

CHAPTER 1 - POSITIONING OF THE STUDY

1.1. Background to the study

Scientific research on leadership did not begin until the 20th century (Bass, 1981). Since then, there has been considerable research on the subject, from a variety of perspectives. For example, Van Seters and Field (1989) has reviewed the broad realm and long history of leadership theory using an evolutionary developmental approach, which allowed the grouping of many seemingly diverse leadership theories into specific and ordered categories or eras. Each new era represents a higher stage of development in leadership thought processes than the preceding era.

The rapidly changing business environment signified a clear implication to the role of leaders: to lead continuous change (Conger, Spreitzer & Lawler, 1999). A number of studies have demonstrated leadership's strategic importance in the process of change (Kotter, 1982; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Roberts, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Decades ago, leaders worked in steady state environments that allowed them to carefully build relationships and performance strategies. Today the challenge is to constantly adapt to rapidly changing competitive environments. The result is that leaders must learn to juggle current performance with change management (Conger, Spreitzer & Lawler, 1999).

Over the past decade and a half, academics have reached consensus that leadership involves longer-term and more adaptive challenges. They hold that the essential characteristics of leadership include the ability to challenge the status quo, engage in creative visioning for the future of the organisation, and bring about

appropriate changes in followers' values, attitudes, and behaviours through inspiration and empowerment.

Conger, Spreitzer and Lawler, (1999) maintain that there is clear agreement among academics that the key stimulus for change in contemporary business organisations is the environment. Demands for change and transformation are at an all-time high due to intense global competition, deregulation, rapid technological change, and international capital markets. Moreover, organisations that span nations and experience rapid growth through acquisitions and mergers are part of a more complex world that creates dramatic need for change. This challenges the way organisations co-ordinate activities and exchange knowledge and information. It alters the bases of competition and changes the way they add value to the market.

Kotter (1999) maintains that once the leader has formulated a compelling vision, the leader has to help followers understand the necessity of change. This is essential because it creates the motivation for employees to embrace change, implement the new visions and remain committed organisation citizens. Creating a desire for change, means communicating to employees the business case, competitive realities and then identifying major opportunities for change (Kotter, 1999). Cummings (1999) argues that an essential role for the leader is as a designer of new structures, processes, and rewards to support and encourage change.

However, from prior research on leadership, Conger, Spreitzer and Lawler, (1999) argue that we have a limited understanding of the essential leader behaviour required for effective change. Despite this criticism, over the past decade Scandinavian academics have identified a new leadership behaviour dimension in their research, called change- or development-oriented leadership

(Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall, & Arvonen, 1991, 1994; Lindell, & Rosenquist, 1992; Skogstad, & Einarson, 1999). Perhaps their work is a step towards closing this gap in our knowledge on the appropriate behaviour required by leaders in modern-day turbulent organisational environments. It may also introduce another era in the evolution of leadership theory.

The identification of this third leadership behaviour dimension in addition to the two traditional dimensions originated when Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) questioned whether it would be possible for a new leadership dimension to emerge as the conditions of organisational life unmistakably change (Ekvall, 1991). They found that in the 1980s the rate of technological development was significantly higher than it was in the 1940s and 1950s, when the major research programs of Michigan State University and Ohio State University produced the classical leadership dimensions. Change has become the natural state in modern-day organisations (Ekvall, 1991; Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991).

Another construct, emotional intelligence (EI), which has relevance to leadership behaviour in modern-day organisations, emerged in the last decade. Its applications are gaining in popularity. This is illustrated by the publication of over 30 books on EI between 1994 and 1999 (Schutte & Malouff, 1999).

Goleman (1998) claims that effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high degree of EI. Downing (1997) points out that the growth in interest in EI is associated with increasing organisational contextual volatility and change, and points out that organisational change is frequently associated with emotional conflict. Tucker, Sojka, Barone and McCarthy (2000) concur that current changes in the work environment suggest that EI will be of increasing importance to managers in the new millennium. To deal with rapid technological

and social change, individuals need the interpersonal competencies included in the EI construct (Schmidt, 1997).

Palmer, Walls, Burgess and Stough (2001) state that the extent to which EI accounts for effective leadership is currently unknown. They found that despite much interest in relating EI to effective leadership there is little research published that has explicitly examined this relationship.

From the above discussion, it seems that both change-oriented leadership behaviour and emotionally intelligent behaviour are beneficial in leading modern-day organisations. These constructs have never been brought into relation with one another, especially in organisational contexts.

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) suggest that contemporary complex and dynamic environments necessitate particular temporal skills, such as creating future schemata and predictions, that is, a visioning ability that is well developed. Leaders who are capable of visioning and articulating schemata to achieve predictions are most appropriate for organisations in rapidly changing environments. The question arises whether leaders with a strong change-oriented behaviour (which includes a future outlook and the creation of visions of the future) will instil in their subordinates a stronger ability to visualise the future.

People in organisations exercise certain behaviours that are not normally obligatory in their day-to-day work – called organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). These behaviours were found to contribute to the effective functioning of organisations, and consequently to their effectiveness, according to Bateman and Organ (1983). According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) empirical research on OCB has focused on four major categories of antecedents: individual (or employee) characteristics, task characteristics, organisational characteristics and leadership behaviours. Again, the effects of altered leadership

behaviours on subordinate OCB, which include a change-orientation and EI, have as far as could be established, never been tested in any organisational context. Such work may advance our knowledge about the kinds of behaviour that could improve or diminish positive OCB among subordinates and contribute to the effectiveness of organisations.

1.2. Definitions of Constructs used in this study

1.2.1. The meaning of leadership

1.2.1.1. Introduction

Leadership is one of the most complex and multifaceted phenomena to which organisational and psychological research has been applied (Van Seters & Field, 1989). While the term "leader" was noted as early as the 1300's (The Oxford English Dictionary, 1933) and conceptualised even before biblical times, the term leadership has been in existence only since the late 1700's (Stogdill, 1974). In earlier times, words meaning, "head of state," "military commander," "proconsul," "chief," or "king" were common in most societies; these words differentiated the ruler from other members of society (Bass, 1990). A preoccupation with leadership, as opposed to headship based on inheritance, usurpation, or appointment, occurred predominantly in countries with an Anglo-Saxon heritage. Scientific research on the topic did not begin until the 20th century (Bass, 1990). Since that time, however, there has been intensive research on the subject, addressing leadership from a variety of perspectives. For example, Bennis (1959, p. 259) stated that: "Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for the top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioural sciences."

Burns (1978) remarked that leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth. This problem arises not only in understanding the operation of the theory but also its definition. Stogdill (1974) claimed that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as those who have attempted to define the concept.

1.2.1.2. Defining Leadership

Yukl (1994) argues that the term leadership means different things to different people. It is a word taken from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of a scientific discipline without being precisely redefined. As a consequence, it carries extraneous connotations that create ambiguity of meaning (Janda, 1960). Further confusion is caused by the use of other imprecise terms such as power, authority, management, administration, control, and supervision to describe the same phenomena (Yukl, 1994). Bass (1990) corroborates this view by saying that the distinction between leadership and other social influence processes is often blurred. The many dimensions into which leadership has been cast and their overlapping meanings have added to the confusion. Therefore, the meaning of leadership may depend on the kind of institution in which it is found (Spitzberg, 1986). Bennis (1959) concluded that it seems if the concept of leadership eludes us or turns up in another form to taunt us again with its slipperiness and complexity. He states that leadership researchers have invented an endless proliferation of terms to deal with it and still the concept is not sufficiently defined.

Yukl (1994) maintains that researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspective and the aspect of the phenomenon of highest interest to them. To illustrate the multiplicity of leadership definitions, Yukl (1994)

for example, quotes representative definitions over the last half a century as follows:

- Leadership is "the behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p. 7).
- Leadership is "interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation, and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (Tannenbaum, Weschler, & Massarik, 1961, p. 24).
- Leadership is "the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction" (Stogdill, 1974, p. 411).
- Leadership is "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation" (Katz & Kahn, 1978, p. 528).
- Leadership is "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement" (Rauch & Behling, 1984, p. 46).
- Leaders are those who consistently make effective contributions to social order, and who are expected and perceived to do so (Hosking, 1988, p. 153).
- Leadership is a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990, p. 281).

1.2.2. Selection of a leadership definition for this study

Yukl (1994) states that it is neither feasible nor desirable at this point in the development of the leadership discipline to attempt to resolve the controversies

over the appropriate definition of leadership. Like all constructs in social science, the definition of leadership is arbitrary and very subjective (Yukl, 1994). Some definitions are more useful than others are, but there is no "correct" definition. In research, the operational definition of leadership will depend to a great extent on the purpose of the researcher (Campbell, 1977; Karmel, 1978). Bass (1990) concurs that the search for the one and only proper and true definition of leadership seems to be fruitless, since the appropriate choice of definition should depend on the methodological and substantive aspects of leadership in which one is interested.

1.2.2.1. Rationale for selection of a leadership definition for this study

Since this study is focused upon changed-centred leadership behaviour, the work of Rost (1991), *Leadership for the twenty-first Century*, seemed most appropriate to utilise as the operational definition of leadership. Rost's definition is developed as a concept of leadership in the 21st-century and embodies a specific element on change oriented leadership behaviour. This is the only contemporary definition this author found in the literature that specifically articulated real change behaviours intended by leaders and followers. This difference sets the definition apart from any other leadership definitions and/or theories.

1.2.2.2. Development of Rost's (1991) definition of leadership

Rost (1991) set out to develop an understanding of the prevailing 20th century school of leadership, and to identify the definition for the new post-industrial school of leadership appropriate for the 21st century. He stipulates that previously neither the scholars nor the practitioners of leadership have been able to define leadership with precision in order to label it correctly. Additionally scholars and practitioners alike have failed to develop a readily recognisable

school of leadership that integrates the qualitative and quantitative research findings about leadership (Rost, 1991, p. 9).

Rost (1991) studied more than 300 books on definitions of leadership, written in the 1980's alone and many published materials from the 1900 to the 1970s as well as many summaries on the subject (Stogdill, 1974; Bass, 1981; Gibb; 1969). He came to the conclusion that the school of leadership developed since 1930. He argues that this school of leadership has been concealed by the apparent confusion on the subject in the literature he studied. According to him the literature conceptualises leadership as "good management" (Rost, 1991, p. 10). He named the twentieth-century school of leadership: "*Leadership as good management*" (Rost 1991, p. 94).

In summary, Rost (1991) concludes that all of these leadership writings have reflected the industrial paradigm very well. Analysed individually or in its entirety, these leadership theories have been;

- structural-functionalist,
- management-oriented,
- individualistic in focusing only on the leader,
- goal-achievement-dominated,
- self-interested and individualistic in outlook,
- male-oriented,
- utilitarian and materialistic in ethical perspective, and
- Rationalistic, technocratic, linear, quantitative, and scientific in language and methodology (Rost, 1991, p. 27).

He holds that in only one characteristic contradicts the descriptions of the industrial paradigm, that is, the inclination of concentrating on face-to-face and

small group relationships. While this characteristic is pervasive in the management frame, it is not descriptive of the industrial paradigm, which is much more oriented towards impersonal and bureaucratic relationships.

Rost (1991) concludes that the same basic understanding of leadership is embedded in the leadership definitions emanating from all the disciplines that have something to say about leadership: anthropology, history, political science, psychology, sociology, theology, and such applied sciences as business, educational, health, military, and public administration.

In his quest to develop a definition for post-industrial 21st-century leadership and under influence of Burns's (1978) definition of leadership, Rost attempted to create a new school of leadership that consistently and consciously accepts post-industrial assumptions and values.

Burns (1978, p. 425) defined leadership as the reciprocal process of mobilisation of peoples motives and values, through various economic, political and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realise goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers.

Rost (1991) argued that Burns was influenced by the industrial paradigm. His own refined definition for the 21st century post-industrial paradigm of leadership is as follows: "*Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes*" (Rost 1991, p. 102).

He carefully selected every word in the definition to convey very specific meanings that contain certain assumptions and values which are necessary for a transformed, post-industrial model of leadership (Rost, 1991, p. 102).

Following is an outline of the four essential elements of his leadership definition.

1.2.2.3. Definition of Leadership: An outline

From Rost's (1991, p.103) definition, he identifies the following elements that must be present for leadership to exist, or for leadership to occur:

1. The relationship is based on influence.
 - The influence relationship is multidirectional.
 - The influence behaviours are non-coercive.
2. Leaders and followers are the people in this relationship.
 - The followers are active.
 - There must be more than one follower, and there is typically more than one leader in the relationship.
 - The relationship is inherently unequal because the influence patterns are unequal.
3. Leaders and followers intend real changes.
 - Intend means that the leaders and followers purposefully desire certain changes.
 - 'Real changes', means that the changes the leaders and followers intend must be substantive and transforming.
 - Leaders and followers do not have to produce changes for leadership to occur.
 - Leaders intend changes in the present; the changes take place in the future if they take place at all.
 - Leaders and followers intend several changes simultaneously.
4. Leaders and followers develop mutual purposes.
 - The mutuality of these purposes is forged in the non-coercive influence relationship.

- Leaders and followers develop purposes, not goals.
- The intended changes reflect, but do not necessarily realise leaders' purposes.
- The mutual purposes become common purposes.

1.2.2.4. Differences between industrial and post-industrial definitions of leadership

The third element of this definition has a particular importance to this study, since change centred leadership behaviour is the main focus of this study. This concept is derived from Burns's (1978) model of transformational leadership, but surpasses the post-industrial school of leadership (Rost, 1991, p. 114). Real, intended change was never prominent in Burns's model of leadership. The word 'intend' means that the leaders and followers purposefully desire certain changes in an organisation and/or in the society. The desire is not accidental or developed by chance. The intention is deliberate and initiated on purpose (Rost, 1991, p. 114). The leaders and followers intend changes in a present situation. The changes however, if they do take place, happen in the future, defined as any time beyond the present, and do not necessarily result from the leadership relationship. Changes may result from other factors beyond the leadership relationship. This view points to a major difference between Burns's (1978) model of leadership and the post-industrial school of leadership (Rost, 1991, p. 114).

A second difference is that the definition eliminates the notion that leadership has to result in a product - a change that is real and was intended. According to Rost (1991), Burns's (1978) view is mainly product-oriented, and to that extent his model still articulates an industrial concept of leadership. The post-industrial school of leadership proposed by Rost is process oriented. The

definition states: "Leadership is an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect their mutual purposes." Leadership is thus not limited to relationships that achieve results. Rather, leadership occurs when leaders and followers enter into a relationship that intends real changes. Leaders and followers can fail to achieve real changes and still be in a relationship called leadership.

The third difference from Burns' (1978) model of leadership is that the word change has been pluralised in Rost's (1991) definition, in contrast with the singular form that Burns used. Leaders and followers rarely, if ever, intend one change; ordinarily they intend several changes at any one time. The *plural* allows for several important ideas to be included in the new, post-industrial framework. Firstly, changes means that different people in the relationship can emphasise different but related purposes. Secondly, changes indicate that most leadership relationships have a long-term focus. When a change is actually accomplished, the change relationship need not terminate, because those involved in it ordinarily intend further changes. Thirdly, changes suggests that leaders and followers can rarely focus on only one change if they seriously intend real change; real change rarely comes in the singular. Fourthly, changes connote that the intentions regarding one or several changes may themselves change, develop maturity, be reassessed, undergo revision, even disappear as time passes. As a result, the people in the relationship reformulate their intentions.

1.2.3. Three dimensional leadership behaviour construct

Current thinking on leadership styles emphasises two major behaviour dimensions that can be classified as task-oriented and people-oriented. This two-dimensional model of leadership style which focuses on concern for people, and

concern for production, is part of a long tradition in organisational research (Fleishman, 1957a, 1957b; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Likert, 1961; Blake & Mouton, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Ekvall (1991) and Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) identified and factor-analysed a third independent leadership behaviour dimension, not identified by the classical leadership behaviour theorists. This dimension is coined change-focused or change-oriented leadership behaviour.

The first leadership behaviour dimension discussed by Ekvall (1991) reflects a situation in which the manager's behaviour gives his subordinates a sense of security. The leader is consistent, cautious and moderates conflicts. He encourages co-operation, does not seem superior but lets his employees assume responsibility and participate in decisions. As a result the climate is open, trustful and free of conflict. This dimension seemed to be like the traditional leadership dimension, called concern for people, employee-centred, consideration or human relations.

The second dimension of change-orientation relates to leaders who create visions, accept new ideas and are prepared to take risks and encourage co-operation (Ekvall, 1991). This dimension leans more towards change, the future and visioning. In this case the manager is not rigid about sticking to plans but accepts changes. The climate is described as dynamic and energetic, humorous, full of ideas promoting debate. It is a climate in which commitment and motivation are strong. The work organisation is flexible and temporary rearrangements are made when necessary. Managers who strongly exhibit this leadership style are not necessarily consistent, prone to organise or to inspire a sense of security. In certain cases the climate is open and free of conflict, but this is not necessarily true in all cases. The work organisation may allow for a clear indication of demands

and responsibilities and provide clear information about results, but then again, it may not (Ekvall, 1991).

The third behaviour dimension accords exactly with the "initiating structure" factor, also known as production-focused behaviour, identified in the Ohio State University research programme (Ekvall, 1991). This factor describes a manager who imposes order and method (i.e. structure), who is consistent and demands that action should stick to the plans. The work organisation provides for clear rules and responsibilities. Information is supplied about general decisions and results.

The three-dimensional leadership behaviour model is named the CPE model (Ekvall & Arvonen, 1991, 1994). 'C' stands for Change, 'P' stands for Production and 'E' stands for Employee.

1.2.4. Definition of Visioning Ability

Thoms and Greenberger (1995) define visioning ability as an individual's positive vivid cognitive image of an organisation, e.g., success, size, employees, strategic direction and future orientation. This concept implies that different people may have varying abilities to create images of the future (Thoms & Blasko, 1999). Hoyle (1995, p.20) defines visioning as the act of seeing and feeling alternative futures of the organisation that are either in the near (5 to 10 years), middle (10 to 20 years), or far (20 to 50 years) future.

1.2.5. Definition of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB).

Organ and his colleagues invented the term "organisational citizenship behaviour" (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ & Near, 1983). Organ (1988, p.4) defined organisational citizenship behaviours as individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation. By

discretionary, Organ (1988) means that the behaviour is not an enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person's employment contract with the organisation; the behaviour is rather a matter of personal choice, such that its omission is not generally understood as punishable.

According to Bateman and Organ (1983), these behaviours contribute to effective functioning of the organisation, and consequently to its effectiveness.

Turnipseed and Murkison (2000) maintain that commonalties of OCB include behaviours that are extra-role, entirely voluntary, constructive, not formally assigned, non-compensated, but desired by the organisation. In the last decade, Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch (1994) found many terms have been used to describe such behaviour, including organisational citizenship behaviour, prosocial organisational behaviour, extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne & Cummings, 1990), organisational spontaneity (George & Brief, 1992), and even counter-role behaviour (Staw & Boettger, 1990).

1.2.6. Definition of Emotional Intelligence (EI)

Salovey and Mayer (1990) were the authors to coin the construct of emotional intelligence. They provided a comprehensive framework for defining emotional intelligence. First of all emotional intelligence is seen as the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion both in the self and in others. Emotional self-appraisal includes the ability to identify and categorise one's own feelings through words or facial expressions. In relation to others, empathy forms the cornerstone of emotional appraisal through gauging of feelings in others, re-experiencing those feelings, and as a result, choosing socially adaptive responses. Secondly, emotional intelligence is seen as the adaptive regulation of one's own emotions.

Lastly, emotional intelligence is considered as the ability to use emotional knowledge to solve problems.

Emotional intelligence according to Mayer and Salovey (1993, p. 433), is a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions.

Martinez (1997, p.72) provides a more concise definition of emotional intelligence as being an array of non-cognitive skills, capabilities and competencies that influence a person's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures.

Cooper and Sawaf (1997) defines emotional intelligence as the ability to sense, understand and effectively apply the power and acumen of emotions as a source of human energy, information, connection and influence.

Weisinger (1998, p. xvi) defines emotional intelligence as the intelligent use of emotions. In this way one intentionally use your emotions to guide your behaviour and thinking in ways that enhance desired results.

1.3. Objectives of this study

Conger, Spreitzer and Lawler (1999) stated that the rapidly changing business environment added a clear implication to the role of leaders, that is, conducting continuous change. However, they also argue from prior research on leadership, that we have a limited understanding of the important leader actions and behaviours required for effective change. The goal of this study is to contribute to scientific knowledge about change-oriented leadership behaviours and thereby increase our understanding in this field. Individuals in managerial

positions will be seen as leaders or individuals who have at least some leadership tasks.

The leadership definition of Rost (1991) is utilised as the operational definition for the purpose of this study. His is the only contemporary definition that was found in the literature that specifically articulated real change behaviours intended by leaders and followers. This rather novel definition could serve as a foundation for developing leadership theory based on change that is essential for post-industrial 21st century organisations.

The first objective of this study is the replication of the Scandinavian work on the three-dimensional leadership behaviour construct in a South African cultural context. This has as aim the revalidation and testing of the portability of the CPE scale to a South African cultural setting. It is also a step in addressing the shortcomings in our knowledge on the appropriate behaviour required by leaders in modern-day turbulent organisations, functioning in an ever-changing environment.

The second objective is to relate three additional new constructs to the three-dimensional leadership behaviour construct. The first construct is emotional intelligence, which recently gained exceptional popularity. It is claimed that effective leaders all have a high degree of EI, that the interest in EI is associated with increasing contextual change, and to deal with technological and social change, individuals need the interpersonal competencies included in EI (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000; George, 2000). However, the extent to which EI forms part of effective leadership is currently unknown. Despite much interest in relating EI to effective leadership there is little research published that has explicitly examined this relationship. Relating leaders' EI to leaders' behaviour styles according to the

CPE model could enlighten our understanding of the relationship between leader EI and associated leader behaviour styles.

The second construct that will be related to the CPE construct is visioning ability. It is argued that leaders who are capable of visioning and articulating schemata to achieve predictions are most appropriate for organisations in rapidly changing environments. This study has as objective to determine whether leaders with a strong change-oriented behaviour according to the CPE construct (which includes a future outlook and the creation of visions of the future) might instil in their subordinates a stronger belief in their ability to visualise the future.

Finally, the construct organisational citizenship behaviour, has been identified as an important outcome of leadership behaviour (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine & Bachrach, 2000). The effects of change-oriented leadership behaviour and leaders' EI, on subordinate OCB have as far as could be determined not been tested in any organisational context. Thus, another objective of this study is to verify the relationships between leader behaviour (with the CPE model) and leader EI, with subordinate's OCB. Such work may advance our knowledge about the kinds of behaviour that might improve or diminish positive OCB among subordinates, and which could therefore contribute to the effectiveness of organisations.

The objectives of this study as discussed above are schematically summarised in Figure 1.1. The solid lines show the main relationships that will be investigated. In addition, as a secondary set of objectives, the existence of relationships shown by the dashed lines will also be investigated in order to determine whether there are relationships between the visioning ability of subordinates and the EI of leaders, and the visioning ability of subordinates and the OCB of subordinates.

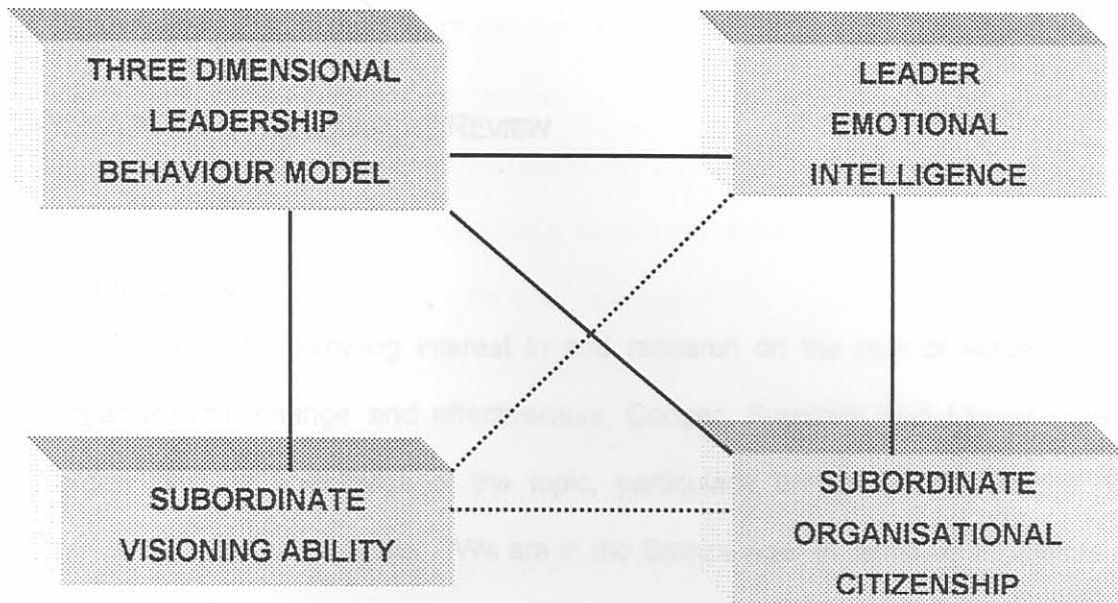


Figure 1.1 Model of relationships between constructs studied