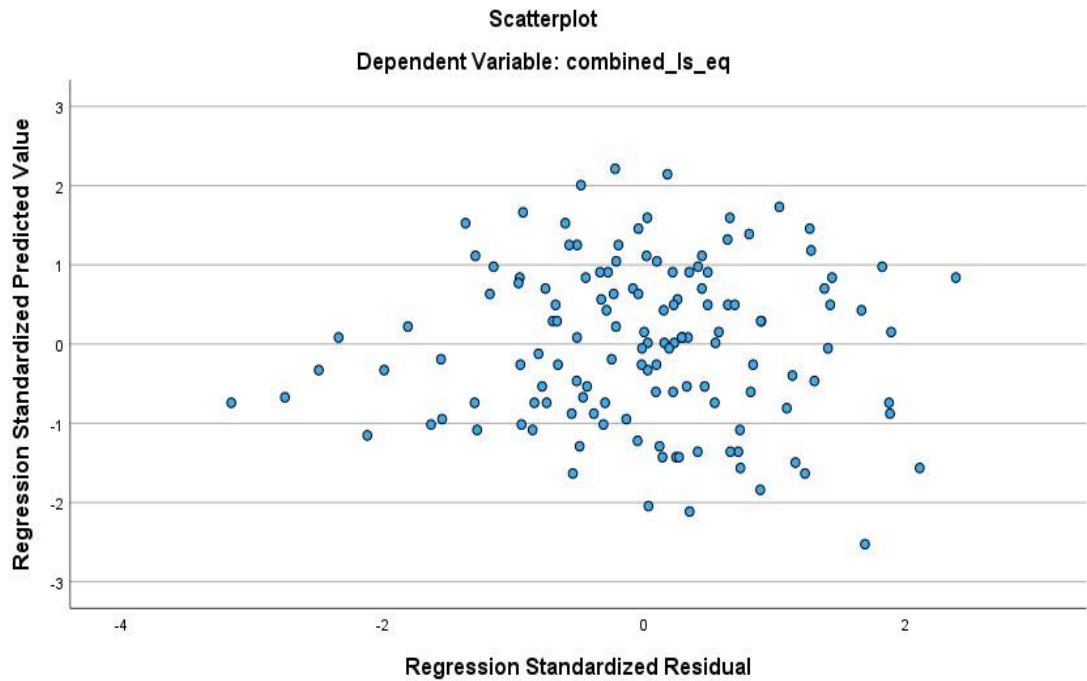


Figure 4.9 Scatter plot on Job satisfaction

H₂; Collectively the variance in leadership style and emotional intelligence has a statistically significant effect and positive on work engagement.

To determine whether there is a significant effect of collective variance of leadership style and emotional intelligence on work engagement a simple linear regression model was examined. Work engagement was modeled as an explanatory variable, and this resulted in a significant model ($F = 13.869$; $p < .001$). The model fit and model summary statistics are presented in Table 4.9 below. In this model, work engagement explained a significant amount of the variation in the dependent variable ($R^2 = .174$, $R^2 \text{ Adjusted} = .161$). The Durbin-Watson $d = 0.91589911$, is between the two critical values of $0 < d < 2$ and therefore we can assume that there is no first-order linear autocorrelation in our linear

regression data. Values from 0 to less than 2 points to positive autocorrelation and values from 2 to 4 means negative autocorrelation.

The data is presented in the table below.

Table 4. 9 Model summary on work engagement

Model Summary^b									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.417 ^a	.174	.161	.91589911	.174	13.869	2	132	<.001
a. Predictors: (Constant), emotional_intelligence, leadership_style									
b. Dependent Variable: Zscore(work_engagement)									

Table 4.10 shows that the parameter estimates of the resultant model were statistically significant ($\beta_0 = -1.799$; $t = -3.840$; $p = <.001$ and $\beta_1 = .048$; $t = 4.018$; $p = <.001$). Since our β_1 coefficient is significant, thus there is sufficient evidence at 5% level of significance to accept the reject the null hypothesis and conclude that collectively the variance in leadership style and emotional intelligence has a statistically significant and positive effect on work engagement at the selected parastatal in Windhoek Namibia

Table 4. 10 Coefficients on Work engagement

Coefficients^a										
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	-1.799	.468		-3.840	<.001	-2.725	-.872		
	Combined LS and EQ	.048	.012	.329	4.018	<.001	.024	.071	1.000	1.000
a. Dependent Variable: work engagement										

Figure 4.10 shows a P-P plot. The observed cumulative distribution function (CDF) of the standardised residual versus the expected CDF of the normal distribution is shown below. To determine the normalcy of the residuals. The dotted lines are concentrated around the horizontal line, indicating that the data distribution is normal.

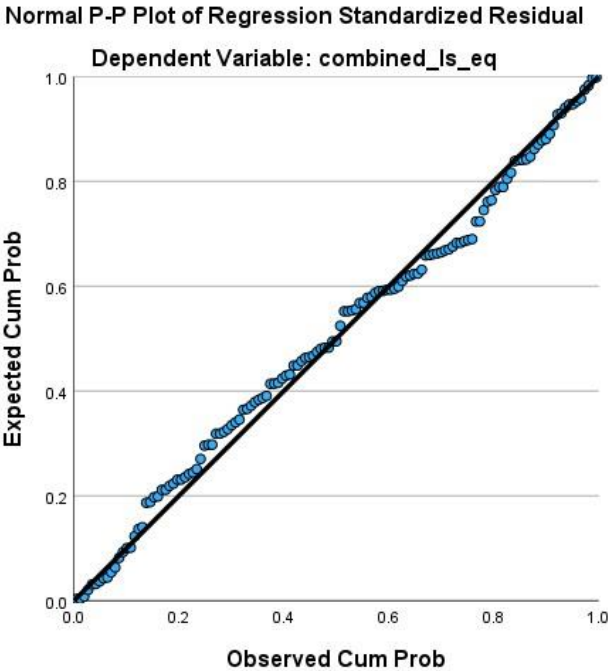


Figure 4. 10 Plot collective influence on work engagement

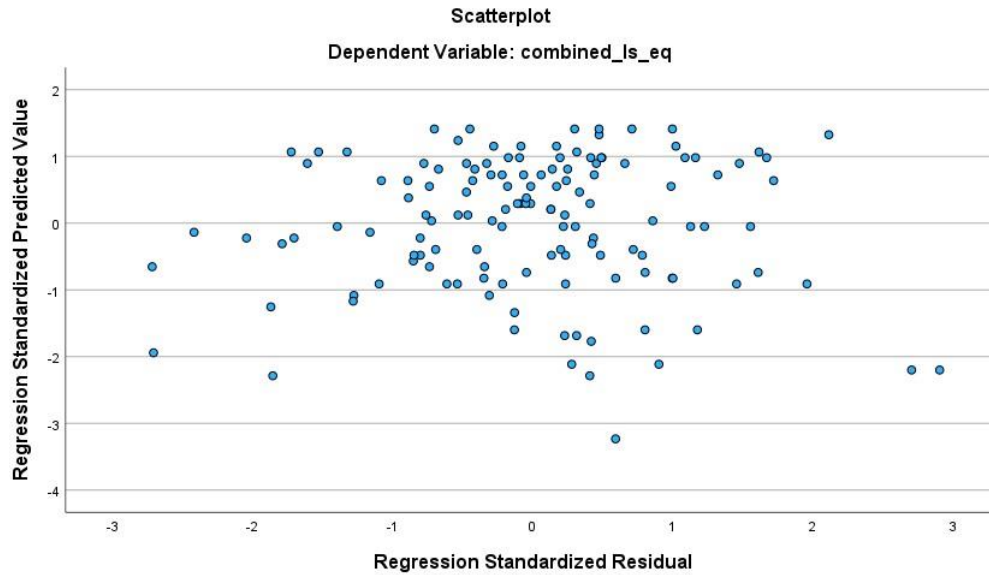


Figure 4. 11 Scatter plot work engagement

Figure 4.11 above shows that combining leadership style with emotional intelligence had an adverse influence on work engagement. The new residual data is centred around zero, but the variation around zero is distributed equally and randomly. We get the conclusion that if we run the fully described predictive model, both the linearity and heteroskedasticity assumptions are met.

4.6 Conclusion

The unique characteristics of the questionnaires have been investigated in this chapter. The findings demonstrated a positive relationship between these variables, and the findings can be compared to other similar studies, as will be explored more in Chapter Five. With the results of the analysis, recommendations for further investigations can be made.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results from Chapter Four are discussed through a comparison and linkage with existing literature and findings from other studies. These include how different leadership philosophies affect workers' emotional intelligence, engagement at work, and job satisfaction at NamPower in Windhoek, Namibia. This chapter ends by emphasising the significance of the results and offers advice and ideas for additional study.

5.2 Discussion

5.2.1 Demographical Data

Males answered the questionnaire at a higher rate than females, according to data gathered at random. Most of the participants (31.1%) were in the age category 46-50 years. The results also showed that the majority, (75.6%) of the participants were lower-level employees and the remaining (237%) were in mid-level management positions.

In terms of the educational levels of the respondents, table 4.2 shows that most of the respondents (26.7%) had a degree. Respondents with matric certificates and honours degree were 7.4% and 18.5% of the sample, respectively. Respondents with a PhD degree (1.5%) constituted the lowest portion of the sample.

Hypothesis 1: There is a negative relationship between leadership style and employee's job satisfaction.

5.3 Leadership Styles and its Effect On Job Satisfaction of Employees

As stated from the findings in this study, the r value for leadership style accounted at $r = -.148$ and the non-significance of the variable accounted at $p = .086$. This indicates that there is no significant relationship between the independent variable which is leadership style and the dependent variable which is employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the first hypothesis was not accepted. This finding can be supported by a previous study (Al Khajeh, 2018; Asghar & Oino, 2018; Hijazi, 2017; Loo & Ling, 2018; Nidadhavolu, 2018;). The findings in the study contradict the literature as leadership style is known to have a positive impact on job satisfaction (Bhatti et al., 2012; Birbirsa & Lakew, 2020). however, these findings concur with the work of Alonderiene, and Majauskaite, (2016); Nazim, and Mahmood, (2018) who noted that leadership style and job satisfaction can have a negative relationship.

Hypothesis 2: There is a negative and statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence and employee's job satisfaction.

5.4 Emotional Intelligence's Effect on the Job Satisfaction of Employees

The study's findings disproved the null hypothesis that emotional intelligence had a detrimental and statistically significant association with employees' job satisfaction at Namibia's NamPower in Windhoek ($r = -.242^{**}$; $p = .005$). Employee job satisfaction was found to be negatively correlated with all emotional intelligence characteristics. Employee job satisfaction has been found to be significantly impacted by emotional intelligence because understanding one's interpersonal emotions and how to regulate them makes it

easier to handle stressful situations and deal with the different kinds of demands, rules, regulations, processes, etc. that arise at work enhances the working environment (Obiunu & Yalaju, 2020). Better job performance as a result also translates to greater job satisfaction (Khalili, 2012). The ability of employees to recognise their own feelings as well as those of others equips them to find better job happiness since they are equipped to handle a variety of scenarios. This is what it means when researchers say that emotional intelligence has a beneficial impact on job satisfaction. There isn't much literature in the Namibian setting that specifically examines how emotional intelligence affects employees' job satisfaction, however, Akintayo and Babalola (2012) did a study in this area. Employees with emotional intelligence are more suited to deal with various events and employee kinds. They could internally motivate themselves to be effective and productive as well as imaginative and creative (Anari, 2012). Since their capacity to manage their emotions and circumstances has an impact on how much they love their work, the end effect is that they do. Their interactions are also favourably impacted by their increased ability to explain feelings and comprehend other coworkers and/or superiors (Ealias & George, 2012). In other words, a rise in emotional intelligence leads to a rise in job satisfaction. Study findings affirm the standpoint of literature in which a positive association is known to exist.

Sy et al. (2006); Ealias and George, 2012) all affirmed that Emotional intelligence and job satisfaction have a very strong positive association.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between work engagement and employee's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4: There is a positive statistically significant relationship between leadership style and employee's emotional intelligence.

5.5 Leadership Styles and its effect on Emotional Intelligence of Employees

The findings in this study, the r value for leadership style accounted at $r = .430^{**}$ and the statistically significant related variable accounted at $p = < .001$. This indicates that there is a significant relationship between the independent variable leadership style and the dependent variable emotional intelligence of the employee.

Hypothesis 5: There is a negative relationship between leadership style and employee's work engagement.

5.6 Leadership Styles and its effect on Work Engagement of Employees

As stated from the findings in this study, the r value for leadership style accounted at $r = -.142$ and the negative related variable accounted at $p = .101$. This indicates that there is a negative relationship between the independent variable which is leadership style and the dependent variable which is work engagement. Engagement of employees can be improved by adjusting leadership style on work engagement $r = -.142$ $P = .101$. however due to the nature of hypothesis. It is not evident the effects of each leadership construct. overall leadership style had a negative relationship. however, Shu, (2015) identified authoritarian leadership as one which has a negative relationship to engagement. Decuyper and Schaufeli, 2020 further support this finding by asserting that leaders should enhance their engagement levels as it can influence both their leadership and their engagement. Li et al., (2018) also shared similar findings and argued for positive psychology variables.

5.7 Emotional Intelligence and its effect on Work Engagement of Employees

As stated from the findings in this study, the r value for emotional intelligence accounted at $r = -.415^{**}$ and work engagement accounted at $p = <.001$. This indicates that there is a low to moderate relationship between the two dependent variables emotional intelligence and work engagement. The results of the study confirm that emotionally intelligent workers have higher levels of work engagement because they are better at recognising and regulating both their own and others' emotions. Findings indicated a moderate association among research variables. This finding aligns with the research from George et al. (2022) to Zhu et al. (2015) Alotaibi et al. (2020) identified emotional intelligence as a reliable measure of work engagement.

5.7.1 Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMRT) linkage between Leadership Styles, Emotional Intelligence, Work Engagement and Job Satisfaction.

The cognitive processes, motivations, and interpersonal relationships that affect human behaviour are the main topics of the psychological framework known as Cognitive Motivational Relational Theory (CMRT),(Clark & Peistaraitė, 2020). This theory investigates how many facets of human experience, such as leadership, emotional intelligence, job happiness, and work engagement, are influenced by cognitive processes, motivations, and relational dynamics (Mugrage, 2014). Study findings are in line with the theory, According to CMRT, interpersonal relationships and human cognition depend heavily on emotional intelligence (Event, 2013). In the study emotional intelligence was found to have a moderate relationship to leadership style and work engagement. both r values were slightly below 5.

Leaders with high emotional intelligence are skilled at comprehending both their own and others' emotions (Pastor, 2014). According to CMRT, cognitive processes connected to empathy, self-awareness, and social cognition have an impact on emotional intelligence (Yahaya et al., 2012). Leaders with high emotional intelligence are able to successfully handle social situations, comprehend the motivations of others, and create a healthy work environment (Reshetnikov et al., 2020). This is affirmed by the study findings and leaders are encouraged to be emotionally intelligent as it will have sound benefits to employee satisfaction and levels of engagement. adversely enhancing productivity.

According to CMRT, the interplay between cognitive processes, incentives, and the calibre of interpersonal relationships at work leads to job engagement (Bawuro et al., 2019). Employees who are engaged are more likely to think favourably about their work, be motivated by it, and have supportive connections with coworkers and managers (Riyanto et al., 2021). According to CMRT, highly engaged workers benefit from a synergy between their intrinsic rewards and social relationships as well as their cognitive processes (Ibrahim et al., 2020).

According to CMRT, one's perceptions of their jobs and working conditions have an impact on how satisfied they are with their jobs. For illustration:

Positive Cognitive Appraisals: People who have a positive perception of their workplace, maybe because of encouraging management and a peaceful environment, are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs (Brooks & Greenberg, 2022).
Negative Cognitive assessments: On the other hand, negative cognitive assessments that are linked to a lack of support, ambiguous communication, or poor leadership may result in less job satisfaction (Baig & Zaid, 2020).

In conclusion, CMRT offers a paradigm for comprehending how cognitive functions, driving forces, and interpersonal interactions influence leadership styles, emotional intelligence, job happiness, and engagement at work. Knowing these cognitive and motivational variables can help leaders develop their emotional intelligence, use successful leadership techniques, increase employee job satisfaction, and create a highly engaged workforce. Similar to the social exchange behaviour theory and the theory the benefits of these variables are only when the environment is enabling. If the environment is enabling, employees make a deliberate decision to enhance their engagement and satisfaction with their jobs.

5.8 Research Implications and Limitations

The study's findings have both theoretical and practical ramifications. The study's conclusion will be examined, with a focus on its noteworthy contributions and their broad implications for academics and industry participants. The outcome will provide valuable insights into the correlation among transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, emotional intelligence, work engagement, and employee job satisfaction.

The study suggests that organisations should invest in non-financial mechanisms that improve job satisfaction and work engagement. The investment yields increased productivity. Leaders in parastatals are advised to embrace leadership styles that positively impact the work environment. Productivity may decrease as a result of ineffective leadership strategies. The study and literature confirm the inverse correlation between job satisfaction and leadership style, suggesting that leaders have a crucial role in employees' job satisfaction.

Emotional intelligence was also found to be crucial for both employee happiness and work engagement. Leaders should prioritise not only their own emotional intelligence but also invest in developing the emotional intelligence of their employees. When an organisation invests in its people, as justified by the CMRT, individuals will consciously choose to derive satisfaction from their work and reap beneficial work-related results. The study can offer advice to the energy distribution industry and its management team to assist them in understanding and meeting employees' needs, leading to increased job satisfaction. Managers in the power industry might utilise the findings of this study to improve employees' satisfaction with their jobs, leading to enhanced work performance.

5.8.1 Research Limitations

The researcher encountered many constraints during the study's execution, which they had to confront after finishing the assignment. A limitation was the time constraint, as the allotted time to complete the entire thesis was quite short and restricted. In addition, researchers require a minimum of three months for data collecting. Sorting, evaluating, and interpreting the data to provide a comprehensive result has not been done, leading to significant time consumption.

Another constraint is the Manager OD needing to send reminders to staff to complete the online questionnaire. The Manager of Organisational Development had to confirm that all individuals had been provided with the online questionnaire link and assess the user-friendliness and accessibility of the questionnaire. Despite numerous constraints, the researcher successfully finished the investigation.

5.9 Recommendations and suggestions for future research

The recent study has yielded significant and insightful results regarding the correlation between leadership style and emotional intelligence on work engagement and employee job satisfaction in the electricity industry in Windhoek, Namibia. Leaders should create an inclusive and welcoming atmosphere by openly discussing emotional intelligence, providing access to tools, and including workers in decision-making. This project strives to create a favourable environment that emphasises the significance of physical and mental well-being and promotes teamwork and collaboration. Leaders should facilitate ongoing talks about performance, identify areas for improvement, and provide constructive criticism aligned with individual career goals. This technique fosters a growth-oriented and positive work atmosphere. The research yielded valuable insights and recommendations for future studies. Here are the following thoughts.

- It may be of interest to organisational psychologists to concentrate on future research that measures the correlations between the constructs examined in this study using a larger sample.
- Psychologists should assess competing conceptualizations of emotional intelligence and work engagement in the Namibian setting, considering the wide variety of research techniques now accessible.
- In addition, psychologists should consider ways to encourage and acknowledge employees in order to increase job happiness and engagement, as well as the ethical implications of improved emotional intelligence and work engagement.
- A longitudinal design should be used in future studies to better understand the constructs' long-term effects on employees. Additionally, it might concentrate solely on

management to see how their performance stacks up against the rest of the energy business workforce. Since the study only looked at the employees of NamPower, one parastatal, more research on other parastatals around the country is necessary to obtain a more accurate depiction.

5.10 Conclusion

The study revealed a direct correlation between work engagement and the emotional intelligence and leadership styles of NamPower employees. The data did show a relationship between work engagement and emotional intelligence due of its low to moderating relationship. The study was conducted when employees were preoccupied with completing numerous surveys and questionnaires required by the company, rather than external sources like online questionnaires from academics, which may have influenced the results.

The study successfully addressed whether leadership styles and emotional intelligence impact the relationship between work engagement and job satisfaction among NamPower employees in Windhoek, Namibia, and to what degree. Job satisfaction was positively correlated with leadership style and emotional intelligence. Leadership style had an adverse impact on work engagement, which in turn was inversely correlated with job satisfaction. The findings allowed for suggestions to enhance NamPower's leadership style and promote employees' emotional intelligence in Namibia, leading to improved job satisfaction, efficiency, productivity, and engagement.

This study adds to the existing literature in Namibia by incorporating unique aspects that are not widely covered. Therefore, the country now has insight into the presence of these elements among NamPower employees and how to improve workers' overall job

happiness and quality of life. The results underscore the importance for Namibian companies to invest in promoting good employee engagement and enhancing their leaders' emotional intelligence to improve job satisfaction. These steps will surely increase work engagement, leading to higher employee job satisfaction.

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[Alshurideh/publication/356412594_Impact_of_Transformational_Leadership_on_the_Job_Satisfaction_With_the_Moderating_Role_of_Organizational_C](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Dr-Muhammad-Alshurideh/publication/356412594_Impact_of_Transformational_Leadership_on_the_Job_Satisfaction_With_the_Moderating_Role_of_Organizational_C)

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ANNEXURE 1: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

Ethical Clearance Reference Number: SAH30/23

Date: 27/04/2023

This Ethical Clearance Certificate is issued by the University of Namibia Decentralized Ethics Committee (DEC) in accordance with the University of Namibia's Research Ethics Policy and Guidelines. Ethical approval is given in respect of undertakings contained in the Research Project outlined below. This Certificate is issued on the recommendations of the ethical evaluation done by the School of Allied Health Sciences Decentralized Ethics Committee.

Title of Project: The effects of leadership styles on emotional intelligence, work engagement and job satisfaction at a selected parastatal

Principal Researcher: Charmaine Tibinyane

Student Number: 200704532

Centre for Research Services

Take note of the following:

1. Any significant changes in the conditions or undertakings outlined in the approved Proposal must be communicated to the ethics committee. An application to make amendments may be necessary.
2. Any breaches of ethical undertakings or practices that have an impact on ethical conduct of the research must be reported to the ethics committee
3. The Principal Researcher must report issues of ethical compliance to the ethics committee (through the Chairperson) at the end of the Project or as may be requested by the ethics committee
4. The ethics committee retains the right to:
 - i) Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance if any unethical practices (as outlined in the Research Ethics Policy) have been detected or suspected,
 - ii) Request for an ethical compliance report at any point during the course of the research.

The ethics committee wishes you the best in your research.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "T. Shumba".

Dr T.W. Shumba (Chairperson, Ethics Committee)

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "D. Mumbengegwi".

Prof. Davis Mumbengegwi (Head, Multidisciplinary Research)

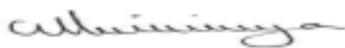
ANNEXURE 2 QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant,

We currently conducting research on employees regarding “the effects of leadership styles and emotional intelligence, on work engagement and job satisfaction at a selected parastatal in Windhoek”. You can ask the researcher any questions about any part of this project that you do not fully understand. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you are free to decline to participate. No names will be used, you will in no way be prejudiced or negatively affected if you decide not to participate or withdraw from this study.

The purpose of the study is to identify whether leadership and emotional intelligence has an effect on employee’s work engagement and job satisfaction. The study aims to help the parastatal find innovative and creative processes to help the employees find joy in their work, be engaged, and be satisfied and increase their effective commitment. The participant will help the organizations find ways to increase their commitment, effectiveness and performance without compromising the participants well-being. The information will be maintained and protected, the supervisor and ethics committee (if need be) are the only ones to inspect any research records. If any new information arises the participants will be informed and all information shared in this study will only be used for academic purposes. This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee at the University of Namibia and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines and principles of the international Declaration of Helsinki, South African Guidelines for Good Clinical Practice and Namibian National Research Ethics Guidelines. It would really be appreciated if you could participate in this study. Please sign below as an indication that you are willingly participating and were in no way coerced into participation. Please assist in submitting a truthful reflection of your thoughts, experiences and feelings.

Thank you for your participation, If you have any further questions or queries feel free to contact Charmaine V Tibinyane (Researcher) at kavetit1977@gmail.com (0812232299) or Dr C Clifford (Research supervisor) at 'vakendie@gmail.com'/'chlatywayo@unam.na'(061 2063347).



Participant signature:

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please tick the most appropriate response)

1. Sex:

Male Female

2. Age (years):

1. Below 24 years	
2. 24-28	
3. 29-31	
4. 32-35	
5. 36-40	
6. 41-45	
7. 46-50	
8. 51 and older	

3. Total number of years in the profession:

1. Less than 1	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-8	
6. 9-10	
7. 11-15	
8. 16 and more	

4. Marital status:

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Divorced	
4. Widowed	

5. Number of dependents (children):

1. None	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-9	
6. 10 and more	

6. Highest qualification obtained:

1. Grade 12	
2. Certificate	
3. Diploma	
4. Degree	
5. Honors Degree	
6. Master's Degree	
7. PhD degree	

7. Management level:

1. Non-managerial staff	
2. Mid-level management	
3. Senior management	

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please tick the most appropriate response)

1. Sex:

Male Female

2. Age (years):

1. Below 24 years	
2. 24-28	
3. 29-31	
4. 32-35	
5. 36-40	
6. 41-45	
7. 46-50	
8. 51 and older	

3. Total number of years in the profession:

1. Less than 1	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-8	
6. 9-10	
7. 11-15	
8. 16 and more	

4. Marital status:

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Divorced	
4. Widowed	

5. Number of dependents (children):

1. None	
2. 1-2	
3. 3-4	
4. 5-6	
5. 7-9	
6. 10 and more	

6. Highest qualification obtained:

1. Grade 12	
2. Certificate	
3. Diploma	
4. Degree	
5. Honors Degree	
6. Master's Degree	
7. PhD degree	

7. Management level:

1. Non-managerial staff	
2. Mid-level management	
3. Senior management	

SECTION A: LEADERSHIP STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

This self-assessment leadership style questionnaire is designed to identify your style of supervision/leadership and to examine how your supervisory/leadership style relates to other styles of leadership.

Directions:

1. For each of the statements below, mark with X the number that indicates the degree at which you agree or disagree.
2. Give your immediate impressions. There are no right or wrong answers.

Statements: Please mark with X statement applicable to you: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree					
1. Employees need to be supervised closely, or they are not likely to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Employees want to be part of the decision making process.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In complex situations, supervisors should let employees work problems out on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
4. It is fair to say that most employees are lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
6. Leadership requires staying out of the way of employees as they do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
7. As a rule supervisors must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most employees want frequent and supportive communication from their supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
9. As a rule, leaders should allow employees to appraise their own work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Most employees feel insecure about their work and need direction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Supervisors need to help employees accept responsibility for completing their work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Supervisors should give employees complete freedom to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
13. The supervisor is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is the supervisors job to help employees find their "passion"	1	2	3	4	5

15. In most situations, employees prefer little input from their supervisor	1	2	3	4	5
16. Effective supervisors give orders and clarify procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
17. People are basically competent and if given a task will do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
18. In general, it is best to leave employees alone and let them do their job.	1	2	3	4	5

Scoring:

Style 1: Add up the responses for questions 1, 4, 7, 10, 13 and 16 Total Score: ____

Style 2: Add up the responses for questions 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, and 17 Total Score: ____

Style 3: Add up the responses for questions 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, and 18 Total Score: ____

This questionnaire is designed to measure three common styles of leadership. By comparing scores, you can determine which styles are most dominant and least dominant in your own style of leadership.

SECTION B: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE QUESTIONNAIRE

This self-assessment questionnaire is designed to get you thinking about the various competences of emotional intelligence as they apply to you.

Statement: Please mark with X statement that applies to you:			
1 = Does not apply; 2 = Applies half the time; 3 = Always applies			
1. I realise immediately when I lose my temper	1	2	3
2. I am an excellent listener	1	2	3
3. I know when I am happy	1	2	3
4. I never interrupt other people's conversations	1	2	3
5. I usually recognise when I am stressed	1	2	3
6. I am good at adapting and mixing with a variety of people	1	2	3
7. When I am being 'emotional' I am aware of this	1	2	3
8. People are the most interesting thing in life for me	1	2	3
9. When I feel anxious I usually can account for the reason(s)	1	2	3
10. I love to meet new people and get to know what makes them 'tick'	1	2	3
11. I always know when I'm being unreasonable	1	2	3

12. I need a variety of work colleagues to make my job interesting	1	2	3
13. Awareness of my own emotions is very important to me at all times	1	2	3
14. I like to ask questions to find out what it is important to people	1	2	3
15. I can tell if someone has upset or annoyed me	1	2	3
16. I see working with difficult people as simply a challenge to win them over	1	2	3
17. I can let anger 'go' quickly so that it no longer affects me	1	2	3
18. I am good at reconciling differences with other people	1	2	3
19. I know what makes me happy	1	2	3
20. I generally build solid relationships with those I work with	1	2	3

SECTION C: JOB SATISFACTION SCALE

Statement: Please mark with X the question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about Job Satisfaction:

1= Disagree very much; 2= Disagree moderately; 3 = Disagree slightly;

4 = Agree slightly; 5= Agree moderately; 6= Agree very much

1.	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6

14.	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION D: WORK ENGAGEMENT

The following 9 statements are about how you feel at work. Please read each statement carefully and decide if you ever feel this way about your job. If you have never had this feeling, cross the "0" (zero) in the space after the statement. If you have had this feeling, indicate how often you felt it by crossing the number (from 1 to 6) that best describes how frequently you feel that way.

	Never	A few times a year or less	Once a month	A few times a month	Once a week	A few times a week	Every day
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Thank you for participating !!!