

**THE IMPACT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF LEADERS ON STAFF MORALE
AT THE TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING SECTOR
(TVET) IN THE FREE STATE PROVINCE**

by

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DECLARATION

I, Sarone Daniel Motlhanke, student number _____, do hereby declare that this research report submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State for the degree Master of Management Sciences in Human Resources Management is my own independent work and has not previously been submitted by me at another university/faculty. I further cede copyright of the dissertation in favour of the Central University of Technology, Free State.



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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1	BACKGROUND AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK	1
1.2	Introduction.....	1
1.3	Leadership in perspective.....	2
1.4	Previous research/parallel studies	4
1.4.1	Literature Review – Emotional intelligence (EI) in perspective	4
1.5	Emotional Intelligence and the categories of ability model	5
1.6	Emotional intelligence (EI) and employee performance.....	7
1.7	Theoretical framework	8
1.7.1	Taxonomy of emotional intelligence	8
1.7.2	Leader-member exchange.....	10
1.7.3	Conceptual framework	10
1.8	Problem statement	11
1.8.1	Problem background.....	11
1.8.2	The problem	12
1.9	Research hypotheses.....	12
1.10	Aims and objectives of the study	12
1.10.1	Aim of the study.....	12
1.10.2	Main objective.....	12
1.10.3	Subsidiary objectives	13
1.11	Significance of the study	13
1.12	Ethical considerations	13
1.13	Definition of terms.....	14
1.13.1	Intelligence.....	14
1.13.2	Emotions	14
1.13.3	Emotional Intelligence	14
1.13.4	Leader.....	14
1.13.5	Performance	15
1.13.6	Staff morale.....	15
1.13.7	Motivation	15
1.13.8	Management.....	15
1.13.9	Job satisfaction	15
1.14	Demarcation of study chapters	16

1.15	Summary and conclusion	16
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CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF LEADERSHIP

2.1	INTRODUCTION.....	17
2.2	MANAGEMENT VERSUS LEADERSHIP	17
2.3	LEADERSHIP IN CONTEXT	18
2.4	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE CONTEXTUALISED	19
2.4.1	Emotionally intelligent leader in perspective.....	19
2.5	LEADERSHIP IN PERSPECTIVE	20
2.5.1	Leadership approaches unpacked	21
2.5.2	Reflection on various leadership styles	22
2.5.2.1	Transformational leadership	22
2.5.2.2	Transactional leadership	23
2.6	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND STAFF MORALE	24
2.7	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION.....	27
2.7.1	Theories of motivation	27
2.7.1.1	Maslow's hierarchy of needs.....	27
2.7.1.2	McGregor's theory X and Y	28
2.7.1.3	Hertzberg's two-factor theory	29
2.7.2	Motivational factors	29
2.7.2.1	Hygiene factors.....	29
2.7.2.2	McClelland's theory of needs	29
2.7.2.3	Locke's goal-setting theory.....	30
2.8	EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TEAMWORK.....	32
2.9	Emotional intelligence and organisational commitment	34
2.9.1	Employees	35
2.10	LEADERSHIP'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ENFORCED TASK-ORIENTATED BEHAVIOUR	38
2.11	TVET Sector in South Africa.....	40
2.11.1	TVET Colleges in the Free State Province	41
2.12	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	42

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	INTRODUCTION.....	43
-----	-------------------	----

3.2	Quantitative research.....	43
3.2.1	Characteristics of quantitative research	44
3.2.2	Designs in quantitative research	44
3.2.3	The cross-sectional study design	44
3.2.4	Longitudinal study design.....	45
3.2.5	The before-and-after study design	45
3.3	Qualitative research.....	45
3.3.1	Characteristics of qualitative research	45
3.4	RESEARCH DESIGN	46
3.5	POPULATION AND SAMPLE FRAME	47
3.5.1	Sampling frame.....	47
3.5.2	Sample size	47
3.6	SAMPLE PROCEDURE.....	48
3.7	INSTRUMENTATION	48
3.7.1	The questionnaire	48
3.7.1.1	Advantages of a questionnaire.....	48
3.7.1.2	Disadvantages of a questionnaire	49
3.7.1.3	Characteristics of a good questionnaire	50
3.7.1.4	Types of questionnaire.....	50
3.7.1.5	Construction and administration of the questionnaire	50
3.8	SELECTION AND TRAINING OF RESEARCH ASSISTANTS	51
3.9	ENSURING RESEARCH CREDIBILITY	51
3.9.1	Convergent validity.....	52
3.9.2	Construct validity.....	52
3.9.3	Reliability of the research instrument	52
3.10	PILOT STUDY.....	52
3.11	THE STUDY AREA.....	53
3.12	DATA COLLECTION	54
3.13	DATA ANALYSIS.....	54
3.14	STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES.....	55
3.14.1	Descriptive statistics	55
3.14.2	Inferential statistics	56
3.14.3	Chi-square	56
3.14.4	P-value.....	56
3.15	CHAPTER SUMMARY	57

CHAPTER 4: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1	INTRODUCTION.....	58
4.2	DATA AND ITS INTERPRETATION.....	58
4.2.1	Sample size	58
4.2.2	Demographic variables.....	59
4.2.3	Reliability analysis	61
4.2.4	Descriptive analysis of the research constructs.....	63
4.2.4.1	Descriptive analysis of staff morale	63
4.2.4.2	Leader's EI and staff morale by gender	64
4.2.4.3	Leader's EI and staff morale by age	64
4.2.4.4	Leader's EI and staff morale by race	65
4.2.4.5	Leader's EI and staff morale by educational qualification	65
4.2.4.6	Leader's EI and staff morale by work experience.....	65
4.2.4.7	Descriptive analysis of employee's job satisfaction.....	66
4.2.4.8	Job satisfaction by gender.....	67
4.2.4.9	Job satisfaction by age	68
4.2.4.10	Job satisfaction by race.....	68
4.2.4.11	Job satisfaction by educational level/qualification	69
4.2.4.12	Job satisfaction by work experience	69
4.2.4.13	Job satisfaction by position/occupation.....	70
4.2.4.14	Descriptive analysis of Enhancement of teamwork.....	70
4.2.4.15	Enhancement of teamwork by gender	71
4.2.4.16	Enhancement of teamwork by age.....	72
4.2.4.17	Enhancement of teamwork by race	72
4.2.4.18	Enhancement of teamwork by educational level/qualification	73
4.2.4.19	Enhancement of teamwork by work experience	73
4.2.4.20	Enhancement of teamwork by position/occupation	74
4.2.4.21	Descriptive analysis of organisational commitment	74
4.2.4.22	Organisational commitment by gender	75
4.2.4.23	Organisational commitment by age	76
4.2.4.24	Organisational commitment by race	76
4.2.4.25	Organisational commitment by educational qualification	76
4.2.4.26	Organisational commitment by work experience.....	77
4.2.4.27	Organisational commitment by position/occupation	77
4.2.4.28	Descriptive analysis of fostering task-oriented behaviour	78

4.2.4.29	Task-oriented behaviour by gender	79
4.2.4.30	Task-oriented behaviour by age.....	79
4.2.4.31	Task-oriented behaviour by race.....	80
4.2.4.32	Task-oriented behaviour by educational qualification	80
4.2.4.33	Task-oriented behaviour by work experience	80
4.2.4.34	Task-oriented behaviour by positions/occupation	81
4.2.4.35	Descriptive analysis of leader's emotional intelligence	81
4.2.4.36	Leader's emotional intelligence by gender	82
4.2.4.37	Leader's emotional intelligence by age	83
4.2.4.38	Leader's emotional intelligence by race	83
4.2.4.39	Leader's emotional intelligence by educational qualification.....	84
4.2.4.40	Leader's emotional intelligence by work experience.....	84
4.2.4.41	Leader's emotional intelligence by position/occupation	85
4.2.5	Effects of demographic variables on the six constructs under study	85
4.2.5.1	Effects of leader's emotional intelligence on staff morale	86
4.2.5.2	Effects of leader's emotional intelligence on individual's job satisfaction	87
4.2.5.3	Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's inclination towards teamwork	88
4.2.5.4	Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's perceived organisational commitment	89
4.2.5.5	Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates	90
4.3	Summary of the Chapter.....	92

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1	INTRODUCTION	94
5.2	Summary of key findings	95
5.3	Limitations	97
5.4	Recommendations.....	97
5.5	Further research	98
5.6	Concluding remarks.....	98

REFERENCES.....	99
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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Permission to undertake research study

Appendix B
Application form: For students to conduct research in public colleges

Appendix C
Research ethics approval letter

Appendix D
Consent to participate in a research study

Appendix E
Consent to participate in the study

Appendix F
Questionnaire

Appendix G
Turn-it-In Report

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1:	List of data collection sites	59
Table 4.2:	Reliability analysis	62
Table 4.3:	Descriptive statistics of task-oriented behaviour	63
Table 4.4:	Employee's job satisfaction	67
Table 4.5:	Descriptive statistics of enhancement of teamwork	71
Table 4.6:	Descriptive statistics of organisational commitment.....	75
Table 4.7:	Descriptive statistics of task-oriented behaviour.....	78
Table 4.8:	Descriptive statistics of leader's emotional intelligence.....	82
Table 4.9:	Demographic variables that significantly impacted the six constructs under study	86
Table 4.10:	Regression analysis of leader-staff morale on leader's emotional intelligence	86
Table 4.11:	Regression analysis of job satisfaction on leader's emotional intelligence ...	87
Table 4.12:	Regression analysis of enhancement of teamwork on leader's emotional Intelligence	89
Table 4.13:	Regression analysis of organisational commitment on leader's emotional intelligence	90
Table 4.14:	Regression analysis of task-oriented behaviour on leader's emotional intelligence	91
Table 4.15:	Multivariate analysis of covariance MANCOVA for the effects of demographic variables and leader's emotional intelligence.....	91

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1:	Capability model	4
Figure 1.2:	Goleman's taxonomy of EI	9
Figure 1.3:	Resultant effect of a leader's EI on staff morale.....	10
Figure 2.1:	Drivers of morale on work performance	24
Figure 2.2:	Maslow's hierarchy of needs	28
Figure 3.1:	Geographical map of the study area	53
Figure 4.1:	Gender distribution of respondents (change of font size – correct)	59
Figure 4.2:	Age distribution of respondents	60
Figure 4.3:	Race distribution of respondents	60
Figure 4.4:	Distribution of level of education of respondents.....	60
Figure 4.5:	Distribution of work experience of the study sample	61
Figure 4.6:	Distribution of positions of respondents in the college	61
Figure 4.7:	Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by gender	64
Figure 4.8:	Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by age.....	64
Figure 4.9:	Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by race.....	65
Figure 4.10:	Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by qualification.....	65
Figure 4.11:	Comparison leader's EI and staff morale by work experience	66
Figure 4.12:	Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by position.....	66
Figure 4.13:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by gender	68
Figure 4.14:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by age.....	68
Figure 4.15:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by race.....	69
Figure 4.16:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by qualification.....	69
Figure 4.17:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by work experience	70
Figure 4.18:	Comparison of employee job satisfaction by work position.....	70
Figure 4.19:	Comparison of Enhancement of by gender	72
Figure 4.20:	Comparison of Enhancement of teamwork by age.....	72
Figure 4.21:	Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by race.....	73
Figure 4.22:	Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by qualification.....	73
Figure 4.23:	Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by work experience	74
Figure 4.24:	Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by position/occupation	74
Figure 4.25:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by gender	75
Figure 4.26:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by age.....	76
Figure 4.27:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by race.....	76
Figure 4.28:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by qualification.....	77

Figure 4.29:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by work experience	77
Figure 4.30:	Comparison of Organisational commitment by position.....	78
Figure 4.31:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by gender	79
Figure 4.32:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by age	79
Figure 4.33:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by race	80
Figure 4.34:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by educational qualification.....	80
Figure 4.35:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by work experience.....	81
Figure 4.36:	Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by position	81
Figure 4.37:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by gender	83
Figure 4.38:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by age	83
Figure 4.39:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by race	84
Figure 4.40:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by qualification.....	84
Figure 4.41:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by work experience.....	85
Figure 4.42:	Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by position	85
Figure 4.43:	Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus staff morale showing a positive linear trend	87
Figure 4.44:	Plot of a leader's emotional intelligence versus individual's job satisfaction showing a positive linear trend.....	88
Figure 4.45:	Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus enhancement of teamwork showing a positive linear trend.....	89
Figure 52:	Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus organisational commitment showing a positive linear trend.....	90
Figure 53:	Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus task-oriented behaviour showing a positive linear trend.....	91
Figure 54:	Summary of the sequence of chapters of the study.....	94

ABSTRACT

A plethora of documentary evidence continues to posit that effective leaders guide and facilitate work to accomplish tasks and objectives, while at the same time maintaining cooperative relationships and teamwork. The contention of this study is that an effective leader is not someone who merely uses a mix of task and relations behaviour, but rather someone who selects specific forms of behaviour that simultaneously reflect a concern for both task and people. Thus, the emotional state of any leader becomes a key focal point. A leader who is able to intelligently take charge of their emotions is able to get the best out of their subordinates and consequently, improve morale and organisational performance.

The key focus of this study was to explore the impact of TVET College leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) on staff morale (i.e. teaching and non-teaching staff) amidst numerous transformational challenges this sector had to undergo in the post-democratic dispensation in South Africa. The study followed a positivist paradigm, that is, a quantitative research approach. The adopted methodology allowed the researcher to utilise obtained data to explore and examine the relationship between variables and provide responses to the research questions and objectives. A descriptive and correlation research design was adopted, which focused on describing the variables and examining the relationship between the variables. A sample of $N = 188$ from the TVET sector in the Free State was obtained.

A semi-structured questionnaire was used in this study to randomly collect data from the teaching and non-teaching staff members of four (4) TVET colleges in the Free State Province, for the purpose of determining the impact of a leader/manager's emotional intelligence (EI) of college leaders on staff morale. A response rate of 47% was achieved. Cronbach Alpha was used to test the reliability and validity of the measuring instrument, while Pearson correlations coefficient was used to determine the relationship between variables. The findings from the multiple regression analysis showed that there are significantly positive relationships between a leader's EI and individual factors, such as job satisfaction; inclination towards teamwork; perceived organisational commitment; fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates; and staff morale (i.e. teaching and non-teaching staff) of the TVET college sector in the FS Province.

The research further investigated the relationship between demographic variables and the

six constructs of this study. The results of this relationship revealed that position or occupation significantly affects all six constructs under study followed by qualification which affects five, with race significantly impacting on affecting (cf. Table 7). Despite this study's contribution to the body of knowledge, specifically within the discourse around this topical issue namely, a leader's EI on staff morale, the study further impresses upon management of the TVET sector, especially HR policy makers to draw lessons from the findings of this study to inform and develop attributes required for anyone aspiring to be a leader for the purpose of enhancing staff morale, productivity, efficiency and fostering healthy working relationship in the workplace.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 BACKGROUND AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter presents a comprehensive overview of the research. Relevant references are made to the following areas which will be discussed in detail: introduction; background of the study; motivation for the study; problem definition; research objectives; hypotheses; proposed value of the research; and an overview of the structure of the remaining chapters.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

It is every organisation's intention to maximise efficiency, and employees are key towards this goal. Research has revealed that the most significant assets of any organisation are the employees (Naong, 2010). It is therefore, always important to ensure that they are led, supervised and inspired by an astute and emotionally intelligent leader to guarantee an optimal performance from each employee. A cautionary measure is that as a leader, it is detrimental to focus just on results, without looking after the people. When leading a team, the leader/manager achieves results through people; thus, leadership effectiveness also has to do with the effect that leaders have on their followers. According to Yukl (2010:114), an effective leader directs and promotes work to achieve the objectives of the task while concurrently maintaining teamwork and cooperative relations. Similarly, Baker (2002) claims that an effective leader is not someone who simply uses a combination of relations and task actions but rather, someone who chooses unique types of behaviour that concurrently represent the interest of both the task and the people. Therefore, the emotional state of any leader becomes a key focal point.

Psychological research in human emotion and human cognition was burgeoning by the late 1980s (Mayer & Salovey, 1997:22). A small but active research area arose and is sometimes referred to as "cognition and affect." This area deals with how emotion affects thinking and how thought impacts emotion. Most of these effects have been neutral in terms of human potential. Among the main effects studied in the field have involved mood-congruent judgement: the propensity of good moods to make people more confident and to trigger their positive thinking more broadly. Contrary to this, bad moods make people more cynical and trigger their negative thoughts. A few of these studies

have indicated the likelihood that some skills are useful for interpreting emotion and some sort of emotional information processing. When evaluating the appropriateness of one's style of leadership and its effect, it is important to ask oneself if one's workers are inspired and committed or if they are disengaged and demotivated.

It is commonly believed that the higher the leadership position, the greater impact one has on people, with their Emotional Intelligence (EI) becoming more imperative. This is based on the fact that top leaders set the atmosphere, such as the perceived organisational climate and emotional temperature, which pervades the organisation. A leader with low EI negatively impacts employee morale, as well as staff retention. One of the most common reasons why workers quit organisations is the relationship they have with their seniors. Owoseni (2014:262) defines EI as the personal capacity to effectively regulate their emotions and utilise the information to guide their actions and thoughts. Although managers should stay away from dealing with emotional issues, properly managed emotions can have a positive outcome.

The main objective of this study was to examine the impact of EI of TVET colleges' leadership on staff morale. The researcher holds the view that EI is imperative for organisations, since it offers a framework for which skills that are emotionally grounded can be designed and evaluated. The value of the current study is primarily on the idea that the behaviour and style of leadership for those in leadership positions is likely to define the level of motivation, morale and the performance level of their subordinates. The culture of 'them and us' reflects the present *status quo* at different TVET colleges and depicts the nature of the relationships between a college's staff and leaders. This research strives to both eradicate possible hindrances to sound inter-personal relations, as well as propose both the consciousness of leaders' EI, as well as an ideal leadership style that could enhance, among other things, collegiality, participation, empowerment, etc.; the vital determinants of improved staff morale and productivity. It was also hoped that this study would, in a small way, inform Human Resource Management (HRM) policies and practices regarding the improvement of employer/employee relations at TVET colleges in South Africa.

1.3 LEADERSHIP IN PERSPECTIVE

Increasingly, leadership research has recognised that the leadership phenomenon may manifest itself in different ways at different levels in the organisation (Zaccaro, 2001;

Mumford, Campion & Morgeson 2007:154).

Leaders refer to individuals who choose, equip, influence, and train one or more followers with diverse abilities, gifts, skills, and abilities and guide them to achieve the objectives and mission of the organisation. Winston and Patterson (2006:8). Furthermore, this causes the follower(s) to enthusiastically and willingly expand their physical, spiritual, and emotional energy in a harmonised and concerted effort to accomplish the mission and goals of an organisation.

There are various ways of classifying and defining leadership theory. Among the three ways mentioned by Yukl (2010:30) include (1) leaders' characteristics; (2) followers' characteristics, and (3) the situation's characteristics. The majority of leadership theories stress one category compared to others as the main basis for clarifying the characteristics of effective leadership, which has been emphasised for more than half a century. Another way of defining and clarifying leadership theory entails limiting the focus to a single type of leader characteristic such as power, traits, and behaviour (Yukl, 2010).

From their widely recognised and original work on management and leadership, Blake and Mouton (1964) proposed a framework known as a managerial grid to help define managers in terms of their concern for production and people. Based on this model, effective leaders are highly concerned about other people and production (Yukl 2010:113). Some scholars have claimed that although most theorists are in agreement with the fact that relations and task behaviours are both crucial for effective leadership, there is still a lack of consensus on the way the two forms of leadership behaviour jointly impact subordinates (Galanou 2010:4). Some theorists believe that person and task-oriented behaviours have independent additive impacts on subordinates. In this additive framework, a certain type of leadership behaviour is relevant only for maintaining harmonious and cooperative relationships and accomplishing tasks, but is not about achieving both cases concurrently.

Person-oriented behaviour may lead to an increase in organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and teamwork, while task-oriented behaviour may lead to an improved coordination among subordinates, more effective resources and personnel use, and a better understanding of role requirements. These two outcomes are vital for the overall productivity of the work unit and both types of behaviours are requisite for effective leadership. Given this reality, the researcher maintains that only a leader with a sound

and mature EI can master the equilibrium of both tasks in their discharging of leadership responsibilities with subordinates.

Yukl (2010:113) reports that some theorists argue that the two forms of behaviour interact and are jointly facilitative in their impact on subordinates. Based on this high-high leader model's 'multiplicative' version, one behaviour type enriches the impacts of the other behaviour type. Although a number of plausible reasons have been provided over the years for the facilitative interaction, they are still not mutually exclusive. One of the explanations entails the influence of supportive behaviour on the subordinates' view of task-oriented behaviour. For instance, frequent monitoring and detailed guidelines may be considered helpful behaviour from a supportive leader, but punitive behaviour from an unsupportive leader creates a negative effect (Johnston, Foxx, Jacobson, Green & Mulick 2006:55). The second explanation entails the influence of supportive behaviour on the potential influence of a leader over a subordinate. A leader who is more supportive has a higher 'referent power,' which can be utilised to influence subordinates to increase their productivity (Bass & Bass 2008:42). Drawing from the skills level of leaders, Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman (2000) in their skills model, identify a new skill-based model of organisational leadership. They endeavoured to explicate "Effective Performance". They used a "Capability Model" to clarify the association between a leader's knowledge and skills. Instead of focusing on 'what leaders do,' the skill model focuses on their capabilities. The model comprised five key components including, career experiences, environmental competencies, individual attributes, and leadership outcomes.

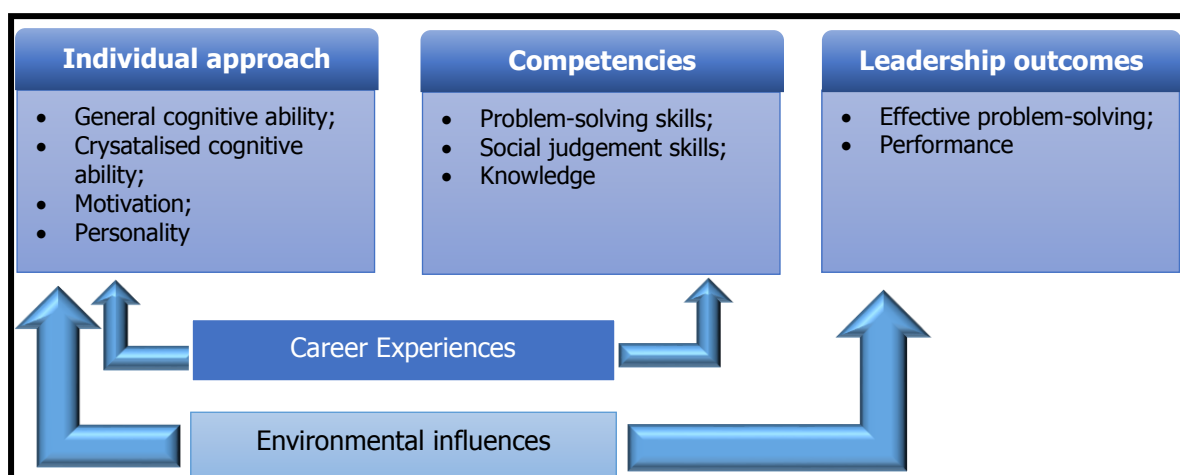


Figure 1.1: Capability model

Source: Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman (2000)

1.4.1 Literature Review – Emotional intelligence (EI) in perspective

As mentioned above, EI can be described as the capability of recognising emotions

implications and their relations, and of reasoning and resolving problems on their basis. EI is engaged in the capability of integrating feelings related to emotions, perceiving emotions, comprehending the information associated with those emotions, and managing the emotions (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso 2004:267). A myriad of research studies report that the EI roots follow the path of the intelligence testing movement. For instance, Sariolghalam, Noruzi and Rahimi (2010) acknowledge social intelligence and the multiplicity of intelligence as one of them. It is undeniable that social intelligence has been chaotic since its inception, since it is intrinsically difficult to measure. Although it is the researcher's intention to examine exactly that, it is a known fact that examining humans in interactions is not an easy task, compared with assessing the cognitive capabilities of the person solving a math problem. Regardless of the difficulties, scholars still strive to assess social intelligence. After reviewing these attempts, Thorndike and Stern (1937) posited that social intelligence comprises three elements: the extent of social adjustment; attitude toward society; and social knowledge. Moreover, they established that social intelligence is quite complex to evaluate and the challenges associated with measuring interaction with individuals are too large to be overcome.

1.5 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND THE CATEGORIES OF ABILITY MODEL

According to Salovey and Mayer (1990) as cited in Mayer (2012), it is convenient to subdivide the skills and abilities of EI into 4 areas: the capability to (a) utilise emotion to trigger thought; (b) manage emotion; (c) perceive emotion; and (d) understand emotion. These categories have come to be known as the four-branch model. These categories are discussed below.

a) Perceiving emotion

The original, most fundamental skill associated with perceiving emotion is the non-verbal reception and emotion expression. Evolutionary psychologists and biologists have established that the expression of emotions has developed in animal species as a central mode of social communication. Some of the facial expressions, including fear, anger, sadness, and happiness, are widely identifiable in humankind. Experts in nonverbal behaviour, emotion researchers, and evolutionary biologists have made significant steps towards comprehending how humankind perceives and conveys emotions. The ability to correctly perceive emotions in someone's face or speech offers a critical ground for the more sophisticated emotions underpinnings.

b) Using emotions to facilitate thought

The second area involves the contribution of emotion to thought. It is believed that emotions have the power to join and direct the cognitive system and to cultivate thought. Cognitive researchers reveal that emotions prioritise thoughts. This implies that the things that humankind responds to emotionally, are the things that draw their attention. Therefore, having a strong system of emotional input can help steer thought to areas that are genuinely relevant. Secondly, several scholars have proposed that emotions are essential to the development of certain kinds of imagination. For instance, both mood swings and optimistic moods are involved in aptitude. Secondly, several scholars have hypothesised that emotions are essential for some sort of ingenuity to surface. For instance, positive moods and mood swings are associated with the capability of undertaking ingenious thought.

c) Understanding emotions

Emotions transfer message. Usually, happiness shows an aspiration to interact with individuals, while anger shows an aspiration to harm or attack other people. On the other hand, fear signposts an urge to escape. Every emotion relays its array of possible actions and messages linked with those messages. Anger may be attributed to particular arrays of possible activities including attacks, revenge-seeking, withdrawal to look for peace, and retribution. Comprehension of emotional information and the activities linked with it is among the vital elements of this area of skill.

When a person can acknowledge such potential activities and communication, the reasoning capability with and about those emotional activities and communication becomes significant. A full comprehension of emotions entails an understanding of the meanings of emotions, together with the ability to relate their implications and is vital to this category of EI skills.

d) Managing emotions

Lastly, emotions may also be controlled. In order to communicate knowledge, an individual must comprehend emotions to the degree that they are within their control. An individual may choose to stay responsive to emotional messages, provided they are not painful or suppress the overwhelming ones. In between individuals' emotional comfort

zone, it is probable to control and manipulate a person's own and other individuals' emotions in order to foster their interests. The methods and techniques of regulating one's emotions have been the focus of expanded study over the last decade.

1.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI) AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

Documentary research studies confirm that EI has been associated with several significant organisational effects and is mostly investigated as an associate of productivity (Bradberry & Su, 2006; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002; Owoseni, 2014; Yukl, 2010). The results that link EI to the performance of leaders are crucial and serve as the focal point of this research study. The importance of the EI construct is, however, fully felt in cases where one recognises this. This contradicts the cases of other performance forecasters, such as general intelligence, that EI is capable of being taught. Studies in EI training for university students found a marked improvement in EI assessed by pre- and post-test measurements (Ashkanasy, 2001). This result has been established among leaders in organisational settings (Sala, 2001). In addition, a follow-up analysis of the rise in EI influenced by efforts of direct learning has shown that improvements have been sustained for as long as seven years.

It is my contention that the excellent emotional intelligence of a leader can easily predict the satisfaction and morale level of employees or subordinates. A study by Cook (2006) found that leaders of high EI outdid their low EI counterparts when evaluated using data for organisational performance.

Other scholars have carefully performed investigations that have correlated EI with work-liked to cognitive achievement tasks (Graves, 1999; Lam & Kirby, 2002). Possibly the best indication to date on the use of EI to forecast on-the-job performance for leaders is from the study of Cavallo and Brienza (2002). This research examined the 358 leaders' leadership behaviour at Johnson and Johnson Corporation in various locations globally. The research findings established that the best performing leaders were those with very high EI. The rating was based on the subordinates, supervisors, and peers' values in the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI), which is a 360-degree feedback instrument based upon Goleman's (2001) model. EI capabilities found to be the best success forecasters in this research included leadership; self-confidence; initiative; catalysing change; orientation of achievement, and influence.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This research is premised on the seminal work by Salovey and Mayer (1990) on EI, as well as complementary leader/member exchange theory by Liden and Maslyn (1998). Notably, EI refers to the capability of controlling one's own and other people's emotions; to discriminate among them, as well as to utilise this information to guide an individual's actions and thoughts (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These authors further describe EI as a special cognitive capability which relies on the emotion that operates within a person's social environment. Empirical evidence by scholars during the early 1990s demonstrated the value of EI as a variation of standard intelligence, an aspect of coping processes, and a core self-regulation component (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Mayer & Stevens, 1994; Salovey, Hsee & Mayer, 1993). In particular, Goleman (1995, see taxonomy below) took EI to the general audience. He studied the work of Mayer and Salovey, reported his own likewise structured model of EI, and permanently changed the popular understanding of the concept.

1.7.1 Taxonomy of emotional intelligence

Although there exist three commonly known EI taxonomies that are commonly used in the contemporary world, the Goleman (2002) taxonomy proposes a system comprising four parts that reflect on a person's capability to comprehend their own emotional state and emotions. They are capable of managing and controlling reactions to these emotions; to understand others' emotional state; and to react to other people's emotions in order to relate effectively. Despite the fact that Goleman *et al.* (2002) model follows a similar theoretical structure and the foundation of the other frameworks, this model is intended for application within organisational practice, theory, and research. The authors further urge that this model works within the notion that it is capable of being utilised to foster employees' effectiveness within the workplace, as well as in leadership positions (cf. Figure 1.2).

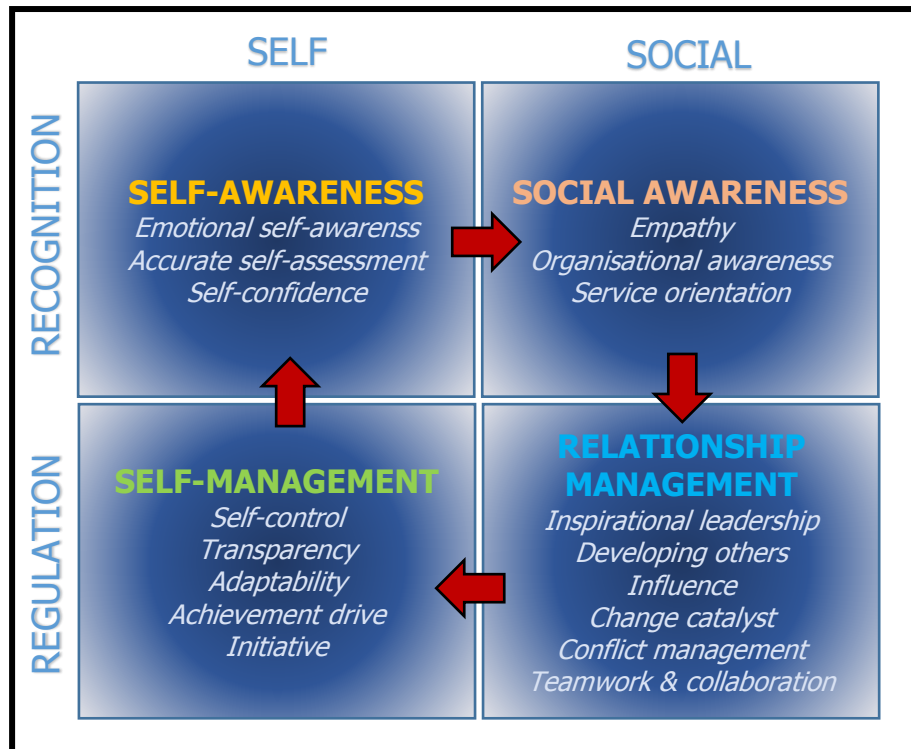


Figure 1.2: Goleman's taxonomy of EI

Source: Goleman *et al.* (2002)

Personal competence includes the capacity of an individual to control oneself. As such, it comprises both self-management and self-awareness. Self-awareness involves correct self-assessment, emotional and self-awareness. Self-management comprises emotional adaptability; initiative and optimism; self-control; achievement; initiative and optimism, and transparency. Social competence is an aspect that requires the capacity of a person to maintain relationships. Social competence comprises both relationship management and social cognition (Goleman *et al.*, 2002); while on the other hand, social awareness comprises service, empathy, and organisational awareness.

The management of relationships encompasses influence; management of conflict; inspirational leadership; fostering change, and collaboration and teamwork. It is worth noting that the majority of EI models promote both social and personal competencies (Bar-On, 2000; Bar-On, 2006; Goleman *et al.*, 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Brackett & Salovey, 2006).

The knowledge of EI fostered by Daniel Goleman's book has fuelled a great deal of study that was conducted in the second half of the 1990s. Among the main criticisms about EI at its outset, was inadequate evidence to back up its authenticity. Indeed, this cynicism was well-founded at the time, since Goleman's (1995) book, which was mostly theoretical,

placed emotional intelligence in the public eye. Any cynicism that persists today, questions the methods of the influx of studies over the last seven years (Barrett, 2001).

1.7.2 Leader-member exchange

The LMX-MDM measurement tool developed by Liden and Maslyn (1998) is utilised for measuring the leader-member exchange dimension. The measure comprises 12 questions within the instrument. The items are calibrated in a scale of 1 to 5 ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Sample items include "My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend"; "I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of their job"; "My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question"; and "I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job". The 12-item scale was $\alpha = .920$ for this sample. While the tool can be utilised to examine the four recognised dimensions within the LMX construct (which include professional contribution, respect, affect, and loyalty), Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995:237) note that the "LMX construct has multiple dimensions, but these dimensions are so highly correlated that they can be tapped into with the single measure of LMX". Thus, as a result of the high level of inter-correlations among the instruments' dimensions, the general LMX construct, which measure the quality of an individual's exchange with the direct supervisor, will be utilised throughout the analysis and results presentation, instead of analysing four individual dimensions which are increasingly correlated.

1.7.3 Conceptual framework

The purpose of the conceptual framework is to set the stage for the research question presentation and drive the findings being reported (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:103). Figure 1.3 depicts the conceptual framework for the proposed study.

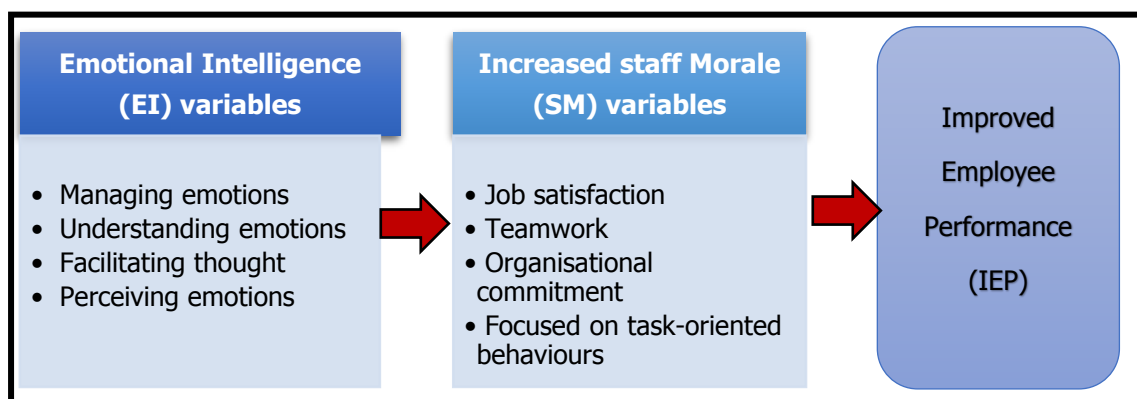


Figure 1.3: Resultant effect of a leader's EI on staff morale

This conceptual model is premised on the EI four-branch model, which defines four skills or capabilities areas that jointly describe most EI areas (Mayer, 2012). Particularly, this framework not only defines EI as encompassing the capabilities to: (a) correctly perceive individual and other peoples' emotions; (b) utilise emotions to foster thoughts; (c) comprehend emotional messages; and (d) control/manage emotions, but further postulates the resultant effect of (leader) mastering these capacities and skills on employee morale. This conceptual framework depicts this relationship.

1.8 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.8.1 Problem background

To achieve optimal performance from employees, various motivational theories advocate what needs to be done and the role of leaders is critical. Unsympathetic, difficult, unreasonable, and unfair, etc., rank highly among concerns usually raised by employees about their supervisors. The upheaval at TVET colleges, especially the Motheo TVET college which has experienced turbulent times in the past two years, have had staff and management in constant wrangles, thus prompting this research study, and further ensuring that the EI phenomenon continues to gain prominence, especially concerning leaders. The role of leadership in a time of crises cannot be overemphasised. Not only is leadership responsible for ensuring that organisations continue to function within an uncertain external environment, but that they also need to show concern for employees. Russell (2020) asserts that during the times of crisis, leaders are closely observed and required to make the right decisions and display the right behaviours, which include showing humility (i.e. putting others first) and empathy, a hallmark of a sound emotional intelligence (EI). Indisputably, positive emotions may result in higher morale amongst workers, and also attest to being disastrous. Negative emotions, including anxiety, hostility, fear, anger, and lower morale, utilise most of an individual's energy. Consequently, this results in apathy and absenteeism, not to mention disastrous performance. A number of scholars have hypothesised that EI is vital for efficient leadership (e.g. Pillay, Viviers & Mayer, 2013). Most people believe that when an individual has the best training the world can give, as well as high intelligence but with no IE, this individual still cannot be an effective leader. Notably, EI is way more significant at different levels within the workplace than intelligence quotient and technical skills (Goleman, 1988).

1.8.2 The problem

It is not always easy to thoroughly comprehend the underlying causes of and reasons for the misunderstandings between management and staff in organisations, with TVET colleges being no exception. The role of EI as a panacea can never be overstated. As mentioned earlier, EI is attractive to organisations since it offers a model from which soft skills that are emotionally based, can be developed and evaluated. Conflict, discontentment, sabotage, frustrations, etc., characterising workplace relations between management/leaders and staff at the Free State TVET colleges adversely affect organisational performance. It is for this reason that EI is viewed as a necessary remedy, because effective and efficient staff performance determines the optimal bottom-line for every organisation.

1.9 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

H₁: There is a significant relationship between leaders' EI and staff morale.

H₂: There is a significant relationship between a leader's EI and an individual's job satisfaction.

H₃: There is a significant relationship between a leader's EI and an individual's inclination towards teamwork.

H₄: There is a significant relationship between a leader's EI and an individual's perceived organisational commitment.

H₅: There is a significant relationship between a leader's EI and fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates.

1.10 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.10.1 Aim of the study

The underlying aim of this research study is firstly to discover the extent to which EI can predict an effective leadership style that can positively affect staff morale; secondly, it can make the necessary recommendations to harmonise workplace relations for better performance.

1.10.2 Main objective

To assess the impact of EI of FS TVET college leaders on subordinate's staff morale.

1.10.3 Subsidiary objectives

- i. To evaluate the joint effects of all the variables of staff morale on EI of FS TVET college leaders.
- ii. To determine the relationship between a leader's EI and job satisfaction.
- iii. To establish a relationship between a leader's EI and the enhancement of teamwork.
- iv. To ascertain the existence of a relationship between a leader's EI and perceived organisational commitment.
- v. To assess a leader's EI in fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates.

1.11 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The value of this research lies primarily in the fact that the behaviour and style of leadership, for those in leadership positions, is likely to determine the level of motivation, morale and the performance level of their subordinates. Generally, the culture of 'them and us' mirrors the current *status quo* at various TVET colleges and characterises the type of relations between college leaders and staff. This research strives to both eradicate possible hindrances to sound interpersonal relations, as well as proposing an ideal leadership style that can enhance, among other things, collegiality, participation, empowerment, etc. which are the vital determinants of improved staff morale and productivity. It is also anticipated that this research will inform HRM policies and practices with regard to improving employer/employee relations at TVET colleges in South Africa.

1.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Burns and Bush (2006:63) describe ethics as behaviours that are prescribed by codes of behaviours set and considered by society. The following ethical behaviour was strictly observed.

- The researcher sought permission to carry out the study from the DHET and the management of the colleges.
- A covering letter containing research information and the assurance of anonymity formed part of the communication to the respondents.
- A consent form was also supplied and respondents were to voluntarily fill it in.
- All respondents participated voluntarily, with the option of opting out.
- Data were collected, analysed and interpreted with integrity.

1.13 DEFINITION OF TERMS

1.13.1 Intelligence

Flynn (2007:53) offers the concept of intelligence as consisting of an answer to a question: What qualities impact our capability to solve problems using cognitive contents? He points to this as mental acuity; the capability to offer an on-the-spot solution to a problem we have never come across previously. It could be a problem that cannot be solved using the mechanical application of a learnt technique and often requiring the creation of an alternative solution. Flynn further argues that if two individuals have a similar opportunity, the better mind has more chances of accumulating a broader range of information. He calls this concept, general intelligence, which is the mind's capacity to comprehend complex ideas, plan and solve problems, and think abstractly by learning from experience i.e. the thinking abilities and skills to adapt and learn from each day's life experience (Parankimalil, 2014).

1.13.2 Emotions

The concept of emotions was adapted in 1959 and originated from a French word *ermouvoir* (to stir up). By definition, emotions refer to particular neuropsychological phenomena, shaped by the natural selection that organises and fosters action, and physiological, and cognitive patterns that promote adaptive responses to the wide range of demands and opportunities in the environment (Konok 2014:8).

Psychologists and evolutionary biologists have established that emotional expression has developed in animal species as a form of communication and facial expressions, including happiness, anger, fear, and sadness, which have been universally recognised among human beings (Clark, Callister & Wallace, 2002).

1.13.3 Emotional Intelligence

EI can be described as an individual's capacity to properly control their emotions and utilise information to guide their actions and feelings (Owoseni 2014:262).

1.13.4 Leader

A leader is described as a person with competencies and procedures necessary for

enabling and empowering ordinary workers to do extra-ordinary things in the face of adversity (Peters, 2003).

1.13.5 Performance

This is a multi-dimensional concept consisting of a process aspect (i.e. goal-orientated behaviour) and an outcome element which denotes the outcome of a person's behaviour. A distinction may be drawn between contextual performance which is extra- role behaviour, discretionary and often not rewarded by a formal reward, and task performance which is in-role behaviour and some part of the description of a formal job (Sonnentag *et al.*, 2010:427).

1.13.6 Staff morale

There are many definitions of morale and some authors view it as a distinctive phenomenon, while others as a group phenomenon. Morale as used in this study does not relate to the term 'morale' which describes standards of behaviour or principles of what is right or wrong. However, it is defined as all psychological forces and factors that impact any group's performance (staff) (Myeni 2010:120).

1.13.7 Motivation

It is an intrinsic phenomenon that is affected by environmental stimulus, the purpose of behaviour and the tools to reach target by empowering people to achieve high levels of performance and overcoming barriers in order to change (Pakdel 2013; Tohidi 2011).

1.13.8 Management

It is a process of creating an environment in which people can perform and cooperate towards the achievement of organisational objectives through application of available resources (Algahtani 2014).

1.13.9 Job satisfaction

A combination of various attitude towards job related matters which results in action, feeling and hope that affect people to cooperate and have courage and confidence in

performing their tasks (Van Heerden 2019).

1.14 DEMARCATION OF STUDY CHAPTERS

Chapters	Description
Chapter 1	Background, introduction and overview of the study
Chapter 2	Literature review – EI of leaders on staff morale
Chapter 3	Research methodology
Chapter 4	Results - Analysis and interpretation of data
Chapter 5	Conclusion, limitations and recommendations

1.15 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 gave an overview of the research topic, the background of the study and parallel studies. The problem was addressed with the research hypothesis and study objectives. The significance of the study, and the ethical considerations were mentioned. Lastly, the demarcation of the study was addressed.

The next chapter will review the literature concerning the impact of the emotional intelligence of a leader on staff morale.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the background of the study; problem statement; structure that the study will follow; purpose; hypothesis; and objectives. This chapter will review the literature on the effect of a leader's EI on staff morale concerning job satisfaction; enhancement of teamwork; organisational commitment; and fostering task-orientated behaviour and employee morale, with a specific focus on TVET college staff in the Free State Province of SA.

2.2 MANAGEMENT VERSUS LEADERSHIP

The Oxford Dictionary (2008) describes the general concept of leadership as "the state or position of being a leader." Another concept of leadership is "a process of social control which implies defining behaviour-motivating objectives of a group in support of these objectives and influencing group sustainability and culture" (Smith 2007:116). Equally, Bowen (2014:132-133) explains the concept of emotional contagion as the process by which people influence the emotions of others by displaying their own emotions and behaviour. Furthermore, the emotions in an organisation, as a field of study, have benefited significantly from the scholarship on teaching and learning, as they have addressed the question of emotional intelligence mutability. In order to comprehend emotions, Erdal and Strømsø (2018) suggest that the social and cultural limits that characterise society at a specific time and articulate individual experience within the given norm, must be examined. Because we live and work in a multicultural society, a leader must be sensitive to others' emotions and try to understand and interpret them within their cultural boundaries (Gupta & Bajaj, 2017).

The leadership process involves using non-coercive control for direct and synchronised efforts of unified community members in order to achieve organisational objectives (O'Shea, Foti, Hauenstein & Bycio 2009:237). Because the management process is also one of the four fundamental management features (Nel, Van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz & Sono 2006:143), the terms 'leader' and 'manager' are usually misused interchangeably. However, leadership has many definitions and there is no real consensus by practitioners

and academics on how to define leadership. Leadership generally involves a relationship in which someone affects other people's attitudes or actions in achieving a goal. While leadership can mean different things to writers, Johnson and Scholes (2006:549) define leadership as a process of control to attain organisational objectives.

Every organisation intends to maximise efficiency, and employees are key to this goal. It is constantly reported that employees are the most significant assets in any organisation. It is always imperative to ensure that they are under the guidance and leadership of an emotionally intelligent leader to guarantee optimal performance from each employee. A cautionary measure is that, as a leader, it is detrimental to focus on results without looking after your people singularly. When leading a team, you achieve results through people; thus, leadership effectiveness also has to do with the effect that you have on those you lead. Effective leaders direct and encourage progress towards mission goals, while ensuring cohesion and cooperation (Yukl 2010:114). Likewise, Baker (2002) argues that an effective leader is not a combination of tasking and relationship actions but one who chooses different types of actions that represent both the task and the workforce. Thus, a leader's emotional state is a primary priority.

2.3 LEADERSHIP IN CONTEXT

It is suggested that the EI of leaders influences employee perception of the working climate (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Leaders affect their employees' emotions via their own emotions. Collaborators that drive emotions positively generate a climate in which individuals show exceptional performance, information sharing and motivation (Goleman *et al.*, 2002; Vidyarthi, Liden, Anand, Erdogan & Ghosh, 2010; Anderson, Potočník & Zhou, 2014; Chang, Jia, Takeuchi & Cai, 2014). However, leaders with adverse emotions lead to a climate of fear, anxiety, anger, and disconnectedness, thereby hampering people's performance (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Earlier research has reported that intelligent emotions cultivate a healthy environment by instilling confidence in workers and helping employees overcome their negative emotions (George, 2000; Zhou & George, 2003) under conditions of uncertainty and conflict. Thus, a high-quality leader recognises the influence of their emotions on employee needs and feelings and thus guarantees a favourable psychological atmosphere (Klem & Schlechter, 2008; Momeni, 2009).

2.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE CONTEXTUALISED

The definition of emotional intelligence, which Peter and Salovey describe as “the capacity to track one's own and others' feelings and emotions, distinguish between them, and use this knowledge to direct one's own thinking and behavior,” was widely documented in 1990, by Peters, Salovey and Mayer (1990) Equally, Bowen (2014:132-133) explains the concept of emotional contagion as the process by which people influence the emotions of others by displaying their own emotions and behaviour; that emotions in the organisation as a field of study have benefited significantly from the scholarship of teaching and learning, as they have addressed the question of emotional intelligence mutability.

In addition, Turner (2010:181) asserts that emotions have the potential to make humans very violent or alternatively, lead humans to withdraw commitment to others and the social structure. These emotions are expressed within a particular context that is applicable to one's situation, needs, and desires. They are significant in the working world as they enable one to act, regulate someone's acts, and play a role in the job (Coetzer, 2013:10). Evidence of emotional intelligence (EI) is a unique construction that explains the variation of outcomes over and above personality and cognitive intelligence (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Higgs & Dulewicz, 2016; Gu, Tang & Jiang, 2015). However, EI has been criticised for its conceptual overlap with personality and cognitive intelligence. EI has been related to various outcomes, such as social ties (Lopes, Salovey & Strauss, 2003); well-being (Sánchez-Álvarez, Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2016); organisational commitment (Aghdasi, Kiamanesh & Ebrahim, 2011), and leadership effectiveness (Walter, Cole & Humphrey, 2011).

2.4.1 Emotionally intelligent leader in perspective

Leaders with a strong intellect are, without doubt, the key to organisational success and need to be able to sense workers' feelings at work, respond to issues, and control their own emotions to gain employees' confidence (Batool 2013:85). Moreover, Batool (2013:88) maintains that if leaders are aware of themselves, then they will know how their emotions and actions affect people around them and can advise leaders to improve their self-awareness by slowing down and examining why they experience anger and other strong emotions. They should choose their reaction, to regulate themselves, by holding themselves accountable and making a commitment to admit their mistakes and face the consequences, instead of blaming others. Furthermore, leaders should constantly

work towards an optimistic mind-set and improve their social skills by learning conflict resolution, communication skills, and how to praise others.

As mentioned above, an emotionally intelligent leader who can appropriately regulate their emotions and use the information to guide their feelings and actions, is regarded as a good leader. More motivation which improves working ties; higher team efficiency; better problem-solving; and essential developments, are the most common results of good leadership (Psychometrics Canada, 2010). Emotionally intelligent leaders strive to understand the reason behind the behaviour displayed and actions taken by their subordinates. They are aware of intense feelings and stop talking out of anger and annoyance. They also understand that there will be times when members under their leadership will have difficulties outside their work, which will impact on their work and thus respond positively by giving support during those times. They should always look for ways to give credit and reward for a job well done and not take credit for others' work (Kelholiday, 2015).

Oosthuysen (2009:61) points out that emotional intelligence affords leaders the ability to build loyalty by caring about the careers of employees and inspiring them to give their best for a shared value-driven vision and mission through a contagious passion. He warns that if leaders fail to create a positive environment and good relationships, employees may recall the negative encounters, leading to demotivation and eroding trust and cooperation, which are needed for optimal performance. Coetzer (2013:11) suggests that as emotional intelligence (EI) is an intelligence element, it must meet three requirements, namely: first, the emotional intelligence must be conceptual (a summary of a collection of skills); second, associated measurements must be linked to other metrics that represent the same abilities and skills; and third, developmental (the concept must develop with age and experience).

2.5 LEADERSHIP IN PERSPECTIVE

Leadership is defined as competencies and processes which enable ordinary employees to do special things in the face of difficulty (Peters, 2003). It requires them to be interpersonal in their situation and guided toward a certain purpose or target by means of a communications process (Faisal *et al.*, 2012:66). This is the method of motivating others to understand and decide on what to do and how to do it; encouraging individual and collaborative efforts to achieve common goals. The efforts of other members of the

organisation to achieve significant outcomes have been taken into consideration (Yukle 2006:8; Northouse 2006:3). The organisation has three levels, namely the leader, followers, and the dyadic relationship between the leader and the supporter (Kolesnikov 2012:14). Leadership is also an improvement of behaviour through communication, which forms the perception of a leading charisma and is divided into a leading message and the messages presented (Fayyaz *et al.*, 2014:2).

Faisal (2012:62) defines leadership roles as (i) participating in defining shared goals; (ii) motivating individuals, making decisions, taking action, and assessing the group's work; (iii) creating a favourable and safe environment for the person and community efforts; (iv) directing individuals and groups to render them self-dependent and competent; and (v) preparing individuals and creatures.

2.5.1 Leadership approaches unpacked

Yukl (2006) states five ways in which leadership can be approached (Kolesnikov 2012:15) and these are:

- i. Power approach: It implies that some people are born with leadership qualities and traits that others do not possess.
- ii. Power influence approach: this approach seeks to explain the effectiveness of a leader, their amount of power, and how it is exercised.
- iii. Situational approach: takes into account the context that influences the leader.
- iv. Interactive approach: explains how leaders interact with subordinates and why some subordinates want to give extra effort or sacrifice in order to reach the set objectives.
- v. Behaviour approach: examines the behaviour, responsibilities, and functions of the leader, as well as how they spend time and meet requirements.
- vi. The situational leadership approach: emphasises the significance of the group's characteristics and management style. Different situation types decide the appropriate form or style of management. Specific situation variables in case research are the structural environment; the task or the type of task performed by a group; and the degree of formal authority or authority.

According to Faisal (2012:64), three important components of the leadership situation are identified:

- i. Relationships between leaders and members: the extent to which the group members support, regard and like the group leader;
- ii. Structure of the task: the extent to which group tasks are outlined;
- iii. Position power: the power of the organisation in the position of the leader or the degree to which the position allows the leader to have leadership of the group.

2.5.2 Reflection on various leadership styles

The approach to style highlights the conduct of leadership. This makes it different from the approach to characteristics that emphasise the characteristics of the individual and the approach to skills that stress the leader's capabilities.

2.5.2.1 *Transformational leadership*

According to Kolesnikov (2012:19), transformation leadership was born as a concept in the 1970s when James McGregor Burn inspired his associates to develop his own leadership skills in order to align with the aims of all levels, building on stimulating and inspiring leadership. Four elements or aspects of change leadership are: (i) idealised influence; (ii) inspirational motivation; (iii) intellectual stimulation; and (iv) individualised consideration.

- i. Idealised influence: leaders who perform as role models are respected, admired, trusted and imitated by their followers.
- ii. Inspirational motivation: leaders inspire followers by giving meaning and challenges to their work; in return, followers want to demonstrate their commitment to goals.
- iii. Intellectual stimulation: followers' creativity is encouraged, old problems are approached in a new way, and different opinions are not criticised.
- iv. Individualised consideration: a leader acts as a mentor and coach and has an individual approach to each follower, accepting every individual difference in employees (Kolesnikov 2012:20; Wahjono *et al.*, 2013:34; Senoamadi 2012:11).

Wahjono (2013:37) postulates that transformative leaders will inspire their followers to boost their emotional understanding by addressing the needs of their subordinates, helping them to fulfil their commitments, display integrity, and persevere to realise their dreams, as well as to make sacrifices for the good of the organisation and for community purposes. De Miranda (2011:65) adds that subordinates' ability to align goals with their

superiors and pursue an innovative problem-solving approach, will have positive implications for their superiors' leadership. It allows managers and subordinate people to work together, in order to achieve participatory control, team cohesion, and clear objectives.

Conversely, Senoamadi (2012:16) laments that the weakness in transformational leadership is the notion that leadership is about moving people towards the achievement of the common good. In some instances, history is full of leaders who acted and caused their followers to act in ways that destroyed them through their unethical conduct. Pillay (2013:54) recommends that managers/leaders be trained to discover the benefits and drawbacks of leadership and its contextual importance. In order to respond to the complexity of their relationship, employees must be simultaneously trained in emotional intelligence to raise their awareness of the emotional aspects of leadership competencies.

2.5.2.2 *Transactional leadership*

It is described as leadership through social exchange, and consists of two key elements: contingent rewards, where a leader promises rewards to followers in exchange for the achievement of good results; and management-by-exception, involving implicit trust that followers will work towards the achievement of the organisation's goals. Intervention occurs only when deviations from goal achievement are observed (Kolesnikov 2012:25). Management-by-exception (MBE) has two variants namely,

- Management-by-exception passive, is related to the passive avoidant style of a leader. This happens when a leader waits for an error to occur before taking appropriate action.
- Management-by-exception active, through tracking and taking corrective steps, the leader aims to enforce measures to prevent errors and deviations from the norm.
- Laissez-faire, a leadership where no decisions are taken, necessary measures are not taken, and obligations are ignored (Kolesnikov 2012:27; Senoamadi 2012:14; Herbert 2011:81).

Kolesnikov (2012:81) further reports that in a Norwegian study on efficient leadership in the area of hotels, it was determined that the effect of employers' leadership style has a strong link to employee satisfaction, efficiency, additional effort, motivation, engagement, and leading relations. In addition, Tiwari (2014:10) posits that when relationship-based

leaders promote the core competency development of their workforce throughout the organisation, an opportunity exists for ensuring high employee morale and customer satisfaction. There is also an increase in employee and customer retention rate and the positive long-term outlook of an organisation's successful performance.

2.6 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND STAFF MORALE

Morale, as described above, concerns mental factors and forces which influence group (staff) performance (Myeni 2010:120). Psychological conditions in respect of the happiness, confidence, and commitment of workers, give rise to courage, dedication and discipline, on the fulfilment level. Diversity and challenges, as well as input, room for growth and external conditions, such as just and adequate pay for employees, safety and welfare, are important (Tiwari 2014:8). How a group feels towards the organisation it belongs to is crucial and includes the special feelings of confidence, self-worth, and the organisational excellence of group members. Ngambi (2011:764) points out that group morale depends on the morale of each individual in a group. Lee *et al.* (2012:7) state that factors, such as intrinsic motivation; job satisfaction; the meaningfulness of work; organisational commitment and work pride; teamwork, etc. help in defining morale.

Such concepts indicate that there are two dimensions, namely attitudes and efficiency, which contribute to a causal relationship between these dimensions, with the supposition that workers' psychological factors directly relate to success at work (Myeni 2010:120). Moreover, Myeni (2010:122-123), uses Lawrence's morale model (1966) to list some variables that are considered drivers of morale in terms of work efficiency, as shown and discussed below. These are technical, individual, group, and situational factors.

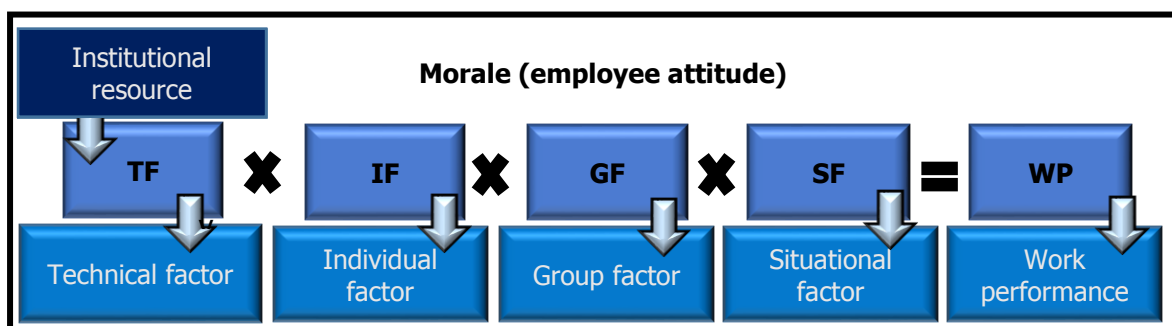


Figure 2.1: Drivers of morale on work performance

Lawrence Model of Morale on Work Performance 1966 (adapted from Myeni 2010:122)

- i. Technical factors: Technical considerations include both tangible and intangible services needed for optimum output by the company, including machinery and equipment, organisational policies, methods, and approaches.
- ii. Individual factors: Personal characteristics that may have an effect on the working output include age; working experience; motivation; resistance to change; skills; and work situation perception.
- iii. Group factors: Group structure; interaction of group; group supervision and leadership; outside influence on groups; and encouragement, are all factors that may affect group performance.
- iv. Situational factors: Situational factors that include intrinsic characteristics of the job, such as work rates and work difficulties; exhaustion and interest; and extrinsic elements, such as hours of employment; work structure and work placement; as well as work incentives, such as financial incentives; awareness of the outcome; promotional opportunities and confidence in making decisions, are necessary.

A high degree of morale means that an employee is satisfied in their job; is committed to initiatives; is committed to organisational success, instead of focusing on achieving personal objectives. Tiwari (2014:8) notes that happy workers have a high morale standard, whereas unhappy employees have a low morale standard. There are numerous reasons behind low morale standards; not only a single factor but a combination of related factors: distrust in management; poor interpersonal relations between staff and leader; inflexible working conditions; unclear expectations; a lack of opportunity for personal growth because of unchallenging environments; but most of all, is poor leadership (Lee *et al.*, 2012:7). Ngambi (2011:764) also argues that a lack of exemplary leadership; less or no responsibility; a lack of professional strategy formulation; and too many silos and departmental infighting are demotivators that cause poor morale standards for employees.

In order to improve workplace morale, leaders need to create an organisational culture of trust. The level of leaders' subordinate trust allows them to make an ongoing effort and face difficulties (Wahjono *et al.*, 2013:36). Respect; involvement; appreciation; adequate compensation; promotions; and a pleasant work environment are some of the factors Tiwari (2014:8) propounds. Lee *et al.* (2012:8) adds that according to Psychometric Canada (2010), there are six effective behavioural ways in which managers may boost staff morale.

They are:

- to talk less and listen more to the staff;
- to grant expectations that are clear;
- to have a more informal interaction with staff;
- to give tasks based on skills, rather than on office politics;
- to give more responsibilities to staff to make decisions in certain tasks; and
- to respect people with greater expertise.

A definite path to enhance morale and productivity is to follow the approach of removing demotivators (such as, lengthy, meaningless processes) and create new motivators which are crucial to positive morale (Robbins, 2003). It is also seminal to provide some proven motivational strategies for employees, with an emphasis on effective leadership and supervision which are fundamental to setting a positive and effective tone in the workplace.

Leaders or managers can remove demotivators to improve the culture of the workplace by confronting problematic behaviours as they occur and clearly communicate that they will not be tolerated. Others should be allowed open access so that ideas and problems can be freely communicated, avoiding as many 'across-the-board' rules as possible, so that each decision made is on merit and within the parameters set by the board. Robbins (2003) further presents some strategies which may be used to motivate employees, such as job enrichment; job enhancement; learning professional knowledge; and the preparation of reports:

- Job enrichment: Giving staff more responsibilities in their work but not by adding more jobs with the hope of challenging employees to do more, or the assignment of the same job but by changing location.
- Job enhancement: increasing job professional knowledge and skills; identifying emerging issues; and raising sensitivity to institutional needs.
- Learning professional knowledge: assigning staff problems outside their areas of expertise and giving them resources, information, and support to learn new skills. In addition, addressing complex problems and the shortage of resources should be passed to a higher level of the organisation.
- When reports are prepared for higher management, it must be ensured that staff receives a copy as well, and credit should always be given to those who contributed ideas, time, and hard work.

2.7 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND JOB SATISFACTION

A concept that evolved from organisational theory, and its first major study done in nursing in 1940, was job satisfaction. Yet, a major problem with the literature is that this concept is vaguely defined; therefore, there is no agreement on defining the concept, as empirical research has found that it can vary from person to person; time and space; between geographical regions and with one person from time to time (Rivari *et al.*, 2012:523). Some researchers have indicated that emotional intelligence and the job satisfaction relationship is through personality character; personal characteristics; and interpersonal interaction, while others believe it is through stress. Ealias and George (2013:30) associate emotional intelligence and job satisfaction with stress, pointing out that an employee with high emotional intelligence develops strategies to counteract stress, whereas those with low emotional Intelligence cannot develop these strategies. This then implies that a leader with high emotional intelligence can successfully cope with stress and present emotional self-management, which will enhance their own morale, the group's morale and be capable of controlling and managing others' emotions.

Contemporary researchers indicate that job satisfaction's central theme is based on motivation theories (Coetzer 2013:29). This implies that an emotionally intelligent leader may familiarise themselves with these theories, in order to influence job satisfaction among subordinates. The following section focuses on these theories.

2.7.1 Theories of motivation

Haque and Islam (2014:62) express the view that motivation is an excitation to achieve organisational goals that satisfy individual needs. In essence, motivation refers to achieving the main organisational goals by meeting individual employees' needs or requirements.

2.7.1.1 *Maslow's hierarchy of needs*

Maslow wanted to know what inspires people. He thought that there were a number of opportunities that were unrelated to bonuses and mindful wishes. Maslow (1943) claimed that people are driven to fulfil other needs, and when one need is fulfilled, everyone seeks to satisfy the next. The hierarchy of needs version of Maslow includes five motivational needs, defined in the pyramid below as hierarchical levels.

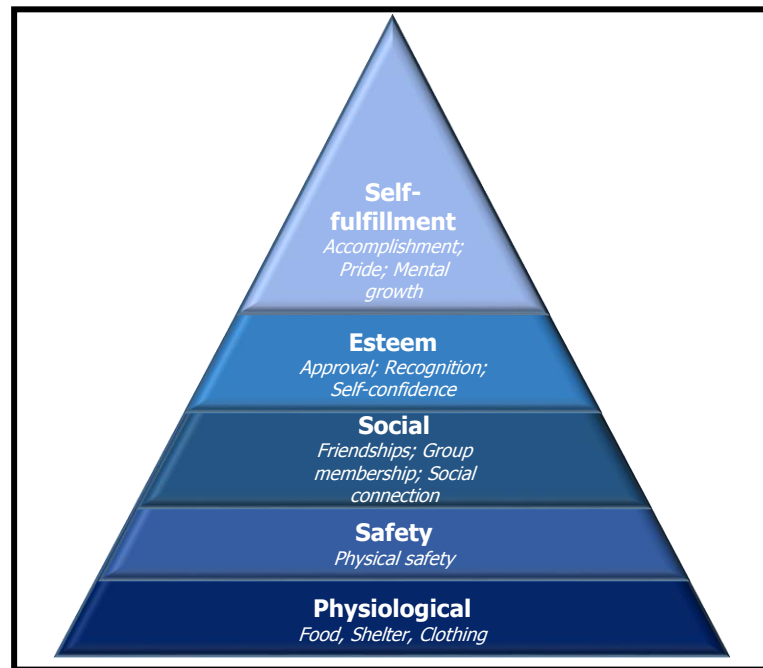


Figure 2.2: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

This five-stage model can be divided into fundamental needs or deficit requirements, i.e., physiological needs, stability, affection, appreciation, and growth needs. People will be discouraged if disability or essential needs are not met. Furthermore, the length of time they are denied will increase the need to fulfil such needs. The longer a person goes without food, for example, the hungrier they are. Lower basic needs must be met before progress is made to reach higher growth requirements. When these requirements are fairly satisfied, self-actualisation will be at its highest level. Everyone is capable of moving towards self-actualisation and wants to advance in the hierarchy. Coetzer (2013:30) further mentions some theories that reveal certain factors that contribute to the satisfaction of the workforce.

2.7.1.2 McGregor's theory X and Y

McGregor suggests that individuals are divided into two different categories, and administrators shape their behaviours, namely, a positive one (Y theory) and a negative one (X theory). Theory Y shows that managers are satisfied with the work because they are natural, relaxed, playful, self-managed and self-directed. They also show innovation, learn, and bear responsibility. Theory X indicates that supervisors consider employees to be unhappy about their jobs and neglect their duties.

2.7.1.3 *Hertzberg's two-factor theory*

Hertzberg formulated a theory of two variables, known as the theory of motivational hygiene. His study has shown good and bad feelings about jobs and that contrary to satisfaction, there is no satisfaction, or contrary to dissatisfaction, there is no dissatisfaction, which is contrary to traditional satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Therefore, he suggests a dual scale, informing factors, such as motivational and hygiene factors, which contribute to working satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

2.7.2 Motivational factors

Motivation factors help workers feel fulfilled in their work, and their success in efficiency, appreciation, accountability, challenging employment, growth, and development is what makes them feel happy.

2.7.2.1 *Hygiene factors*

Factors of hygiene are the atmosphere or working conditions that cause employees to feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in their jobs, such as wages, rank, safety at work, conditions of working, policies and procedures, quality dependents, supervisors, and workers.

2.7.2.2 *McClland's theory of needs*

A theory by McClland (1975) was based on the concept of understanding and reinforcing needs and three related criteria in the workplace, namely the need for success, strength, and participation.

- i. The need for achievement: The need for success is called the drive to excellence in terms of setting standards. Those who meet this requirement want to set targets and prefer jobs with clearly available performance data.
- ii. The need for power: The desire for strength is known as the need to make others do what is not normally their duties. Those who comply with this requirement want valuable properties to be obtained and choose professions that support or influence others.
- iii. The need for affiliation: Affiliation need is referred to as the need for good and

relational connections. Those who comply with this need are vulnerable to other responses, prefer working with others, and working closely with them.

2.7.2.3 *Locke's goal-setting theory*

Locke's (1976) motivational theory focuses on the setting of cognitive objectives, such as employees' personal development and suggests that employees' sense of actually completing the job, is satisfied. For employees to achieve this goal, they must first believe that they are achieving the goal and secondly, have the will to attain this goal. They state that job satisfaction is an emotional enjoyment or goodness arising from the assessment of someone's career or work experience.

Badenhost (2011:18) states that job satisfaction is divided into three dimensions: emotional, cognitive, and multi-dimensional. The emotional aspect is the way an employee feels and suggests that an employee may be more emotionally aware of a job if they are measured, thus leading to a more positive attitude. The degree to which workers meet or do not meet their job requirements is influenced by the cognitive thinking of an employee. Ultimately, in multitasks, it is suggested that any related aspects will affect job satisfaction, whether they be mental, physiological, or environmental; i.e. it could be the type of line management appointed, compensation policies, or simply the nature of the work.

Krishnakumar (2008:7) has also analysed work fulfilment as attitude and at least two broad effects of emotional intelligence. First, it is the capacity to understand one's own emotions, comprehend them, and handle them. The second is the ability to persevere in comprehending, understanding, and controlling the emotions of others. Moreover, it indicates that it can influence attitudes by being capable of perceiving and dealing with one's own feelings. The attitudes may generally be described as aggregations and the cognition of a person who incorporates and synthesises cognitive and affective reactions, with regard to an attitude objective. They are interpreted as an evaluative judgement. Since training in attitude requires the addition of affective experiences, it is important for leaders to perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage their emotions.

In addition, Krishnakumar (2008:8) postulates that job satisfaction is defined as the psychological, multi-dimensional responses to a task, which has three parts: cognitive (evaluative); affective (or emotional); and behavioural. The cognitive dimension is

developed using a certain model or frame of reference to assess the individual's work features and working environment. The affective element consists of the generally pleasant or disagreeable feelings towards the job objective which have accumulated over time. The portion of actions contains specific motives and behaviours, which occur as an attitude. All three components lead to a position being developed and operationalised. Studies of the importance of emotions in the development of attitudes have recently shown themselves to be critical. This is probably because attitudes, such as job satisfaction, have an affective component. Earlier studies demonstrate that positive and negative inclinations have an impact on individual cognitive judgements. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the leading individual's emotional intelligence will have a congruent influence on the evaluation or assessment of the job.

Al Hinai and Bajracharya (2014:22) state that workload; colleague understanding; employment status; management support; remuneration, and growth are some of the key factors in terms of job satisfaction during their analysis on the satisfaction of employer-employee in higher education in Oman. They found that if faculty members were given a job, their job satisfaction improved and that the perception of job satisfactoriness did not achieve well with the continued excess workload. In terms of college communication and relationships, colleagues find that they have a feel-good working atmosphere that, in effect, helps improve the satisfaction of the job, and academic success and family happiness correlate. Support for management is considered a major factor influencing job satisfaction, by reinforcing the relationship and increasing trust between managers and subordinates. In job satisfaction, remuneration plays a key role and is known as a dynamic and multi-dimensional factor which can contribute to work dissatisfaction when not in place but which should be established competitively. Nevertheless, improved remuneration outside the competitive range does not have a significant effect on the satisfaction of the job.

Tiwari (2014:10) recommends that an organisation should provide for effective social care initiatives. However, caution that an organisation should not burden itself with increasing the cost share of greed, to gain a competing advantage and declare itself to be the most desirable organisation; the willingness of an emotionally smart leader to expose themselves to all kinds of feelings, and deal with their feelings and emotions, should be taken into account. This will facilitate a personal understanding and development of others, in order to improve employee job satisfaction (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey 2000:277).

2.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TEAMWORK

The working world and the businesses, and workers who work for them, are changing rapidly every day. Growing technological changes, rivalry, globalisation, market expansion, and delivery speed are coupled with increasing demands for efficiency (Magda 2010:1). The TVET College sector is no exception; thus, the necessity of building up strong teamwork. Teams are a set of individuals who share responsibility for results; who view themselves and others as a social unit embedded in one or wider social systems; and who administer their relationships across corporate borders (Koman & Wolff 2005:3).

Since a team is inherently a social activity, employees are engaged or should be engaged by the leader, with emotions playing an important role in their effectiveness (Koman & Wolff, 2005). Two dimensions can be described when analysing teamwork: a task dimension that focuses on goals and specific activities that achieve them; and a social-emotion aspect related to group maintenance. It is important for a team to focus not only on tasks but also on the development of appropriate interpersonal relationships (Golonka & Mosja-Kaja 2013:33). Therefore, the emotional intelligence of a leader will give them the ability to understand personal and related emotions and will utilise emotional knowledge (Mayer *et al.*, 2000:276), in order to build teamwork. Some studies indicate that the characteristics of team roles determine team performance. For example, Golonka and Mosja-Kaja (2013:35) used Belbin's model (1993), which was conceptualised on the theory that characteristics of personality; individual attitude; needs; values; past experience, and situational context influence a person's role in a team. They termed and described these task-orientated roles as:

- Plant: they solve difficult problems and work towards new solutions;
- Monitor Evaluator: looks for possible options and makes a well-considered judgement;
- Completer: concentrates on the best task performance, searches for errors, and delivers on time;
- Shaper: influences the dynamics of actions and finds ways around obstacles; and
- Implementer: turns ideas into action.

Some, which are closer to the social dimension are:

- Team worker: cares about interpersonal relationships and the atmosphere within the

team; is willing to help other members when they need help and support; and solves problems;

- Resource investigator: explores important contracts and opportunities; and
- Coordinator: clarifies goals; promotes decision making, and ensures that all are involved in discussions and decision-making.

Golonka and Mosja-Kaja (2013:35) also argue that emotional intelligence facilitates cohesion in a group. Emotionally intelligent team members form strong relationships and a solid system of support for the performance of a team. It is crucial for organisations, such as TVET Colleges, to have effective teams or groups, in order to achieve their ultimate goals or objectives; thus, the emotional intelligence of these groups cannot be overemphasised. Druskat and Wolff (1998:3-6) focused on group effectiveness by developing the concept of Group Emotional Intelligence (GEI) and argue how this concept influences group effectiveness when a group manages emotions intelligently.

They describe group emotional intelligence as the ability to establish standards that manage emotional processes to promote confidence; the identity of the group and group effectiveness, and which encourage the growth of group-member collaboration. To explore these collective beliefs, first, confidence is viewed as a construction that grows out of influence and friendship and involves the feeling of expectation and obligation. The commitment is supposed to be fulfilled, as well as the expectations. Similarly, Engelbrecht *et al.* (2014:7) emphasise that the degree to which leaders are considered to be trustworthy affects the way followers position their confidence, trust and belief in them and this articulates a trust relationship with the leader. The leader would enable and engage workers to make informed decisions in relation to their work, based on the faith they have in their leader. Nevertheless, a study conducted in Muhammadiyah Primary Schools, Indonesia, found that a leader's action to seek the trust of subordinates was perceived as a sign of a leader's lack of self-confidence and inability to display subordinates' individual results (Wahjono *et al.*, 2013:40).

Secondly, group identity provides a sense of protection, which is essential for the work community's participation, thereby enhancing its engagement among the participants and promoting collaboration and cooperation, which is crucial to the group's success. Team effectiveness is the greatest mutual belief, giving members of the community the idea they can be more successful as a team. They build their own self-fulfilment prophecy.

2.9 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

In conceptualising the organisation's commitment, Meyer and Allen (1991) and Van Dyk (2012:3) integrated attitudinally and behaviourally engaged approaches with the objective of creating three distinct dimensions namely, affective, continuing and normative commitments. Affective commitment is described as the commitment of workers through their emotional ties, interactions, and involvement. Continuing commitment refers to employees' understanding of the benefits that they might lose if their organisations are abandoned. Affective and normative responsibilities indicate the attitude of the employees, whereas ongoing commitment demonstrates their behavioural guidelines. Research into the Indian Auto-Component Industry has shown that employees with a high level of commitment reflect the way an individual identifies with an organisation and is committed to its goal, which will lead to several favourable organisational outcomes (Dixit & Bhati 2012:40). Pillay, Buitendach and Kanengoni (2014) define employee organisational commitment as an employee's willingness to remain in the organisation, put in the effort to contribute to its goals, and feel that they are making a contribution.

Management/leadership also plays an important role because the success of an organisation in terms of attaining its goals and realising its objectives, depends on it. Their leadership styles and those of supervisors who show an interest in and value their employees, make them feel important and thus employees will show more effective commitment towards their organisation (Mclaggan *et al.*, 2013:6). Therefore, it is imperative that emotionally intelligent leaders should engage their subordinates, which are their employees, in attaining organisational goals. The engagement of employees requires employee passion and participation in their work and company performance, and leaders are able to inspire workers to achieve and to build a community where workers are emotionally and mentally dedicated to their goals.

In a study conducted at Kenyan public universities on the influence of emotional intelligence on employee engagement, it was found that there was a connection between emotional intelligence domains and employee engagement drivers. Furthermore, emotional intelligence influences "the sustainability challenge" through employee engagement (Mwangi 2014:79). With positive evidence, managers now face the challenge of improving the engagement of employees. West *et al.* (2012) suggest that two main sources of participation exist: job resources and personal resources. Job resources cover all the physical, social or institutional aspects of a job that can minimise work

requirements; be efficient in fulfilling job objectives or promote personal growth, learning, and development; whereas, personal resources refer to an individual employee's characteristics, such as motivation, persistence and their efficiency (West *et al.*, 2012:11). Shultz *et al.* (2011:53) present key requirements which could create a culture that would facilitate employee engagement and divide responsibilities among the top, middle management and employees as explained below.

- i. Top management / leadership: It is responsible for formulating a vision and mission that promotes employee engagement and develops employee creativity at all levels, through successful career growth and talent management strategies.
- ii. Middle management: Middle management should switch from solution to facilitators and coaches, in order to ensure that each employee will be given an equal chance to contribute by sharing ideas and information.

It should encourage cooperation between employees by ensuring that the necessary resources, time, and difficult work are all about teamwork. Clear goals and expectations should be established in alignment with the vision and mission of the organisation. A high level of trust in the workplace and communication through meetings, written documents, and unions should be clearly communicated.

2.9.1 Employees

Employees should look for opportunities to improve awareness, expertise, and to solve new problems. They should have the mind of ownership and the recognition of being highly in demand providers of services, and finally, a clear, shared understanding of the importance of one's effort in the organisation's overall success. An emotionally intelligent leader is able to develop specific emotions in themselves to transfer to subordinates and consequently change their cognitive process (Mayer *et al.*, 2000:275). It has been observed that there is a general trend of young and talented employees to leave their organisations. Van Dyk and Coetsee (2012:3) unveiled six critical retention factors which organisations need to consider to retain employees with high-quality skills. In their analysis of *Retention Factors for Organizational Engagement in Medizin and Information Technology Services*, they include:

- i. Compensation for the work employees do, which includes monetary and non-monetary rewards.

- ii. Job features include a variety of skills and job autonomy because highly specialised organisations prefer employees who have a wide range of skills, can work on difficult tasks, and offer self-employment.
- iii. Training and development, programmes and investments in education seek to provide advancement opportunities, and workers are able to believe that their organisations value them.
- iv. Supervisor support comprises acknowledgment and responses provided to employees by supervisors.
- v. The internal and external career possibilities offered by staff are included in career opportunities. Present employee organisations, such as promotions or transfers to new positions, may have internal career opportunities. Other organisations may have outside career opportunities. When employees see that their organisations have a large number of career opportunities, it could improve job performance and reduce their plans to leave.
- vi. Balance of working life as workers' desire to fulfil their obligations to work and family, as well as other non-working activities.

Furthermore, research suggests that the characteristics of the job also significantly predict the affective engagement of the participants. These findings advocate that the higher the moral duty of the participants to remain with their organisation due to social norms, the lower the retention factor is to the influence of supervisory support. Xerri and Brunetto (2013:166) also note that the employee's emotional connection to the organisation is generally correlated with a sense of belonging; that certain employees appear to engage in organisational activities; are ready to work towards achieving organisational objectives; and believe that their organisation should be sustained. Workers wanting to remain in the organisation may also be more likely to optimise efficiency, than people who need to be with the organisation. Even workers affective in the organisation are guided by concerning themselves with the well-being of the organisation and support the strategic direction of the organisation by displaying organisational citizenship behaviour.

In addition, Xerri and Brunetto (2013:3164) in their examination of nurses' organisational commitment, point out that organisational citizenship behaviour and innovative behaviour are the main concepts that influence employees' commitment in the workplace. They define organisational citizenship as an extra-contractual gain and which results from successful workplace relations, creating reciprocity in the workplace. It provides an atmosphere that encourages workers to support one another and the company, beyond

their intended work tasks (Xerri & Brunetto, 2013). These authors framed their research on the Social Exchange Theory (SET), which claims that when workers and leaders/managers establish good working relationships, a mutual agreement is formed that is advantageous not only to individuals but that benefits the organisation as a whole (Xerri & Brunetto, 2013)

Organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) are recognised as individual factors that can have a positive relationship with an organisation and gain a competitive advantage. These can be related to Katz's (1964) work, in which three categories are defined as important for the entire organisation of employees. Personnel must continue to work and engage in an organisation; employees must conduct themselves adequately to meet the specific requirements for employment (in-role behaviour); and employees must undertake innovative and spontaneous organisational work beyond what their job descriptions (special-role behaviours) are based on, while innovation is considered as a process (Xerri & Brunetto, 2013)

The conduct of organisational citizenship is a multi-dimensional contract where the first element, called the organisational focus of the OCB, is beneficial to the entire organisation and can be viewed as exceeding the anticipated role requirements. The second dimension is the individual-specific OCB and will benefit people in the organisation directly and indirectly (Xerri & Brunetto 2013:3167). Innovative behaviours, which often occur only by workers participating in the company, are considered risky operations. Findings support the importance of promoting and integrating effective workplace relationships to ensure that employees achieve higher levels of affective engagement and higher OCB levels. The additional advantage is that the organisation will likely benefit further from innovative behaviour, which will lead to better processes and improve organisational efficiency (Xerri & Brunetto, 2013).

Mclaggan *et al.* (2013:8) posit that transformational leaders are able to inspire and motivate their followers. Furthermore, employees who have more responsibilities and a supportive work environment, tend to feel that their organisation values their services and this, in turn, improves organisational commitment. Tiwari (2014:9) similarly argues that the organisation should provide adequate facilities, as the availability of inadequate equipment and adverse working conditions have been shown to influence employee commitment to stay with the organisation.

2.10 LEADERSHIP'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ENFORCED TASK-ORIENTATED BEHAVIOUR

Leadership is a two-faced commitment between management and staff to reach a common objective. This commitment enables leaders to influence the behaviour of their employees, while at the same time influencing the perceptions of their employees. In other words, the leader of the emotional intelligence gains emotionality in themselves and everyone else (Mayer, Caraso & Salovey 2000:274). This contributes to the desires of proper behaviour, which is integrated into the organisational environment. Effective leaders both concern themselves with the task and establish a personal relationship with their employees. Since there is a relatively direct correlation between staff, productivity, and the organisation's success, leaders need to maintain a positive working atmosphere to optimise and improve the efforts of their employees to achieve business efficiency (Holloway 2012:12). Experts who research compliance find that leadership is made up of two general forms of action. First, is the initiation of structured activity which involves job behaviour; the organisation of work; structuring work contents; the definition of responsibilities; and the organisation of work activities. Second, is consideration behaviour which is the behaviour of relationships and involves building respect, trust, camaraderie, and like-ability among leaders and their subordinates.

Project behaviour encourages goal achievement, and helps group members to achieve their goals, while partnerships allow others to feel at ease with one another, to one another and to the situation in which they are placed (Northouse 2016:72). It should be stressed that the core aim of behavioural strategies is to clarify how leaders combine these two forms of actions, in order to motivate followers to accomplish their goal. In addition, some research has shown that high actions are the best way of guiding others. In a comparative study of the State of Ohio and the University of Michigan's studies on leaders' behaviour, two types of leadership comportment were found in the Michigan study, namely: Employee Orientated, where a leader approaches subordinates with a strong emphasis on human relations. These leaders are interested in employees as human beings, value their individuality, and address their needs; a consideration that is similar to what the Ohio study identified. The second one is Production Orientation, where a leader stresses the technical and production aspects of a job. Workers are viewed as a means of getting work accomplished, which is indistinguishable from the Ohio Study structure of initiation. The approach to conduct reflects that leadership's behaviours need to be more targeted at tasks and at relationship levels, i.e., in certain cases, whereas

other relationships must be centred. Comparably, a few followers require leaders to guide, while others require leaders to show them a lot of encouragement and support (Northouse 2016:79).

Similarly, the study on the Impact of Educational Leadership on Institutional Performance in Pakistan, found it reasonable to conclude that Task behaviour and Orientated behaviour are not independent of each other, in the sense that one dimension of behaviour affects the other one. Therefore, behavioural dimensions of educational leaders are not exclusively either Relation Oriented or Task-Oriented (Faisal 2012:77). Northouse (2016:78) suggests Blake and Canse's (1991) leadership grid with five major leadership/management styles which are behaviour-based to manage or lead people/ employees, and they are:

- i. Authority and compliance management: a leader focuses more on tasks and needs and places less emphasis on people, except in so far as the instruments are available to get the job done. A leader is considered to control, be tough, hard, and powerfully driven.
- ii. Country club management: a leader has a low level of concern for the completion of the task and emphasises great attention to relationships between persons. They ensure that subordinates' personal and social needs are addressed and seek to create a favourable environment by being eager to assist, comfort, and dis-controversy.
- iii. Impoverish management: a leader is unconcerned with both the task and interpersonal relationships and is seen as noncommittal and apathetic.
- iv. Middle-of-the-road management: a leader who is compromising and finds balance by taking people into account but still emphasises job requirements. They avoid conflict by emphasising a moderate level of production and interpersonal relationships.
- v. Team management: a leader emphasises task and interpersonal relationships. A high degree of participation and teamwork is promoted.
- vi. Paternalism/Maternalism management: a leader is often described as fatherly or motherly towards their employees and regards the organisation as a family. A leader makes most of the decisions and rewards loyalty and obedience, while punishing non-conformity.
- vii. Opportunism management: a leader either adapts or changes their conduct to gain their personal advantage by prioritising their own interest. Whilst some perceive this leader as cynical and crafty, some regard them as tailor-made and strategic.

It is therefore important that an emotionally intelligent leader must recognise that there should be a sound relationship between them and their employees. Employees need to feel satisfied at work because this affects absenteeism; the number of complaints received; the punctuality of the employees; their commitment level, and employee well-being (Badenhorst 2011:42). The subordinates of a supervisor or a leader who shows interest in and values their subordinates, makes them feel important and they will consequently show more effective commitment towards their organisation and team (Mclaggan *et al.*, 2013:6).

2.11 TVET SECTOR IN SOUTH AFRICA

TVET, also formerly known in South Africa as Further Education Training (FET), seeks to function as a high quality, transformed and responsive system. The government of South Africa uses this system to promote the integration of education and training, as well as the enhancement of learner mobility and progression, to ultimately meet human resource needs. TVET systems are built to address these needs and to further promote personal, social, civic and economic development in their country. Their mission is to provide people with intermediate to high-level skills that would lay a foundation for higher education, facilitate the transition from school to work and develop autonomous life-long learners (UNESCO-UNEVOC 2014).

South Africa's 50 public TVET colleges were created in 2002, in terms of the TVET Act 98 of 1998, with the merging of former technical colleges, colleges of education and training centres into 50 TVET colleges. The reason for the merging of various former institutions into 50 larger TVET public colleges was to combine smaller and weaker colleges into stronger institutions, which would result in economies of scale and create capacity within colleges to teach more students and offer a wider range of programmes (HRDC 2021).

TVET translates to Technical and Vocational Education and Training. The student receives education and training with a view towards a specific range of jobs, employment or entrepreneurial possibilities. The TVET website states, "Under certain conditions, some students may qualify for admission to a University of Technology to continue their studies at a higher level in the same field of study as they were studying at the TVET College." Different courses are offered at the different campuses per TVET college.

2.11.1 TVET Colleges in the Free State Province

a) Flavious Mareka TVET College

Flavius Mareka is a TVET College which is a product of a merge of colleges in 2000. The college is named after a prominent figure in educational, cultural and political circles Mr. Flavius Mareka. Their mission is to provide responsive education and training programmes that will contribute to the overall development of their students. The college provides learnerships and skills programs, bridging courses, report 191 (NATED) courses, and National Certificate Vocational (NCV) courses. With campuses in (i) Sasolburg campus; (ii) Kroonstad campus; and Mphohadi campus.

b) Goldfields TVET College

Goldfields is a TVET College that was established in 2002 and named after a region of the Free State Province that is renowned for its gold deposits and mining activities. Their vision is to be an institution of first choice, excellence and a cornerstone of the country's skills development. With campuses in (i) Welkom Campus; (ii) Skills Centre; (iii) Tosa Campus; and (iv) Meloding Satellite Campus.

c) Maluti TVET College

Maluti TVET College aims to inspire entrepreneurship and employability to transform lives. A wide variety of courses are offered at their campuses. Maluti TVET College consists of 8 campuses. They are very concerned about their students and therefore offer Health-Education and Related Services. With campuses in (i) Qwa-qwa; (ii) Harrismith and (iii) Bethlehem.

d) Motheo TVET College

Motheo TVET College offers a variety of courses at their six campuses. Student support services are available to all students, including academic support. They also provide assistance to their students with bursary applications. Their mission is to be a visionary and innovative provider of excellence, responsive to the needs of the community through establishing and maintaining effective partnerships with stakeholders. With campuses in (i) Bloemfontein; (ii) Botshabelo; (iii) Thaba-Nchu; (iv) Koffiefontein; and (v) Zastron.

2.12 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarised the literature review on the impact of the emotional intelligence of a leader on job satisfaction; enhancement of teamwork; organisational commitment; fostering task-orientated behaviour and staff morale. As well as some reflections on the TVET Sector in South Africa, with specific reference to the Free State Province. The next chapter will concentrate on the research methodology adopted to carry through the primary objective of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the literature study on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a leader and its impact on the subordinates' sense of teamwork; job satisfaction; organisational commitment; enforced task orientated behaviour; and staff morale, in general.

In order to establish the impact of an emotionally intelligent leader on staff morale, this study was undertaken in the Technical Vocational and Training (TVET) Colleges in the Free State Province. This chapter discusses the research method; design; sampling methodology; questionnaire development; research variables and measures; data collection, and analysis procedures.

Research refers to a systematic design procedure of gathering and logically analysing data to address specific research questions. On the other hand, methodology can be described as the knowledge acquisition theory of the procedure, approaches, or ways in which collected data offer relevant evidence based on the construction of knowledge concerning the phenomenon under investigation.

Research methods are classified into three categories, including qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods research, each with a distinct underlying approach. Quantitative methods usually focus on predicting, explaining, and utilising a larger sample, while qualitative methods emphasise exploring, recounting, and utilising a relatively smaller sample. Mixed-methods is the combination of both the qualitative and quantitative methods. These methods are briefly discussed in the subsequent section.

3.2 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

According to Burns and Bush (2006:202), quantitative research involves using structured questions whereby the answers are prearranged, and a vast number of participants is engaged. It is a research method that explores elements that differ in terms of quantity, including size, period, amount, or magnitude. Some part of the quantitative research

process entails the utilisation of different approaches of evaluating variables to define their size or durability (Gravetter & Forzano 2016:25).

3.2.1 Characteristics of quantitative research

There exists a variety of ways that the quantitative method can be characterised (Cozby 2007:109). Reddy and Acharyulu (2011:68) characterise quantitative research as the collection of data through a more structured research instrument. This type of research tends to emphasise a particular behaviour that can be quantified with ease; it normally examines large samples that represent a populace; the study can be replicated, and the inferences are both subjective and grounded in a statistical analysis of the data.

3.2.2 Designs in quantitative research

All the study designs utilised in quantitative research can be categorised by evaluating them from three diverse perspectives (Kumar 2014:134). These perspectives include how many times the investigator interacts with the target population, the study's position period; and the investigative nature of the research. Designs centred on how many times the researcher interacts with the target populace can be categorised into three categories: longitudinal, cross-sectional, and before-and-after studies.

3.2.3 The cross-sectional study design

The cross-sectional design is commonly applied in the social sciences. It suits the research which aims at evaluating a phenomenon's prevalence and attitude of a population (Kumar 2014:134). Furthermore, this design is very easy as the researcher chooses what they want to examine and recognise as the target populace, determine the sample, and contact the prospective research subjects to collect the prerequisite data (Kumar, 2014). In addition, cross-sectional design studies evaluate the units from the study participants at a particular point (Burns & Bush 2010:150).

In the current research, the participants were identified and chosen from the targeted populace and then surveyed, concerning the effect of the emotional intelligence of a leader in TVET colleges in the Free State Province of the Republic of SA.

3.2.4 Longitudinal study design

This is a research design that is utilised in studies carried out on one group of people, and it is investigated for some months or even years; data associated with the characteristic(s) under examination are gathered several times (Leedy & Ormrod 2001:194). Burns and Bush (2010:150) also indicate that this design repetitively assesses the same sample groups of a target populace over a prolonged time period.

3.2.5 The before-and-after study design

This is utilised when measuring the variation in a situation, attitude, problem, or issue. The before-and-after study design is attained by initially examining the predicted variable; then the predictor variable of the study, and lastly taking the predicted variable's second measurement (Burns & Bush 2010:158).

In the current research, the cross-sectional design was utilised since the investigator was in apposition to gather data required at a particular time, and there was no need to look for people who would possibly relocate to other places (Leedy & Ormrod 2001:194).

3.3 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

This methodological approach entails gathering, analysing, and interpreting data through the observation of what individuals say or do. Any research that is carried out utilising the observation approach or unstructured questionnaires can be categorised in this methodological approach (Burns & Bush 2006:202). In addition, Salkind (2009:209) posits that a qualitative study approach is a social or behavioural science study that examines the practices behind human behaviour by utilising procedures, including interviews, case studies, and surveys.

3.3.1 Characteristics of qualitative research

Cozby (2007:109) ascertains that there are several methods through which qualitative research can be characterised. In this approach, data are collected using an instrument that is less structured (Reddy & Acharyulu 2011:63). This kind of study concentrates on a population that behaves in its natural setting and uses their words to narrate their world. Moreover, it stresses gathering comprehensive information from comparatively fewer

respondents or within a restricted setting. Usually, its conclusion is grounded in the explanation obtained by the investigator. Qualitative study methodology utilises an open systems view, such that any data collected are not hypothesised. The advantage therefore, is that the respondents reveal the richness of human behaviour (Dunn 2010:42).

A qualitative study having been examined for reliability and validity can be clearly defined and recognised (Kumar 2014:132). Qualitative methodology does not either possess these qualities or exhibit them to a lesser degree. Its minimum specificity, preciseness and the structural depth are not similar. This research utilised a positive paradigm; positivism is connected with quantitative studies. The process of a quantitative study was followed, and numeric explanations of trends, opinions, or attitudes of a target populace were provided by examining a sample of it. The researcher obtained inferences from the population of TVET Colleges in the Free State (Creswell 2014:155-156).

3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

It is the plan or strategy of how a study will be carried out or basically a comprehensive plan that outlines how observations will be made. The research design allows the researcher to describe how the respondents will be engaged, with the aim of reaching conclusions concerning the research problem (McMillan 2008:11). It specifies procedures and techniques for data collection, measurement, and data analysis, always looks at particularly vital issues, such as the target populace, the sample size, and the kind of information to be collected from the research participants (Creswell, 2014; Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee 2006:71; Sullivan 2001:255).

The research design adopted for this research is the survey design, with the the research being descriptive in nature. In the descriptive analysis, the technique is either to describe the features of the observed phenomenon or to investigate potential associations between two or more variables. Furthermore, it explores the case as it is, without modifying or changing the circumstance under review or assesses the cause and effect relationship (Leedy & Ormrod 2010:182-187).

The leader's EI is the predictor variable, while staff morale is the predicted variable. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:224) define a predictor variable as a probable cause of something, and a predicted variable as the element that is possibly impacted by the

predictor variable. Blanche, Durrheim, and Painter (2006:558) further add that a predicted variable registers the impacts of manipulation or the variation of a predictor variable.

3.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLE FRAME

More often than not, it becomes difficult and very expensive to examine the whole targeted populace of the study; thus, the necessity for scholars to utilise sampling methods to save resources and time. Population is the collection of the items from which the sample is chosen. Basically, it is the universe from which the sample will be chosen (Creswell, 2014). The target population of this study estimated at around 510 comprises all top, middle, and lower management levels, and academic and support staff from the four TVET colleges, namely, Motheo TVET (Motheo District/Region); Goldfields TVET (Lejweleputswa); Maluti TVET (Maluti-a-Phofung); and Flavious Mareka (Fezile Dabi) TVET colleges, all from the Free State Province of SA. The entire TVET Colleges in the Free State serve as unit of analysis.

3.5.1 Sampling frame

The sampling frame comprises the actual list of all sampling units that are eligible (Hair *et al.*, 2008:129). Therefore, it comprises a list of the population elements from which the sample is chosen. This study's sampling frame was composed of a list of employees of TVET Colleges in the Free State Province of the Republic of South Africa.

3.5.2 Sample size

Different researches utilise varying sample sizes and the following considerations are important to sample size: i) demographic size; (ii) funding; (iii) representativeness; (iv) sample size; (v) available time; (vi) populace characteristics; (vii) sampling error; (viii) data analysis; (ix) statistical precision; (x) non-response factor; and (xi) time available (Struwig & Stead 2001:118; Blance, Durrheim & Painter 2006:49).

An additional criterion for deciding the size of the sample is that it should allow a robust and sound statistical analysis to be carried out (Hair, Wolfibarger, Ortinau & Bush, 2008). Hair *et al.* (2008) further points out that at least 30 observations are satisfactory for the formation of statistical computing. Therefore, it is concluded that the least number of participants for each study should not go below 30 observations.

This means 131 or more measurements/surveys are needed to have a confidence level of 95% that the real value is within $\pm 5\%$ of the measured/surveyed value. In this study 188 was reported which is far more than 131 (<http://www.calculator.net/sample-size-calculator.html>).

3.6 SAMPLE PROCEDURE

Blance, Durrheim and Painter (2006:133) define sampling technique as the procedure of choosing the items to be studied. In accordance with positivist epistemology, the current study adopts probability sampling. Samples were taken from sampling frames containing a list of all TVET Colleges in the province of the Free State. Stratified random sampling technique was adopted. Notably, stratified sampling is a probability sampling strategy in which the populace is subdivided into mutually exhaustive and exclusive homogeneous subgroups. Each item is selected independently of each group (Creswell 2014).

3.7 INSTRUMENTATION

This is a tool for evaluating variables and is utilised to collect and monitor data for measurement, making of decisions, and comprehension (Colton & Covert 2007:5). Kumar (2014:222) reveals that this is a vital aspect of the research since it comprises the study's output and input. Constructs of each instrument are the questions posed to the research participants and the answers obtained become the raw data that are analysed to seek answers to the research questions.

3.7.1 The questionnaire

Most researchers agree that a questionnaire serves as a vehicle to ask the questions that the investigators want the participants of the study to respond to (Burns & Bush 2006:300). On the same note, Mustafa (2010:193) opines that a questionnaire is an instrument for obtaining answers to the questions from the respondents, who are required to fill in the questionnaires.

3.7.1.1 *Advantages of a questionnaire*

According to Du Toit (2011:71), the most commonly used tool for collecting primary data for research purposes is the questionnaire. Cameron and Price (2009:334) further

elucidate that research subjects perceive the use of a questionnaire as a suitable method in which the response rate can be improved by making the answers to the questions easier. Moreover, they can be circulated with less cost to several respondents and, in return, provide a lot of information to analyse and include in the final report.

3.7.1.2 *Disadvantages of a questionnaire*

Questionnaires are designed in such a way that they cannot prompt the respondents' answers (Bryman & Bell 2011:34). This implies that questionnaires do not allow the researcher to ask other questions that may be intended for seeking additional information or further clarification. Bryman (2012:235) further claims that the use of questionnaires is limited to literate respondents as it cannot be used where research subjects are illiterate or whose facility with English is limited; therefore, they may not be able to respond to the questionnaire.

There are various ways suggested by Cameron and Price (2009) that can be utilised to motivate participants to complete a questionnaire:

- The initial impression of the questionnaire's front sheet or the envelope must be a good one; it should capture participants' attention causing the research participants to want to answer the questionnaire.
- The covering letter must be engaging, informative, professional, aesthetic, correct, and succinct.
- In cases where the questionnaire is to be handed out, a summary of the covering letter content should be inserted on the front page of the questionnaire due to the following reasons:
 - To ensure credibility of both the researcher and the research.
 - To inform the respondents of what the investigator wishes them to do, so that they can complete the questionnaire as fast as possible.
 - A detailed covering letter would remind the respondent of the identity of the researcher; what the study is all about; the guarantee of confidentiality and anonymity; what the questionnaire entails; and the logistical process.

In order to minimise the drawbacks of the questionnaire, the investigator must use closed-ended questions which are simpler to answer. The questionnaire should be limited to no more than 31 questions to mitigate the possibility of mental exhaustion overcoming

the respondent (Bryman & Bell 2011:232).

3.7.1.3 *Characteristics of a good questionnaire*

Wiid and Diggins (2009:172) aver that a questionnaire must satisfy each of the objectives: to gather the appropriate data needed for the specified problem; to make sure that the data obtained are comparable; to eliminate biases; to draw and inspire participants to engage in the survey; to enable the research subjects to be truthful and reliable in their response, and to promote the task of data collection.

3.7.1.4 *Types of questionnaire*

There are various approaches for requesting the research subjects to respond to the open-ended questions (Gravetter & Ferzano 2016:331). Open-ended questions, commonly referred to as non-standardised questions, allow the participant to use their own words. Closed-ended questions, commonly referred to as uniform questions, enable the participants to choose from the set of responses suggested (David, Carole & Sutton 2004:163).

3.7.1.5 *Construction and administration of the questionnaire*

The guidelines for the questionnaire construction cover both the type of data, time, and cost associated with the data collection, and the degree of accuracy (Kapoor & Kulshrestha 2010:91). The following nine steps are involved in questionnaire development:

- Deciding on the nature of the information required;
- Defining the target population and choosing the most appropriate methods of reaching your target population;
- Deciding on the content of the questionnaire constructs;
- Developing questionnaire wording;
- Organising questions into a meaningful format and order;
- Checking the questionnaire length;
- Checking the questionnaire's physical appearance;
- Pre-testing the questionnaire; and
- Developing the final survey form.

The above-mentioned steps were followed during the development of the questionnaire which was used for this study.

The questionnaire was sub-divided into seven parts: Part A dealt with the demographics of the respondents. This part had six questions, while Sections B to F (questions 7-31) were closed questions for the research subjects to complete, by expressing their personal attitudes and perceptions about the items.

The most effective technique for improving the response rate is notifying prospective participants in the study in advance, since they might recall the previous contact and conclude that the investigator is not a stranger (Churchill & Brown 2007:410). Moreover, the respondents may require thinking about the problem to be looked into in advance. The object of the first meeting of this study prior to the survey was to request approval and to control the purpose of the inquiry and clarify the data collection instrument and procedure (i.e. how and why they were preferred).

This phase was preceded by the presentation of questionnaires at the locations of the designated college and the signing of the consent document. Two weeks later, the self-administered questionnaires were sent to all participants and were taken back one week later. This administrative process was carried out to obtain a high response rate (Creswell 2014:161). In the current study, a structured (closed-ended) questionnaire was employed to gather data and more information about the phenomena and to allow respondents to give their opinions concerning the same phenomena, in order to give a balanced view of the findings.

3.8 SELECTION AND TRAINING OF RESEARCH ASSISTANTS

Research assistants were TVET College personnel assistants to managers/ coordinators and/ or unemployed graduates depending on their availability.

3.9 ENSURING RESEARCH CREDIBILITY

The study's credibility mainly relied on the validity and the reliability of the data collection instrument. Validity can be defined as the extent to which a research tool serves the intent for which it is meant (Hair *et al.*, 2008:356; Cooper & Schindler 2001:280). According to Cooper and Schindler (2011), there are three differing validity types:

convergent, content, and construct validity. Content validity is the extent to which the whole domain of the construct or subject of interest is appropriately sampled. Content validity was ensured for this study by covering constructs of the leaders with EI and employee morale through the use of a tool on two satellite campuses of the Motheo TVET College, which were not selected in the main study and could be answered by respondents within a given time.

3.9.1 Convergent validity

Convergent validity is the extent to which various measures of the same constructs are greatly correlated (Hair *et al.*, 2008:339). This form of validity shows the success of a tool, either in estimating or predicting outcomes. For the current study, a prediction of the employees' demographics and the leaders' emotional intelligence impact on employees' morale were performed through a pilot study.

3.9.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is the extent to which investigators measure what they aim to evaluate and to which the appropriate identification of the predictor and predicted variables were used in the study (Hair *et al.*, 2008:351; Kumar 2011:181). Although there are many instruments to quantify the different constructs in the sample, the measurement instrument used was mainly based on the literature, with few modifications to the existing ones.

3.9.3 Reliability of the research instrument

Reliability is the degree to which the dimensions taken using a given tool can be repeated (Hair *et al.*, 2008:181; Kumar 2011:181). It can also be defined as an instrument's ability to produce identical findings at varying times for the same set of research subjects. As such, the greater the degree of reliability and consistency of the instrument, the higher the reliability of the study (Kumar 2005:157).

3.10 PILOT STUDY

This is a small version of full-scale research and the correspondent of feasibility research. The pilot study is aimed at pre-testing the research instrument and improves the chances of the study's success (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, the questionnaire refinement makes it easier to be completed by the research subjects. According to Saunders *et al.*

(2003:308), the pilot study also assists in establishing the reliability and the validity of the questionnaire. The pilot study was carried out at one of the satellite campuses of the TVET college in the Free State, which did not form part of the final study. Twenty questionnaires were distributed. The pilot study results required minimal adjustment and reformulation of some items to avoid ambiguities, notably, further revealed an acceptable Cronbach Alpha figure of 0.877.

3.11 THE STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in the Free State Province of the Republic of SA. A pictorial form of the area of study is shown below, so as to give a clear picture of the area covered by the study. The districts and towns included Bloemfontein; Botshabelo in the Motheo District; Zastron and Koffiefontein in the Gariep District; Welkom in the Lejweleputswa District; Witsieshoek and Bethlehem in the Thabo Mofutsanyane District; and Kroonstad and Sasolburg in Fezile Dabi District.

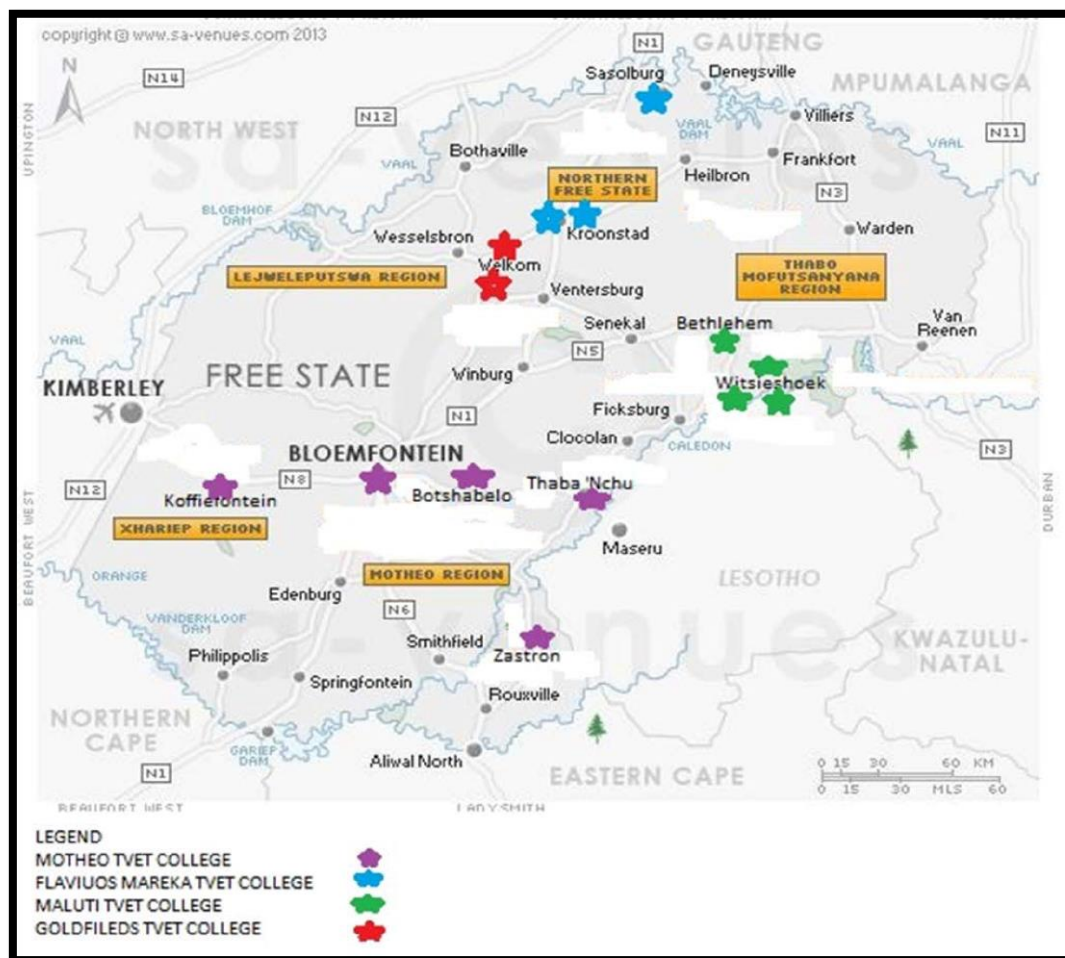


Figure 3.1: Geographical map of the study area

3.12 DATA COLLECTION

Researchers need to describe how they gather data (Dusick 2011:7). The processes of gathering data and the motives of a specific data gathering process must be comprehensively and well stated. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2010:188), a survey study typically adopts either a face-to-face interview or a written questionnaire. Creswell (2014) defined a survey as a data-gathering approach whereby data are collected from participants by having them answer statements so as to define the present status of the target populace with respect to one or more variables. A survey in the form of a structured questionnaire containing a rating scale was utilised to gather (n=142) data randomly from the upper, middle, and lower academic and support staff of the four Free State Province TVET colleges; specifically, Motheo (n=48); Goldfields (n=28); Maluti (n=39) and Flavius Mareka (n=27); TVET colleges.

This questionnaire is partitioned into six parts, i.e., Section A: demographics of assessed respondents; B: level of job satisfaction; C: teamwork enhancement; D: organisational commitment; E: task-oriented conduct of leaders among employees; and F: the relationship between leaders' EI and employees' morale.

Dusick (2011:7) postulates that researchers must specify if they have been permitted to gather data. In this study, after permission was granted by the relevant authorities, qualified assistants were assigned to colleges, and the questionnaires distributed. The participants were informed on how to respond, and finally, the completed questionnaires were collected.

There are different types of questions, the first is open-ended questions, they address the questions how? and what? The second is the closed-ended questions. This type is where the optional answers are structured to capture the strength of feelings and ultimately, the multiple-choice questions. The respondent is requested to offer one opinion that expresses their opinion correctly. A Likert rate scale was used with the closed-ended questions, as described above, where the response choice was designed to gather the intensity of feelings.

3.13 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis relies on two factors about the variables to be evaluated. First, are the

variables going to be independent or linked to one or more variables? Second, what measurement standard was used for the measurement of the variable? (Churchill, Brown & Suter 2010:422). The aim of analysing data is to obtain a more overall comprehension of it by examining in depth the thing that is being studied, with the purpose of either explaining its constituent elements, describing how it operates or deducing what it implies (Denscombe 2010:235).

The usual initial step in any analysis of data is data description. It offers a meaningful initial analysis of the data, even when the researcher's ultimate issue is inferential in nature (Trustin *et al.*, 2010:522). Together with the one chosen for this report, the following statistical methods for the analysis of data are briefly explained.

3.14 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Statistical methods are utilised in analysing quantitative data (Blance *et al.*, 2006:188).

3.14.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive analysis offers initial understandings into the essence of the answers received, as expressed in the distribution of values for each phenomenon under investigation (Creswell, 2014). It also helps to recognise errors in coding, and with tables and graphs, the data capture process provides a means of displaying the data straightforwardly. It offers a summary measure of a normal or an average response, as well as the degree of variation in response of a provided variable, it offers an initial opening for assessing if distributional assumptions of succeeding statistical tests have high chances of being satisfactory (Trustin *et al.*, 2010:523).

It is important to organise and summarise the vital data found, when vast amounts of data have been obtained. Such summary measures provide a user with the chance to recognise profiles, relationships, trends, and patterns within the data (Wegner 2012:7). Before one can begin to understand explanatory analysis, the descriptive technique is essential to create associations (Baikie 2004:258). Simultaneously, patterns between variables may give some insights or possible clarifications of a social phenomenon and may encourage making predictions about it.

The initial step in descriptive analysis entails constructing frequency distribution that

requires constructing a table that indicates how frequently the various variable's values are present in the sample in absolute and relative terms (percentages) (Trustin *et al.*, 2010:523). Churchill *et al.* (2010:425) suggested that the use of percentages together with the raw data for frequency analysis is often wise and helps readers understand the results. However, graphs with bar and pie charts, probably being the best, can be used to represent data instead of depending on frequency tables only, to explain the data (Trustin *et al.*, 2010:529).

3.14.2 Inferential statistics

This analysis is utilised to generalise the results acquired in the populace from which the sample was taken randomly. Inferential statistics is only necessary if a sample is taken randomly and a very high response rate is achieved (Blaikie 2004:158). Inferential statistics is the statistical field that enables managers to comprehend the image of the populace of a random variable with regard to the sample evidence (Wegner 2012:7).

3.14.3 Chi-square

For association independence, the Chi-square test is used to assess if significant associations exist between two variables. It tests the difference between the expected and the observed frequencies. A small variance indicates that the null hypothesis has a high chance of being accepted and vice versa (Wegner 2012:251-256). Usually, a chi-squared test is utilised for contingency tables, and it permits deciding how confident the researcher is, in that there is an association between the two variables in the population (Bryman 2012:348).

3.14.4 P-value

This is the likelihood that the observed sample statistics of the null hypothesised populace parameter can be expected to be correct. A p-value that approaches zero shows a low likelihood of observing the statistics of the sample if the null hypothesis were true, thus offering a strong indication to reject the hypothesis. A p-value that approaches one, shows a high chance of observing the statistics of the sample; thus, there is a strong sign for accepting the hypothesis (Wegner 2012:207).

3.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Overall, the chapter outlined the components of the research methodology that were adopted by the study. The study's methodology followed the positivism epistemology. The chapter described the research design; target population; sampling frame; sampling procedure and sample size; the formulation of a questionnaire; a pilot study; the administration of the questionnaire, and data collection and data analysis.

The following chapter will describe the empirical results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research method; design; sampling methodology; questionnaire development; research variables and measures; data collection; and the analysis procedures. This chapter will analyse and interpret the results of the study. A survey, i.e. a questionnaire was distributed to collect data from the employees of TVET colleges in the Free State Province.

The main empirical research objective was to determine the impact of emotional intelligence (EI) of FS TVET college leaders (i.e. teaching and non-teaching staff) on staff morale. The following hypotheses were developed to address the formulated research objective.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and staff morale.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's inclination towards teamwork.

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's perceived organisational commitment.

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates.

The next section presents a detailed report of the statistical analysis of the data collected, with an emphasis on the sample size and the technique employed

4.2 DATA AND ITS INTERPRETATION

4.2.1 Sample size

Table 4.1 indicates that the majority of 32% (n=61) of respondents were from TVET colleges located in Mangaung Metropolitan municipality, followed by one from Maluti-a-

Phofung district municipality with 27% (n=50). On the other hand, Lejweleputswa district municipality 21% (n=39) and Fezile Dabi district municipality 20% (n= 38) had the fewest respondents from their respective TVET colleges. This is consistent with the population size and density of the two, as they command the biggest in terms of landmass and number of colleges spread within the Free State Province.

Table 4.1: List of data collection sites

TVET COLLEGE PER DISTRICT	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	VALID PERCENT	CUMULATIVE PERCENT
Maluti-a-Phofung	50	27	27	27
Fezile Dabi	38	20	47	47
Motheo	61	32	79	79
Lejweleputswa	39	21	100	100.0
Total	188	100.0	100.0	

The next section will focus on the results that are divided into two sections, namely, demographic and inferential statistics, as applied to each hypothesis.

4.2.2 Demographic variables

Figure 4.1 shows that of the majority of the research participants were male (97, 61.8%) with woman making up 38.2% of the research sample.

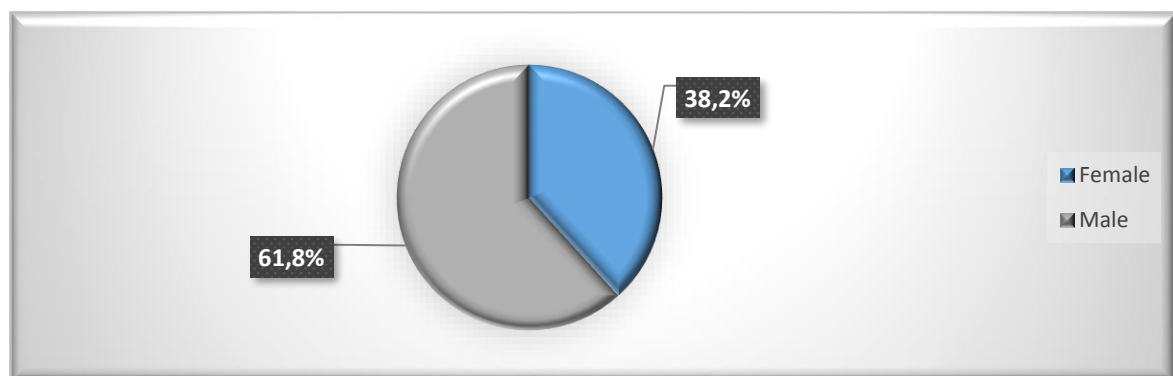


Figure 4.1: Gender distribution of respondents

Figure 4.2 shows that most of the respondents were in the 31 to 40 years (32.9%) and the 41 to 50 years (34.8%) age groups but the other lower and higher age groups were also fairly represented.

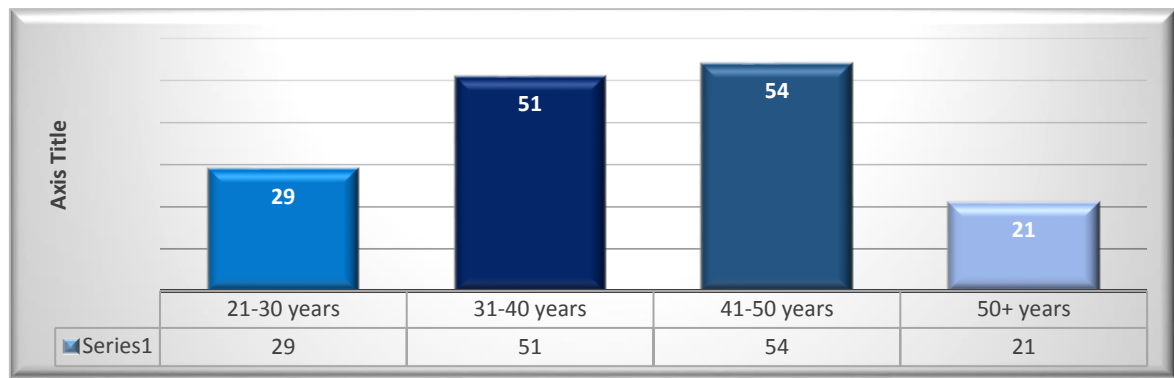


Figure 4.2: Age distribution of respondents

The results in Figure 4.3 show that most of the respondents were Africans (95.5%) with Whites making up the other 4.5%.

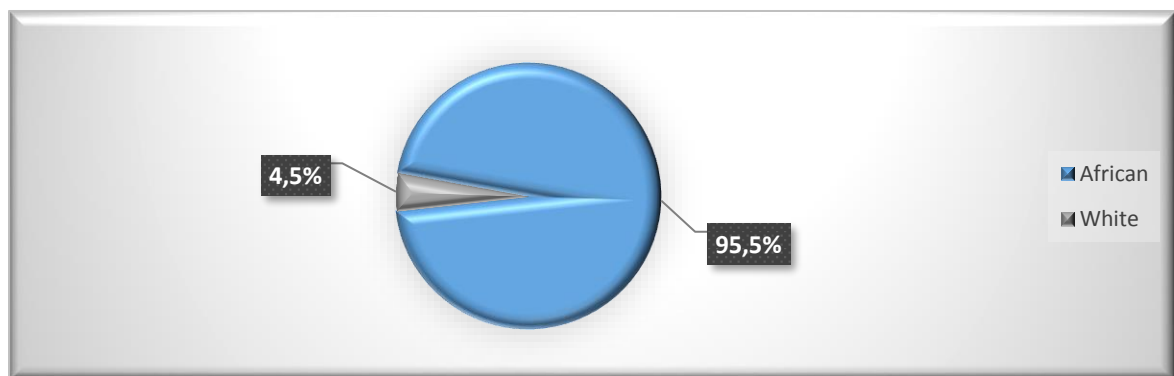


Figure 4.3: Race distribution of respondents

Results in Figure 4.4 show that 44.6% of the respondents had degrees with 33.8% having diplomas. Very few of the respondents had qualifications lower than a diploma with 9.6% having certificates, 5.1% having matric and only 7% having below matric qualifications. The study sample is thus fairly educated.

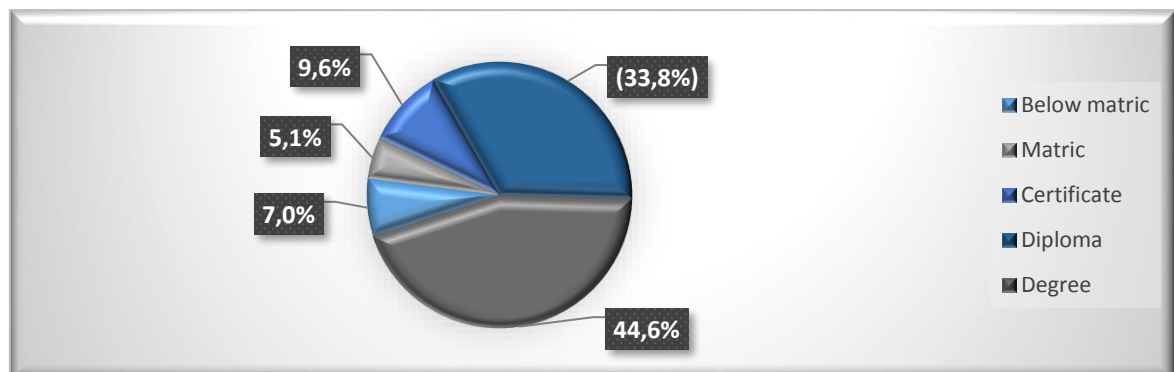


Figure 4.4: Distribution of level of education of respondents

Results in Figure 4.5 show that most of the respondents had minimal experience working

in their college, as 49% indicated that they had worked for their college for between one and five years. There is an even distribution of years of experience over five years.

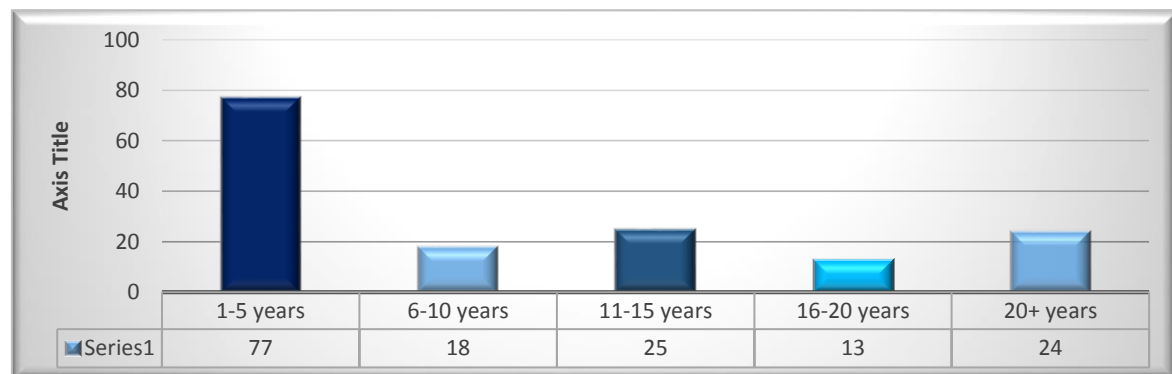


Figure 4.5: Distribution of work experience of the study sample

Results in Figure 4.6 show that most of the respondents (43.9%) were in lower management positions, such as coordinators, supervisors and senior lecturers, with academic staff making up 26.8%. There was an even distribution of respondents in the other categories, such as middle management (8.9%), senior management (5.1%), support staff (7.6%) and other unspecified categories making up the remaining 7.6%.

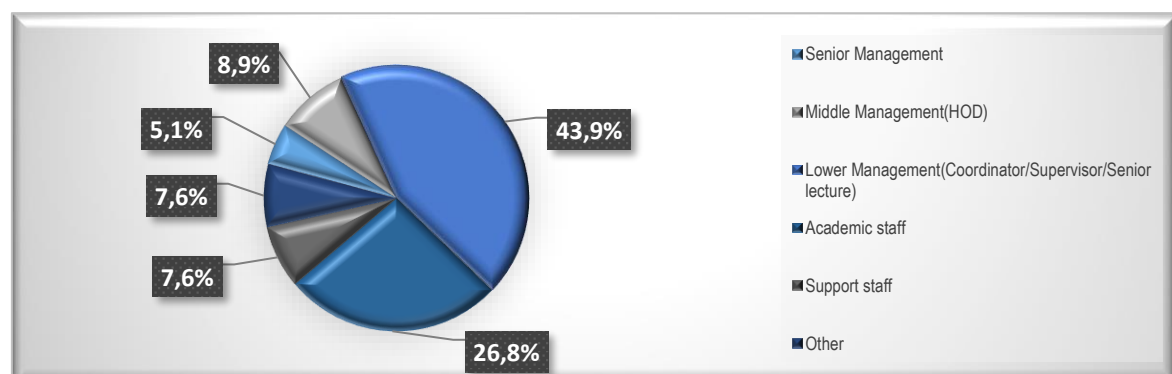


Figure 4.6: Distribution of positions of respondents in the college

4.2.3 Reliability analysis

The study has six constructs from which variables will be constructed. The effect of a leader's emotional intelligence (questions 15, 17, 18, 23 & 30) on five employee related measurements was to be investigated. The five constructs of employee related measurements were namely employee's job satisfaction (questions 7, 8, 9, 10 & 11); enhancement of team work (questions 12, 13, 14 & 16); perceived organisational commitment (questions 19, 20 & 21); fostering task-oriented behaviour (questions 22, 24, 25 & 26), and leader and staff morale (questions 27, 28, 29 & 31).

Before calculating variables to represent these constructs it was necessary to assess the level of internal concordance among the items falling under each construct. This level of agreement was measured by the Cronbach's Alpha statistic which gave the level of agreement or reliability of the items in measuring the intended variable. A reliability measurement will have a Cronbach's Alpha statistic of at least 0.700 (Taber 2018). If the Cronbach's Alpha statistic is less than 0.700 then it might be necessary to relook at the items under the construct for future studies. It is also possible to identify items that are not in agreement with others and these can be left out in the calculation of the intended variable.

The items of the construct of employee's job satisfaction (questions 7, 8, 9, 10 & 11) were positively worded, except question 9 (My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making). Because question 9 was negatively worded, it was necessary to reverse its code so that it was aligned with the other questions. This would help with the internal consistency or reliability of the items when they were combined together to come up with an overall measure or variable. When statements on a single construct were stated in different directions; that is, some high scores echoed positive sentiments in some items while echoing negative sentiments in other items, it was not possible to achieve internal consistency (Frey 2018). Before the items could be combined into a single measurement, the items had to be in the same direction. To achieve this, negatively worded items had to be reverse coded; that is, the highest score had to assume the smallest value and the lowest had to take the highest. On the 4-point Likert scale, which was used in this study, 4 was reverse coded as 1, and 1 as 4, 3 as 2, and 2 as 3.

Table 4.2: Reliability analysis

CONSTRUCT	NUMBER OF ITEMS	CRONBACH'S ALPHA	COMMENT
Employee's job satisfaction	5	0.673	Moderate internal consistency
Enhancement of team work	4	0.784	High internal consistency
Organisational commitment	3	0.678	Moderate internal consistency
Fostering task-oriented behaviour	4	0.875	High internal consistency
Leader and staff morale	4	0.844	High internal consistency
Leader's emotional intelligence	5	0.840	High internal consistency
Overall questionnaire	25	0.933	High internal consistency

The results in Table 4.2 show that all the constructs of Enhancement of team work; Fostering task-oriented behaviour; Leader and staff morale, and Leader's emotional

intelligence had Cronbach's Alpha statistics greater than 0.700 which meant the items under each of these constructs had adequate internal consistency. The constructs of Employee's job satisfaction (Cronbach's Alpha=0.673) and Organisational commitment (Cronbach's Alpha=0.678) had reliability statistics very close to the acceptable minimum; thus, they could be deemed to have had acceptable internal consistence.

4.2.4 Descriptive analysis of the research constructs

This section presents a description of all six constructs without examining their cross-relationships. Before relational and inferential statistics can be carried out, it is important to provide a basic description of how the research participants responded to the questions/items under each construct.

4.2.4.1 Descriptive analysis of staff morale

The construct of staff morale has four items with statistics presented in Table 4.3 below. The results show that staff morale had fairly high scores when compared to previously discussed constructs. There were fairly high levels of respect as shown by 66.2% of the respondents who indicated that they felt respected and valued by their team leader/supervisor at work.

Table 4.3: Descriptive statistics of task-oriented behaviour

STAFF MORALE		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STD DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
27. I feel respected and valued by my team leader/supervisor at work.	Count	53	104	2.65	0.85	0.667
	%	33.8%	66.2%			
28. My leader/supervisor makes me feel safe in taking calculated risks when doing my job.	Count	55	102	2.72	0.72	0.838
	%	35.0%	65.0%			
29. My leader/supervisor always inspires/motivates us to perform better.	Count	60	97	2.73	0.76	0.910
	%	38.2%	61.8%			
31. My leader or supervisor invites and value the inputs of subordinates.	Count	58	99	2.72	0.85	0.895
	%	36.9%	63.1%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.844		

The results also show that 65% indicated that their leader/supervisor made them feel safe in taking calculated risks at their workplace. The majority of the respondents (61.8%) felt that their leader/supervisor always inspired or motivated them to perform better and 63.1% indicated that their supervisors invited and valued the inputs of subordinates.

The construct has high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.844) and the items work coherently and reliably together to measure the intended variable.

4.2.4.2 *Leader's EI and staff morale by gender*

Figure 4.7 shows that Leader's EI and staff morale did not differ significantly between males and females ($F=0.101$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.751$).

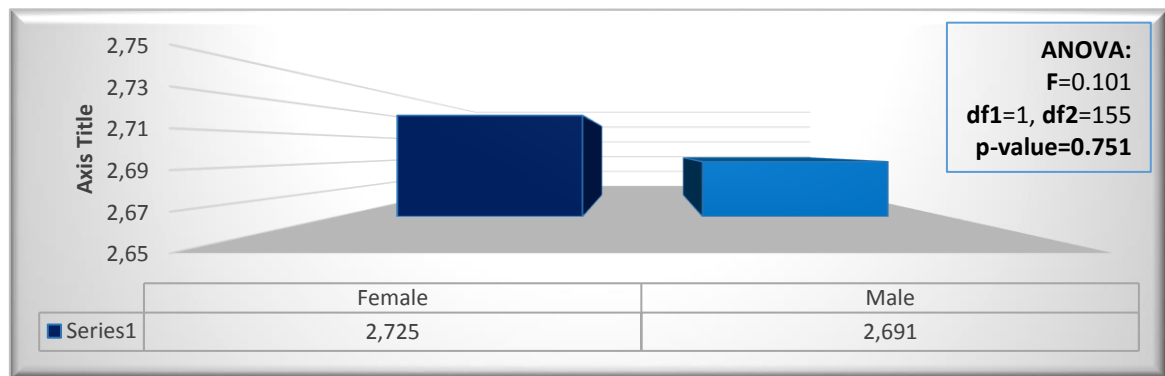


Figure 4.7: Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by gender

4.2.4.3 *Leader's EI and staff morale by age*

Figure 4.8 shows that age had no significant effect on leader's EI and staff morale ($F=0.621$, $df_1=3$, $df_2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.603$).

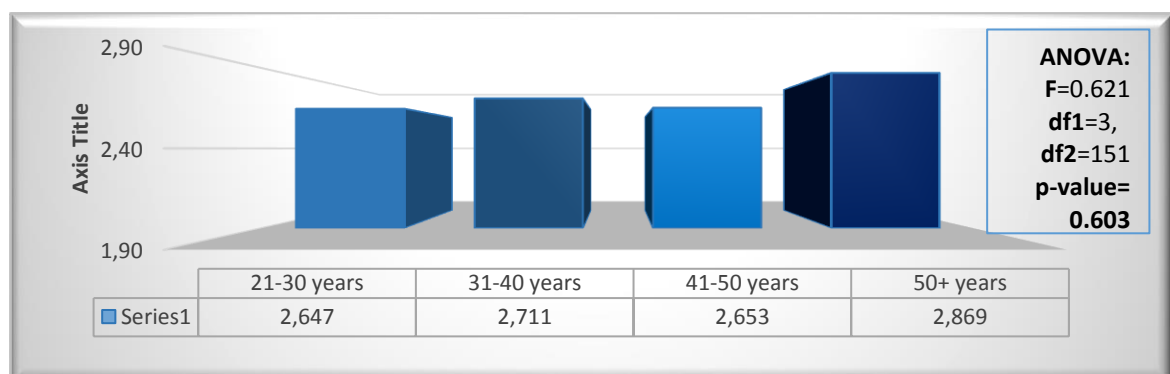


Figure 4.8: Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by age

4.2.4.4 *Leader's EI and staff morale by race*

Figure 4.9 shows that race had no significant effect on leader's EI and staff morale ($F=1.557$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.214$).

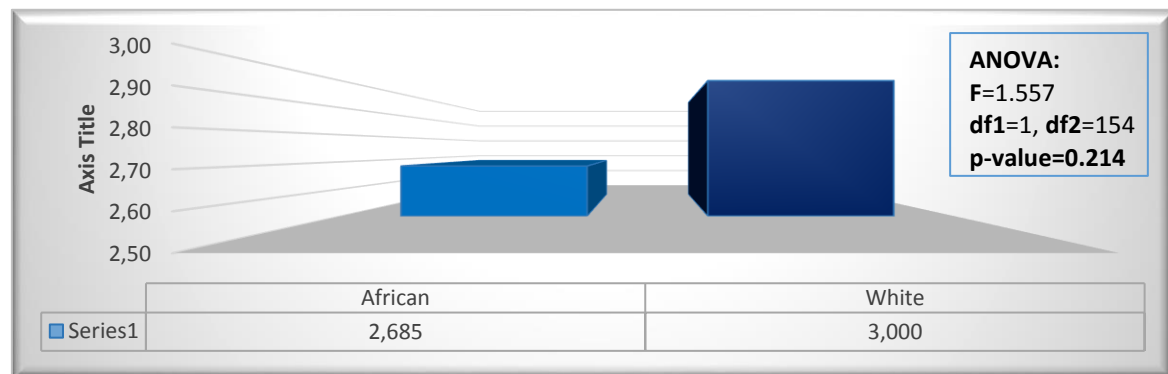


Figure 4.9: Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by race

4.2.4.5 *Leader's EI and staff morale by educational qualification*

Figure 4.10 shows that qualification had a significant effect on a leader's EI and staff morale ($F=7.014$, $df_1=4$, $df_2=152$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). Those with below matric qualification had significantly lower morale (mean=1.977), while the other categories had morale mean scores between 2.582 and 2.969. Of interest is the fact that those with degrees had morale lower than Matric (mean=2.969), certificate (mean=2.933) and diploma (mean=2.910).

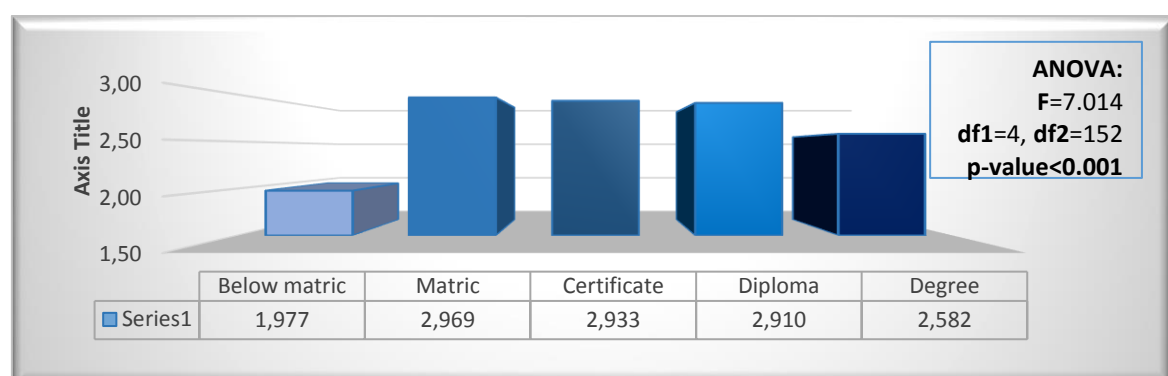


Figure 4.10: Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by qualification

4.2.4.6 *Leader's EI and staff morale by work experience*

Figure 4.11 shows that work experience had no significant effect on leader's EI and staff morale ($F=1.559$, $df_1=4$, $df_2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.188$).

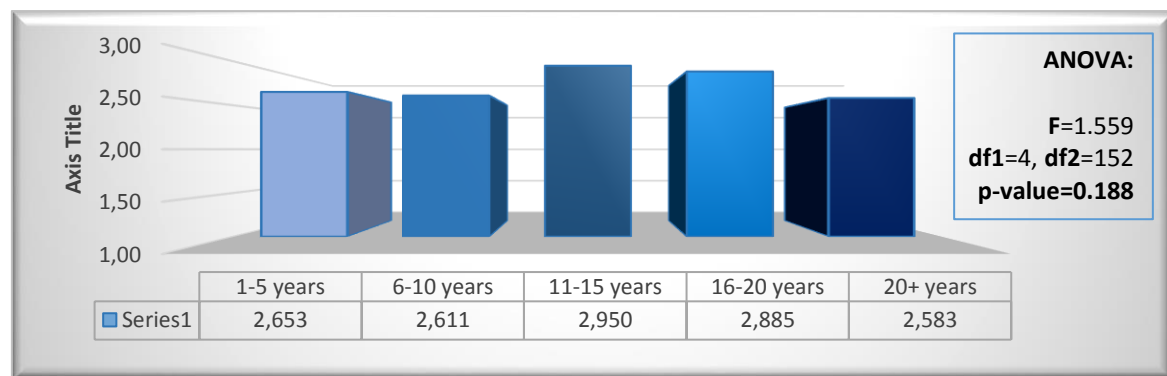


Figure 4.11: Comparison leader's EI and staff morale by work experience

Figure 4.12 shows that position had a significant effect on leader's EI and staff morale ($F=3.184$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.009$). Those in senior management (mean=3.125) and "other" category (mean=3.104) had higher means than the middle categories. The support staff had the lowest mean score for leader's EI and staff morale (mean=2.375). The results show that the middle management categories consistently had low ratings in most of the measurements of this study.

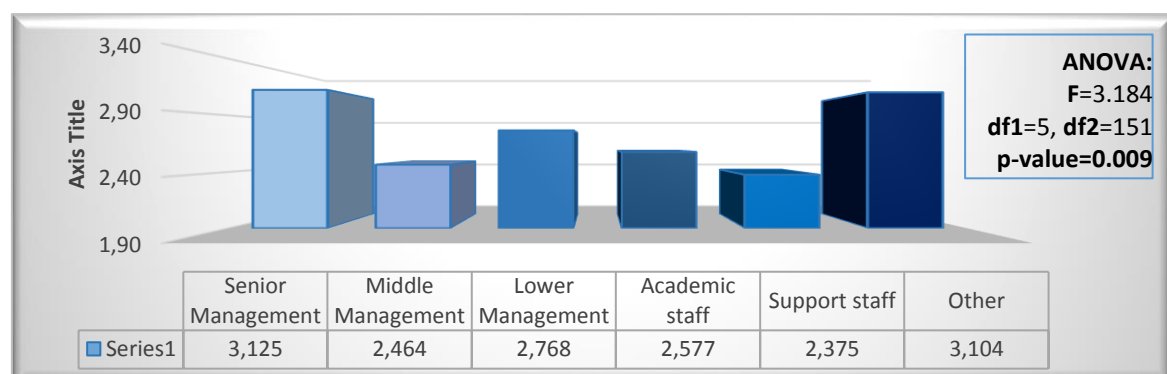


Figure 4.12: Comparison of leader's EI and staff morale by position

4.2.4.7 Descriptive analysis of employee's job satisfaction

The construct of Employee's job satisfaction has 5 items with statistics presented in Table 4.4 below. The results in Table 4.4 show that there was a fairly high level of job satisfaction among the research participants. The majority indicated that they felt that their leader offered them a chance to do a number of different tasks using a wide variety of different skills and talents (75.8%), while 87.9% felt that just doing their work provided them the opportunity to figure how well they were doing. In the reverse-coded and re-worded question 9, the respondents, in the most part, indicated that their job allowed them the opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.

Table 4.4: Employee's job satisfaction

EMPLOYEE’S JOB SATISFACTION		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRON GLY AGREE	MEAN	STD. DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
7. My leader offers me a chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talents.	Count	38	119	2.88	0.78	0.756
	%	24.2%	75.8%			
8. Just doing the work provides me with the opportunity to figure how well I am doing.	Count	19	138	3.27	0.80	0.728
	%	12.1%	87.9%			
9. My job Allows me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision-making.(Reverse coded)	Count	43	114	2.96	0.92	0.578
	%	27.4%	72.6%			
10. My supervisor lets me know how well they think I am doing.	Count	62	95	2.50	0.88	0.744
	%	39.5%	60.5%			
11. I am willing to spend my career at the college.	Count	113	44	2.13	1.02	0.505
	%	72.0%	28.0%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.673		

A lower 60.5% also indicated that their supervisors let them know how well they thought they were doing. Despite all these positive perceptions of job satisfaction, most of the respondents did not feel willing to spend their careers with the college, as only 28% agreed or strongly agreed that they were willing to stay on.

The latent factor coefficients of this construct were all above 0.500 which indicates that each item contributed significantly in the computation of the overall measure/variable to represent the construct. An overall measure of employee's job satisfaction was computed as an average of the five items in Table 4.4 and comparisons of job satisfaction by demographic variables are presented in the subsections below.

4.2.4.8 Job satisfaction by gender

Figure 4.13 shows that the variable representing employee job satisfaction was presented by gender. The ANOVA test results show that there was no significant difference between males with a mean of 2.810 and females with a mean of mean=2.707, ($F=1.158$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.284$).

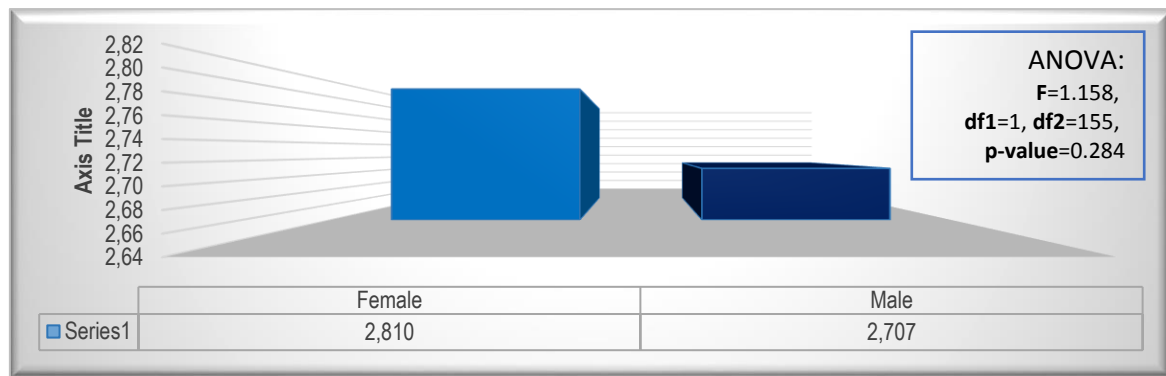


Figure 4.13: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by gender

Females might seem to have had a slightly higher mean level of job satisfaction, but they were not significantly different from males.

4.2.4.9 *Job satisfaction by age*

Results presented in Figure 4.14 show that employee job satisfaction significantly differed across different age groups ($F=12.556$, $df1=3$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). There was a general increase in job satisfaction with age as shown in Figure 4.14 with the slight exception that those in the 21-30 years age group were slightly more satisfied than those in the 31-40 age group. Similar findings were reported by Obrien and Dowling (2011), who indicate that there is a small positive correlation between age and job satisfaction.

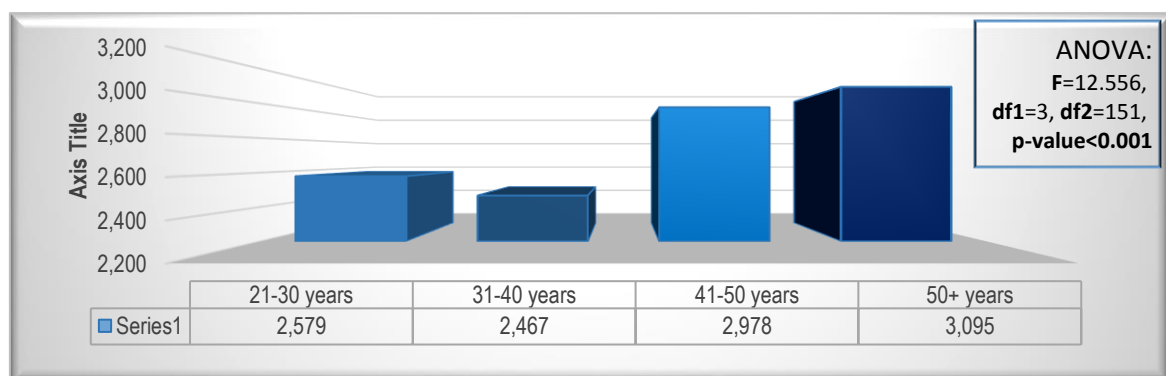


Figure 4.14: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by age

4.2.4.10 *Job satisfaction by race*

ANOVA test results presented in Figure 4.15 show that there was a significant difference between Africans with a mean of 2.715 and whites with a mean of mean=3.343, ($F=8.108$, $df1=1$, $df2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.005$). Whites were significantly more satisfied with their jobs than Africans.

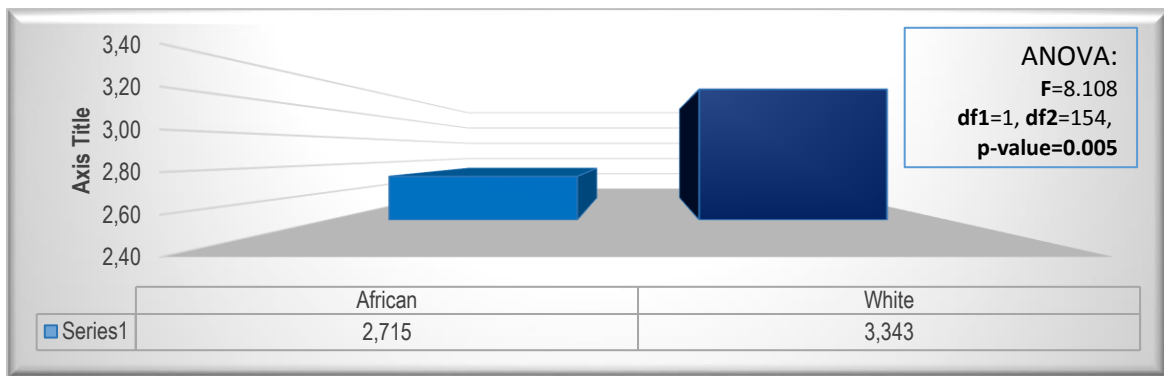


Figure 4.15: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by race

4.2.4.11 *Job satisfaction by educational level/qualification*

Results presented in Figure 4.16 show that employee job satisfaction significantly differed across different qualifications ($F=2.786$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.029$). There was a general increase in job satisfaction with improved qualifications up to the certificate level. Beyond the certificate level job satisfaction began to decline. Those with certificates were the most satisfied with a mean of 3.000.

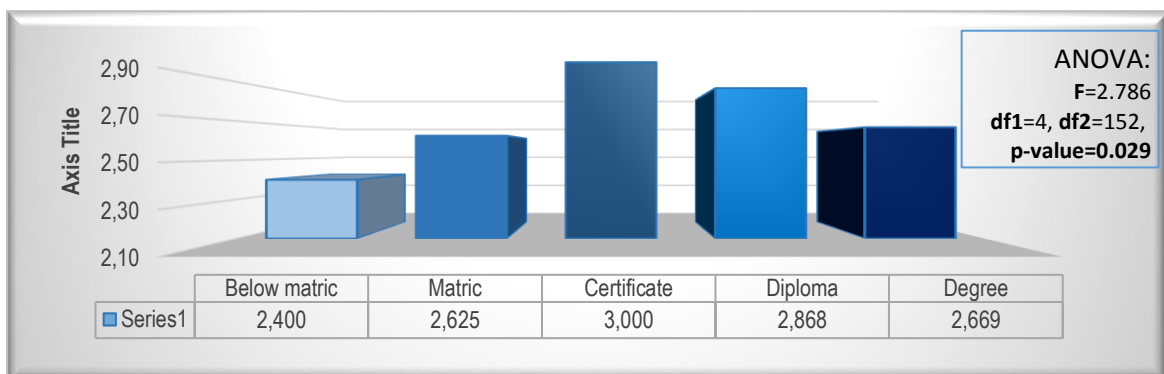


Figure 4.16: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by qualification

4.2.4.12 *Job satisfaction by work experience*

Results presented in Figure 4.17 show that employee job satisfaction significantly differed across different levels of experience ($F=2.579$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.040$). There was a general increase in job satisfaction with experience the exception of those with more than 20 years' experience (mean=2.842) who had lower levels of job satisfaction than those with 11-15 years (mean=2.944), and 16-20 years (mean=3.000) of experience.

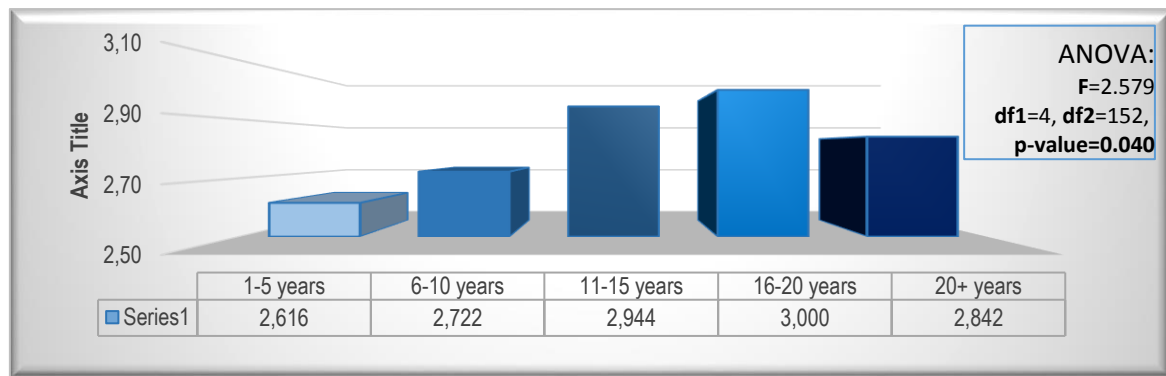


Figure 4.17: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by work experience

4.2.4.13 *Job satisfaction by position/occupation*

Results presented in Figure 4.18 show that employees with higher positions had increasingly higher levels of job satisfaction and such levels significantly differed ($F=6.332$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). There was a general increase in job satisfaction with increasing positions.

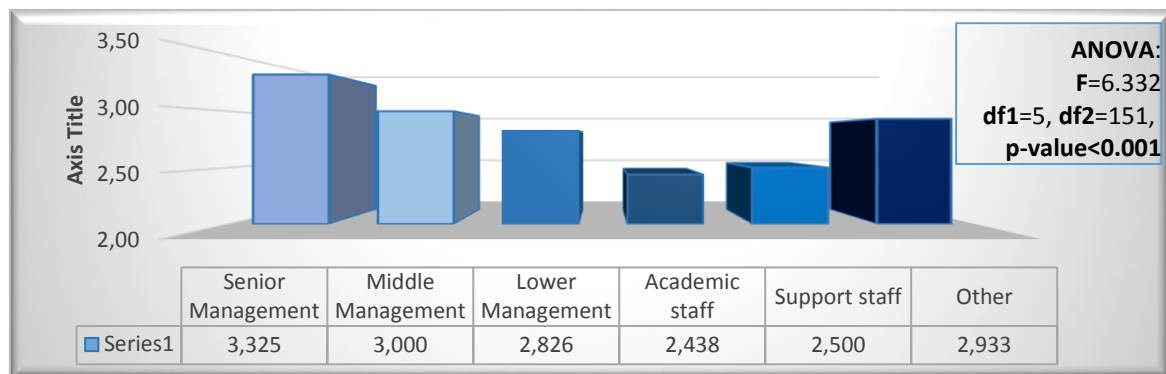


Figure 4.18: Comparison of employee job satisfaction by work position

The unspecified category (other) had a higher level of job satisfaction (2.933) than support staff (mean=2.500) and general academic staff who had the lowest level of job satisfaction (mean=2.438). Support staff and the "other" category brought a break in the higher position, higher satisfaction trend.

4.2.4.14 *Descriptive analysis of Enhancement of teamwork*

The construct of Enhancement of teamwork has four items with statistics presented in Table 4.5 below. The results show that most respondents did not feel that there was much in the way of enhancement of teamwork. This is an area that might need some

attention as the percentages of those agreeing or strongly agreeing were generally low.

Table 4.5: Descriptive statistics of enhancement of teamwork

ENHANCEMENT OF TEAMWORK		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STD DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
12. Because of our leader, we are able to be sensitive to others’ attitudes and views.	Count	60	97	2.56	0.91	0.708
	%	38.2%	61.8%			
13. Because of our leader, there is a feeling of one solid family unit.	Count	102	55	2.25	0.73	0.889
	%	65.0%	35.0%			
14. Because of our leader, everyone's contribution is not undermined, but valued.	Count	86	71	2.36	0.89	0.859
	%	54.8%	45.2%			
16. Conflict management style of our leader is always fair when it comes to their team.	Count	91	66	2.22	1.02	0.698
	%	58.0%	42.0%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.784		

While 61.8% of the respondents indicated that because of their leader, they were able to be sensitive to others' attitudes and views; only 35% indicated that there was a feeling of one solid family unit. Only 45.2% said that everyone's contribution was not undermined but valued and 42.0% opined that the conflict management style of their leader was always fair when it came to their team. In general, enhancement of teamwork needs to improve.

The latent factor coefficients of the construct of enhancement of teamwork were all above 0.690 which indicates that each item contributed significantly in the computation of the overall measure/variable to represent the construct. An overall measure of enhancement of teamwork was computed as an average of the 4 items in Table 4.5. Comparisons of enhancement of teamwork across demographic groups are presented in the subsections below.

4.2.4.15 Enhancement of teamwork by gender

Figure 4.19 shows that gender had no significant effect on Enhancement of teamwork ($F=2.499$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.116$).

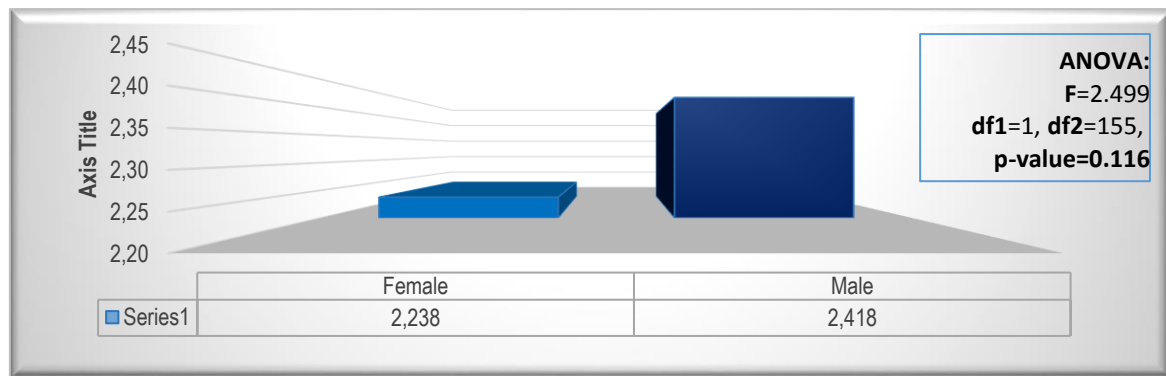


Figure 4.19: Comparison of enhancement of by gender

4.2.4.16 *Enhancement of teamwork by age*

Figure 4.20 shows that age had a significant effect on the enhancement of teamwork ($F=2.836$, $df1=3$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.040$). In general, it was observed that the enhancement of teamwork tended to increase with age. However, the means were still low (maximum=2.619), which means that in general, the enhancement of teamwork was not practised much.

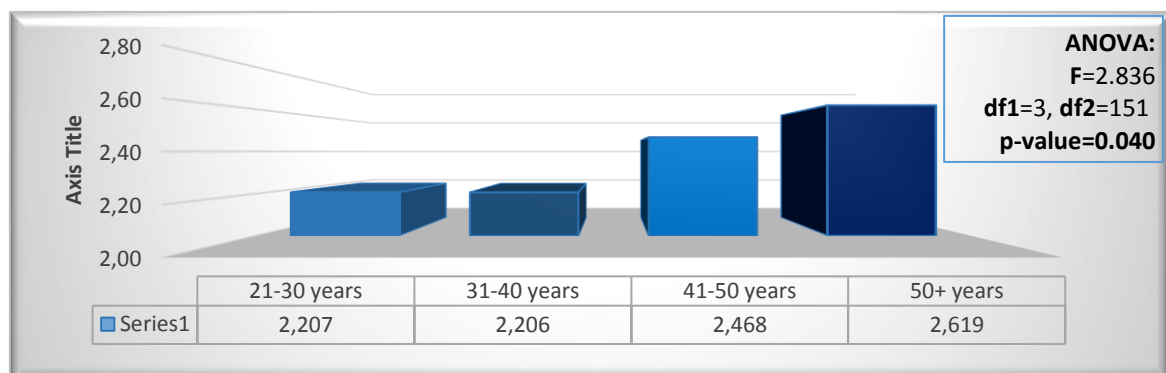


Figure 4.20: Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by age

4.2.4.17 *Enhancement of teamwork by race*

Figure 4.21 shows that race had a significant effect on the enhancement of teamwork ($F=11.184$, $df1=1$, $df2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.001$). Whites showed higher levels of the enhancement of teamwork (mean=3.179) than blacks (mean=2.305).

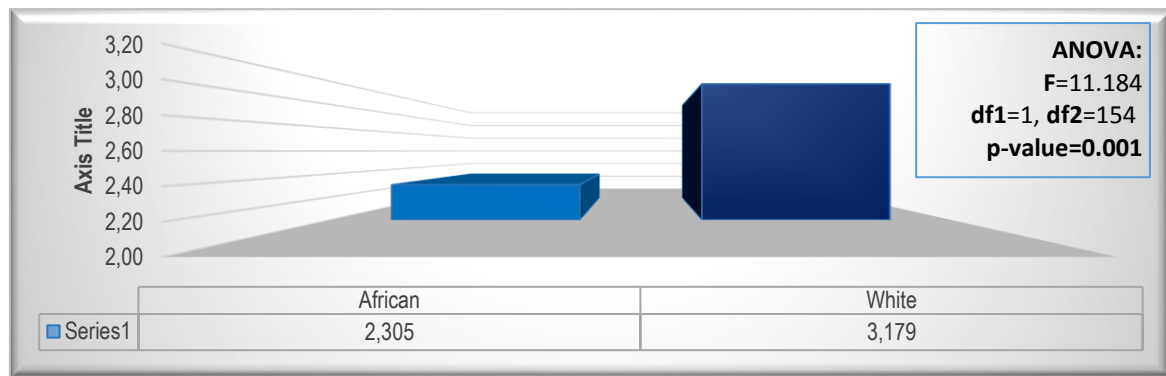


Figure 4.21: Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by race

4.2.4.18 Enhancement of teamwork by educational level/qualification

Results in Figure 4.22 show that the enhancement of teamwork did not significantly differ across different qualifications ($F=2.061$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.089$). Although it seems to gradually decrease with higher qualification levels, the trend was not significant, as all levels were statistically deemed not to differ.

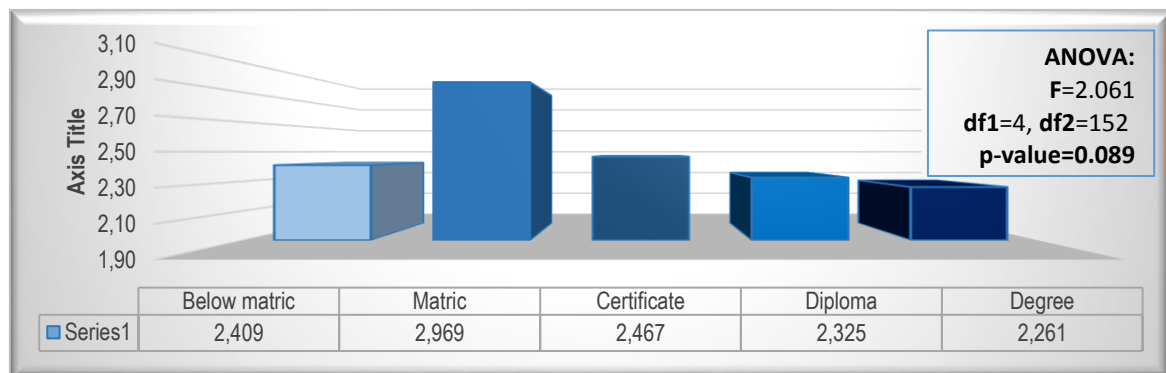


Figure 4.22: Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by qualification

4.2.4.19 Enhancement of teamwork by work experience

Results in Figure 4.23 show that the enhancement of teamwork did not significantly differ across different levels of experience ($F=0.490$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.743$). Those with 20 or more years of experience had the highest level of perceived enhancement of teamwork but this was just a marginal high, which is not significantly different from the other levels of experience.

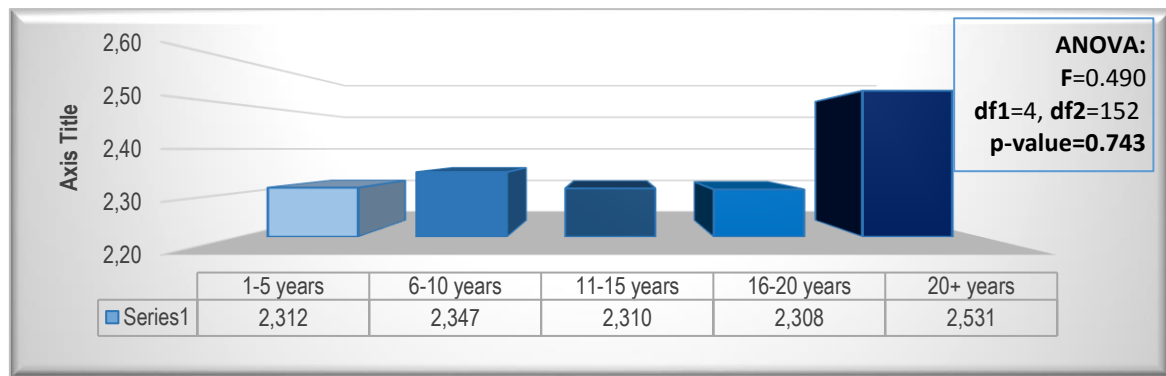


Figure 4.23: Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by work experience

4.2.4.20 *Enhancement of teamwork by position/occupation*

Results in Figure 4.24 show that position or occupation significantly impacted perceptions of the enhancement of teamwork ($F=5.684$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). Support staff (mean=2.875), other staff (mean=2.833) and senior management (mean=3.000) had significantly higher perceptions of the enhancement of teamwork than the middle management categories. The senior managers might have been trying to paint a positive picture of teamwork, while the middle management was disgruntled.

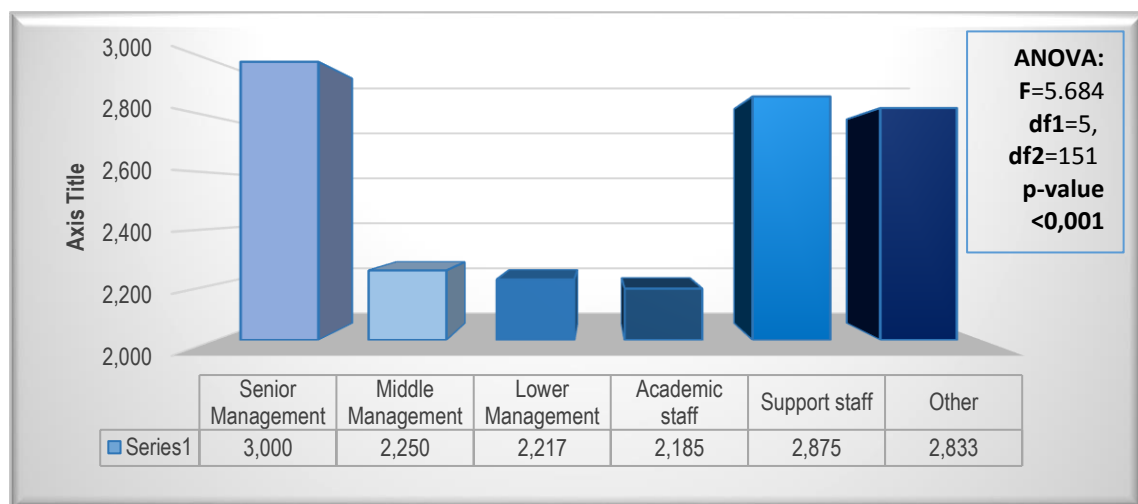


Figure 4.24: Comparison of enhancement of teamwork by position/occupation

4.2.4.21 *Descriptive analysis of organisational commitment*

The construct of organisational commitment has three items with statistics presented in Table 4.6 below. The results show that most respondents had low levels of organisational commitment as shown by the low percentages of those who agreed or strongly agreed with the items under this construct.

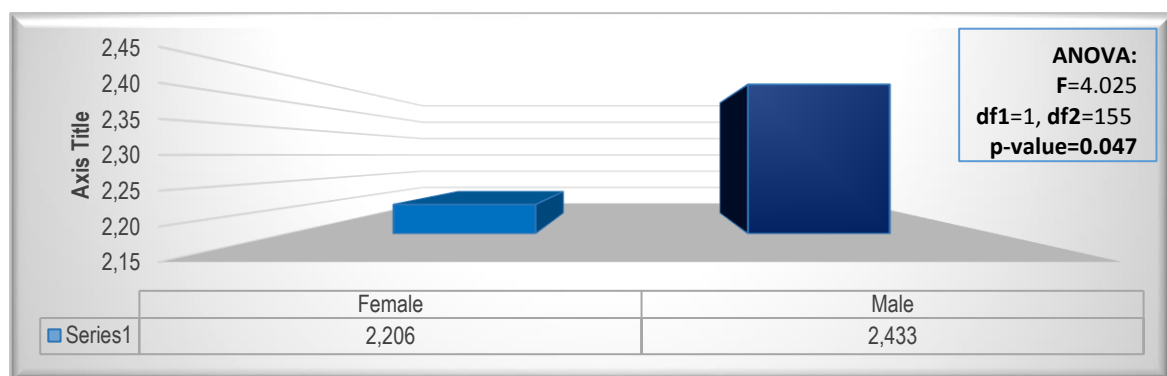
Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics of organisational commitment

ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STD DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
19. My leader makes me feel part of the family unit in college.	Count	86	71	2.28	0.93	0.840
	%	54.8%	45.2%			
20. My leader makes resources available and training also enables me to do my work better.	Count	84	73	2.36	0.85	0.859
	%	53.5%	46.5%			
21. My leader acknowledges and compensates my good work.	Count	62	95	2.40	0.90	0.636
	%	39.5%	60.5%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.678		

Only 45.2% agreed/strongly agreed that their leaders made them feel part of a family unit in the college with 46.5% being in agreement that their leaders availed resources and training to them which enabled them to do their work better. The only item with reasonably higher approval rating was the fact that leaders acknowledged and compensated good work (60.5% in agreement).

4.2.4.22 Organisational commitment by gender

Figure 4.25 shows that organisational commitment differed significantly between males and females ($F=4.025$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.047$). Males perceived significantly higher levels of organisational commitment (mean=2.433) than females (mean=2.206). Both means were still low on the scale of 1 to 4 which was used in the questionnaire items.


Figure 4.25: Comparison of organisational commitment by gender

4.2.4.23 Organisational commitment by age

Figure 4.26 shows that organisational commitment was not significantly impacted by age ($F=1.447$, $df_1=3$, $df_2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.231$).

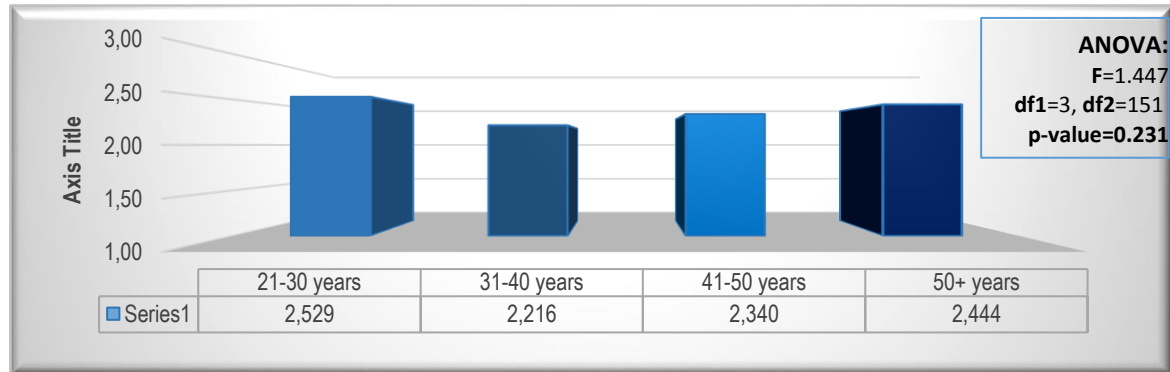


Figure 4.26: Comparison of organisational commitment by age

4.2.4.24 Organisational commitment by race

Figure 4.27 shows that organisational commitment was significantly impacted by race ($F=4.150$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.043$). Whites (mean=3.857) had significantly higher levels of organisational commitment than blacks (mean=2.315).

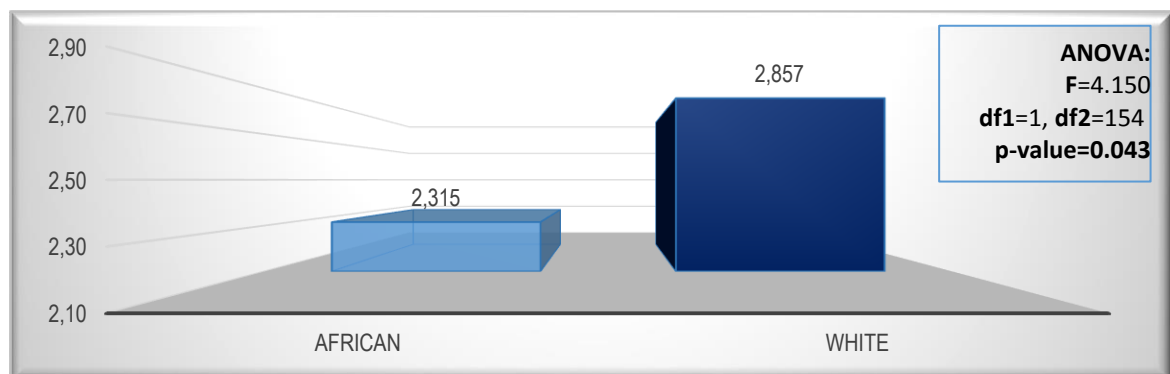


Figure 4.27: Comparison of organisational commitment by race

4.2.4.25 Organisational commitment by educational qualification

Figure 4.28 shows that organisational commitment differed significantly across qualification levels ($F=5.643$, $df_1=4$, $df_2=152$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). Apart from those with below matric, who had the lowest levels of organisational commitment, there was a declining trend in organisational commitment as the qualifications got higher with the peak at the matric level (mean=3.083) and a steady decline afterwards.

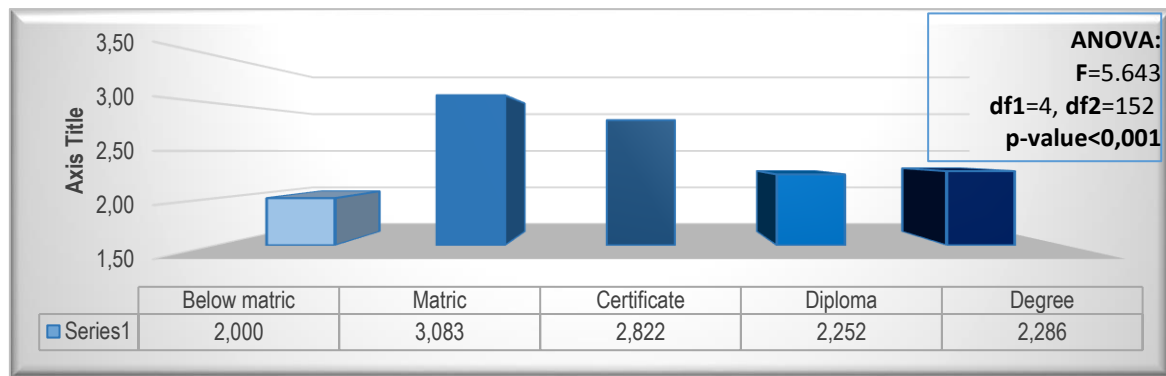


Figure 4.28: Comparison of organisational commitment by qualification

4.2.4.26 *Organisational commitment by work experience*

Figure 4.29 shows that work experience had no significant impact on organisational commitment ($F=0.168$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.954$).

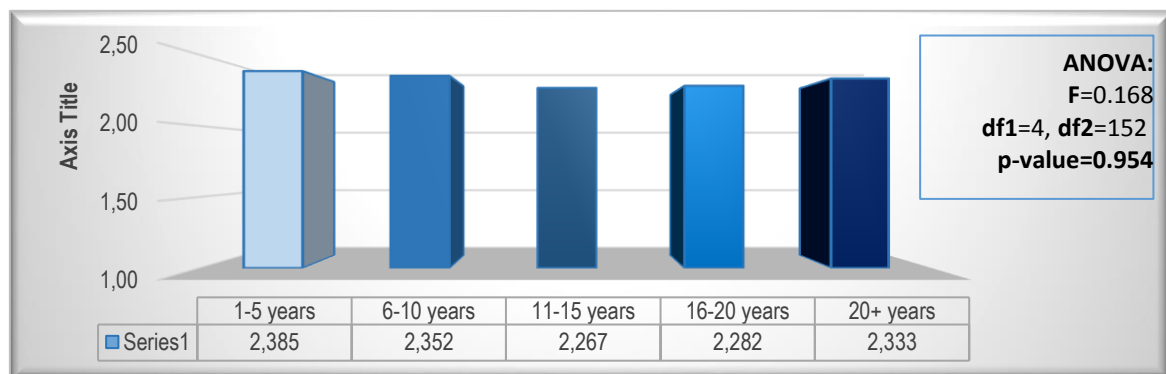


Figure 4.29: Comparison of organisational commitment by work experience

4.2.4.27 *Organisational commitment by position/occupation*

Results in Figure 4.30 show the position or organisational commitment level ($F=3.672$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.004$). With the exception of senior management (mean=3.000), organisational commitment seemed to decline as the position got higher.

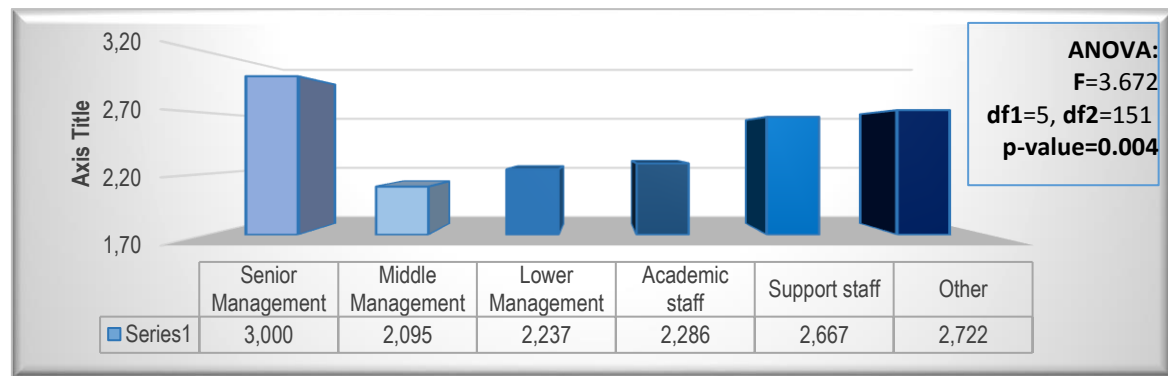


Figure 4.30: Comparison of organisational commitment by position

Support and other staff had the highest levels of organisational commitment (other than senior management), and the levels declined as we moved towards middle management. This is probably because lower and middle managers were constantly looking for opportunities for advancement, while senior managers had reached the highest levels of their careers.

4.2.4.28 Descriptive analysis of fostering task-oriented behaviour

The construct of task-oriented behaviour has 4 items with statistics presented in Table 4.7 below. The results show that most respondents had low to medium levels of task-oriented behaviour as demonstrated by the low percentages of those who agreed or strongly agreed which range from 47.1% to 59.2%.

Table 4.7: Descriptive statistics of task-oriented behaviour

FOSTERING TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STD DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
22. Our leader responds favourably to the suggestions regarding one's performance.	Count	83	74	2.41	0.69	0.787
	%	52.9%	47.1%			
24. Our leader gives clear instructions about the task at hand, e.g. targets and deadlines.	Count	64	93	2.64	0.82	0.879
	%	40.8%	59.2%			
25. The leader always gives clear instructions regarding the quantity and quality of our work.	Count	73	84	2.53	0.79	0.921
	%	46.5%	53.5%			
26. Our leader always allocates resources in a fair and equitable manner for the task to be performed.	Count	83	74	2.31	0.85	0.826
	%	52.9%	47.1%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.875		

The means which range from 2.31 to 2.64 were between disagree (score=2) and agree (score=3) on the 4-point Likert scale used. The four items had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.875); thus, they had high reliability when combined into a single measure of measuring task-oriented behaviour.

4.2.4.29 Task-oriented behaviour by gender

Figure 4.31 shows that task-oriented behaviour differed significantly between males and females ($F=6.024$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.015$). Males had significantly higher levels of task-oriented behaviour (mean=2.575) than females (mean=2.308). Both means were a bit low on the scale of 1 to 4 which was used in the questionnaire items.

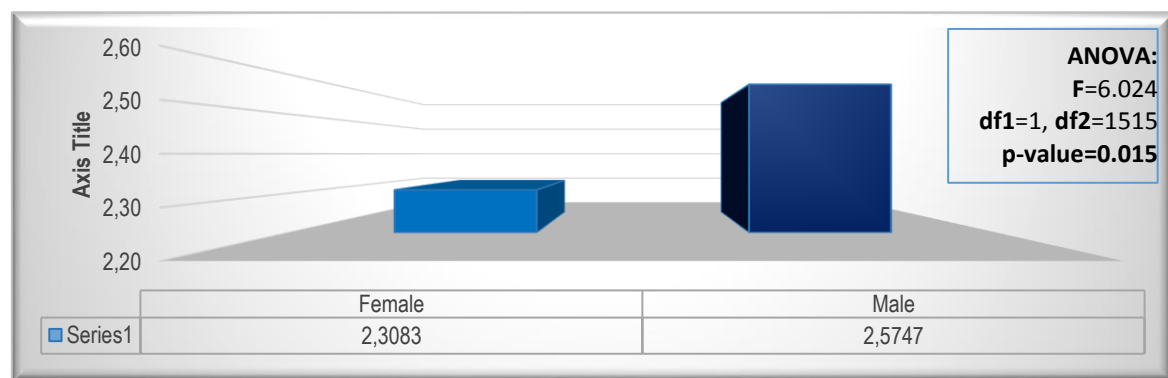


Figure 4.31: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by gender

4.2.4.30 Task-oriented behaviour by age

Figure 4.32 shows that task-oriented behaviour was not significantly impacted by age ($F=1.232$, $df_1=3$, $df_2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.300$).

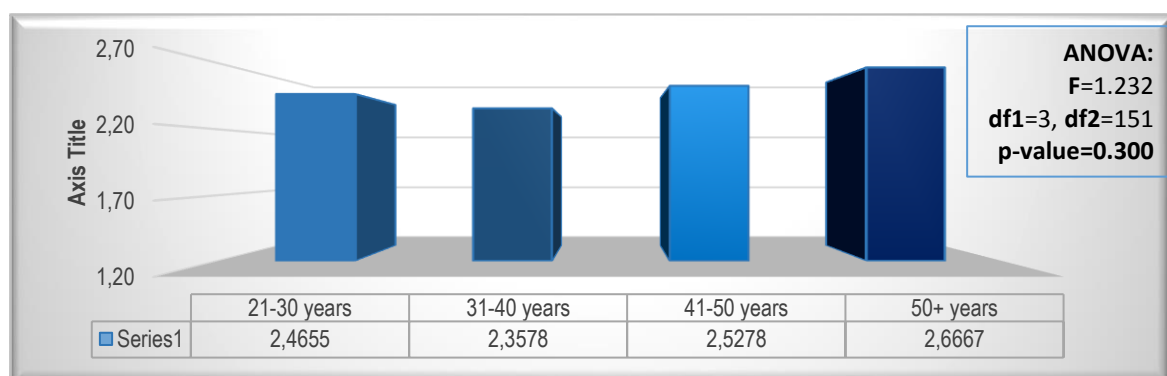


Figure 4.32: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by age

4.2.4.31 Task-oriented behaviour by race

Figure 4.33 shows that task-oriented behaviour was not significantly impacted by race ($F=0.707$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.402$).

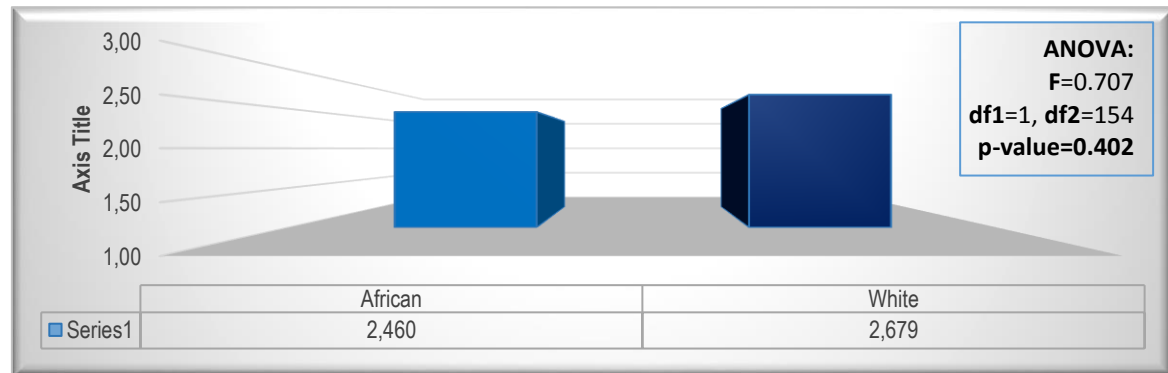


Figure 4.33: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by race

4.2.4.32 Task-oriented behaviour by educational qualification

Figure 4.34 shows that qualification significantly affects perceptions about task-oriented behaviour ($F=5.928$, $df_1=4$, $df_2=152$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). Starting from Matric (mean=3.000), task-oriented behaviour experienced a steady decline with increasing qualification levels for those with degrees having a mean of 2.250. The below Matric qualification was out of this pattern and it happened to have the lowest level of task-oriented behaviour (mean=2.227).

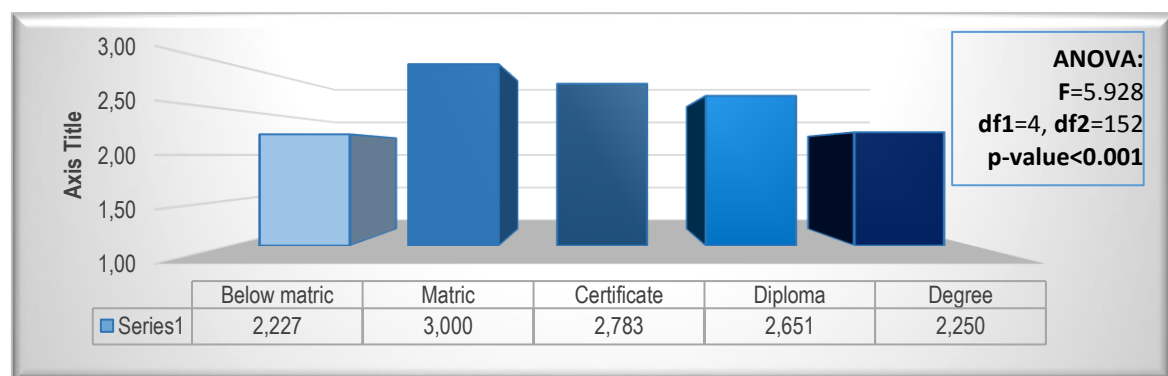


Figure 4.34: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by educational qualification

4.2.4.33 Task-oriented behaviour by work experience

Figure 4.35 shows that task-oriented behaviour was not significantly impacted by working experience ($F=1.803$, $df_1=4$, $df_2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.131$).

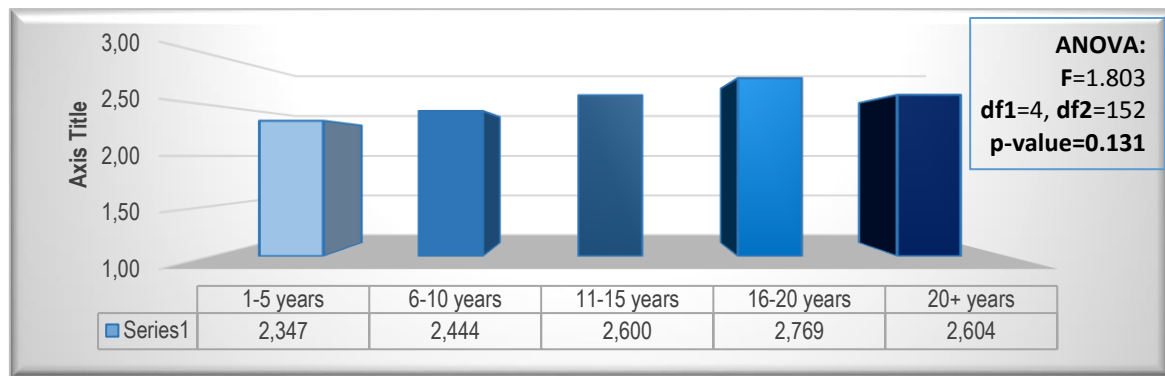


Figure 4.35: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by work experience

4.2.4.34 *Task-oriented behaviour by positions/occupation*

Results in Figure 4.36 show that position or occupation significantly impacted task-oriented behaviour ($F=2.583$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.028$). Support staff (mean=2.625), other staff (mean=2.854) and senior management (mean=3.000) had higher perceptions of task-oriented behaviour than the middle management categories. The seemingly restless middle management categories might have had some kind of negative attitude towards their tasks.

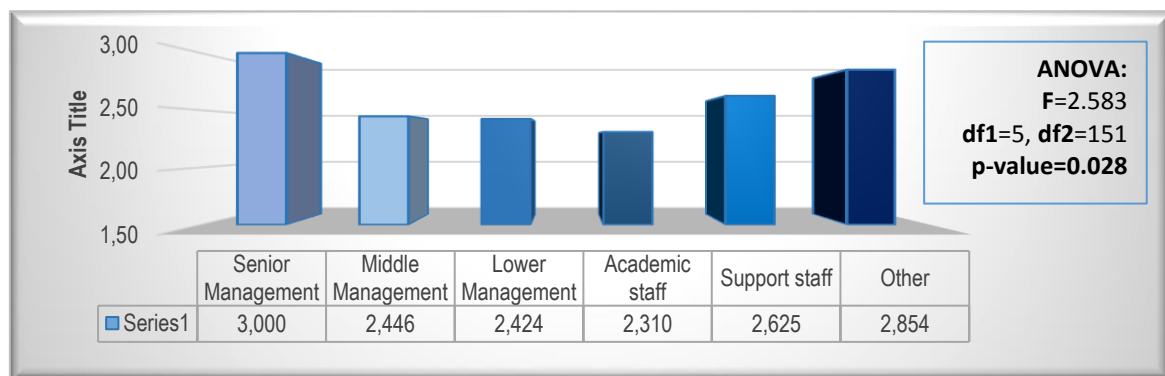


Figure 4.36: Comparison of task-oriented behaviour by position

4.2.4.35 *Descriptive analysis of leader's emotional intelligence*

The construct of the leader's emotional intelligence had five items with statistics presented in Table 4.8 below. The results show that there was mild to low perceptions of a leader's emotional intelligence. Only 45.9% of the respondents believed that their leader always encouraged frankness and openness when discussing team performance, while 48.4% indicated that the conduct of their leader made it possible for them to display loyalty to the college.

Table 4.8: Descriptive statistics of leader's emotional intelligence

LEADER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE		DISAGREE/ STRONGLY DISAGREE	AGREE/ STRONGLY AGREE	MEAN	STD DEV	LATENT FACTOR COEFFICIENT
15. Our leader always encourages frank openness when discussing our team performance.	Count	85	72	2.48	0.91	0.818
	%	54.1%	45.9%			
17. The conduct of my leader makes it possible for me to display loyalty to the college.	Count	81	76	2.44	0.96	0.880
	%	51.6%	48.4%			
18. My leader motivates me to contribute to the positive climate of the college.	Count	76	81	2.43	0.91	0.885
	%	48.4%	51.6%			
23. My leader shows flexibility in making decisions regarding given tasks.	Count	91	66	2.48	0.78	0.644
	%	58.0%	42.0%			
30. My leader/supervisor is a very considerate, supportive and sympathetic person.	Count	79	78	2.53	0.91	0.658
	%	50.3%	49.7%			
Cronbach's Alpha				0.840		

More than half of the respondents (51.6%) indicated that their leaders motivated them to contribute to the positive climate of the college and 42.0% were of the opinion that their leader showed flexibility in making decisions regarding given tasks. Finally, 49.7% indicated that their leader/supervisor was a very considerate, supportive and sympathetic person.

The five items had high internal consistency (Cronbach's Alpha=0.840); thus, they reliably measured the intended variable of the leader's emotional intelligence. An overall measure of this construct can be calculated from a linear combination of these items. The latent factor (principal component) coefficients also showed that all five items which contributed to the overall variable were fairly on the same level.

4.2.4.36 Leader's emotional intelligence by gender

Figure 4.37 shows that the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence differed significantly between males and females ($F=5.390$, $df_1=1$, $df_2=155$, $p\text{-value}=0.022$). Males (mean=2.573) had a more positive perception of their leader's emotional intelligence than females (mean=2.310).

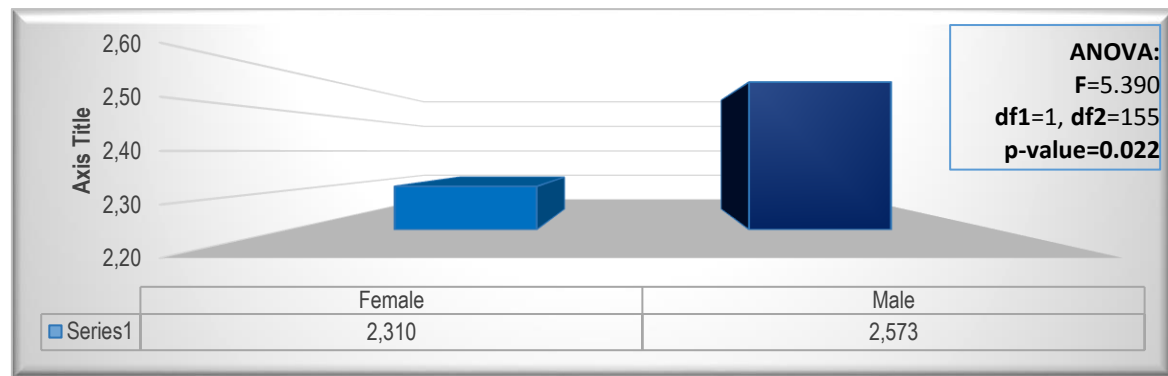


Figure 4.37: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by gender

4.2.4.37 Leader's emotional intelligence by age

Figure 4.38 shows that the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence was not significant between males and females impacted by age ($F=1.083$, $df1=3$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.358$).

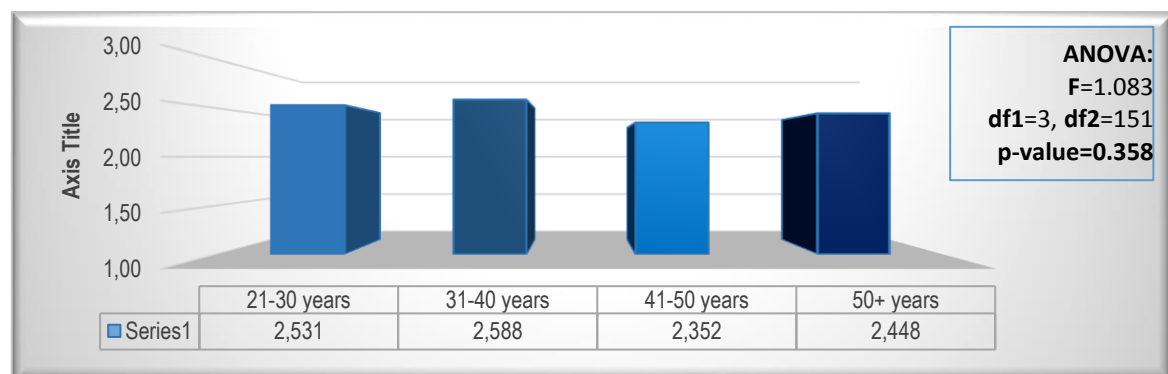


Figure 4.38: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by age

4.2.4.38 Leader's emotional intelligence by race

Figure 4.39 shows that the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence differed significantly between whites and blacks ($F=8.346$, $df1=1$, $df2=154$, $p\text{-value}=0.004$). There were more positive perceptions of the leader's emotional intelligence among whites (mean=3.200) than blacks (mean=2.435).

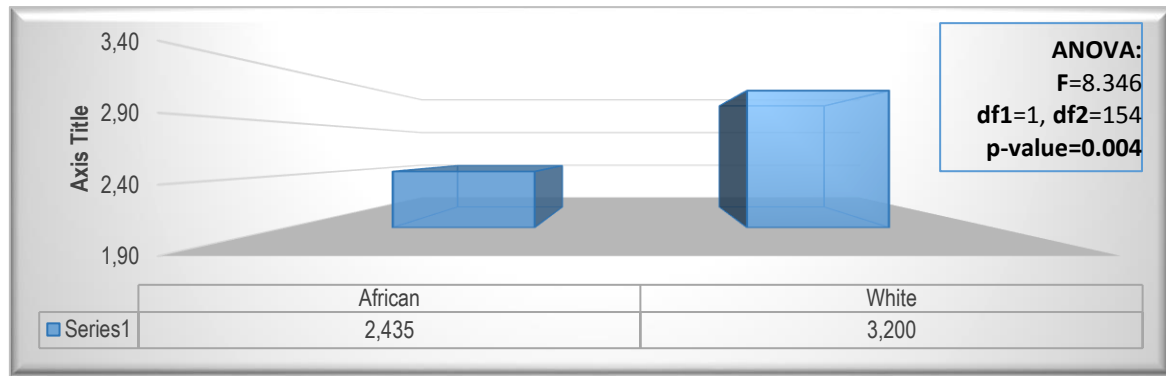


Figure 4.39: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by race

4.2.4.39 Leader's emotional intelligence by educational qualification

Figure 4.40 shows that the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence was significantly impacted by qualification ($F=2.901$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.024$). There were more positive perceptions of the leader's emotional intelligence among matrics (mean=2.950) and post-matric certificate holders (mean=2.773) than among the other categories.

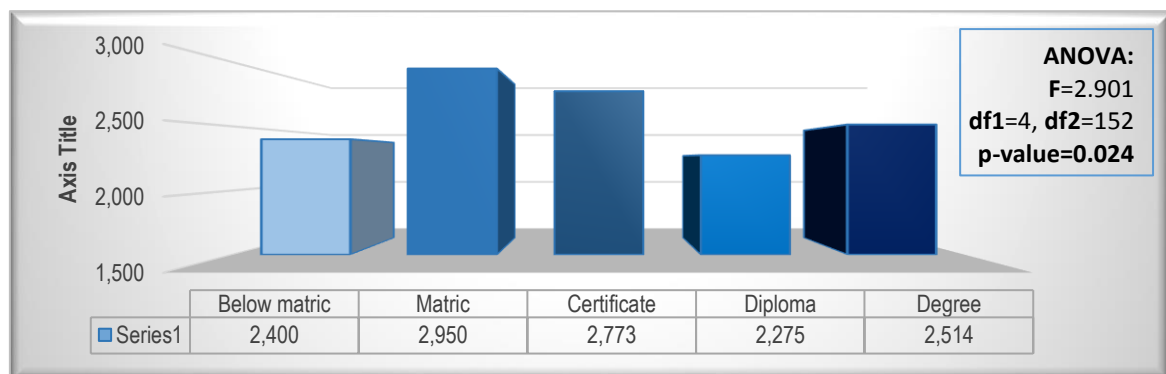


Figure 4.40: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by qualification

4.2.4.40 Leader's emotional intelligence by work experience

Figure 4.41 shows that the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence was significantly impacted by work experience ($F=3.241$, $df1=4$, $df2=152$, $p\text{-value}=0.014$). Those with the least experience, that is, 1 to 5 years of experience, had the highest regard for their leader's emotional intelligence (mean=2.603), followed by those with the most experience (20+ years), with a mean score of 2.592. The mid-career respondents seemed to have had lower perceptions of their leader's emotional intelligence.

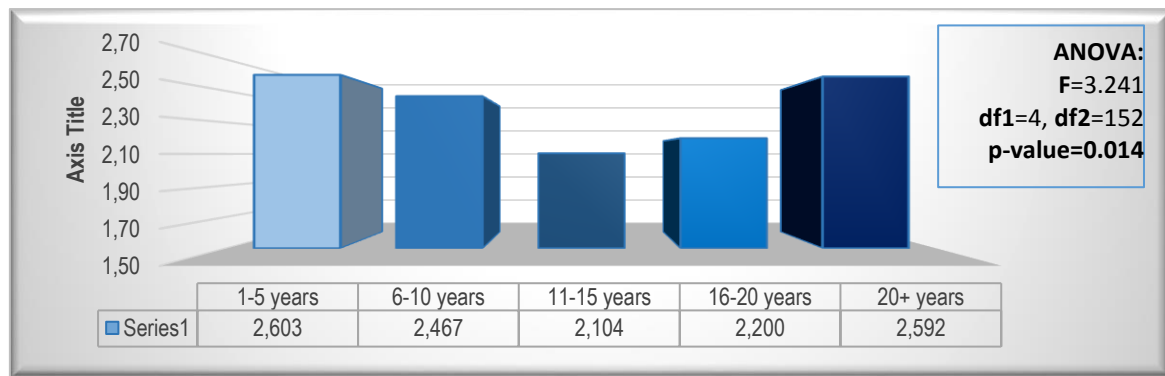


Figure 4.41: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by work experience

4.2.4.41 *Leader's emotional intelligence by position/occupation*

Results in Figure 4.42 show that position significantly impacted on the perception of the leader's emotional intelligence ($F=3.398$, $df1=5$, $df2=151$, $p\text{-value}=0.006$). As expected, senior managers highly regarded the leader's emotional intelligence as they were the leaders themselves (mean=3.000). The middle management categories (probably the restive and ambitious categories), were the ones with the lowest levels of the leader's emotional intelligence. Support staff (mean=2.700) and the "other" category (mean=2.933) had relatively high perceptions of their leader's emotional intelligence when compared to lower and middle management.

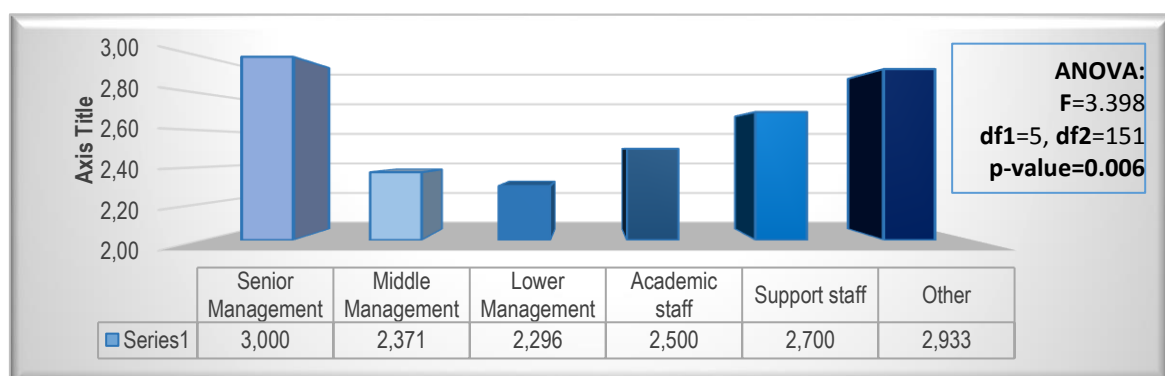


Figure 4.42: Comparison of leader's emotional intelligence by position

4.2.5 **Effects of demographic variables on the six constructs under study**

A summary of the results in Section 3 is presented in Table 4.9 below. The results show that position or occupation significantly affected all six constructs under study, followed by qualification which affected five, with race significantly impacting on affecting.

Table 4.9: Demographic variables that significantly impacted the six constructs under study

CONSTRUCT	SIGNIFICANT DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE					
	Gender	Age	Race	Qualification	Work experience	Position
Leader and staff morale				.		.
Employee's job satisfaction		.	.	.	.	.
Enhancement of teamwork		.	.			.
Organisational commitment	.		.	.		.
Fostering task-oriented behaviour	.			.		.
Leader's emotional intelligence	.		.	.	.	.
Number of times significant	3	2	4	5	2	6

4.2.5.1 *Effects of leader's emotional intelligence on staff morale*

In this section we investigated the causal effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on staff morale. The hypothesis investigated was:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and staff morale.

The results in Table 4.10 show that the leader's emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on leader-staff morale ($B=0.547$, $t=8.943$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). The results also show that the leader's emotional intelligence explained 34.0% of leader-staff morale ($R^2=0.340$).

Table 4.10: Regression analysis of leader-staff morale on leader's emotional intelligence

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: LEADER-STAFF MORALE	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.352	0.157		8.608	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	0.547	0.061	0.583	8.943	0.000
$R^2=0.340$ Correlation=0.583, $p\text{-value}<0.001$.					

Figure 4.43 shows that the relationship between the leader's emotional intelligence and Leader-Staff Morale was generally strong and linear with a positive trend.

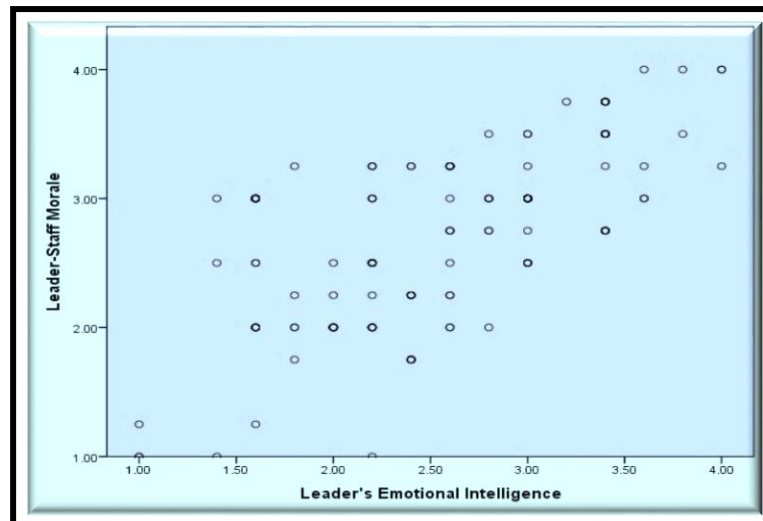


Figure 4.43: Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus staff morale showing a positive linear trend (change of font again)

The results in Table 13 show that when the response variables, namely, Employee's job satisfaction; Enhancement of team work; Organisational commitment; Fostering task-oriented behaviour and staff morale, were considered together, gender significantly affected them jointly (p -values of all statistics < 0.05).

4.2.5.2 Effects of leader's emotional intelligence on individual's job satisfaction

In this section we investigated the causal effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's job satisfaction. The hypothesis investigated was:

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction.

The results in Table 4.11 show that a leader's emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on job satisfaction ($B=0.372$, $t=11.901$, p -value < 0.001). The results also show that a leader's emotional intelligence explained 20.1% of job satisfaction ($R^2=0.201$), with the remaining 79.9% being explained by other factors, such as demographic factors or other factors that were not investigated in this study.

Table 4.11: Regression analysis of job satisfaction on leader's emotional intelligence

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: JOB SATISFACTION	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	β		
(Constant)	1.826	0.153		11.901	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	0.372	0.060	0.448	6.235	0.000

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: JOB SATISFACTION	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	β		
$R^2=0.201$ Correlation=0.448, p-value<0.001.					

Figure 4.44 shows that the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction is generally linear with a positive trend.

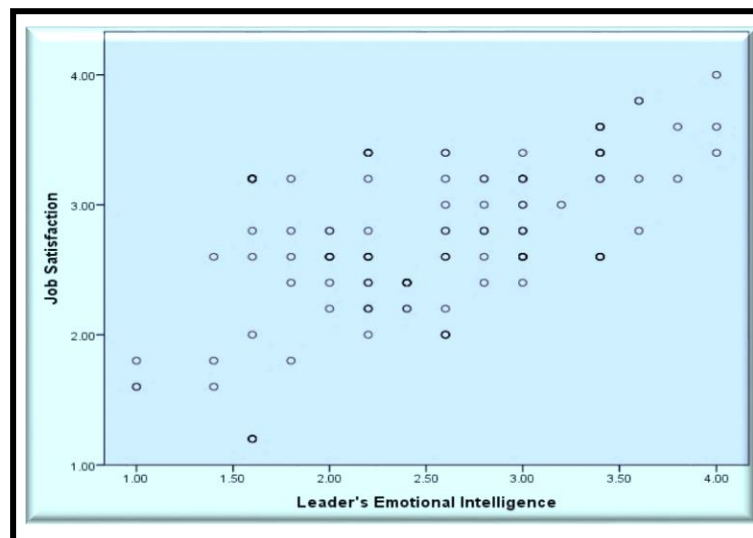


Figure 4.44: Plot of a leader's emotional intelligence versus individual's job satisfaction showing a positive linear trend

4.2.5.3 *Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's inclination towards teamwork*

In this section we investigated the causal effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's inclination towards teamwork. The hypothesis being investigated was:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's inclination towards teamwork.

The results in Table 4.12 show that a leader's emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on enhancement of teamwork ($\beta = 0.738$, $t=13.744$, $p\text{-value}<0.001$). The results also show that a leader's emotional intelligence explained 54.9% of enhancement of teamwork ($R^2=0.549$).

Table 4.12: Regression analysis of enhancement of teamwork on leader's emotional intelligence

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ENHANCEMENT OF TEAMWORK	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	0.525	0.138		3.803	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	0.738	0.054	0.741	13.744	0.000
$R^2=0.549$ Correlation=0.741, p-value<0.001.					

Figure 4.45 shows that the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and Enhancement of Teamwork was generally strong and linear with a positive trend.



Figure 4.45: Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus enhancement of teamwork showing a positive linear trend

4.2.5.4 Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's perceived organisational commitment

In this section we investigated the causal effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on an individual's perceived organisational commitment. The hypothesis investigated was:

Hypothesis 4: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's perceived organisational commitment.

The results in Table 4.13 show that a leader's emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on organisational commitment ($\beta = 0.703$, $t = 12.415$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). The results also show that a leader's emotional intelligence explained 49.9% of organisational commitment ($R^2 = 0.499$).

Table 4.13: Regression analysis of organisational commitment on leader's emotional intelligence

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	0.608	0.145		4.177	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	0.703	0.057	0.706	12.415	0.000
R ² =0.499 Correlation=0.706 p-value<0.001.					

Figure 4.46 shows that the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and organisational commitment was generally strong and linear with a positive trend.

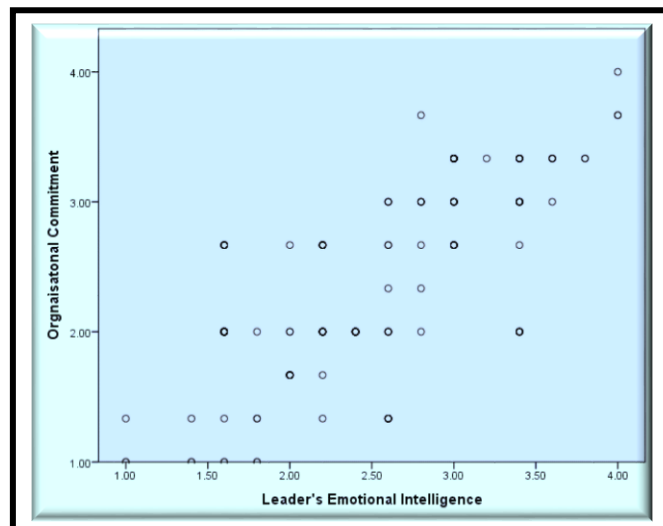


Figure 46: Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus organisational commitment showing a positive linear trend

4.2.5.5 *Effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates*

In this section we investigated the causal effects of a leader's emotional intelligence on fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates. The hypothesis investigated was:

Hypothesis 5: There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates.

The results in Table 4.14 show that a leader's emotional intelligence had a significant positive impact on task-oriented behaviour ($\beta = 0.546$, $t = 8.614$, $p\text{-value} < 0.001$). The results also show that a leader's emotional intelligence explained 32.4% of task-oriented behaviour ($R^2 = 0.324$).

Table 4.14: Regression analysis of task-oriented behaviour on leader's emotional intelligence

DEPENDENT VARIABLE: TASK ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR	UNSTANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS		STANDARDISED COEFFICIENTS	T	P- VALUE
	β	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.123	0.163		6.900	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	0.546	0.063	0.569	8.614	0.000
R-square=0.324 Correlation=0.569, p-value<0.001.					

Figure 4.47 show that the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and task-oriented behaviour was generally strong and linear with a positive trend.

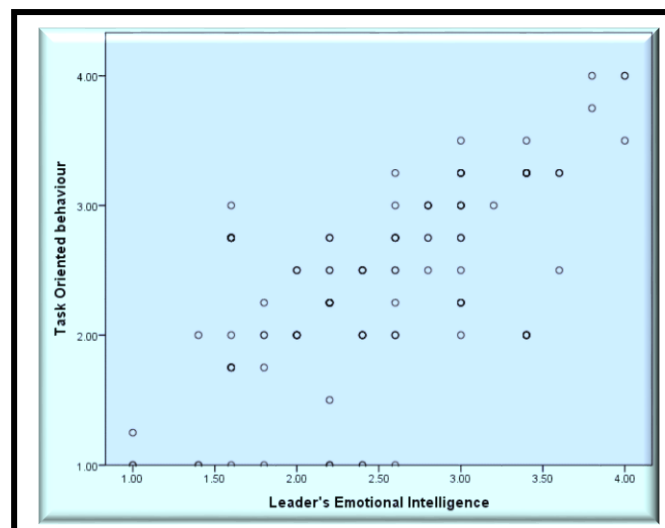


Figure 47: Plot of leader's emotional intelligence versus task-oriented behaviour showing a positive linear trend

Table 4.15: Multivariate analysis of covariance MANCOVA for the effects of demographic variables and leader's emotional intelligence

RESPONSE VECTOR: [EMPLOYEE'S JOB SATISFACTION; ENHANCEMENT OF TEAMWORK; ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT; FOSTERING TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR, AND STAFF MORALE]					
Effect		Value	F	df1, df2	p-value
Q1: Gender	Pillai's Trace	0.149	4.592	5, 131	0.001
	Wilks' Lambda	0.851	4.592	5, 131	0.001
	Hotelling's Trace	0.175	4.592	5, 131	0.001
	Roy's Largest Root	0.175	4.592	5, 131	0.001
Q2: Age	Pillai's Trace	0.292	2.868	15, 399	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.726	2.972	15, 362	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	0.354	3.057	15, 389	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	0.263	6.994	5, 133	0.000

RESPONSE VECTOR: [EMPLOYEE'S JOB SATISFACTION; ENHANCEMENT OF TEAMWORK; ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT; FOSTERING TASK-ORIENTED BEHAVIOUR, AND STAFF MORALE]					
Q3: Race	Pillai's Trace	0.018	0.481	5, 131	0.790
	Wilks' Lambda	0.982	0.481	5, 131	0.790
	Hotelling's Trace	0.018	0.481	5, 131	0.790
	Roy's Largest Root	0.018	0.481	5, 131	0.790
Q4: Educational level	Pillai's Trace	0.620	4.916	20, 536	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.472	5.532	20, 435	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	0.931	6.030	20, 518	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	0.681	18.250 ^c	5, 134	0.000
Q5: Experience	Pillai's Trace	0.498	3.807	20, 536	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.570	4.019	20, 435	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	0.639	4.136	20, 518	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	0.354	9.493	5.000	0.000
Q6: Position/occupation	Pillai's Trace	0.550	3.335	25, 675	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.521	3.743	25, 488	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	0.788	4.078	25, 647	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	0.592	15.987	5, 135	0.000
Leader's Emotional Intelligence	Pillai's Trace	0.785	95.94	5, 131	0.000
	Wilks' Lambda	0.215	95.94	5, 131	0.000
	Hotelling's Trace	3.662	95.94	5, 131	0.000
	Roy's Largest Root	3.662	95.94	5, 131	0.000

The results also show that age; educational level; experience, and position/occupation significantly affected response variables jointly (p-values of all statistics<0.05). A leader's emotional intelligence also had significant effect on the response variables when they were considered together (p-values of all statistics<0.05). Race did not significantly affect the six response variables when they were considered together (p-values of all statistics>0.05).

4.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

From the multiple regression analysis carried out in this chapter, it is evident that there were significantly positive relationships between a leader's emotional intelligence and individual factors, such as job satisfaction; inclination towards teamwork; perceived organisational commitment; fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates, and staff morale (teaching and non-teaching staff) of the TVET college sector in the Free State Province. The resulting impact could be associated with the FS TVET college management which should guarantee employees' job satisfaction; create awareness of the importance of teamwork, and adopt task-oriented behaviours among subordinates that promote equality and understanding among different occupation groups.

The research further investigated the relationship between demographic variables and the six constructs of this study. The results of this relationship revealed that position or occupation significantly affected all six constructs under study, followed by qualification which affected five, with race significantly impacting affecting (cf. Table 4.9).

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the results of the various statistical procedures were documented and a number of observations were made. The results of the descriptive statistics; chi-squares; the analysis of variance (ANOVA), and a Correlation and Regression Modelling (CRM) were portrayed.

In this final chapter, it will be pointed out how the objectives of the study, both theoretical and empirical, were achieved. This chapter begins with a reflection on a brief overview of the sequence of the entire study as indicated in Figure 5.1.

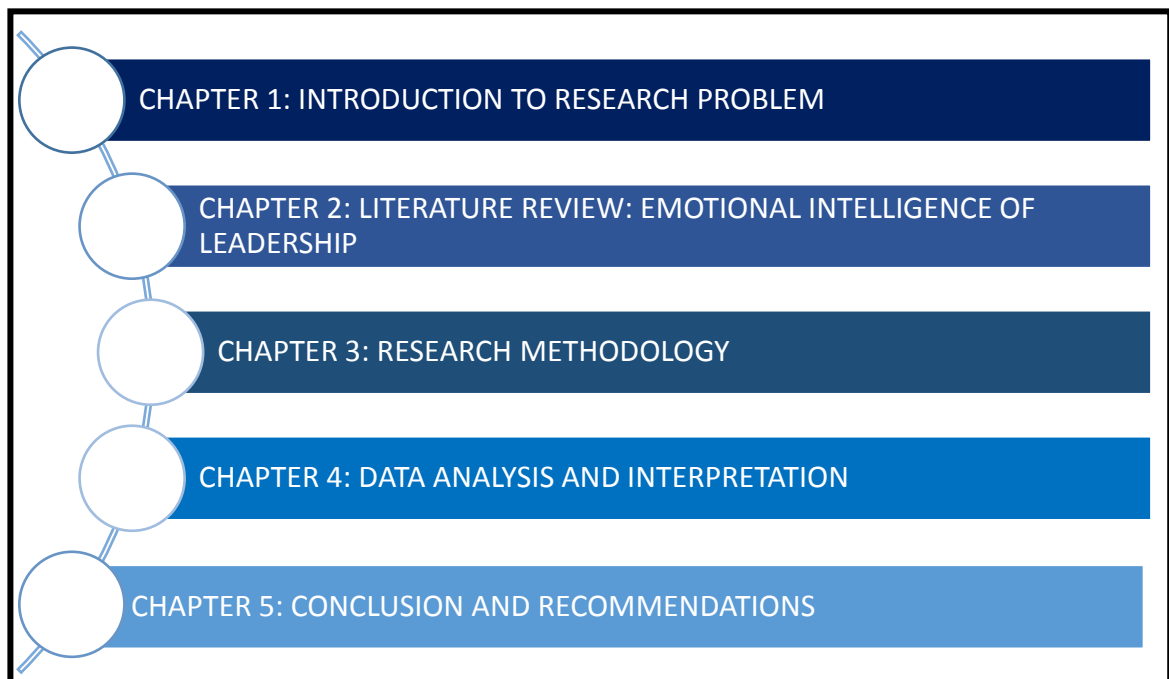


Figure 48: Summary of the sequence of chapters of the study

The results provided in chapter four where the findings and interpretations are discussed, will be summarised and concluded in this chapter. The limitation of the study and recommendations to be made for TVET colleges and possible future research topics will be addressed.

5.2 SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS

This study sought to explore the impact of EI of TVET college leadership on staff morale. The study objectives were stated as follows:

- i. To evaluate the joint effects of all the variables of staff morale on the emotional intelligence of FS TVET college leaders.
- ii. To determine the relationship between a leader's EI and job satisfaction.
- iii. To establish the relationship between a leader's EI and the enhancement of teamwork.
- iv. To ascertain the existence of a relationship between a leader's EI and perceived organisational commitment.
- v. To assess a leader's emotional intelligence in fostering task-oriented behaviours among subordinates.
- vi. To make recommendations on appropriate leadership styles that can foster favourable and conducive working relationships between management and staff at FS TVET colleges.

In order to reach a conclusion, both descriptive and ANOVA single factor analysis methods to analyse the results were used. A p-value is the probability of how likely it is that an observed sample statistics of null hypothesised population parameter values can be assumed to be true. The small p-value (i.e. closer to zero) indicates a low probability of observing the sample statistics if the null hypothesis is true, thus providing strong evidence to reject the hypothesis. Contrarily, a large p-value (i.e. closer to one) indicates the high chances of observing the sample statistic and thus, strong evidence to accept the hypothesis (Wegner 2012:207). The study therefore hypothesises and concludes that:

H_01 : There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and staff morale. Since $< F_{142;0.05} \quad p > 0.05$, the study does not reject a null hypothesis and concludes that there is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and staff morale. Three studies (Myeni, 2010; Ngambi, 2011; Tiwari, 2014) all confirm the findings of this study, that there is a relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and staff morale.

H_02 : There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction. Since $F > F_{144;0.05}$ and $p < 0.05$, the study rejects the null

hypothesis and concludes that there is no significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction. Similarly, a study on the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction among academics in Egypt's higher education institutions found that the emotional intelligence of a leader did not affect the level of job satisfaction (El Badawy & Magdy, 2015). Krishnakumar (2008) in his study on the role of emotional intelligence and the emotional requirement in job attitude and behaviour, found that the emotional intelligence of a leader did not have any effect on job satisfaction.

H_03 : There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's inclination towards teamwork. Since $F > F_{144;0.05}$ and $p < 0.05$, the study rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that there is no significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's job satisfaction. However, Koman and Wolff (2005) in their study on *Emotional Intelligence Competencies in the Team and Team Leader: A Multi-level Examination of the Impact of Emotional Intelligence on Team Performance*, and Golonka and Mosja-Kaja (2016) in their study on emotional intelligence and team roles, with regard to team work effectiveness, dispute the previous finding and conclude that there is indeed, a relationship between emotional intelligence and an inclination towards team work.

H_04 : There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's perceived organisational commitment. Since $F < F_{142;0.05}$ and $p > 0.05$, the study does not reject the null hypothesis and concludes that there is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and an individual's perceived organisational commitment. Shafiq and Rana (2016) in their study on the relationship of emotional intelligence to organisational commitment of college teachers in Pakistan, revealed that there is relationship between the emotional intelligence of a leader and an individuals' organisational commitment. In addition, Selama and Nordin (2012) in their study on teachers' commitment and emotional intelligence in the district of Klang, found a relationship existence. However, the level of normative commitment and continuous commitment components were moderate.

H_05 : There is a significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and fostering task-orientation behaviour among subordinates. Since $> F_{142;0.05}$ and $p < 0.05$, the study rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that there is no significant relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and fostering task-orientation behaviour among subordinates. The studies by Mwangi (2011) and Holloway (2012) dispute the finding of

the present study, concluding that there is indeed a relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and task-orientated behaviour.

5.3 LIMITATIONS

- i. The present study is limited to only four TVET colleges which are found in the Free State Province of RSA and therefore, is not necessarily relevant to the whole country or world.
- ii. The study, although piloting the instrument, used a self-developed measuring instrument which might be open to criticism regarding its validity and reliability.
- iii. The researcher found challenges in terms of the availability of past measuring instruments, due to restrictions set on them, while others have been discontinued, such as the Emotional Competency Profiler developed by Wolmarans and Greef (2001).
- iv. The present study, followed only the quantitative approach (positivism), which might limit the findings by not probing the participants.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

- i. It is recommended that an emotionally intelligent leader should simultaneously follow transformational and transactional leadership styles, as it is believed by the researcher that this may be the solution to conflicting relationships between leaders and their subordinates and will bring balance and stability with improved relationships.
- ii. Both leaders and their subordinates should be made aware and trained on the concept of emotional intelligence so as to develop their understanding and even familiarise themselves with the concept, thus implementing positive communication and understanding with improved performance.
- iii. Management of the TVET sector must embrace the following critical HR practices and principles of staff engagement, recognition and rewards, and staff empowerment if productivity and staff retention are to be promoted.
- iv. A paradigm shift regarding change management and staff participation and involvement is likely to eradicate resistance and mistrust between staff and management. But equally improve job satisfaction, commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour and ultimately performance.
- v. Investment in human capital development for managers specifically on enhancing

emotional intelligence is likely to have a ripple effect on the rest of staff and engender positive vibe, camaraderie and team spirit.

- vi. This topical issue could yield much generalisable inferences if expanded to other provinces and other constructs such as organizational citizenship, etc.

5.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

Seeing that RSA has passed the Employment Equity Act No.55 of 1998, with its purpose being to promote equal opportunity and fair treatment in employment through the elimination of unfair discrimination, it is recommended that a further study be conducted to investigate whether emotional intelligence is gender based, i.e. are women more emotionally intelligent than their counterparts or vice versa.

5.6 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The study investigated how a leader's emotional intelligence impacts their subordinates' morale. It is hoped that this study will contribute in some way to other literatures on this topical issue, in trying to bring about harmonious working relationships within the TVET sector, so as to improve interpersonal relationships and understanding, with the benefit of improved performance.

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Permission to undertake research study

Central University of
Technology, Free State

 **FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES**

The Principal
Maluti TVET College
Private Bag X870
PHUTHADITJHABA
9870

28 November 2016

Dear Mr V Madena

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE RESEARCH STUDY

This letter serves to confirm that Mr. Sarone Daniel Motthanke, with a student number 20251378 is a fully registered CUT Master of Human Resource Management student. The title of his dissertation is:

Topic: The impact of Emotional Intelligence of leadership on staff morale a case-study of Free State Technical and Vocational Education and Training.

We humbly and respectfully request that you grant him permission to undertake his research study at your institution/college. The purpose of the study is to empirically determine the impact of a leader's emotional intelligence on staff morale. Mr. Motthanke has premised his study on this underlying hypothesis, namely, that a leader who is able to intelligently take charge of his or her emotions is able to get the best out of his/her subordinates/staff, consequently improve performance. He further posits that documentary evidence has proven that negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, anger and hostility usually use up much of the individual's energy and lower morale, which in turn leads to absenteeism and apathy, not to mention disastrous performance.

A questionnaire consisting of structured and open-ended questions will be used as a measuring instrument to determine the impact of Emotional Intelligence of college leaders on staff morale, for the sake of improved performance and maximizing efficiency. He likes to ask for permission to interview top, middle and lower level management staff at your college, without necessarily document their names, institution's names, i.e. confidentiality and anonymity will be strictly observed.

For more clarity, please do not hesitate to contact the student directly at this number (0792841028) or the supervisor/promoter at the numbers below.

Thanking you in anticipation.



Prof. MN Naong
HOD: Business Management and Supervisor

Application form: For students to conduct research in public colleges


higher education
& training

Department:
Higher Education and Training
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

**DHET 004: APPENDIX 1:
APPLICATION FORM FOR STUDENTS TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN PUBLIC COLLEGES**

1. APPLICANT INFORMATION

1.1.	Title (Dr /Mr /Mrs /Ms)		
1.2	Name and surname		
1.3	Postal address		
1.4	Contact details	Tel	
		Cell	
		Fax	
		Email	
1.5	Name of institution where enrolled		
1.6	Field of study		
1.7	Qualification registered for	Please tick relevant option:	
		Doctoral Degree (PhD)	☐
		Master's Degree	☐
		Other (please specify)	☐

2. DETAILS OF THE STUDY

2.1	Title of the study
2.2	Purpose of the study

3. PARTICIPANTS AND TYPE/S OF ACTIVITIES TO BE UNDERTAKEN IN THE COLLEGE

Please indicate the types of research activities you are planning to undertake in the College, as well as the categories of persons who are expected to participate in your study (for example, lecturers, students, College Principals, Deputy Principals, Campus Heads, Support Staff, Heads of Departments), including the number of participants for each activity.

3.1	Complete questionnaires	Expected students, participants (e.g. Principal, lecturers, College)	Number of participants
	a)		
	b)		
	c)		

		d)	
		e)	
3.2	Participate in individual interviews	Expected participants	Number of participants
		a)	
		b)	
		c)	
		d)	
		e)	
3.3	Participate in focus group discussions/workshops	Expected participants	Number of participants
		a)	
		b)	
		c)	
		d)	
		e)	
3.4	Complete standardised tests (e.g. Psychometric Tests)	Expected participants	Number of participants
		a)	
		b)	
		c)	
		d)	
		e)	
3.5	Undertake observations <i>Please specify</i>		
3.6	Other <i>Please specify</i>		

4. SUPPORT NEEDED FROM THE COLLEGE

Please indicate the type of support required from the College (Please tick relevant option/s)

Type of support		Yes	No
4.1	The College will be required to identify participants and provide their contact details to the researcher.		
4.2	The College will be required to distribute questionnaires/instruments to participants on behalf of the researcher.		
4.3	The College will be required to provide official documents. <i>Please specify the documents required below</i>		
4.4	The College will be required to provide data <i>(only if this data is not available from the DHET)</i> . <i>Please specify the data fields required, below</i>		

4.5	<i>Other, please specify below</i>		

5. DOCUMENTS TO BE ATTACHED TO THE APPLICATION

The following 2 (two) documents must be attached as a prerequisite for approval to undertake research in the College

5.1	Ethics Clearance Certificate issued by a University Ethics Committee
5.2	Research proposal approved by a University

6. DECLARATION BY THE APPLICANT

I undertake to use the information that I acquire through my research, in a balanced and a responsible manner. I furthermore take note of, and agree to adhere to the following conditions:

a) I will schedule my research activities in consultation with the said College/s and participants in order not to interrupt the programme of the said College/s.

b) I agree that involvement by participants in my research study is voluntary, and that participants have a right to decline to participate in my research study.

c) I will obtain signed consent forms from participants prior to any engagement with them.

d) I will obtain written parental consent of students under 18 years of age, if they are expected to participate in my research.

e) I will inform participants about the use of recording devices such as tape-recorders and cameras, and participants will be free to reject them if they wish.

f) I will honour the right of participants to privacy, anonymity, confidentiality and respect for human dignity at all times. Participants will not be identifiable in any way from the results of my research, unless written consent is obtained otherwise.

g) I will not include the names of the said College/s or research participants in my research report, without the written consent of each of the said individuals and/or College/s.

h) I will send the draft research report to research participants before finalisation, in order to validate the accuracy of the information in the report.

i) I will not use the resources of the said College/s in which I am conducting research (such as stationery, photocopies, faxes, and telephones), for my research study.

j) Should I require data for this study, I will first request data directly from the Department of Higher Education and Training. I will request data from the College/s only if the DHET does not have the required data.

k) I will include a disclaimer in any report, publication or presentation arising from my research, that the findings and recommendations of the study do not represent the views of the said College/s or the Department of Higher Education and Training.

l) I will provide a summary of my research report to the Head of the College/s in which I undertook my research, for information purposes.

I declare that all statements made in this application are true and accurate. I accept the conditions associated with the granting of approval to conduct research and undertake to abide by them.

SIGNATURE	
DATE	

FOR OFFICIAL USE

DECISION BY HEAD OF COLLEGE

<i>Please tick relevant decision and provide conditions/reasons where applicable</i>	
Decision	<i>Please tick relevant option below</i>
1 Application approved	
2 Application approved subject to certain conditions. <i>Specify conditions below</i>	
3 Application not approved. <i>Provide reasons for non-approval below</i>	
NAME OF COLLEGE	
NAME AND SURNAME OF HEAD OF COLLEGE	
SIGNATURE	
DATE	

Research ethics approval letter



**FACULTY RESEARCH AND INNOVATION COMMITTEE –
[FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES]**

RESEARCH ETHICS APPROVAL LETTER

Date: 3 May 2017

This is to confirm that:

Applicant's Name	SD Motlhanke
Supervisor Name for Student Project (where applicable)	Professor MN Naong
Level of Qualification for Student Project (where applicable)	Masters in Human Resources Management
Title of research project	The impact of Emotional Intelligence of leaders on staff morale at the Free State Technical and Vocational Education and Training

Ethical clearance has been provided by the Faculty Research and Innovation Committee **[03/05/17]** in view of the CUT Research Ethics and Integrity Framework, 2016 with reference number **[Management Sciences 0717]**.

The following special conditions were set:

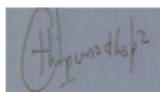
☒ None

☐ Specific conditions

The following specific conditions apply:

1. _____ NA _____
2. _____ NA _____
3. _____ NA _____

We wish you success with your research project.



Professor C. Chipunza (FRIC Chairperson)

Consent to participate in a research study

**Consent to Participate in a Research Study
For MASTER IN HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT**

Title of **The impact of Emotional Intelligence of a leader on staff morale: A case study of TVET Colleges In the Free State**

Investigator:

Name: _____ **Student** _____ **Contact number** _____

Introduction

- You are being asked to be in a research study because you are an employee of TVET College in the Free State province.
- We ask that you read this form and ask any questions that you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of emotional intelligence of TVET colleges' leadership on staff morale.

- Ultimately, this research may be published as a book.

Description of the Study Procedures

- If you agree to be in this study, you will be asked to respond to the questions as asked in a questionnaire. About 20 minutes of your time will be needed.

Risks/Discomforts of Being in this Study

- There are no reasonable foreseeable (or expected) risks.

Confidentiality

- This study is anonymous. We will not be collecting or retaining any information about your identity.
- The records of this study will be kept strictly confidential. We will not include any information in any report we may publish that would make it possible to identify you.

Right to Refuse or Withdraw

- The decision to participate in this study is entirely up to you. You may refuse to take part in the study *at any time* without affecting your relationship with the investigators of this study. Your decision will not result in any loss or benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Right to Ask Questions and Report Concerns

- You have the right to ask questions about this research study and to have those questions answered by me before, during or after the research. If you have any further questions about the study, at any time feel free to contact me, Sarone Daniel Motlhanke at saronemotlhanke@gmail.com or by telephone at 079 284 1028. If you like, a summary of the results of the study will be sent to you. If you have any other concerns about your rights as a research participant that have not been answered by the investigator, you may contact Professor M.N. Naong, Study Supervisor, at Central University of Technology, Bloemfontein Main Campus (051) 507 3217.
- If you have any problems or concerns that occur as a result of your participation, you can report them to the supervisor at the number above. Alternatively, concerns can be reported to the Chairperson, Central University of Technology Ethics Committee.

Consent

- Your signature below indicates that you have decided to volunteer as a research participant for this study, and that you have read and understood the information provided above. You will be given a signed and dated copy of this form to keep, along with any other printed materials deemed necessary by the study investigators.

Subject's Name (print): _____

Subject's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Investigator's Signature: _____ Date: _____

Consent to participate in the study

To whom it may concern

Thank you for permitting and taking part in this survey.

I am a student at the Central University of Technology (CUT), Free State, studying for a Masters in Human Resources Management. Conducting research is one of the requirements for completing my studies.

The aim of the study is purely for academic purposes. The objective is to determine the impact of Leaders' Emotional Intelligence on employees/staff morale within the TVET Colleges in the Free State.

Respondents are selected randomly. Your college's name and yourself will not be known to the researcher and the results may be shared with you and the college (if you so wish).

We believe that this study will, in some way, assist colleges to build a good employee/management or leadership relationship and understanding, for the collective success of the college and this sector of education.

Yours sincerely

Questionnaire

Questionnaire for Employees in TVET Colleges in Free State

Instructions

- Read questions carefully and kindly answer all questions.
- This questionnaire is divided into six sections i.e. A, B, C, D, E and F.
- It will take approximately 25 minutes to complete the questionnaire.
- Section A has 6 questions, Section B to F, each has five questions. Total number of questions is 31.
- Questions are answered by making an 'X' in an appropriate block (where applicable).
- Please DO NOT write your name or college's name on a questionnaire
- Kindly return the fully completed questionnaire.
- It will be appreciated if all completed questionnaire are submitted.

SECTION A

Demographic Data

This section collects necessary information for researcher to understand you.

Please tick only one box with an "X", where applicable

1. Gender

Female

Male

1 ☐

2 ☐

For
Office
Use

2. What is your age in years _____

--	--

3. Race group

- 1.African
- 2.White
- 3.Coloured
- 4.Indian
- 5.Other

--	--

--	--

4. Highest qualification (Education level)

- 1.Below matric
- 2.Matric
- 3.Certificate
- 4.Diploma
- 5.Degree

--	--

5. How long have you work for the college, in years

(Work experience)? _____

--	--

6. What is your occupation/ work? _____

For Office use

- 1.Senior Management
- 2.Middle Management (HOD)
- 3.Lower Management(Coordinators/Supervisor/ Senior Lecturer)
- 4.Academic Staff
- 5. Support staff
- 6.Other

--	--

SECTION B: This section deals with employee's job satisfaction.

This section deals with the extent of relationship between Emotional Intelligent Leader and job satisfaction of employees. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statement. Please mark the appropriate box with 'X'. Use the scale below.

SCALE	1.strongly disagree	2.disagree	3.agree	4.strongly agree
-------	------------------------	------------	---------	---------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
7. My leader offer me chance to do a number of different tasks, using a wide variety of different skills and talent.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Just doing the work provides me the opportunity to figure how well I am doing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. My job does not allow me an opportunity to use discretion or participate in decision making.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. My superior let me know how well they think I am doing.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. I am willing to spend the rest of my career with the college	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

SECTION C: This section deals with an enhancement of team work.

This section deals with Emotional Intelligence of a leader in relation to individual team inclination towards teamwork. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please use the appropriate box with 'X'. Use this scale

SCALE	1.strongly disagree	2.disagree	3.agree	4.strongly agree
-------	---------------------	------------	---------	------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
12. Because of our leader, we are able to be sensitive to each other's attitudes and views.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
13. Because of our leader, there is a feeling of one solid family unit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
14. Because of our leader, every one's contribution is not undermined, but valued.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
15. Our leader always encourages frank and openness when discussing our team performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	

16. Conflict management style of our leader is always fair when it comes to his/her team. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

SECTION D: This section deals with perceived organisational commitment.

This section deals with Emotional Intelligence of a leader in relation to employee's perceived organisational commitment. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please mark the appropriate box with an 'X'. Use this scale

SCALE	1.strongly disagree	2.disagree	3.agree	4.strongly agree
-------	---------------------	------------	---------	------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
17. The conduct of my leader makes it possible for me to display loyalty to the college.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
18. My leaders motivates me to contribute to the positive climate of the college.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
19. My leader makes me feel as a part of family unit in the college.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
20. My leader offers me resources and training which also enables me to do my work better	☐	☐	☐	☐	
21. My leader acknowledges and compensate my good work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	

SECTION E: This section deals with fostering task-oriented behaviour among subordinates.

This section deals with Emotional Intelligence of a leader in relation to fostering task-oriented behaviour among subordinates / employees. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please mark the appropriate box with an 'X'. Use this scale

SCALE	1.strongly disagree	2.disagree	3.agree	4.strongly agree
-------	------------------------	------------	---------	---------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
22. Our leader responds favourably to the suggestions regarding one's performance.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
23. Our leader shows flexibility in making decisions regarding given task	☐	☐	☐	☐	
24. Our leader gives clear instructions about the task at hand, e.g. targets and deadlines.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
25. The leader always gives clear instructions regarding the quantity and quality of our work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	

26. Our leader always allocates resources in a fair and equitable manner for the task to be performed.

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

SECTION F: This section deals with the relationship between the leader and staff morale

This section evaluates the effect of Emotional Intelligence of a leader in relation to staff-morale. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please mark the appropriate box with an 'X'. Use this scale.

SCALE	1.strongly disagree	2.disagree	3.agree	4.strongly agree
-------	---------------------	------------	---------	------------------

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
27. I feel respected and valued by my team leader/supervisor at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	
28. My leader/supervisor makes me feel safe in taking calculated risk when doing my job	☐	☒	☐	☐	
29. My leader/supervisor always inspires/motivates us to perform better	☐	☐	☐	☐	
30. My leader/supervisor is a very considerate, supportive and sympathetic person	☐	☐	☐	☐	

31. My leader/supervisor invites and
values the inputs of subordinates

☐☐☒☐

Similarity Report

by S M

Submission date: 03-Feb-2021 04:59AM (UTC-0800)

Submission ID: 1500648997

File name: Sarone_Research_project.docx (5.39M)

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