



**IMPACT OF THE INTERACTION AMONG EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE,
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE ON JOB
SATISFACTION: CASE OF SELECTED YOUTH-OWNED AND MANAGED SMALL
BUSINESSES IN GHANA**

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DECLARATION

I, Samuel Koranteng Fianko, student number #####, declare that this research report submitted to the Central University of Technology, Free State, for the degree PHD: Management Sciences (Business Management), is my independent work and has not previously been submitted by me to another university/faculty. I further cede the copyright of the thesis in favour of the Central University of Technology, Free State.

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ABSTRACT

Many youth-owned and managed small businesses (YOMSB) in Ghana face management-related challenges that continue to reduce their survival rates and have become a major source of worry for government, industry, and academics alike. This study aimed to enrich the theoretical and practical understanding of the youth-owned and managed small businesses sector by developing and testing an explanatory structural model on the interactive effect of organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction.

The study assessed the levels of organisational climate, employee job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, and transformational leadership among YOMSB in Ghana. Additionally, a direct relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction, organisational climate and transformational leadership, transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction, organisational climate, and leaders' emotional intelligence, leader's emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction were examined. Furthermore, the moderating effect of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana was also examined.

The study adopted a sequential mixed-method approach. The sample size for the quantitative part of the study was 602, while the qualitative part was 20. Random sampling technique was used for drawing participants for the quantitative research and for the qualitative aspect it was purposive. A close-ended survey questionnaire was used in the quantitative data collection while in-depth interviews were used for collecting qualitative data. Descriptive and inferential analyses were carried out on the quantitative data using both SPSS version 26 and PLS-SEM version 4. The qualitative part of the data was analysed using thematic analysis.

The study's findings revealed a significant positive relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction, emotional intelligence and organisational climate, and transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Leaders' emotional intelligence was also positively associated with job satisfaction and transformational leadership style. There was, however, no relationship between transformational leadership and organisational climate. Additionally, emotional intelligence failed to moderate the organisational and job satisfaction relationship. Transformational leadership, on the contrary, negatively moderated the relationship. The results of the qualitative inquiry into negative moderation of the transformational leadership style revealed that although transformational leadership is essential, the current monetary challenges facing YOMSB as a result of difficulties in recovering financially from the Covid-19 business disruptions, have shifted their focus primarily to financial growth, as compared to managerial issues like transformational leadership.

The study contributes to Sustainable Development Goal 8 by promoting a decent work environment for YOMSB employees in Ghana by adopting open and autonomous organisational climates that enhance cooperation and support, as well as creativity and innovation among employees of YOMSB. From the policy perspective, the study contributes to the importance of promoting financial policies such as removing or reducing YOMSB taxes in their first five years to create an enabling business environment that supports growth. From the theoretical perspective, the study provides new valuable insights into the relevance of transformational leadership as a moderator on the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction in YOMSB.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BOCI	Business Organisation Climate Index
CCQ	Creative Climate Questionnaire
CFI	Comparative fit index
CVF	Competing Values Framework
ECI	Emotional Competency Inventory
EL	Emotional Intelligence
GTL	Global Transformational Leadership
IFI	Incremental Fit Indices
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
JDR	Job Demands-Resources
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MSCEIT	Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
OCDQ	Organisation Climate Description Questionnaire
OCM	Organisational Climate Questionnaire
RMSEA	Root Means Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SoORC	Survey of Organisational Research Climate
TCI	Team Climate Inventory
TEIQue	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
TLI	Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory
TLQ	Transformational Leadership Questionnaire
VDL	Vertical Dyad Linkage
VIF	Variance inflation factor

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

In Ghana's dynamic and competitive business environment, youth-owned and managed small businesses (YOMSB) face significant challenges regarding survival and growth. These challenges raise concerns and call for a deeper understanding of the factors that impact the success of YOMSB from the management perspective. Understanding the interplay of human resource management related-factors such as the organisational climate, perceptions of transformational leadership, leader's emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction of YOMSB's growth and survival is critical. The study, therefore, examines the interactive effect of perceptions of transformational leadership style and leader's emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction in YOMSB.

This chapter presents an overview of the study and includes several components, such as the background of the problem, justification for the study, problem statement, objectives, and research questions to be addressed in the study, as well as the significance of the study. Other sections include an overview of the methodology, the scope, and the organisation of the study, among others, as well as a summary at the end of the chapter.

1.2 Problem background

Effective human resources management in organisations, irrespective of size or age, has implications for their performance (Meier & Melton, 2016; Iqbal, 2018; Mohammad, Darwish, Singh, & Khassawneh, 2021). For human resources to be well managed, there is a need for an excellent organisational climate (Al-Kurdi, El-Haddadeh, & Eldabi, 2020). In other words, the employees' work environment must be conducive enough to enhance their satisfaction in the workplace (Birdie & Jain, 2016; Agbozo, Owusu, Hoedoafia, &

Atakorah, 2017). In this regard, the nexus between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction becomes paramount. Although studies have established organisational climate and job satisfaction relationship in different countries and different organisational contexts (Thakre & Shroff, 2016; Fernandes, 2016; Tsui-Ping, 2017; Rao & College, 2017; Woko, Ukoha, & Alagah, 2018; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee 2018; Okoli, 2018; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee 2018; Li, Huang, & Chen 2020; Rinawati & Nasution, 2021), emphasis has not been placed on other variables that can interact with organisational climate and employee job satisfaction to enhance organisational outcomes, especially in the case of Youth-Owned and Managed Small Businesses (YOMSB).

YOMSB are business enterprises predominantly owned and operated by individuals who generally belong to the youth demographic segment of 18-35 years (Maebane, 2023). These businesses are characterized by the active involvement and leadership of young entrepreneurs in managing all aspects of the business, including strategic decision-making, operations, and financial management. Today's youth entrepreneurs have been motivated mainly by the high unemployment rate in several developing economies, especially in Africa (Winful, Snowden, Halsall, Quaye, Hyams-Ssekasi, Opuni, & Opoku-Asante, 2022). Adenike (2021) states that high unemployment and under-employment rates among African youth pose complex socioeconomic, political, and ethical policy issues. These include threats to social cohesion and political stability, increased youth migration out of Africa, and greater social inequality. Rochman (2021) argues that lowering unemployment in most developing countries, including Sub-Saharan Africa, can be achieved through encouraging entrepreneurship and the development of the region's youth-owned small and micro businesses sector. In 2015, the African Development Bank estimated that Africa had almost 420 million young people aged 15-35 years old, with one-third unemployed, one-third in vulnerable employment, and only one in six in stable wage employment. However, according to more recent data from the International Labour Organization (ILO, 2023), the unemployment rate for African youth aged 15-24 has fallen to 11.2 percent. While this indicates some improvement, Africa's young people still face considerable challenges entering the labour market. The majority remain in insecure,

informal work. Given Africa's rapidly growing youth population, Anyanwu, Ojima, and Ajudua (2021) warn that the continent faces threats of political instability unless sufficient decent jobs and employment opportunities are created for the current unemployed young people across Africa.

In Ghana, the YOMSB sector has become an emerging sector and vehicle to address the relatively high prevalence of youth unemployment (Adeosun & Shittu, 2021). Thus, the Ghana government is encouraging graduates from educational institutions to start their businesses by taking advantage of new government policies that support SMEs (Ghana Ministry of Finance, 2017). As the youth engage in entrepreneurship and start their businesses, they need to work with more people. This implies that the Ghanaian youth is now being transformed from a "job seeker" to a "job creator." This transformation is good for the Ghanaian economy since the government cannot fully absorb the high number of graduates who complete their tertiary education annually.

Since the YOMSB sector is still emerging, it has become paramount for the youth to be well-equipped with business management insights to survive and stay competitive (Hoffman & Melly, 2015). This is because 70-90% of new businesses fail within the first five years, and also as 90%+ of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) that have been functioning for more than five years, still face difficulties expanding (Gazelles Inc., 2014; Krishnan, Ganesh, & Rajendran, 2020). Conversely, Manolache and Netedu (2017) assert that, among other things, the proper management of human resources is a crucial strategy for every organisation's survival and high performance. In this regard, if YOMSB is to stay competitive, issues related to human resource management (such as leadership, organisational climate, and employee welfare) require attention and research (Rao & College, 2017). However, since this sector is under-explored in Ghana regarding social research, this study becomes a step in the right direction to tackle pertinent concepts in the Human Resource Management field relevant to the success of YOMSB in Ghana.

The YOMSB falls under small and medium-scale enterprises owned and managed by individuals aged 18-35 (Berisha & Pula, 2015). The YOMSB cut across various sectors of the Ghanaian economy, including retail, information and communication technology (ICT), agriculture, construction, education, savings and loans, microfinance, and oil and gas, among others (Oduro, 2019). YOMSB in Ghana has become very vibrant in the Ghanaian economy because of the inability of the Government of Ghana to absorb graduates who complete various programs at the tertiary level. In addition, the high unemployment level has compelled most youth to become more creative and innovative to establish their businesses and contribute meaningfully to the growth and development of the Ghanaian economy (Muriithi, 2017).

Through its youth entrepreneurship programs, the Government of Ghana has provided funding opportunities and support systems to enhance the growth of YOMSB (Ntiamoah & Kwamega, 2016; Appiah, Osei, Selassie, & Osabutey, 2019). Notwithstanding, many YOMSBs still struggle to survive the highly competitive business environment in which they find themselves due to a lack of funds to support their business operations (Boadu, Wang, & Sunindijo, 2020). In addition, most YOMSBs have still not fully recovered from the business disruptions that were caused by the Covid-19 pandemic (Thukral, 2021; Owusu, 2022). Amidst these circumstances, this study investigates vital organisational issues that could benefit the growth and development of YOMSB in Ghana, such as organisational climate, perceptions of transformational leadership, leaders' emotional intelligence, and employee job satisfaction. The motivation to assess the relationships between organisational climate, perceptions of transformational leadership, leaders' emotional intelligence, and employee job satisfaction is to make meaningful contributions to Sustainable Development Goal 8, which talks about decent work and economic growth. Therefore, this study is being conducted to contribute to issues concerning decent work and economic growth for YOMSB in Ghana.

1.3 Problem statement

Small and medium scale business enterprises include YOMSB have become vital engines of innovation and job creation in Ghana, yet persistent struggles plague their survival and limit their immense potential (Amaglo 2019). The alarming reality is approximately 40% of these Ghanaian small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) collapse within five years of founding (Peprah, Mensah, & Akosah, 2016). Behind these drastic failure rates lies managers' lacking the managerial acumen, emotional intelligence, and steadfast leadership required to maintain team cohesion and drive strategic focus during the inevitable volatility early-stage ventures face (St-Pierre et al 2015; Bushe, 2019). Specifically, prior studies have spotlighted how deficiencies in strategic leadership approaches and founders' emotional intelligence, self-awareness, and empathy capacity foster counterproductive organizational climates marked by distrust, tension, and poor communication, which dramatically inhibits employee satisfaction, creativity, resilience, commitment, and risk-taking behaviors desperately required for undercapitalized startups to survive periodic volatility. (Annor, 2016; Gyensare et al. 2016; Muriithi - 2017; Bushe, 2019).

Although research has shown a link between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction, it must be noted that these studies have primarily focused on the food and beverage, banking, education, and health sectors in Ghana, Egypt, India, Nigeria, Malaysia, and the United States of America, excluding other relevant and important industries (Thakre & Shroff, 2016; Fernandes, 2016; Tsui-Ping, 2017; Woko, Ukoha, & Alagah 2018; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee; 2018; Okoli, 2018; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee 2018; Li, Huang, & Chen 2020; Rinawati & Nasution, 2021).

Transformational leadership has received much attention in human resource and leadership studies and has significantly contributed to several organisational outcomes. For instance, studies have shown that transformative leadership is related to improved company outcomes like increased job satisfaction, staff commitment, and employee engagement at work (Mesu, Sanders, & van Riemsdijk, 2015; Allen, Attah, & Gong, 2017;

Jiang et al., 2017; Ocak & Ozturk, 2018; Shafique & Kalyar, 2018; Afsar, & Umrani, 2020). However, an existing gap is that transformational leadership is mainly used as an independent variable in most studies (Puni, Mohammed, & Asamoah, 2018; Jan & Manzoor, 2021). For this reason, this research aims to take a novel approach by treating perceptions of transformational leadership style as an interactive variable to learn how it affects the relationship between an organisation's climate and the satisfaction of its employees, in the unexplored YOMSB sector, which has relatively high failure rate within the first five years. In the context of YOMSB in Ghana, this is crucial in determining whether it will be a moderator in the connection between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

Furthermore, although research on perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence has proven that it has promising implications for work outcomes such as job satisfaction, engagement, employee citizenship behaviours, commitment, and employee performance, among others (Cohen & Abedallah, 2015; Berkovich & Eyal, 2016; Bhalerao & Kumar, 2016; Amjad, 2018; Suleman, Syed, Mahmood, & Hussain, 2020; Hameli & Ordun, 2022), it can be observed that perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence is used chiefly as a predictor/independent variable in such studies, and not as an interactive variable (Rashid, Bajwa, & Batool, 2016). This study, therefore, seeks to examine perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence as an interactive variable to assess its relations with organisational climate and job satisfaction in the unexplored YOMSB.

1.4 Aim of the study

The study aims to contribute to the existing literature on organisational climate, perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence, perceptions of transformational leadership style, and job satisfaction, as there is limited research on such variables among YOMSB in Ghana, which form an important aspect of the economy of Ghana and its development. It is this important aspect of youth enterprises that the study's findings aim to influence policy formulation for the development and growth of such enterprises in Ghana,

especially in the wake of their highly reported failure rates (Gyimah, Marom, & Lussier, 2019).

1.5 Research objectives

1.5.1 Main objective

The study's main objective is to examine the interactive effect of organisational climate, perceptions of transformational leadership style, and perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.

1.5.2 Subsidiary objectives

1. To examine the level of organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
2. To examine the level of employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
3. To examine the level of perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence among YOMSB in Ghana.
4. To examine the level of perceptions of transformational leadership among YOMSB in Ghana.
5. To examine the effect of organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
6. To examine the effect of perceptions of transformational leadership style on organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
7. To examine the effect of perceptions of transformational leadership style on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
8. To examine the effect of leaders' emotional intelligence on organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
9. To examine the effect of a leader's emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
10. To examine the interactive effect of organisational climate, perceptions of transformational leadership, and perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.

1.6 Hypotheses

1.6.1 Main hypotheses

Perceptions of leader's transformational leadership style and perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will directly and indirectly affect the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSBs in Ghana.

1.6.2 Subsidiary hypotheses

H1: Organisational climate will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

H2: Perceptions of transformational leadership will have a significant positive effect on organisational climate YOMSBs in Ghana.

H3: Perceptions of transformational leadership will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

H4: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on organisational climate YOMSBs in Ghana.

H5: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

H6: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on transformational leadership YOMSBs in Ghana.

H7: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will significantly moderate the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

H8: Perceptions of transformational leadership will significantly moderate the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

1.7 Overview of the research methodology

Initially, the study started with its foundation on the positivist paradigm, employing a quantitative research approach. However, during data collection and analysis, it became evident that the approach should change. The researcher, therefore, adopted a pragmatic research paradigm, which calls for harmony between subjectivity and objectivity throughout the investigation (Shannon-Baker, 2016). The pragmatic paradigm was

suitable because neither positivism nor interpretivism could individually help the researcher accomplish all the study's aims. The study, therefore, adopted a sequential explanatory mixed research approach in which a quantitative research approach was initially used, followed by a qualitative approach, as the researcher was of the view that the research problem could best be addressed by embracing both approaches in a single study (Singh, 2015).

Small businesses in the Greater Accra region of Ghana, including those engaged in manufacturing, and those providing services, constitute the study's population. According to the NBSSI (2017), there are 4,800 YOMSB in Accra. Six hundred and two (602) employees were used as the sample size for the study's quantitative portion, and fifteen managers and employees participated in the qualitative part of the study. A random sample method was used to draw the sample for the quantitative portion of the study. This was to ensure the minimization of selection biases and increase the generalizability of the findings to the larger population (Cohen, Manion & Morison 2017). The qualitative part of the study employed twenty (20) participants comprising of ten (10) managers and ten (10) employees. Purposeful sampling strategy was employed in the selection of sample for the qualitative part of the study as it allowed for targeted participant selection of participants who have rich experience and expertise on the subject of study (Singh, 2015).

While the quantitative portion of the study relied on participants' responses to closed-ended online survey questionnaires, qualitative data was collected through in-depth interviews. Both descriptive and inferential statistical methods were used to examine the quantitative data. In addition, thematic analysis was used in analysing the qualitative data. The researcher ensured that ethical consideration was applied strictly to the entire work, especially during the data collection. The ethical issues considered were informed consent, anonymity, and confidentiality.

In order to ensure that participants gave their informed consent, the researcher included an introduction to the questionnaire in the email they sent to participants. As part of the study's introduction, the researcher outlined the study's goals and assured participants that their participation was entirely voluntary. In this sense, all of the employees of the YOMSB who took part in the study did so voluntarily. The researcher additionally protected the confidentiality of all survey and interview responses by using them exclusively in the study. Data collected via Google Forms was encrypted before being sent to SPSS version 26 and made inaccessible to anyone but the researchers. Additionally, the interview sections' transcripts were securely kept on the One Drive cloud database. The researcher secured anonymity by not including any identifying information about the participants (such as their names, phone numbers, or employee ID numbers) in the questionnaire and interview transcripts.

1.8 Delimitations of the study

The Greater region of Ghana was selected as the sole location for this study. The Greater Accra region is the capital area of Ghana and contains the highest levels of economic activity, infrastructure, and services in the country (Abor, Adjasi, & Hayford, 2008; Ghana Statistical Service, 2021). Conducting research on youth enterprises here can provide useful insights into the opportunities and challenges these firms face in the nation's most developed business environment. The study is limited to this location because Accra has a vibrant local small business sector and is home to numerous programs and incubators aimed at supporting young entrepreneurs, providing resources, networks, and access to markets not readily available in other parts of Ghana (Ghana Statistical Service, 2021). In addition, the characteristics of YOMSB in Accra are typical of businesses of a similar nature operating in other parts of the country.

1.9 Limitations

A major limitation of the study was the difficulty in accessing respondents. This was because the Covid -19 pandemic imposed several restrictions on public gatherings, which caused several businesses, including some YOMSB, to close down temporally or work

remotely or virtually. As a result, it was very difficult to gain access to employees of the YOMSB to participate in the study. The study, therefore, resorted to using an online survey to overcome the challenge of access to respondents.

Another limitation of the study was a display of apathy by the employees of the YOMSB toward completing the online questionnaires. Respondents mainly either did not have the drive or motivation to complete the online questionnaire. The researcher, therefore, constantly tracked and checked up on the status of the online questionnaire completion; this served as feedback to human resource managers of the YOMSB to encourage their employees to complete the online questionnaires.

A major limitation of the study was the time-consuming nature of the entire work, as a sequential explanatory mixed research approach was used. In other words, quantitative data was collected and analysed before commencing the collection and subsequent analysis of qualitative data. The latter contributed significantly to the delay in the entire process. However, the researcher employed good time management by setting timelines for completion and exercising discipline to overcome this limitation.

1.10 Contribution of the study

This study makes critical practical contributions to promoting decent work environments and improving organisational climate, salaries, benefits, and productivity for youth-owned micro and small businesses (YOMSBs) in Ghana, advancing SDG 8. The findings suggest that government policies should focus on building youth entrepreneurs' leadership and management capacity and create a more enabling environment via supportive monetary policies and tax incentives. Theoretically, the study addressed gaps in the existing literature by being the first to examine perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence and perceptions of transformational leadership as moderators between organisational climate and job satisfaction. It also filled a crucial contextual gap, as no prior studies on these relationships were conducted within Ghanaian YOMSBs despite their central role in national economic growth. Overall, the practical insights for upgrading

YOMSB management and work conditions and the theoretical contributions around perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence, perceptions of transformational leadership style, organisational climate, and satisfaction advance knowledge meaningfully.

1.11 Structure of the thesis

The structure of the study is as follows: The first chapter offers an introduction to the research project as a whole. The explanation of the problem, the context in which the problem exists, the aim, objectives, scope of the study, and the limitation of the investigation are all outlined in this section. Employee job satisfaction among YOMSB is the topic of discussion in Chapter 2, which follows. In Chapter 3, perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence, perceptions of transformational leadership style, and implications for Ghana's YOMSB are addressed. In Chapter 4, the organisational climate that pertains to YOMSB is discussed. In Chapter 5, the empirical review of the study's subject is undertaken, the study's hypotheses and theory are presented. The methodology employed in the study is presented in Chapter 6. Finally, the results and the discussion are presented in Chapter 7, and the conclusion and recommendations, in addition to directions for further research, are presented in Chapter 8.

1.12 Chapter summary

The high failure rate among start-ups in Ghana was recognised as the study's central problem. In this research, it is hypothesised that perceptions of transformational leadership styles and perceptions leader's emotional intelligence could moderate the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction among YOMSB youth. Several hypotheses were proposed for testing based on this framework. In the process of developing the problem description and the hypotheses, four major concerns surfaced. This includes employee job satisfaction, the leader's emotional intelligence, the leader's emotional intelligence and the organisational climate. The following four chapters (Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 5) of the literature review are dedicated to each of these four overarching concerns.

CHAPTER 2: JOB SATISFACTION

2.1 Introduction

An overview of the study, including its rationale, objectives, and definition of the problem, among others, was presented in the previous chapter. In the previous chapter, it was stated that the kind of organisational climate that an organisation adopts could affect the level of employee job satisfaction. This relationship could further be influenced by the leadership style practiced, and the leader's emotional intelligence. Several hypotheses were proposed on the basis of the thesis statement.

This chapter focuses on the concept of job satisfaction, which is the dependent variable of the study. The chapter is arranged as follows: first, different definitions of job satisfaction are reviewed, and justification is made. This is followed by an examination of the factors that influence job satisfaction, and the relevance of job satisfaction in organisations. The chapter also reviewed two job satisfaction theories and provided criticism of these theories. Different measures of job satisfaction are also provided, and justification is made for one in this chapter. The chapter concludes with a summary.

2.2 Definitions of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction has, over the years, received the attention of many scholars (Yoon, 2020). Vigan and Giauque (2016) argue that quantitatively speaking, the concept of employee job satisfaction appears to be the most investigated topic in the field of organisational behaviour. There are a few reasons for the rising interest in this concept. First and foremost, job satisfaction is a multidisciplinary concept. Job satisfaction is at the intersection of multiple disciplines, including psychology, social sciences, economics, management, and even the health sciences, which has seen an enormous number of articles published about the concept of job satisfaction (Deriba, Sinke, Ereso, & Badacho, 2017; Abdullah, Dechun, Sarfraz, Ivascu, & Riaz, 2021). The second reason is that work is a vital component of modern societies, and as such, understanding how employees

feel about their job, has become more crucial (Vigan & Giauque, 2016). The link between job satisfaction and numerous performance measures is the third explanation. Many studies suggest that contented workers are more productive, happier in their lives, and healthier, whereas unsatisfied workers report late to work and develop antisocial and counter-productive behaviours (Mirabito & Berry, 2015; Cantarelli, Belardinelli, & Belle, 2016; Shazadi, Nadeem, & Azeem, 2017; Ahmad, 2018; Khan, Hassan, Jalees, & AsadUllah, 2020). Several definitions of job satisfaction may be found in the literature; however, there is still no consensus on a globally accepted definition, despite the progress made in the research on job satisfaction.

The definition of job satisfaction can be viewed from two main standpoints (Oravee, Zayum, & Kokona, 2018). In the first viewpoint, job satisfaction is described from the affective or emotional perspective, which is a subjective representation of an emotional feeling individuals have about their jobs. In line with this view, Locke (1976:1304), who is considered a pioneer in this field, described the concept of "job satisfaction" as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences." Similarly, Hasibuan (2016) referred to job satisfaction as a pleasant emotional attitude and love for one's job. According to Setiawan, Eliyana, Suryani, and Christopher (2020), job satisfaction is a reflection of the feelings that employees have while working at the organisation. According to the above, the way in which workers evaluate various components of job satisfaction might determine whether or not these feelings are "favourable" or "unfavourable".

Based on the definitions above, job satisfaction refers to the admiration and contentment one feels about their job. Hence, the definition of job satisfaction, from an affective approach, reflects the degree of pleasure or happiness that employees' jobs, in general, induce. However, the weakness of this standpoint is that it is mainly subjective and does not include an objective, logical evaluation of various facets of a job.

The second approach to a definition of job satisfaction, also referred to as the cognitive approach, unlike the earlier affective approach, is more objective and entails a logical assessment of numerous aspects of work (Oravee, Zayum, & Kokona, 2018). These can be unidimensional, in which case only one facet of a job (such as pay or benefits such as maternity leave) is considered, or multidimensional, in which case two or more facet(s) are considered together (Khan, Khan, Mohmand, & Misbahm, 2020). In contrast to traditional measures of job satisfaction, which focus on how much workers like certain aspects of their professions, cognitive job satisfaction evaluates how well those aspects of work measure against the workers' expectations and the demands of similar occupations (Donghun & Pantea, 2020).

In line with this approach, Kantek and Kaya (2017) defined job satisfaction as the match between employees' expectations and the benefits they receive from their employer, which is demonstrated in their attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, behaviour, and assessments of their organisation. Iman and Lestari (2019: 446) also defined job satisfaction as "a summative assessment of a feeling or attitude of a person or an employee towards work, that has direct relationships with the working environment, type of work, compensation, social relations at work, and others." It can be deduced, therefore, that generally, employees have some expectations of some features and conditions relating to the work that must be provided, to provoke this positive emotional state of job satisfaction. The definition by Iman and Lestari (2019) could be interpreted as an emotional state that reflects individuals' positive feelings when they appreciate their jobs. It generally reflects all of the following judgments: individuals' wants, the importance of these wants, and individuals' perceptions of what they are receiving in relation to their wants.

While the two approaches to job satisfaction definitions are distinct, it can be argued that cognitive job satisfaction might help to bring about affective satisfaction. When the cognitive assessment of the different aspects of the job is perceived as favourable, it results in a positive emotional or affective response referred to as job satisfaction. This study adopts Lambert, Qureshi, Frank, Klahm, and Smith's (2018) definition, which

combines both the affective and cognitive approaches to provide a broader sense of what job satisfaction means. In their definition, they referred to it as an affective (emotional) response by an individual or group of people regarding their work, resulting from a comparison of actual results with those that are expected, desired, and needed in relation to several aspects, such as pay, working environment, collegial support, and communication.

Job satisfaction is an essential concept that managers of YOMSB in Ghana should give attention to, as far as the management of human resources is concerned. In doing so, YOMSB must first understand employees' expectations about the job to meet these expectations and achieve employee satisfaction. Additionally, there is a need for leaders of YOMSB to ensure that basic features such as good working conditions, good salaries, and a comfortable, safe, and clean environment with a modern and equipped workspace are in place. Establishing these features might enhance performance and enable adequate support from supervisors and colleagues to improve satisfaction.

2.3 Factors that affect job satisfaction

Several studies over the past two decades have been conducted about factors that affect the job satisfaction of employees (Usman & Jamal, 2013; Miller, 2014; Squires, Hoben, Linklater, Carleton, Graham, & Estabrooks, 2015; Santti, Eskelinen, Rajahonka, Villman, & Happonen, 2017). Factors that influence or determine job satisfaction can be grouped into two main categories: environmental and personal (Alghamdi, Topp, & AlYami, 2018). Working conditions, opportunities for growth, rewards, supervision, co-workers, and communication are all examples of environmental influences (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015; Bojadjiev, Petkovska, Misoska, & Stojanovska, 2015). In addition, personal characteristics include age, gender, education, years of service, and other demographic information (Koorella & Perumal, 2019). Below is a discussion of job satisfaction's environmental and personal factors.

2.3.1 Environmental factors

2.3.1.1 Working conditions

Working conditions refer to the physical and social conditions that prevail in the working environment as perceived by employees (Ogonda, Orwa, Peter, & Jedida, 2015). Hee, Ong, Ping, Kowang, and Fei (2019) asserted that employees should work in a more comfortable, safe, and clean environment, within a modern and sufficiently equipped space to be able to achieve high performance and productivity. Workplace environments can be classified into two types: collaborative and toxic (Smith, Morin, & Lake, 2015; Günüşen, Wilson, & Aksoy, 2018; Jay & Andersen, 2018).

Collaborative working environments, on the positive end of the spectrum, allude to a high-spirit workplace with a community-centred approach in which the employee and employer have an empathetic relationship that encourages an employee's physical and psychological well-being. Happiness, joy, harmony, kindness, civility, cooperation, and facilitation are all outcomes of a collaborative workplace environment (Wolf, Perhats, Delao, & Clark, 2015; Pickering, Nurenberg, & Schiamberg, 2017).

At the opposing end of the spectrum, the workplace is toxic when individuals in power are greedy and narcissistic, and use unfair means to bully, harass, threaten, and humiliate others (Anjum, Ming, Siddiqi, & Rasool, 2018). Toxic workplace environments induce repulsive experiences that lead to negative, adverse, and reduced employee outcomes (Smith, Morin, & Lake, 2015; Zare, Ebrahimi, Snjaghi, & Ramezan, 2017). Some of the adverse effects of a toxic working environment in the workplace include anxiety, stress, depression, health problems, absenteeism, job burnout, and counter-productive work behaviour, and these ultimately lower productivities (Pickering, Nurenberg, & Schiamberg, 2017).

Zare et al. (2017) explain that there are different toxic workplace environments, depending on the source of the toxin. Sources of toxins in the work environment include

toxic physical structures such as unfavourable temperatures, poor lighting and ventilation, excessive noise in the workplace, and toxic occupational structures (insecurity and job independence) (Anjum, Ming, Siddiqi, & Rasool, 2018). In addition, toxic leadership, toxic interpersonal relationships, and toxic compensation and reward systems are other sources of toxic conditions that can define working environments. Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) and Vuolle (2016) assessed the relationship between the working environment and job satisfaction. Workplace conditions were found to significantly impact employee satisfaction in both studies. Salunke (2015) and Agbozo et al. (2017) also concluded that the work environment has a significant positive impact on job satisfaction. These results imply that an improvement in employee working conditions results in a corresponding increase in employee job satisfaction.

Linking working environments to the context of YOMSB in Ghana, the researcher argues that creating a collaborative or toxic working environment, is crucial for achieving employee and organisational productivity. In this regard, it remains pertinent that for YOMSB to become competitive in the different sectors in which they operate, relentless efforts must be made to make the work environment more collaborative. In contrast, any elements of toxic work environments must be reduced or eliminated. This could ensure that employees work in a safe and innovative environment, defined by a friendly atmosphere, effective leadership, and support systems that enhance employee and organisational productivity.

2.3.1.2 Pay

Pay is a critical factor in determining job satisfaction because it enables employees to purchase whatever they want and serves as an employee's source of self-esteem. Salisu, Chinyio, and Suresh (2015) and Mabaso and Dlamini (2017), confirmed that pay and job satisfaction are positively related. These results imply that an increase in the pay or compensation of employees would result in an improvement in the levels of job satisfaction. They noted, however, that not all employees have a high sense of value for

money since others would be willing to work for less money in exchange for conditions such as fewer working hours, less demanding work, and a shorter home-to-office commute. Contrary to the above studies, Serreqi (2020) established that compensation does not affect the job satisfaction of employees.

Pay has a significant role to play in the survival of YOMSB in Ghana. Although most YOMSB might have weak compensation systems due to financial difficulties, it remains important for these enterprises' managers to have a fair compensation structure for their employees. Fairness in the payment structures of YOMSB could enable them to keep their employees and improve their pay and compensation structures as their organisations grow and expand over time.

2.3.1.3 Supervision

One of the most critical influences on an employee's job satisfaction is a supervisor. In their discussion of what it takes to be an effective supervisor, Vannucci, Whiteside, Saigal, Nichols, and Hileman (2017) noted the need to have a firm grasp of both the technical and interpersonal skillsets, as well as the ability to coordinate the various aspects of a workplace. The recognition and support of supervisors and managers significantly contribute to employee job satisfaction (Qureshi & Hamid, 2017; Ahmed, Khuwaja, Brohi, & Othman, 2018; Brohi, Jantan, Mehmood, Khuhro, & Aktar, 2018). As representatives of the organisation, supervisory support by supervisors to employees are often perceived as being the same as that of the organisation. Effective communication is an example of supervisors providing supervisory support to subordinates (Tasnim & Akkas, 2017). It means that supervisors' style, along with their human relations and administrative skills, determines employee job satisfaction (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière, & Raymond, 2016). The authors further indicated that the supervision style could either be employee-oriented or task-oriented.

Employee-oriented supervision involves building supportive and personal relationships with employees by taking an interest in them, providing support, and assist in realizing their goals. On the contrary, task-oriented supervision, emphasises getting the work done to achieve organisational objectives. Additionally, while a task-oriented approach may be high in supervision, it usually has a low level of employee orientation and vice versa (Mathieu et al., 2016). Despite the difference, Armstrong, Atkin-Plunk, and Wells (2015) pointed out that the involvement of employees in job-decision in both supervision styles generally affects job satisfaction. They further asserted that when employees are generally involved in decision-making, it results in better employee job satisfaction rather than only partial participation in specific decision-making.

Employee job satisfaction rises when supervisors demonstrate characteristics such as recognizing employee performance, understanding and friendliness, genuine interest in employees, and encouraging subordinates to participate in decision-making (Vann, 2017). Additionally, providing technical support, work-related help, guidance, and related support for developing problem-solving skills, tend to enhance subordinate satisfaction on the job (Weaver & Lindgren, 2017). Conversely, supervisors' display of insensitivity, incompetence, abuse, and careless characteristics is a crucial, negative contributing factor to job dissatisfaction among employees (Liu, Zhu, & Wei, 2019).

Some studies have examined the supervisor support and an employee's job satisfaction relation and found a significant positive correlation (Kong, Wang, & Fu, 2015; Greenan, 2016; Cortini, 2016; Fernández-Aráoz, 2018). However, contrary to the above, Sangakala, Ahmed, and Pahi (2016), Brohi, Abdullah, Khan, Dahri, Ali, and Markhand (2018), and Shah, Ali, Dahri, Brohi, Maher, and Hameed (2018) found that no relationships exist between supervisor support and job satisfaction. For YOMSB in Ghana to grow, the researcher argues that employee-oriented and task-oriented supervision styles could be used to enhance employee productivity. Focusing on employee-oriented supervision could build healthy relationships between employees and their supervisors, but could also lead to low levels of employee productivity. Focusing only on a task-

oriented style of supervision could lead to completing tasks, but result in poor relationships between employees and their supervisors, which could also limit employee productivity. In this regard, by combining employee and task-oriented approaches to supervision, tasks could be completed, and cordial relationships between employees and their supervisors might be created.

2.3.1.4 Co-worker support

Job satisfaction is relatively high among staff with better working relations than with other workers (Awan & Tahir, 2015). According to research by Abun, Magallanes, Foronda, Paynaen, Agoot, and Pre (2018), workers would rather collaborate with affable and helpful coworkers. Employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs if they have pleasant coworkers with whom to interact throughout the working day (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015). This is corroborated by Orgambdez-Ramos and Borrego-Alés who (2016). They asserted that employees have social needs which cannot be addressed by monetary value and personal achievement, but rather by supportive assistance and friendly interaction with workplace peers. Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) established that supportive working colleagues in the working environment enhance job satisfaction and vice versa. Similarly, Kohli and Sharma (2018) confirmed that a co-worker relationship enhances job satisfaction. In contrast, Sundar and Brucker (2019) revealed that co-worker relationships do not affect job satisfaction.

Within the context of YOMSB, the researcher argues that co-worker support could become an integral part of the organisational culture by promoting teamwork. YOMSB can benefit from co-worker support when teamwork is integral to their organisational cultures. It is also critical for the working environment of YOMSB to be collaborative, to ensure employee and peer friendliness, which could positively impact workplace productivity.

2.3.1.5 Communication

Communication is the lifeline of every organisation, as it forms the foundation for information sharing, essential for organisational performance and survival (Musheke & Phiri, 2021). Organisations undertake external communications, which connect with their external stakeholders. They also carry out internal communications, which are mainly among employees. According to Yansen, Supriyati, and Kadir (2019), two main forms of internal communication exist in any organisation. The first one is top-down communication, in which management undertakes oral presentations and feedback to employees in the organisation, through official channels. The second type of workplace interaction is known as "informal communication," and it entails non-official conversations between co-workers. It is not sanctioned by management and is founded on the casual friendships and ties that develop among co-workers outside of formal organisational frameworks.

Internal communication can affect job satisfaction levels in an organisation because of its effect on the caliber of inter-employee interactions, according to Hampton (2019). The author also pointed out that while positive interactions and communication increase job satisfaction, negative interactions and communication result in employee discontent. This assertion was supported by two studies, namely Paksoy, Soyer, and Çalık (2017) and Kapur (2018) who demonstrated a positive correlation between internal organisational communication and employee job satisfaction in the workplace, lending credence to this claim. This suggests that better employee communication leads to correspondingly higher levels of job satisfaction.

Communication within the context of YOMSB must be taken seriously, since it has implications for both employee and organisational performance. YOMSB could ensure that communication from managers to employees is clear enough to ensure understanding. There is also the need for managers to always seek feedback from employees. Effective communication in YOMSB has implications for employee job

satisfaction, and the absence of effective communication mechanisms could lead to dissatisfaction among employees.

2.3.1.6 Promotion opportunities

Promotional opportunities describe the opportunities in organisations that advance careers, and the employee's perceptions of the degree of fairness in the promotion process (Miah, 2018). Promotion is one of the modern business world's incentives that encourages people to contribute effectively to their firms, and it influences organisational performance and job satisfaction (Ghaffari, Shah, Burgoyne, Nazri, & Salleh, 2017). In addition, increased job satisfaction is a result of promotions, as they allow for more autonomy and responsibility in one's work, and a higher social status in the workplace (Kapur, 2018).

However, Abuhashesh, Al-Dmour, and Masa'deh (2019) stressed that due to the preference for fair and equitable promotion policies and practices by employees, working environments characterised by unfair and limited promotion opportunities for advancement, result in negative emotional reactions or job dissatisfaction toward the job and the organisation. The implication is that employees are more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and more concerned about organisational problems, when they perceive considerable prospects for a promotion that is administered equitably. This is corroborated by Yousef (2017) and Singh (2019) who confirmed that promotion opportunities positively impact job satisfaction.

Based on the above literature, the researcher argues that within YOMSB, promotional opportunities for career advancement could be essential in enhancing positive employee outcomes, such as job satisfaction and productivity. YOMSB could therefore have access to promotional opportunities for each employee, based on their specialty. Furthermore, the access mode needs to be fair and devoid of favouritism or nepotism. This would motivate employees to give their best, because they could be convinced that their hard

work would be fairly rewarded in line with the workplace's promotional and career advancement structures.

2.3.2 Personal factors

2.3.2.1 Gender

Increasing numbers of women are entering the workforce, which has contributed to the modern definition of "workplace diversity" (Marasinghe & Wijayaratne, 2018). Organisations can, therefore, better manage diversity issues and enhance productivity when the different attitudes of males and females in the working environment are identified (Magee, 2015). This is essential and reinforced by Zou (2015) who suggests that gender differences in employees reflect on several aspects of the quality of the job, including contract type, wages, working hours, condition of work, promotion opportunities, and other factors, such as training and leader–worker relationships. This suggests that gender differences can impact job satisfaction differently, as different working conditions mean different things to males and females.

Existing literature on the gender and job satisfaction relationship is inconsistent. For instance, Akbari, Bagheri, Fathollahi, and Darvish (2020) argue that while women are more likely to have employment conditions such as lower salaries, part-time positions, temporary contracts, and inadequate social protection, their male counterparts in the working environment are more likely to have high salaries, faster and higher management positions. Despite this, Ayadi, Ojo, Ayadi, and Adetula (2015) and Anuradha and Pandey (2017) indicated that women are more satisfied with the working environment as long as the work-life balance is maintained. Conversely, Feng and Savani (2020) and Akbari, Bagheri, Fathollahi, and Darvish (2020) confirmed that males in the workplace are more satisfied than females. Contrary to the above, Ghiasi and Limoni (2015) and Onuoha and Pathak (2015) established that as far as job satisfaction in the workplace is concerned, no distinctions can be made between the sexes.

Within the context of YOMSB, the researcher argues that systems and structures should not show favouritism to either males or females on compensation, job design, performance appraisal, and promotional and career advancement opportunities, among others. In this regard, YOMSB could ensure that their working environment is devoid of gender-based favouritism, to achieve optimum performance from both males and females working in their organisations.

2.3.2.2 Educational level

The educational level and employee satisfaction relationship are inconsistent (González, Sánchez, & López-Guzmán, 2016). For example, Ivanović-Đukić, Đorđević, and Lepojevi (2018) confirmed that as employees' educational level increases, so do their level of job satisfaction, which explains the relationship between a good degree and job match quality. González et al. (2016) elaborated that employees with higher levels of education are more likely to be content with their jobs when their expectations in these areas (job requirements, pay, incentives, and recognition) are met. There is, therefore, a need for job requirements to match the educational levels of workers, since a mismatch of higher education with low job requirements results in employee dissatisfaction (Serrano-López, Astudillo-Durán, Muñoz-Fernández, & González Santa Cruz, 2019).

Contrary to the above arguments, Parul (2018) concluded that job satisfaction among employees with higher levels of education is low. This is attributed to the fact that education tends to raise workers' expectations, depending on their personal and professional aspirations. As one's educational level rises, there is a likelihood that employees, especially the young, will be more dissatisfied with unattractive working conditions, especially where there is limited autonomy and employee tasks are routine. (Gonzalez et al., 2016). In contrast to the above literature, no relationship was found between job satisfaction and the education level of employees in Getahun, Tefera, and Burichew (2016).

Based on the above literature, the researcher argues that although the educational level of employees is essential for achieving work productivity, it is vital for YOMSB to design its promotional and career advancement initiatives, based on more than just educational levels. Additionally, it could focus more on the actual work output efficiency of employees and the kind of experience they bring on board. This assertion holds for pay, compensation, and reward initiatives as well.

2.3.2.3 Tenure

Tenure measures how long one has been in the job in an organisation (Uzonwanne, 2015), and, in addition, relationships between tenure and job satisfaction take different forms. For instance, Chaudhuri, Reilly, and Spencer (2015) pointed out that employees' length of service in an organisation has a positive relationship with job satisfaction. This is because dissatisfied workers are more inclined to quit, whereas happy workers are more likely to stay put (Reukauf, 2018). This positive correlation may also be explained by the fact that employees and supervisors grow more invested in their occupations with time, making them more satisfied with their work.

According to the u-shaped model of the relationship between tenure and job satisfaction that has emerged in the literature, shifts in job satisfaction emerge from gradual increases or decreases in an individual's intrinsic contentment with his or her work (Esen, 2016; Dobrow, Riza, Ganzach, & Liu, 2018). However, Alanolu and Demirtaş' (2019) research suggest that job satisfaction decreases with time, should the employee remain in the same position, which runs counter to the results of the aforementioned studies. One possible explanation for the inverse relationship between job tenure and satisfaction is the prevalence of flat organisational structures, which tend to limit one's opportunities for management advancement, career stage, and similar factors, once one has settled and committed to a position (Ashley, Peters, Brown, & Halcomb, 2018; Baek, Han, & Ryu, 2019).

From the literature, the researcher argues that tenure could enhance job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, based on the kind of working conditions that exist within the context of YOMSB. For example, when the working environment is more collaborative, friendly, and innovative, among other things, employees' tenure is most likely to enhance their job satisfaction. Conversely, in instances where the working environment is characterized by a tension between managers and employees, poor feedback systems, low morale, poor compensation, and inadequate reward systems, among others, tenure is most likely to be associated with employee dissatisfaction.

2.3.2.4 Age

There is a lack of consensus in the literature about how age affects employees' job satisfaction. However, job satisfaction was higher among older workers than among younger workers, according to research by Hatak, Harms, and Fink (2015) and Manasseh and Iroegbu (2015). According to Burks (2015), the rewards of a lengthy career, such as higher pay, better benefits, and professional advancement, may explain why older workers report higher levels of job satisfaction. Castellacci and Vias-Bardolet (2020) also pointed out that workers have more experience and maturity as they grow older. This leads to fewer ambitious objectives, more realistic expectations, and less emphasis on comparisons with peers and co-workers. The researchers further explained that while job satisfaction is often higher for employees under 30 and those over 61, that of the middle-aged is comparatively lower. They linked this to the fact that workers at a young age often experience high levels of satisfaction due to the exhilaration of having a job, rather than being unemployed like their peers. Workers' hopes and expectations about desirable working conditions often rise as their careers progress, which can lead to unhappiness if these objectives are not met. In contrast to the outcomes of the above studies, Rajput, Kaurav, and Ghanghoriya (2019) revealed that age and job satisfaction do not have any association.

From the literature, the researcher argues that employees' age might be considered when incentive packages are designed, to achieve job satisfaction. This is because, in YOMSB, employees from different age groups are most likely to have different perceptions about incentive packages that could enhance their job satisfaction and influence their productivity. In this regard, failure to consider age dynamics in designing incentive packages might lead to job dissatisfaction and low employee productivity in the context of YOMSB.

2.4 Relevance of job satisfaction to organisations

Job satisfaction plays an essential role in the retention and performance of employees, which contributes immensely to the overall success of organisations (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). In other words, when employees are satisfied, it reduces employee absenteeism and staff turnover, which can ultimately impact productivity positively. Thus, employees' decisions on whether to remain in an organisation depend heavily on the difficulty of the work and, more importantly, the overall subjective assessment of job satisfaction (Gebregziabher, Berhanie, Berihu, Belstie, & Teklay 2020). Additionally, several studies have shown that when staff members have high levels of job satisfaction, it can translate into high levels of productivity, which, in turn, can lead to high-profit margins (Latif, Ahmad, Qasim, Mushtaq, Ferdoos, & Naeem, 2015; Bakoti, 2016; Judge et al., 2017; Miah, 2018).

Employee job satisfaction is critical as it influences employee and company performance (Meneghel, Borgogni, Miraglia, Salanova, & Martinez, 2016). Additionally, while the increase in job satisfaction in organisations fosters positive organisational outcomes, such as commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, and innovation (Dubey, & Gunasekaran, 2015; Babalola, 2016, Pham & Pham, 2016), organisations with disgruntled workers would see deviant work behaviour in the form of delays, absenteeism, turnover, and even more damaging forms of counter-productive behaviour, including corruption, sabotage, extortion, theft, fraud, and violence (Sila, & Širok, 2018). This could lead to high, long-term costs resulting from a lack of personnel, delays, and work-related

errors (Sila & Širok, 2018). Thus, job satisfaction has crucial implications for employee well-being, positive organisational outcomes, organisational performance and an essential factor in the (form of) minimization of deviant and counter-productive behaviours that could threaten the survival of YOMSB.

2.5 Job satisfaction theories

This section reviews three main job satisfaction theories, which include Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory and the Expectancy Theory.

2.5.1 Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs

The hierarchy of needs theory, propounded by Abraham Maslow, provides a framework for managers to better understand their employees' needs and expectations (Lussier, 2019). Though this theory was introduced in the 1940s and 1950s, it is still used today to investigate the motivations of humans. Based on physiological and psychological needs, this theory asserts that people go from one set of primary hierarchical motives to another. Maslow's hierarchy of needs is divided into five categories: physiological needs, safety, love and belonging, esteem, and the need for self-actualization (see Figure 2.1).

Level one, the lowest, covers physiological needs such as food, drink, air, shelter, rest, and sleep, which are necessities for human survival (Suyono & Mudjanarko, 2017). The human body cannot work correctly if these needs are not fulfilled. Therefore, physiological needs were regarded as the most important by Maslow, with all other needs taking a back seat until these were met. Level two, which comprises the next significant level of human needs, includes safety needs such as protection from fear and pain, a safe working environment, and job security. Social and belongingness needs such as love and tenderness form the third level of the hierarchy of needs (Hassard, Teoh & Cox, 2015). Level four includes self-esteem needs, such as self-confidence, achievement, recognition, being respected by others, and status. Level five, the zenith of the hierarchy, is self-actualization, which is described as personal growth and fulfillment and possibilities for innovation, creativity, and problem-solving (Peng, 2020). Maslow's (1954) theory

states that as lower-level needs (physiological, safety, and belongingness) are considerably met, the next higher-level needs (self-esteem, self-actualization) gain power and therefore become effective motivators (self-esteem, self-actualization).

Maslow's Hierarchy theory has been applied in several studies at varying levels, from national to organisational. In the former category, the theory has been applied in the context of nations (Buera & Glueck, 1979; Sirgy, 1986; Hagerty, 1999; Raymond, Mittelstaedt, & Hopkins, 2003) and in the latter, at the level of organisations (Uysalh, Aydemir, & Genç, 2017; Zvavahera & Tandi, 2019; Lussier, 2019; Lam 2020; Sharma, Chaturvedi, Suma 2020; Desmet & Fokkinga, 2020). In the same way, there is evidence of the applicability of this theory, in non-work settings (Jamal, Baba, & Mitchell, 1982).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs has far-reaching ramifications for YOMSB. It can reasonably be assumed that these businesses have employees with needs spanning the different levels of Maslow's hierarchy. Therefore, YOMSB has a responsibility to identify where each employee falls in Maslow's Hierarchy of needs so that employees can be adequately motivated. An employee's level of satisfaction would be improved only when these needs are identified and provided for. When an employee's needs are not met in their current work situation, it affects productivity and performance negatively and makes them feel unsettled. As a result, they could migrate to other employers, which could have severe implications for human capital and cost.

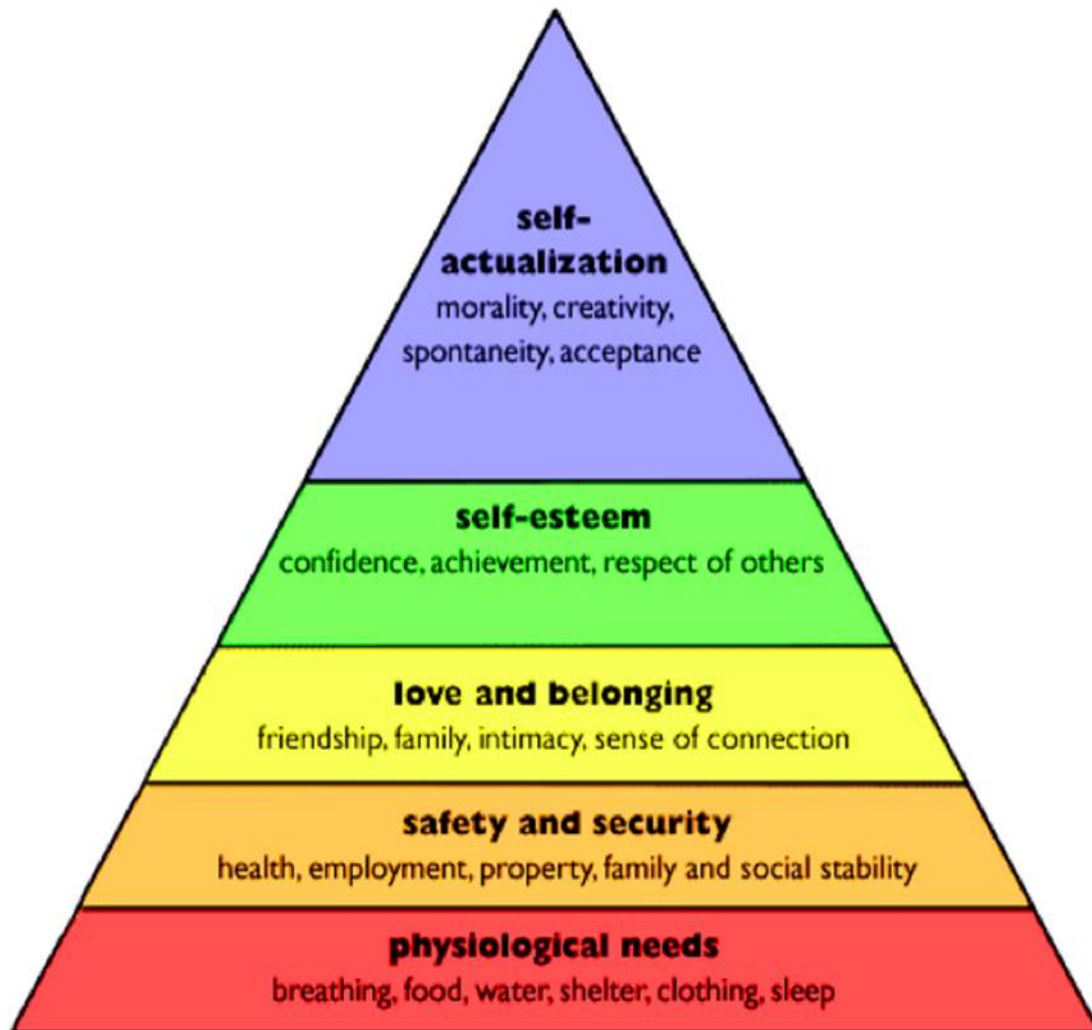


Figure 2.1: Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Source: McDermid (1960)

2.5.1.1 Criticisms of Maslow's hierarchy of needs

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs has received a few criticisms from many scholars, which are discussed below. Firstly, the theory of Maslow's Hierarchy of needs is criticized because it assumes that needs are arranged hierarchically (Louca, Esmailnia, & Thoma, 2021). This is because people can be motivated by higher-order needs even if their lower-order needs are not met. For example, despite their struggles to meet physiological needs

like food and shelter, people who live in poverty can still pursue higher-order needs like love and esteem, and physical attractiveness (Desmet & Fokkinga 2020). It can, therefore, not be assumed that higher-order needs will not be met, until basic requirements have been met.

The second criticism is that the hierarchical order of needs is skewed because of ethnocentrism (Compton, 2018). Self-actualization is seen as the most important human need in individualistic societies. Developed in an American cultural context, Maslow's theory focuses on the "individual" as a point of reference and in terms of the goal (Louca, Esmailnia, & Thoma, 2021). Objecting to this standpoint, Osemeke and Adegboyega (2018) asserted that Western ideologies do not apply to societies like Africa's and Asia's, where communality and collectivism are paramount, and where social needs take precedence over individual or self-focused needs. Additionally, social cohesion and acceptance (i.e. being integrated into your community) and social actualization (i.e. the ability to contribute to society and the common good) have been shown to have a significant impact on an individual's well-being, even in individualistic societies (King-Hill, 2015). Therefore, the focus on individualistic societies as the basis for the development of Maslow's hierarchical order of needs, may be regarded as flawed.

The model's conceptualization of self-actualization is another major flaw with the theory of needs (Mawere, Mubaya, Reisen, & van Stam 2016). To begin with, it was based on Maslow's definition of "self-actualized" individuals, which included only highly educated, white men (such as Abraham Lincoln and Albert Einstein) (Louca, Esmailnia, & Thoma, 2021). In addition, a small number of self-actualized women (like Eleanor Roosevelt & Mother Teresa) were studied by Maslow at a later stage (Maslow, 1970). Thus, this theory cannot be applied to people from other social groups, generations, genders, or levels of education. Furthermore, the concept of self-actualization is a bit nebulous (King-Hill, 2015).

2.5.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Frederick Herzberg (1959) proposed the Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene theory to explain the factors that influence the motivation of employees in the workplace, and it has since been applied to better understand employee job satisfaction (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018; Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahaibi, & Brommels, 2020). In the workplace context, Herzberg's theory of motivation suggests two motivating factors: motivators and hygiene factors (dissatisfiers).

Factors that satisfy a person in their employment are called motivators. Accomplishments, public acknowledgment, taking on more responsibility, and career advancement are all excellent examples of motivators. Contrarily, hygiene variables such as unfavourable working circumstances, low pay, negative co-worker relationships, ineffective management, and overbearing superiors contribute to discontent. (Sobaih, & Hasanein 2020). An individual's level of satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the workplace can be high and low simultaneously, due to the sequential nature of the two sets of factors, as proposed by Herzberg. Hygiene factors, often known as dissatisfiers, have no effect on employee satisfaction and can only increase or decrease the degree to which they are dissatisfied (Sobaih, & Hasanein 2020). Therefore, the need for satisfiers (motivational elements) to be harmonized with hygiene factors to achieve job satisfaction at work, arise.

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, lower wants must be satisfied before higher needs; this parallels the idea of motivational and hygienic factors, since hygiene elements enable motivational factors to arise, and help to avoid job dissatisfaction (Maslow, 1954). Therefore, Herzberg's motivators are akin to Maslow's intrinsic factors (related to higher needs). Maslow's extrinsic factors (those that are related to lower needs) appear to be like Herzberg's hygiene factors (dissatisfiers) (Alrawahi, Sellgren, Altouby, Alwahaibi, & Brommels, 2020). Based on Herzberg's two-factor, it can be implied that attractive pay, favourable working conditions, supportive supervisors, and likable co-workers, would not be enough to make a worker satisfied, but merely a worker who is not dissatisfied.

Therefore, hygiene factors must be in the acceptable range for motivational factors to take effect and achieve worker satisfaction.

Herzberg's two-factor theory is the most investigated and debated theory of workplace motivation, hence, it is deemed applicable in several industries (Kotni & Karumuri, 2018). Many research investigations have attempted to verify the validity of the idea and its connection to job satisfaction (JS), and this has been particularly done in industrialized countries (see, for example, DeShields, Kara, & Kaynak, 2005; Lundberg, Gudmundson, & Andersson, 2009; Tan & Waheed, 2011; Derby-Davis, 2014; Fareed & Jan, 2016; Kotni & Karumuri, 2018; Matei & Abrudan, 2016). These studies have been carried out in several industries, including banking, real estate, cultural context, tourism and hospitality context, and the public sector (Lundberg et al., 2009; Hyun & Oh, 2011; Tan & Waheed, 2011; Fareed & Jan, 2016; Matei & Abrudan, 2016).

Herzberg's two-factor theory greatly influences YOMSB. Managers need to recognize that employees' overall satisfaction is shaped by two workplace factors: satisfaction (motivators) and dissatisfaction (demotivators) (hygiene factors). Therefore, employers need to create a satisfying job environment by eliminating job dissatisfaction through better hygiene, while adopting practices that would ensure that motivators are well implemented in YOMSB to make the job more satisfying.

2.5.2.1 Criticisms of Herzberg's two-factor theory

Critics of this theory have questioned the methodology and findings of the study on controlled conditions, because they relied on the critical incident technique and the inflexibility of the methodology is (Bevins, 2018). This means that the findings of the theory can only be verified by one method, the one used by Herzberg to generate it. According to Muhammad and Basharat (2013), the two-factor theory has found little support from those using other approaches, such as regarding data gathering, data reduction, or data analysis. In addition, critics of the two-factor theory believe it is method-dependent,

because investigations that replicate Herzberg's variables to perfection, tend to get to the same or similar conclusions as Herzberg. These include Soliman (1970) and French, Metersky, Thaler, and Trexler (1973). Soliman (1970) researched whether or not modifications to the study methods would affect the outcomes. The researchers concluded that any modification in the way data is collected, the choice of the participants, and so on, would make the two-factor theory invalid.

Another criticism of the theory from the perspective of Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel (1967) is that the idea is too simple. They contend that the theory is unsupported by the facts. Critics of Herzberg's two-factor theory argue that hygiene factors or motivators both influence job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, and therefore challenge the two-factor theory's assertion that motivation and job satisfaction are separate continuums, and that there is a causal connection between them (Dunnette, Campbell, & Hakel, 1967; Hines 1973). Schwab, DeVitt, and Cummings, (1971) claim that for the motivation/hygiene dichotomy to be valid, favourable outcomes must be linked to the motivator, while unfavourable outcomes must be linked to hygiene elements.

2.5.3 Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory, one of the most widely accepted theories of work motivation, was first proposed by Victor Vroom in his seminal 1964 work which formalized the concepts of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy as the primary determinants of employee motivation levels (Vroom, Porter, & Lawler, 2015). Originally termed valence-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) theory, Vroom's value-based cognitive model explained that employees evaluate the probability and value of potential outcomes when deciding how to regulate work effort and direction (Vroom, 1964; Soyoung & Sungchan, 2017). According to the Vroom's model, employees' beliefs about valence, expectancy and instrumentality interact to build motivation (Vroom, 1964). The three factors must be examined in detail because such an examination is helpful in operationalizing motivational factors (Min, Tan, Kamioka, & Sharif, 2020).

Expectancy represents employees' perceived probability that exerting effort will lead to successful performance and achievement of objectives (Vroom, 1964). This effort-performance linkage largely depends on self-efficacy – the belief one has the necessary abilities and support to accomplish goals through motivation and persistence (Min et al, 2020). Employees consciously or unconsciously estimate expectancy based on appraising task demands against personal capabilities and resources provided. High expectancy that dedicated effort can productively achieve goals boosts motivation, whereas doubting likely accomplishment despite high effort dims motivation by making exertion seem futile (Mehboob & Othman, 2020). Managers build positive expectancy perceptions by ensuring employees have clear directives, necessary preparation and development, optimized resources, and supervisor support to maximize the likelihood that motivated, capability-enhancing efforts will successfully attain goals (Zboja, Jackson, & Grimes-Rose, 2020). At its core, Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) revolves around employees weighing potential efficacy of effort expenditure in decisively leading to performance success.

Valence represents the subjective value individual employees assign to potential organizational rewards or outcomes resulting from strong effort and performance (Vroom, 1964). Employees perceive valence positively if organizational rewards satisfy their personal needs and goals, heightening motivation. However, dampened, negative valence and demotivation results when employees feel organizational rewards hold little meaning, desirability or alignment with individual preferences. A key insight is that valence tends to differ across employees based on unique needs and motivations (Lee, 2019). An extrinsically motivated employee may highly value a bonus yet an intrinsically motivated employee sees greater incentive value in purposeful work. As such, managers must personalize incentives and rewards systems rather than assume universal valence. Understanding idiosyncrasies in perceived value and incentive preferences allows tailoring policies to optimize individual motivation by maximizing personally relevant valence while minimizing dissatisfaction from mismatched rewards (Talwar, Kaur, Kumar, Hossain, & Dhir, 2021).

Instrumentality centers on the transparency of connections between achieving performance objectives and attaining valued organizational rewards like pay, promotions or recognition in return (Vroom, 1964; Osafo, Paros, & Yawson, 2021). Employees scrutinize if higher performance appears tightly linked to positive outcomes they prioritize rather than perceptions of randomness or favoritism allocating rewards. Strong visible instrumentality that dedication and excellence reliably yield equitable returns heightens motivation by underscoring that applying capable efforts leads to fair extrinsic and intrinsic gains (Rudhumbu & du Plessis, 2021). On the contrary, weak inconsistent connections between performance and valued rewards reduces instrumentality, demotivating employees from exerting full effort toward opaque, disconnected systems (Ho, & Powell, 2021). As such, optimizing motivation depends greatly on openly communicating performance-reward causality through fair policies and criteria visibly tied to merit and achievement (Zboja, Jackson, & Grimes-Rose, 2020).

2.5.3.1 Criticism of the expectancy theory

A prominent critique of expectancy theory centers on its narrowed cognitive focus solely on rational, deliberative calculative processes when many motivational decisions can be spontaneous reactions to emotions or environmental cues lacking extensive analysis (Kirsch, 1996; Ogundare & Omotosho, 2022). Furthermore, the theory underrepresents stable individual differences like personality attributes, risk tolerance, or reinforcement histories that substantially sway choices, meaning two individuals can have identical expectancy perceptions yet make very different motivation decisions (Ogundare & Omotosho, 2022). From a measurement perspective, accurately capturing complex intrinsic motives related to meaning or purpose proves difficult, meaning self-reported perceptions might not match actual attitudes skewing results (Kirsch, 1996; Daouk-Öyry, & El-Farr, 2023). Methodologically, the static snapshot approach analyzing motivation at one point in time struggles to account for how dynamic experiences and updated expectancies reshape motivation in iterative fashion over longer periods (Locke & Latham, 1990). The theory has also faced applicability concerns beyond individualistic

cultures toward explaining motivation in collectivist cultures with shared accountability (Shikalepo, 2020). In totality, while providing invaluable cognitive insight, expectancy theory has proven limited by its narrowed decision-making emphasis, individual variability, intrinsic motive measurement issues, static rather than longitudinally recursive nature, and questionable universal applicability. Contemporary scholars argue motivation depends greatly on affective processes, evolving social dynamics, reciprocation, and unconscious drivers beyond calculated deliberations (Shikalepo, 2020; Ogundare & Omotosho, 2022; Daouk-Öyry, & El-Farr, 2023)

Expectancy theory provides useful framework for understanding employee job satisfaction among YOMSB. High expectancy and instrumentality fulfill intrinsic needs through purposeful effort and extrinsic needs through fair rewards, boosting satisfaction. However, low expectancy makes accomplishment seem futile despite motivation while weak instrumentality undermines the performance-reward linkage. Together they rupture the vital connectivity between effort, achievement and valued outcomes that employees expect, severely harming job satisfaction. In essence, satisfying both achievement motivations and valenced incentives requires an integrated management approach from managers of YOMSB. Blending mentorship and development (expectancy), outcome transparency (instrumentality) and supportive autonomy (culture) empowers employees intrinsically and extrinsically while embedding great leadership habits. This holistic execution of expectancy theory can enhance YOMSB employee job satisfaction and retention despite lean resources.

2.6 Measuring job satisfaction

Several instruments are available to measure job satisfaction in the workplace. These instruments are put into different categories:

1. Global instruments (like the Job in General Scale-JIG) (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989)
2. Multidimensional instruments (like the Job Satisfaction Survey-JSS) (Spector 1985)

3. A uni-dimensional instrument - only one dimension of job satisfaction (like the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire-PSQ) (Heneman & Schwartz, 1993).
4. Instruments that have been designed for jobs in general (e.g., Job Descriptive Index-JDI)
5. Instruments that have been designed for a specific workforce (Emergency Physician Job Satisfaction Scale-EPJS) (Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, & Frings-Dresen, 2003).

Some of these scales are discussed below:

2.6.1 Overall job satisfaction

This instrument, a component of the Michigan Organisational Assessment Questionnaire (OAQ), was created by Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1983). Three items are used in this measurement to capture an employee's subjective opinion of their level of job satisfaction, in terms of their current position and employer (Fields, 2002).

2.6.2 Job descriptive index (JDI)

Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) proposed the JDI. This instrument has 72 items that assess job satisfaction in five areas: work, pay, advancements, supervision, and co-workers. Combining satisfaction ratings from the components results in a composite measure of job satisfaction. Roznowski (1989) updated the JDI to include the workplace, occupational duties, and technological advancements. Later, Gregson (1990) created a 30-item version that was shorter and concentrated on six factors: employment, compensation, promotions, supervision, and co-workers as a measure of job satisfaction (Fields, 2002).

2.6.3 Global job satisfaction

Warr, Cook, and Wall (1979) developed this 15-item questionnaire to assess the levels of overall job satisfaction. Utilizing two subscales, the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the

job are assessed. The extrinsic segment contains eight items, while the intrinsic segment contains seven.

2.6.4 Job in general scale

Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, and Paul (1989) were responsible for developing this instrument. It can be used alongside the JDI, which evaluates satisfaction with five job characteristics, and has 18 items that represent overall job satisfaction. The purpose of this instrument was to "measure global satisfaction irrespective of satisfaction with facets" (Fields, 2002, p. 9).

2.6.5 Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist (1967), and was designed to measure employees' level of satisfaction with their job. The long form of this instrument consists of 100 questions divided into 20 subscales that assess satisfaction with "ability, utilization, achievement, activity, advancement, authority, company policies and practices, compensation, co-workers, creativity, independence, moral values, recognition, responsibility, security, social service, social status, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical variety and working conditions" (Fields, 2002, p. 7). The shorter version of MSQ is also available in a 20-item format. This can be further divided into two subscales: internal and extrinsic satisfaction.

2.6.6 The job satisfaction survey (JSS)

Paul Spector developed the job satisfaction survey to assess employee satisfaction in human services, government, and non-profit organisations in 1985. In the JSS, a total of 36 items measure nine aspects of job satisfaction and overall satisfaction, such as (1) salary, (2) promotion, (3) supervision, (4) fringe benefits, (5) contingent rewards, (6) operating procedures, (7) co-workers, (8) nature of work and (9) communication (Spector, 1985). The JSS has been used in several high, middle, and low-income countries in various industries, such as the United States, Singapore, Turkey, Pakistan, Taiwan, Iran, and Uganda, to measure employee job satisfaction (Yelboga & Gokalp, 2009; Chou, Ful,

& Ru-yan 2011; Akbaritabar, Mokarami, Nazifi, Rahi, & Hosseinp, 2013; Skitsou, Anastasiou, Charalambous, & Andrioti, 2015; Abaasi, 2016; Almeida, Ramos, & Santos, 2020).

According to Spector (1997) the JSS has been demonstrated to be a valid and trustworthy instrument for measuring job satisfaction. This is supported by Egan & Kadushan (2004), who mentioned that the JSS has been tested for construct validity and reliability in the past, with positive outcomes. The JSS is a viable instrument to use to measure employee job satisfaction, based on reliable research, ranging from 0.62 to 0.87 for each dimension, with high factor loads ranging from 0.61 to 0.90 in studies such as that of Skitsou Charalambous and Andrioti (2015), Tsounis, Niakas and Sarafis (2017) and Tsounis and Sarafis (2018).

The researcher adopted this instrument (JSS) for this study. The rationale includes the benefit of high reliability and validity that is associated with JSS. In addition, the JSS assesses several aspects of job satisfaction, which has been extensively studied in the literature (Harwell, 2018). Additionally, it is also much shorter than the widely used Job Descriptive Index, which has 72 elements. Another rationale for the adoption of the JSS for this study, is that it has items that are simple to comprehend, and it is one of the most used tools for measuring job satisfaction, and numerous investigations into its psychometric properties have been undertaken to date (Hackman & Oldham 1975; Yelboga 2009; Shahzad & Begum, 2011; Astrauskaite Vaitkevicius & Perminas, 2011).

2.7 Summary of chapter

Organisational success, including YOMSB, is heavily dependent on employees' satisfaction on the job, as the level of employee job satisfaction could have a ripple effect on several organisational outcomes such as productivity, organisational citizenship behaviours, innovation, and commitment. Conversely, failure to achieve employee job satisfaction results in counter-productive behaviours, such as absenteeism, corruption, and sabotage.

In the literature review, environmental and personal factors were found to affect the levels of job satisfaction among YOMSB. YOMSB, characterised by a collaborative working environment, fair promotion and pay structure, supportive and friendly co-workers and colleagues, and effective communication, could enhance the job satisfaction of employees and vice-versa. However, as postulated in section 2.5, each employee is unique and may have different values and needs, which must be met to achieve satisfaction. Therefore, managers of YOMSB can improve employee job satisfaction levels by first identifying the values or needs of employees, and making every effort to meet these needs.

CHAPTER 3: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP & LEADER'S EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter considered job satisfaction. Specifically, the literature review examined the factors, relevance, and job satisfaction theories, within the context of YOMSB. This chapter reviews the literature on the interactive variables of the study, which are transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. The first part of the chapter focuses on the transformational leadership styles, the dimensions of transformational leadership, and their relevance to organisations. It also reviews a theory that explains this leadership style, and assesses how the variable is measured. The evolution, definitions, and relevance of leaders's emotional intelligence form the second part of this chapter. The three main emotional dimension models are also reviewed, in addition to how leader's emotional intelligence is measured. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary.

3.2 The Concept of leadership

Leadership, as a concept, gained attention in academia far back in the 1700s (Asrar-ul-Haq, Muhammad, Anwar, & Sadia, 2018) and has been one of the most researched organisational concepts studied across various contexts (Kovach, 2018). Despite the popularity gained by the leadership concept, it has been surprising that there has yet to be a definite definition for it (Gandolfi, 2016). From the perspective of Martin & Allen (2016), although leadership has gained much credence in research, there are numerous variations about its meaning from the researchers' point of view. According to Same (2017), there are several definitions of leadership, and it is difficult to examine the topic from a singular vantage point because of the varying perspectives of academics. According to Same (2017), variations in the definition of leadership are due to divergent views on its fundamental tenets, such as traits and abilities of leaders, cognitive and

emotional development of leaders, leader-member relationships, and individual versus group leadership orientations.

Leadership involves the processes undertaken by an individual to influence a group of people in their quest to achieve a common objective (Northouse, 2016). Newth (2016) expands on Northouse's (2016) definition by arguing that leadership is exemplified by the capacity or ability to influence people, to produce results. According to Dartey-Baah (2015), leadership hinges on one's ability to initiate, involve people and provide direction to resources and behaviours to achieve a common goal. One common theme that runs through the above definitions of leadership is the capacity to influence others. This implies that one's ability to influence others is essential for leadership. From the definitions of leadership so far, this study adopts Dartey-Baah's (2015) definition of leadership, which is the ability of an individual or a group of individuals to influence others in such a way, that their knowledge, skills, and abilities are properly harnessed toward the achievement of organisational objectives and targets.

Dartey-Baah (2015) posits that the trends in leadership research could be categorised under three dimensions. Within the first dimension, leadership scholars examined the concept in terms of the qualities that are possessed by people, which make them eligible to take up leadership positions. Therefore, the Great Man and trait theories fall under the first dimension (Northouse, 2016). Within the second dimension, leadership scholars dwell on the behavioural aspect of leadership by focusing on how behaviours exhibited by leaders and the situations in which such behaviours are exhibited, influence one's ability to become an effective leader (Robbins & Judge, 2017). In this regard, the behavioural and contingency leadership theories fall under the second dimension (Dartey-Baah, 2015). Within the third dimension, the focus of leading scholars has been on relationships and exchanges between leaders and their followers, within organisational contexts (Hodges & Baker, 2017). The transactional leadership and transformational styles, as well as the resilient leadership style, a mix of both transformational and

transactional leadership (transformational), fall under this dimension (Dartey-Baah, 2015).

In terms of a clarification about the three-dimensional trends of leadership research by Dartey-Baah (2015), it must be emphasised that earlier works on leadership focused on the theory of the Great Man, which gave rise to the speculation that leaders were born and not made. Based on the Great Man theory, the elements or qualities that distinguish a good leader from a bad leader are inherent from birth (Northouse, 2016). According to Kovach (2018), the main characteristic of the Great Man theory was that leaders were extraordinary individuals with unique qualities from birth. So, it was impossible to develop leaders who did not have such extraordinary qualities at birth. However, it is relevant to note that some studies have disputed the Great Man theory. For instance, Boerma, Coyle, Dietrich, Dintzner, Drayton, Early, Edginton, Horlen, Kirkwood, Lin, Rager, Shah-Manek, Welch, and Williams (2017) established that heritability contributed to only 30% of the variations in leadership styles among fraternal and identical twins. In contrast, the remaining 70% was ascribed to environmental variables, including exposure to alternative role models and access to leadership training.

The trait theory also gained prominence in the twentieth century; its main point of argument was that the traits of individuals distinguished them as leaders from their followers (Jones & George, 2017). However, according to Benmira and Agboola (2021), the trait theory of leadership was also challenged because research has shown that traits such as intelligence, dominance, and self-confidence, among others, are insufficient in distinguishing leaders from followers. Due to the limitations of the trait theory, the behavioural theory of leadership also emerged, which emphasised the behaviours of the leaders as a way of distinguishing between effective and ineffective leaders. According to the behavioural theory, leadership could be learned or unlearned, and people could be trained to be leaders (Robbins & Judge 2017; Kovach 2018). The behavioural theory of leadership also highlighted the relevance of situational factors in determining leaders' behaviors, which led to the emergence of the situational or contingency theory of

leadership. In this regard, the latter theory highlights that leadership behaviour is influenced by the contingency or situation in which the leader finds himself (or herself) (Van Wert, 2015). The contingency theory further postulates that it is impossible to use one type of leadership in every situation, since it is vital for leaders to adjust their leadership styles based on the situations they find themselves in (Bates, 2016).

In terms of the third dimension of leadership research as proposed by Dartey-Baah (2015), it is significant to note that the changing trends of doing business in the 21st century have made the management of people through effective leadership, more complex (Zefeiti & Mohamad, 2015; Hossain & Saleh, 2016). Due to these changing trends, competition in the business environment has become very intense. Organisations are therefore feeling increasing pressure to innovate, in response to rapid shifts in consumer preferences brought on by new technologies and shifting market dynamics (Ndesaulwa & Kikula, 2016). For organisations to be capable of gaining a competitive advantage, their leaders must be both task- and change-oriented. Leaders' task and change orientation have become very resolute in achieving organisational goals due to the constantly changing market demands (Chen, Ning, Yang, Feng & Yang, 2018; Bro, & Jensen, 2019), which requires transformational leadership, explained in the following section.

3.3 Definition of transformational leadership

Burn (1978) initiated the concept of transformational leadership. At the time, it was defined as a style of leadership that focuses on the relationship between leaders and followers and is founded on trust, needs, and values that are acceptable by their followers. Therefore, it can be argued that transformational leaders put the needs of those they lead ahead of their demands. In addition, they serve as great role models for their employees, which in turn leads followers to have positive attitudes such as trust, confidence, and respect. Another definition of transformational leadership by Bui, Martnez, and Matute (2018) is that it constitutes a leadership style that influences followers' morale, ideals, interests, and values, to drive them to do better than first expected. Because of this,

followers are transformed to put aside their interests. Similarly, Apoi and Latip (2019) defined transformational leaders as supervisors who encourage their staff to "go the extra mile" by fostering motivation and boosting workplace morale. This process ultimately has advantages for the staff members and the company they work for.

Unlike Burn's (1978) definition, which emphasised the building of trust and values by leaders among followers by being role models, Bui, Martnez, and Matute (2018) explained transformational leadership from the perspective of empowering followers to rise above their interest toward a higher goal, which is regarded as the achievement of corporate interest by inspiring change in the ideals and interests of followers. The latter's definition, however, did not explain how this change in followers' behaviour would be achieved. In another definition, Niessen, Mäder, Stride, and Jimmieson (2017) addressed, in their account, the fact that one of the essential and fundamental characteristics of transformational leadership is vision-driven change. According to their definition, transformational leadership is a meaningful and creative exchange between leaders and followers to guide followers through a vision-driven change (Niessen et al., 2017).

According to Niessen et al. (2017), a transformational leader creates beneficial and reciprocal relationships to inspire his (or her) followers to embrace the organisation's vision and to help them shift their perspectives about organisation's goals. When leaders adopt a transformational style, their followers change for the better and contribute in line with their interpretation of the organisation's vision. Transformational leaders persuade their followers that company objectives are shared objectives for the good of all employees.

The definitions of transformative leadership from Apoi and Latip (2019) and Niessen et al. (2017) are adopted in this study. Thus, transformational leadership is described as a vision-driven style of leadership in which the leader may enable followers to accomplish organisational objectives through personal growth and creative problem-solving techniques. In relation to YOMSB, adopting a transformational leadership style is

essential for providing a good sense of vision and support through leader mentorship, to get the best out of employees. Furthermore, transformational leadership in YOMSB has the potential to make employees strategic assets for achieving competitive advantage in a turbulent business environment.

3.4 Dimensions of transformational leadership style

Several scholars, including Connelly, Thiel, and Johnson (2015), Ahmad, Easa, and Mostapha (2019), and Gód (2019), have identified four distinct and integrating behavioural components or dimensions of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. They are also known as the "four I's" of transformational leadership. Each of these dimensions is independently discussed below.

3.4.1 Idealized behaviours

Idealized influence is predicated on the leaders' possession of traits and actions that inspire confidence and trust among followers, in addition to serving as an inspiring example or role model to followers (Aga, Noorderhaven, & Vallejo, 2016; Northouse, 2016). The development of trust between leaders and employees is essential to achieve effective leadership behaviour as, without trust, productivity and relationships would erode (Asencio, 2016). Leaders rely on the respect and confidence of their followers, which can only be achieved by proving themselves trustworthy, to motivate their followers (Bai, Lin, & Li, 2016).

An essential characteristic of a transformative leader is the ability to inspire trust in those who work for them, so that they can draw upon their influence, inspiration, empowerment, vision, and knowledge. Furthermore, effective leaders inspire others to follow their lead and become role models, by embracing idealised behaviours, encouraging employees to follow ethical principles and positive examples, and to take on risky and challenging tasks (Downe, Cowell, & Morgan, 2016). Among the many leadership theories, transformational leadership theory is notable for its emphasis on ethical behaviour as a moral compass for

followers to embrace (Bedi, Alpaslan, & Green, 2016). Leaders that motivate their followers to uphold high ethical standards while still being trustworthy, are seen as more credible and motivating by those followers (Bedi et al., 2016).

Transformational leaders are characterised by their exemplary embodiment of idealised traits and behaviours, which serve as a source of motivation for the people they manage, and the members of the teams on which they serve (Diebig, Bormann, & Rowold, 2016). Some followers may take on the traits and actions of their leaders, while others may get a greater appreciation for ethics and morality, a sense of fairness, self-confidence, and justice (Diebig et al., 2016). Burns (1978) and Graham, Ziegert, and Capitano (2015) assert that transformational leaders find the unmet needs of potential followers and, in doing so, attempt to address those needs. These transformational leaders also look for ways to engage their followers' higher needs.

The exhibition of idealized influence by leaders of YOMSB has relevance in building essential values and principles in the behaviours of employees. Leaders' idealized influence on employees of YOMSB, has the potential to create an atmosphere of discipline and stability in employee behaviour through the establishment of ethical values and principles, that would become an integral part of the organisational climate of organisations. Additionally, the demonstration of this positive frame of idealized influence by leaders of YOMSB could inspire followers to promote organisational goals through their behaviours.

3.4.2 Intellectual stimulation

Intellectual stimulation is a type of leadership behaviour that encourages followers to think outside the box and examine their own views and values, as well as those of the business and the leader themselves (Aga, Noorderhaven, & Vallejo, 2016). Intellectually stimulated personnel can make decisions and hold themselves accountable for their decisions, while being happy and excited about finding a new way (Asencio, 2016). When transformative leaders challenge their staff intellectually, they may unlock the creative potential of their

workforce. By caring about their employees' well-being, transformational leaders may help create an environment where employees are actively involved in making decisions, receive relevant information promptly, and contribute to a just and trustworthy work environment (Afsar, Badir, Saeed, & Hafeez, 2017). Leaders and workers can improve their professional connections if they trust each other to make judgments and apply their creative thinking together (Stelmokiene & Endriulaitiene, 2015).

Employees who work with transformational leaders are expected to think creatively and entrepreneurially, take the initiative, compete, and take risks as part of their jobs (Chen, Ning, Yang, Feng, & Yang, 2018). In addition, some leaders encourage their employees to develop innovative solutions to old problems by encouraging them to apply creative thinking (Diebig et al., 2016). So, to improve the working environment, workers and followers are more likely to expand their professional networks. It is no secret that happy workers are more productive, and this may be attributed to the intellectual stimulation provided by transformational leaders (Asencio, 2016). Thus, if an employee's morale is good, he or she is stimulated intellectually, and he or she is motivated. According to Para-González et al. (2018), transformational leaders inspire followers and subordinates to achieve difficult but doable goals, through modeling idealised behaviours, qualities, and intellectual stimulation.

Intellectual stimulation on the part of leaders of YOMSB, is essential for achieving competitive advantage. This is because, as technological advancement continues to emerge and become more instrumental in the business environment, together with changing customer demands, intellectual stimulation through team building and problem-solving skills become a strategic asset. Therefore, YOMSB, where leaders encourage intellectual stimulation, will most likely gain a competitive advantage by creating an atmosphere of innovative behaviour and problem-solving for employees.

3.4.3 Inspirational motivation

Inspirational motivation relies on a communication and development procedure that uses symbols or images to focus the efforts of those under one's command on the desired exemplary behaviours. (Northouse, 2016; Svanberg, Öhman, & Neidermeyer, 2017). Influential leaders inspire their teams to work toward ambitious objectives, by expressing confidence in their ability to succeed (Girma, 2016). Leaders who transform their teams do so by focusing on, and working for, lofty objectives, which inspires and sustains greater motivation and emotional commitment from their teams. When leaders motivate their teams, employees typically respond with excitement and a renewed sense of purpose about working toward their shared goals (Asencio, 2016).

Employees generate a sense of purpose from their transformational leader's inspirational motivation, which leads to job satisfaction and goals focused on. Transformational leaders' capacity to conceive and explain visions for personnel is linked to inspirational motivation and idealized impact (Atmojo, 2015). Employees are motivated and invigorated by the motivation of transformational leaders, not because they guide employees in the right direction but rather because they satisfy the basic human needs of self-esteem, recognition, control over their life, and the ability to accomplish goals (Desmet & Fokkinga, 2020).

Inspirational motivation among YOMSB has the potential to create a conducive motivational atmosphere that is not based on a reward system, but instead on an organisational vision. The ability of leaders in YOMSB to communicate organisational vision and drive their employees along to achieve the organisation's vision, has an instrumental role in creating intrinsic motivation, which could vital for achieving organisational goals.

3.4.4 Individualized considerations

Transformational leaders constantly address individuals' demands for growth and achievement. They help their followers enhance their skills while giving the required

coaching and training (Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Bai, Li & Li, 2016; Northouse, 2016). Individualized consideration is an attribute that emphasises delegating, empowering, and assisting subordinates, as well as giving specific attention to each person's needs and abilities, rather than treating all followers the same (Al-Shanti, 2016). Transformational leaders are those who pay attention to, and care about, the objectives and endeavours of their followers, so allowing those followers to cultivate a learning atmosphere that inspires others to realize their full potential. (Ghasabeh, Soosay, & Reaiche, 2015; Ahmad, Easa, & Mostapha, 2019). A major distinguishing feature of transformational leadership is, among other things, attention to detail in others, and attention to the personal needs and aspirations of each member of an organisation, by the leader. As a result, workers receive individualised care, and the organisation shows concern for each worker's needs, which may boost morale, contentment, and a sense of fairness.

According to Teng and Chen (2019), developing a reciprocal and cooperative individualized relationship with employees, and attempting to meet their requirements could boost their creativity. In a competitive context, creativity is one of the essential characteristics, as it offers stability and boosts an organisation's chances of survival (Akbar et al., 2015). Furthermore, innovation is aided by creativity, which also helps develop fresh concepts, strategies, and tactics that might result in new products and services. Similarly, Yang, Hao, and Song (2020) claimed that treating employees as individuals, and supporting and praising their abilities, can help them work better. Individualized consideration among leaders of YOMSB has promising implications for employee personal development and growth. This is because personalised consideration could provide YOMSB executives enough time to connect with staff members, determine their strengths and shortcomings, and might offer them the necessary support to foster employee creativity and personal development.

3.5 Criticism of the transformational leadership

Even though studies have shown that transformative leadership significantly affects some organisational outcomes, Lee (2014) highlights comments from scholars who have

discovered drawbacks to this leadership style. The first criticism is that this leadership style is said to be made up of "great men" (Yukl, 1999; Tourish & Pinnington, 2002; Northouse, 2016). Bass (2019) presents a strong bias toward heroism in transformational leadership, as transformational leaders are immaculate, perfect, and idealized. The counterargument is that Hitler, who demonstrated transformational leadership at one point, took advantage of his ability to move the masses by exploiting his magnetism. Responding to the assertion that transformational leadership has a dark side, Bass (1999) indicated that it is imperative to distinguish between transformational and pseudo-transformational leaders. The author emphasised that transformational leaders are defined by moral development, but pseudo-transformational leaders give little or no consideration to value morality (Bass, 1999). Bass's notion of transformative leadership is comparable to the "great man theory," which differs from Burns' original approach. This heroic leadership bias may lead to blind faith from followers (Shamir, 1995) and dictatorial leadership (Northouse, 2016).

Another criticism of this theory is that transformational leadership relates to followers' abilities to help the company, not the other way around. A transformational leader inspires people to do more and be better than expected, to accomplish the team's mission (Bass, 1999). This line of reasoning presumes that authority is linear, moving only in one direction from a leader to his or her subordinates (Yukl, 1999). One-sided persuasion can "make the followers more open to deception," according to Mullins (2007). Because of this, Northouse (2016) argues that one might conclude that the leaders are "anti-democratic," putting their interests ahead of the people they are supposed to represent.

Lastly, explaining the effectiveness of the transformational leadership approach is complicated by a lack of conceptual clarity (Yukl, 1999; Pawar, 2003; MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Jarvis, 2005; Northouse, 2016). Inspirational leadership, idealised influence, charisma, and charismatic leadership are all terms that have been used interchangeably by transformational leadership scholars (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1999; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999), despite Bass's (1999) definition of transformative leadership which

includes four overlapping characteristics. Although these four aspects (idealised influence, inspiring motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration) are intertwined, MacKenzie et al. (2005) argue that they are distinct. For example, it is not uncommon to picture a leader that may demonstrate compassion to followers, but lacks strength and confidence, according to MacKenzie et al. (2005). The question of how transformative leaders should utilise these four elements still stands; for example, Bass (1999) fails to explain it. Yukl (1999) argues that the difficulty in identifying and applying the four elements of transformative leadership puts into question the validity of their construct.

3.6 Relevance of transformational leadership to organisations

Research has found that transformational leadership contributes to performance and other organisational outcomes at the individual, team or group level, as well as at the organisational level (Chen & Fahr, 2015). Transformative leadership, as shown by research, affects employee commitment (Mesu, Sanders, & van Riemsdijk, 2015; Allen, Attoh, & Gong, 2017), organisational citizenship behaviour (Jiang et al., 2017), satisfaction, entrepreneurship and performance (Ocak & Ozturk, 2018; Shafique & Kalyar, 2018), employees' well-being (Mehar, 2015), organisational level innovation (Afsar, & Umrani, 2020) and employees' creative performance (Jyoti & Dev, 2015).

In addition to the above, transformation leadership has demonstrated its effectiveness in fostering team cohesion and improving team performance (Rao & Kareem, 2015; Mohd, 2017; Mohd & Arshad, 2019). Kitratporn and Puncreobutr (2016) and Gaviria-Rivera and López-Zapata (2019) have also found that transformational leadership enhances the performance of organisations, via enabling suitable organisational climates, systems, and strategies. Beyond the significant impact on both organisational and individual performance, transformational leadership positively impacts the attitudes of employees and also improves employee engagement and emotional inspiration (Faupel & Süß, 2019). Dickson and Kising'u (2019) also highlighted that the current complex and uncertain business environments demand the emergence of transformational leaders,

which have been found to help organisations overcome the changing business trends and landscapes.

3.7 Leader – member exchange (LMX) theory

The Leader-Member Exchange theory (LMX), also known as the Vertical Dyad Linkage theory (VDL) (Caliskan, 2015), was developed by Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1975). The theory postulates that the nature and quality of these relationships significantly affect the attitudes and behaviours of the leader and subordinate (Northouse, 2019). According to LMX theory, leader-member exchange connections are categorized into two main groups, which are in-group and out-group, based on how well they work with the leaders and how well the leaders work with them. This categorization differentiates between high and low leader-member exchanges, which invariably affect organisational performance results (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018).

The high follower-leader exchange (in-group) suggests extensive interaction between leader and follower, and negotiation of role obligations that are not documented in the employment contract between the leader and followers (Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016). This implies that followers carry out activities that go beyond their job description, and this is reciprocated by the leader. Nandedkar and Brown (2017) further explained that high LMX relationships are defined by the exchange of information resources from leaders to subordinates, support, mutual trust, reward, and reasonable effort. The high-quality relationships and partnerships that define the in-group exchange present several benefits to followers, including enhanced support, job satisfaction, and faster advancement within the organisation, which promotes success in the workplace.

Contrary to the high LMX (in-group), the low LMX (out-group) is defined by poor relationships and interaction between leaders and members, which negatively impacts performance (Altinay, Dai, Chang, Lee, Zhuang, & Liu, 2019). Members of this group typically have limited contact with the leader, and exhibit character qualities distinct from that of the leader and the in-group members. For instance, according to Northouse

(2019), out-group members act entirely within their designated organisational duties, instead of striving to accomplish extra work. This means low-level LMX members merely perform what their leaders or job descriptions require, and usually lack motivation. As a result, leaders are more likely to treat out-group members fairly and follow the contract without special treatment or rewards beyond the norm. This may be seen as weak leadership by followers, and lead to feelings of animosity toward their leaders. (Northouse, 2019; Obeng, Zhu, Azinga & Quansah, 2021). The LMX theory has been used in several studies conducted outside of an organisational setting, to predict a variety of organisational outcomes, including employee performance, autonomy, employee involvement, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction; engagement; effective communication; and innovative work behaviours (Choy, McCormack, & Djurkovic, 2016; Kahrobaei & Mortazavi, 2016; Zhang, Ma, Wang, Zhou, & Tin, 2017).

3.7.1 Criticism of LMX theory

The LMX theory, like other theories, has received several criticisms. Firstly, critics of the theory point out that it runs contrary to the values of human fairness. Because the theory categories operate in two groups (in-group and out-group), one group receives more attention than the other. Northouse (2019) argues that it appears to discriminate against the out-group, and may have an undesirable effect on the workforce.

The second criticism against the LMX theory is that there are gaps in developing its basic ideas. For instance, Anand, Hu, Liden, and Vidyarthi (2011) argued that while high-quality leader-member working relationships are encouraged, the theory fails to fully explain how these relationships are created. In an earlier study, Yukl (1994) inferred that high-quality leader-members' relationships are formed when there is compatibility in personality, competence, or interpersonal skills between leaders and followers. However, the author failed to provide information on the relative importance of each of these traits and how this process is formed. Similarly, at the core of this theory are trust, respect, and obligation, but the theory is silent on how these can be developed in the leader-member relationship.

The lack of an adequate explanation of the effect of contextual factors on the LMX relationship is the last criticism of the theory (Anand et al., 2011). However, since studies on the LMX relationship have been carried out in isolation, much consideration has been given to the possible effect of the other variables that could impact the LMX relationship. For instance, cultural values and norms of organisations could influence the LMX. As such, there is a need to examine how social networks impact specific LMX relationships, and the members in these relationships.

Considering the preceding discussion, more significant relationships between leaders and followers in YOMSB, could result from excellent leader-member interactions. Therefore, it is incumbent upon the heads of YOMSB to guarantee that all internal and external interactions are of similar quality. In YOMSB, emphasizing the relationships between leaders and their followers, and concentrating on the work goals could strengthen the team's relationships, trust, and communication, allowing for positive and successful outcomes. The following section discusses how transformation in leadership is measured.

3.8 Measuring transformational leadership.

Different instruments have been used in literature to measure transformational leadership. The Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL), the Transformational Leadership Behaviour Inventory (TLI), the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ), and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire are some of the most common measures (MLQ). These are explained below.

3.8.1 Global transformational leadership scale (GTL)

Carless, Wearing, and Mann (2000) developed a seven-item Global Transformational Leadership Scale to assess transformative leadership. The GTL is typically chosen over the more comprehensive Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1995) due to its simplicity and unambiguous one-dimensionality. Seven items comprise the Global Transformational Leadership scale (GTL), which is supposed to provide a global

evaluation of transformational leadership. The following seven leadership traits are reflected in the wording of each item: Clearly articulates the direction the company is heading in; treats employees like people, providing them with encouragement and opportunities for growth; rewards and acknowledges employees for their efforts; promotes open communication and collaboration among team members; encourages creative approaches to problems, and challenges conventional wisdom; demonstrates the values he or she espouses.

3.8.2 Transformational leadership behaviour inventory (TLI)

Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, and Fetter (1990) created the TLI to measure transformational leadership behaviours. There are four key components of transformative leadership that are measured by this instrument. Defining and conveying a vision, being a positive role model, and inspiring others to put self-interest aside for the greater good, are all examples of the kinds of transformational leadership behaviours captured by the first dimension (Ali, Manjunath, & Yadav, 2014). The leader's individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and high-performance expectations are measured in the remaining three aspects.

3.8.3 Transformational leadership questionnaire (TLQ)

Designed primarily for use in public sector companies in the United Kingdom, the Transformational Leadership Questionnaire (TLQ) is a modern instrument that evaluates nine traits shared by transformational leaders (Alban-Metcalf & Alimo-Metcalf, 2000). Concern for others, political sensitivity, skills, decisiveness, determination and self-confidence, integrity, integrity, trustworthiness, honesty and openness, empowerment, developing potential, networking, promoting, communicating, making boundaries clear, and encouraging critical and strategic thinking, are the nine scales or characteristics used to evaluate transformational leadership. The manager's subordinates fill out the TLQ.

3.8.4 Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)

The Multi-Locus Questionnaire (MLQ) scale is a 45-item questionnaire used to assess multiple variables. The questionnaire is laid out in a hierarchical fashion, with four main scales and twelve sub-scales. Leadership styles such as transformational, transactional, and avoidance (Laissez-faire) make up the model's three high-order variables (Antonakis, 2012). The former two are intertwined, whereas the third stands alone. Each of the four subscales of the first-order variable, "transformational leadership,"—idealized effect on traits and behaviours, motivational inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration—is measured independently inside the first-order variable. Employees can rate their leaders on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and managers can rate themselves on the same scale (Molero Recio & Cuadrado, 2010). Northouse (2010), building on the previous work of Bass and Avolio (1994, 1997), recommended the MLQ-6S as the most up-to-date or recent model.

Although various scales have been proposed (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), the MLQ is the most well-known point of reference; hence it was used in this work. Moreover, the MLQ has been thoroughly explored and validated, as evidenced by a plethora of journal publications and independent investigations, as well as the conclusion drawn by Bass (1997), that it is valid across cultures and all sorts of organisations (Elenkov, Judge, & Wright, 2005; Bass, & Avolio, 2011; Antonakis, 2018). Lastly, among leadership assessment methods, the MLQ provides the best relationship between survey data and organisational outcomes.

Although various scales have been proposed (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004), the MLQ is the most well-known point of reference; hence it was used in this manner in this study. Moreover, the MLQ has been thoroughly explored and validated, as evidenced by a plethora of journal publications and independent investigations, as well as the conclusion drawn by Bass (1997) that it is valid across

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3.9 Evolution of emotional intelligence

"Emotional intelligence" was not coined until 1990, but the ideas of multiple intelligences were explored beforehand (Martin, 2020). In 1920, Edward Thorndike began to use and hold discussions on "social intelligence" in human relations and proposed different kinds of intelligence. In 1940, David Wechsler contributed to the discussion on social intelligence by stressing the importance of emotional, personal, and social factors in predicting an individual's ability to succeed in life (Sfetcu, 2019). Wechsler further advised that "non-intellective aspects of general intelligence" be included in any total measurements of intelligence, as emotional and social intelligence would provide necessary details to an overall view of one's intelligence (Martin, 2020).

Following the advice of Wechsler, an educational psychologist, Howard Gardner, in 1983, studied multiple intelligences and the capacity for introspection. Gardner argued that social intelligence consists of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence (Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018). Interpersonal intelligence is defined as an individual's ability to perceive the attitudes, feelings, and motives of others and work effectively with them (Broughton, 2017). In contrast, intrapersonal intelligence refers to self-knowledge, self-control, and self-management. Even though Gardner did not coin the phrase "emotional intelligence," He (and his concepts) are credited with laying the groundwork for later emotional intelligence models.

A decade after Gardner's multiple intelligence theory, the concept of emotional intelligence was shaped by psychologists Peter Salovey and John Mayer Salovey and Mayer (1990) when they published a series of papers on emotional intelligence that described it as an ability to manage one's emotions and those of others. Inspired by the works of Salovey and Mayer (1990), psychologist and science journalist Daniel Goleman

published a book in 1995 that popularized emotional intelligence to both the scientific community and the general public. One of his theories led to the development of a model for predicting success and results in the workplace. According to Goleman, emotional intelligence is the foundation for developing other workplace skills (Sfetcu, 2020). Reuven Bar-On developed the first scientifically valid test of emotional intelligence in 1996. It covered five domains: self-awareness, social awareness, stress tolerance, and general attitude (Martin, 2020).

3.10 Definition of emotional intelligence

Various scholars have described emotional intelligence differently over the years, although some similarities exist among these definitions. From the perspective of Faltas (2017), emotional intelligence involves having awareness, ability, and skills to know, recognize, and understand feelings, moods, and emotions, and adaptively use them. According to Asiamah (2017), emotional intelligence is the capacity to recognise and manage one's own and other people's emotional states in adaptive ways that benefit both individuals and groups. Samuel and Dass (2020) provided a similar definition of emotional intelligence: the capacity to recognise, label, process, and control one's emotional experiences.

The definitions of Faltas (2017), Asiamah (2017), and Samuel and Dass (2020) are more inclined to define emotional intelligence from the individual's ability perspective, which is in congruence with the ability model of emotional intelligence by Mayer and Salovey (1990), in which emotional intelligence was referred to as "the ability to be aware and manifest emotions, the capability to achieve and access feelings, the competence to be conscious of our emotions and emotional knowledge, and the aptitude to manage and control our emotions to exalt emotional and intellectual growth" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p.40). The definitions by the authors (Faltas, 2017; Asiamah, 2017; and Samuel & Dass, 2020) have elements of an individual's mental ability to perceive and understand his or her emotions and regulate such emotions to achieve positive outcomes. Therefore, the

definitions are mental and personal since they took inspiration from the ability model of Mayer and Salovey (1990).

Sankabak, Eyübolu and Ayranc (2018) proposed a different definition: emotional intelligence is the ability of an individual to exhibit personal and social competencies to deal with his or her or her emotions, and those of others in an organisational setting. This explains emotional intelligence from the perspective of both personal and social competencies, linking it to Goleman's model. This definition (Sankabek et al (2018)), has elements of Goleman's model, which posits that for individuals to be emotionally intelligent, they should be able to exhibit personal competencies such as self-awareness and self-management, as well as social competencies such as social awareness (empathy) and relationship management (Goleman, 2001).The researcher adapted Sarkabak et al.'s (2018) definition in this study. Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability of an individual to exhibit both personal and social competencies, to deal with his or her emotions and colleagues' emotions in the workplace. The rationale for the choice is that the researcher believes that emotional intelligence is best explained adequately at the personal and social levels of managing emotions.

3.11 Significance of emotional intelligence to the workplace

The display of emotional intelligence and work intelligence skills, such as effective decision-making and problem-solving skills, are significant and valuable assets for all workers (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2016). Emotional intelligence has been found to have some important relationships with health, happiness, and the general well-being of employees, both at home and in the workplace (Sánchez-Ivarez, Extremera, & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2016). Additionally, Devonish (2016) indicated that emotional intelligence is associated with improved health and workers' mental and physical well-being. In another related study, Faguy (2012) established that when employees demonstrate low levels of emotional intelligence, it results in violent behaviours, and the possible use of street drugs and delinquency. Similarly, studies have confirmed that low levels of emotional intelligence are negatively correlated with anxiety, depression, and

stress (Cejudo, Rodrigo-Ruiz, López-Delgado, & Losada, 2018; Kousha, Bagheri, & Heydarzadeh, 2018).

Furthermore, Shafiq and Rana (2016) opined that employees' level of psychological attachment to the organisation (commitment), is a determining factor in the prediction of human relationship management; and that when employees exhibit a high level of emotional intelligence, it results in a high level of commitment to the organisation and its goals. The study further identified that workers' emotional intelligence is a critical factor that influences organisational effectiveness.

An emotionally intelligent workforce improves employee cooperation and creativity, which is crucial to achieving organisational effectiveness, according to research by Mansel and Einion (2019) and Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2016). It is in the same vein that Gainer (2018) asserted that beyond the technical skills, there is a need for employees to develop their emotional intelligence, as this tends to improve productivity on the job, as well as build a more dedicated and energetic workforce with high levels of work engagement.

In the context of YOMSB, it can be posited that the development of emotional intelligence by managers and employees could present several benefits to the organisation. This could include an improvement in employees' happiness and general physical and mental well-being. Likewise, concerning performance, an increase in emotional intelligence among YOMSB might increase employee commitment, creativity, engagement, effectiveness, and overall productivity. This is because employees might understand and manage their emotions, and those of other colleagues in the workplace to a large extent.

3.12 Emotional intelligence models

Different theories have been used as a base to attempt to link skills, traits, and abilities with emotional intelligence over the years. Laborde, Burbano, Reinoso, Bangeppagari, Mulla, and Selvanayagam (2019) points out that models that conceptualize emotional intelligence are grouped under three main categories, which are ability approach Salovey

and Mayer (1990,) mixed approach by Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997), and trait approach Petrides and Furnham (2001).

3.12.1 Ability model of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)

The ability model of emotional intelligence was presented in 1990 and is described as an area of intelligence that analyses specific emotional and mental abilities (Porche, 2016). According to this model, the best way to evaluate cognitive processing—which is related to general intelligence and affects one's feelings(emotions)—is through task- and problem-specific performance measurements (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2016). According to this theory, a person's emotional intelligence includes the ability to "feel" their own and other people's emotions, and the charismatic use of that information to influence and affect change in their work contexts. Salovey and Mayer (1990), in their description of the ability model, came up with four abilities that described emotional intelligence.

In their model, they propose that the ability to recognize, apply, comprehend, and manage emotions are the four pillars of emotional intelligence. It is theorised that these four abilities that make up emotional intelligence (EI) are hierarchically organised, with the last two (understanding and management) requiring higher-order (strategic) cognitive processes, and building on the first two (identifying and using emotions), which require more experiential processing of emotion information (Drigas & Papoutsis, 2018) (see Fig. 3.1).

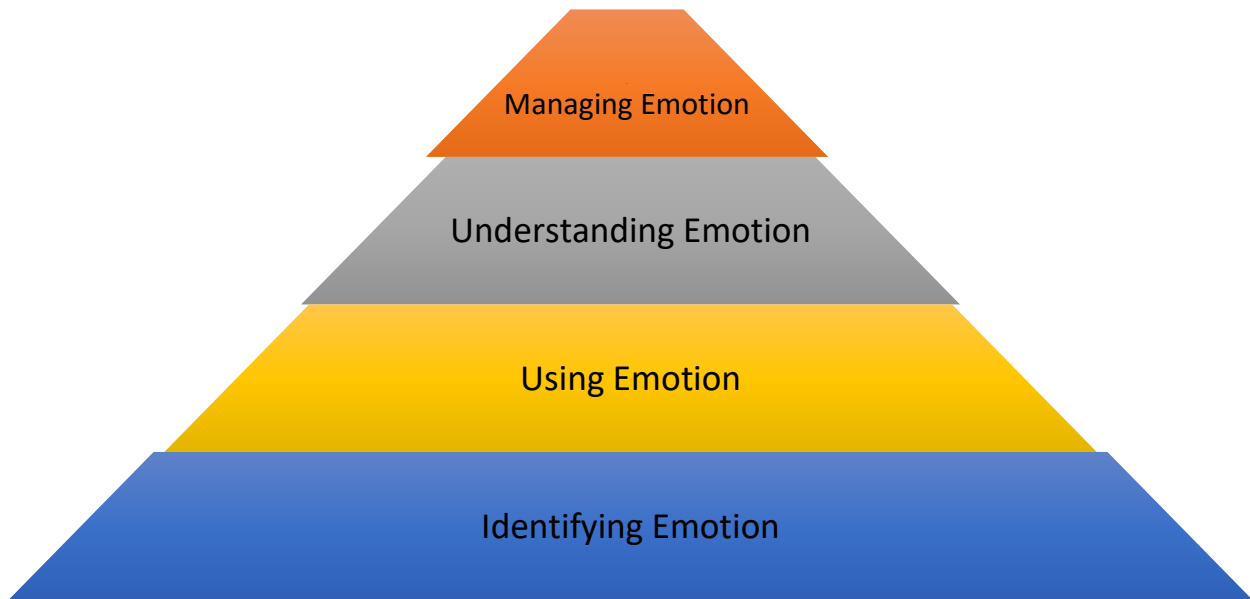


Figure 3. 1: Mayer and Salovey's (1997) EI model

Based on this ability model, the capability to use other people's voices and facial expressions to sense or recognise their emotions, is the lowest level of talent or skill that describes emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2016). This skill entails recognizing emotions in one's own bodily and psychological states and being sensitive to, and aware of, others' emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Papadogiannis, Logan, & Sitarenioset, 2009). As someone becomes skilled at generalising emotions based on their own experience, they begin to develop the capacity to recognise others' emotions by analysing environmental clues. Afterward, a person might respond to environmental stimuli by coherently expressing emotions. Finally, a person can distinguish between genuine and dishonest emotional expressions, and between accurate and inaccurate emotional expressions. This means that people must know how they feel and be able to label their feelings accurately, to understand themselves and others better.

The next level is the ability to use emotions, which is defined as the use of emotions to enhance and facilitate thought (Mayer et al. 2016). This happens when a person actively processes, analyses, or reflects on emotional data, which in turn facilitates higher-order

cognitive processes, including reasoning, problem-solving, decision-making, and empathising (MacCann, Jiang, Brown, Double, Bucich, & Minbashian, 2020). People with a high level of emotional intelligence are able to prioritise and select mental activities that are congruent with their current emotional state. The ability to adjust one's mood to suit one's surroundings also promotes superior contextual adaptation.

Third-level emotional intelligence is defined as the capacity to recognise and understand one's own and others' emotional connections and the ways in which these feelings change over time and in different contexts (Mayer et al., 2016; Lubbadah, 2020). It is necessary to understand emotional language, use it to explain various combinations of feelings and identify slight differences in emotions. People that excel in this area are better at anticipating future facial expressions in others, because they comprehend the intricate and changing relationships between emotions. For instance, rage may be a source of humiliation or delight, depending on the occasion. In addition, strength in this area enables people to perceive emotional clues learned from past experiences, which enables them to anticipate future reactions in others (Papadogiannis et al., 2009).

The ability to effectively control one's own emotions as a leader well as the emotions of others is the last skill (Gonzalez & Pea, 2019). This skill includes controlling one's emotions when reacting to a scenario and sustaining good or negative ones (MacCann et al., 2020). This can be shown in the ability to be upbeat under trying circumstances, or to control excitement when a crucial choice needs to be made. Leaders with effective introspective management of emotions are more likely to accept positive and negative emotions. They eventually learn to connect with emotions or distance themselves from them, depending on their utility. As a result, the leader could monitor and reflect on his or her own, and others' emotions. Finally, the emotional intelligence skills of leaders could be enhance by improving pleasant emotions and moderating unpleasant emotions.

3.12.1.1 Criticism of the ability model of emotional intelligence

The criticism of the ability model, according to Petrides (2011), lies in the fact that whereas there is reliance on true and accurate data interpretation, the "operationalization" of emotional intelligence cannot be objectively evaluated, because it is grounded in people's emotional experiences and is purely subjective. Also, the measure of the ability model necessitates the comparison of an individual with others, who have taken an evaluation on a global scale with similar social skill patterns. Therefore, critics of this model perceive this as a measure of conformity on an individual basis that is much more than basic skills. The second criticism of the ability model is that it is an objective method that includes only measures relating to emotions and excludes other models that have been substantially connected with the emotional intelligence construct in earlier research, such as self-esteem, time management, and others (Cox & Nelson, 2008). Furthermore, the ability-based method is criticised for its lack of a theory of personality to explain how it works.

Another complaint about this model is that it has been shown to be inaccurate on multiple levels, including the postulated hierarchical structure and its four distinct branches. Developmental research implies that abilities in distinct emotional intelligence domains (such as perceiving and controlling) are learned simultaneously rather than sequentially, through a complicated learning process that incorporates biological and environmental variables (Zeidner, Matthews, Roberts, & MacCann, 2003). As a result, the four emotional intelligence branches can sometimes be developed simultaneously, with lower-level abilities to perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage emotions leading to their later improvement, even though this conceptualization supports the idea that more sophisticated skills are developed through the honing of lower-level competencies. Factor analysis, which was used to test the hypothesis of a global emotional intelligence factor underlying the four-factor model, has cast doubt on the validity of this theory (Rossen, Kranzler, & Algina, 2008; Fiori & Antonakis, 2011). The findings informed a revised emotional model with three components: emotional awareness, understanding, and management (Joseph & Newman, 2010; MacCann, Joseph, Newman, & Roberts, 2014).

3.12.2 Mixed model paradigm (Bar-On, 1997)

Bar-On's (1997) theoretical approach to understanding emotional intelligence goes deeper than Mayer and Salovey's (1996). According to Bar-On's model, an individual's ability to perceive and express oneself, understand and relate to others, and cope with the rigours of daily life is influenced by their level of emotional-social intelligence (Ackley, 2016). As proposed by the Bar-On model, emotional intelligence also requires a robust social component to develop fully, including interpersonal skills, adaptability, and stress management, related to a social environment.

As defined by the Bar-On's model, emotional intelligence is a set of non-cognitive skills and traits that a person can draw on to navigate the challenges of daily life successfully. This idea differs from conventional understandings of intelligence, since it places more weight on non-cognitive factors in assessing a person's level of intelligence. However, Bar-On uses both emotional and social intelligence categories, which allude to the requisite level of social competence that an individual must have to succeed in life, thereby diverging from the conventional method of defining emotions (Gonzalez & Pea, 2019). In addition, Bar-On pointed out that the dynamic nature of both emotional and social intelligence is greater than that of cognitive intelligence.

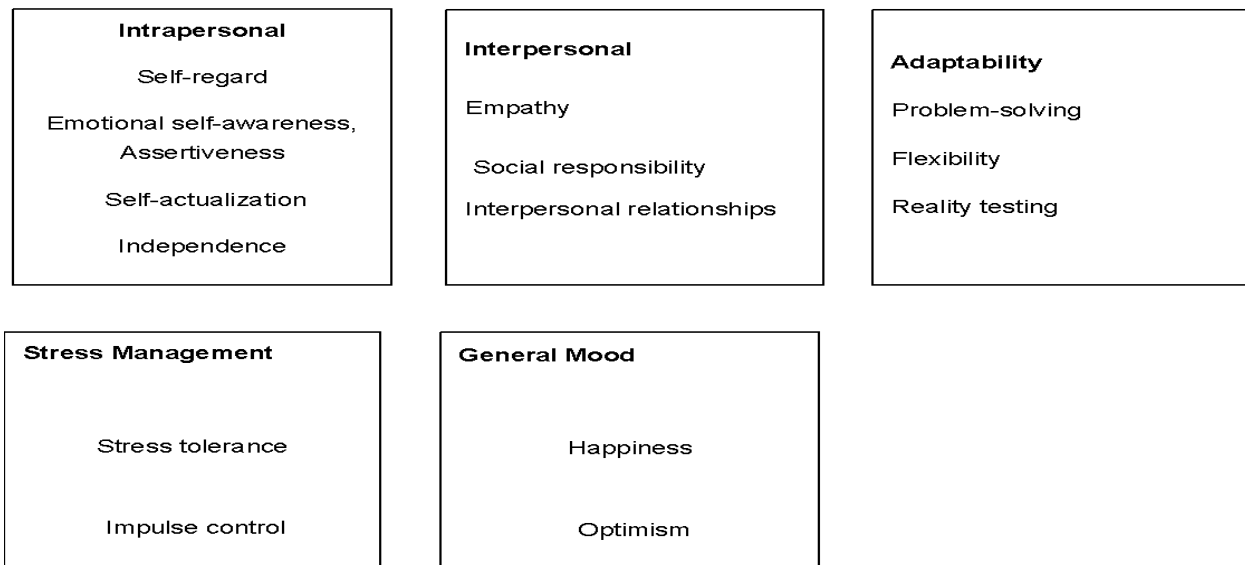
According to Bar-On's model, five main factors make up emotional and social intelligence, which can be broken down into 15 sub-factors. Intrapersonal competence or skills, which refers to one's awareness and comprehension of the thoughts and emotions of those around them, comes first. Next, the intrapersonal skill is subdivided into five sub-factors: self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. According to the Bar-On's model, the second factor that makes up emotional and social intelligence is interpersonal skills, which comprise five sub-factors: empathy, social responsibility, interpersonal interactions, and awareness of others' emotions and thoughts. The third factor, adaptability, encompasses the capacity to modify one's emotional responses in response to new information or circumstances. It is further broken down into three subfactors: checking one's assumptions, being open to new ideas,

and overcoming obstacles. Stress management is the third factor that describes emotional and social intelligence. This factor is further divided into two: tolerance and impulse. Finally, general mood, which represents the final factors, comprises the sub-factors of optimism and happiness and describes an individual's capacity to feel and express positive emotions and an optimistic outlook (Bar-On, 2006).

Emotional intelligence, as described by Bar-On's concept, is a synthesis of personality traits, intrinsic motivation, and self-control. The model also uses concepts associated with emotional and social intelligence, which are crucial for modern success. According to Bar-On, a person's general intelligence indicates his or her potential for success in life and comprises equal parts of emotional and cognitive intelligence (Bar-On, 2002). The theoretical model for understanding emotional intelligence developed by Bar-On (1997) is more expansive and comprehensive than the model developed by Mayer and Salovey (1997). Emotional-social intelligence, according to Bar-On, is a cross-section of interconnected emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that influence how successfully individuals comprehend and express themselves, in addition to understanding, and relating to others, as well as cope with the rigors of daily demands (Ackley, 2016). According to the Bar-On model, emotional intelligence must be shaped by an emotional, and a vital social component (which includes interpersonal skills, adaptability, and stress management related to the social environment).

Thus, the Bar-On model emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive abilities, knowledge, and competencies that help one cope with a variety of situations, demands, and pressures encountered in life. The emphasis on non-cognitive elements in this theory indicates a departure from traditional notions of intelligence, emphasizing the importance of cognitive components in determining intelligence. Unlike the traditional approach to emotional definition, Bar-On's model employs emotional and social intelligence terms, referring to the social competence an individual must have to succeed in life (Gonzalez & Pea, 2019). Bar-On pointed out that the dynamic nature of both emotional and social intelligence is greater than that of cognitive intelligence.

Bar-On's model asserts that, specifically, emotional and social intelligence comprise five high-level factors, which are subdivided into 15 sub-factors. The first factor is interpersonal skills, which is the ability to be aware and understand emotions, feelings, and ideas in others. This is subdivided into five sub-factors: self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self-actualization. The second factor is interpersonal skills, which describe the ability to be aware of and understand others' emotions, feelings, and ideas. This is subdivided into five sub-factors: empathy, social responsibility, and interpersonal relationships. The third factor, adaptability, refers to individuals' ability to change their feelings based on the situation, and comprises three sub-factors: reality testing, flexibility, and problem-solving. Fourth, tolerance and control of impulses are two sub-factors of managing stress and controlling emotions. The final factor, referred to as general mood, describes an individual's ability to feel and express happy emotions and be optimistic; it is made up, respectively, of the sub-factors of optimism and happiness, (Bar-On, 2006). The model of leader's emotional intelligence proposed by Bar-On incorporates characteristics of personality and self-drive, in addition to emotional management. In addition, the model uses concepts from both emotional and social intelligence, which allude to a leader's capacity to interact successfully with others to be successful in life. It is generally agreed that a leader's potential for success in life can be gauged not only by their IQ, but also by their emotional intelligence and their ability to understand and manage their emotions (Bar-On, 2002). The model below illustrates aspects of the above discussion.



Source: Bar-On, 2002

Figure 3.2: Components in Bar-On's Mixed Based Model of Emotional Intelligence

Figure 3. 2: Components of Bar-On's Mixed Based Model of Emotional Intelligence

3.12.2.1 Criticisms against Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence

Both the nomenclature and the theory behind Bar-On's model have been criticised. Petrides and Furnham (2001), for instance, note that although Bar-On (1997) uses the terms "ability" and "intelligence" liberally in the technical manual of his emotional intelligence measure (the EQ-i) based on this model, the scales and items encompassed by this measure, refer more to self-perceived traits and dispositions than they do to cognitive ability. Anderson (1996) has also raised doubts about the validity of the suggestion that skill may be "non-cognitive," especially if "skill" is understood as it is in most intelligence concepts, namely, as the capacity to make decisions. Although intelligence experts acknowledge that additional attributes may contribute to success, Neubauer and Freudenthaler (2005) suggest that these traits should not always be categorised as components of intelligence. Mayer et al. (2016), also argued that emotional intelligence was something other than a cognitive ability by. As a result, they have claimed that Bar-On's (1997) emotional intelligence model, which incorporates

numerous non-ability features (such as global, personal, and social functioning), over-conceptualizes the idea and diminishes the value of the phrase "emotional intelligence" as a scientific construct (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

3.12.3 Trait model paradigm (Petrides & Furnham, 2001)

According to Petrides, Pita, and Kokkinaki's (2007) trait model of emotional intelligence, a leader's emotional self-perceptions are located in the lower levels of the personality hierarchy, alongside factors like empathy and assertiveness. Petrides (2009) opined that the model combines self-perceived abilities through a personality framework that considers recognition of elements such as behavioural inclinations and self-perceived talents, which may be tested using a self-report questionnaire. As a result of the fact that it has behavioural inclinations as well as self-reported skills, emotional intelligence is more closely associated with personality, than with any other field of intelligence. Petrides (2001) found 15 discrete elements in the dimensional domain of the trait emotional intelligence, which were then subdivided into four second-order sub-dimensions. This was the subject of his Ph.D. dissertation. These are emotionality, self-control, well-being, and social ability (figure 3.3).

Firstly, emotionality from the perspective of the leader indicates the ability to recognize, express, and connect with the emotions of oneself and others. According to Kaliská and Kalisk (2016), this capacity may be beneficial in developing effective interpersonal interactions. Secondly, regulating and maintaining control over one's emotions, impulses, and stress is all facilitated by self-control. The many aspects of self-control work together to create the appearance of solid willpower. Personality traits associated with good self-control include being more deliberate and less impulsive, more resilient under pressure, and better able to manage stressful situations (Andrei, Siegling, Aloe, Baldaro, & Petrides, 2016).

Thirdly, the concept of well-being refers to sentiments that persist over time and are based on accomplishments, self-esteem, and expectations (Petrides & Mavroveli, 2018).

Optimism, happiness, and self-esteem are all aspects of well-being that may be measured (Kanesan & Fauzan, 2019). Petrides (2009) found leaders who reported a high level of well-being to be particularly well-adapted. Leaders who report high levels of well-being are optimistic, satisfied, successful, and self-confident, to name a few characteristics (Andrei et al., 2016).

Finally, sociability is described as the capacity to be socially assertive and aware, to manage the emotions of others, and to be effective in communication and involvement in social circumstances (Hjalmarsson & Dderman, 2020). Emotional control, assertiveness, and social awareness are some of the characteristics of this skill (Andrei et al., 2016). The leader's capacity to affect the sentiments of others is associated with those with high levels of sociability. These leader are forthright and eager to speak up for themselves, and they are networkers with excellent social skills.

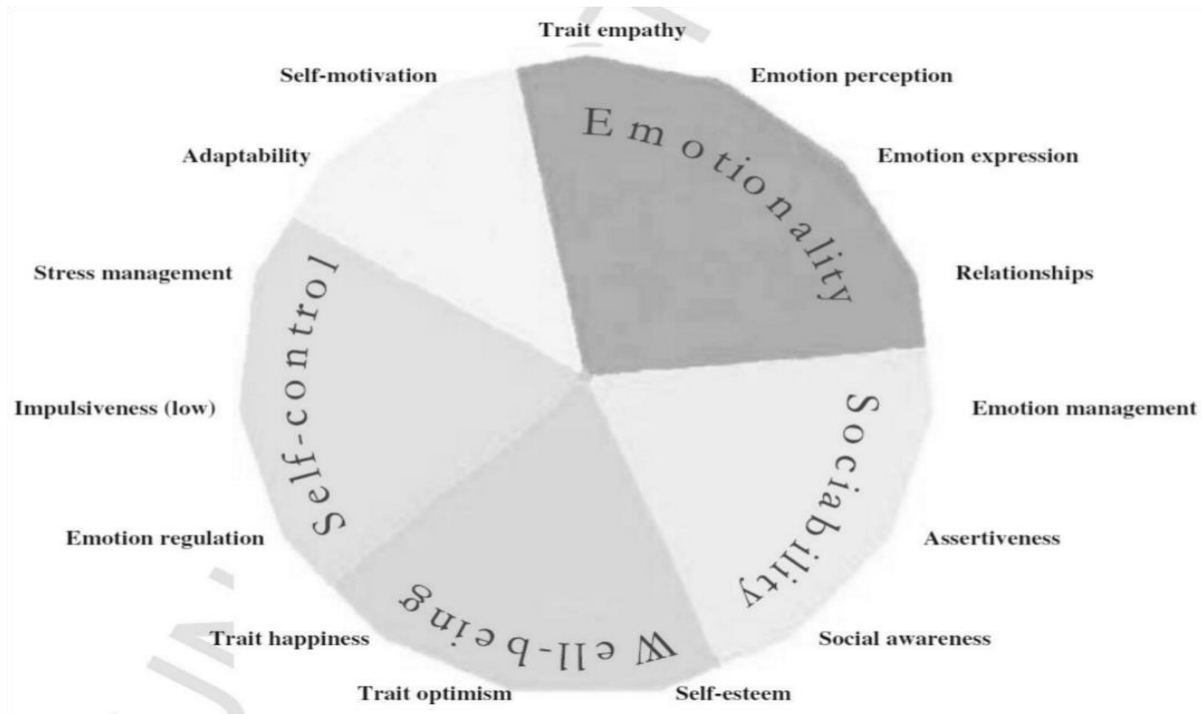


Figure 3. 3: Facets of trait model of emotional intelligence (Siegling et al., 2014:61)

3.12.3.1 Criticism of the trait model of emotional intelligence

Although the trait model of emotional intelligence can affect psychological and behavioural variables, and demonstrates strong predictive qualities associated with the socio-emotional criteria such as facial expressions, leadership, overall social competence, and peer evaluations of kindness (Petrides & Furnham, 2001; Mavroveli and Sanchez-Ruiz, 2011), there are few weaknesses in the model. For instance, Boyatzis (2018) and Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera (2016) argued that self-reports that are generated from the emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue) can exaggerate actual performance. Additionally, Alreshidi (2018) asserted that the trait model fails to effectively distinguish different behaviours that are characterized as high emotional intelligence and low emotional intelligence. In addition, the trait model of emotional intelligence is indistinguishable from primary personality components (Alreshidi, 2018).

3.12.4 Goleman 1995 model of emotional intelligence

In the 1960s, Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and scientist who had conducted a number of studies on the brain and behaviours, became acquainted with the work of Salovey and Mayer (1997). Drawing inspiration from their work, he undertook a study on his own. As a result, he came up with a book that enabled the public and private sectors of the economy to become familiar with emotional intelligence.

The foundation of Goleman's emotional intelligence model is his conviction that, after taking into account the influences of education, innate potential, and opportunity, the conventional intelligence quotient (IQ) is worthless at predicting success in life. According to Goleman, only 20% of the variance required to predict success in life is contributed by IQ. It follows that emotional intelligence at least mostly accounts for the remaining 80% of the variable in success. Goleman (1995) asserted that people can go beyond the bounds of their natural mental talents, depending on how much they are motivated by their feelings and how they can use emotions to improve thinking, planning, pursuing goals, and problem-solving. As a result, according to Goleman, emotional intelligence

includes a wide range of abilities crucial to effective leadership. According to Goleman, there are two types of emotional competence: personal (intra-perspective) and social (inter-perspective). Personal competencies are those that "determine how we manage ourselves" (Goleman, 2001, p. 26), whereas social competencies are those that "determine how we handle relationships" (Goleman, 2001 p. 27). Self-awareness and self-management make up one's competence, whereas social awareness and relational management make up one's social competence.

3.12.4.1 The four components of Goleman's model explored

This section of the literature explores the four components of Goleman's model: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management.

Self-awareness

Self-awareness is defined as the capacity to recognize and comprehend one's feelings and the emotions of others as well as the ability to express one's emotions appropriately. It is the capacity to appropriately identify one's emotions and remain aware of them as they occur, and to moderate one's reaction to specific events and individuals (Junias & Abigirl, 2015). According to Goleman (2001), individuals with the competence of self-awareness do not only recognise their emotions but also identify the effects thereof. They are thus able to provide a link between their emotions and performance. The implication is that self-awareness could enable individuals to identify their strengths and weaknesses.

According to Goleman (2001), persons with a healthy sense of self-awareness can also provide a fair evaluation of themselves. This means that individuals with strong emotional intelligence are reflective and often learn from their experiences. In addition, they tend to be very receptive to candid feedback, continuous learning, and self-development. In support of this, Omoregbee et al. (2016) argue that while self-aware leaders understand and remain comfortable with their limitations and strengths, and are often open to constructive criticism, Goleman (2001), in contrast, asserts that leaders with low self-

awareness are more likely to give interpretation to a call to improvement, as a threat or sign of failure.

Additionally, Odukoya, Omonijo, and Oraetue (2020) argue that self-aware individuals have a good understanding of their dreams, goals, and values and a clear picture of where they want to be, and why and often act accordingly. Therefore, a self-aware individual would organize and plan his or her time well in advance, knowing very well that tight deadlines do not bring out the best in one's performance. For example, according to Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2001), individuals with a strong sense of self-awareness normally turn down lucrative job offers when they are not in line with their principles or long-term goals. Finally, according to the Goleman (2001) model, those with a high sense of self-awareness demonstrate greater self-confidence. This includes the ability to voice unpopular views and go out on a limb for what is right. Thus, they could demonstrate decisiveness and can make sound decisions, despite uncertainties and pressures.

Self-management

The ability of an individual to keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control, demonstrating a high sense of honesty and integrity, flexibility in adapting to circumstances, and an attempt to overcome obstacles, is referred to as self-management (Junias & Abigirl, 2015). In other words, it is the skill of controlling one's behaviour, thinking processes, and emotional responses to achieve one's goals. According to the Goleman (2001) model, an essential element of self-management is self-control. This is very important since, as human beings, our biological impulses tend to drive our emotions, which must be kept under control. Self-management is a facet of emotional intelligence, analogous to an inward dialogue that frees an individual from the shackles of his or her own impulses, emotions, and feelings. While such conversations may trigger emotional impulses and bad moods, individuals with high self-management of emotional intelligence tend to find a way to control these emotions and direct them towards good use.

Trustworthiness is another important component of self-management. According to Odukoya, Omonijo, and Oraetue (2020), individuals who display self-management characteristics are ethical in their behaviours, live above reproach, and can be very reliable and authentic. As a result, this person can take principled stands even if they are unpopular, admit or accept their own mistakes, and confront unethical behaviours in others. Adaptability, which characterises the flexibility to adapt to changing events and overcome barriers, is a key component of self-management, a component of the Goleman model of emotional intelligence. (Omoregbee, Morrison, & Morrison, 2016). This means the ability to effectively handle multiple demands, shifting priorities, and rapid change, in addition to adapting responses and tactics to fit fluid circumstances. Goleman (2004) further posits that individuals with high levels of self-management are not only organised and very vigilant in their work but also hold themselves accountable for meeting their objectives and are open to new and original ideas in addressing problems.

Social awareness (Empathy)

The term "social awareness" refers to the capacity for perceiving and responding to the emotional states of one's peers (Goleman, 2004). Because of this, one's level of social awareness is proportional to how well one can identify the emotions, concerns, and wants of those around them. Goleman (2001) indicated that this describes empathy, one of the critical competencies of social awareness. Martinovski, Traum, and Marsella (2007) opined that the display of social awareness (empathy) on the part of leadership, enhances the trust in leader-employee relationships. Therefore, the ability to empathise with others is crucial for collaborating well with a wide range of coworkers, especially those from different cultural backgrounds. Mistakes and misunderstandings are common in intercultural communication. Understanding the existence and significance of cultural and ethnic differences, as well as the "antidote" that attunes people to subtleties in body language or helps them to hear the emotional message underneath the words, are all hallmarks of empathic individuals. (Batool, 2013).

The capacity to read the currents of organisational life, construct decision networks, and negotiate politics is another competency of the social awareness sub-dimension of emotional intelligence. (Odukoya, Omonijo, & Oraetue, 2020). Being socially aware in an organisational setting implies being alert and conscious of the organisational activities and trends. An individual should be able to forge good strategic partnerships and identify and know how to handle power blocks within the working environment.

Another competence of social awareness is service orientation, which is recognizing and meeting customers' needs. Goleman (2004) argues that individuals with this competence put themselves in the "shoes" of their customers to anticipate better and understand wants and needs, to be able to provide better products and services that satisfy these needs. In this regard, social awareness is demonstrated by people by being helpful, contributing to the group effort, and displaying good listening skills.

Relationship management

An ability to read social circumstances and networks, interact fluently, persuade, lead, negotiate, and settle disputes, engage seamlessly with others, cooperate, and work effectively as a team are all aspects of relationship management (Ugoani, Amu, & Kalu 2020). In other words, the term "relationship management" describes an individual's skill in adjusting their behaviour in social situations based on their feelings, those of the people involved, and the overall context. Relationship management relies heavily on inspirational leadership, which is the capacity to develop the skills of others through encouragement and instruction. According to Goleman (2004), this is serving as a role model and advisor to others through mentoring and setting a good example. The capacity to connect with others in a way that inspires and motivates them to help other people to achieve organisational goals is a crucial part of relationship management.

In managing relationships, Goleman (2001) stresses that conflicts are generally common due to differences in opinions and views of individuals who work or interact—developing the knowledge and abilities necessary to effectively communicate and work with others,

to find common ground and create workable solutions, forming and maintaining interpersonal connections with other people. Effective management of relationships from Goleman's (2001) perspective also includes being a change catalyst. Recognizing the need for change, generating new ideas, and inspiring others to move in a different path toward achieving corporate goals and objectives are all part of becoming a change agent.

Part of being a good relationship manager is encouraging teamwork and collaboration or working together to solve problems. This describes the ability to harness the strength of others by working together as teams through interdependence, to achieve collective goals. This includes different levels of collaboration in sharing ideas, information, knowledge, experience, and resources with others to enhance collective performance. Consequently, emotionally intelligent people are in a better position to manage not only those working under them, but also themselves because they see the value of collaborations with others to boost organisational performance.

3.12.4.2 Criticisms of Goleman's models

There are criticisms to the emotional intelligence model popularised by Daniel Goleman, despite the fact that it was crucial in bringing attention to the limited application of academic intelligence for success. For instance, critics of Goleman's emotional intelligence theory point out that many of its components are more closely related to attitudes, beliefs, and tendencies, all of which have been studied extensively within psychology, than they are with the nature of emotion and intelligence (Pfeiffer, 2001). Many of these theoretical components may be predictors of success, but whether or not they should all be included in an emotional intelligence framework is contested. Pfeiffer (2001) argues that trying to incorporate all of these factors into a single model goes beyond the bounds of what can be reasonably called an intelligence service.

Mayer and Cobb (2000) argue that the parts of Goleman's concept of emotional intelligence that are considered "very significant," deserve to remain there. However, as

reported by Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000), personality research has shown that many of the traits that Goleman has claimed are connected with emotional intelligence are not significantly related to each other. Further, Mayer et al. (2000) have suggested that Goleman ignores the fact that these characteristics might be harmful in specific contexts. An individual who is overly optimistic (a part of Goleman's model) about the likelihood of a positive outcome from a given scenario may, for instance, fail to take measures that would facilitate the desired transformation. Possessing such traits but lacking the ability to recognise their appropriateness in specific situations and behave accordingly, can be counterproductive.

Beyond the aforementioned works, Goleman has also made other (mostly unproven) claims regarding the potential of emotional intelligence in various contexts. Goleman goes so far as to imply that IQ accounts for no more than 20% of the elements determining success in life, leaving 80% to be accounted for by other characteristics, of which he suggests emotional intelligence is the primary contributor. In line with previous studies Bastian (2005) indicates that in order for emotional quotient (EQ) to be a better predictor of academic success than IQ, it must show correlations with the proposed criterion greater than $r = .45$. Given that no other variable has been found to make such a big contribution to psychological outcomes in a century of study, this seems exceedingly implausible (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). Furthermore, Mayer and Salovey (1997) have suggested that a person's personality can only explain so much when it comes to their overall success in life.

3.12.5 Justification for the choice of Goleman's Model of emotional intelligence

For this research, the Goleman framework was used. This is because it is consistent with the present body of knowledge and has been created and used extensively in the context of employee performance in the workplace, which resonates with this study. Goleman's theory of emotional intelligence is also applicable because it considers both the individual and group dimensions of a leader's emotional intelligence. Regarding intrapersonal emotional intelligence, leaders should focus on learning to identify and control their own

emotions rather than others. Leaders try to read and respond to their staff's feelings using an emotional intelligence strategy that considers multiple perspectives.

The ability to read and respond to employees' emotions is one of the most critical managerial talents for YOMSB to have in order to maintain their competitive edge. The purpose of this research is to determine if there is a synergistic effect between perceptions of the leader's emotional intelligence and perception of transformational leadership style, in how the two constructs influence the climate of organisations and the job satisfaction of their employees.

3.13 Measuring emotional intelligence

Due to the differences in emotional intelligence models, different measures of emotional intelligence exist. Some standard scales for the measurement of emotional intelligence include:

- Mayer–Salovey–Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (2002)
- The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), created by Bar-On in 1997 (Bar-On, 1997; Bar-On, 2002), assesses emotional well-being.
- Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee developed Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) measures in 1999 (Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000) and
- Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) by Petrides et al. (2007)

These emotional intelligence measures are explained below:

3.13.1 Mayer– Salovey–Caruso emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) (2002).

Developed in 2002, the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test is the most up-to-date version of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model. The MSCEIT aims to evaluate the four skills of perception, facilitation of thinking, understanding, and regulation as defined by the ability model of emotional intelligence in individuals aged 17 and up. There are 141 questions in the MSCEIT, which is administered online, and respondents are asked to rate their level of agreement with each statement on a scale from 1 (not at all

present/not at all effective) to 5 (very much present/extremely effective). The MSCEIT includes two tasks as measures of each branch: Perceiving Emotions (faces and pictures); Using Emotions (sensations and facilitation), Understanding Emotions (blends and changes); and Managing Emotions (emotion management and emotional relationships). The four components of EI may be further subdivided into two "areas" of EI: Experiential EI (Perceiving Emotions and Using Emotions), and Strategic EI (Strategic Emotional Intelligence) (Understanding Emotions and Managing Emotions). The six sub-scores on the scale add up to an overall score, which is expressed as an emotional intelligence quotient (EIQ) out of a possible 100.

3.13.2 Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I)

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) is a tool used to assess emotional intelligence in individuals 16 years of age and older. It is administered by a trained professional and measures an individual's ability to handle emotional and social situations, rather than their personality traits or cognitive abilities. The inventory consists of 133 questions that are used to calculate a Total Emotional Quotient, which is then broken down into five composite scales, including Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress management EQ, Impulse Control EQ, and General mood EQ, among others. Participants rate each item on a scale of 1 to 5 points and the raw scores are then transformed into standard scores with a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15. The reliability of the inventory was determined by analyzing the internal consistency, measured by Cronbach's alpha scores, which ranged from 0.69 to 0.86 for the 15 subscales, with an overall average of 0.76 (Bar-On, 2002).

3.13.3 Trait emotional intelligence questionnaire (TEIQue)

Petrides and his colleagues developed the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (2007), an open-access test of emotional intelligence designed to measure the construct as its whole, and it does so. The TEIQue is an operationalization of the Model of Emotional Intelligence by Petrides et al. (2007), which conceptualises emotional intelligence in terms of personality traits. The full version of the Emotional Intelligence

Questionnaire (TEIQue) comprises 153 items assessed on a 7-point scale, with 1 representing "strongly disagree" and 7 representing "strongly agree." A knowledgeable specialist administers the TEIQue. The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF) is a condensed version of the original Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Cooper & Petrides, 2010; Petrides 2009). A, 30 items are scored on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) on the TEIQue-SF. Numerous studies have proven TEIQue's excellent reliability, including 0.89 (Szczygiel et al, 2015), 0.87 (Carvalho et al., 2010), and 0.87 (Cooper & Petrides, 2010).

3.13.4 Emotional competency inventory (ECI)

The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) is a multi-rater questionnaire designed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee in 2000, to measure an individual's emotional intelligence abilities. It provides self-report, direct report, and peer ratings on a number of emotional intelligence behavior characteristics. The ECI assesses 18 competencies that are organized into four clusters: Self-Awareness and Self-Management, Social Awareness and Relationship Management. The Self-Awareness cluster includes emotional awareness, accurate self-evaluation, and self-confidence. The Self-Management cluster includes emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, accomplishment, initiative, and optimism. On the other hand, the Social Awareness cluster includes empathy, organisational awareness, and service and orientation. The Relationship Management cluster includes developing others, inspiring leadership, change catalyst, influence, conflict management, teamwork, and cooperation.

Each of the items is evaluated using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 to 5. As determined by Cronbach's alpha, the internal reliability of the ECI 2.0 ranges from 0.68 to 0.87 for each of the 18 competencies, with an overall average dependability of 0.78. In addition to calculating internal reliabilities (also known as Cronbach's alpha) for self-ratings, these were also calculated for ratings supplied by others. Internal consistency varies from 0.73 to 0.92 for other people's assessments and from 0.60 to 0.85 for one's own ratings to gauge within-subject reliability (Hay Group, 2005).

Because it is a 360° instrument, which means that it includes survey responses from a diverse range of persons who are close to the applicant, both personally and professionally, this tool was chosen above other emotional intelligence measures because it resonates with this study. This is due to the fact that the purpose of this study is to measure the emotional intelligence of YOMSB from the perspective of their employees. The Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, which is the model for used in this study, was also used to develop this scale, and the fact that it specifically focuses on the impact of emotional intelligence on job performance and workplace leadership, which resonate with this study, led to its application by the researcher. Using Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients, the instrument is both reliable and valid, with internal reliability coefficients ranging from 0.68 to 0.87 for each of the eighteen skills measured, and an overall average reliability coefficient of 0.78. When it comes to workplace performance, the instrument shows a high degree of predictive validity (Hay Group, 2005).

3.14 Summary of chapter

In summary, leadership is perceived as critical in the survival and performance of YOMSB as it influences several organisational outcomes in organisations, including job satisfaction, employee performance, commitment, turnover intention, just to mention a few. In this regard, literature shows that the encouragement of intellectual stimulation by leaders inspires the atmosphere of creativity and innovation, which is very crucial for the growth of YOMSB. Leaders are also able to create an atmosphere of discipline and stability in employee behaviour through the establishment and display of ethical values and principles. The interaction of leaders with employees creates opportunities and presents strengths and weaknesses that could be identified so the right support can be provided to ensure organisational goals are achieved. Effective communication of the vision by leaders is an essential step towards the creation of an atmosphere of innovative behaviour and problem solving for employees.

The literature reveals that the development of emotional intelligence by managers and employees could present several benefits to the organisation in terms of emotional intelligence within the context of YOMSB. This could include an improvement in employees' happiness and general physical and mental well-being. In relation to performance, an increase in leader's emotional intelligence among YOMSB could increase employee commitment, creativity, engagement, effectiveness, and overall productivity. This is because leaders can understand and manage their emotions and those of other colleagues in the workplace to a large extent. In effect, perceptions of low levels of leader's emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among YOMSB executives, might negatively impact the organisation's climate and employees' job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 4: ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a detailed literature review of transformational leadership styles and the leader's emotional intelligence in YOMSB. The literature review focused on key dimensions of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence, and how these variables influence YOMSB. Chapter 3 concluded that poor levels of the leader's emotional intelligence and transformational leadership might negatively impact the organisational climate and job satisfaction of the employees of YOMSB. This chapter presents a literature review on the independent variable, organisational climate. It captures the organisational climate's types, dimensions, and relevance for YOMSB. It also reviews the theory related to the variable, and how it is measured. The chapter concludes with a summary.

4.2 Organisational climate definition

Climate is often associated with meteorological studies, which focus on the observance, description, and measurement of different atmospheric characteristics such as rainfall, temperature, and changes in seasons (Haunschild, Bornmann, & Marx, 2016). However, in the context of the business environment and organisations, the term "climate" assumes a complex characteristic, due to its constant change and the difficulty associated with its observance and measurement (Madhukar & Sharma, 2017). As a result, the term's definition is mainly based on three different viewpoints regarding how climates are formed (Bonacci, Mazzitelli & Morea, 2020). The first viewpoint of the definition of organisational climate emphasises the objective or structural characteristics that describe an organisation's internal environment (Kao, 2015; Floyd, 2016; Sethibe, 2018; Khan, 2019). These objectives or structural characteristics include an organisation's structure, authority levels, organisational rules or policies, and ratio of employees (Floyd, 2016; Sethibe, 2018). In line with this approach, Kao (2015) defined organisational climate as a comprehensive description of the internal work environment in all its physical and social

features. Khan (2019) defined organisational climate as the long-term collective characteristics of an organisation, such as its structure, policies, systems, practices, and leadership style, that define and distinguish it from others.

From these definitions, it can be argued that the climate of an organisation is defined by the unique characteristic features that endure over time, and are instrumental in affecting the behaviour of the employees of the organisation concerned. In effect, the presence or absence of characteristics such as leadership style, organisational structure, type of power, communication environment, and social environment in an organisation, defines its organisational climate, which influences or shapes how employees behave in the working environment. The implication of this definition for YOMSB in Ghana is that the leadership of these organisations could establish objective and appropriate structures, policies, systems, practices, and support mechanisms, that create a good working climate for employees to achieve organisational goals. YOMSB could create an enabling climate for their human resources (employees) to deliver excellent services to clients.

The second viewpoint defines the organisational climate with a focus on the subjective elements of the organisation on the individual's perception of the organisational situation, and the creation of a single or psychological instance of the climate (Toprak & Karakus, 2018; Hassanpour, Jafari, Abbassian, & Touri, 2019; Terera, 2019). Consistent with this perspective, Ahmad, Jasimuddin, and Kee (2018) argue that an organisation's climate is representative of its members' opinions and sentiments about the organisation. Similar to the above, Cygler, Sroka, Solesvik, and De Rbkowska (2018) and Schneider, Ehrhart, and Macey (2016), defined it as the sum of employees' interpretations of the policies, practices, and procedures they encounter at work, as well as the behaviours they observe being rewarded, supported, and expected in regard to the human resources of the organisation. According to Viswanathan (2015), the perception of an organisation's processes, policies, interpersonal dynamics, employee conduct, management's expectations for performance, and room for professional development from employees' perspectives, contribute to its overall climate.

Based on the above definition, it can be argued that this approach to organisational climate is a subjective perception or feeling of an employee's interaction with the organisation. In the context of YOMSB in Ghana, the researcher contends that employee perceptions of their interactions with other employees, as well as organisational policies, systems, and values, can influence the type of organisational climate that exists. Positive perceptions about the working environment could lead to forming a positive organisational climate, from the employees' perspective. The converse also holds, in other words, that negative perceptions about the working environment could influence employees' perceptions of the organisational climate as being hostile.

The third approach to the definition of organisational climate, also called the interactive approach, involves the combination of objective and subjective approaches (Bonacci, Mazzitelli & Morea, 2020). The basic premise of this method is that an organisation's climate arises through its members' concerted efforts in reaction to their surroundings. Accordingly, the organisational climate was defined by Zweber, Henning, and Magley (2016) as a consensus view of the workplace, in terms of how people felt about their interactions with one another and with the policies, procedures, practices and structures of the company. Similarly, Christie, Carey, Robertson, and Grainger (2015) defined organisational climate as "the shared or collective feelings, perceptions, and values of employees in the workplace on the organisation's structures, processes, and systems, including trust, confidence, loyalty, and a sense of belonging and worth."

Based on the definitions of organisational climate, the study adopts the subjective perspective of organisational climate as defined by Schneider, Ehrhart, and Macey (2016). This is because, for this study, organisational climate is assessed from individuals' perceptions about their interactions with organisational rules, structures, principles, co-workers, supervisors, etc. The implication is that organisational climate is examined at the "individual level perception" regarding the working environment of owner-managed organisations where employees work. The subjective perspective of organisational climate is also justified on the premise that the study seeks to attain varied perceptions

of organisational structures, policies, rules, and relationships with co-workers and supervisors, from the point of view of individual employees who would be independent in providing their unique perception. Shared perceptions of the working environment, which is a key indicator of the interactive perspective of the organisational climate, could create biases in perceptions as individual perceptions could be influenced by the group/collective perception of the organisational climate of YOMSB in the Ghanaian context.

4.3 Classification of the organisational climate

In line with the classic works of Halpin and Croft (1963), an organisation's climate is categorized into six distinct profiles of configurations. These six profiles are: open, autonomous, controlled, familiar, paternal, and closed (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015; Patra, Maiti, & Halder, 2018; Saunders, 2018; Showers, 2019).

4.3.1 Open climate

An open climate refers to a climate that is defined by high levels of openness and authenticity, in the interactions that exist in the working environment between managers and their subordinates (Saunders, 2018). An open climate is marked by cooperative, supportive, and receptive attitudes in the working environment between managers and subordinates (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). This climate is characterized by an open and sincere interest by the manager, in employees, and a commitment to providing adequate support and motivation for tasks (Maurissen, Claes, & Barber, 2018). In this environment, managers offer employees the flexibility to carry out their responsibilities in the most competent manner possible. It also ensures that, as much as possible, hindrances to operational responsibilities are minimized through effective management of routine duties (Floyd, 2016).

In a world characterized by low levels of disengagement, an open climate portrays employees as being tolerant of each other, understanding, supportive, and respectful professionals, and demonstrating willingness and commitment to assist customers when needed (Maurissen, Claes, & Barber, 2018). Besides employees' high display of

commitment, the open climate maintains a high level of collegial relations, which is often evidenced in the care, respect, and provision of support, even at the personal level for colleagues (Hess & McAvoy, 2015). A vital characteristic of an open climate, as described by Patra, Maiti, and Halder (2018), is that all employees, including senior managers, are approachable and open to developing personal connections with consumers. The adoption of the open climate style among YOMSB has the potential to create a conducive working environment for employees, due to its supportive and teamwork elements. In this regard, YOMSB in Ghana that adopt an open organisational climate could achieve better worker productivity, which could translate into better organisational performance.

4.3.2 Autonomous climate

An autonomous climate is an organisational climate where employees are given the freedom or autonomy to operate without external influence or threat (Showers, 2019). This is achieved when managers inspire passion, eagerness, and diligence in their subordinates to get the work done (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). As a result, employees develop a strong desire and motivation to work to achieve organisational goals (Wallace, Butts, Johnson, Stevens, & Smith, 2016). Developing close relationships between managers and staff members is key to creating a self-directing or autonomous climate in organisations (Bunger, Birken, Hoffman, MacDowell, Choy-Brown, & Magier, 2019). The effect of a highly autonomous workplace culture in the workplace, often fosters a conducive environment for innovation and creativity. This is because the employees are given freedom or room to try their own ideas, learn new ways of getting things done and solving problems. Conversely, a low autonomous climate would stifle new ideas and creativity.

In the context of Ghana's YOMSB, the autonomous climate holds the key to creativity and innovation, the importance of which cannot be overstated if one hopes to achieve market dominance. As a result of this, managers of YOMSB might therefore inspire passion and enthusiasm among employees, in addition to fostering a working environment in which

members are free to try out new and better ways of achieving organisational goals, which is very important for creativity and employee fulfilment.

4.3.3 Controlled climate

A controlled climate is marked by a high degree of hard work and diligence from the employees in an organisation (Patra, Maiti, & Halder, 2018). Even though managers of controlled organisational climates are not an exemplary showcase of commitment, much emphasis is placed on employees' commitment to hard work, to the extent of costing them their social lives (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). In this climate, workers are typically very dedicated to their jobs and spend long hours filling out documentation. This implies that employees often have little time to socialize and interact among themselves. Efforts by managers in this climate to prevent familiarity and maintain control, often widen the distance between themselves and staff or employees.

The implication of the above within the context of YOMSB is that this type of climate creates a tense and mechanistic environment in which employees become workaholics to achieve organisational goals. Such a working environment could have diverse effects in YOMSB enterprises. Positively, the controlled organisational climate in the context of owner-managed youth enterprises could enhance productivity, and targets set for employees would likely be met. Notwithstanding the latter, a controlled organisational climate could also lead to fatigue on the part of employees, which can induce high-stress levels. Fatigue and high-stress levels among employees could lead to worker depression and anxiety, thereby negatively affecting employees' physical and psychological health. In the next section present a discussion on climate in an organisation.

4.3.4 Familiar climate

Typically characterized by a laissez-faire atmosphere, the familiar organisational climate focuses on creating and maintaining a friendlier atmosphere, rather than an atmosphere of task performance and the overall achievement of organisational goals in organisations (Saunders, 2018). In this type of climate, the commitment of employees towards

organisational tasks and assignments is relatively shallow, and employees who are more committed to organisational goals often do not share the same views, and management approaches as the managers of such cultures (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). This often leads to resentment towards the way the organisation is run by such supervisors or managers. The less committed employees and managers with the same attitude and behaviour, consequently become friends and form a clique in the organisation (Showers, 2019).

For YOMSB, a familiar climate could lead to low productivity levels on the part of employees, negatively affecting employee performance. Employee output towards work and the achievement of targets would be minimized. Furthermore, the absence of proper supervisory controls in YOMSB adopting the familiar climate could lead to inefficiency, and, thereby, quality standards in producing goods and services for customers will not be achieved. The familiar climate differs considerably to the paternal climate, discussed below.

4.3.5 Paternal climate

The paternal climate portrays a climate that is characterized by a very hard-working leadership with limited effect on the organisational staff (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). This is because employees in the paternal climate usually perceive the term "hard work" as unpopular. The climate is characterized by the leadership's attempts to stifle any leadership act or initiative, emerging from the employees while ensuring that they become more entrenched and eventually take over all leadership responsibilities. Furthermore, employees in this climate tend to work in isolation and with much mistrust, friction, and bickering among themselves. They also use informal sources or hearsay as a valued means of communication (Olibie, Uzoechina, & Eziuzor, 2015). Even though some level of closeness exists between managers and employees, the expectations of organisational managers and leaders from employees regarding output, are often viewed as unrealistic and impossible (Otaghsara & Hamzehzadeh, 2017). While employees may be open to

approaching each other in this climate, more employees fancy staying away from their managers due to the high level of mistrust and tension among them (Showers, 2019).

A paternal climate has a more significant negative impact on organisational output in YOMSB. The lack of congruence between leaders and their subordinates could breed more mistrust, robbing employees of the confidence to work effectively. Employees of YOMSB, in an organisation where the paternal climate is adopted, are less likely to achieve growth and capacity building since the climate in the organisation does not encourage that. Employees are most likely to live in fear, and the tendency for employee turnover could be high for YOMSB that adopt the paternal climate. This is because employees are most likely to find opportunities elsewhere to rebuild their careers, as tensions and mistrust continue to increase.

4.4 Dimensions of organisational climate

The dimensions of organisational climate are grouped under two main categories: molar and focused groups (Ehrhart, 2015). The focused group dimensions of organisational climate refer to those dimensions that measure features of the environment that are most relevant for predicting a particular criterion. Focused group dimensions of organisational climate include, among others: safety climate, innovation climate, ethical climate, diversity climate, leadership climate, climate for sexual harassment, climate for initiative, and leadership climate for sexual harassment (Goldberg, & Ahmad, 2019; Harris, 2019; Friend, Jaramillo, & Johnson, 2020; Sarwar, Imran, Anjum, & Zahid, 2020; Umar, 2020). This implies that focused group dimensions of organisational climate are solely concerned with measuring specific dimensions that are important for predicting unique organisational climate criteria. In contrast to the focused group, the second category is referred to as the molar group, which encompasses the entirety of the work environment characteristics that employees encounter, within the context of their respective organisational environments (Ehrhart, 2015). Furthermore, it comprises a holistic and comprehensive approach, which involves using several dimensions to describe an organisation's climate (Floyd, 2016).

The focus of this study, as far as organisational climate dimensions are concerned, is the molar group rather than the focused group, because Rintari (2019) argues that the molar group dimension provides a solid and comprehensive basis for exploring and developing a comprehensive measure of climate. Two critical and widely used dimensions of organisational climate under the molar group are discussed in this section. The first is the Litwin and Stringer (1968) dimension, which has been used in studies conducted by Bagheri, Hoseini, and Mowlanapour (2016), Ahmad, Jasimuddin, and Kee (2018), as well as Maamari and Majdalani (2017). The second is the Competing Values Framework (CVF) by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983), which has been used in studies conducted by Dastmalchian, McNeil, Blyton, Bacon, Blunsdon, Kabasakal, and Steinke (2015), Hartnell, Ou, Kinicki, Choi, and Karam (2019) and Rintari (2019). There are nine aspects of an organisation's climate that can be used to characterise it, as outlined by Litwin and Stringer (1968) in their study of task-oriented businesses. These nine factors include the following:

4.4.1 Structure

An employee's awareness of various organisational norms and regulations constitutes this dimension. For instance, does the group have a reputation for being very strict in following its established protocols, or is it known for taking a more laid-back approach to getting things done? (Arya & Sainy, 2017; Kamarul, Sajjad, & Wang, 2018)., the researcher argues that employees may perceive the existence of strict organisational rules and regulations in their organisation as rigid, in relation to YOMSB. In this regard, YOMSB, with rigid rules and regulations, could suppress innovation, as employees are most likely to be preoccupied with adhering to rules and regulations. On the contrary, where rules and regulations are flexible, employees are most likely to be more innovative as there is some level of freedom to develop different and innovative ways of doing things. It is also emphasised that too much flexibility could lead to low non-conformance and create indiscipline issues that would negatively affect organisational operational performance. In this regard, it is relevant for managers of YOMSB to ensure some level of balance between rigidity and flexibility in their rules and regulations. This might allow

for the promotion of innovation, to enhance competitive advantage while organisational discipline is maintained.

4.4.2 Responsibility

The responsibility dimension of the organisational climate defines employees' feelings about their ability to make their own decisions without prior consultation with superiors. This dimension refers to having an evident appreciation of one's roles and ensuring that those roles or tasks are thoroughly executed without fail (Nayar, 2015; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee, 2018). Within YOMSB, employees' ability to take responsibility with less supervision could be a relevant resource for achieving organisational performance. This is because responsibility has benefits in enhancing employee confidence and their ability to take innovative initiatives, that would be beneficial to organisational performance.

Employees' feelings about the compensation they receive for their efforts are emphasised along this dimension. Responsibility (in relation to compensation) focuses on the positive effects of incentives and how justifiable they are regarding compensation and advancement opportunities (Naik & Mani, 2018; Okoseimiema & Continue, 2019). Reward management in YOMSB could help achieve a positive working environment, as it enhances employee motivation and commitment. Conversely, poor reward management might lead to employee turnover, especially where competitors offer better opportunities. It is, therefore, important for YOMSB to use their reward systems as an indicator of their competitive advantage.

4.4.3 Risk

An organisation's risk profile can be gleaned from the risk dimension, which describes the degree to which workers face danger or risk while doing their duties. It also assesses whether or not the organisation is generally more inclined to take a risk, or would prefer a more stable outlook (Hyung-Yang, 2016; Arya & Sainy, 2017; Nguyen, 2018). The issue of risk within the context of YOMSB has implications for organisational performance. This

is because YOMSB that adhere strictly to occupational health and safety practices, are most likely to develop a strong and healthy organisational environment. Should YOMSB fail to take the issue of risks and exposure to hazards seriously, it could affect their organisational reputation and become costly. For instance, when many employees experience workplace accidents because of poor occupational health and safety practices, it could negatively affect the organisation's reputation. Medical expenses of affected employees might also put significant financial pressure on organisations.

4.4.4 Warmth

The warmth dimension is focused on the general perception of the feeling of friendliness in the organisation (Okoli, 2018). Commenting on warmth within the confines of YOMSB, the researcher argues that friendliness could benefit organisations, as it promotes teamwork and cohesiveness, which are essential elements for innovation and problem-solving. In this regard, YOMSB members, if characterized by friendliness, are most likely to create a conducive working environment where innovation and teamwork could become hallmarks of organisational effectiveness.

4.4.5 Support

This factor assesses the degree to which workers feel their supervisors and co-workers are willing to support them, and how much support they receive. (Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee, 2018). Support systems for organisations within YOMSB are essential for employee productivity, which could also transcend organisational performance. Managers of YOMSB could play an active role in supporting employees in discharging their duties. Moreover, YOMSB could also ensure co-worker support to enhance employee cohesiveness and help achieve efficient knowledge management, which is essential for organisational performance and achieving competitive advantage.

4.4.6 Standards

Managerial emphasis on goal-setting and adherence to performance benchmarks is the primary concern in this dimension (Nayar, 2015; Arya & Sainy, 2017). Attainment of

organisational standards to achieve goals can motivate management and employees to achieve more. As YOMSB members give credence to achieving organisational goals and perhaps reward exceptional employees for adhering to organisational standards, it could create a unique atmosphere for every employee to give their best.

4.4.7 Conflict

This dimension of conflict describes the degree to which supervisors and workers are willing to communicate and work through their differences of opinion, actively seek out new perspectives, or completely shun contentious discussions (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017). Within the context of YOMSB, effective conflict management through resolutions could help to deal effectively with tensions that may arise between employees and their employers, and between subordinates and their line managers. Therefore, conflict management efficiency is relevant for YOMSB in ensuring that a conducive working environment exists to enhance organisational performance.

4.4.8 Identity

A sense of value and belonging in the workplace are at the heart of this dimension (Okoli 2018). A sense of identity and belonging within the context of YOMSB has the potential to enhance employee self-efficacy, which has an essential role to play in effective task performance, thereby ensuring organisational performance. YOMSB (organisations) that create an organisational climate characterized by a sense of identity and belonging, are most likely to achieve better cohesion and teamwork, promoting innovation and problem-solving.

4.4.9 Competing values framework (CVF)

The Competing Values Framework (CVF) is one model that has also been used over decades in organisational climate research (Dastmalchian, McNeil, Blyton, Bacon, Blunsdon, Kabasakal, & Steinke, 2015; Hartnell, Ou, Kinicki, Choi, & Karam, 2019, Rintari, 2019). In the study of organisational climate, the CVF has been primarily used to understand how multiple climates exist, and assess the competition between them

(Rintari, 2019). The CVF provides a solid and comprehensive basis for exploring and developing a concept and measure of organisational climate (Dastmalchian, Bacon, Blyton, Blundson, & Steinke, 2015). The CVF is made up of four quadrants which describes an organisation's climate. These four quadrants are human relations, internal processes, open systems, and rational goals, and discussed below:

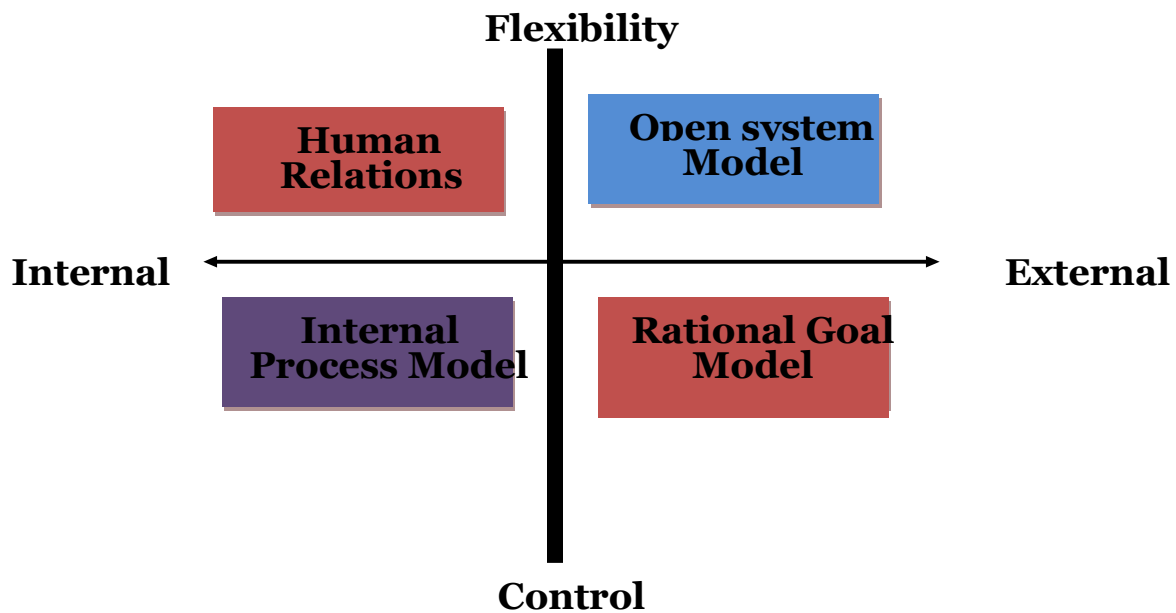


Figure 4. 1: Competing values framework quadrants.

Adapted from: Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) and Quinn (1988)

4.4.9.1 The Human relations

Values such as a sense of belonging, trust, and coherence, attained through measures such as training and human resource development, are examples of the characteristics that make up the first quadrant, which is referred to as the human relations module (Neilson, 2018). Aspects of the organisational climate that are identified under this quadrant include:

Welfare of employee — this refers to the degree to which organisations provide care for their employees (Tong & Arvey, 2015; Neilson, 2018)

Autonomy — describes the way jobs are designed to give room for employees to independently perform a task (Babenko, Mosewich, Abraham, & Lai, 2018; Neilson, 2018)

Participation— the involvement of employees in decision-making (Cheema & Asra-UI-Haq, 2017)

Communication— the freedom to openly share information across the entire organisation (Tong & Arvey, 2015; Neilson, 2018)

Focus on training—a commitment towards the development of competencies and skill sets of employees (Tong & Arvey, 2015; Neilson, 2018)

Integration—the degree to which trust, and cooperation exist between various departments of organisation (Tong & Arvey, 2015; Neilson, 2018)

Supervisory support— the degree to which subordinates, or employees receives support from their superiors about the performance of their tasks (Lin & Krongboonying, 2015; Qureshi & Hamid 2017).

The human relations quadrant of the CVF model has key implications for YOMSB in Ghana, because it has the potential to enhance effective human resource development and management. The indicators of the human relations module, such as autonomy, communication, training, support from supervisors, integration, and employee welfare, are essential elements for developing an organisation's human resources into strategic and unique assets, responsible for ensuring competitive advantage. Based on this premise, this study argues that YOMSB that institute the right structures to promote an

organisational climate with better human relation indicators, are most likely to become successful and achieve competitive advantage over their counterparts.

4.4.9.2 Internal process

Under the internal process model quadrant, the focus is on achieving stability in an uncertain environment where the impact of such an environment is often ignored (Tong & Arvey, 2015). This model is defined by classic bureaucracy, which is represented by the following dimensions:

Formalization—a need for formal rules and procedures (Tong & Arvey, 2015)

Tradition—the degree to which conventional procedures and ways of doing things are valued (Rintari, 2019).

The internal processes of YOMSB cannot be ignored, especially when it comes to forming a unique organisational culture and brand in such a competitive business environment. Notwithstanding the latter, the study argues that too much emphasis on formalization and tradition, which are the two main indicators of internal processes, could end up crippling innovation - an essential element for achieving competitive advantage. Therefore, it remains important for formalization and tradition to be well balanced in a way and manner that enhances innovation, while maintaining the core values of YOMSB to enhance organisational performance.

4.4.9.3 Open systems

The open system quadrant assesses an organisation's readiness to change and innovate in an environment where growth, creativity, and adaptation are valued (Neilson, 2018). The climate dimensions which are likely to reflect this orientation are:

Flexibility—an inclination toward change (Schippers, West & Dawson, 2015; Ahmad, Kahwaji, Durrah, & Allil, 2016)

Innovation—the degree to which new ideas of employees are encouraged and supported (Frank, Mashevskaya & Ermolina, 2016)

Outward focus—the degree to which the needs of the customer and the marketplace are responded to by the organisations (Rintari, 2019)

Reflexivity—a concern with reviewing and reflecting upon objectives, strategies, and work processes, to adapt to the wider environment (Neilson, 2018).

The open systems quadrant is very relevant for the survival of Ghana's YOMSB. This is because the extent of technological advancement and changes in customer preferences for goods and services, could compel owner-managed youth organisations to continually innovate to meet the needs and expectations of their customers. Therefore, the open systems indicators could be a key priority for YOMSB, since they have the potential to achieve a competitive advantage in a competing and turbulent business environment.

4.4.9.4 Rational goal

The final quadrant, referred to as the rational goal model, emphasises the realization of organisational goals with a priority on values such as feedback on performance, productivity, efficiency, and the fulfilment of goals (Tong & Arvey, 2015). The dimensions of this climate include:

Clarity of organisational goals—related to having well-defined organisational goals (Aunurrafiq & Sari, & Basri, 2015)

Effort— the extent to which employees go to achieve organisational goals (Ko & Kang, 2021)

Efficiency— emphasis focused on productivity and effectiveness in the workplace (Okoli, 2018)

Quality— specification compliance and the degree to which something is cared for about quality assurance measures (Yang, 2017)

Pressure to produce— the degree to which workers are pushed to accomplish their objectives (Tong & Arvey, 2015)

Performance feedback—the measurement and feedback of job performance (Villevall, 2020)

Within the context of YOMSB, the rational goal model has indicators that are key drivers for success, because the competitive environment in which YOMSB operate in Ghana, requires them to become result oriented. In this regard, it becomes imperative to have clear organisational goals with proper feedback and performance management systems.

4.5 Relevance of organisational climate

The relevance of the organisational climate to organisations is premised on the fact that it influences several organisational processes such as communication, problem-solving, planning, coordination, and working relationships, which have an impact on different organisational outcomes such as commitment, job satisfaction, performance, and employee turnover, among others. In line with this, Maamari and Majdalani (2017) indicated that the climate of working environments for organisations influences the motivation levels of employees, and determines the extent to which the organisations achieve profitability. Furthermore, it was proposed that effective company results are the by-product of an atmosphere that inspires workers to work harder and with more

enthusiasm, thereby producing a more substantial and efficient output (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017).

The ability of an organisation to develop a conducive working climate for its members forms a critical element in achieving high productivity (Jung & Ali, 2017). Moslehpour, Altantsetseg, Mou, and Wong (2019) argued that a positive organisational climate is crucial to boosting the motivation levels of employees to exert adequate effort in doing their tasks, which enhances performance and decreases employee turnover. The importance of a positive organisational climate may be shown in the correlation between progressive human resource practices, and improved levels of customer commitment, customer satisfaction, and profit contribution margin in an organisation (Makhathini & Van Dyk, 2018; Ahmad, Jasimuddin, & Kee, 2018; Okoli, 2018). Additionally, the right organisational climate helps organisations be creative and innovative, thereby inspiring them to work toward achieving organisational goals (Bahrami, Barati, Ghoroghchian, Montazer-Alfaraj, & Ezzatabadi, 2016).

In terms of health, organisational climates tend to impact employees' mental and psychological well-being, which in turn affect their overall well-being and work output (Viitala, Tanskanen, & Sääntti, 2015). In support of this, Berberoglu (2018) established a significant impact of the organisational climate on the employee's well-being, which directly impacts both the quality and quantity of work undertaken in the organisation. Based on the above discussion, the researcher, in this study argues that the organisational climate is appropriate for enhancing employee motivation, welfare, commitment, and psychological well-being, which could impact their overall work output. Therefore, the implication for YOMSB in Ghana is that the organisational climate in place has implications for employee well-being, work output, and, by implication, organisational performance. In conclusion, therefore, the kind of organisational climate established by YOMSB, be it open or closed, supportive or non-supportive, could be a determining factor in their employee and organisational performance. In the following section the study discusses a different aspect, namely Job Demands-Resources.

4.6 Job demands-resources (JD-R) theory.

Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli (2001) and Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli (2002) created the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory as a framework to examine & manage workplace characteristics (2003). Firstly, among the many propositions of the JD-R model, is the idea that the working environment can be divided into job demands and resources. Each category is associated with a different set of outcomes.

The term "job demand" refers to the elements of a job (whether physical, social, or organisational) that necessitate consistent use of one's body or mind, and are thus associated with measurable health risks (Demerouti et al., 2001, p. 501). Job demands are not always harmful, but they can become disadvantageous if the employee is expected to exert excessive effort before he or she fully recovers (Meijman & Mulder, 1998). Some examples of job demand include hazardous working circumstances, a lack of information, an excessive workload, disagreements with co-workers, stress from several roles, multiple periods of stress, and a high workload (Demerouti et al., 2001; Lee & Ashforth, 1996).

Demerouti et al (2001, p. 501) propose that job resources refer to "those physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of the job that may do any of the following: (a) be functional in achieving work goals; (b) reduce job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs; (c) stimulate personal growth and development"). These resources can be found at a variety of different levels in the workplace, including the organisational (such as pay, career opportunities, job security), interpersonal and social (such as supervisor and co-worker support, team climate), organisational, (such as role clarity, participation in decision making), and task (e.g., skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, performance feedback) (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007).

Job Demands and Resource Theory (JD-R Theory) proposes that job demands and resources may trigger health impairment and motivational processes. Therefore, while

job demands are commonly linked to unfavourable outcomes like exhaustion, psychosomatic health complaints, and repetitive strain injury (RSI) (e.g., Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2003), job resources are commonly linked to motivational processes that have an impact on favourable outcomes like job satisfaction and citizenship behaviours (Bakker et al., 2007, 2010). The difference in results is due to the fact that achieving one's job goals takes effort and depletes one's energy, whereas fulfilling one's basic psychological needs, such as autonomy, relatedness, and competence, requires little effort and uses up much of one's job demands (Bakker, 2011; Nahrgang et al., 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001).

According to the third tenet of JD-R theory, a person's level of satisfaction on the job can be accurately predicted by analysing the connection between their workload and the available support systems. The dynamic between workplace demands and job resources, directly and indirectly, affects worker satisfaction and productivity through two channels. The first interaction happens when rewards on the job diminish the impact of stress from the job. The negative effects of job demand (work pressure, emotional pressures, etc.) can be lessened by the provision of protective workplace resources, such as social support, autonomy, performance feedback, and opportunities for development (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Employees who have access to a wide range of resources and emotional backbones at the office are better equipped to handle the challenges they will inevitably face. Secondly, the relationship between job demands and job resources has a multiplier effect that boosts employee motivation and satisfaction. Because of this, it has become clear that when job demands are high, job resources become more obvious and have the most positive impact on desired outcomes (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007). Amenities at work become even more important and inspiring in trying times, because they help workers focus on the task at hand.

Over the past decade, more research has used job demands-resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti & Bakker, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2001). This model has been used to predict job burnout, organisational commitment, work enjoyment,

connectivity, and work engagement (Bakker, Hakanen, Demerouti, & Metzger, 2007). The JD-R model has also been used to predict absenteeism, job satisfaction, and performance (Bakker, Demerouti, & Verbeke, 2011; Francisco & Andres, 2017). Consequently, the JD-R hypothesis aids in comprehending, explaining, and forecasting workers' contentment (e.g., burnout, health, motivation, job satisfaction, work engagement, and job performance).

The job-demand resources theory is relevant in explaining the organisational climate of YOMSB. In other words, high job demands in YOMSB firms create a hostile organisational climate that is characterised by extreme work overload, stress, and anxiety, which has negative implications for employee job performance. Creating a positive organisational climate depends on YOMSB's ability to provide the right job resources, such as teamwork and supervisory support systems, that will enable employees to deal with work tasks assigned to them. Thus, creating a conducive working environment indicates a positive organisational climate through the provision of appropriate job resources in owner-managed youth firms.

4.6.1 Criticism of the job demands-resources (JD-R) theory.

How job demands and resources are conceptualised is a criticism of the JD-R paradigm. For instance, when a worker encounters a resource shortage, greater effort is needed to accomplish work objectives. This logic results in the counterintuitive conclusion that a lack of resources may be perceived as a job demand, because the JD-R model contends that the expenditure of effort is a hallmark of job demands. Similarly, some employees may view a resource like job control negatively, that is, as a danger rather than as a chance for growth and learning. Therefore, not all employment requirements may be unfavourable, and not all resources may be inspiring. For instance, while demands like job conflict and ambiguity may be seen as obstacles by employees, fixing problems may be seen as a desirable challenge (Albrecht, Breidahl, & Marty, 2015).

Additionally, the majority of studies utilising the JD-R model have focused on European samples (from Finland, the Netherlands, Germany, Spain, Greece, and Austria). There has not been a lot of focus on verifying the theory's applicability in other cultural contexts.

4.7 Measuring organisational climate

Several instruments or measures have been developed to assess the climate of organisations. The usage and validation of identical climatic measures or surveys is hampered, however, because researchers rarely employ the same pre-determined dimensions to test (Pena-Suarez, Muniz, Campillo-Alvarez, Fonseca-Pedrero, & Garcia-Cueto, 2013). In addition, while some instruments assess only one or two characteristics of an organisation's climate, others can assess up to nineteen features in an organisation's climate. Some of the most widely used climate instruments include Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ), the Survey of Organisational Research Climate (SoORC), the Organisation Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ), the Team Climate Inventory (TCI), the Business Organisation Climate Index (BOCI), the Creative Climate Questionnaire (CCQ), and the Organisation Climate Measure (OCM).

4.7.1 Organisational climate questionnaire (OCQ)

The Organisational Climate Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Litwin and Stringer (1968) is widely recognised as a reliable and valid instrument for assessing the atmosphere of a business or other organisation. There are fifty questions included, and they cover a wide range of climatic factors. They are "Structure," "Responsibility," "Risk," "Reward," "Warmth and Support," "Standard," "Conflict," and "Identity." These dimensions were developed with the intent of satisfying the needs of management in terms of providing an accurate description of the current state of affairs, linking the dimensions to specific stimuli and behaviours, and making it easier for management to monitor progress. Although this scale has been widely used, it has been criticised for its lack of validity and low split-half reliability (Patterson, West, Shackleton, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson, & Wallace, 2005; Saunders, 2008).

4.7.2 Survey of organisational research climate (SOuRCe)

The Survey of Organisational Research Climate (SOuRCe) is a 32-item survey tool developed to measure the organisational climate of research integrity within academic institutions (Martinson, Thrush, & Crain 2013). The SOuRCe is a self-evaluation tool for institutions that are meant to be filled out by research-active staff members, to help upper-level management become more cognizant of the strengths and weaknesses of their own institutions' research climate. The SOuRCe is a research instrument that has its roots in the kind of rigorous academic environments seen in research hospitals and large, research-oriented universities in the United States (Martinson, Thrush, & Crain 2013; Crain, Martinson, & Thrush, 2013). Seven different measures related to the research integrity climates in an organisation as a whole, as well as in its divisions and other smaller entities, are measured (e.g., work roles, such as faculty, graduate students, etc.). Resources for Responsible Conduct of Research; Regulatory Quality; Integrity Norms; Integrity Socialization; Department Expectations; Supervisor/Supervisee Relations; and Integrity Inhibitors are the seven dimensions that make up an organisation's climate.

4.7.3 Organisational climate description questionnaire (OCDQ)

The OCDQ-RM, created by Hoy, Tarter, and Kottkamp (1991), is a climate instrument consisting of 42 items across six dimensions that characterise the actions of middle school faculty and administration. In contrast to earlier iterations of the OCDQ, this tool is ideally suited for use in middle school settings. It assesses the three facets of principal behaviour (supportive, directive, and restrictive), and the three facets of teacher behaviour (collegial, committed, and disengaged) (Pozveh & Karimi, 2016). These six aspects of interactions define two openness dimensions of middle school climate – the openness of teacher principal relations and the openness of teacher-teacher and student-teacher relations.

4.7.4 Team climate inventory (TCI)

Anderson and West (1998) created the TCI to measure several aspects of the atmosphere in a team's environment (Loewen & Loo, 2004). The TCI is a valuable

instrument for assessing team morale and efficiency and comprises 44 items. Information sharing, safety, interaction frequency, expressed and enacted support, clarity, perceived value, sharedness, attainability, excellence, evaluation, and ideation, are some of the organisational climate dimensions assessed with this instrument (Loewen & Loo, 2004). A higher TCI score indicates a more positive climate. A study by Loewen and Loo (2004) found that the TCI is a consistent and reliable measure of the workplace environment.

4.7.5 Business organisation climate index (BOCI)

The BOCI was first created by Payne and Pheysey (1971). The original measure consisted of 300 items (Organisational Climate Index) and was later reduced to a scale of 192 items that measures six dimensions: authority, restraint, work interest, personal relations, routine, and community (Payne & Pheysey, 1971). Questions are answered through the use of a true/false scale. (Payne & Pheysey, 1971). The BOCI is still quite long, despite the fact that certain items from the original index have been removed (Kangis & Williams, 2000).

4.7.6 Climate questionnaire (CCQ)

The Creative Capabilities Questionnaire (CCQ) was created by Ekvall (1996) and consists of 50 items divided into 10 dimensions: challenge, freedom, idea-support, dynamism, playfulness, debates, conflicts, risk-taking, and idea-time (Ekvall, 1997). With the exception of conflict, all the dimensions of CCQ all have positive correlations with employees' motivation (Ekvall, 1996)

4.7.7 Organisation climate measure (OCM)

Patterson et al. (2005) applied the Competing Values Framework as theory to create a global climate measurement tool called the Organisation Climate Measure (OCM). The OCM takes a global perspective on climate since it was designed that way. The 17 subscales of the OCM were comprised of 82 questions, and these questions were used to quantify climate across the four CVF categories (Floyd, 2016). The 17 subscales of OCM include Autonomy, Integration, Involvement, Supervisory Support, Training,

Welfare, and Formalization. The rest comprise Tradition, Innovation & Flexibility, Outward Focus, Reflexivity, Clarity of Organisational goals, Efficiency, Effort, Performance Feedback, Pressure to Produce, and Quality.

Because OCM is ideally suited for exploratory investigations assessing climate, this study adopts this instrument to assess the climate of small businesses in Ghana that are owned or managed by young people. The fact that the measure has a theoretical basis and is freely accessible to the public, also played a role in its selection. Additionally, the OCM has shown sufficient evidence of validity and dependability. For example, in a study conducted by Patterson et al. (2005), it was found to have a mean alpha of 0.811, with individual subscale alphas ranging from 0.67 to 0.91. This demonstrates that the measure is reliable and consistent across its several scales, which are all measuring the same set of components (Patterson et al., 2005). Moreover, several studies show that the OCM is a valid and reliable measure of organisational climate in a variety of contexts, and that it includes climate dimensions thought to be important in knowledge work environments (Hannevik, Lone, Bjørklund, Bjørkli, & Hoff, 2014; Bernström, Lone, Bjørkli, Ulleberg, & Hoff, 2013; Patterson et al., 2005).

4.8 Summary of chapter

The climate that defines a working environment is a significant factor in the determination of the success or otherwise of an organisation. Literature reveals organisational climates such as being open and autonomous are very supportive in creating an enabling environment that enhances job satisfaction, productivity, employee performance, and innovation, which is essential for the survival of the YOMSB in Ghana. Conversely, organisational climates such as controlled, paternal, and familiar climates create tense and mechanistic environments, coupled with much mistrust between leaders and followers and low levels of dedication and commitment, which reduces employee satisfaction and employee and organisational outcomes, such as employee and organisational performance.

Additionally, JD-R theory highlights that job demands and resources in an organisation interact to have a combined effect on well-being and indirectly influence performance. This is achieved when job resources buffer the impact of job demands on the strain. Thus, YOMSB can improve their organisational climate to enhance employee well-being and performance by providing essential job resources such as social support, autonomy, performance feedback; opportunities for development can mitigate the impact of job demands which characterise work.

CHAPTER 5: THEORITICAL AND EMPIRICAL REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the literature on the different types and dimensions of the organisational climate that define organisations, including YOMSB. It also provided the relevance of the organisational climate to business. It concluded that while a positive organisational climate may enhance employee job satisfaction, productivity, and innovation, an adverse climate may result in low levels of job satisfaction, commitment and a high level of mistrust among employees.

This chapter presents the study's theoretical and conceptual frameworks and an empirical literature review on the relationship among the variables and the hypotheses that guide the study. The chapter begins by reviewing organisational climate and job satisfaction relationship. This is followed by transformational leadership and organisational climate association, transformational and employee satisfaction relationship/s, and between emotional intelligence and organisational climate. Other relationships explored include emotional and job satisfaction, as well as emotional and transformational leadership styles. Finally, the interactive effect of organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction, is reviewed and concludes with a summary.

5.2 Organisational climate and employee job satisfaction relationship

In an Asian setting, Rinawati and Nasution (2021) examined how factors, including organisational structure, norms, responsibilities, rewards, organisational support, and commitment, which define organisational climate, impact employee job satisfaction among Indonesian doctors in their workplace. This study found that organisational climate and employee satisfaction positively correlated. Ahmad, Jasimuddin, and Kee (2018) also

aimed at understanding the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction in a sample of Malaysian businesses, by using participants' personality types as a moderator. Organisational climate was found to have a direct and statistically significant positive association with employee satisfaction. The research also found that personality variables moderated the connection between work environment factors and satisfaction. Similarly, Thakre and Shrof (2016) surveyed workers in Mumbai, India, to assess the association among their organisation's climate, stress and job satisfaction. Organisational role stress was found to be lower, and job satisfaction was found to be better, for employees working in a positive compared with negative organisational climate, according to the study's findings.

Li, Huang, and Chen (2020) investigated the effects of organisational climate on voluntary child welfare workers' job satisfaction and, by extension, turnover in a developed country like the United States of America. The direction of these associations is also important, with a good organisational climate being associated with higher levels of job satisfaction, which in turn is associated with greater levels of intent, to stay in child welfare and lower levels of intent to leave. Additionally, the study found that job satisfaction fully mediated the organisational climate and intentions to quit relationships, while it partially mediated the organisational climate and intentions to remain relationship in child welfare. In a corresponding study, Pecino-Medina, Manas-Rodriguez, Diaz-Funez, and Lopez-Puga, (2015) examined the effect of organisational climate on employees' levels of employee job satisfaction. The study's findings revealed that the climate in administrative areas of the institution positively impacted employee job satisfaction.

Similarly, Pacino-Medina, Maas- Rodriguez, Diaz-Féñez, Aguilar- Parra, Padilla-Góngora, and López-Liria (2019) employed the job demands-resources model to examine the connections among organisational culture, role stress, and well-being (burnout and job satisfaction) in Spanish public agencies. While there was evidence of a negative association between organisational climate and stress, the study also uncovered that the organisational climate and job satisfaction association in the workplace was positive.

Moreover, in addition to reducing stress and burnout, the study found that improved well-being also increases employee satisfaction and happiness.

The purpose of the research conducted by Makhathini and Van Dyk (2018) was to assess the extent to which organisational environment, job satisfaction, and leadership styles, relate in the context of South African soldiers. The study's results showed that organisational climate significantly increased employee job satisfaction and commitment. However, the results of a multiple regression study showed that while workplace atmosphere did predict employee commitment, it failed to predict job satisfaction. Woko, Ukoha, and Alagah (2018) researched the connection between organisational climate and employee satisfaction in a sample of Nigerian manufacturing firms. The study's findings indicated that the manufacturing firms' organisational climates positively impacted job satisfaction.

Similarly, Okoli (2018) researched the connection between organisational climate and job satisfaction among faculty members at a few private universities in Southeast Nigeria. The study's findings demonstrated that organisational climate and employee satisfaction relationship was positive. Finally, Gaunya (2016) looked into how the climate of organisations affected job satisfaction in Kenya's Kisii County. The association between job satisfaction and organisational climate dimensions, such as feedback on performance, administrative style, and supervisor support, were significant and positive, according to the study's findings. In the Ghanaian context, Boateng, Kanyandewe, and Sassah (2014) investigated employees' perceptions of their working environment and how the different dimensions of organisational climate affect their job satisfaction in the manufacturing industry. The study results show that dimensions of organisational climates, such as identity, conflict management, and rewards, correlate with job satisfaction.

The above evidence indicates that organisational climate significantly impacts employee job satisfaction across different firm settings in different contexts. This gives the

impression that when organisations ensure that their organisational climate is conducive, it has the potential to enhance employee job satisfaction. Relating these findings to the current study, it can be argued that the organisational climate of YOMSB could positively impact the job satisfaction of employees. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H1: Organisational climate will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.3 Transformational leadership and organisational climate relationship

Numerous studies have looked at the connection between organisational climate and transformational leadership in the Asian context. For instance, Kim and Park (2020) looked at the connections between organisational climate, knowledge-sharing behaviour among employees, and transformational leadership in several South Korean companies. The findings showed that knowledge-sharing, organisational learning, and organisational climate are all directly impacted by transformational leadership. Additionally, knowledge-sharing behaviour was positively correlated with organisational climate. Last but not least, it was discovered that knowledge-sharing behaviour influences organisational learning and functions as a mediator between transformational leadership and organisational learning.

Along the same period, Hisyam, Sridana, and Waluyo (2019) looked into the connections between teacher performance in Indonesia and transformational leadership, compensation, and organisational climate. The findings revealed a positive link between transformational leadership and organisational culture, as well as student performance. With a multi-level study on transformational leadership and organisational climate in immigrant workers in Taiwan, Kao (2017) also aimed to investigate how work characteristics and change-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour interact. The study also established that self-efficacy positively impacted the individual's change-oriented organisational citizenship behaviour, even though the study's findings showed that knowledge-oriented traits affected self-efficacy and changed organisational

citizenship behaviour on an individual basis. The study also showed that transformational leadership and organisational climate of the national immigration agency, have a positive link. Similarly, Garcia (2017) investigated the nature of the relationship between the organisational climates of Philippine schools and teachers' transformational leadership traits in a separate study. According to the study, organisational climate at the school showed a positive correlation to transformational leadership.

Gaviria-Rivera and López-Zapata (2019) also sought to evaluate the kind of interaction among transformational leadership, organisational climate, and job satisfaction in work teams in Columbia's construction industry in the southern American contexts. The study's findings displayed that transformational leadership positively impacted work teams' organisational climate and levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, it was discovered that both the organisational climate and job satisfaction positively impacted teamwork performance. In a similar vein, Castillo-Saavedra, Medina-Reyes, Bernardo-Trujillo, Reyes-Alfaro, and Ayala-Jara (2019) examined the nature of the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles, and organisational climate in health establishment workers in a Peruvian micro-network. The study's findings showed that the organisational climate of the firms was positively correlated with both transformational and transactional leadership style.

Also investigated in the European context, with a focus on Romania, is the link between transformational leadership and organisational climate in Get (2018). The researcher examined the relationship between performance, organisational climate, organisational citizenship behaviour, and transformational leadership. The study also aimed to determine how much organisational citizenship behaviour mediates the link between transformational leadership and employee performance among Romanian workers. The study confirmed that transformational leadership has a positive relationship with organisational climate, organisational citizenship behaviour, and employees' performance, while also establishing the mediating role of organisational citizenship behaviour in leadership and performance relationships. Similarly, Ayik and Dis (2015)

examined the connection between organisational climate in Turkey's primary schools and a primary teacher's transformational leadership style. The study's findings show a mediocrely significant correlation between organisational climate and transformational leadership. The regression analysis's findings also showed that the following characteristics of transformational leadership—the idealised effect, being inspirational, and individualization—had a favourable effect on the organisational climate's supportive administrator behaviour.

Asare-Danso (2016) looked at how the International Organisation for Migration (IOM) staff in Ghana's Accra office perceived how transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and organisational climate interact. The study's findings showed that while laissez-faire leadership had a statistically insignificant relationship with organisational climate, both transformational and transactional leadership styles had significant positive relationships.

In relation to the literature that examined the transformational leadership and organisational climate relationship, it can be inferred that irrespective of the country and setting in which the studies were conducted, a significant relationship exists between transformational leadership style and organisational climate. This implies that the effective adoption and practice of transformational leadership styles by leaders and managers of organisations, can create a conducive organisational climate, which is critical for job satisfaction and firm performance. Linking these comments from the literature to the current subject of study, the research opines that in YOMSB, the organisational climate could be positively impacted by the transformational leadership style of the leaders and managers. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H2: Perceptions of transformational leadership style will have a significant positive effect on organisational climate YOMSBS in Ghana.

5.4 Transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction relationship

Scholars worldwide, including the Middle East, have paid attention to transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction relationship studies. For instance, Jan and Manzoor (2021) investigated the influence of principals' transformational leadership style on job satisfaction among teachers in Afghanistan's government primary schools. According to the study's findings, transformational leadership and work satisfaction demonstrated a strong positive correlation.

The firm's learning culture served as the moderating variable in Khan, Anjam, Abu Faiz, Khan, and Khan's (2020) assessment of the role of a transformational leader in fostering work satisfaction in banking sector employees in the United Arab Emirates. The findings showed that the overall transformational leadership style and the five dimensions of transformational leaders, significantly impact employees' job satisfaction. In contrast, the organisational learning culture's moderating impact on any of the relationships was found to be insignificant. In a separate study, Alghamdi, Topp, and Yami (2018) examined how four different nurse/manager gender dyads in Saudi Arabia perceived transformational leadership style and job satisfaction. The study's findings showed that a transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction demonstrated a positive link.

Purnomo, Eliyana, and Surya (2020) researched the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction and the role of supervisors in mediating trust among staff members of an Indonesian service organisation. The results show that transformative leadership significantly improves job satisfaction. Furthermore, the study's findings indicate that employees' trust in their superiors mediates transformative leadership and job satisfaction relationships. Accordingly, Luturlean, Prasetyo, and Saragih's (2019) study also examined the connection between transformational leadership, work stress, and job satisfaction in several Indonesian organisations. The study found that transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction relationships were positive. However, the association between transformative leadership and job stress was not very strong. Likewise, Malik, Javed, and Hassan (2017) evaluated the influence of

transformational leadership on employee engagement and job satisfaction in the Pakistani Islamic banking industry. The study's findings support the notion that transformational leadership aspects significantly impacted both employee commitment and job satisfaction, in the banking industry.

Thomas (2018) examined the connection between workers' opinions of their leaders' transformational leadership abilities and their level of job satisfaction in American government agencies. The study's findings showed a significant positive association between workers' opinions of their leader's transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The study further indicated that the most significant association was related to the intellectual stimulation aspect of transformative leadership. In a similar vein, Muterera, Hemsworth, Baregheh, and Garcia-Rivera (2018) examined the association between leader's and follower's views of a leader's transformational style and job satisfaction and organisational performance in state agencies in the United States of America. The study's findings showed that transformational leadership had a positive association with organisational performance and employee job satisfaction.

The same applies to for Abelha, Carneiro, and Cavazotte (2018), who assessed how organisational contextual elements and human characteristics affect transformational leadership and job satisfaction relationship in businesses based in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The study demonstrated a strong correlation between transformative leadership and work satisfaction. The study also showed that the gender of the followers moderated the transformational leadership and job satisfaction association. In a related study, Bayram and Dinç (2015) examined the influence of the transformational leadership style on workers' job satisfaction in private colleges in Bosnia and Herzegovina. The findings showed a transformative leadership and employee jobs show a positive link to the latter.

Puni, Mohammed, and Asamoah (2018) investigated the moderating effect of contingent incentives on interactions between the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, among employees of commercial banks within the Ghanaian setting.

According to the study's findings, transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction demonstrate a positive association. The study also showed that contingent incentive moderates the idealised influence and intellectual stimulation elements of transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The relationship between transformative leadership behaviour, job satisfaction, and staff engagement in certain hospitals was also examined by Banayem (2021). Based on the participants' overall responses, it was found that employees at the chosen hospitals believe this organisation had leaders with a strong transformative leadership style, and that this leadership style had a strong positive impact on employee job satisfaction at work.

From the literature review on transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction relationship, the researcher deduced that transformational leadership significantly impacts employee job satisfaction across different firm settings in different country contexts. It implies that when firms adopt and effectively engage in transformational leadership style across the entire organisation, there is a high tendency to improve or enhance employee job satisfaction. Relating the literature to the current study, the researcher also notes that there is a possibility that employee job satisfaction could be impacted positively by the adoption of a transformational leadership style in YOMSB. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H3: Perceptions of transformational leadership will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.5 Leader's emotional intelligence and organisational climate

Emotional intelligence, leadership style, and organisational climate among employees in Lebanon were examined by Maamari and Majdalani (2017). According to the study's findings, the leadership style used by a leader is influenced by their emotional intelligence. Once more, the study showed that organisational climate and transformative leadership were significantly, positively correlated. In public secondary schools in Buca, Fiji, Durdu, and Sahin (2018) evaluated how much teachers' emotional intelligence affected the

classroom climate. The study's findings showed that emotional intelligence and class climate dimensions had a positive and moderately strong link. Additionally, Mittal (2016) examined the emotional intelligence and the organisational climate relationship of Indian insurance companies. The study's findings showed that organisational climate was significantly and positively correlated with all of the emotional intelligence. Regression analysis' findings showed that organisational climate was positively impacted by emotional intelligence.

Similarly, Hamidianpour, Esmaeilpour, Alizadeh, and Dorgoee (2015) investigated how emotional intelligence in Iran influenced the climate in organisations and creative output. The study's findings suggested that emotional intelligence, organisational climate, and employee creativity are positively related. Similar research was conducted by Abdulkarim (2013), who looked at whether or not a leader's emotional intelligence was linked to the climate of a nonprofit organisations in the United States and the Palestinian territories. Contrary to earlier studies, the results of this one showed no relationship between organisational climate as experienced by members and a leader's emotional intelligence. Additionally, in two Romanian multinational corporations operating in the European setting, Tîntaru, Schmitz, and Moaşa (2021) investigated the relationship between employees' emotional intelligence and their perceptions of organisational climate. According to the study's findings, emotional intelligence positively impacts organisational climate.

Commenting on the literature on a leader's emotional intelligence and organisational climate relationship, the researcher concluded that the leader's emotional intelligence significantly impacts organisational climate in different countries and settings. The implication, therefore, is that when leaders become emotionally intelligent, it can lead to creating a conducive organisational climate, which is critical for job satisfaction and organisational performance. In relating literature to the current study, the research suggests that the emotional intelligence of leaders could affect or impact the organisational climate of YOMSB. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H4: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on organisational climate YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.6 Leader's emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction

Literature from across the globe, with the majority from Asia, has thoroughly examined the leader's emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction relationship. For instance, Lan and Trinh (2020) studied the connection between emotional intelligence (EI) and job satisfaction at a Vietnamese electronics company and found that all five of its components—self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, empathy, and social skills—had a positive impact on job satisfaction. Suleman, Syed, Mahmood, and Hussain (2020) looked at the connection between secondary school heads' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence in a Pakistan-based study. According to the results, job satisfaction and emotional intelligence were positively related. The sub dimensions of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were also positively related. Similar research was conducted by Shabarwal and Sharma (2019) on police officers from the Jammu division of India to determine the association between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction and gender differences in emotional intelligence. Results showed a substantial positive association between police officers' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Following the findings mentioned above, Kumar (2018) also discovered that emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among employees of HDFC banks in India had a significant positive association. In Malaysia and India, Joshi, Suman, and Sharma (2015) and Long, Yaacob, and Chuen (2016) found that emotional intelligence favours job satisfaction.

Downing (2016) examined how managers' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership styles relate to employee job satisfaction levels in both blue-collar and white-collar work environments in Texas, America. The study's results showed a statistically significant relationship between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and employees' job satisfaction in both blue-collar and white-collar environments, in addition to establishing a relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Similarly, Zamani, Abasi, Taheri, and Banikhedmat (2016) assessed the emotional

intelligence components (self-motivation, self-awareness, self-control, empathy, and social skills) and job satisfaction of Iranian university employees. The findings indicated a strong correlation between employees' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence.

Kassim, Bambale, and Jakada (2016) investigate the connection between lecturers' emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in universities in Kano State. The study's findings showed a significant positive association between emotion and the regulation of emotion and job satisfaction, but not between self-emotional evaluation and other emotion appraisals. Similarly, the association between emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and productivity of librarians in Nigerian public universities was explored by Opeke and Yaya (2016). The study's findings showed that the emotional intelligence and productivity relationship was upbeat, and so was the emotional intelligence and job satisfaction relationship.

Korankye and Amakyewaa (2021) also examined the effects of emotional and spiritual intelligence on job satisfaction, and employees' intentions to leave their positions in telecommunications companies in Ghana. The study's findings suggest that emotional intelligence positively impacts employees' intentions to leave their jobs and their level of job satisfaction. Tagoe and Quashie (2017) looked at nurses' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence relationship in the same Ghanaian context. The results revealed a strong positive association between nurses' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence.

Commenting on the literature in which the relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction is examined, a significant relationship between the two variables existed despite the differences in the country of study. This gives an implication that the development of leaders' emotional intelligence can contribute to the enhancement of employee job satisfaction. Therefore, in terms of the literature and above comments in relation to the current subject of study, the researcher opines that leaders' emotional intelligence could positively impact employee job satisfaction in YOMSB. Hence the study hypothesizes that:

H5: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.7 Leader's emotional intelligence and transformational leadership relationship

Peciuliauskiene (2021) evaluated emotional intelligence characteristics and transformational leadership relationships in Lithuanian gymnasium teachers. The results show that emotional intelligence and transformational leadership are positively related among Lithuanian gym teachers. Baba, Makhdoomi, and Siddiqi (2021) also studied emotional intelligence and transformational leadership relationships among higher education faculty members in Northern India, as well as the moderating role of demographic factors. According to the faculty members who participated in the survey, there is a significant and clear correlation between a leader's emotional intelligence and a transformational leadership style. According to the academic leaders of the faculty members, gender and age were shown to have a substantial impact on the variables under research (Heads of Departments).

Similarly, Shamshad and Naqi Khan (2020) used transformational leadership and self-efficacy as sequential mediators across Pakistani organisations to study the leader's emotional intelligence and employees' psychological well-being relationship. The findings demonstrated that the emotional intelligence of leaders has a significant influence on the leadership style (transformational leadership), and on how work characteristics are perceived throughout the process. This sparks a higher self-efficacy level in workers, enhancing their psychological well-being. The emotional intelligence and transformational leadership relationship among academic heads in public universities in Sri Lanka's eastern province were also examined by Rajee, Sareena, and Kengatharan (2020). The findings demonstrated that transformational leadership and emotional intelligence are positively related.

In a similar study, Görgens-Ekermans and Roux (2021) examined the connections between emotional intelligence abilities, transformational leadership behaviours, and

three outcomes of effective leadership in the financial services and higher education sectors of South Africa from an African viewpoint. According to the study's findings, three of the four elements of transformational leadership were influenced by distinct emotional intelligence components. Idealized influence as a transformative leadership behaviour substantially impacted how effective leadership was perceived to result in supervisor approval. Accordingly, Abdelmoniem and Osman (2020) evaluated the connection between middle management leaders' use of emotional intelligence and leadership philosophies, while working for two significant industrial enterprises in Khartoum state's private sector (Sudan). The findings revealed a positive link between emotional intelligence and middle management executives' transformational leadership philosophies. The association between emotional intelligence and the general transactional leadership style was positive and statistically significant. However, there was negligible correlation between emotional intelligence and the two subcomponents of the transactional leadership style.

Ugoani, Amu, and Kalu (2015) also investigated the emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style association in various industries in Abia State, Nigeria, using the Goleman Model. The study's conclusions showed a significant link between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. Malcolm and Isaac Boakye (2017) assessed emotional intelligence among Ghanaian nursing professionals as a forerunner to transformative leadership in the country's setting. The study's conclusions showed that emotional intelligence, which includes controlling emotions, using emotions, assessing others' emotions, and assessing oneself emotionally, significantly improves transformational leadership.

It could be inferred from the above literature that irrespective of the country and setting in which the studies were conducted, emotional intelligence and transformational leadership association are positive. This implies that improvement in leadership can potentially lead to the creation of an improvement in the transformational leadership style of managers of organisations. Relating these comments from the literature to the current subject of study,

the research opines that in YOMSB, emotional intelligence could positively impact the transformational leadership style of the leaders and managers. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H6: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will have a significant positive effect on transformational leadership style YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.8 The moderating role of emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

Organisational climate, as indicated earlier, has been found to positively affect employee job satisfaction. For instance, in Ahmad, Jasimuddin, and Kee (2018), it was established that organisational climate has a direct and statistically significant positive association with employee satisfaction. Similarly, Rinawati and Nasution (2021) looked into how factors, including organisational structure, norms, responsibilities, rewards, support, and commitment that define organisational climate, impact employee job satisfaction among Indonesian doctors in their workplace. This study found that organisational climate and employee satisfaction positively correlated. Gaunya (2016) also looked into how the climate of organisations affected job satisfaction in Kenya's Kisii County. The association between job satisfaction and organisational climate dimensions, such as feedback on performance, administrative style, and supervisor support, were significant and positive, according to the study's findings. Finally, in the Ghanaian context, Boateng, Kanyandewe, and Sassah (2014) investigated employees' perceptions of their working environment, and how the different dimensions of organisational climate affect their job satisfaction in the manufacturing industry. The study's findings showed a positive relation between the variables. This implies that organisational climate is an effective predictor of employee job satisfaction.

The perceived level of a leader's emotional intelligence in an organisation also impacts employee job satisfaction levels. In line with the latter, Lan and Trinh (2020) established that improved emotional intelligence results in a corresponding increase in employee job

satisfaction. Likewise, Suleman et al. (2020) found that job satisfaction and emotional intelligence are positively related. Similar research by Shabarwal and Sharma (2019) showed a significant positive association between police officers' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. Following the findings mentioned above, Korankye and Amakyewaa (2021) examined the effects of emotional and spiritual intelligence on job satisfaction and employees' intentions to leave their positions in telecommunications companies in Ghana. The study's findings suggest that emotional intelligence positively impacts employees' intentions to leave their jobs and their level of job satisfaction. Finally, Tagoe and Quashie (2017) looked at nurses' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence relationship in the same Ghanaian context. The results revealed a strong positive association between nurses' job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. This means that employee job satisfaction in an organisation is influenced by the extent to which leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence.

Drawing from the personal or intra-perspective aspect of the Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, an emotionally intelligent leader demonstrates self-management, which enables them to find a way to control these emotions and direct them toward good use. It also means that such leaders can take principled stands even if unpopular, admit or accept their own mistakes, and confront unethical behaviours in others (Omoregbee, Morrison, & Morrison, 2016). Furthermore, from the perspective of Goleman's model, emotional intelligence leaders demonstrate flexibility to change to changing events and overcome barriers. This means the ability to effectively handle multiple demands, shifting priorities, rapid change, and adapting responses and tactics, to fit fluid circumstances. Thus, as a result of the effective management of their emotions, emotionally intelligent leader creates a healthy and supportive working environment for employees, enhancing employee satisfaction.

Drawing from the interpersonal dimension of Goleman's model, it can be argued that emotionally intelligent leaders can anticipate better, and understand their employees' wants and needs to provide better products and services that satisfy these needs. They

also manage conflicts and foster collaboration in sharing ideas, information, knowledge, experience, and resources with others to enhance collective performance and job satisfaction (Goleman, 2001). In support of this Lan and Trinh (2020), Suleman et al. (2020), and Shabarwal and Sharma (2019) all established that a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction exists. Thus, although extant literature has established that organisational climate positively impacts employee job satisfaction, this relationship could be moderated by the perceived level of a leader's emotional intelligence. This means that when leaders display high levels of emotional intelligence, it creates a good and very supportive working environment that would meet the needs of employees and drive-up employee job satisfaction.

Conversely, displaying emotional intelligence among the poor can lead to a toxic working environment, which can lower employee job satisfaction. Thus, this study argues that the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction could be moderated (strengthened or dampened) by the perceived level of a leader's emotional intelligence in the YOMSB in Ghana. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H7: Perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence will significantly moderate the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.9 The moderating role of transformational leadership in the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

As already indicated above, extant literature establishes a positive correlation between organisational climate and job satisfaction. Ahmad, Jasimuddin, and Kee (2018) found that organisational climate positively affects employee satisfaction. Rinawati and Nasution (2021) studied how organisational structure, norms, duties, rewards, organisational support, and dedication affect employee job satisfaction among Indonesian doctors. This study established a correlation between organisational atmosphere and employee satisfaction. Similarly, Gaunya (2016) studied the effect of organisational climate on employee satisfaction in Kisii County, Kenya. According to the

study, comments on performance, administrative style, and supervisor support were positively associated with job satisfaction. Boateng, Kanyandewe, and Sassah (2014) studied Ghanaian industrial workers and confirmed a positive correlation between organisational climate and job satisfaction. It can be argued that organisational climate is a predictor of job satisfaction.

Taking into account the leader-member exchange theory, which postulates that the nature and quality of leader-follower relationships significantly affect the attitudes and behaviours of the leader and subordinate (Northouse, 2019), it can be argued that leadership style and, for that matter, transformational leadership can impact positively on employee job satisfaction. This is because the transformational leadership style can inspire and communicate organisational vision and can drive employees along to achieve the organisation's vision. This is instrumental role in creating intrinsic motivation, which is vital for achieving organisational goals. Additionally, the transformational leadership style could connect staff members, determine their strengths and shortcomings, and offer them the necessary support to foster employee performance and personal development, which invariably contributes to job satisfaction. Similarly, Jan and Manzoor (2021), Khan et al. (2020), and Alghamdi, Topp, and Yami (2018) established that transformational leadership is a predictor of employee job satisfaction.

Thus, although extant literature has established that organisational climate positively impacts employee job satisfaction, this relationship could be moderated by the transformational leadership style displayed by leaders of the organisation. This means that when leaders practice transformational leadership, it creates a good and very supportive working environment that would meet the needs of employees and drive employee job satisfaction. Thus, this study promotes the argument that the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction could be moderated (strengthened or dampened) by a leader's transformational leadership style in the YOMSB in Ghana. Hence, the study hypothesizes that:

H8: Perceptions of transformational leadership will significantly moderate the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction YOMSBs in Ghana.

5.10 Theoretical Framework of the Study

5.10.1 Affective event theory (AET)

Affective event theory (AET) was developed in the mid-1990s by organizational psychologists Howard Weiss and Russell Cropanzano as an alternative model to explain the emotional experiences of employees at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Up until this point, attitudes and behaviors were primarily explained through cognitive evaluation models. Challenging the focus on cognition, Weiss and Cropanzano published their seminal 1996 paper formally outlining affective event theory in the *Journal of Management* (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Their model asserts that discrete workplace events provoke temporary emotional reactions and mood changes that ultimately shape employees' job satisfaction, commitment, motivation and performance (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). This process unfolds through affective reactions to specific incidents (Grandey et al., 2022). In the over 25 years since its publication, AET has been applied in thousands of empirical studies and has become a dominant theory applied in organizational psychology (Liu & Li, 2018). AET has three central tenets which define it

The first tenet of the AET emphasizes that emotions, moods and feelings play a pivotal causal role in influencing workplace behaviors and attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Christensen, Wilson, & Hansen, 2023). This challenges prevailing cognitive-dominant models that position emotions as biasing agents or outcomes of deliberative judgment calls (Khan, Shahzad, & Bartels, 2022). Instead, AET contends multifaceted affective states often directly inform decision making and performance as employees naturally react to environmental stimuli and interpersonal dynamics (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2008). Events spur involuntary affect before cognition. For example, a supervisor publicly embarrassing an employee may rapidly prompt anger, resentment or humiliation. These acute negative feeling states then precipitate coping responses like diminished motivation, creativity or affiliation. Similarly, repeated praise can foster positive moods

enhancing effort and cooperation (Iqbal, Shahzad, & Chaudhary, 2023). So discrete affective reactions and accumulated mood patterns shaped by the organizational environment function to alter personal behaviors, satisfaction, commitment and psychological health rather than just coloring post-hoc evaluations. Leaders and context actively trigger emotions. Affective events theory thus elevates emotions as integral determinants of productivity and wellness through their prompting of cognitive and behavioral consequences including self-regulation (Glasø & Einarsen, 2006), rather than just outputs.

Another tenet central to affective event theory is discrete emotional workplace events – that is, AET spotlights how specific occurrences at work prompt temporary affective reactions and feeling states among employees (Weiss & Beal, 2005). Events range from arguments with colleagues to disappointing annual reviews to daily hassles like technology failures. These discrete emotional episodes shape immediate behavioral reactions; for instance, a conflict sparks anger leading employees to then provide poorer subsequent customer service due to diminished self-regulation after the emotional activation (Dasborough, 2006; Nadim & Zafar, 2021). Constructive events like praise elicit positive emotional resources enhancing willingness to assist team members whereas destructive episodes like uncivil treatment tap reserves diminishing cooperation. Importantly, over time emotional events accrue value (Boulter & Boddy, 2021). As affective events reoccur, compounding mood states emerge. Consistently negative or positive feeling flows ultimately determine broader attitudinal outcomes including job satisfaction, innovation orientation, commitment and performance (Christensen et al., 2023). Therefore at both ephemeral and enduring levels, specific emotional incidents triggered by leader and coworker behaviors exhibit motivational and attitudinal consequences driving productivity and retention through experiential reactions to the organizational environment.

Another core premise of affective event theory is that judgment-driven affect often holds primacy over conscious cognitive appraisals in response to workplace events (Weiss &

Cropanzano, 1996). That is, employees exhibit rapid core affective reactions to salient stimuli, temporarily experiencing feelings like anxiety, joy or anger, before then engaging in more judgement-based information processing to deliberate reasons behind the event and assess its implications (Glasø & Einarsen, 2006). For instance, an abusive verbal attack from a customer may automatically generate anger or fear initially, with cognitive attributions about motives coming online later to make sense of the interaction. This helps explain why emotions seem primal and prompt over seemingly more rational cognitions (Iqbal et al., 2023) – there exists an evolutionary need to quickly mobilize responses to pressing environmental cues (Barsade & Gibson, 2007), with employees first exhibiting reflex-like affectivity before contextually interpreting the stimuli through slower cognitive sensemaking. By establishing that discrete affects often precede judgment, affective event theory emphasizes core feeling states as the proximal factor then shaping resultant behaviors, judgments about satisfaction or commitment, and eventually, decisions over time through accrued feelings.

A further core emphasis within affective event theory lies in explicating the causal process linking affective workplace events to employees' experiential affective reactions and subsequent impact on attitudes and behaviors over time (Boulter & Boddy, 2021). That is, AET focuses not just on discrete episodes but the cumulative consequences as recurrent events strengthen mood patterns. For example, frequent unpleasant interactions with an abusive supervisor may repeatedly prompt negative transient reactions like anxiety or anger among employees (Nadim & Zafar, 2021). As these stressful emotional incidents compound, they cement negative feeling flows diminishing psychological safety (Iqbal et al., 2023). In turn, aggregated fear or distrust undermine broader work attitudes – diminished satisfaction, faltering commitment and silent withdrawal (Liu & Perrewé, 2005). Alternatively, leaders who regularly display empathy and maintain open communication create a landscape where employees feel comfortable seeking feedback. Repeated positive moods cemented through such recurring events foster engagement and participation by fulfilling needs. Therefore, at both granular situational and broader climate levels, AET concentrates on mapping how emotional

experiences triggered by work events ultimately shape personal behaviors and motivational orientations through accumulated reactions to environmental stimuli over time.

5.10.2 Criticism of Affective event theory (AET)

While enormously impactful in accentuating affective experiences as drivers of workplace behaviors and attitudes, scholarly discourse has raised several conceptual concerns regarding core assumptions embedded within affective event theory. First, debate continues whether affect truly precedes cognitive appraisal versus just a methodological issue of which gets measured first by researchers (Grandey, 2009). Questions additionally center on if AET overemphasizes negative vs positive emotions, with some evidence that constructive events also bearing strong consequences (Dasborough, Ashkanasy, Tee, & Tse 2009). Furthermore, individual differences as moderators of event-emotion relationships require expanded incorporation to understand variation in responses – factors like personality and regulation capacity (Glasø & Einarsen, 2006; Beal & Gabriel, 2010). Conceptually, AET frameworks also frequently treat affect as a singular construct rather than examining discrete emotions' distinct impacts. For example, anxiety vs anger may fuel differing behavioral reactions worth differentiating (Lee & Allen, 2002). Finally, scholarly discourse suggests theoretically situating emotional triggering processes within team and social-interactive contexts rather than residing solely inside individuals' response processes (Cole, Walter, & Bruch, 2008). In summary, while foundational, criticism levied against affective event theory coalesces around adequately addressing appraisal dynamics, broadening the scope of moderating individual and contextual factors, and capturing the complexity and social construction behind discrete emotional experiences in the workplace. Refinements addressing these concerns can bolster predictive application.

5.10.2 Justification for the use of Affective event theory

Affective event theory provides a highly relevant framework for understanding how the perceptions of leader's emotionally intelligent, transformational leaders and positive

organizational climates interact to promote job satisfaction. At the core of AET is the notion that leadership behaviors represent critical organizational events that trigger emotional reactions in employees (Christensen et al., 2023). Transformational leaders who display empathy, provide inspiration, and offer individualized consideration are likely to repeatedly elicit positive emotional experiences among employees through supportive, inclusive leadership practices (Jan & Manzoor, 2021). These recurring events foster feelings of pride, enthusiasm, and optimism.

Similarly, emotionally intelligent leaders adeptly perceive, understand and regulate their own and employees' emotions during exchanges (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017). By attending to followers' affective cues with empathy, they mitigate negative reactions stemming from workplace events through considerate support, validation, and uplifting communication (Li et al., 2021). As these emotionally uplifting leader-employee interactions repeat amid a supportive context, positive moods accumulate and override occasional stresses (Dasgupta et al., 2014). Employees internalize leaders' belief in their worth. Motivation strengthens through pride in contributions. Ultimately, recurring encouragement within positive climates transforms employees' affective experiences into enduring job satisfaction and engagement as positive emotions outweigh negative reactions over months and years under great leaders (Miao et al., 2022).

5.11 Conceptual framework

The study comprises four main variables: organisational climate, emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and job satisfaction. Organisational climate is an independent variable measured by 17 indicators (Autonomy, Integration, Reflexivity, Clarity of Organisational Goals, Efficiency, Effort, Performance Feedback, Pressure to Produce, Quality, Involvement, Supervisory Support, Training, Welfare, Formalization, Tradition, Innovation & Flexibility and Outward Focus).

Job satisfaction is the dependent variable and is measured by 9 indicators (Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe benefits, Contingent rewards, Operating procedure, Co-

workers, Nature of work, and Communication). Emotional intelligence is an interactive variable in this and is measured by four indicators (Social Awareness, Self-awareness, Self-management, and Relationship management). Transformational leadership is used as an interactive variable in this study and is measured by Idealised influence, Inspirational motivation, Intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration.

Based on the theoretical framework and existing empirical evidence, the following conceptual framework in Figure 5.1 was developed for the study. In the study it is proposed that organisational climate and job satisfaction will have a positive association. Furthermore, it is proposed that organisational climate will have a significant positive relationship with transformational leadership. Based on research, in this study it is proposed that a significant positive association will exist between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Additionally, while this study suggests a significant positive relationship between organisational climate and a leader's emotional intelligence, it is also proposed that the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence and employee job satisfaction will be positive. In this study, it is further suggested that there will be interactive effect of organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction, among YOMSB in Ghana.

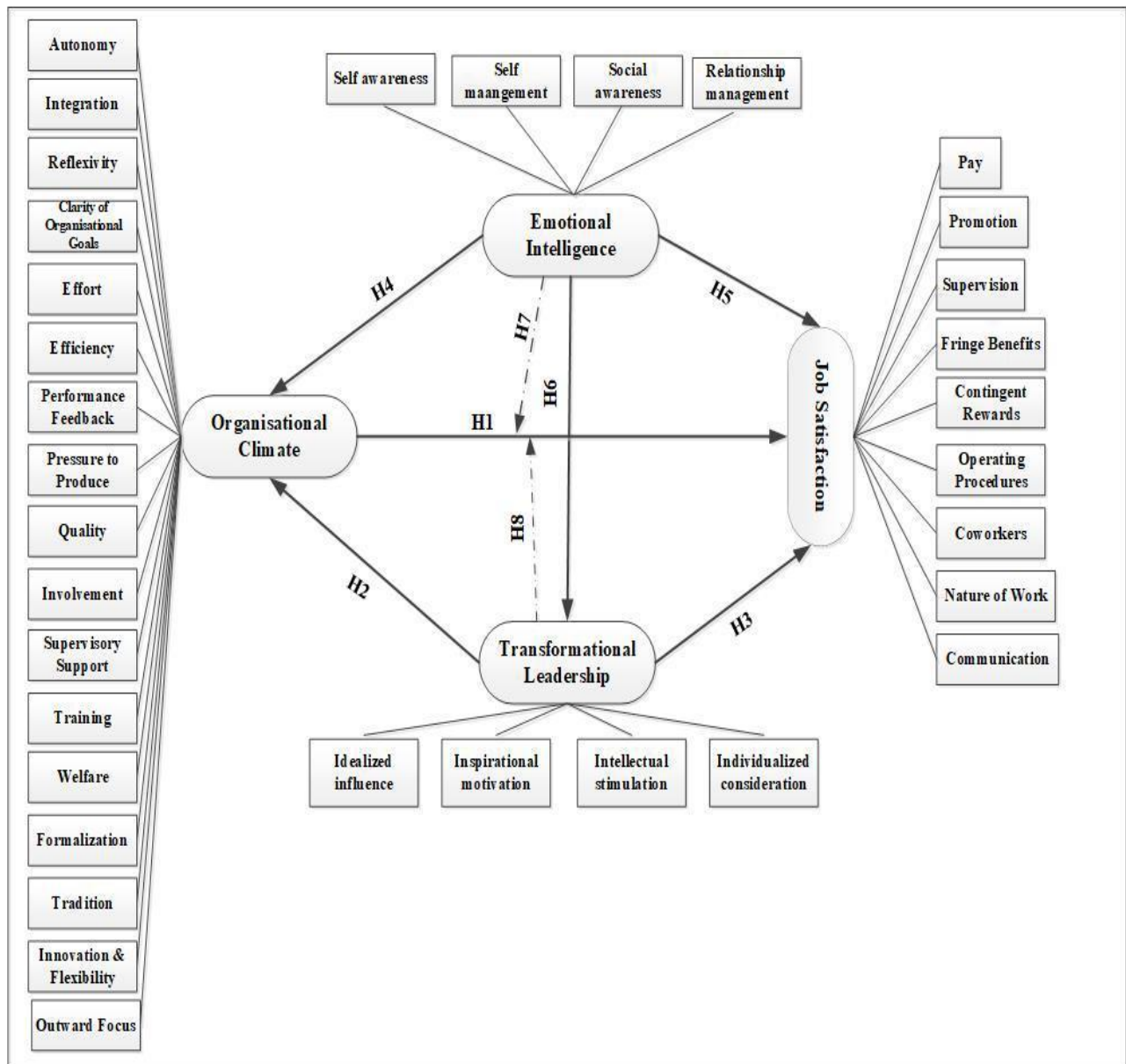


Figure 5. 1: The Conceptual Framework Guiding the Study

Source: Author's Construct (2023)

5.12 Chapter summary

The chapter reviewed the literature on the relationships among organisational climate, transformational leadership, and leaders' emotional intelligence on job satisfaction, empirically. The results of the literature review revealed that the relationships had been

examined extensively in literature in different industries such as the manufacturing and educational industries, as well as the health and public sector. The context of these studies have been mainly limited Asia, South America, and some developed countries such as America, Spain and Lithuania, with little consideration to Africa, and more importantly, Ghana. More importantly, none of these studies looked at the relationships in the context of YOMSB, which is a significant gap presented in this study. The theoretical framework underpinning the study - affective event theory - is also outlined emphasizing how transformational leadership, organisational climate and leader's emotional intelligence interactions cultivate recurring positive emotions that ultimately shape job satisfaction .

The literature review indicates that the organisational climate has a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction. Similarly, a positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, and transformational leadership and job satisfaction also display a significant positive relationship. Both transformational leadership and emotional intelligence have a positive relationship with organisational climate. Lastly, organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence have a significant, positive interactive effect on job satisfaction. Although the results of the literature review revealed that the relationship had been examined extensively in literature in different industries, such as the manufacturing, educational, health sector, and public sector, the context of these studies has primarily been limited to Asia, South America, and some developed countries such as America, Spain and Lithuania, with little consideration to Africa, as stated earlier, and more specifically Ghana. More importantly, none of these studies examined the relationships in the context of the YOMSB, which serves as a significant gap in this study.

CHAPTER 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

The preceding chapter revealed the relationship among organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence for employee job satisfaction. A discussion of the literature revealed that organisational climate could positively impact job satisfaction and that the interactive variables (organisational climate and transformation leadership) could moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

This chapter presents the methodological approaches that were used in conducting the study. The researcher begins with a discussion on pragmatism research paradigm and its justification. The chapter further provides justification for the research design, mixed research approach, the target population, sample size, data collection process and analysis used in this study. The ethical considerations pertaining to the data collection process and the subsequent data analysis techniques are also explained. The chapter concludes with a summary.

6.2 Research paradigm: pragmatic research paradigm and justification

The pragmatic research paradigm was selected as the most applicable for this investigation. Shannon-Baker (2016) argues that a pragmatic paradigm allows researchers to deliver the best response to the research topic at hand by drawing on several different techniques, and developing a methodology that takes into account and balances the benefits and drawbacks of each. The pragmatism paradigm combines using more than one paradigm to study a research problem. The pragmatic paradigm combines both the interpretivism and positivism in (Shannon-Baker, 2016). The justification for the pragmatic research paradigm in this study is based on the fact that it takes a balance between subjectivity and objectivity (interpretivism and positivism) inquiry to reveal 'truth' about the world and that social reality in single study (Kivunja &Kuyini, 2017). For this

study, the use of the positivist paradigm was relevant because there is an assumption that a good organisational climate, transformational leadership, and leaders' emotional intelligence would create a very supportive working environment that improves the level of job satisfaction of employees and provide positive job output in YOMSB in Ghana. This is an observable reality. Therefore, based on this paradigm, the researcher sought to test the hypothesis that originated from the theory, in which the researcher was independent of the phenomenon being studied, and therefore administered questionnaires to employees of YOMSB and without influencing their opinions on the subject of study.

The interpretivist paradigm became relevant because the researcher observed that the results of the quantitative data needed further exploratory investigation from the subjective perspective and interpretations from YOMSB in Ghana after transformational leadership negatively moderated the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The subjective approach ensured that knowledge was constructed socially based on personal experiences of employees and managers of the YOMSB. Therefore, using the pragmatic paradigm was appropriate because neither of the individual paradigms, positivism or interpretivism, could substantively enable the researcher to achieve all the study objectives. The pragmatic paradigm also permits the weaknesses of each paradigm (positivism and interpretivism) to be mitigated while the strengths are expanded upon, leading to more robust and reliable inferences (Bryman, 2006).

6.3 Research design: explanatory and exploratory design and its justification

The research design adopted for this study were explanatory and exploratory designs. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2017) asserts that the explanatory research design is chosen to explore causal relationships between variables and is well-suited for hypothesis testing. By opting for an explanatory research methodology, the researcher was able to establish direct relationships existing among organisational climate, transformational leadership style, leader emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction. The choice of an explanatory research design was also justified due to the study's focus on examining the hypothesis of the moderating effect of transformational leadership and emotional

intelligence on the relationship between of organisational climate and job satisfaction within the context of YOMSB in Ghana.

The study also adopted the exploratory research design as Singh (2015) argues that it provides the framework for the researchers to explore and gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena under study. The adoption of the exploratory research design enabled the researcher to gain a detailed understanding from the lived experiences of the employees and managers of the YOMSB on why leader's emotional intelligence failed to moderate on the organisational climate and job satisfaction relationship. Additionally, the exploratory research design provided insights into why the moderating effect of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence was negative among YOMSB.

6.4 Research approach: sequential explanatory mixed method approach and its justification

The study adopted the sequential explanatory mixed method approach. The sequential explanatory mixed method is a research approach that integrates quantitative and qualitative methods in a sequential manner, aiming to offer a comprehensive comprehension of the phenomenon of study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). It was also appropriate to use a sequential explanatory mixed research approach, because this enabled the researcher to first deploy statistical methods to examine both direct and indirect relationships among the organisational climate, transformational leadership, leader's emotional intelligence and job satisfaction within the context of YOMSB in Ghana using quantitative research approach in first phase. Additionally, this ensured the findings of the studies could be generalised to YOMSB in Ghana.

The sequential explanatory mixed method enabled researcher to employ qualitative as a follow up to the use of the quantitative approach to explore the richness and complexity of the experiences, attitudes, and perspectives of employees of the YOMSB in Ghana in relation to the findings quantitative phase of the study. This therefore aided the researcher to gain detailed understanding from employees and managers of the YOMSBs

in Ghana on why leader's emotional intelligence failed to act as a moderating variable in the study. It also provided insight into why transformational leadership negatively moderated the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction in the first quantitative phase of the sequential explanatory mixed method. Since the quantitative phase informed the qualitative phase, and the qualitative phase provided more explanations for the quantitative results, the sequential explanatory mixed approach was justified for this study.

6.5 Target population and sampling

The population of interest, sample size, and methodology for participant selection are described in this section.

6.5.1 Target population

This study's population comprised of all employees in the YOMSB in the Greater Accra Region. The Greater Accra region was the population location because it is the commercial city and the national capital of Ghana, where most firms have their headquarters (Abor, Adjasi & Hayford, 2008). The estimated population as at the time of the study was 4800 YOMSB (National Board for Small Scale Industries, NBSSI, 2017)

6.6.2 Sample and sampling frame

The sampling frame consisted of both manufacturing and service enterprises managed and owned by youth aged between fifteen (15) and thirty-five (35) years (Ghana National Youth Policy, 2010) with staff complement of five (5) to ninety-nine (99) and operational for not less than three (3) years.

6.6.3 Sample size

Establishing adequate statistical power is crucial in quantitative sample size selection (Faber & Fonseca, 2014). For survey scales and multivariate modeling, sample sizes exceeding 200 or at least 5-10 times the number of predictors often yield sufficient power

for social science research (Wolf et al., 2013). However, for smaller populations below 1000, a sample representing 10-30% can enable accurate inferences and model testing (Bartlett et al., 2001). The key principle is ensuring the sample supports detecting meaningful effects based on the research design and hypotheses when interpreting results for generalizability (McCrum-Gardner, 2010). Due to time and financial limitations, the researcher decided to limit the study to fifteen (15) manufacturing and fifteen (15) service YOMSB in the Greater Accra region of Ghana. A total of 25 employees were selected from each organisation, resulting in a sample size of 750. This was because all the YOMSB involved in the study had more than 25 employees. Therefore, the number of questionnaires distributed was 750; the response rate is provided in Chapter 7.

For the qualitative aspect of the study, the researcher sampled twenty (20) participants comprising of ten (10) managers and ten (10) employees of YOMSB in the Greater Accra region of Ghana to provide their opinions to address or explain the results from the quantitative part of the study. The use of both managers and employees was to ensure the different perspective of participants were assessed as the combination of insights from both groups could enrich the research findings and enhance the applicability and effectiveness of recommendations (Lundin, Silén, Strömberg, Engström, & Skytt, 2022) According to Creswell (2003), in conducting a qualitative study, the use of a minimum of ten (10) to thirty (30) as a sample size is adequate. On one hand, Singh (2015) claimed that the sample size for a qualitative study should not be too small nor too large, but enough to achieve saturation on the phenomenon of the study. Therefore, a sample size of twenty (20) was considered to be enough to achieve saturation point on the subject matter.

6.6.4 Sampling technique and procedure

There were two sampling techniques used in this study and these are simple random sampling and purposive sampling. In the quantitative part of the study, the research adopted a simple random sampling technique under the probability sampling method due to the following reasons: a large sample of size of 750 employees of YOMSB in Ghana

and the possible generalisability of the findings to YOMSB within Ghana. In order to execute the simple random sampling methodology, numerical identifiers were allocated to the email addresses of the 4800 individuals employed by employees YOMSB. The random number generator function of version 26 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was employed to generate a set of random numbers corresponding to 750 participant emails from a population consisting of 4800 individuals.

Concerning the qualitative aspect of the study, the purposive sampling technique was used in selecting the participants. According to Singh, (2015) in purposive sampling technique, the researcher selects respondents based on the fact that they possess qualities that meet the criteria the researcher is looking for in his or her eligible participants for a particular study (Singh, 2015). Using this technique, the researcher targeted on participants with at least three years of work experience in YOMSB and who have had in-depth understanding and experiences in YOMSB in the relation to the organisational climate, perceived level of the transformational leadership, leader's emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. In other to ensure the participant exhibit a broad range of variation with different perspective and experience, both managers and employee were involved.

6.7 Data collection

This section presents the data collection instruments as well as validity and reliability assurance for data collection instruments.

6.7.1 Data collection instruments

6.7.1.1 Questionnaire

The researcher used validated structured closed-ended questionnaires to collect quantitative data for the quantitative part of the study. It has been argued by authors such as Chipunza (2009) and Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2017) that the quality of data gathered through research questionnaires is directly proportional to the degree to which

respondents are interested in and motivated by the questions being asked. The language used in the questionnaire was English, as it is the formal language used in Ghana.

Job satisfaction served as the dependent variable, while organisational climate was the independent variable expressed in the survey items. Two interactive variables included transformational leadership and a leader's emotional intelligence. The questionnaire captured the candid opinions of employees on the above variables under the six sections. The first part of the questionnaire, referred to as section A captured the biographical data of the respondents. Section B of the questionnaire collected data on the business, including the type, number of employees, and industry to which it belonged, while Section C required information on the leader's Emotional Intelligence of the YOMSB, Section D investigated transformation leadership, and Sections E and F assessed Job satisfaction and the Organisational Climates in the YOMSB. All the items in sections B to F were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree nor disagree, 4= agree, and 5=strongly agree. Respondents asked to express their candid opinions by choosing from 1=strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. Table 6.1 reflects the items that were included in the questionnaire for the study.

Table 6.1: Items included in the questionnaire

Sections	Variables examined.
Section A	Biographical information: gender, age, level of education and nationality
Section B	Business information: type of business, number of employees beside owner, age of business and type of industry
Section C	Measured employee's perception of leader's emotional intelligence in youth-owned and managed business
Section D	Measured employee's perception of leader's transformational leadership style in youth – owned and managed business
Section E	Measured employees' perceptions of job satisfaction in youth-owned and managed business
Section F	Sought employees' opinions with regard the organisational climate in youth-owned and managed business

As indicated in section 2.6, the study adopted the Job satisfaction survey scale by Spector (1985) to measure job satisfaction in YOMSB which comprised a total of 36 items measuring nine aspects of job satisfaction and overall satisfaction, such as (1) salary, (2) promotion, (3) supervision, (4) fringe benefits, (5) contingent rewards, (6) operating procedures, (7) co-workers, (8) nature of work and (9) communication. Similarly, transformational leadership was measured using Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) by Bass and Avolio (2004), in which four dimensions of transformational leadership idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration were assessed (see section 3.6). In measuring emotional intelligence, the study adopted Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee's (2000) Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) which measures 18 competencies organized into four clusters: Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Relationship Management. The organisational climate of YOMSB was measured using the Organisation Climate Measure (OCM) developed by Patterson et al. (2005) based on the four quadrants of climate via 82 questions that comprise the 17 subscales (see section 4.7). The questionnaires were pre-tested using 50 responses to assess the reliability using their Cronbach's alpha values as the benchmark. The reliability statistics of the questionnaires are presented in the table below:

Table 6.2: Reliability statistics for variables on questionnaire

Variables	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Emotional Intelligence	18	0.951
Transformational Leadership	18	0.940
Organisational Climate	82	0.865
Job Satisfaction	36	0.801

According to Sekaran (2006), for items that measure a variable in questionnaire to be regarded as statistically reliable, they must have a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.6 and above. Based on the reliability statistics in Table 6.2, it could be inferred that the lowest Cronbach's alpha value was 0.801, while the highest Cronbach's alpha value was 0.951. This implies that the items used in measuring the variables were statistically reliable.

6.7.1.2 Interview

Interviews were the primary method used for collecting data in this study's qualitative section. This was due to the fact that qualitative research interviews are "attempts to grasp the world from the participants' point of view, to unfold the significance of people's experiences, to uncover their lived reality prior to scientific explanations" (DeJonckheere, & Vaughn 2019, p 1). McGrath, Palmgren, and Liljedahl (2019) suggest that an in-depth interview is an important method because it allows the researcher to ask the interviewee questions to gain personal knowledge about a topic or experience, which may help explain the surprising quantitative results. Therefore, this study employed this method to delve deeply into issues that were specific to the interviewees' experiences, providing insights into the interviewees' perceptions of the organisation's climate, the strength of the leader's transformational leadership styles, and the relationship between these factors and their level of job satisfaction. The researcher self-designed the interview guide used for data collection and took it to his supervisor for further deliberations and corrections. Their inputs and opinions were also included in the final interview guide before it was sent to the supervisor again for final approval. No omissions were made to the interview guide after the supervisor gave his final approval. Table 6.3 presents summarized results from quantitative and the sample interview questions used to further explore reasons behind the quantitative results:

Table 6.3: Sample interview questions based on quantitative results

Research results from quantitative	Sample Interview questions
Leader's emotional intelligence did not moderate organisational climate and job satisfaction	1. To what extent does your organization pay attention to leaders' emotional intelligence 2. In what ways does leader's emotional intelligence contribute to the organisational climate of your firm? 3. In what ways does leader's emotional intelligence contribute to the satisfaction of employees in your firm?

	4. As a manager, do you think leader's emotional intelligence is enough to enhance organisational climate and job satisfaction of employees? 5. Give reasons for your answer in question 4?
Transformational leadership negatively moderated between organisational climate and job satisfaction	1. What is your overall perception about transformational leadership in your firm? 2. In your opinion, does transformational leadership contribute to positive organisational climate in any way? 3. In your opinion, does transformational leadership contribute to employee job satisfaction in any way? 4. Is your organization challenged in using transformational leadership to enhance positive organisational climate and job satisfaction? 5. If yes, how have these transformational leadership challenges negatively affected organisational climate and job satisfaction?

6.7.2 Ensuring credibility of the questionnaire

The quality of the research findings is highly dependent on the research's credibility. The credibility of this study's research was ensured through using two methods: validity and reliability. Credibility, as defined by De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, and Delport (2007), is the extent to which one can have faith in one's conclusions and, hence, one's methodology. Furthermore, credibility is "the key to providing readers with adequate evidence so that they trust the recounted events and accept the interpretations as believable," as stated by Neuman (2000) and cited by De Vos et al. (2007:353).

According to Singh (2015), validity is the extent to which a measurement tool provides reliable data on the constructs it was designed to assess. Robson (2011) also referred to validity as the extent to which a measuring device produces reliable data when used for its intended purpose. The questionnaire used to conduct the research must provide

reliable and valid measures of the ideas at hand (Pallant, 2011). The research instruments used in this study were deemed valid. Content validity, construct validity, and criterion-related validity are the three primary forms of validity assessment, as outlined by Pallant (2011). The type of validity that needs to be examined is construct validity because, as was previously indicated, the study will use validated instruments.

6.7.2.1 Construct validity

Dzansi (2006) defines construct validity as the degree to which a test measures an expected hypothetical construct. The author of the study notes that it demonstrates how well the test's results align with its underlying hypotheses. Cooper and Schindler (2011) imply that this type of validity requires taking into account both the theory and the measuring instrument employed, to test for any novel effect of any concept. The literature review explains the ideas used to test the model (organisational climate, transformational leadership, emotional intelligence, and work satisfaction among YOMSB). There is a good match between the theory and the sections of the questionnaire that deal with the variables and components of the study. Below is a discussion of how convergent and discriminant validity are used to assess construct validity.

6.7.2.2 Convergent validity

It is the degree to which one measure's scores are highly, moderately, or poorly correlated with those obtained from another measure designed to assess the same construct (Singh, 2015). If the instrument is legitimate, the measurement should correlate with other variables; hence this concept of convergent validity checks for the latter. It applies when there is a strong relationship between the results of two tests assessing the same notion. It is intended that items sharing a common construct have factor loadings of 0.60 or higher on a single factor in order to establish sufficient convergent validity of the instrument (called same-factor loadings) (Hair et al. 2011, 2014). In this study, the average variance extracted (AVE) and its value was used a measure of the convergent validity using PLS-

SEM. In this study the average variance extracted (AVE), and its value of 0.50 or greater was used to determine convergent validity of the reflection measurement model using PLS-SEM which is consistent with Hair et al. (2011, 2014). Results of convergent validity are presented in the next chapter.

6.7.2.3 Discriminant validity

The degree to which one construct's measures differ from another is called discriminant validity (Singh 2015). Bove et al. (2009, p. 702) stated that "discriminant validity is examined by comparing the shared variance (squared correlation) between each pair of constructs against the average of the AVEs for these two constructs". For two constructs to have discriminant validity, their average variance extracted estimates must be bigger than the common variance estimate. Cross-loadings, the Fornell-Lacker criterion, and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations (HTMT) were used to determine discriminant validity in this study (Henseler et al., 2015). The assessment of the indicator variable cross-loadings will involve two steps to establish discriminant validity per Chin (1998). First, each indicator will be examined to verify all load significantly over the 0.70 threshold onto their hypothesized affiliated construct. Meeting this cutoff demonstrates that a majority of the variance is shared between scale items and the latent factor they purport to measure. Secondly, to confirm items discriminate between the constructs, differential loadings will also be calculated. Each indicator's correlation coefficient with its affiliated parent construct will be contrasted to its cross-loadings onto all alternate constructs. To demonstrate discriminability, the affiliated loading should substantially exceed correlations with other factors, by a threshold minimum of 0.10 difference in magnitude. Furthermore, all non-affiliated cross loadings must remain below 0.70. Together these criteria provide evidence that items exhibit much stronger shared variance with intended rather than unintended constructs, satisfying discriminant validity

The Fornell-Larcker criterion assesses discriminant validity by comparing the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct, representing shared variance

with its items, against correlations with other factors (Henseler et al., 2015). If the square root AVE exceeds construct correlations, confirming indicators share more variance with affiliated vs. unaffiliated variables, discriminant validity holds (Franke & Sarstedt , 2019).

Assessment of the Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio involves deriving ratios between constructs by dividing between-construct correlations by average within-construct correlations between items. Resulting statistics below 1.0 signify items correlate higher with intended vs. alternate constructs, satisfying discriminant assumptions. Finally, ratios will be evaluated against the .85 ceiling (Henseler et al., 2015); values below this indicate constructs have captured distinct phenomena. The discriminant validity test results presented are in the next chapter.

6.7.3 Fieldwork

The fieldwork began with submitting the letter of permission to the managers of the YOMSB in Accra, Ghana, to seek their permission to collect the data. Next, a meeting was held with management, and organisations that positively responded were included in the study. During this meeting all the Covid 19 protocols were observed including masking up and maintaining social distance during meetings. However, employees were only allowed to participate in the study after they agreed to and signed the statement of consent, which indicated the study's purpose and gave respondents assurance of confidentiality, anonymity, and the right to stop at any time.

In the quantitative part of the study, which required the collection of quantitative data, the researcher used closed-ended survey questionnaires which was administered online to the employees, with the help of the human resource managers who provided their emails. The questionnaire was thus uploaded on Google Forms and sent to respondents to their emails or social media handle, specifically WhatsApp. The use of the survey questionnaires was premised on the fact that the first part of the study was quantitative and required quantitative data to address the research problem. Moreover, the use of a questionnaire was appropriate for this study; it enabled data to be collected from a large

population while at the same time maintaining respondents' anonymity and honesty in response, in addition to the fact that questionnaires are relatively cheaper, quicker to complete, and easy to analyse (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017).

The use of the online survey for this study was because of Covid 19 pandemic and strict enforcement of the protocols had made several employees worked remotely (from home) and employers were also discouraged from having physical contact to prevent the spread of the virus, as much as possible. Thus, using the online survey was most appropriate under these prevailing conditions, to enable the researcher to collect data from the respondents. Besides, questionnaires provided the advantage of convenience to respondents to respond from anywhere, as long as they had access to the internet. It was also cheaper and easy to analyse this online survey (Nayak & Narayan, 2019). Upon completion of the online questionnaire a "thank you" message was electronically sent to respondents to express gratitude.

In the qualitative part of the study, which was the second phase of the data collection, the researcher selected participants, who were given a statement of consent to read and sign after permission had been sought from the youth-owned company/ies and business managers where these employees worked. The was undertaken after the Covid 19 protocols have been suspended in Ghana. A meeting was held with participants who met the selection criteria (managers and employees who have worked in YOMSB for at least the past three years and also and who have had in-depth understanding and experiences in YOMSB in the relation to the organisational climate, perceived level of the transformational leadership, leader's emotional intelligence and job satisfaction). The purpose of the meeting was to inform them of the specific date, time, and venue that would be convenient for each. While some resorted to offices after the office work for the interviews, others were more comfortable with neutral places such as parks and hotels. The interview section lasted between 40 to 60 minutes and was recorded after permission had been sought from participants. During the interview process, the researcher followed up several main questions with other questions to give the researcher a thorough

understanding of issues from participants' lived experiences. Participants were given the latitude to experience their views without any interruptions. Each interview section was transcribed and given to the participant to check, to ensure it was a true reflection of the participant's view and what they meant.

6.7.4 Ethical approach to fieldwork

6.7.4.1 Ensuring voluntary participation and informed consent.

Dattalo (2010) identifies a number of key ethical concerns, including those relating to voluntary involvement and informed consent, anonymity and confidentiality, and accountability in terms of the validity of analysis and reporting. Bhattacharjee (2012) emphasised the importance of making it clear to research participants that their participation is completely voluntary, that they can stop participating in the study at any time without any repercussions, and that they were not at risk in any way, shape, or form as a result of their participation or non-participation in the project. Aims of the study were explained, and participants gave their agreement after being given background information.

6.7.4.2 Ensuring anonymity and confidentiality.

During the process of data collection, three ethical concerns were taken into consideration, namely informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity (Rubin & Babbie 2011). The researcher obtained informed consent by introducing the questionnaire to the participants via email. The researcher provided a clear statement of the study's objective and ensured participants that their participation was entirely voluntary. In this context, each employee of YOMSB voluntarily participated in the study. Confidentiality was effectively maintained by the researcher, who diligently ensured that each response obtained from the survey and the interviews were exclusively utilised for research-related objectives. The data collected through Google Forms was transformed into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26. Subsequently, it was securely stored in

the One Drive Cloud Database and encrypted to safeguard against unauthorized access by external entities. The researcher successfully ensured the preservation of anonymity by incorporating measures within the questionnaire to prevent the disclosure of participant identities, including but not limited to participant names, phone numbers, and staff IDs. The emails sent by participants were subsequently removed from the system upon completion of their responses to the online survey.

6.8 Data analysis

The quantitative data from the Google forms was extracted using Microsoft Excel and data was coded and entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 26. Descriptive analysis was then carried on the data which was summarised using frequency tables, percentages, and visual representations. A structural equation model (SEM) was developed by specifying the hypothesized paths between variables based on theory and past findings. The model was tested using SmartPLS v4 partial least squares analysis. Path coefficients estimate the strengths of relationships, with values close to 1.0 representing strong positive effects (Singh, 2015). Path coefficients are also interpreted for their mathematical sign - either positive or negative - to ascertain the aligned or opposing direction of each estimated effect compared to hypotheses (Singh, 2015). T-statistics above 1.96 indicate path significance at the $p < .05$ level (Hair et al., 2017). The 5% ($p < .05$) significance level indicates a less than 5% probability the observed effect is due to chance (Kimmel, 1957), maximizing power to detect true effects while minimizing Type I errors (Ellis, 2010). Extensive literature debates acceptable alpha levels, balancing validity and sensitivity; through collective convention from these examinations, the 5% threshold emerged as optimal for hypothesis testing in social science research (Nuzzo, 2014). Applying this standard ensures high confidence in the precision of conclusions by limiting false discoveries yet maintaining adequate effect detection rates (Vidgen & Yasseri, 2016).

Additionally, bivariate Pearson correlation coefficients were examined between all variables, with values from -1 to +1 indicating the direction of the linear relationship.

Correlations above .50 signal a strong positive linear effect, while those below -.50 represent strong negative association (Cohen et al., 2017). Correlations above .50 signal a strong linear relationship (Hinkle et al. 2003). Significance is determined by p-values below .05 for each correlation. The results are presented in the next chapter.

Multicollinearity was assessed prior to evaluating the study hypotheses by calculating variance inflation factors (VIFs) between all independent variables using linear regression models per accepted protocol (Kock, 2015). VIF quantifies the degree predictors correlate with one another. Values exceeding 3.3 signified problematic collinear relationships while values under 2.5 confirmed variables were distinct (Kock & Lynn, 2012). The maximum VIF yielded across models was scrutinized against these standards to determine presence of multicollinearity issues before proceeding with hypothesis tests. Predictors yielding VIF exceeding 3.3 were removed or combined to ensure all remaining variables demonstrated sufficient independence to reliably estimate effects individually. Strict VIF evaluation prevented Type I errors and biased conclusions due to overlap between putative causal factors.

In the case of the qualitative part of the study, the recorded proceedings of the interview sections were transcribed on a Microsoft Word document. The transcripts of each interview section were first shown to each interviewee to confirm whether they were the true reflection of their views, after which the transcripts were analysed, using thematic analysis. The study adopted the five-stage thematic analysis approach by Clark and Braum (2013) in the thematic analysis. The results are presented in the next chapter.

6.9 Chapter summary

The chapter described the methodology used to address the study's research objectives. In summary, the study was guided by a pragmatic research paradigm, and as such a mixed method research approach was used for the study, with specific emphasis on the sequential explanatory mixed method design. The study adopted random and convenience sampling techniques for the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study,

respectively. A survey questionnaire was employed in the quantitative part of the study, and in-depth interviews were used to collect data for the qualitative studies. The quantitative data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics, and the qualitative data was analysed using thematic analysis.

CHAPTER 7: DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the outcomes of the data analysis, broken down into five sections. The first section presents results containing all participants' demographic data. Results regarding exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis are presented next. The third part presents descriptive and normality statistics results of the variables used for the study. In the fourth section, results of the tested hypotheses using Smart PLS version 4.0 are presented. Finally, the study's findings are discussed in line with the relevant literature. The chapter ends with a summary.

7.2 Response rate

In total, 750 questionnaires were sent to respondents. Out of this number, 602 were completed and returned, representing a response rate of 80.2%. Moser and Kalton (1979) stated that the survey is regarded as insufficient and biased if less than 30–40 % of the total questionnaire or sample is returned. However, since the response rate was 80.2%, the data gathered was considered sufficient and suitable for further analysis. Additionally, several precautionary procedures were taken in this investigation to avoid common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012). To begin, all of the survey measures used in previous studies were back-translated into the respondents' original language, to clarify the exact meaning of what was being measured. Brislin (1970) proposed that translating into one's native language is beneficial for gathering reliable information about phenomena in a foreign environment.

Secondly, respondents were informed that their submitted information would be kept personal and private. This assurance kept them from succumbing to social desirability bias or giving appealing responses (Podsakoff et al., 2012). Thirdly, the questionnaire measurement items were subjected to Harman's one-factor test, as suggested in the study (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Eight components with an Eigenvalue greater than one

accounted for 72.045% of the variance, and no single factor exceeded 50% of the total variance. According to principal component analysis, the highest component explained by one factor was 23.7%. Again, to gather more reliable data, Azadegan et al. (2020) recommended using senior managers for organisational-level studies since they have first-hand information regarding the issue under inquiry. Respondents with managerial roles were, therefore, selected for the study, including the level of seniority, to ensure the most reliable organisational information was gathered.

In a survey, non-response bias occurs when the number of respondents is smaller than the total population (Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2017). Low survey response rates are a common source of non-response bias, which can affect the quality of the sample used in the study, and the conclusions drawn from the data (Tyser, Abtahi, McFadden, & Presson 2016). The study therefore carried out t-test an independent sample t-test. Several assumptions were evaluated prior to conducting the t-tests comparing early and late survey responses (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Equality of variances was examined using Levene's test - non-significant results indicated homogeneity of variance across groups. Residual analysis verified normality as skew and kurtosis statistics fell inside acceptable ± 2 ranges (George & Mallery, 2010). Additionally, the samples showed independence as respondents were randomly categorized based timing of completion rather than any shared attributes.

This study evaluated the potential for non-response bias by contrasting the answers provided by early and late respondents. Early respondents filled out and returned the surveys within the first month. Late responders are those whose surveys were returned after all others had been sent (thus after five weeks). Oppenheim's (2001) hypothesis that there would be significant disparities between the two groups on the study's variables, was not supported by the data. Non-response bias was not an issue, and the samples were representative of the population of interest, as shown by the results. In this case, the first 301 responses were judged (as) early, while the remaining 301 were regarded

late. Subsequently, a t-test was used to look for signs of non-response bias. None of the differences was statistically significant, according to the t-test results (see Table 7.1)

Table 7. 1: Non – response bias (independent sample T-Test)

Constructs	F	Sig.	t
Organisational Climate	0.000	0.986	0.106
Emotional Intelligence	0.004	0.949	0.120
Transformational Leadership	0.049	0.825	0.125
Job Satisfaction	0.044	0.833	0.103

7.3 Demographic information

The summary of the demographic analysis of the employees and organisations used in the study is presented respectively in Tables 7.2 and 7.3. The results from the table show that 67.9% of the respondents were males, while 32.1% were females. In addition, 9.8% of the respondents were below 25 years, 56.8% were between 26-25 years, 15.8% were between 36-40 years, and 17.6% of the remaining were between 40 years and above. In addition, 4.7% of the respondents had West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE), 5.5% had a diploma, 87.2% had a degree and above, and 2.7% had other certificates. The results also indicate that 96.7% of the respondents were Ghanaian, while 3.3% of the remaining respondents were non-Ghanaian.

The respondents were asked to provide information about their organisations, and the respondents indicated the type of business their organisation operated. Based on the results, 59.6% indicated limited liability company, 23.3% indicated partnership, and 17.1% of the remaining participants indicated corporation. The respondents were also asked to indicate the number of employees in the organisation, besides the owners. From the results, 48.0% of the respondents indicated 1-10 employees, 11.0% indicated 11-20 employees, 4.5% indicated 21-30 employees, 3.5% indicated 31-40 employees, and 33.1% of the remaining, indicated 41 employees and above. They were also asked to indicate the age of their organisations. Based on the results, 12.1% of the respondents indicated less than 1 year, 31.7% indicated 2-5 years, 21.9% indicated 6-10 years, and

34.2% of the remaining, indicated 11 years and above. Finally, the respondents were also asked to indicate the type of industry their organisation operated in the results reflected: 7.8% indicated manufacturing, 64.6% indicated service, and 27.6% of the remaining indicated other industries.

Table 7. 2: Demographic characteristics (n=602)

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative Percent
Your gender	Male	409	67.9	67.9
	Female	193	32.1	100.
Your age	Below 25years	59	9.8	9.80
	26-25 years	342	56.8	66.6
	36-40 years	95	15.8	82.4
	40 years and above	106	17.6	100.
Level of education	Secondary	28	4.7	4.7
	Diploma	33	5.5	10.1
	Degree & above	525	87.2	97.3
	other	16	2.7	100
Nationality	Ghanaian	582	96.7	99.7
	Non-Ghanaian	20	3.3	100

Table 7. 3: Profile of organisation (n=602)

Variables	Category	Frequency	Percent	Cummulative Percent
Type of business	Limited liability company	359	59.6	59.6
	Partnership	140	23.3	82.9
	Corporation	103	17.1	100
Number of employees besides owner	1-10	289	48.0	48
	11-20	66	11.0	59.0
	21-30	27	4.5	63.5
	31-40	21	3.5	63.5
	41 and above	199	33.1	100
Age of business	less than 1 year	73	12.1	12.1
	2-5 years	191	31.7	43.8
	6-10years	132	21.9	65.7
	11 years and above	206	34.2	100
Type of industry	Manufacturing	47	7.8	7.8
	service	389	64.6	72.4
	other	166	27.6	100

7.4 Descriptive analysis of variables (Constructs)

7.4.1 Organisational climate

This section provides a descriptive statistic of an organisational climate from the perspective of employees in the YOMSB in Ghana. The indices that describe organisational climate are shown in Table 7.6. On average, respondents gave each section's set of questions ratings between 1 (Strongly Disagree) and 5 (Strongly Agree). The average mean for all items measuring organisational climate was 3.39, above the median value of 3. Generally, the YOMSB in Ghana perceive their organisational climate as somehow satisfactory or conducive for work.

In line with Khan (2019), this satisfactory organisational climate indicates the presence of some critical features such as solid structures, policies, systems, practices, and leadership style, that creates an enabling working environment for employees to deliver on organisational goals. It also means that employees of YOMSB have some degree of positive shared feelings or perception of the organisation's structures, processes, and systems, including trust, confidence, loyalty, and a sense of belonging and worth in the workplace. While such climates may foster improvement in operational performance (Floyd, 2016), employee motivation, commitment and satisfaction (Hess & McAvoy, 2015; Maamari & Majdalani, 2017), some of these climates could also impact employee mental and psychological well-being of employees negatively, which in turn affects their overall well-being and work output (Viitala, Tanskanen, & Sääntti, 2015).

Table 7. 4: Summary statistics for organisational climate

		N	Minimu m	Maximu m	Mean	Std. Deviation
AUTONOMY	"Many times, management would stand back and let workers make their own choices".	602	1	5	2.65	1.102
	"Management encourages employees to make decisions on the job without seeking approval first".	602	1	5	2.53	1.145
	"People at the top tightly control the work of those below them"	602	1	5	3.43	1.1
	"The management here keeps too tight of a leash on how things get done".	602	1	5	3.31	1.123
	"Its crucial to confirm things first with the manager before taking a decision"	602	1	5	3.78	0.959
INTEGRATION	"Individuals have reservations about four departments"	602	1	5	2.98	1.191
	"There is not much friction between the departments here"	602	1	5	3.32	1.135
	"People from many departments are willing to exchange information"	602	1	5	3.4	1.113
	"Inter-departmental cooperation is highly successful"	602	1	5	3.65	1.026
	"Some of the departments here do not treat one another with much respect".	602	1	5	2.8	1.162
REFLEXIVITY	"The way employees collaborate in this company is easily altered in order to boost performance".	602	1	5	3.54	0.874
	"It is frequently discussed how this organisation accomplishes its goals".	602	1	5	3.63	1.084

	“Regular conversations on whether employees are working are held within the organisation”.	602	1	5	3.63	1.028
	“In this organisation, goals are changed in response to evolving situations”.	602	1	5	3.6	0.932
CLARITY OF ORGANISATIONAL GOALS	“In this company, organisational goals are reviewed in detail”.	602	1	5	3.48	1.053
	“People are aware of what the organisation is attempting to accomplish”.	602	1	5	3.64	1.025
	“Everyone is informed of the company's future plans in detail”.	602	1	5	3.55	1.163
	“People are confused about the company's goals.”	602	1	5	2.63	1.188
	“The long-term goals and direction of this organisation are fully known to every employee”.	602	1	5	3.36	1.179
	“There is a clear sense of the direction the business is taking”.	602	1	5	3.57	1.078
EFFORT	“Better organisation at work could result in time and financial savings”.	602	1	5	4	0.812
	“If people took the time to reflect, they could do tasks considerably more quickly”.	602	1	5	3.24	1.204
	“Frequently, inadequate planning and scheduling leads to missed goals”.	602	1	5	3.78	1.07
	“Jobs may be better planned and structured, which would increase productivity”.	602	1	5	4.13	0.813
EFFICIENCY	“Everyone here strives to do their finest work at all times”.	602	1	5	3.97	0.849
	“People are passionate about what they do”.	602	1	5	3.77	0.99

	“People here get by with doing as little as possible”	602	1	5	3.05	1.091
	“People are prepared to make a special effort to do a good job”	602	1	5	3.87	0.842
	“Nobody around us puts forth more effort than is necessary”.	602	1	5	2.79	1.204
PERFORMANCE FEEDBACK	“People usually receive feedback on the quality of work they have done”	602	1	5	3.69	0.94
	“People are unaware of how well they are performing their jobs”	602	1	5	2.84	1.149
	“In general, it can be challenging for someone to evaluate their performance”.	602	1	5	2.95	1.131
	“Performance of individuals is regularly evaluated”.	602	1	5	3.3	1.092
	“Rarely are people's work habits evaluated”	602	1	5	3.14	1.098
PRESSURE TO PRODUCE	“Too much is expected of people each day”.	602	1	5	3.23	1.083
	“In general, peoples workloads are not particularly demanding”	602	1	5	3.04	1.038
	“Management require people to work extremely hard”	602	1	5	3.81	0.95
	“There is pressure to meet goals here”	602	1	5	3.38	1.107
	“The pace of work here is pretty relaxed “	602	1	5	3.02	1.091
QUALITY	“This business strives to meet the highest standards of quality at all times.”	602	1	5	4.06	0.924
	“Here, we take quality very seriously.”	602	1	5	4.04	0.959
	“People think that doing top-notch work is essential to the company's success”	602	1	5	4	0.924

	"There is not much of a reputation for high-quality products from this company".	602	1	5	2.51	1.17
INVOLVEMENT	"Management involves people when decisions are made that affect them"	602	1	5	3.32	1.074
	"Without consulting the parties involved, changes are made."	602	1	5	2.93	1.161
	"People have little voice in decisions that influence their work".	602	1	5	2.97	1.136
	"People feel decisions are frequently made over their heads"	602	1	5	3.21	1.147
	"Information is widely shared"	602	1	5	3.47	1.092
	"There are often breakdowns in communication here "	602	1	5	3.26	1.108
SUPERVISORY SUPPORT	"Supervisors here are really good at understanding peoples€™ problems"	602	1	5	3.52	1.055
	"Supervisors show that they have confidence in those they manage"	602	1	5	3.66	0.987
	"Supervisors here are friendly and easy to approach"	602	1	5	3.78	0.988
	"Supervisors can be relied upon to give good guidance to people"	602	1	5	3.68	1.031
	"Supervisors show an understanding of the people who work for them"	602	1	5	3.66	1.042
TRAINING	"People are not properly trained when there is a new machine or bit of equipment"	602	1	5	2.71	1.209
	"People are strongly encouraged to develop their skills"	602	1	5	3.74	1.092
	"People receive enough training when it comes to using new equipment "	602	1	5	3.58	1.061
WELFARE	"The company only gives people the minimum amount of training they need to do their job"	602	1	5	3.14	1.114

	"This company pays little attention to the interests of employees"	602	1	5	2.92	1.24
	"This company tries to look after its employees"	602	1	5	3.42	1.116
	"This company cares about its employees"	602	1	5	3.42	1.14
FORMALIZATION	"It is considered extremely important here to follow the rules"	602	1	5	3.83	0.999
	"People can ignore formal procedures and rules if it helps get the job done"	602	1	5	2.87	1.16
	"Everything has to be done by the book"	602	1	5	3.14	0.965
	"Its not necessary to follow procedures to the letter around here"	602	1	5	2.71	1.092
	"Nobody gets too upset if people break the rules around here"	602	1	5	2.52	1.105
TRADITION	"Senior management like to keep to established, traditional ways of doing things"	602	1	5	3.25	1.046
	"This organisation's practises haven't changed all that much over the years".	602	1	5	3.15	1.119
	"Management has no interest in experimenting with fresh concepts".	602	1	5	2.68	1.203
	"Here, changes to the way things are done take a very long time".	602	1	5	3.23	1.057
INNOVATION & FLEXIBILITY	"New ideas are readily accepted here"	602	1	5	3.49	1.067
	"This company is quick to respond when changes need to be made"	602	1	5	3.51	1.008
	"Management here are quick to spot the need to do things differently"	602	1	5	3.5	1.018
	"This company is incredibly adaptable, and it can swiftly alter methods to meet new needs".	602	1	5	3.49	1.045
	"Conditions and problems are solved as they emerge"	602	1	5	3.56	1.006

	“Assistance in producing new ideas is easily accessible”	602	1	5	3.48	1.022
	“People at this organisation are constantly looking for novel approaches to issues.”	602	1	5	3.42	1.038
OUTWARD FOCUS	“This organisation is fairly inward-looking; it does not bother itself with what is outside”.	602	1	5	2.82	0.948
	“Ways of improving 2 to the customer are not given much thought”	602	1	5	2.54	1.066
	“Customer needs are not considered top priority here”	602	1	5	2.45	1.271
	“This company is slow to respond to the needs of the customer”	602	1	5	2.66	1.226
	“This business is constantly looking for new business prospects”.	602	1	5	3.92	0.964
	Valid N (listwise)	602				

7.4.2 Job satisfaction

This section presents the results of the descriptive statistics of job satisfaction style as perceived by employees of YOMSB in Ghana. The job satisfaction indices are shown in Table 7.7. The average responses to the questions posed under each part ranged from a minimum score of 1 (Strongly Disagree) to a maximum score of 5 (Strongly Agree). The average mean for all the items measuring job satisfaction was 3.25, above the median value of 3. Therefore, generally, employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceive the level of job satisfaction as somehow satisfactory. As proposed by Kantek and Kaya (2017), this means that there is some level of match between employees' expectations and the benefits they receive from their employer, which is demonstrated in their attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, behaviour, and assessments of their organisations. Additionally, it implies that the overall evaluation of how workers feel about their jobs in connection to factors such as workplace conditions, tasks performed, pay, and interpersonal interactions with coworkers, is favourable (Iman & Lestari, 2019).

The implication of job satisfaction in YOMSB is that it could somehow enhance employee retention and performance of employees, which contributes immensely to the overall success of organisations (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017). Additionally, the current levels of job satisfaction in YOMSB could foster positive organisational outcomes such as commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours and innovation (Dubey, & Gunasekaran, 2015; Babalola, 2016; Pham & Pham, 2016). Although the composite mean for the measurement of job satisfaction is 3.25, there are several items that were rated below the median value of 3. This, therefore, implies that some of these employees could display deviant work behaviour such as delays, absenteeism, or turnover as well as counterproductive behaviours such as corruption, sabotage, extortion, theft or fraud due to their perceived relatively low levels of job satisfaction (Sila & Irok, 2018).

Table 7. 5: Summary statistics for Job satisfaction

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PAY	"I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do"	602	1	5	2.93	1.21
	"Raises are too few and far between".	602	1	5	3.51	0.768
	"I feel unappreciated by the organisation when I think about what they pay me".	602	1	5	3.22	0.954
	"I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases "	602	1	5	3.56	0.953
PROMOTION	"There is really too little chance for promotion on my job".	602	1	5	3.46	1.189
	"Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted."	602	1	5	3.16	1.179
	"People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places"	602	1	5	3.32	1.046

	"I am satisfied with my chances for promotion:	602	1	7	3.8	1.114
SUPERVISION	"My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job."	602	1	5	3.87	0.831
	"My supervisor is unfair to me".	602	1	5	2.3	1.077
	"My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates"	602	1	5	2.91	0.998
	I like my supervisor	600	1	5	3.28	0.997
FRINGE BENEFITS	"I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive".	602	1	5	3.58	1.071
	"The benefits we receive are as good as most 4organisations offer."	602	1	5	2.76	1.177
	"The benefit package we have is equitable"	602	1	5	2.95	0.977
	"There are benefits we do not have which we should have"	600	1	5	3.36	1.087
CONTINGENT REWARDS	"When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive".	602	1	5	3.32	1.175
	"I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated".	602	1	5	2.75	1.177
	"There are few rewards for those who work here"	602	1	5	2.9	0.938
	"I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be"	602	1	5	3.25	1.054
OPERATING PROCEDURE	"Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult".	602	1	5	3.17	1.125
	"My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape".	602	1	5	2.87	1.037
	"I have too much to do at work"	602	1	5	3.06	0.981
	"I have too much paperwork "	602	1	5	3.28	1.064
CO-WORKERS	"I like the people I work with".	602	1	5	4.04	0.836
	"I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with".	602	1	5	2.81	1.188

	"I enjoy my coworkers"	602	1	5	3.13	0.935
	"There is too much bickering and fighting at work"	602	1	5	3.52	1.014
NATURE OF WORK	"I sometimes feel my job is meaningless".	602	1	5	2.4	1.229
	"I like doing the things I do at work".	602	1	5	3.78	0.974
	"I feel a sense of pride in doing my job"	602	1	5	2.87	0.929
	"My job is enjoyable"	602	1	5	3.48	0.982
COMMUNICATION	"Communications seem good within this organisation".	602	1	5	3.47	1.174
	"The goals of this organisation are not clear to me".	602	1	5	2.58	1.176
	"I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation"	602	1	5	2.75	0.941
	"Work assignments are not fully explained"	595	1	5	3.28	1.05

7.4.3 Perceived level of leader's emotional intelligence

This section provides descriptive statistics of a leader's emotional intelligence from the perspective of employees in YOMSB in Ghana. The indices that describe the perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence are shown in Table 7.4. On average, responses to the questions in each section varied from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The average mean for all items measuring perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence was 3.74, above the median value of 3. Therefore, employees of the YOMSB in Ghana generally perceive their leaders as emotionally intelligent.

In line with Asiamah (2017), the relatively high levels of display of emotional intelligence among leaders or managers of YOMSB in Ghana is indicative of the fact that they can understand their own emotions and that of the employees and can regulate these emotions in a manner that engenders positive results for those involved. According to

Mansel and Einion (2019) and Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey (2016), an increased emotional intelligence workforce enhances employee cooperation and creativity, which is key to achieving organisational effectiveness. Similarly, Gainer (2018) asserted that increased levels of a leader's emotional intelligence built a more dedicated and energetic workforce, with high work engagement levels, improving overall productivity.

Table 7. 6: Summary statistics for perceived level of leader's emotional intelligence

SELF-AWARENESS	"My manager understands the implications of his/her emotions on subordinates"	602	1	5	3.53	1.174
	"My manager is open to feedback from his/her subordinates"	602	1	5	3.78	1.008
	"My manager is confident in the execution of his/her duties"	602	1	5	4.19	0.878
SELF-MANAGEMENT	"My manager shows enough patience when dealing with people"	602	1	5	3.76	1.144
	"My manager publicly admits to mistakes"	602	1	5	3.21	1.204
	"My manager easily adapts to changing situations/circumstances"	602	1	5	3.68	1.067
	"My manager sets challenging goals"	602	1	5	3.9	1.019
	"My manager initiates actions for the future"	602	1	5	3.81	1.065
	"My manager learns from setbacks"	602	1	5	3.75	1.09
SOCIAL AWARENESS	"My manager is open to diversity"	602	1	5	3.86	0.981
	"My manager understands organisational climate and culture"	602	1	5	3.8	0.994
	"My manager matches customer needs to organisational needs"	602	1	5	3.88	0.942
	"My manager gives constructive feedback to subordinates"	602	1	5	3.81	1.021

	"My manager leads by example"	602	1	5	3.66	1.207
RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT	"My manager ensures effective co-operation among employees"	602	1	5	3.82	1.003
	"My manager addresses conflict issues appropriately"	602	1	5	3.66	1.092
	"My manager anticipates the impact of his/her actions and words on people"	602	1	5	3.47	1.099
	"My manager acts to support change in the organisation"	602	1	5	3.91	0.97
	Valid N (listwise)	602				

7.4.4 Transformational leadership style

In this section, descriptive statistics show how employees in YOMSB in Ghana feel about the use of a transformational leadership style. Table 7.5 presents the transformational leadership style indices. On average, responses to the questions in each section varied from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree). The average mean for all the items measuring transformational leadership style, was 3.73, above the median value of 3. Therefore, employees of YOMSB in Ghana generally perceive their leaders as demonstrating satisfactory levels of transformational leadership style.

From the perspectives of Apoi and Latip (2019) and Niessen et al. (2017), the display of a relatively high level of transformational leadership implies that the leaders are vision-oriented, and empower subordinates to achieve organisational goals through self-development and innovative problem-solving approaches. The effect of this includes increased levels of employee commitment (Mesu, Sanders, & van Riemsdijk, 2015) organisational citizenship behaviour (Jiang et al., 2017), employee job satisfaction, entrepreneurship, and performance (Ocak & Ozturk, 2018; Shafique & Kalyar, 2018), employees' well-being (Mehar, 2015), organisational level innovation (Afsar, & Umrani, 2020) and employees' creative performance (Jyoti & Dev, 2015).

Table 7. 7: Summary statistics for transformational leadership style

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
IDEALIZED INFLUENCE	"My manager instils pride in me for being associated with him/her"	602	1	5	3.21	1.175
	"My manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group"	602	1	5	3.61	1.102
	"My manager acts in ways that build my respect"	602	1	5	3.68	1.011
	"My manager displays a sense of power and confidence"	602	1	5	4.02	0.841
	"My manager talks about his/her most important values and beliefs"	602	1	5	3.72	0.989
INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION	"My manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of decisions"	602	1	5	3.76	0.922
	"My manager emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission"	602	1	5	3.87	0.954
	"My manager talks optimistically about the future"	602	1	5	3.93	1.03
	"My manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished"	602	1	5	4.09	0.861
	"My manager expresses a compelling vision of the future"	602	1	5	3.97	0.889
INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION	"My manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved"	602	1	5	3.98	0.944
	"My manager re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate"	602	1	5	3.66	0.961
	"My manager seeks differing perspectives when solving problems"	602	1	5	3.66	1.052

	"My manager gets me to look at problems from many different angels"	602	1	5	3.7	1.022
	"My manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments"	602	1	5	3.83	1.01
INDIVIDUAL CONSIDERATION	"My manager spends time teaching and coaching"	602	1	5	3.61	1.16
	"My manager treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a team"	602	1	5	3.5	1.096
	"My manager considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others"	602	1	5	3.5	1.078
	Valid N (listwise)	602				

7.5 Structural equation modeling

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a statistical tool used to distinguish between various constructs (Hair et al., 2018). It resides in factor analysis and multiple regression analysis as multivariate analysis techniques. This study used SEM for its data analysis because it identified the strength of relationships between the dependent and the independent variables (Hair et al., 2018). Again, the SEM also allows for model measurement assessment to evaluate the reliability and validity of measurements in the model (Hair et al., 2018). Furthermore, SEM can support a complete test of the model that fits a singular framework rating test at the same time. In effect, SEM seeks to examine a set of linkages that are described by complex equations. It is a statistical method for investigating correlations amongst variables and validating hypotheses that combines factor analysis with multiple regressions (Hair et al., 2018). This research employed a structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse the data because it aimed to investigate the relationship between organisational climate, perceptions of leader's emotional intelligence, perceptions of transformational leadership style, and work satisfaction in YOMSB in Ghana.

Given its flexibility in working with a wide range of inputs, including both small and large sample sizes and an infinite number of formative indicators, Smart PLS has emerged as a favourite method of statistical data analysis among researchers (Hair et al., 2013). This study, thus, adopted Smart PLS 4 due to its ability to use model estimation in the delivery of empirical measures of the association among the constructs (model measurement) and between the constructs (structural model) as well as its feature to determine the fitness of the data used. Also, the outcome from the PLS-SEM was reviewed and evaluated using a system process. It helped increase the endogenous latent construct's explained variance (R^2 value). Based on the above explanation, the model's evaluation focused on measurement and structural predictive capabilities. The relationship between responded items and their latent causal variable was demonstrated using the measurement model, and was considered for uni-dimensionality, validity, and reliability before conducting the structural model.

7.6 Confirmatory factor analysis (reliability and validity)

This section discusses the techniques used to ascertain the validity of the instruments and verify the constructs' reliability. In quantitative studies, assessing the measurement model is critical since it ensures the validity and outcome of the study. In addition, however, researchers must focus on enhancing the quality of work (Hair et al., 2020). Likewise, there are two critical elements to consider when evaluating a measurement model: the study instrument's reliability and validity (Gideon et al., 2016).

7.6.1 Validity

Making sure the research instrument built to assess particular concepts accurately, assesses the concept, is an important part of the research process. Ringle and Ting (2018) state that validity is a measure of how well an instrument captures the focus that was intended for it. Face validity, content validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity are used to evaluate the reliability and accuracy of the study instrument (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Churchill (2001) argues that the approach employed to create the questionnaire is the most crucial factor in determining content validity. In this study,

therefore, previous empirical and theoretical work on the constructs under investigation was thoroughly reviewed to determine content validity. The supervisors' expert analysis of the questionnaire's relevance and suitability to meet the study's planned objectives and the pre-test exercise of the questionnaire with selected employees, were used to determine the questionnaire's face validity. By establishing convergent and discriminant validity, the researcher made sure the conceptions were truly distinct from one another and would be able to capture some phenomena (Khalid et al., 2012; Kothari, 2012). A measure is considered to have convergent validity if there are multiple items that are highly correlated and all assess the same underlying construct. According to Hair et al. (2011, 2014), a researcher needs to check the average variance extracted (AVE), and its value should be 0.50 or greater, to show the convergent validity of the reflection measurement model using PLS-SEM.

In addition, two measures of the Fornell-Larcker Criterion and cross-loading were analysed to determine the discriminant validity, also known as the degree to which one construct's measures are distinct from another construct measurement (Henseler et al., 2015). As stated by the Fornell-Lacker Criterion, "the latent construct shares more variation with its assigned indicators than other latent variables in a structural model." In statistical terms, this means that the cross-loading value, where the indicators' loading on the associated latent construct should be higher than its loading with other constructs remaining after controlling for correlation, is required for discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2011).

When all the items in the model loaded over the suggested threshold of 0.7, the study had a high level of content validity. (Churchill (2001). Although a few items that could not meet the 0.7 thresholds were discarded, the expert review and pilot compensated for the high face validity of the instrument. The average variance collected from the data was then used to probe Convergent validity (AVE). As can be seen in Table 7.8 below, all of the AVE values were higher than the critical limit of 0.50. (Hair et al., 2011; 2019; 2021). Cross-loadings, the Fornell-Lacker criterion, and Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of

correlations were used to test discriminant validity. The AVE of each latent construct was also higher than the squared correlation of any other latent construct, as seen in Table 7.8. (Hair et al., 2011; 2021). The finding also demonstrated that the indicator's loading with the linked latent construct was greater than its loadings compared to any of the other constructs included in the cross-loading analysis (see Table 7.8). The Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlations was then used to dig deeper into the discriminant validity test, and its results confirmed that the HTMT threshold (0.90) had been reached (see Table 7.9; 7.10).

7.6.2 Reliability

The reliability of a measuring device is demonstrated when it yields consistent results over a period of time, showing that the device is both consistent and reliable (Mohajan, 2017). This could also be considered the capacity to replicate a study or study results. The degree to which a measurement is free of random error by consistently giving a result, is what Rinaldi et al. (2012) call reliability measurement. The study by Hair et al. (2012) provided two tests of reliability, namely the internal consistency and indicator of reliability, to examine the dependability of the instruments. Unlike Cronbach's alpha, which assumes all variables are equally trustworthy, the Composite Reliability test ranks them in order of reliability for use in the model estimate, making it a better fit for PLS-SEM. If the Composite Reliability is between 0.7 and 0.9, then the measures are reliable enough. Cronbach's alpha was used to check for internal consistency. Interestingly, every single Cronbach's alpha score was well above the accepted norm (0.7). This indicates the model's constructs have merit. Furthermore, the composite reliability coefficient indicated high scale dependability (CR values above 0.7).

7.6.3 Multicollinearity

As a prerequisite to hypothesis testing, multicollinearity was assessed with the variance inflation factor (VIF). Multicollinearity, in a set of multiple regression variables, can be quantified by calculating the variance inflation factor (VIF). Table 7.8 shows that the VIFs values observed in this study were all lower than the threshold value of 3.3, as suggested

by the study's authors (Kock, 2015). These results substantiate the claim that multicollinearity is not an issue with the predictors.

Table 7.8: Reliability and validity

Constructs	Items	Loadings	CA	CR	AVE	VIF
Organisational Climate	Autonomy	0.735	0.919	0.932	0.631	2.196
	Integration	0.799				2.537
	Reflexivity	0.805				2.342
	Clarity of goals	0.821				2.642
	Efficiency	0.803				2.395
	Effort	0.788				2.687
	Performance and feedback	0.794				2.999
	Pressure to produce	0.805				2.932
Transformational Leadership	Idealised influence	0.828	0.891	0.923	0.749	2.043
	individualised consideration	0.869				2.470
	Inspirational motivation	0.899				2.941
	Intellectual simulation	0.865				2.380
Emotional Intelligence	Relationship management	0.897	0.953	0.959	0.855	2.924
	Self-awareness	0.932				5.107
	Self management	0.929				5.057
	Social awareness	0.940				4.622
Job Satisfaction	supervision	0.801	0.935	0.945	0.658	2.943
	Nature of work	0.865				2.765
	Pay	0.789				2.933
	Contingent reward	0.820				2.958
	Operating procedure	0.810				2.860
	promotion	0.764				2.199
	coworkers	0.772				2.131
	Fringe benefit	0.810				2.718
	communication	0.865				2.532

Table 7.9: Furnell and Larcker criterion

Constructs	1	2	3	4
Emotional Intelligence	0.925			
Job Satisfaction	0.285	0.811		
Organisational Climate	0.172	0.602	0.794	
Transformational Leadership	0.145	0.602	0.714	0.865

Table 7.10: Heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT)

Constructs	1	2	3
Emotional Intelligence			
Job Satisfaction	0.299		
Organisational Climate	0.178	0.646	
Transformational Leadership	0.155	0.658	0.789

7.7 Correlation result

The result in Table 7.11 showed the correlation among the indicators of organisational climate. The study found strong positive correlation between reflexivity and clarity of goals ($r = 0.608$); effort ($r = 0.521$); supervisory support ($r = 0.512$); and innovation and flexibility ($r = 0.662$). There was also strong positive correlation between innovation and flexibility and clarity of goals ($r = 0.594$); effort ($r = 0.536$); training and quality ($r = 0.534$); innovation and flexibility and quality ($r = 0.533$); formalization and involvement ($r = 0.593$); and training and supervisory support ($r = 0.535$). Furthermore, there was also a strong positive association between tradition and formalization ($r = 0.510$); formalization and outward focus (0.581); and tradition and outward focus ($r = 0.583$); but a significant negative correlation between tradition and innovation and flexibility ($r = -0.51$).

From Table 7.12 which shows the correlation among the job satisfaction indicators, the study found that significant moderate and positive correlation exist between promotion and pay ($r = .429$); fringe benefit and supervision ($r = .308$); operating procedure and supervision ($r = .326$); nature of work and supervision ($r = .333$); and communication and

supervision ($r = .311$). Also, moderate positive association was found between nature of work and coworkers ($r = .308$). No negative association was found between any of the indicators for job satisfaction. Pay did not correlate with supervision, contingent reward, operating procedure, and coworkers. Furthermore, supervision correlates significantly and positively with all other indicators of job satisfaction.

The result in Table 7.13 reflects the correlation among emotional intelligence indicators. The result showed that strong positive association exists among all the emotional intelligence variables. The association between self-awareness and self-management was $r = .759$; between self-awareness and social awareness was $r = .761$ and between self-awareness and relationship management was $r = .694$. The association between: social awareness and self-management was $r = .836$; between relationship management and self-management was $.831$; and between social awareness and relationship management was $r = .833$.

Table 7.14 also showed that the correlation among the transformational leadership indicators were positive and significantly strong. The association between idealized influence and inspirational motivation was $r = .758$; intellectual simulation was $r = .788$; and individualized consideration was $r = .653$. The association between intellectual simulation and inspirational motivation was $r = .803$; and $r = .672$ for individualized consideration. The correlation between individualized consideration and intellectual simulation was also positive and strong ($r = .716$).

Table 7.11: Correlation among organisational climate indicators

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 Autonomy	1																
2 Integration	.208**	1															
3 Reflexivity	.084*	.466**	1														
4 Clarity of goals	.080*	.336**	.608**	1													
5 Efficiency	-.020	-.075	-.17**	-.21**	1												
6 Effort	.057	.307**	.521**	.295**	.089*	1											
7 Performance feedback	.188**	.169**	.103*	.077	.279**	.290**	1										
8 Pressure to produce	.148**	.228**	.166**	.109**	.205**	.338**	.423**	1									
9 Quality	.162**	.129**	.337**	.386**	.015	.331**	.074	.172**	1								
10 Involvement	.293**	.062	-.059	.032	.164**	-.080	.256**	.395**	.088*	1							
11 Supervise sup	.201**	.201**	.512**	.488**	-.20**	.368**	.005	.143**	.373**	.157**	1						
12 Training	.293**	.150**	.343**	.432**	-.059	.264**	.169**	.155**	.534**	.256**	.535**	1					
13 Welfare	.246**	.283**	.352**	.451**	-.12**	.188**	.016	.224**	.159**	.377**	.413**	.375**	1				
14 Formalization	.244*	.022	-.061	.155**	.039	-.12**	.167**	.274**	.180**	.593**	.149**	.389**	.457**	1			
15 Tradition	.258**	-.19**	-.46**	-.27**	.262**	-.29**	.204**	.217**	-.051	.483**	-.17**	.073	.025	.510**	1		
16 Inno & flex	.051	.339**	.662**	.594**	-.22**	.536**	.113**	.111**	.533**	-.10*	.478**	.480**	.346**	.032	-.51**	1	
17 Outward focus	.154**	-.081*	-.27**	-.17**	.268**	-.14**	.218**	.297**	-.068	.487**	-.25**	.173**	.137**	.581**	.583**	-.18**	1

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 significant level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at 0.05 significant level (2-tailed).

Table 7. 12: Correlation among job satisfaction indicators

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Pay	1								
2 Supervision	.072	1							
3 Promotion	.429**	.124**	1						
4 Fringe benefit	.207**	.308**	.282**	1					
5 Contingent reward	.021	.291**	.110**	.077	1				
6 Operating Procedure	.020	.326**	.050	.096*	.237**	1			
7 Coworkers	.037	.244**	.167**	.161**	.291**	.154**	1		
8 Nature of Work	.134**	.333**	.059	.167**	.055	.257**	.308**	1	
9 Communication	.222**	.311**	.247**	.282**	.207**	.092*	.187**	.185**	1

** . Correlation is significant at 0.01 significant level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at 0.05 significant level (2-tailed).

Table 7. 13: Correlation among emotional intelligence indicators

	1	2	3	4
1 Self-awareness	1			
2 Self-management	.759**	1		
3 Social awareness	.761**	.836**	1	
4 Relationship management	.694**	.831**	.833**	1

** . Correlation is significant at 0.01 significant level (2-tailed).

Table 7. 14: Correlation among transformational leadership indicators

	1	2	3	4
1 Idealized influence	1			
2 Inspirational motivation	.758**	1		
3 Intellectual simulation	.788**	.803**	1	
4 Individualized consideration	.653**	.672**	.716**	1

** . Correlation is significant at 0.01 significant level (2-tailed).

7.8 Structural model evaluation

Researchers can determine the capabilities of the model and anticipate one or more goal constructs with the help of the structural model, also referred to as the inner model. Newton and Rudestan (2013) and Hair et al. (2017) believed that path coefficients represent the degree to which changes occur in independent constructs while simultaneously holding all other independent constructs constant. As was said before, in the structural model, the path coefficient demonstrates the relationships between the variables being controlled and those not being controlled (Henseler et al., 2016; Wang, 2016; Kock, 2015). Figure 7.1 and Table 7.13 present the findings that were obtained by analysing the structural path coefficient. Constructs where the significance level was 5% with T values of 1.96 or higher were shown to have a significant association with one another.

Additionally, it was observable that the p-values of the constructs were either less than 0.05 or equal to that number. The next step in the analysis was the structural model assessment and hypothesis testing, via the variances of dependent variables in addition to the model's predictive relevance using stone-Geisser's Q2, coefficients, and significance levels. Once the measurement model evaluation has passed all of the required reliability and validity thresholds, the next step in the analysis is complete (T-values). The use of the blindfold method in this study carries out the estimation of the Q2.

7.8.1 Bootstrap resampling method

The structural model is also termed an inner model; it enhances researchers to determine the model's capability and anticipate one or more target constructs. Regarding the measurement model coefficients, the study further tests the mediating and moderating model using the bootstrapping 5000 with replacement and standard error (Hair, Sarstedt, Hopkins & Kuppelweiser, 2014). Below the structural model, the study considers measures including collinearity, f value, p-value, path coefficient, coefficient of determination, effect size (f^2), and effect size (g^2). Collinearity occurs when two indicators are highly correlated. In the study the variance inflation factor was used to assess the

collinearity among the latent variables. The threshold value includes $VIF \geq 5$ in depicting potential collinearity issues (Hair et al., 2011). The path coefficient was assessed using +1 to show a strong association in the structural model. The researcher used p values and t values for the structural path coefficients when the path coefficients significantly depended on its standard error through bootstrapping. The t value is estimated to be 1.96 at the 5% significance level.

7.8.2 Predictive relevance

Hair et al. (2018) state that the R^2 values of 0.75, 0.50, and 0.25 are considered substantial, moderate, and weak. However, Chin et al. (2020) opine that it is necessary to interpret the R squared by considering the context of the related discipline. The model shows moderate predictive accuracy (R^2 adjusted) values of 0.451 for job satisfaction, 0.513 for organisational climate, and 0.021 for transformational leadership, as displayed in Table 7.12 and Figure 4.1. The result implies that emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and organisational climate account for 45.4% of the variation in job satisfaction. Thus, the model has a moderate predictive capability and is suitable for prediction.

Table 7. 15: Coefficients of determination (R^2 and R^2 adjusted)

Constructs	R^2	R^2 adjusted
Job Satisfaction	0.454	0.451
Organisational Climate	0.515	0.513
Transformational Leadership	0.021	0.019

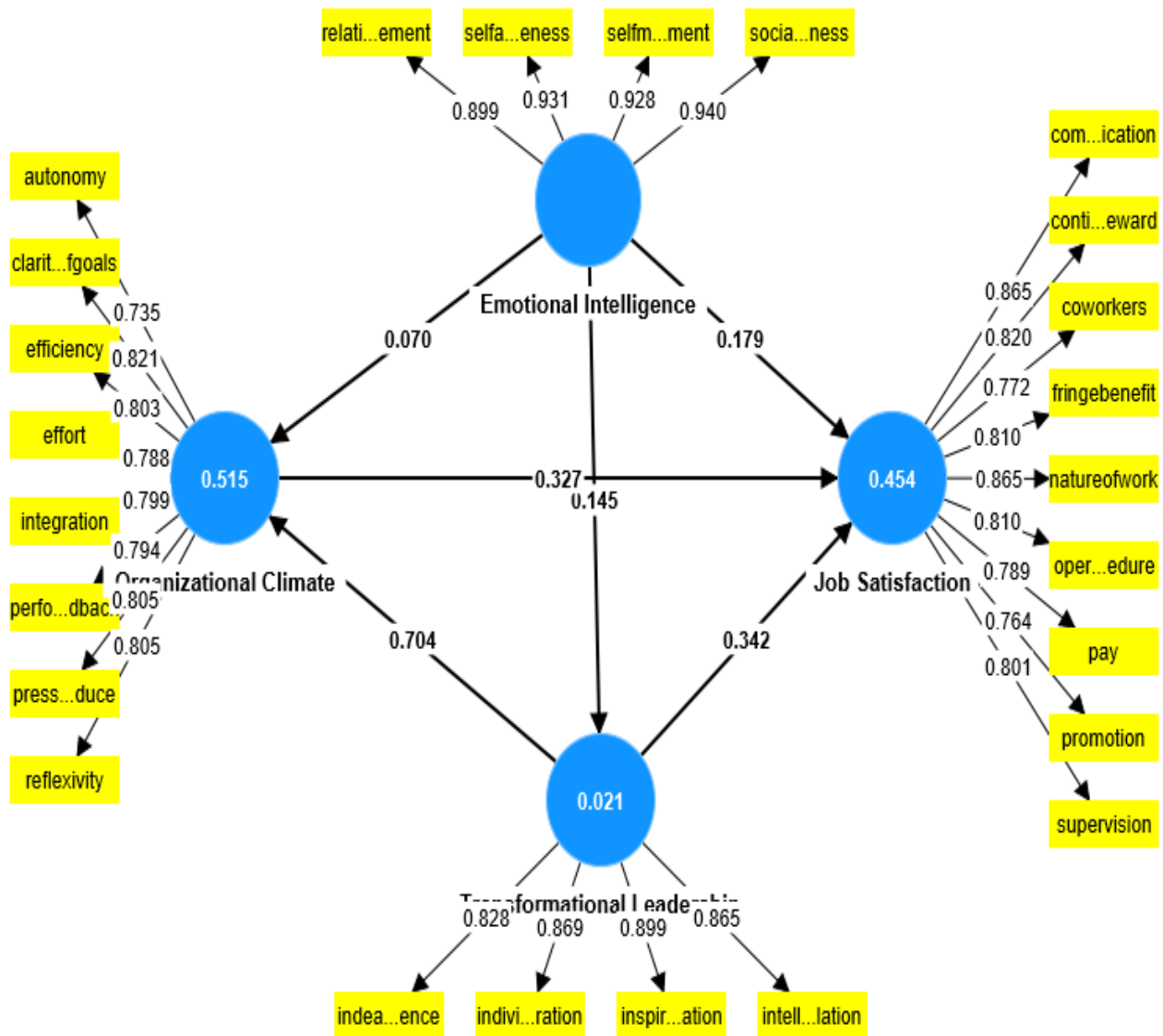


Figure 7. 1: Measurement Model Assessment

7.9 Hypotheses testing and discussion of results

This section test the hypotheses put forth regarding both the direct and indirect effects. The findings derived from the research hypotheses were analyzed in accordance with the extant literature.

7.9.1 Effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction

The study proposed to examine the impact of organisational climate on job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. The results from Table 7.16 show that organisational climate has a significant and positive direct effect on job satisfaction ($B=0.234$; $t=2.301$; $P\text{-value}=0.021 < .05$). This result confirms the hypothesis that organisational climate has a significant effect on job satisfaction. The results also imply that all other things being equal, a unit improvement in organisational climate will improve job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana by 23.4%.

This result confirms the hypothesis that organisational climate significantly affects job satisfaction. The results also imply that all other things being equal, a unit improvement in organisational climate will improve job satisfaction among YOMBS in Ghana. This suggests that employees have a favourable impression of their interactions with the organisation's rules, structures, principles, coworkers, and supervisors, which in turn bodes well for job satisfaction in the areas of working conditions, interpersonal communication, financial compensation, and supervisory responsiveness (Frank et al., 2018). The results accord with those of several others. For instance, Rinawati and Nasution (2021) discovered a favourable correlation between organisational climate and employee satisfaction in the medical field in Indonesia. Woko et al. (2018) discovered that in Nigerian manufacturing companies, a favourable organisational environment significantly correlates with job satisfaction. Research by Gaunya (2016) found that in Kenya's public sector, there is a positive correlation between organisational climate and worker satisfaction. The results corroborate those of a similar study done in Ghana by Boateng et al. (2014), who likewise discovered a positive correlation between an organisational climate and employee job satisfaction with their jobs in the manufacturing sector.

7.9.2 Effect of transformational leadership style on the organisational climate

The study also proposed examining transformational leadership's impact on the organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana. Table 7.13 show that transformational

leadership has an insignificant direct effect on organisational climate ($B=0.078$; $t=1.455$; $P\text{-value}=0.146 > .05$). This result does not support the hypothesis that transformational leadership has an significant positive effect on organisational climate. The results also imply that all other things being equal, a unit improvement in transformational leadership may not have any effect on the organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana by 8%.

The result was inconsistent with the literature as previous studies have shown significant positive relationships between transformational leadership and organisational climate; for instance, Garcia (2018) identified a favourable correlation between transformational leadership and organisational climate in the Philippines' educational setting. Researchers Gaviria-Rivera and Lopez-Zapata (2019) observed a strong correlation between transformational leadership and organisational climate in the Colombian construction sector. Get (2018) researched Romania and discovered that transformational leadership and organisational climate are positively related. Asare-Danso's (2016) research in Ghana confirms the beneficial correlation between transformational leadership and organisational leadership.

7.9.3 Effect of transformational leadership on job satisfaction

The study again proposed to examine the impact of transformational leadership on job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. Table 7.13 shows that transformational leadership has a significant and positive direct effect on job satisfaction ($B=0.185$; $t=3.858$; $P\text{-value}=0.000 < .05$). This result confirms the hypothesis that transformational leadership has a significant effect on job satisfaction. The results also imply that, all other things being equal, a unit improvement in transformational leadership will improve job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana by 19%.

Consistent with past research, this study indicated that transformational leadership positively relates to job satisfaction. Khan et al. (2020) showed that in the banking business in the United Arab Emirates, there is a favourable correlation between transformational Leadership and Job satisfaction at the United Emirates (UAE). According

to research conducted by Purnomo et al. (2020), which surveyed workers in the service sector in Indonesia, transformational leadership significantly increased employees' levels of job satisfaction. Thomas (2020) discovered a significant positive association between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction in federal agencies in the United States of America. Researchers Puni et al. (2018) discovered that workers at a few different commercial banks in Ghana were more satisfied with their jobs when their executives used a transformational approach.

7.9.4 Effect of leader's emotional intelligence on the organisational climate

The study also proposed examining emotional intelligence's impact on the organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana. Table 7.13 shows that emotional intelligence has a significant and positive direct effect on organisational climate ($B=0.659$; $t=9.841$; $P\text{-value}=0.000 < .05$). This result supported the hypothesis that emotional intelligence has a significant effect on organisational climate. The results of the study is in agreement with Mittal (2016) which revealed that emotional intelligence has a positive impact on organisational climate. Similarly, the results is consistent with Hamidianpour, Esmaeilpour, Alizadeh, and Dorgoe (2015) which suggested that emotional intelligence impacts positively on organisational climate. Additionally, Tîntaru, Schmitz, and Moaşa (2021) also established that employees' emotional intelligence has positive effect on employees' perceptions of organisational climate.

7.9.5 Effect of learder's emotional intelligence on job satisfaction

The study also proposed to examine the impact of emotional intelligence on job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. Table 7.13 shows that emotional intelligence has a significant and positive direct effect on job satisfaction ($B=0.526$; $t=5.148$; $P\text{-value}=0.000 < .05$). This result confirms the hypothesis that emotional intelligence has a significant effect on job satisfaction. The results also imply that all other things being equal, a unit improvement in emotional intelligence will improve job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana by 53%.

The consequence of this finding is that when YOMSB leaders can recognise and manage their own emotions and those of their subordinates, it boosts morale at work. The result aligned with what was found in another research. For example, Lan and Trinh's (2020) research indicated a positive correlation between leaders' emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Downing (2016) performed research in the United States and showed a positive correlation between a leader's emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Kassim et al. (2016) found similar results, concluding that high emotional intelligence in leaders is positively correlated with high work satisfaction among Nigerian university faculty and staff. Korankye and Amakyewaa (2021) conducted research among workers in the Ghanaian telecommunications industry and discovered a good association between the leaders' emotional intelligence and worker satisfaction. Tagoe and Quarshie (2017) conducted research among nurses in Accra and showed a positive correlation between a leader's emotional intelligence and job satisfaction.

7.9.6 Effect of leaders' emotional intelligence on transformational leadership styles

The study also proposed examining the impact of perceptions of leader's emotional intelligent on trasformatinal leaderhip among YOMSB in Ghana. Table 7.13 shows that leader's emotional intelligence has a positive impact transformational leadership ($B=0.176$; $t=2.937$; $P\text{-value}=0.003 < .05$). This result confirms the hypothesis that leader's emotional intelligence has positive effect on perceptions of transformational leadership. The results also imply that all other things being equal, a unit improvement in leaders emotional intelligence will improve emotional intelligence among YOMSB in Ghana by 18%.

The study showed results that matched the existing literature. Previous research has shown that emotional intelligence correlates positively with transformational leadership. For instance, Baba, Makhdoomi, and Siddiqi (2021) researched Northern India and discovered a favourable correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The connection between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among Sri Lankan university presidents was investigated by Sareena and

Kengatharan (2021). According to the findings, transformational leaders tend to have high emotional quotients. Middle-level business executives' emotional intelligence and their capacity for transformational leadership were analysed by Osman et al. (2020). Based on the data, it seems that transformational leadership is practised more often by Sudanese middle-level managers who are emotionally intelligent. Malcolm and Boakye (2017) studied the Ghanaian nursing workforce and looked at how emotional intelligence relates to transformational leadership. The results of the study showed that there exists a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among nursing professionals.

7.9.7 The moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction

The researcher proposed that emotional intelligence moderates the organisational climate and job satisfaction relationship. However, based on the results of the study, it was found that emotional intelligence was not a significant moderator of the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction ($B=0.031$, $t=0.365$, $p=0.715>0.05$). Hence, the hypothesis was not supported. The implication of this finding is that, emotional intelligence is not able to influence the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction. This finding was not consistent with previous literature in which emotional intelligence had been used as a moderating or mediating variable. For instance, in the study that was conducted by Khalili (2017), it was found that emotional intelligence significantly moderated the relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behavior among organisations in Iran. In another study that was conducted by Aslan et al (2021), emotional intelligence significantly mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and strategic leadership as well as transformational leadership and ethical climate.

Since emotional intelligence did not moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction, the researcher went a step further to conduct interviews among twenty (20) participants comprising of ten (10) managers and ten (10) employees

and all their focus was on how to make good profits and improve working conditions of the business environment in which they operate. The respondents further explained that, although emotional intelligence and organisational climate are important to their organisations, it is more of a secondary concern to them because their focus now was to improve business outcomes rather in terms of profit. A respondent was quoted in this manner:

In my opinion, issues of emotional intelligence and organisational climate are very important in our business but for now, most of us are focused on how to make profits and make our businesses survive due to the challenges that the Covid-19 pandemic has brought on our businesses. So, we try to control our emotions and all that and also become good leaders, but that is not really our priority now (Respondent, 5).

7.9.8 Transformational leadership moderates the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction

The results also showed that the indirect effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction through the moderating role of transformational leadership is statistically significant. The result implies that transformational leadership negatively moderates the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The results also mean that any improvement in transformational leadership would dampen the effect of organisational climate on job satisfaction. The result diverge from Haryanto et al. (2022), who also investigated the moderating role of transformational leadership on the relationship between work conflict and employee performance and found that transformational leadership plays a significant positive role in moderating the relationship between work conflict and employee performance at Indonesian Railway Company. The results also contradict Bassem and Joelle (2017), who employed transformational leadership to mediate between emotional intelligence and work satisfaction. Results demonstrated that transformational leadership positively mediated the connection between emotional intelligence and the work environment (Bassem & Joelle, 2017).

were always trying to find ways and means to survive the turbulent external factors affecting their business; hence there was less focus on exhibiting transformational leadership in their respective organisations. A respondent was quoted in this manner:

"It has never been easy with our businesses since the Covid-19 pandemic, and the current economic situation is even worsening the business environment. For most of us, our current focus is on how to make our business survive. The leadership we exhibit does not have many traces of transformational leadership because there is too much pressure even to try to give your employees inspiration and direction" (Respondent, 7).

Table 7. 16: Hypotheses for direct and Indirect relationship

Hypotheses	Path Coefficient	T Statistics	P Values	Results
Organisational Climate -> Job Satisfaction	0.234	2.301	0.021	Supported
Transformational Leadership -> Organisational Climate	0.078	1.455	0.146	Not Supported
Transformational Leadership -> Job Satisfaction	0.185	3.858	0.000	Supported
Emotional Intelligence -> Organisational Climate	0.659	9.841	0.000	Supported
Emotional Intelligence -> Job Satisfaction	0.526	5.148	0.000	Supported
Emotional Intelligence -> Transformational Leadership	0.176	2.937	0.003	Supported
Transformational Leadership x Organisational Climate -> Job Satisfaction	-0.115	2.058	0.040	Supported
Emotional Intelligence x Organisational Climate -> Job Satisfaction	0.031	0.365	0.715	Not Supported

7.12 Chapter summary

As mentioned at the chapter's outset, the goal of this chapter was to report and discuss the study's empirical findings. The study results in relation to the objectives/ hypothesis were mixed, and the summary is presented below.

1. Employees of the YOMSB in Ghana generally perceive their leaders as emotionally intelligent.
2. Generally, employees of YOMSB in Ghana perceive their leaders as demonstrating satisfactory levels of transformational leadership style.
3. Generally, the YOMSB employees in Ghana perceive their organisational climate as satisfactory or conducive to work.
4. Employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceive the level of job satisfaction as somehow satisfactory.
5. There was a statistically significant positive association between organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. The relationship was, however, weak.
6. There was no statistically significant association between transformational leadership and organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
7. There was a statistically significant positive association between transformational leadership and job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. The relationship was, however, weak.
8. The emotional intelligence of leaders and organisational climate relationship was found to be statistically significant and positive among YOMSB in Ghana. The relationship was relatively strong.
9. Leaders' emotional intelligence and job satisfaction was found to be statistically significant and positive among YOMSB in Ghana. The relationship was relatively strong.
10. There was a statistically significant positive association between leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style among YOMSB in Ghana. The relationship was, however, weak.
11. Leaders' emotional intelligence did not moderate the organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. Results from the qualitative data revealed that although emotional intelligence was important, it is more of a

secondary concern to them because their focus now was on improving business outcomes rather in terms of profit.

12. The relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction was negatively moderated by transformational leadership among YOMSB in Ghana. The strength of the moderation was however weak. The explanation of this result from the qualitative data revealed that current monetary challenges facing YOMSB as a result of difficulties in recovering financially from the Covid-19 business disruptions has shifted their focus mostly on financial growth, as compared to managerial issues like transformational leadership. There is therefore extreme work pressure on managers and the work environment has become task oriented.

Thus, with the exception of hypotheses 2 and 7 that were rejected, the rest of the hypotheses were accepted.

CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

As indicated in the previous chapters, the study's main objective was to examine the interactive effect of organisational climate, transformational leadership, and emotional intelligence for employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana. Therefore, several relevant research questions were asked. The conceptual framework was illustrated pictorially in Chapter 5 with the accompanying eight hypotheses. The results and discussion of these tested hypotheses were provided in chapter 7. This current chapter presents the conclusion and recommendation of this study.

8.2 Conclusion based on empirical findings

The study's conclusions were drawn from the descriptive results of the study, and the regression and moderation analyses from the structural equation model, which formed the basis of the acceptance and rejection of the eight hypotheses. Table 8.1 provides a summary of conclusions based on the findings discussed in Chapter 7 followed by a detailed narrative.

Table 8.1: Conclusions on the hypotheses/ objectives

Objectives	Hypotheses	Sig @ (0.05)	Result (Accept/ Reject)	Conclusion
To examine the impact of organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.	H1: A significant positive relationship exists between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction among YOMSB	0.021	Supported	Organisational climate intelligence positively contributes to employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana

To examine the impact of transformational leadership on organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.	H2: A significant positive relationship exists between a transformational leadership style and the organisational climate among YOMSB.	0.146	Not-supported	Transformational leadership style does not positively contribute to organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the impact of transformational leadership on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.	H3: A significant positive relationship exists between transformational leadership style and employee job satisfaction among YOMSB.	0.000	Supported	Transformational leadership style positively contributes to employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the impact of leaders' emotional intelligence on organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.	H4: A significant positive relationship exists between the emotional intelligence of leaders and the organisational climate among YOMSB.	0.000	Supported	Leaders' emotional intelligence positively contributes to organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the impact of a leader's emotional intelligence on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.	H5: A significant positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among YOMSB.	0.000	Supported	Leader's emotional intelligence positively contributes to employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the impact of a leader's emotional intelligence on transformational leadership among YOMSB in Ghana.	H6: A significant positive relationship exists between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership among YOMSB.	0.003	Supported	Leader's emotional intelligence positively contributes to transformational leadership among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the moderating effect of emotional intelligence on the	H7: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between	0.715 0.040	Not Supported	Leaders' emotional intelligence does not moderate (strengthen)

relationship between organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.	organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSB.			the relationship between organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.
To examine the moderating effect of transformational leadership on the relationship between organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.	H8: Transformational leadership moderates the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction.	0.040	Supported	Transformational leadership moderates (weaken) the relationship between organisational climate on employee job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana

8.2.1 Conclusion of objective 1

The first objective of the study was to examine the level of organisational climate in YOMSB in Ghana. The study's findings revealed that the average mean for all the items measuring organisational climate was 3.39 which was above the median value. Therefore, it is concluded that employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceived their organisational climate as somehow satisfactory or conducive for work.

8.2.2 Conclusion of objective 2

The study's second objective was to examine the level level of job satisfaction in Ghana's YOMSB. The study's findings revealed that the average mean for all the items measuring job satisfaction, was 3.25 and this was slightly above the median value. Therefore, it is concluded that employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceive their job satisfaction as somehow satisfactory.

8.2.3 Conclusion of objective 3

The third objective of the study was to examine the perceptions of the level of leader's emotional intelligence in YOMSB in Ghana. The study's findings revealed that the average

mean for all the items measuring leader's emotional intelligence was 3.74 which was slightly above the median value. This means that the level of a leader's emotional intelligence is above average. Therefore, it is concluded that employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceived their leaders as emotionally intelligent.

8.2.4 Conclusion of objective 4

The fourth objective of the study was to examine the perceptions of level of transformational leadership in Ghana's YOMSB. The study's findings revealed that the average mean for all the items measuring transformational leadership was 3.73 which was above the median value. This means that level of transformational leadership displayed is above average. Therefore, it is concluded that employees of the YOMSB in Ghana perceived their leaders are demonstrating satisfactory levels of transformational leadership style.

8.2.5 Conclusion of hypothesis 1

The study's first hypothesis was that H1: There will be a positive relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The study's findings revealed that organisational climate and job satisfaction were significant and positive. This means the hypothesis was accepted. The study, therefore, concluded that organisational climate of the YOMSB is positively related to employees' perception of job satisfaction. In other words, a very conducive working organisational climate enhances employee job satisfaction.

8.2.6 Conclusion of hypothesis 2

The study's second hypothesis was that H2: The association between transformational leadership and organisational climate will be positive. However, the study's findings revealed that the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational climate was insignificant. This means the hypothesis was rejected. The study, therefore, concluded that transformational leadership had no relationship with organisational climate among YOMSB in Ghana.

8.2.7 Conclusion of hypothesis 3

The study's third hypothesis was that H3: There will be a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. The findings of the study revealed that a significant positive relationship existed between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. This means the hypothesis was accepted. The study, therefore, concluded that transformational leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana.

8.2.8 Conclusion of hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis of the study was that H4: there will be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational climate. The study's findings revealed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational climate. This means the hypothesis was accepted. The study, therefore, concluded that a leader's emotional intelligence of the YOMSB was positively related to employees' perception of the organisational climate. In other words, an increase in the leader's emotional intelligence enhances the organisational climate.

8.2.9 Conclusion of hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis of the study was that H5: there will be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The study's findings revealed that a significant positive relationship existed between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. This means the hypothesis was accepted. The study, therefore, concluded that leaders' emotional intelligence of the YOMSB was positively related to employees' perception of job satisfaction. In other words, increasing the leader's emotional intelligence enhances employee job satisfaction.

8.2.10 Conclusion of hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis of the study was that H6: there will be a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The study's findings revealed a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational

leadership. This means the hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the study concluded that leaders' emotional intelligence of the YOMSB positively related to employees' perception of transformational job leadership. In other words, an increase in the leader's emotional intelligence improves transformational leadership.

8.2.11 Conclusion of hypothesis 7

The study's seventh hypothesis was that H7: emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. However, the study's findings revealed that emotional intelligence is not a significant moderator of the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The hypothesis was therefore rejected. The study, therefore, concluded that the leader's emotional intelligence of the YOMSB did not moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

8.2.12 Conclusion of hypothesis 8

The study's, eighth hypothesis was that H8: transformational leadership will moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. However, the study's findings revealed that transformational leadership was a significant negative moderator of the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The hypothesis was therefore rejected. The study, therefore, concluded that transformational leadership among the YOMSB negatively moderated in respect of organisational climate and job satisfaction relationship.

8.3 Recommendations

The recommendation for the study is categorised under two main headings: practices and research.

8.3.1 Recommendations for practice

Firstly, since the study concluded that organisational climate of the YOMSB is positively related to employees' perception of job satisfaction, the study recommends that YOMSBs

should prioritize the development and maintenance of a conducive and positive organisational climate. This can be achieved by implementing policies and practices that foster a supportive, respectful, and collaborative work environment (Makhathini & Van Dyk 2018). Managers and leaders should regularly assess and address the organisational climate, taking into consideration employee feedback and needs. In this regard, creating opportunities for open communication, employee recognition, and professional growth can contribute to a positive climate and, in turn, enhance overall job satisfaction among employees (Madhukar & Sharma, 2017).

Secondly, as the study concluded that transformational leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana, the study recommends the need for YOMSB leaders to actively incorporate and strengthen transformational leadership practices within their organizations. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate employees, foster a sense of purpose and vision, and support individual growth and development. YOMSB leaders should therefore focus on creating a supportive and empowering work environment that encourages open communication, recognizes employee contributions, and promotes a culture of continuous learning and improvement (Lee & Ryu, 2017; Akdeniz & Korkmaz, 2023). By embracing transformational leadership principles, YOMSB leaders can enhance job satisfaction among their employees, leading to increased productivity and overall organisational success.

Thirdly, dwelling on the conclusion that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational climate in YOMSB, the study recommends that YOMSB leaders should prioritize the development of their emotional intelligence as it can have a significant impact on the overall organisational climate. In this regard, YOMSB leaders should undergo training and workshops focused on emotional intelligence to enhance their self-awareness, empathy, and interpersonal skills (Junça Silva, & Almeida, 2023; Surti & Gangal, 2023). By cultivating emotional intelligence, leaders can create a more supportive, collaborative, and positive work environment, which can lead to increased employee satisfaction and performance (Khan, Masrek, & Nadzar, 2017).

Furthermore, building on the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in YOMSB, the study recommends the need for YOMSB leaders to prioritize the development of their emotional intelligence as it directly impacts employee job satisfaction. By enhancing their emotional intelligence, leaders can better understand and empathize with their employees' emotions, needs, and concerns (Goleman, 2021; Maamari & Majdalani, 2017). This understanding can lead to improved communication, support, and motivation, creating a more positive and satisfying work environment for employees (Sergey, Boris, & Nadiia, 2020).

Additionally, based on the conclusion that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in YOMSB, the study recommends the need for YOMSB leaders to actively work on enhancing their emotional intelligence to improve their transformational leadership capabilities (Maamari & Majdalani, 2017). By developing their emotional intelligence, YOMSB leaders can exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors, such as providing vision and inspiration, encouraging innovation, and empowering their employees to reach their full potential.

Moreover, while emotional intelligence did not directly moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction, YOMSB leaders should still recognize its importance in leadership effectiveness. YOMSB leaders should therefore continue to focus on developing their emotional intelligence to improve their interpersonal skills, communication, and overall leadership capabilities (Goleman, 2021). By fostering emotionally intelligent leadership, YOMSB leaders can create a positive and supportive work environment, which can indirectly contribute to increased job satisfaction among employees (Saha, Das, Lim, Kumar, Malik, & Chillakuri, 2023).

Finally, YOMSB leaders should be cautious in their implementation of transformational leadership practices, considering the negative moderating effect found in the study. This is because, while transformational leadership has its benefits, it is essential for leaders to

strike a balance in their approach. YOMSB leaders should focus on understanding the specific needs and preferences of their employees and adapt their leadership style accordingly (Kleinhans, 2017). This could involve incorporating elements of transformational leadership while also considering other leadership approaches that promote a positive organisational climate and job satisfaction.

8.3.2 Policy recommendations

Firstly, since the study concluded that organisational climate of the YOMSB is positively related to employees' perception of job satisfaction, the study recommends that the Government of Ghana should encourage and support YOMSBs in promoting a positive organisational climate by incorporating this aspect into business regulations and support programs. Providing incentives or recognition to YOMSBs that prioritize employee well-being and job satisfaction can motivate businesses to invest in creating a conducive work environment (Wokoma, 2023). Additionally, the government can collaborate with relevant stakeholders, such as industry associations or labor unions, to develop guidelines and best practices for fostering a positive organisational climate in YOMSBs across different sectors.

Secondly, as the study concluded that transformational leadership had a positive relationship with job satisfaction among YOMSB in Ghana, the study recommends the need for the Government of Ghana should consider promoting and incentivizing the adoption of transformational leadership practices in YOMSBs through policy initiatives. This could include providing support and resources for leadership development programs that focus on transformational leadership training. Additionally, the government can collaborate with industry associations and business organizations to raise awareness about the benefits of transformational leadership and provide guidance on its implementation.

Thirdly, dwelling on the conclusion that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational climate in YOMSB, the study recommends the

need for the Government of Ghana to encourage and support the implementation of emotional intelligence training programs for YOMSB leaders through policy initiatives (Geßler, Nezlek, & Schütz, 2021). This can be achieved by partnering with professional development organizations or institutions to offer subsidized or incentivized emotional intelligence training for YOMSB leaders.

Fourthly, building on the conclusion that there is a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in YOMSB, the study recommends the need for the Government of Ghana to consider incentivizing emotional intelligence training and development for YOMSB leaders through policy initiatives. This could include providing tax benefits or subsidies for businesses that invest in leadership development programs focused on emotional intelligence. Additionally, the government can collaborate with relevant stakeholders, such as business associations and educational institutions, to create awareness campaigns and resources that promote the importance of emotional intelligence in leadership roles.

Based on the conclusion that there is a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in YOMSB, the study recommends that the Government of Ghana should support the development of emotional intelligence in YOMSB leaders through policy initiatives. This can be achieved by collaborating with professional organizations or leadership development institutions to offer subsidized emotional intelligence training for YOMSB leaders. Additionally, the government can encourage YOMSBs to prioritize emotional intelligence development by including it as a criterion in business support programs or grant applications.

Finally, while emotional intelligence did not directly moderate the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction, the study recommends the need for the Government of Ghana to support the development of emotional intelligence in YOMSB leaders through policy initiatives. This can be achieved by collaborating with professional

development organizations or leadership institutes to offer emotional intelligence training programs for YOMSB leaders. Additionally, the government can include emotional intelligence development as a criterion in leadership training programs supported by business development schemes.

8.3.3 Recommendation for future research

Based on the findings of the study and the conclusions derived, the researcher recommends the following to future researchers:

Firstly, since the researcher, by means of this study, assessed the moderating effects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership on the relationships between organisational climate and job satisfaction, future researchers can look at the mediating effects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership on the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSB.

Secondly, since the study was conducted within the context of YOMSB in manufacturing and service industries, future researchers can replicate this study within the context of other sector-specific YOMSB. For instance, future researchers can replicate this study among YOMSB in the agricultural, mining, and construction sectors, among others. Lastly, the study was limited specifically to YOMSB in Accra, which is urban in nature. Therefore, it is important for future researchers to replicate this study within the context of YOMSB in other peri-urban and rural areas in Ghana.

8.4 Contributions of the study

There are a number of important contributions that this study makes to both theory and practice. First of all, the study makes practical contributions to SDG 8 in terms of promoting decent work environment for YOMSB in Ghana, through improved organisational climate by means of the adoption of open and autonomous climates that will enhance cooperation and support, as well as creativity and innovation among employees of YOMSB. The study also makes practical contributions for decent work

improvement for employees through the provision of improved salaries, bonuses, effective communication, and supervision, as well as co-worker support, which promotes employee productivity among YOMBs.

From the policy perspective, the study's findings contend that there is a need for government policies to focus on training and capacity building on leadership and organisational management, since transformational leadership skills remain critical for improving organisational climate and job satisfaction among YOMSB. Again, from a policy dispensation, the study includes the argument that government monetary policies must be tailored towards making the business environment more conducive for YOMSB to thrive. In this regard, tax incentives such as tax relief for the early years of YOMS, can help improve the monetary strength of YOMSB and enable them to pay more attention to managerial issues confronting them.

The study addressed significant knowledge gaps identified in the existing literature. Prior research mainly focused on exploring the direct effects between organisational climate, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, and transformational leadership. However, there was limited attention given to investigating the potential moderating roles of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership in the relationship between organisational climate and job satisfaction. The study's novelty stemmed from its examination of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership as moderating variables in the relationships between organisational climate and job satisfaction.

The study also contributed meaningfully to filling contextual gaps existing in literature. This is because, although previous studies had been conducted to assess direct and indirect relationships between organisational climate, employee job satisfaction, emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, none of these studies were conducted within the context of YOMSB in Ghana. In terms of the fact that YOMSB have become a critical aspect of Ghana's economic growth and development, a study of this

nature being conducted within the context of YOMSB, could spur a lot more interest from future researchers.

8.5 Summary of the chapter

This chapter provided the discussions of the study based on the findings of the study. The study shows that transformational leadership weakens the relationship between organisational climate and employee job satisfaction in YOMSB. The study provided recommendations for both research and practices, and it is anticipated that the findings and recommendations presented in this chapter would shape the management of the YOMSB in Ghana and beyond, to enhance overall growth and performance.

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APPENDIX

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE



Dear Sir/Madam,

You have been selected to respond to questions contained in this questionnaire. Your responses would be seen as your perception to the on-going investigation into the impact of the interaction among emotional intelligence, transformational leadership and organisational climate on job satisfaction in selected youth-owned and managed small businesses in Ghana. The success of youth-owned and managed small businesses is seen to be important for job creation and Ghana's overall economic growth trajectory. This study intends to develop a model that would support the growth of these insitutions in Ghana. Your responses would be collected by completing this questionnaire as indicated in each section.

Please note that this study is in fulfillment of the requirement for Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration (PhD) at the Central University of Technology and responses received ***would be used for the stated purpose of academic research only and treated in strict professional confidence.***

Samuel Koranteng Fianko
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SECTION A: PERSONAL DETAILS

Please indicate what applies to you the most

1	Your gender	1 male			2 female	
2	Your age	1 Below 25	2 26-35	3 36-40	4 40 and above	
3	Level of education	1 Secondary	2 Diploma	3 Degree & Above	4 Other	
4	Nationality	1 Ghanaian	2 Permanent Resident	3 Non-Ghanaian		
SECTION B: BUSINESS DETAILS						
5	Type of business	1 Sole proprietor	2 Company	3 Partnership	4 Family business	
6	Number of employees besides owner	1 [1-5]	2 [6-10]	3 [10 and above]		
7	Age of business	1 Less than one year	2 2-5 years	3 6-10 years	4 11 years and above	
8	Type of industry	1 Manufacturing	2 Service	3 other		

SECTION C:1 (EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE)

What are your candid opinions about your manager's level of emotional intelligence at the workplace? Please tick the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5

		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
9	My manager understands the implications of his/her emotions on subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
10	My manager is open to feedback from his/her subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
11.	My manager is confident in the execution of his/her duties	1	2	3	4	5
12.	My manager shows enough patience when dealing with people	1	2	3	4	5

13.	My manager publicly admits to mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
14.	My manager easily adapts to changing situations/circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
15.	My manager sets challenging goals	1	2	3	4	5
16.	My manager initiates actions for the future	1	2	3	4	5
17.	My manager learns from setbacks	1	2	3	4	5
18.	My manager is open to diversity	1	2	3	4	5
19.	My manager understands organisational climate and culture	1	2	3	4	5
20.	My manager matches customer needs to organisational needs	1	2	3	4	5
21.	My manager gives constructive feedback to subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
22.	My manager leads by example	1	2	3	4	5
23.	My manager acts to support change in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
24.	My manager anticipates the impact of his/her actions and words on people	1	2	3	4	5
25.	My manager addresses conflict issues appropriately	1	2	3	4	5
26.	My manager ensures effective co-operation among employees	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C:2 (TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP)						
What are your candid opinions about your manager's leadership style at the workplace? Please tick the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5						
		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
27.	My manager instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	1	2	3	4	5
28.	My manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	1	2	3	4	5
29.	My manager acts in ways that build my respect	1	2	3	4	5
30.	My manager displays a sense of power and confidence	1	2	3	4	5
31.	My manger talks about his/her most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4	5

32.	My manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of decisions	1	2	3	4	5
33.	My manager emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5
34.	My manager talks optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4	5
35.	My manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	1	2	3	4	5
36.	My manager expresses a compelling vision of the future	1	2	3	4	5
37.	My manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5
38.	My manager re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5
39.	My manager seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4	5
40.	My manager gets me to look at problems from many different angles	1	2	3	4	5
41.	My manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	1	2	3	4	5
42.	My manager spends time teaching and coaching	1	2	3	4	5
43.	My manager treats me as individual rather than just a member of a team	1	2	3	4	5
44.	My manager considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C:3 (JOB SATISFACTION)						
Please circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about in the following statements from 1 to 5						
		1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree
45.	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5
46.	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5
47.	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5
48.	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5

49.	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5
50.	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
51.	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
52.	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5
53.	Communications seem good within this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
54.	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5
55.	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5
56.	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5
57.	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organisations offer.	1	2	3	4	5
58.	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5
59.	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5
60.	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5
61.	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5
62.	The goals of this organisation are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C:4 (ORGANISATIONAL CLIMATE)						
What are your candid opinions about your organisational climate at the workplace? Please tick the answer that reflects your views in the following statements from 1 to 5						
	Autonomy	1	2	3	4	5
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
63.	Management let people make their own decisions much of the time	1	2	3	4	5
64.	Management trust people to take work-related decisions without getting permission first	1	2	3	4	5

65.	People at the top tightly control the work of those below them	1	2	3	4	5
66.	Management keeps too tight a reign on the way things are done around here	1	2	3	4	5
67.	It's important to check things first with the boss before taking a decision	1	2	3	4	5
.	Integration	1	2	3	4	5
68.	People are suspicious of other departments*	1	2	3	4	5
69.	There is very little conflict between departments here	1	2	3	4	5
70.	People in different departments are prepared to share information	1	2	3	4	5
71.	Collaboration between departments is very effective	1	2	3	4	5
72.	There is very little respect between some of the departments here	1	2	3	4	5
.	Reflexivity	1	2	3	4	5
73.	In this organisation, the way people work together is readily changed in order to improve performance	1	2	3	4	5
74.	The methods used by this organisation to get the job done are often discussed	1	2	3	4	5
75.	There are regular discussions as to whether people in the organisation are working	1	2	3	4	5
76.	effectively together	1	2	3	4	5
77.	In this organisation, objectives are modified in light of changing circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
78.	In this organisation, time is taken to review organisational objectives	1	2	3	4	5
	Clarity of Organisational Goals	1	2	3	4	5
79.	People have a good understanding of what the organisation is trying to do	1	2	3	4	5
80.	The future direction of the company is clearly communicated to everyone	1	2	3	4	5
81.	People aren't clear about the aims of the company	1	2	3	4	5
82.	Everyone who works here is well aware of the long-term plans and direction of this company	1	2	3	4	5
83.	There is a strong sense of where the company is going	1	2	3	4	5
	Efficiency	1	2	3	4	5
84.	Time and money could be saved if work were better organized	1	2	3	4	5

85	Things could be done much more efficiently, if people stopped to think	1	2	3	4	5
86	Poor scheduling and planning often result in targets not being met	1	2	3	4	5
87	Productivity could be improved if jobs were organized and planned better*	1	2	3	4	5
	Effort	1	2	3	4	5
88	People here always want to perform to the best of their ability	1	2	3	4	5
89	People are enthusiastic about their work	1	2	3	4	5
90	People here get by with doing as little as possible	1	2	3	4	5
91	People are prepared to make a special effort to do a good job	1	2	3	4	5
92	People here don't put more effort into their work than they have to	1	2	3	4	5
	Performance Feedback	1	2	3	4	5
93	People usually receive feedback on the quality of work they have done	1	2	3	4	5
94	People don't have any idea how well they are doing their job	1	2	3	4	5
95	In general, it is hard for someone to measure the quality of their performance	1	2	3	4	5
96	People's performance is measured on a regular basis	1	2	3	4	5
97	The way people do their jobs is rarely assessed	1	2	3	4	5
	Pressure to Produce	1	2	3	4	5
98	People are expected to do too much in a day	1	2	3	4	5
99	In general, peoples' workloads are not particularly demanding	1	2	3	4	5
100	Management requires people to work extremely hard	1	2	3	4	5
101	People here are under pressure to meet targets	1	2	3	4	5
102	The pace of work here is pretty relaxed	1	2	3	4	5
	Quality	1	2	3	4	5
103	This company is always looking to achieve the highest standards of quality	1	2	3	4	5
104	Quality is taken very seriously here	1	2	3	4	5
105	People believe the company's success depends on high-quality work	1	2	3	4	5
106	This company does not have much of a reputation for top-quality products	1	2	3	4	5

	Involvement	1	2	3	4	5
107	Management involves people when decisions are made that affect them	1	2	3	4	5
108	Changes are made without talking to the people involved in them	1	2	3	4	5
109	People don't have any say in decisions which affect their work	1	2	3	4	5
110	People feel decisions are frequently made over their heads	1	2	3	4	5
111	Information is widely shared	1	2	3	4	5
112	There are often breakdowns in communication here	1	2	3	4	5
	Supervisory Support	1	2	3	4	5
113	Supervisors here are really good at understanding peoples' problems	1	2	3	4	5
114	Supervisors show that they have confidence in those they manage	1	2	3	4	5
115	Supervisors here are friendly and easy to approach	1	2	3	4	5
116	Supervisors can be relied upon to give good guidance to people	1	2	3	4	5
117	Supervisors show an understanding of the people who work for them	1	2	3	4	5
	Training	1	2	3	4	5
118	People are not properly trained when there is a new machine or bit of equipment	1	2	3	4	5
119	People receive enough training when it comes to using new equipment	1	2	3	4	5
120	The company only gives people the minimum amount of training they need to do their job*	1	2	3	4	5
121	People are strongly encouraged to develop their skills	1	2	3	4	5
	Welfare	1	2	3	4	5
122	This company pays little attention to the interests of employees	1	2	3	4	5
123	This company tries to look after its employees	1	2	3	4	5
124	This company cares about its employees	1	2	3	4	5
125	This company tries to be fair in its actions towards employees	1	2	3	4	5
	Formalization	1	2	3	4	5
126	It is considered extremely important here to follow the rules	1	2	3	4	5
127	People can ignore formal procedures and rules if it helps get the job done	1	2	3	4	5

128	Everything has to be done by the book 0.591	1	2	3	4	5
129	It's not necessary to follow procedures to the letter around here	1	2	3	4	5
130	Nobody gets too upset if people break the rules around here	1	2	3	4	5
	Tradition	1	2	3	4	5
131	Senior management like to keep to established, traditional ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5
132	The way this organisation does things has never changed very much	1	2	3	4	5
133	Management is not interested in trying out new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
134	Changes in the way things are done here happen very slowly	1	2	3	4	5
	Innovation & Flexibility	1	2	3	4	5
135	New ideas are readily accepted here	1	2	3	4	5
136	This company is quick to respond when changes need to be made	1	2	3	4	5
137	Management here are quick to spot the need to do things differently	1	2	3	4	5
138	This organisation is very flexible; it can quickly change procedures to meet new	1	2	3	4	5
139	conditions and solve problems as they arise	1	2	3	4	5
140	Assistance in developing new ideas is readily available	1	2	3	4	5
141	People in this organisation are always searching for new ways of looking at problems	1	2	3	4	5
	Outward Focus	1	2	3	4	5
142	This organisation is quite inward looking; it does not concern itself with what is	1	2	3	4	5
143	happening in the marketplace	1	2	3	4	5
144	Ways of improving service to the customer are not given much thought	1	2	3	4	5
145	Customer needs are not considered top priority here	1	2	3	4	5
146	This company is slow to respond to the needs of the customer	1	2	3	4	5
147	This organisation is continually looking for new opportunities in the marketplace	1	2	3	4	5

