Effective Leadership considering Emotional Intelligence in a Leadership Environment

Natalie M Pretorius: University of Johannesburg – South Africa
Theuns FJ Oosthuizen: University of Johannesburg – South Africa

The primary objective is to establish whether a potential trend exists between effective leadership and emotional intelligence (EI). This research also investigates whether possible trends exist between leadership and emotional intelligence in terms of the leadership styles: transformational or transactional leadership. Insight is also gained into whether male or female student leaders practice either transformation or transactional leadership styles. The sample was identified as the student leaders at the University of Johannesburg's Auckland Park Kingsway campus. The sample ultimately included 123 respondents for all the committees in the institution, resulting in a very positive response rate for data analysis. The findings revealed that there was insufficient evidence to support the objective that specific trends exist between leadership effectiveness when considering emotional intelligence or whether emotional intelligences relates more strongly with a transformational or transactional leadership style. However relevant relationships between female respondents and the transformational leadership style could be established.

Introduction

The focus of this research project is to investigate and identify whether a potential trend exists between effective leadership expressing emotional intelligence (EI), as investigated at the University of Johannesburg's Auckland Park Kingsway Campus. Effective leaders have been identified as those who display a transformational rather than a transactional leadership style (Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001: 5). Thus this was one of the aspects investigated relating to student leaders. Emotional intelligence (EI) correlates with components of transformational leadership suggesting that it is an important component of effective leadership. In particular emotional intelligence may account for how effective leaders monitor and respond to subordinates in the working environment (Mader, 2007:5).

Whetten (2001:6) noted "Management skills form the vehicle by which management strategy, management practice, tools and techniques, personality attributes and style work to produce effective outcomes in organisations". In the last decade, there has been a growing body of research regarding the importance of emotional intelligence for successful leadership. Underlying the research interest is the view that people with high emotional intelligence competencies are more likely than less emotionally intelligent people to gain success in the workplace (Carmeli, 2003: 788).

Much has been said about the emotional basis of effective leadership:

- "Emotional Intelligence is the single greatest driver of effective leadership" (Mader,2007:5).
- "Leaders must develop healthy relationships and manage conflict while achieving productive goals. To accomplish this mandate, leaders need emotional intelligence skills to build, maintain, and strengthen partnerships within and outside their organisations" (Turner, 2007:1).
- "Executives with a higher emotional intelligence level are more likely to achieve business outcomes and be considered as effective leaders by their subordinates and direct managers" (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005:394).
- "The day they give you the title, you become a manager. But becoming a leader may take a lot longer. If being a manager is about what you do, becoming a leader is about

learning and trusting in who you are – the personal qualities and skills that inspire people to work with you fall under the greater heading of emotional intelligence" (Mackenzie & Welch, 2005:13).

- "It is in the realm of self-awareness, intuition and emotion that we should look for the lost keys of management" (Argyris, 2002:206).
- "Effective leaders with high levels of personal mastery cannot afford to choose between reason and intuition, or the head or the heart any more than they would walk on one leg or see with one eye" (Goleman, 1996:7).

The above comments implicate the relevance of emotional intelligence to ensure effective leadership. Emotional Intelligence has become increasingly popular as a measure for identifying potentially effective leaders and as a tool for developing effective leadership skills (Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001:5). Research examining the utility of emotional intelligence in predicting effective leaders is gaining momentum (Goleman, 1995:8, 1998a:90, 1998b:93, 2000:17; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001:5-10; George, 2000:1027-41; Sosick & Megerian, 1999:367-91; Watkin, 2000:89-92; Dulewicz, 2000:1-14; Miller, 1999: 25-6). Emotionally intelligent leaders are thought to be: happier and more committed to their organisation (Abraham, 2000:169); achieve greater success (Miller, 1999:25); perform better in the workplace (Goleman, 1998b:93; Watkin, 2000:89); take advantage of and use positive emotions to envision major improvements in organisational functioning (George, 2000:1027); and use emotions to improve their decision making and instill a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation in other employees through interpersonal relationships (George, 2000:1028).

Past researchers also suggest that EI is linked to a transformational leadership style (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000:157; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001:6; Gardner & Stough, 2002:68). Transformational leaders are seen as those executives that are able to create a vision, communicate this vision, build commitment amongst subordinates to the vision and model the vision within the workplace (Gardner & Stough, 2002:68). Transactional leaders are viewed more as managers that maintain the status quo (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005: 388). Their focus is on linking job performance to rewards and ensuring subordinates have the necessary resources to undertake their roles. It is felt that transformational leaders are able to deal with strategic matters more efficiently and in turn are able to build commitment in employees. These leaders are likely to take an organisation forward. Thus the assumption is that transformational leaders are more effective than transactional leaders, at least in some instances (Bass & Avolio, 1994:10; McShane & Von Glinow, 2000:24).

Emotional Intelligence and Effective Leadership

One variable that has recently gained much popularity as a potential underlying attribute of effective leadership is the construct of emotional intelligence (EI) (Sosik & Megerian, 1999:367). EI is described as a set of abilities that refer in part to how effectively one deals with emotions both within oneself and others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990:185). Daniel Goleman formulated one of the most popular theories of EI in 1995. According to Goleman (1995:5), EI is not about IQ but how we handle ourselves and our relationships, how well we work in a team and our ability to lead other people. He mentions that EI is our ability to recognise our feelings and those of others, to motivate ourselves and to manage our emotions. It has been proposed that in leadership, dealing effectively with emotions may contribute to how a person handles the needs of individuals, how a person effectively motivates employees, and makes them 'feel' at work (Goleman, 1998b:93). Today's effective leadership skills have been described to depend, in part, on the understanding of emotions and the abilities associated with EI (Goleman, 1998:95).

Two distinctive leadership types have been identified, transformational and transactional. Bass and Avolio (1990b:22) postulated that transformational leadership builds on transactional leadership, broadening the effects of the leader on effort and performance. Bass (1998:4) explains that leadership should furthermore address the follower's sense of self worth in order to engage the follower in true commitment and involvement. In other words this is what transformational leadership adds to the transactional exchange. Furthermore, Van Eron and Burke (1992:151) state that whereas transactional leadership behaviour is most likely to be congruent with a stable

environment and mechanistic structure, transformational leadership is more likely to be effective in a turbulent environment with an organismic structure. These two constructs along with their relationship to EI shall be elaborated on in the section to follow.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

There has been little empirical research examining the relationship between emotional intelligence in the workplace and effective leadership. The complementary transformational/transactional leadership model (Bass, 1985:11; Bass & Avolio, 1990:14, 1994:36, 1995:102, 2000:249) has generally provided the framework for the limited examination of these relationships. Originally Burns (1978:15) distinguished between the transformational leader who raises the needs and motivations of followers and promotes dramatic change in individuals, groups and organisations and the transactional leader who addresses the current needs of subordinates by focusing attention on exchanges (reward for performance, mutual support and bilateral exchanges). Bass (1985:11) further developed this paradigm by integrating transformational and transactional leadership, suggesting that both styles may be linked to the achievement of desired goals and objectives. Lowe and Kroeck (1996:385) suggest that any given leader may be both transformational and transactional. Bass defined the transformational leader as one who arouses awareness and interest in the group or organisation, increases the confidence of individuals or groups and attempts to move the concern of subordinates to achievement and growth rather than existence. These leaders seek new ways of working, new opportunities and prefer effectiveness to efficiency (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996:386). Transformational leaders orient their subordinates towards performance beyond established standards and goals, emphasising employee empowerment rather than dependence (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994:787). Interestingly, female gender leadership qualities tend towards a more nurturing, relationships orientated style of leadership that underlies the transformational leadership approach (Pounder & Coleman, 2002: 122)

A transactional leader is described by Bass as one who prefers a leader-member exchange relationship, whereby the leader fulfils the needs of the followers in exchange for their performance meeting basic expectations. This leader has a preference for risk avoidance and is able to build confidence in subordinates to allow them to achieve goals (Yammarino, Spangler & Bass, 1993:81). Male gender leadership qualities are orientated towards the more impersonal, task oriented or transactional approach to leadership (Pounder & Coleman, 2002: 122).

There is a third component to this model known as non-transactional or laissez-faire leadership (Yammarino et al. 1994:782). This is a 'do nothing' style of leadership that creates a negative relationship between leadership and subordinate performance. These leaders are absent when needed, avoid accepting responsibility and fail to follow up on subordinates' requests for assistance (Bass, 1997:130). Pounder and Coleman (2002:123) further noted that laissez-faire leadership amounts to an abrogation of leadership responsibility. Generally in organisations, a transformational leadership style is considered to be more effective than a transactional style, as transformational leaders have been consistently found to promote greater organisational performance (Lowe & Kroeck, 1996:386).

The Transformational/Transactional Model (Bass & Avolio 1990a, 1) describes three types of leadership, namely transformational leadership, transactional leadership and the absence of leadership or laissez faire. Each of the symbols in the blocks in figure 1 represents a leadership style. The following descriptions of each of the above symbols are considered (Bass & Avolio, 1990a:22; Bass, 1998:6, 7; Maritz, 2000:16, 17; Paul, Costley, Howell & Dorfman, 2002:196):

Laissez-Faire (LF): The lowest left end of the model represents the avoidance/laissez-faire leadership. Such leaders are passive and not typically engaged in the work process. They delay decisions and do not set any clear direction with the result being ineffective leadership behaviour.

The transactional leadership style constitutes the middle of the range and consists of three components, namely Management by Exception (Passive), Management by Exception (Active) and Constructive Transactions / Contingent Reward. The three blocks in the middle of figure 1 represent these components.

Management by Exception (Passive) – (MP): A passive form of management by exception characterises leaders who intervene only when necessary to correct deviations after they have occurred, usually when performance problems become serious or chronic. Such transactional leaders usually intervene after mistakes are made in order to correct them and move performance

204

back to previously specified levels. The distinction between active and passive management by exception is primarily based on the timing of the leader's intervention. As explained, these leaders only intervene after mistakes are made and tasks completed (Howell & Avolio, 1993:891).

Figure 1: The full range leadership model
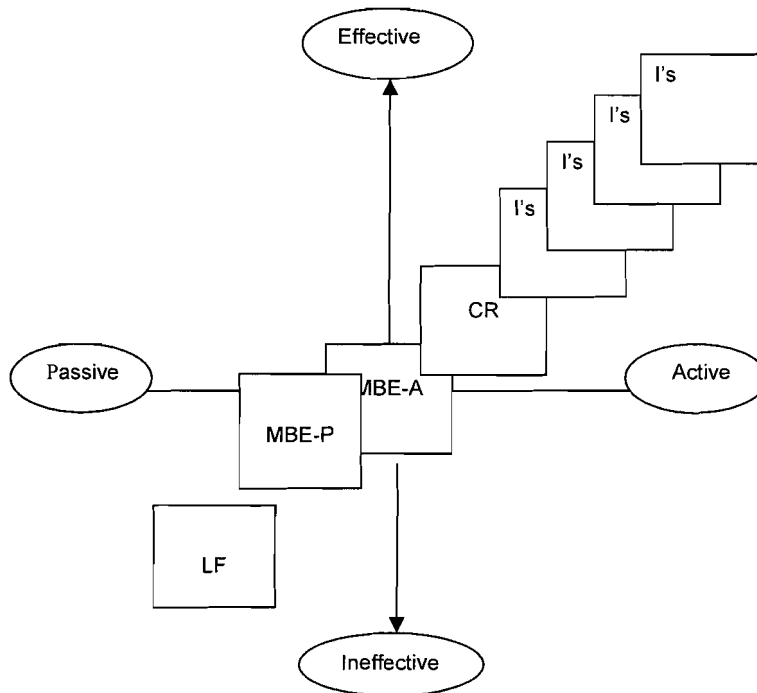
LF: **Laissez-Fair**
MBE-P:**Management by Exception (Passive)**
MBE-A: **Management by exception (Active)**
CR: **Contingent Reward**
I's: **The Four Components / I's (Transformational Leadership)**

Source: Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990a)

Management by Exception (Active) – *(MA):* These leaders establish rules and regulations which they monitor closely for any deviations. They attend to exceptions and focus on the extreme to prevent problems. Active management by exception is an active process of monitoring followers' performance and interventions to correct mistakes (Howell & Avolio, 1993:891).

In both types of management by exception leadership styles the mode of reinforcement is negative contingent reinforcement or punishment rather than the positive reinforcement associated with contingent reward leader behaviour.

Constructive Transactions / Contingent Reward – (CR): Leaders who are transactional enter into agreements with their followers, colleagues or supervisors to complete tasks. Leaders use positive reinforcement upon desired followers' behaviours. Should agreements be established and fully understood, then the performance levels of the followers should be as both parties expect. Contingent reward behaviours can be effective, particularly when leaders have a high level of authority and subordinates' performance is due to skill of effort. However due to time pressures and a general disbelief in the efficacy of contingent reward behaviours many managers are content to intervene only when problems occur. This leadership style is both effective and active, but not optimal particularly in a changing environment.

205

The four overlapping blocks on the right upper side of figure 1 represent the transformational leadership style:

The Four Components / I's (Transformational Leadership): The four I's represent the higher end of the model where the greatest potential gains in commitment, motivation and performance are expected. These components of transformational leadership include the following types of leaders:

Idealised influence (II): leaders set high standards for ethical and moral conduct. Followers are encouraged to use their leaders as role models and the term is also described as charisma. These leaders are admired, respected and trusted. At the core of idealised influence is the creation of values which inspire, provide meaning for and instill a sense of purpose in people (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:15; Bass, 1998:5; Maritz, 2000:17).

Inspirational motivation (IM): leaders energise followers by examples they set, visions they espouse and the optimism they demonstrate for a better future. Raising the consciousness of workers about the organisation's mission and vision, and encouraging others in understanding and committing to the vision is a key facet of inspirational motivation. It furthermore addresses the principle of organisational existence rather than the personality of the leaders (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:14; Bass, 1998:5; Maritz, 2000:17).

Intellectual stimulation (IS): leaders challenge followers to think differently and explore new models and methods, which challenge the leader's preferred way of thinking. These leaders encourage creativity and accept challenges as part of their job. The intellectual stimulation leadership approach together with individualised consideration build character and organization skill through caring leadership behaviours that coach and challenge (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:14; Bass, 1998:5-6; Maritz, 2000:17).

Individualised consideration (IC): focused leaders learn how to identify the best possible ways to develop followers, colleagues and supervisors to their full potential. It deals with the fundamental transformational leadership behaviours of treating individuals as important contributors to the workplace. These leaders show consideration for their workers' needs and are prepared to encourage and coach the development of appropriate work place behaviour Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991:13; Bass, 1998:6; Maritz, 2000:17)

Transformational leadership has therefore been described as the composite of idealised influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), individualised consideration (IC) and intellectual stimulation (IS) as reflected in figure 1. Bass (1997:134) notes that the components' order on the second dimension, namely effectiveness, furthermore places the three leadership styles on a continuum of effectiveness. Transformational leadership tends to be the most effective leadership style, followed in order of effectiveness by Contingent Reward, Active Management by Exception, Passive Management by Exception and Laissez-Faire leadership being the least effective.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Sample and methodology

The total sample size consisted of student leaders in all residences (house committees – HK), dayhouses and student representative council (SRC) from the University of Johannesburg's Auckland Park Kingsway Campus. Approval was gained from the Dean of Students to sample all house committee members as well as the SRC on the specified campus to participate in the study. In total 123 usable sets of questionnaires were received out of a possible 125 and could be utilised for the purpose of the study. These students are part of the 2006/2007 student leaders who may or may not have held these positions previously. A survey study was utilised to test the research objectives. The specific design is a cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997:34). Thus leaders for the 2006/2007 term participated in the study as they were the current leaders at that point in time. The researcher made use of sampling whereby chosen respondents from the residences, dayhouses and SRC at the University of Johannesburg's Auckland Park Campus, were used. The data gathering process was performed by means of the respondents in the identified residences, dayhouses and SRC. The researcher provided instructions to the respondents regarding completion of the questionnaires.

Data collection method

The raw data scores obtained by the respondents on the questionnaires was analysed by the Statistical Consultation Services (Statkon) at the University of Johannesburg. After the interpretation and report writing was finalised, feedback was provided to the Dean of Students at the Auckland Park campus.

First and second order factor analysis was done and factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were considered statistically significant. The general purpose of factor analytical techniques is to find a way to condense the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of new, composite dimensions or variates (factors) with a minimum loss of information (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006:107). First and second order factor analysis was examined for both emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Five factors were retained for first order factor analysis of emotional intelligence:

- Factor 1: self awareness and relationship management
- Factor 2: empathy and self motivation
- Factor 3: emotional management and relationship management
- Factor 4: emotional management and relationship management
- Factor 5: emotional management and relationship management

Two factors, being emotional management and relationship management were retained for second order factor analysis of emotional intelligence.

Ten factors were retained for first order factor analysis for leadership effectiveness

- Factor one: implementing a vision
- Factor two: team playing and transformational leadership
- Factor three: creating a vision and achieving results
- Factor four: achieving results and transactional leadership
- Factor five: implementing a vision and following through
- Factor six: creating a vision
- Factor seven: following through and achieving results
- Factor eight: achieving results
- Factor nine: developing followers
- Factor ten: implementing a vision.

The aspects of following through and implementing a vision together as well as the relationship between team playing and achieving results were important characteristics for second order factor analysis for leadership effectiveness.

T-test comparisons between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were also completed. In the current study the t-test was useful in comparing males and females and the averages thereof with each of the first and second order factors discussed above as well as transformational and transactional leadership.

A standardised questionnaire was not obtained for the study and instead the researcher investigated a combination of instruments. With the assistance of Statkon, two unique questionnaires were set up; one to test emotional intelligence and the other to test leadership. A separate demographic section was set up to establish an overall profile of the leaders on the Auckland Park Campus. The emotional intelligence questionnaire measures the students level of EI and determines factor analytically which aspects are deemed important to the students in terms of EI with a five-point scale that ranges from 5 (very rarely or never true of me), 4 (rarely true of me), 3 (occasionally true of me), 2 (often true of me), and 1 (very often true of me). The aspects tested for EI are self awareness, emotional management, self motivation, empathy and relationship management. The leadership questionnaire measures the different leadership styles being transformational and transactional leadership, whereby participants indicated how they perceive their leadership style with a four-point scale that ranges from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (agree), 4 (strongly agree).

Findings

The demographic distributions for the total group are reported in Table 1 – Table 4 below. The specific demographic sections are age; gender; current educational level; HK/SRC position;

terms served on HK/SRC; specific organisation involved with, leadership positions held at school; and leadership in a specific area.

Table 1: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
19 Years and younger	5	4.1	4.1
20 years	43	35.0	39.0
21 years	36	29.3	68.3
22 years	24	19.5	87.8
23 years or older	15	12.2	100.0
Total	123	100.0	

Most students are eligible to stand for a house committee (HK) or the Student Representative Council (SRC) during their second year of studies at the university. Thus the table clearly indicates only 4.1% of students who are 19 or younger hold a leadership position, whilst the majority of students are 20 (35%) and 21 (29.3%) years of age who currently hold a leadership position.

Table 2: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	61	49.6	49.6
Female	62	50.4	100.0
Total	123	100.0	

The study is investigating whether any difference in potential trends between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness amongst male and female student leaders exists. An even split between male (49.6%) and female (50.5%) leaders is represented in the table above. It is not known whether these results are in line with the University of Johannesburg's gender equity policy as the university is currently drafting the document.

Table 3: Educational level

Education	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Undergraduate student	107	87.0	88.4
Post-graduate student	14	11.4	100.0
Sub Total	121	98.4	
Missing	2	1.6	
Total	123	100.0	

Table 3 correlates with table 1 as the young age of the leaders would indicate that they are currently busy with their undergraduate studies (87%) at the university.

Table 4: HK/SRC position

Position	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent

Prim	14	11.4	11.4
Vice-Prim	12	9.8	21.1
Secretary	14	11.4	32.5
Financial Manager	15	12.2	44.7
General HK committee member	61	49.6	94.3
SRC Chairperson	2	1.6	95.9
SRC Vice-Chairperson	1	.8	96.7
General SRC member	4	3.3	100.0
Total	123	100.0	

There are only four executive leadership positions available on a HK (Prim, Vice-Prim, Secretary and Financial Manager) and two executive leadership positions on the SRC (Chairperson and Vice-Chairperson), thus the information above clearly indicates that the majority of student leaders fall into the general HK committee member category (49.6%), which was to be expected. The executive members in the organisation would have been voted to their respective leadership positions by the general HK members by means of a democratic voting system.

When considering the research objective, clear factors emerged from the data for both emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness achieved by means of a second order factor analysis. The analysis indicated that the sample identified greatly with emotional and relationship management in terms of emotional intelligence. Leadership effectiveness related most strongly to aspects of following through, team playing and implementation of a vision. However when utilising a more stringent criterion to determine possible trends between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, no other statistically significant interdependencies were found.

As far as determining whether leadership effectiveness correlates more strongly to a transformational or transactional leadership style in a specific gender, t-tests revealed that the males and females differ in terms of transformational leadership as was found on the 5 percent level of significance. Thus it can be suggested that the females in the sample group are more inclined to a transformational leadership style than the males in the sample group. This potential trend thus supported a secondary objective of the study

Table 5: T-tests for gender

Factors	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Emotional Intelligence: 2nd order: Factor 1	Male	61	1.9869	.61087	.07821
	Female	61	1.9180	.53214	.06813
Emotional Intelligence: 2nd order: Factor 2	Male	61	2.4918	.53272	.06821
	Female	62	2.4577	.44002	.05588
Leadership: 2nd Order: Factor 1	Male	59	3.1416	.28152	.03665
	Female	60	3.2060	.33272	.04295
Leadership: 2nd Order: Factor 2	Male	61	3.3026	.28013	.03587
	Female	58	3.3462	.29818	.03915
Transformational Leadership	Male	60	3.2067	.33742	.04356
	Female	62	3.3387	.36680	.04658

Transactional Leadership	Male	61	2.9967	.36422	.04663
	Female	60	3.0033	.37641	.04859

According to Table 5 the sample was classified as male and female. Females show a slightly greater tendency to the aspects following through, implementing a vision and team playing as were previously discussed in leadership second order factor one and two. These aspects are seen to be components which relate to transformational leadership styles. To ascertain whether these two groups differ in terms of transformational and transactional leadership, independent samples were conducted. A very small difference was noted for the mean between male and female for transformational leadership as well as transactional leadership. An indication exists that females showed a higher sense of transformational leadership style than the male subjects. This supports the findings mentioned above. The independent samples revealed that the two above-mentioned groups differ in terms of transformational leadership as was found on the 5 percent level of significance with a P-value of 0.041, which is < 0.05. Thus it can be suggested that the females in the sample group are more inclined to a transformational leadership style than the males in the sample group. In terms of relating EI more strongly with transformational or transactional leadership styles, no statistically significant interdependencies were found.

Discussion

There was insufficient evidence to support the objective that specific trends exist between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness; there were however relevant relationships between female respondents and the transformational leadership style thus supporting a theoretical objective of the study based on the information presented above regarding transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational leaders guide organisations during times of change which is a given in South African business life (Kruger, 2005: 5). As a result of the merger taking place between the Rand Afrikaans University and the Technicon Witwatersrand many people resisted the change required to establish the University of Johannesburg. Perhaps more transformational leaders were required to successfully assist the change management as this is seen as one of the most important management survival skills of the times (Kruger, 2005:5). It would thus be beneficial to teach student leaders transformational leadership skills to manage any further change successfully that may take place within their new environment. A study by Frazer (1994:41) involving 246 RAU students further indicated that males prefer thinking and that females prefer feeling. This is in line with transactional leadership which prefers a 'thinking' style of leadership, whilst transformational leadership sees 'feeling' as a way to determine leadership.

In a study by Maritz (2000:17, 18), 7 562 South African leaders were measured and the normative data was compared with the ideal and international leadership profiles. He states that South African leaders however possess the potential leadership characteristics and behaviour to become more transformational and surpassed the international sample in exhibiting transformational leadership behaviours. Thus the study is in line with the above mentioned information in that a portion of the sample follows a transformational leadership style whilst other are still set in the transactional way of leading.

Collectively, the findings of the current study suggest that emotional intelligence as measured by the ability to monitor and manage emotions within oneself and others may be an underlying competency of transformational leadership and even effective leadership. Barling et al. (2000:157), reported in a study examining leadership styles and emotional intelligence of 49 managers, that they reported the highest correlations between emotional intelligence and inspirational motivation, indicating that the emotional intelligence dimension of understanding emotions is particularly important in leadership effectiveness. This finding is in line with the finding that the respondents in the study identified most greatly with emotional and relationship management (EI, second order, emotional management and relationship management). Although no clear correlation was established with leadership effectiveness this does provide justification for the potential utility of emotional intelligence in leadership research and applications.

210

Palmer and Stough (2001:86) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership and found significant correlations between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence, for instance; the ability to monitor and the ability to manage emotions in oneself and others were both significantly correlated with the inspirational motivation and individualised consideration components of transformational leadership. In the present study it was found that females have a greater tendency to a transformational leadership style and we can therefore assume that there would perhaps have been a correlation between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence.

Barling et al. (2000: 157) further identified in their study that the outcomes of leadership (extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction) were all found to correlate significantly with the components of emotional intelligence. Each outcome of leadership correlated the strongest with the dimension of understanding emotion. According to Bass (1997:130), extra effort is considered being able to get others to do more than they expected, to try harder and to desire success; effectiveness occurs when job-related needs are met and the individual is leading an effective group; and finally satisfaction is achieved when the individual is working with other team members in a satisfying way. These findings coincide with the finding of the present study regarding leadership in that one of the factors indicated in the factor analysis was that of team playing and achieving results, as well as emotional management as a factor for emotional intelligence, indicating that a relationship could possibly have existed between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness.

A study by Gardner et al. (2002:75) reiterates the outcomes of Barling et al. (2000:157) study, in that they believe that successful leaders who are able to manage positive and negative emotions with themselves and within others are able to articulate a vision for the future, talk optimistically, provide encouragement and meaning, stimulate in others new ways of doing things, encourage the expression of new ideas and intervene in problems before they become serious. This finding is expressed in both the EI and Leadership factor analyses findings of emotional and relationship management as well as implementing a vision and team playing in order to achieve results. The ability to recognise emotions within oneself and to express those feelings to others is important for leaders in enabling them to take advantage of and use their positive emotions to facilitate organisational performance and also to evaluate the relevance of their own emotions in workplace settings. The ability to identify and understand the emotions of others in the workplace is important for leaders, so that they can influence the feelings of subordinates to maintain enthusiasm and productivity. Leaders need to be able to manage both the highs and the lows of their team to maintain organisational effectiveness. The ability to control emotions experienced at work is integral to effective leadership. A leader needs to maintain a positive appearance to subordinates in order to instill feelings of security, trust and satisfaction and thus maintain an effective team.

More than a third of the student leaders are 20 which is 35% of the total sample group. These leaders are seen to be very young and maturity could be a contributing factor reflecting the ability of these student leaders to establish a link between EI and leadership. They are still in an early learning phase in their lives and their skills will become fine tuned once they gain more experience in the workplace. This would then possibly have a different outcome should their EI and leadership effectiveness be restudied later in their lives.

The student leaders' education could also influence their EI and leadership abilities. It is appropriate that academic development be the prime goal of universities. However, a tertiary education should also be provided to graduates with the skills to succeed in the workplace and in their personal lives. Furthermore, there is a significant body of research which indicates that EI and other non-traditional measures are just as predictive of success as traditional IQ tests (Lowmax, Jackson & Nelson 2004:45; Low & Nelson 2005: 7; Stottlemyer 2002:67). The published studies measuring the EI skills of business students all concluded that these skills should be incorporated into the university courses. For example, after evaluating the EI of undergraduate business majors, Rozell, Pettijohn and Parker (2002: 272) concluded that 'emotional intelligence should be included within the core skills taught in training and development programs' at university (Rozell et al. 2002:287). In addition, Vela (2003:130), who studied the role of EI in academic achievement for his doctoral dissertation, asserted that it is imperative that students are provided with early interventions that involve emotional intelligence skills building' (Vela, 2003:130).

A study of the EI levels of business students found that the non-accounting majors demonstrated significantly higher levels of EI than the accounting majors, even though accounting majors had significantly higher grade point averages (Esmond-Kiger, Tucker & Yost, 2006:35). The researchers suggested that this may mean that particular attention should be paid to improve EI competencies of accounting students and accounting graduates in early employment. This is consistent with the growing recognition within the accounting profession of the need to develop a good interpersonal and EI skills base at university. In another study, where EI skills were introduced in the assessment component, it was concluded that 'students in leadership courses should be more than simply bystanders when studying the impact of emotions and emotional intelligence on performance' but requires 'active personal involvement' (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003:21). Similarly in the study on the integration of the teaching of EI competencies, Brown (2003:122) found that understanding their own emotions allowed students to improve their interpersonal skills and build trust and empathy.

Recommendations and implications

Questionnaires should be provided to the students at the beginning of their student leadership term to ensure the largest sample size availability as well as willingness to participate in the study. The experiential knowledge gained through the empirical study results and the theoretical knowledge gained through the literature results could then be communicated to the participant and their organisations and put into practice during their term of office.

The same research could be conducted using standardised measures for emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. This would give an entirely new meaning to the study. This information could be located on a central database in a leadership training facility. Student leaders could be requested to go to the centre once a year and take similar tests each time they go. They usually answer demographic questions and student leadership success could be included in these sections. It may be useful to use this test, demographic and success data in the training centre to study changes over time in these leaders who attempt to improve themselves. This would be applicable to student leaders who complete more than one term in a position. It might also be helpful to investigate exactly which attitudes, behaviours, or skills lead to greater success. It is possible that there is a subset of these that have a more causal value than the others. It is also possible that for some people certain of these elements are more important than for others, leading to a broader list of elements that are causal to success.

The respondents involved in the study may be described as students who have not yet developed EI and leadership skills. Therefore an EI and leadership development intervention focusing on developing EI and transformational leadership skills in an ever-changing student environment is recommended. Leaders may be focused on non-transformational and transactional functions due to outdated organisational structures and reward systems. Fostering an environment for EI skills and transformational leadership in an organisation is as important as developing transformational leaders who are better able to cope, deal and manage change. The greater the orientation towards transformational leadership, the better the group will cope with change and in this specific case the male sample group is in specific need of change management training and development. These skills would be invaluable later in their lives in any working environment. The development intervention could specifically include those aspects identified by the factor analyses for EI and Leadership for student leaders: self awareness; relationship management; empathy; self motivation; emotional management; leadership development; following through; implementing a vision; team playing; and achieving results.

Research suggests strongly that EI can be learned (Gill, 2002:30). A program could be established to develop EI and leadership in a student environment which could involve generating anxiety by imposing challenging tasks in student work related leadership projects such as a business simulation and physical activities that could include rock climbing, scuba diving or caving and fields projects. Anxiety is extinguished by enabling participants to discover their personal strengths. The focus would be on handling aggression, resolving conflict, reviewing individual and team performance and establishing effective working relationships. The tasks and activities would comprise defining and solving problems, establishing objectives, planning, organising team and physical resources and implementing team action. Competition between committees would be

fostered but without risk of ego damage, and group dynamics among participants would be facilitated. The success of such a course that would aim to develop EI and leadership would depend on the degree to which participants can make progress along their own emotional learning curve. The following key areas according to Gill (2002:30) could be focused on in helping participants to develop their EI:

- Create situations that heighten individuals' self-awareness;
- Create a learning environment that allows and encourages individuals to reflect on their emotions;
- Do not try to change people;
- Give individuals full responsibility for their own learning;
- Give people an expertly facilitated learning environment so that they can act outside their comfort zone;
- Allow and encourage participants to reflect on the emotional needs of other people.

Research supports the idea that managers can be trained to use transformational leadership (Barling et al. 2000: 160). If the association between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence is replicated, research should focus on whether emotional intelligence can also be developed through training. If this is indeed possible, considerable benefits could accrue to individual leaders and to organisations.

Participants in the study were university students, who might have different conceptions of intelligence and gender roles in leadership than older adults with different educational backgrounds and experiences. Thus future research could investigate awareness creation between male think versus femininity in a leadership context. This would provide a better understanding and tolerance amongst men and women in leadership positions and in a team environment.

A final recommendation to develop and establish emotionally intelligence leaders could be through service-learning, integrating community service into a course for student leaders. This would provide student leaders with tangible experience of what exists beyond the classroom. Service learning fosters intensive, consultative relationships between students, their teachers and community organisations. It requires reflection and adds to a student's personal and professional growth, while helping to build an appreciation for community involvement.

References

Abraham R. 2000. 'The role of the job control as a moderator of emotional dissonance and emotional intelligence – outcome relationships'. *The Journal of Psychology.* vol. 134. pp. 169-84.

Argyris C. 2002 'Double-loop learning, teaching and research'. *Academy of Management Learning and Education.* vol.1. no. 2. pp.206-18.

Ashkanasy NM & Dasborough MT. 2003. 'Emotional awareness and emotional intelligence in leadership teaching'. *Journal of Education for Business.* vol. 79, no. 1, p. 21.

Avolio BJ, Waldman DA & Yammarino FJ. 1991. 'Leading in the 1990s: the four I's of transformational leadership'. *Journal of European Industrial Training.* vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 9-16.

Barling J, Slater F & Kelloway K. 2000. 'Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: and exploratory study'. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal.* vol. 21. no. 3. pp. 157-61.

Bass BM. 1985. *Leadership and Performance beyond Expectations.* Free Press. New York. NY.

Bass BM. 1998. *Transformational leadership industrial. military and educational impact.* London. Lawrence Erlbaum Ass.

Bass BM. 1997. 'Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundries?'. *American Psychologist.* vol.52. no.2. pp.130-139.

Bass BM & Avolio BJ. 1990a. *Full Range leadership development: basic workshop*. Randburg. JHB: Productivity Development.

Bass BM. & Avolio BJ. 1990b. 'Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*. vol. 14, no. 5. pp. 21-27.

Bass BM & Avolio BJ. 1994. *Improving Organizational Effectiveness through Transformational Leadership*. Sage Publications. Thousand Oaks. CA.

Bass BM & Avolio BJ. 1995. *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. Mind Garden. Palo Alto. CA.

Bass BM & Avolio BJ. 2000. *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Technical Report*. Mind Garden. Redwood City. CA.

Brown RB. 2003. 'Emotions and behavior: Exercises in emotional intelligence'. *Journal of Management Education*. vol. 27. no. 1. pp. 122-134.

Burns JM. 1978. *Leadership*, New York: Harper & Row.

Carmeli A. 2003. 'The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes. behavior and outcomes'. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. vol. 18. no. 8. pp. 788-813.

Dulewicz V. 2000. 'Emotional intelligence: the key to future successful corporate leadership?'. *Journal of General Management*. vol. 25. pp. 1-14.

Esmond-Kiger C, Tucker ML & Yost CA. 2006. 'Emotional Intelligence: From the Classroom to the Workplace'. *Management Accounting Quarterly*. vol. 7, no. 2. pp. 35-41.

Frazer M. 1994. *A South African validation of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Unpublished MA dissertation. RAU. Johannesburg.

Gardner L & Stough C. 2002 'Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*. vol. 23. no. 2. pp. 68-78.

George JM. 2000. 'Emotions and leadership: the role of emotional intelligence'. Human Relations. vol. 53. pp. 1027-1041.

Gill R. 2002. 'Emotional Intelligence: Its role in organizational success'. *Training Journal*. Academic Research Library. pp.30-34.

Goleman D. 1995. *Emotional Intelligence*. Bantam. New York. NY.

Goleman D. 1996. *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More than IQ*. Bloomsbury Publishing. London.

Goleman D. 1998a. *Working with Emotional Intelligence*. Bloomsbury Publishing. London.

Goleman D. 1998b. 'What makes a leader'. *Harvard Business Review*. vol.3. pp.93-104.

Goleman D. 2000. 'Intelligent leadership'. *Executive Review*. vol.3. p.17.

Hair JF, Black WC, Babin BJ, Anderson RE & Tatham RL. 2006. *Multivariate data analysis*. Upper Saddle River. New Jersey.

214

Howell JM & Avolio BJ. 1993. 'Transformational leadership. transactional leadership. locus of control. and support for innovation: key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance'. *Journal of Applied Psychology.* vol. 78. no. 6. pp. 891-902.

Kruger S. 2005. *Study Guide for General Management: Change Dynamics M Com.* Department of Business Management. University of Johannesburg

Lowe, KB & Kroeck KG. 1996. 'Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic review'. *Leadership Quarterly.* vol.7. pp. 385-426.

Low GR & Nelson DB. 2005. *Emotional intelligence: The role of transformative learning in academic excellence.* Texas.

Lowmax A, Jackson M & Nelson DB. 2004. *Emotional Intelligence: A new student development model.* National Conference of the American College Personnel Association, Pennsylvania.

Mackenzie I & Welch P. 2005. 'Leading from the heart: developing emotionally leadership'. *Development and Learning in Organisations: An International Journal.* vol. 19. no. 1. pp.13-14.

Maritz D. 2000. 'South African leaders' emergence towards transformational leadership'. Management *Today.* vol. 16. no. 6. pp. 16-18.

McShane SL & Von Glinow MA. 2000. *Organizational Behavior.* McGraw-Hill. New York. NY.

Mader RP. 2007. 'Leaders must have EQ to manage their emotions'. *Contractor.* vol. 54. no. 1, p.5

Miller M. 1999. 'Emotional intelligence helps managers succeed'. *Credit Union Magazine.* vol. 65. pp. 25-6.

Palmer B & Stough C. 2001. *Workplace SUEIT: Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test – Descriptive Report.* Organisational Psychology Research Unit. Swinburne University. AU.

Palmer B, Walls M, Burgess Z & Stough C. 2001. 'Emotional intelligence and effective leadership'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal.* vol.22. pp. 5-10

Paul J, Costley DL, Howell JP & Dorfman PW. 2002. 'The mutability of charisma in leadership research. *Management Decision.* vol. 40. no. 1. pp. 192-200.

Pounder JS. & Coleman M. 2002. 'Women – better leaders than men? In general and educational management it still "all depends"'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal.* vol. 23. no. 3. pp. 122-133.

Rosete D & Ciarrochi J. 2005. 'Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness'. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal.* vol. 26. no. 5. pp. 388-399.

Rozell EJ, Pettijohn CE & Parker S. 2002. 'An empirical evaluation of emotional intelligence: The impact on management development'. *Journal of Management Development.* vol. 21. no. 4. pp. 272-289.
Salovey, P & Mayer, J 1990. 'Emotional intelligence'. *Imagination. Cognition and Personality.* vol. 9, pp. 185-211.

Shaughnessy JJ & Zechmeister EB. 1997. *Research methods in psychology.* McGraw-Hill, NY.
Sosick, J & Megerian, J 1999. 'Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance'. *Group and Organization Management.* vol. 24. pp. 367-91.

Stottlemyer BG. 2002. An *Examination of Emotional Intelligence: Its Relationship to Achievement and Implications for Education.* Unpublished D Dissertation. Colledge of Graduate Studies. Kingsville. Texas A & M University. Texas.

Turner T. 2007. 'The need for Emotional Intelligence in Leadership'. *Law Enforcement Bulletin.* vol.10. p.1.

Van Eron AM & Burke WW. 1992.' The transformational/transactional leadership model. A study of critical components'. in KE Clark. MB Clark & ES Campbell (eds). *Impact of leadership.* Greensboro. North Carolina: Center for creative leadership.

Vela RH. 2003. *The Role of Emotional Intelligence in the Academic Achievement of First Year College Students.* Unpublished D Dissertation. College of Graduate Studies. Kingsville. Texas A & M University. Texas.

Watkin C. 2000. 'Developing emotional intelligence'. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment.* vol. 8. pp. 89-92.

Whetton DA. 2001. *Developing Management Skills.* Prentice-Hall. Upper Saddle River. NJ.

Yammarino FJ & Dubinsky AJ. 1994. 'Transformational leadership theory: using levels of analysis to determine boundary conditions'. *Personnel Psychology.* vol. 47. pp. 787-811.