

**THE EFFECT OF WORK-STRESS AND EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE ON SELF-LEADERSHIP AMONGST NURSES IN
LEADERSHIP POSITIONS IN THE MINISTRY OF HEALTH AND
SOCIAL WELFARE IN LESOTHO**

by

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DECLARATION

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SUMMARY

Self-leadership is a process of self-influence towards achieving an optimal state of motivation and self direction needed to perform what one sees as necessary and unavoidable. The self-leadership process includes mental, cognitive and behavioural strategies that give strength, purpose, meaning and direction to the effort, towards improving effectiveness in performing tasks (Neck & Houghton, 2006). Mental imagery and self-talks will also be employed. Natural reward strategies concern self search and the promotion of pleasant and enjoyable feelings directly related to the job. In constructive thought pattern strategies, an individual will assess thoughts to determine whether beliefs and assumptions are positive. An individual with self-leadership will use behavioural strategies to encourage positive behaviours, and to curtail negative behaviours that affect success at work (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

The current work environment increasingly requires independent individuals who are able to take initiative and make responsible decisions in settings where they are not always supported by hierarchical superiors. In this context, the concept of self-leadership has been linked to professional and personal effectiveness. However, a further clarification of the self-leadership concept, as well as the factors that impact on its effectiveness, is needed.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate factors that impact on individual's self-leadership. The study investigated the effect that work-stress and emotional intelligence has on self-leadership. For this purpose, a comprehensive literature review on self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence was presented. Furthermore, a sample of one-hundred and fifty five (155) nursing leaders working at the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare was selected. Self-leadership was measured using the Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire, while work-stress was measured using the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire, and the Emotional Intelligence Index was used to measure emotional intelligence.

The study utilised multiple stepwise regression to predict which variables of work-stress and emotional intelligence affect employees' self-leadership amongst nursing

leadership in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho. The results indicated that there is a generally positive relationship between work-stress and self-leadership. This means that individuals experiencing work-stress will exhibit greater use of self-leadership skills. Some of work-stress sub-dimensions that lead to self-leadership are task characteristics, physical working conditions and social matters. These sub-dimensions enhance self-leadership skills such as self-goal setting, self-talk and evaluating beliefs and assumptions, respectively. It was also found that self-leadership is negatively influenced by emotional intelligence in most cases. High scores in emotional intelligence skills such as self-regulation, motivation and empathy lead to lower scores in self-leadership skills such as self-observation, self-punishment and self-reward. It is in the light of these results that the null hypothesis 1 of this study was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis 1 namely, the variance in self-leadership scores can be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, was accepted.

The independent t-test was used to determine if there are age differences with regard to self-leadership amongst nursing leadership. The results show that there are no statistically significant age differences with regard to self-leadership among nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho. The null hypothesis 2 namely , there is no statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regards to age of nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho, is not rejected.

General and specific recommendations for this study were made.

OPSOMMING

Selfleierskap is 'n proses van selfbeïnvloeding om 'n optimale staat van motivering en selfdireksie te bewerkstellig wat benodig word vir die uitvoering van take wat as nodig en onvermydelik beskou word. Die selfleierskap proses sluit verstandelike, kognitiewe en gedragstrategieë in, wat sterkte, deursettingsvermoë, doel, betekenis en effektiewe rigtinggewing in die uitvoer van take, gee (Neck & Houghton, 2006). 'n Individu met selfleierskap sal gedragstrategieë gebruik om positiewe gedrag aan te moedig en sal negatiewe gedrag inperk om sukses in die werkplek te beïnvloed. In konstruktiewe denkpatroon-strategieë, sal 'n individu sy/haar denke evalueer om te kan bepaal of oortuigings en afleidings positief is. Denkbeeldige voorstellings en selfpraat sal ook toegepas word. Natuurlike vergoedingstrategieë wat fokus op selfondersoek en die bevordering van aangename en genotvolle gevoelens wat direk verband hou met die werk, sal ook geïmplementeer word (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

Die huidige arbeidsmark vereis toenemend onafhanklike individue, wat in staat is om inisiatief en verantwoordelike besluite te neem, in omstandighede waar hul nie noodwendig deur hoër hiërargiese vlakke ondersteun word nie. In hierdie konteks is die konsep van selfleierskap al aan professionele en persoonlike effektiwiteit gekoppel. Daar bestaan egter 'n behoefte aan verdere opklaring oor die begrip selfleierskap, asook 'n verklaring van die faktore wat 'n impak op die effektiwiteit van selfleierskap kan hê (Stewart et al., 2011).

Die hoofdoel van dienavorsing was die ondersoek na die faktore wat 'n impak op die individu se selfleierskap vermoëns het. Die ondersoek sluit ook die effek wat werkstres en emosionele intelligensie op selfleierskap het, in. Vir die doel van die studie word dus 'n omvattende ondersoek na selfleierskap, werkstres en emosionele intelligensie gedoen. 'n Omvattende literatuurstudie is gedoen. Verder is 'n steekproef van honderd vyf -en vyftig verpleegsters, werksaam vir die Ministerie van Gesondheid en Sosiale Welsyn, gebruik. Selfleierskap is gemeet deur gebruik te maak van die Hersiene Selfleierskapvraelys, terwyl werkstres gemeet is deur van die Ervaring van Werk en Lewens Omstandighede Vraelys, gebruik te maak. Die Emosionele Intelligensie Indeks is gebruik om emosionele intelligensie te meet.

Stapsgewyse meervoudige regressie-ontledings is gebruik om te bepaal watter veranderlikes van werkstres en emosionale intelligensie, selfleierskap by verpleesters in leiersposisies, beïnvloed. Resultate het aangetoon dat daar 'n positiewe verband tussen werkstres en selfleierskap bestaan. Dit beteken dat individue wat werkstres ervaar waarskynlik meer van selfleierskap vaardighede sal gebruik maak. Werkstres dimensies wat tot selfleierskap aanleiding gee sluit taakeienskappe, fisiese werksomstandighede en sosiale aangeleenthede, in. Hierdie werkstres dimensies het selfleierskap vaardighede soos selfdoelwitstelling, selfpraat en evaluering van houdings en aannames, bevorder.

Daar is ook bevind dat selfleierskap in meeste gevalle negatief deur emosionele intelligensie beïnvloed is. Hoë tellings op emosionele intelligensie vaardighede soos selfregulering, motivering en empatie, het gelei tot laer tellings op selfleierskap vaardighede soos self-observering, self straf en self vergoeding. In die lig hiervan, is die nul hipotese 1 van die studie verwerp en die alternatiewe hipotese 1aanvaar. Die alternatiewe hipotese 1 lui soos volg: die variansie in selfleierskap tellings kan statisties deur werkstres en emosionele intelligensie by verpleegsters in leierskapposisies werkzaam by die Ministerie van Gesondheid en Sosiale Welsyn in Lesotho, verklaar word.

'n Onafhanklike t-toets is uitgevoer om te bepaal of daar verskille in terme van ouderdom met betrekking tot selfleierskaptellings, by verpleegsters in leierskapposisies, bestaan. Resultate het aangedui dat geen statisties beduidende ouderdomsverskille met betrekking tot selfleierskap by verpleegsters in leierskapposisies, bestaan nie. Die nul hipotese 2, naamlik dat daar geen statistiese verskille in tellings behaal op selfleierskap met betrekking tot verpleegsters in leierskapposisies werkzaam vir die Ministerie van Gesondheid en Sosiale Welsyn in Lesotho, is dus nie verwerp nie.

Algemene en spesifieke aanbevelings vir die studie is gemaak.

Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The topic of leadership has been, and continues to be of major interest in psychological research (Mbigi, 2005; Miranda, 2011; Van Zyl, 2007). It has generated several empirical and theoretical studies, which have been particularly devoted to establishing what characterises effective leadership, especially in the 21st century (Lummus, 2010). Palmer (2012) defines leadership as the process of influencing individuals to perform assigned activities willingly, efficiently and effectively. It is the ability to influence, motivate and enable others to contribute to the effectiveness and success of organisations (Hughes, 2009; Kelly, 2010).

Van Zyl (2007) explains that leadership in the 21st century has gone through many changes and challenges due to globalisation and other societal changes. These challenges include rapidly changing consumer markets, competition, technological changes, cost pressures and diversity. In response to these rapid changes and challenges organisations require employees with high levels of capacity and skills in self-direction and self-influence who will be able to respond more successfully and effectively to these challenges (Hughes, 2009). According to Hauschildt and Konradt (2012) the type of leadership that will empower employees with such skills is called self-leadership. The focus in self-leadership is to bring out the internal resources within an individual to empower, influence and direct an individual to effectively lead him-or herself and others. Self-leadership is considered a foundation towards being an effective leader in the 21st century (Bryant & Kazan, 2013; Manz, 2010).

This research study therefore gives a comprehensive view of the theory of self-leadership, as well as examine, and provide empirical evidence of the effects of work-

stress and emotional intelligence on the practice of self-leadership amongst nursing leadership.

1.1.1 Self-leadership and its relation with work-stress and emotional intelligence

Self-leadership is referred to as a process of self-influence to continuously improve one's leadership knowledge, skills, acumen, self-motivation and self-direction for personal effectiveness and influence of others. It is a set of strategies, concentrating on behaviours and thoughts that individuals may use to influence themselves (Irving, 2011; Park, 2008). The self-leadership process includes mental, cognitive and behavioural strategies that give strength, purpose, meaning and direction to the effort towards effectiveness in performing tasks that one needs to perform (Van Zyl, 2011).

Avolio (2011) and Manz (2010) state that unlike the external process of traditional leadership, self-leadership is an internal process that presents a strong initiative for the development and empowerment of leadership in individuals and organisations. Manz (2010) suggests that in self-leadership an individual possesses an internal self-control system that allows him or her to engage in self-generated personal standards, self-evaluation and self-leadership concepts in managing their work activities (Lovelace, Manz, & Alves, 2007; Yun, Cox & Sims, 2006). Self-leadership enables leaders to think effectively, behave congruently and relate empathetically with others. Self-leader has a drive for autonomy, is creative in his or her decision-making, as well as persistent when faced with adversity (DiLiello & Houghton 2006; Furtner, Hiller, Martini, & Sachse, 2012). Furthermore self-leadership enhances performance, self-efficacy, and decreases absenteeism. It promotes goal-setting, improves self-reflective skills, and ability to deal effectively with one's strengths and weaknesses (Furtner, Rauthmann & Sachse, 2010).

Implementation of self-leadership as a strategy is demonstrated by Karen (2007), where 400 managers at the public service implemented self-leadership strategies such as self-goal setting, self-punishment and self-talk to improve their effectiveness. The result of the study indicated that managers who admitted to implementing self-

leadership skills are more effective in achieving their objectives than those who did not make use of self-leadership. In addition, Turkoz, Osman Mutlu, Tobak, and Erdogan (2013) also came to the same conclusion in his results of a study he conducted on athletics. Turkoz et al. (2013) suggest that athletes who set personal goals and visualise successful performance are better performers than those who do not. Therefore conclusion can be drawn that self-leadership is a method of addressing challenges facing leadership in modern organisations, and should be incorporated into values and beliefs that govern an individual's everyday activities (Mbigi, 2005; Van Zyl, 2012).

Sydänmaanlakka (2004) further suggests that individual differences also play a role in the use and quality of self-leadership skills. Effective leadership of self requires maintaining high standards of total well-being. That is, the ability of a leader to develop and practice self-leadership is influenced by their ability to handle work-stress as well as their level of emotional intelligence (Wu, 2011). Work-stress is a harmful physical and emotional response that occurs when job demands do not match an individual's capabilities or resources, to the extent that individual's psychological state deviates from normal functioning. As a result, an individual can no longer meet his or her responsibilities as a member of the organisation (Unsworth, 2012 & Salami, 2011).

According to Kane (2009) a reasonable level of work-stress is seen as normal and necessary, as it is an important motivating factor. The problem arises when a person perceives demands to exceed resources at their disposal, resulting in physical and psychological symptoms (Shchuka, 2010). Demands in the work-place comprises of factors such as conflict between work and home life, the nature of the job that exposes an individual to excessive pressure and demand, as well as inadequate support from supervisors and colleagues, lead to work-stress (Leka, Giffiths & Cox, 2004).

Work-stress negatively influences an individual's sense of well-being and engagement in their work activities, thereby decreasing their ability to access self-

leadership skills (Unsworth, 2012). An employee experiencing work-stress is more likely to be unhealthy, poorly motivated, less productive and less likely to engage in self-leadership behaviours (Kane, 2009). Unsworth (2012) adds that work-stress depletes an individual's physiological, physical and psychological resources, which leads to dysfunctional thinking processes, lowering both cognitive and behavioural focused strategies. When individuals are too stressed they react negatively, and view work-stressors as more threatening, which results in ineffective use of self-leadership skills and strategies (Houghton, Wu, Godwin, Neck & Manz, 2012).

On the other hand, Unsworth (2012) suggests that individuals who are self-motivated and focused on self-regulating behaviours, are more effective in handling increased job demands from their work environment. Constructive thought patterns and behavioural focused strategies, such as mental imagery, positive self-talk and goal setting, eliminate dysfunctional thinking processes, thus reducing the effects of work-stress and the extent to which an individual experiences the work-stress. Through these strategies, an individual is required to increase positive thought patterns and inner dialogues in order to eliminate negative effects of work-stress and increase their coping skills (Houghton et al., 2012; Neck & Manz, 2010). Self-leadership behaviours surpass immediate stressful reactions by increasing an individual's drive, dedication to work, and absorption in work thereby alleviating the consequences of stressful jobs (Houghton et al., 2012).

Emotional intelligence which is defined as a collection of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence an individual's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures, is also an important factor influencing the practice of self-leadership (Braynt & Kazan, 2013; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2004). Emotional intelligence involves the ability to effectively perceive emotions, understand their meanings and relationships, and make decisions on the basis of them. It is an important factor responsible for determining success in life and psychological well-being. It plays an important role in shaping the interaction between individuals and their work environment (Bar On, 2010; Mikolajczak, Roy, Luminet, Fillée & De Timary (2007). Benefits of emotional intelligence include employee

cooperation, motivation, productivity, and increased optimism. Barbuto and Burbach (2006) add that proper management of emotions can drive trust, loyalty and commitment. This in turn drives many of the greatest productivity gains, innovations, and accomplishments of individuals, teams and organisations (Palmer & Jansen, 2004; Gryn, 2010).

Emotional intelligence and self-leadership focus on similar processes of self-regulation. These concepts are however distinct. Emotional intelligence is concerned with the ability to self-regulate emotions. It uses emotional regulation strategies to increase positive emotional outcomes (Houghton et al., 2012). Self-leadership however focuses on self-regulation behaviours and thought processes without necessarily targeting emotions. However emotions have a strong influence on both behaviour and thought. Therefore, the concept of self-leadership and emotional intelligence are reciprocally related (Gardner & Stough, 2002; Oosthuysen, 2009).

D'Intino et al. (2007) argues that emotional intelligence improves self-leadership through emotion regulation and behaviour patterns. The feel good emotions and ability to control emotions leads to positive thoughts, which increase positive self-talk and imagined experiences (Curry, 2005; Neck & Manz, 2007). In addition, leaders who are high on emotional intelligence are better able to understand and manage their own emotions, and are therefore more likely to engage in constructive thinking to build and maintain high levels of cooperation and trust within an organisation. Flexible thinking arising from emotional intelligence facilitates the identification of connections amongst divergent information, thus increasing the use of self-leadership strategies (Merkowits & Earnest, 2006).

In addition, Depape, Hakim-Larson, Voelker, Page and Jackson (2006) indicate that emotional intelligence propels self-management, self-goal setting and progress to achieve goals. It improves constructive thinking through better understanding and management of emotions. Furthermore, emotional intelligence promotes self-leadership by increasing motivation and self-awareness to progress and improve quality of performance (Depape et al., 2006; Merkowits & Earnest, 2006).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence captures the essence of the active and purposeful integration of feelings and thought for effective self-leadership functioning.

Lastly, a certain level of emotional intelligence ability has also been demonstrated as being necessary for moderating the effects of work-stress (Wu, 2011). The cognitive processes involved in the appraisal of stressful situations are associated with the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence. This means that the extent to which an individual experiences work-stress is characterised in terms of emotional perception and assimilation. Emotional intelligence decreases the effects of job insecurity, improves adaptability to work-stress, and leads to better coping strategies (Gryn, 2010; Gardner & Stough, 2002). Rosete and Cirarochi (2005) state that by better understanding the relationship between self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence, resources can be used effectively to improve and build upon emotional intelligence skills, which contribute to self-leadership behaviours, and management of work-stress.

1.1.2 Nursing leadership, self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence

Wicker (2008) states that, with continued importance and focus on leadership, nursing leadership has also been increasingly under analysis. Tourangeau (2010) describes nursing leadership as an application of diverse, specialised clinical expertise and human services, coordinated through multidisciplinary efforts, and tailored to the unique needs of each individual client. Its main objective is to create and nurture a healthy work environment, as well as empower nurses to provide quality nursing care. Quality nursing leadership is described as a professional, visionary, and inspirational service, providing an optimal work environment to meet high clinical standards (Kelly, 2010). Sherman (2005) argues that healthcare service, particularly nursing, has its own unique characteristics that interface with the challenges of the leadership environment (Avolio & Luthans, 2006),

The continually evolving technology, the rise of the informed healthcare consumer, quality orientation, increasing emphasis on providing value to the consumer,

increased competition for limited healthcare resources, and the shift in focus from illness and treatment to wellness and prevention, as well as lack of resources and severe staff shortages, are some of the challenges in healthcare organisations (Marquis & Huston, 2006; Wicker, 2008). These unique attributes of the healthcare organisations make the world of nursing leadership challenging and complex, requiring diverse expertise and knowledge, and exceptional leadership capabilities (Schmidt, 2006). Lummas (2006) adds that the nursing profession has struggled with the concept of leadership for many years.

In most cases, nurses with strong clinical skills and judgment are positioned in leadership roles. Often, these clinicians are not adequately trained or prepared to take on such a challenging role. The result is that these nurses take what they learn in patient care and try to apply it in leadership roles. Although these techniques may achieve outcomes, their effectiveness as tools in leadership is questionable (Wicker, 2008). Wynne (2003) adds that there is still a great deal of prejudice towards nurses as leaders, with adoption of the traditional view that the role of nursing is to provide patient care (Baernholdt & Cottingham, 2011). Tourangeau (2010) argues that in order to gain visibility, independence in practice, and knowledge and skills to achieve goals, nursing leaders need to explicate their leadership practices.

Nursing leadership thus needs to identify leadership practices that will develop, strengthen and empower them through active and effective leadership, as well as respond to the challenging 21st century health care systems (Osborne, 2006). Van Zyl (2012) posits that, given the popularity of employee empowerment and its relation with effectiveness, self-leadership appears to hold great potential for application in 21st century nursing leadership. According to Jooste (2011) self-leadership skills are desirable in nursing leadership behaviour, where individuals continuously have to improve and adapt to difficulties in their environment. In the challenging environment of nursing leadership, self-leadership will amplify the desire to achieve, to be proactive, and to take the opportunity to influence colleagues and subordinates (Carmeli, Meitar & Weisberg, 2006; Jooste, 2010).

Self-leadership will provide nursing leaders with a set of practical strategies, including self-observation and constructive thinking that can be used to learn from past experiences in order to improve future performance. It will make nursing leaders to be adaptable and give them multiple strategies in order to achieve better outcomes for their patients (Heath et al., 2004; Ponte, Kruger, Hanley, & Conlin, 2004; Schmalenberg, 2003; Upenieks, 2003). Jooste (2011) also states that self-leadership promotes self-efficacy which is required by most nursing leaders who assume the leadership responsibility without the necessary leadership skills. Nursing leaders are empowered and go beyond the cultural expectations and behaviours of a traditional nurse, and recognise clearly how they shape the reality of their work as leaders as well as those of their staff (Houghton et al., 2012).

In addition, work where employees are expected to take vital decisions and constantly be in unpleasant circumstances, such as in the nursing leadership, can be very stressful (Furnham, 2005; Su, Boore, Jenkins, Liu & Yang, 2008). Shirey, McDaniel, Ebright, Fisher and Doebbeling (2010) identify increased span of control, scope of responsibilities, financial and operational performance demands as some work-stressors for nursing leaders. Performance expectations, and the need for staff resources, also create work-stress as nursing leaders deal with the demands of competing priorities, and endure pressure to conform to rigorous standards of cost-containment and quality assurance programs. Kath, Stichler, Ehrhart, and Schultze (2012) add that emotional demands, such as the death of patients and dealing with patients' families, aggravate nursing leaders' work-stress.

According to Shirey et al. (2010) nursing leaders report above average stress levels, and these stress levels are correlated with important negative effects, such as decreased job satisfaction, decreased organisational commitment, and increased intent to resign, as well as ill health. Nursing leaders' work-stress not only affects their personal health and the work environment, but has also been shown to indirectly affect patient outcomes (Milliken et al., 2007; Shirey et al., 2010). Work-stress among nursing leaders can be considered a useful criterion of effective self-leadership, due to its deleterious effects on mental and psychological wellbeing

among nursing leadership (Kath et al., 2012; Omoike, Stratton, Brooks, Ohlson, & Storfjell, 2011).

According to Stordeur, D'hoore and Vandenberghe (2001) health professionals, such as nurses, also focus on managing their own and other individual's feelings, and using this ability effectively. This group of individuals therefore need to have emotional intelligence skills such as empathy, impulse control, and others necessary for the successful completion of their work tasks. Akerjordet and Severinsson (2008) argue that top-level emotionally intelligent nursing leadership is necessary to support the effective administration and development of the nursing profession. Emotionally intelligent nursing leaders raise the level of performance, improve staff engagement, and enhance the patient's experience (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008). Emotionally intelligent nursing leadership reflects effective self-leadership, emphasises personal reflections, well-being, strong relationships, and the pursuit of common goals, and highlights the need for cooperation and a team-based working climate (Watson 2004, Serio & Epperly 2006). Astoundingly, literature reveals limited research on the effect of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership, especially amongst nursing leadership (Jooste, 2012).

1.1.3 Self-leadership and age differences

Norris (2008) indicates that self-leadership is also influenced by age differences. Norris (2008) suggests that age enhances individuals' quality of self-leadership. Age, as an individual difference, affects the extent to which an individual practices self-leadership strategies. Older and more experienced individuals tend to know themselves better, and are able to practise self-leadership skills more effectively than younger, inexperienced individuals (Norris, 2008). In contrast, Kazan (2001) proposes that self-leadership decreases as an individual gets older. Competencies associated with self-leadership deplete as an individual gains experience and relies on them more (Kazan, 2001). The relation between self-leadership and age is further discussed in chapter 2.

1.1.4 Problem statement

Bryant and Kazan (2013) state that organisations are encouraging employee's independence in decision making, as well as supporting employee's empowerment and self-leadership, as a way to stimulate employee's ownership, identification with the organisation, its plans and goals. McVicar (2003) suggests that without nurturing employees' free decision-making, individualism, and empowerment, organisations cannot trust that employees are really committed into organisations, and they are doing their best because they also own the organisation. Self-leadership therefore empowers employees to make decisions and take individual responsibility in their own jobs for success of the organisation.

However, regardless of the importance of self-leadership in empowering employees, self-leadership has been investigated mainly from a commercial managerial perspective (Salami, 2011), therefore a need to examine self-leadership within other fields such as nursing leadership. Shirey (2006) argues that traditional leadership fails to serve nursing leaders appropriately as their contributions and their volatile environment fails to fit its specific, established criteria. Therefore if the nature of nursing leader's work is to be explicated above their volatile and bureaucratic environments and systems, the concept of self-leadership needs to be elevated in this specific group to confront challenges of leadership. This is further emphasised by evidenced challenges facing nursing leaders in managing chaotic and challenging nursing work environments that lead to work-stress and require high levels of emotional intelligence (Mathena, 2012; Osbourne, 2006).

Work-stress is recognised worldwide as a major challenge to the maintenance of employees' health and the welfare of organisations (Kane, 2009). For example, in their studies of 57 bank managers and 1,455 school principals, Ali et al (2011) and Allison (2007) respectively, indicate that these groups have above average levels of work-stress inherent to their leadership roles. As many as 80% of leaders report that work is a primary source of stress in their lives and that having a leadership role increases the level of stress (Ali et al., 2011). Moreover, nursing leaders are more prone to work-stress due to the nature of their work environments (Shirey, 2006).

Shirey (2009) states that almost 40% of nursing leaders in America have reported experiencing high levels of work-stress, in South Africa, Rothmann (2009) states that work-stress among nursing leadership is a result of shortage of nurses, span of control and restrained relationships with physicians, to mention but few. Work-stress erodes psychological resources of individuals, thus making it difficult to effectively implement self-leadership skills.

Furthermore, Watson (2004) adds that nursing leadership is an emotionally-laden responsibility that requires emotional intelligence to cultivate a positive attitude that will enhance patient's outcomes. Emotions in nursing leadership are necessary to create and maintain healthy relationships and to cultivate a positive environment for subordinates (Jooste, 2010). According to Taft (2012) low levels of emotional intelligence in nursing leadership can lead to poor communication which leads to conflicts, misunderstandings and broken relationships. It can also reduce resilience, self-control and self-confidence needed to enhance professional competency of nursing leaders. Individuals with low levels of emotional intelligence refuse to take responsibility for their own unproductive behaviour and mistakes which can compromise nursing leadership outcomes (Taft, 2012).

Besides work-stress and emotional intelligence, Ricketts, Carter, Place, & McCoy (2012) present age as one of individual differences that can affect development and usage of individual's self-leadership. According to Ricketts et al (2012) self-leadership skills are more accessible in younger individuals who are at the early stages of their career than older individuals who are in middle to late careers. These age differences can be used as guiding posts in encouraging self-leadership within nursing leadership environment.

It is within this context, therefore, that the research on the effect of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership amongst nursing leadership, as well as the extent to which age differences affect self-leadership in nursing leadership, is relevant.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The rationale for this research is aimed at advancing the concept of self-leadership in nursing leadership. The study aims to investigate the extent to which self-leadership represent a unique and valuable constellation of behavioural and cognitive strategies that lead to organisational and personal effectiveness, as well as establish the extent to which work-stress and emotional intelligence impact on the quality of self-leadership within the nursing leadership. Anand (2010) is of the opinion that examining and understanding the effect of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership will add more insight and valuable information for future research in self-leadership. It will also aid improvement of relevant strategies and approaches to self-leadership within nursing leadership (Barbuto & Barbach, 2006; Diggs, 2008; Higgs & Aikkien, 2003).

This study therefore wishes to add to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence, as well as verify whether there are age differences in self-leadership scores.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

From the preceding introduction, problem statement and rationale for the study the following research questions can be identified.

1.3.1 Primary research question

Does work-stress and emotional intelligence have an effect on self-leadership amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho?

1.3.2 Secondary research question

Do differences exist in self-leadership with regards to age amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho?

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

From the preceding research questions the following research objective can be identified.

1.4.1 Primary research objective

To determine by means of a non-experimental research design whether work-stress and emotional intelligence have an effect on self-leadership amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

1.4.2 Secondary research objective

To determine by means of a non-experimental research design if differences exist in self-leadership with regard to age.

1.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The following research hypothesis will be investigated in this study from the above-mentioned objectives.

1.5.1 Hypothesis 1

Null hypothesis:

H₀, The variance in self-leadership scores cannot be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

Alternative hypothesis:

H₁, The variance in self-leadership scores can be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

1.5.2 Hypothesis 2

Null hypothesis:

H₀, There is no statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regard to age of nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

Alternative hypothesis:

H₁, There is a statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regard to age of nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

1.6 METHODOLOGY

Methodology refers to methods used to carry out a study or research (Stangor, 2011). This section therefore gives a summary description of research methodology of this study, and ethical considerations thereof.

1.6.1 Research design in brief

The research process will involve exploratory quantitative research process where questionnaires will be administered to participants to gather data. The following questionnaires will be used, the Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire (RSQL), the Emotional Intelligence Index (EQI) and the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (W.L.Q). Non-probability sampling, specifically convenience sampling will be used to select participants to the study.

1.6.2 Ethical considerations

- Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee at the Ministry of Health, Lesotho.
- Participation in this research is voluntary. Participation in this research was guaranteed to be non-prejudicial and would not lead to any advantages or disadvantages for the individual.

- The participants were made aware that this research was conducted as a requirement for the fulfilment for a Master's degree in Industrial Psychology, at the University of the Free State, Bloemfontein, South Africa.
- The questionnaires were filled in anonymously; information collected will be kept confidential only the study group at the Department of Industrial Psychology, at the University of the Free State, will be able to access the information.
- All participants were treated equally.

1.7 DELINEATION OF THE STUDY

This study is divided into eight (8) chapters. Chapter 1 provided a general introduction and overview of the proposed study. A specific need for, and the importance of research into self-leadership behaviours particularly among nurses in leadership, is argued, as well as factors that may influence the practice of self-leadership. The focus was also on the rationale for the study, specific research questions, and objectives, hypotheses elicited by the research problem, and the methodology and ethical considerations.

Chapter 2 provides a literature review of the study. The chapter gives a critical analysis of the concept of self-leadership. This comprises definitions of the concept of self-leadership, different strategies of self-leadership, models of leadership and related processes that may lead to self-leadership as well as the consequences thereof. A view of self-leadership as experienced by nurses in leadership positions is given.

Chapter 3 is a continuation of the literature review, and focuses specifically on work-stress. A more in-depth and detailed description of work-stress is provided. This entails the nature and definitions of work-stress, models of work-stress as well as factors contributing to work-stress. Consequences of work-stress and work-stress amongst nurses are also discussed.

In Chapter 4, the concept of emotional intelligence is discussed. The chapter defines emotional intelligence, explains the models of emotional intelligence, and outlines

factors contributing to emotional intelligence as well as consequences of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence amongst nurses is also explained.

Chapter 5 presents the relationship between the concept of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence. This chapter provides relevant empirical studies of the interrelationship between the three concepts.

Chapter 6 explains the methods and procedures followed in the empirical study. This entails a detailed exposition of how the study will be conducted. The focus is on selection of participants, methods of data collection, the data collection process, and data analysis techniques.

Chapter 7 is data presentation and analysis.

Chapter 8 gives the discussion and interpretation of all the gathered information pulled together in a coherent report. Subsequently, conclusions regarding the literature review, the research methodology and the investigation are presented. Potential implications of the study are also discussed in this chapter and an outline of recommendations for further research concludes the chapter.

Chapter 2: SELF-LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of self-leadership was developed and proposed by Manz (1983). Manz (1983) developed the concept of self-leadership based on the belief that in order to lead others in life, one must be a leader of himself or herself first (Houghton, Dawley & DiLiello, 2012; Zietel-Bank & Tat, 2013). This chapter provides a detailed view of self-leadership. This will include definitions and theoretical foundations of self-leadership, models and strategies of self-leadership as well as principles of self-leadership. Factors that affect self-leadership and consequences of self-leadership are also discussed. Finally, the concept of self-leadership in nursing leadership is presented (Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012).

Next section is definitions of self-leadership.

2.2 DEFINING SELF-LEADERSHIP

Self-leadership is defined as a process of influencing oneself to establish the self-direction and self-motivation needed for effective performance (Neck & Manz, 2010, p. 2; Houghton et al., 2012, p. 5; Marshall, Kiffin-Petersen & Soutar, 2012, p. 5). Sahin (2011, p. 87) defines self-leadership as the use of specific sets of behavioural and cognitive strategies through which individuals influence and lead themselves.

In addition, Mansor, Mohd & Dali (2013, p. 4) define self-leadership as a process of behavioural and cognitive self-evaluation and self-influence whereby individuals achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to shape their behaviours in positive ways in order to enhance their overall performance. Braynt and Kazan (2013, p. 21) also define self-leadership as a practice of intentionally influencing thinking, feeling and behaviours to achieve objectives.

For the purpose of this study, the following is a summarised definition of self-leadership: Self-leadership is a process of self-influence to achieve an optimal state of motivation and self-direction needed to perform what one sees as necessary and unavoidable. The self-leadership process includes mental, cognitive and behavioural strategies that give strength, purpose, meaning and direction to the effort towards effectiveness in performing the tasks that one needs to perform (Andressen, Konradt & Neck, 2012, p. 68).

Subsequently is the examination of different theoretical foundations of the concept of self-leadership.

2.3 THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

Self-leadership is a concept that is founded on, but conceptually distinct from theories of social-cognitive, self-control, self-management and self-regulation theories. It is also derived from intrinsic motivation theory (Alves, Lovelace, Manz, Matsypura, Toyasaki, & Ke, 2006; Konradt, Andreben & Ellwart, 2009). This section will focus on discussing these theories and their relation to self-leadership.

2.3.1 Self-leadership and social-cognitive theory

Social-cognitive theory was developed by Bandura (1986), and is defined as the mediation of self-referent thoughts between individual's knowledge and action (D'Intino et al., 2007). It is a psychological theory of behaviour that explains how individuals acquire and maintain certain behavioural patterns. According to Alves et al. (2006) Bandura (1986) implies that human functioning is a consequence of the interaction between environment, individuals and behaviour. That is, human behaviour is not only influenced by knowledge, skills and abilities but, also by beliefs individuals have about their own abilities and the outcome of their efforts based on the analysis of environment, individuals and behaviour (Manz & Houghton, 2006; Brown, 2003).

There are four elements of social-cognitive theory, namely observational learning, outcome expectation, self-efficacy and goal setting, of which self-efficacy is the most

central (Palmer, 2012). Self-efficacy reflects individuals' beliefs about whether they can achieve a given level of success at a particular activity. It is only when individuals believe that they can produce desired effects with their actions they have incentive to act; self-efficacy beliefs are therefore the foundation of individuals's actions (Neck, 2006). According to Manz and Neck (2004) self-efficacy influences some of major objectives of self-leadership strategies such as setting goals, determination, and thought-patterns. High levels of self-efficacy perceptions also lead to higher performance standards, greater efforts and increased persistence in the pursuit of goals and objectives, and ultimately greater effectiveness (Palmer, 2012).

2.3.2 Self-leadership and self-control theory

According to Neck and Manz (2004) the theory of self-control was inspired by Kerr and Jermier (1978). Self-control refers to a system of standards or performance designed to regulate an individual's behaviour to conform or maintain a standard (Stewart, Courtright & Manz, 2011). The self-control theory expands consideration to the ability of the individual to control his or her own behaviour or performance, which provides opportunities for self-leadership skills such as self-monitoring, goal setting, problem-solving, and self-reward (Brown, 2003). Manz and Houghton (2006) explain that specific strategies of self-control have been presented in the clinical literature to manage self-destructive behaviours. These strategies include self-observation, self-goal setting, cueing strategies, self-reinforcement, self-punishment, and rehearsal. These strategies are now adapted to organisational setting and have become the basis for self-leadership's behaviour-focused strategies (Stewart et al, 2011).

2.3.3 Self-leadership and self-management theory

Self-management theory was also inspired by Kerr and Jermier's (1978). It is described as a set of strategies for managing behaviour intended to reduce discrepancies from existing standards, determined by higher level controls. It is a practice where an individual chooses a less attractive option, which may eventually lead to a more desirable behaviour from among alternatives (Kawondera, 2007). Olapido (2010) suggests that self-management is built on self-control theory, where self-management is the application of self-control strategies in the organisational

setting. Self-management is designed to reduce discrepancies from obligatory standards determined by higher levels of management (Zhang & Zao, 2012). It regulates one's behaviour by setting goals for his or her performance, thus an individual has the ability to monitor, evaluate, and correct behaviour to achieve a goal. It is through self-management that self-leadership occurs within an individual to achieve personal fulfilment and effectiveness (Neck & Manz 2004; Kawondera, 2007).

2.3.4 Self-leadership and self-regulation theory

Self-regulation theory was created by Caver and Scheier (1981). The theory states that human behaviour is regulated by sensors in the environment which monitors performance with the objective of reducing discrepancy between actual performance levels and goals (Neck & Manz, 2010). According to Van Zyl (2009) individuals who have belief in what they are able to do, anticipate probable consequences of prospective actions. They set objectives and make effort to gain desired outcomes. In general, self-regulation allows individuals to be motivated, and guide their actions in an anticipatory proactive way (Neck & Houghton 2006; Neck & Manz, 2010).

D'Intino et al (2007) present a view of self-regulating processes which involve input perceptions of existing conditions, comparison of perception with an existing reference standard, and output behaviours to reduce discrepancies between the standard and the consequent impact on the environment. This means that, in self-regulation, while attempting to achieve a given standard or a set goal, a person operates within a tight reign of control in order to minimise deviations from standards in existing performance. This process is used in self-leadership to improve self-focus, goal setting, goal valence and saliency, feedback processes and task-related confidence (Neck & Manz, 2004; Stewart et al, 2011).

2.3.5 Self-leadership and intrinsic motivation theory

Intrinsic motivation theory was invented by Deci and Ryan (1985). It is the theory that suggests that individuals have potential to harness motivational forces within themselves in doing things that they can really enjoy. Intrinsic motivation leads to

increase in feelings of competence, self-determination, and purpose (Manz & Houghton, 2006). This view implies that satisfaction is obtained from having an opportunity to act with purpose, increased feelings of competence and self-determination which forms a basis for natural reward strategies (Lovelace et al., 2007). According to Kawondera (2007) it is through intrinsic motivation that self-leadership results in excellent and innovative individual work. Furthermore intrinsic motivation forms a basis for goal setting as individuals are best motivated when they are working towards personally meaningful goals whose attainment requires activity at a continuously optimal level of difficulty (Bryant & Kazan, 2013).

Against the background of differing theoretical foundations of self-leadership, a number of models have evolved and are discussed in the following section.

2.4 MODELS OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

This section focuses on a discussion of different models of self-leadership. The models that will be discussed are Theoretical Framework for Self-leadership, Self Ltd model, Self-Leadership Performance Mechanism model, as well as Situational Model of Self-leadership, Self-leadership development model and a Comprehensive Self-leadership model.

2.4.1 Theoretical framework for self-leadership

The theoretical framework for self-leadership as presented by Manz (1986) is one of the earliest models of self-leadership. The model is largely based on the concept of self-control and regulation (Stewart et al., 2011). Schematic representation of the theoretical framework of self-leadership is presented below in figure 2.1.

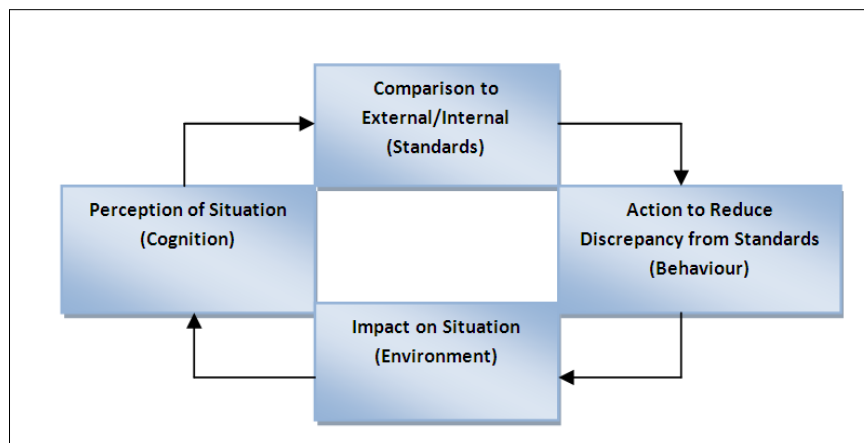


Figure 2.1. Theoretical framework of self-leadership (Stewart et al., 2011, p. 187)

Manz (1986) states that the process of self-leadership starts when an individual self-regulates by perceiving a current situation and comparing its state with identified standards (Brown & Fields, 2011). Then, a gap between the individual's current state and desired state is addressed by engaging in behaviours to reduce the discrepancy from standards. The impact is then assessed and incorporated as feedback into a perception of the situation, which begins the self-regulation cycle once more (Stewart et al., 2011). Therefore, self-leadership occurs when an individual perceives a situation, chooses to engage in behaviour to align actions with standards, monitors activities and cognitions to encourage the desired behaviour, and then assesses how the behaviour influences the situation. That is, the extent to which one engages in effective self-leadership behaviours depends on the degree to which that individual not only regulates compliance with external standards, but also establishes those standards internally (Van Zyl, 2009; Neck & Houghton, 2006; Manz & Simms, 2004).

2.4.2 The Self Ltd model

The Self Ltd model was developed by Sydänmaanlakka (2007). It is suggested in the model that all individuals are self-leaders, and should lead themselves well. The model consists of five areas, namely; physical condition, mental condition, social condition, spiritual condition and professional condition. These areas are associated with different facets in an individual's life and work (Tuovinen, 2010; Zhang & Zhao, 2012). Figure 2.2 is a diagrammatic representation of the Self Ltd model.

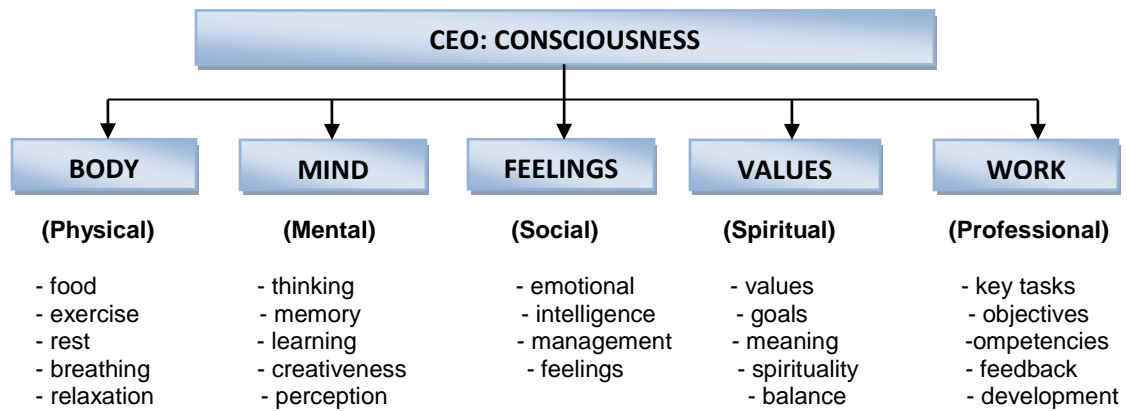


Figure 2.2. The Self Ltd Model (Adopted from Sydänmaanlakka, 2004, p. 2)

Excellent physical condition means physical fitness and wellness. That is, one is eating, exercising, sleeping and resting adequately. Excellent physical condition refreshes and relaxes the mind, the feelings and the soul (Lovelace et al., 2007). It is related to good concentration and effectiveness at the work-place. It is therefore a good condition for successful self-leadership. It is important to consider and improve one's physical condition to enhance self-leadership (Zhang & Zhao, 2012).

Zietel-Bank and Tat (2013) add that employees who have body awareness and care about their physical fitness improve on their self-leadership skills and dedicate more enthusiasm to work. In addition, getting adequate rest and coping with pressure wisely provide employees an opportunity to enhance their self-leadership ability. Individuals who are fit have high levels of energy and enjoy feelings of well-being. On the other hand, poor physical condition leads to the inability to handle pressure, low productivity and poor health (Tuovinen, 2010).

Strong mental condition, on the other hand, means having a good mental energy, an inquiring mind, and the ability to make decisions and learn new things. It is being creative, intuitive and having a good memory and understanding (Sydänmaanlakka, 2004; Zietel-Bank & Tat, 2013). In self-leadership, mental energy comes from one's resourceful thinking skills and helps one to organise one's life, pay attention and manage time effectively. It means that one has found peace of mind and is able to control own thoughts, visualisations and emotions. Individual's mental health contributes to courage and motivation, and plays a leading role in the subconscious,

which determine an individual's choice of behaviour at work (Sydänmaanlakka, 2007).

Healthy social condition refers to the ability to develop and maintain relationships, such as parental, friends, marriage and work relationships (Sydänmaanlakka, 2004). Zhang and Zhao (2012) suggest that a good social condition requires emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence means ability to recognise, express and control one's emotions. It brings awareness of one's own emotions, empathy, sense of reality and control over impulses. These qualities are associated with individuals who are effective self-leaders, value themselves, are independent and have a positive attitude. Through emotional intelligence, are able to manage their negative feelings and enhance positive feelings in order to gain self-leadership (Assanova & McGuire, 2009).

Sound spiritual condition means that the purpose and values of one's life are in balance and that one has clear objectives and spiritual stimuli guiding his or her life. Spiritual wellness comes from the feeling of meaning and purpose in life (Sydänmaanlakka, 2007). In self-leadership, a feeling of purpose is a result of being aware of own core values and making sure that one's doings are aligned with the values (Tuovinen, 2010). Values have an influence on work behaviour and attitudes towards difficulties. Employees with spiritual intelligence search for a deeper purpose in life and have the ability to learn from adversity. At work, they see new situations with a positive attitude and have an independent thought which benefits their self-leadership (Dane, 2012).

Good professional condition means one has clear objectives at work, sufficient competencies, gets feedback about performance and is engaging in continuous development. Work is an important aspect of human life, so professional condition plays an important part in self-leadership (Sydänmaanlakka, 2006). According to Tuovinen (2010) good professional condition in self-leadership means having a healthy balance in the level of difficulty and challenge of the work. It means doing what one really wants to do and what is aligning with one's purpose. Work has a

deep significance and is experienced as a vocation, without forgetting the importance of other aspects of life (Sydänmaanlakka, 2007).

In summary, Sydänmaanlakka (2004) suggests that good management of these five areas releases energy and gives internal resources that lead to effective self-leadership. Self-leadership can work as a toll against fatigue, over-specialisation and boredom. Therefore individuals who have plenty of these resources are able to move towards change, growth and development (Zietel-Bank & Tat, 2013).

2.4.3 The Internal family system model

The internal family systems (IFS) model was developed by Richard Schwartz (1995). The model combines systems thinking with the view that, like a family, a mind is made up of relatively discrete sub-personalities each with its own qualities and each designed to play a valuable role within an individual (Earley, 2012). According to Schwartz (2008) a system is a set of parts that relate to one another into a pattern. The emphasis of the IFS model is the importance of an individual as a system composed of these different parts or sub-personalities. The model uses family systems theory to understand how these collections of sub-personalities are organised (Schwartz, 2008).

According to the IFS model people are whole, underneath this collection of sub-personalities with a spiritual centre, known as the self. The self is described as an innate core of the psyche and is the leader of the other sub-personalities. It is the place where the individual observes, interacts and experiences with sub-personalities and the external environment (Schwartz, 2008). Earley (2007) explains that self-leadership manifests effectively when this self is functioning best. The self effectively leads other parts to let go of their destructive roles and enter into a harmonious collaboration.

Dolbier et al. (2001) state that though the IFS model is traditionally used for therapeutic practice, its essence in self-leadership is that self-leadership is related to both internal and external aspects of the individual's environment. Self-leadership is

providing a sustaining internal environment in which the family system of sub-personalities strives to maintain homeostasis and health (Campbell, 2004). Therefore self-leadership is an interaction of psychological health of individual and work outcomes. When one's intra-psychic or internal environment is in balance, self-leadership becomes easy. This internal harmony manifests in constructive inner dialogues, self-understanding and acceptance, stability and personal growth, which are all classified under self-leadership. In essence, effective self-leadership is therefore an enhanced perception of psychological functioning and health, indicative that one's internal environment is in accord (Schwartz, 2008).

In summary, Olapido (2010) suggests that the IFS model is intended to help individuals find and release the limitations that block their access to their inner resources and wisdom thereby providing a foundation for self-leadership. When individuals tap into these inner resources, they enhance their internal environments, thereby promoting successful self-leadership (Olapido, 2010).

2.4.4 Self-leadership performance mechanism model

According to Van Zyl (2012) self-leadership performance mechanism model was proposed by Neck and Houghton (2006). Neck and Houghton (2006) describe self-leadership as a set of strategies that are based on particular theories of self-influence that lead to particular performance outcomes at work. It indicates the importance of self-leadership through an array of related variables (Chaijukul, 2010). Figure 2.3 is a schematic representation of the self-leadership performance mechanism model.

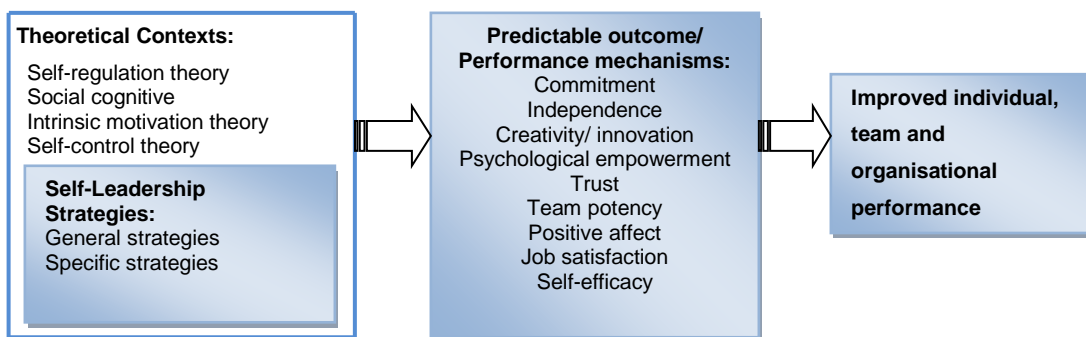


Figure 2.3. Self-leadership performance mechanism model (Van Zyl 2012, p. 126).

According to Neck and Manz (2006) self-leadership is a concept founded on theoretical context of self-influence that includes general and specific strategies of self-regulation, self-control, social-cognitive and intrinsic motivation. The model specifies additional sets of general and specific strategies that form self-leadership (Chaijukul, 2010). Application of these self-leadership strategies result in several predictable outcomes such as organisational commitment, independence, creativity, psychological empowerment, trust, team potency, positive affect, job satisfaction and self-efficacy with an organisation. Manz and Neck (2013) state that these outcomes affect and lead to improved performance behaviours of employees at individual, team, and organisational levels (Van Zyl, 2012; Brown & Fields, 2011).

The self-leadership performance mechanism model was identified as a model relevant for this study as it embodies the process of self-leadership specifically within the organisation. The model represents important organisational outcomes for this study, and is also prominent in recent research studies of self-leadership.

2.4.5 Situational model of self-leadership

Situational model of self-leadership was created by Blanchard (2007). The model is based on situational leadership theory which holds that, there is no single best style of leadership. Effective leadership is task-relevant, and the most successful leaders are those that adapt their leadership style to the maturity of the individual or group they are attempting to lead or influence (Blanchard, 2007). Maturity refers to the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility for the task, and relevant education or experience of an individual or a group for the task (Dane, 2012).

According to Dane (2012) situational self-leadership reveals how power, freedom, and autonomy come from having the right mind-set and the skills needed to take personal responsibility for success. Ultimately, it is in one's own best interest to accept responsibility for getting what he or she needs to succeed.

In addition self-leadership can be achieved by practising three skills namely, challenge-assumed constraints, celebrating points of power and collaborating for success (Blanchard, Fowler, & Hawkins, 2007). These skills require different levels of direction and support. Direction and support assist self-leaders in consolidating their competence and commitment at each stage of their development. Competence is a cluster of related abilities, commitments, knowledge, and skills that enable a person to act effectively in a job, while commitment is measured by one's motivation and confidence about a goal (Blanchard et al., 2007).

Dane (2012) states that in situational self-leadership one can empower him-or herself by utilising the guidance and support of friends and colleagues to increase competence and commitment. Competence to achieve a goal needs a direction from someone who will set a clear goal, generate an action plan, show how to develop the skill or achieve the goal, clarify roles, provide timelines, establish priorities, monitor and evaluate progress, as well as give feedback (Dane, 2012). To build commitment to achieve a goal, one will also need support from someone who will listen, praise and encourage one through the process, facilitate one's problem-solving, ask for input, provide rationale about the activities, share information about their experiences relevant to the goal, share relevant organisation information about the goal and what to ask for at each development level (Blanchard et al., 2007).

Further, Blanchard (2007) suggests that there are four sub-dimensions to self-leadership, namely dimension 1(D1), dimension 2 (D2), dimension 3 (D3) and dimension 4 (D4). Using the competence and commitment scenario, at D1, one is an enthusiastic beginner in self-leadership with low competence and high commitment. Therefore they require high direction and low support. D2 is the disillusioned learner, with low to some competence and low commitment. At this level high direction and high support is needed. When at D3, the capable but cautious self-leader, with moderate to high competence and variable commitment one needs low direction and high support. D4 is the high achiever level of self-leadership. One has acquired the necessary competences and commitment to lead themselves, therefore low direction and low support is needed (Blanchard et al., 2007).

In summary, Houghton and Yoho (2005) suggest that there are circumstances in life and at work when self-leadership should be encouraged. Organisational factors such as, leader development, situational urgency, and task structure dictate which of several self-leadership approaches should be encouraged. This view resonates with the idea of situational self-leadership (Yun et al., 2006).

2.4.6 Self-leadership development model

The self-leadership development model was developed by Pereira (2005). The model is based on the premise that self-leadership demands a focus on something higher than just self-centred success, which is normally measured by material possessions, prestige and power. Self-leadership development, in essence, aims for higher levels of individual significance (Pereira, 2005). The model has the following principles, firstly, individuals have unique talents or capabilities that cannot be acquired by money or other material means, but are rather special gifts from God. Secondly, individuals have a responsibility for becoming aware of their own unique capabilities. Thirdly, being aware, individuals need to take responsibility to develop their talents to the level of excellence as a way of honouring the Creator and justifying the talents they have received. Finally, personal fulfilment and significance should be developed through sharing with others the results of this excellence and uniqueness (Pereira, 2005). The self-development model is illustrated in figure 2.4 below.

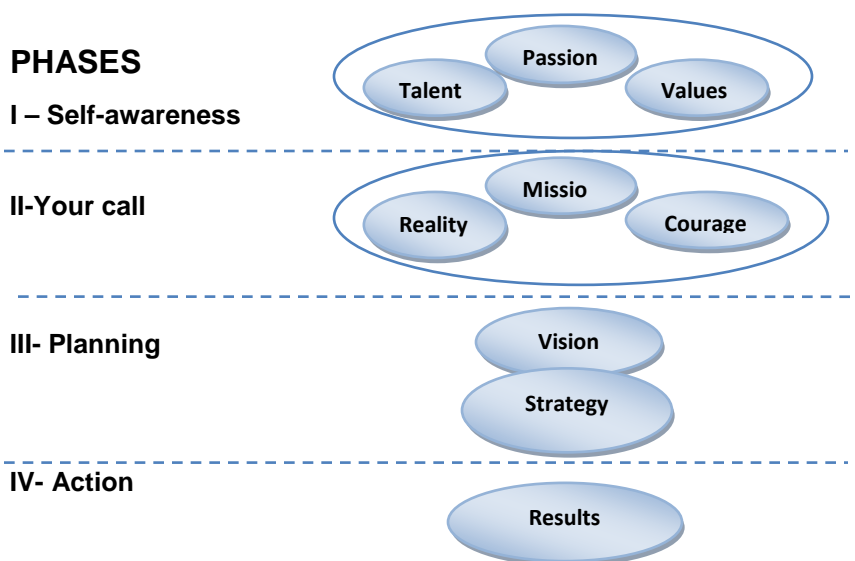


Figure 2.4. Self-leadership development model (Pereira, 2000, p. 80).

The self-leadership development model has four levels, characterised by level I, level II, level III and level IV.

LEVEL I is self-awareness; to be a self-leader one must understand and clarify his or her innate hard-wired capabilities, what drives him or her in life (passions) and what is really most important to him or her in this life (Personal Values). One can add to this other complementary ingredients of soul-searching like personality and experiences (Pereira, 2005).

LEVEL II is understanding one's purpose in life; the above elements of self-awareness and soul searching allows one to clarify one's mission and sense of identity. When this personal identity comes across a situation or an opportunity that is in line with itself, one becomes further empowered by courage and is likely to act and move to the next level of self-leadership (Zhang & Zhao, 2012).

LEVEL III is planning; when empowered by the understanding and clarification of the very basic inner issues of levels I and II, the self-leader is ready to articulate the desired change he or she wants to bring about; that is, the vision and the strategy (Pereira, 2005).

LEVEL IV is action; having gone through the levels I to III, the self-leader is then ready for action and the generation of meaningful results, which includes other individuals's empowerment and value added to society (Pereira, 2005). When one has clarified the components of Level I and understood his or her mission (Level II), Levels III and IV can be worked out more effectively especially in challenging situations (Zietel-Bank & Tat, 2013).

In conclusion, Pereira (2005) states that in a business environment of intensive changes, interdependency and diversity, each person has the potential and the responsibility to serve as an agent of positive change through self-leadership. This can only be achieved if individuals understand the relation between spirituality and

leadership, which requires a journey through non-conventional business and leadership education and development.

2.4.7 A comprehensive self-leadership model

A comprehensive model of self-leadership was created by Manz and Neck (2003). According to the model, self-leadership comprises four key elements namely, behavioural focused strategies, natural rewards strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies and team self-leadership. The comprehensive model of self-leadership integrates all essential elements of self-leadership (Neck & Manz, 2007). Figure 2.5 represents a schematic representation of comprehensive self-leadership model.

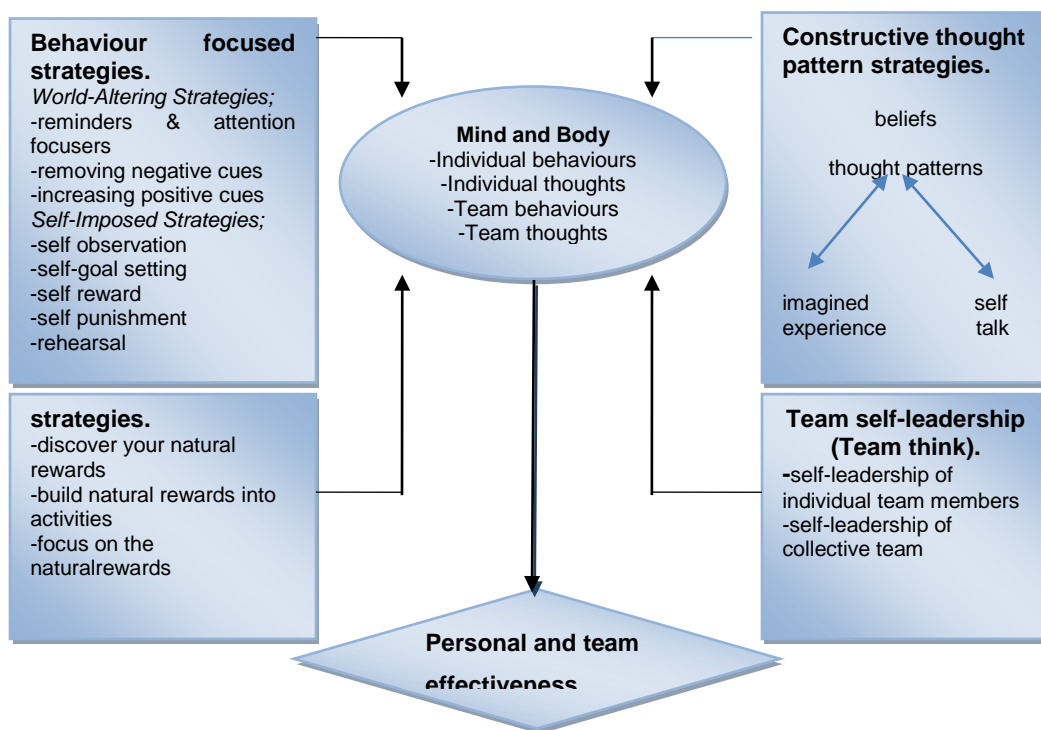


Figure 2.5. A comprehensive model of self-leadership (Manz & Neck, 2003, p. 112).

The model depicts four key elements of self-leadership namely behavioural-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, constructive thought pattern strategies and team self-leadership (Neck & Manz, 2013). Behavioural-focused strategies include world-altering strategies and self-imposed strategies used to alter immediate physical worlds and to help an individual exercise control over him or herself, while natural

reward strategies are for tapping the power of indirect benefits of our activities (Neck & Manz, 2007). Constructive thought pattern strategies are beliefs, imagined experiences, and self-talk depicted as interacting factors that lead to the thought patterns that establish unique psychological worlds for a person, while team self-leadership represents tools that lead a person within a team setting. These four key elements influence and complement each other in forming a comprehensive framework (Neck & Manz, 2004).

The model proposes that effective use of these four key elements of self-leadership leads to congruency of body and mind, where physical and mental balances align and create intelligent, motivated and purposeful thinking and behaviour (Manz & Neck, 2007). This empowering congruency is self-lead to three projects of personal development in chosen areas of total wellness as suggested by Sydänmaanlakka's (2006) Self ltd model. The commitment in the projects leads to personal effectiveness and successful performances, which create positive perceptions of self-efficacy leading to more personal effectiveness, which becomes an upward spiral leading to more successful performances (Neck & Manz, 2013).

In summary, the model allows viewing the comprehensive systematic approach to self-leadership in its totality. It suggests a complex system of multiple variables where individuals have several points of departure to improving their self-leadership. Applying the different principles of self-leadership strategies should ultimately contribute to a changed, more effective and rewarding lifestyle and work behaviour (Neck & Manz, 2004; Tuovinen, 2010).

2.5 SUMMATIVE PERSPECTIVES ON THE MODELS OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

The above section discussed the models of self-leadership as they relate to self-leadership theory. The models give a framework of how self-leadership can be very effective in helping one manage behaviours and thought processes related to exercise and diet and specific advice on how to apply each strategy that is provided.

That is, application of self-leadership can help improve cognition and well-being leading to a plethora of individual and organisational benefits.

Grounded on the models of self-leadership are different strategies of self-leadership which are discussed in the next section.

2.6 STRATEGIES OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

Self-Leadership comprises specific strategies that are generally designed to positively influence personal effectiveness. These strategies are divided into three main categories, namely behaviour-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and constructive thought pattern strategies (D'Intino et al., 2007; Sahin, 2011; Palmer, 2012). These strategies, together with additional strategies of self-leadership are discussed in this section.

2.6.1 Behaviour-focused strategies

Hauschildt and Konradt (2012) state that behaviour-focused strategies are strategies intended to encourage desirable behaviours that lead to successful outcomes, as well as repressing undesirable behaviours that lead to unsuccessful outcomes (Zietel-Bank & Tat, 2013). These strategies are self-observation, self-goal setting, self-reward, self-punishment, and management of cues (Brown, 2003; Politis, 2006).

2.6.1.1 Self-observation

Self-observation is a process that escalates an individual's awareness in how, when, and why one displays certain behaviours. It entails an active mental process, where one consciously assesses the on-going experience and evaluates oneself and personal relationships as objectively as possible (Tuovinen, 2010). According to D'Intino et al. (2007) the self-observation process is necessary to obtain the knowledge and information needed to manage own behaviour, to establish what is important to a person and what one would like to achieve (Åhman et al., 2007). Sydänmaanlakka (2007) proposes that often one's own restricted views are the biggest obstacles to change, growth and development, but through self-observation one can identify behaviours that should be changed, enhanced, or eliminated.

Information obtained from this self-assessment is used to make changes to become more effective in personal and work behaviour (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Bryant and Kazan (2013) suggest that to practice self-observation, one need to identify behaviours that they need to change and keep record of the frequency and duration of the target behaviours, as well as note conditions that lead to the display of the behaviour. Neck and Manz (2007) give an example that, if one feels that one he or she is not accomplishing enough each day at work because of wasted time, one can study the distractions he or she experiences. It may be that they are spending too much time engaged in informal conversations. By observing the amount of informal conversing one participates in and the conditions that exist at the time, one can learn more about this behaviour and how they can reduce it. Self-observation skill develops gradually and if worked on consistently it is helpful in eliminating the human tendency towards negative actions and thoughts (Neck & Manz, 2004).

2.6.1.2 Self-goal setting

Neck and Manz (2013) define self-goal setting as identifying specific end states that describe the frequency, intensity, duration, or other characteristic of a desired behaviour. Self-goal setting creates deadlines for a desired end state. It provides motivation and influence toward any objective, as well as helps a person not to waste time in invaluable activities that do not align with one's purpose (Brown & Fields, 2011).

Locke and Latham (2006) argue that after the process of self-observation it is important that one sets goals to enable him or her to reach these ends in behaviour. One's purpose is outlined; guidelines for decisions and daily activities are established. That is, daily decisions become easier to make with established goals, and goal-oriented mind-set becomes a way of life. Self-goal setting also helps clarify thinking, generates new ideas and keeps one focused. It increases accomplishments and individual performance, as well as provides direction to self-leadership (Locke & Latham, 2006; Mansor et al., 2013).

Marshall et al. (2012) is also of the opinion that to be more effective in managing immediate behaviour one has to set specific and challenging, yet achievable goals. Specific goals will help paint a more vivid picture of the future and thus make it easier to achieve them. Challenging yet achievable goals also brings a sense of achievement when one reaches them. Unreasonable goals that are not realistic, however, are likely to deter a person than do good (Dane, 2012). Short-term and long-term goals for one's life and career should be established. It is important also to let other people know about the goals as a motivation. Furthermore, to be effective self-goal setting should be aligned to organisational and team goals (Neck & Manz 2004).

2.6.1.3 Self-reward

Self-reward is described as the extent to which employees influence themselves using rewards. The strategy implies that a person creates reward contingencies linked to the self-set goals in order to motivate and direct the effort necessary for goal attainment (Tuovinen, 2010). Karen (2007) argues that for effective self-leadership one has to increase own motivation and effectiveness by identifying those things one finds rewarding and use them to systematically reward his or her desirable behaviour. Neck and Manz (2013) suggest that both mental and physical rewards can be applied. Mental self-rewarding can be applied by encouraging oneself through internal speech and imagination, and consciously giving oneself praise for good performance. Physical rewards can be applied by obtaining material things, such as buying something for oneself. This will positively influence future work behaviour (Alves et al., 2006).

In addition Bryant & Kazan (2012) proposes a four-step reward system. The first step is to identify what one sees as the most motivating objects, thoughts and images. The second step is to identify rewarding behaviours and attitudes towards achieving activities. The third step is to actually reward oneself when performing or behaving the desired way. One can give a small reward for completing parts of the job and a bigger reward for completing the whole job. The fourth step is to be always self-praising and self-rewarding whenever accomplishing what was planned. This

behaviour will exert a positive effect on future behaviour and work activities (Brown & Fields, 2011; Neck & Manz, 2007).

2.6.1.4 Self-punishment

Self-punishment is a self-correcting feedback which entails constructive self-evaluation of failures and unproductive behaviours in order to refocus effort in more positive directions. It comprises self-applied consequences of behaviour that involves negative self-applied results to decrease undesired behaviour (Van Zyl, 2009). Like self-reward, self-punishment is contingent on completing an activity. If one fails to complete a task, he or she denies him- or herself enjoyable activity or have negative internal speech or criticism (Braynt & Kazan, 2013).

However, Karen (2007) warns that self-punishment strategy should be used with caution. Excessive use of self-punishment, including unrealistic self-criticisms can lead to feelings of guilt and impaired creativity and motivation. The goal of self-punishment should be to take constructive action to correct undesirable behaviour and not to demoralise and psychologically paralyse oneself. Neck and Houghton (2006) propose that to effectively implement self-punishment strategy one should discover behaviours that bring guilt, identify and reduce habitual self-destructive patterns of self-punishment, and try out alternative strategies such as eliminating rewards that support negative behaviour and using punishment only for extremely negative behaviours. Generally one should reserve self-punishment for only very wrong, seriously negative behaviours.

Tuovinen (2010) also suggests supervised monitoring can be used instead. This includes bringing external people along. One makes a commitment to these people who promise to do something unpleasant if he or she fails to follow the agreed plan. This will encourage reducing the undesired behaviour (Touvinen, 2010).

2.6.1.5 Rehearsal

Rehearsal means the practice of an activity to improve performance. It means one goes over activities to detect problems and make corrections before they can actually

perform them. This improves self-leadership by enhancing an individual's ability to perform desirable behaviours and to eliminate undesirable ones (Boss & Sims, 2008). Stewart et al. (2011) state that, the key to rehearsal is to develop the ability to identify important parts of a given activity and to practise these parts physically and mentally. One can physically practice activity that one needs to do while mentally rehearsing it. The more important the activity is, the more important it is to rehearse. Rehearsal might not make one perfect, but can make it better to carry out the job (Neck & Manz, 2004). Additionally, Neck & Manz (2007) suggest that when paired with self-rewards, rehearsal increases motivation and self-confidence. One can picture the glory moments of achieving the goal or completing the job. That is when mentally going over a future challenge one must imagine a positive, rewarding outcome resulting from one's actions (Neck & Manz, 2007).

2.6.1.6 Management of cues

Mansor et al. (2013) defines cues as reminders and attention focusers that help to identify important moments in everyday jobs. These cues are contained in our external environment and have a propensity to encourage certain behaviours. Management of cues is thus altering this environment to help behave in desirable ways (Neck & Manz, 2004). The environment can be rearranged to lead to desired positive behaviour and eliminate distractions and influences that promote negative behaviour. Management of cues strategies are divided into three areas, namely, attention focusers, increasing positive cues and decreasing negative cues (Boss & Sims, 2012).

Attention focusers means one uses physical objects to remind oneself or focus attention on things that needs to be done. This can be achieved by making a list of priorities to guide one's daily activities, and then set reminders to focus attention on these prioritised behaviours and activities (Karen, 2007; Neck & Manz, 2007). Positive cues, on the other hand, can be increased by making success and personal development inevitable. That is, the environment can be organised so as to encourage development and expose oneself to circumstances that support the development. If individuals wish to read more, they can put appropriate books near

their favourite sitting place at home or at work (Brown & Fields, 2011). Management of negative cues is described identifying the objects in the environment that make one act undesirably and reducing them thereafter. This can be achieved by deliberately removing those objects or removing oneself from their presence. For example, if one wishes to talk less on their cell phone while at work, one may switch off their cell phone or remove it from their office during normal working hours. One should also decrease spending time with negative individuals who always see the downside in everything and encourage acting in undesirable ways (Neck & Manz, 2007).

2.6.2 Natural reward strategies

Natural reward strategies is concerned with promotion of pleasant and enjoyable feelings directly related to an activity, intended to energise activity oriented behaviours that enhance performance through task positive modelling and suppression of task negative issues (Neck & Manz, 2007). Stewart et al. (2011) state that task positive modelling is building more naturally enjoyable features into daily work activities. This is achieved by identifying places to perform the job in a more pleasant way, identifying activities that can be built into the job that could make it naturally rewarding, such as redesigning of the job to incorporate more pleasant context for the job or searching for features that provide one with competence or purpose. Bryant and Kazan (2013) propose that a person may choose to finish their job or activity in a more enjoyable way, thereby building in natural rewards for his or her effort. Also, a large activity can be divided into sub-activities or milestones. Completion of milestones can provide an intrinsic reward of being done. A task proposed for one person might be assigned to a team, which provides a more rewarding social environment (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Suppression of task negative issues involves shaping perceptions by focusing attention away from unpleasant aspects of the job or activity so that it appears inherently rewarding. This means that one focuses on identifying the pleasant, enjoyable aspects of the job and then distinguishing rewards built into the job and concentrate on these rewards for obtaining satisfaction from the job (Dane, 2012;

Van Zyl, 2012). One can also choose to focus on the rewards that one is expecting to receive from doing the job, such as salary, praise or recognition. In this way natural enjoyment for doing the job comes from the expectation of future rewards. These behaviours, according to Neck and Manz (2004), increase a habit and ability to focus on the natural rewards of the job; the idea is not to avoid or ignore the difficult or unpleasant aspects of the job, but rather to deal with them constructively.

In addition, Furtner, Rauthmann and Sachse (2011) suggest that self-leadership's conceptualisation of natural rewards is based on the intrinsic motivation literature, particularly self-determination theory of Deci and Ryan's. This means that feelings of autonomy and competence are a central focus in the task-based natural rewards strategy component of self-leadership. That is, the individual views work activities as pleasant, rewarding and enjoyable, which augments a sense of purpose, competency and self-control (Carmeli et al., 2006).

Sense of purpose means that a person believes activities are worthy or provide him or her with a sense of meaning. This makes a job naturally rewarding because individuals have a basic need to feel that they are doing something of value with their lives (Neck & Manz, 2013). Neck and Manz (2007) refer to competency as one's perception of having the ability to carry out a specific task well. Individuals usually enjoy activities that they do well and tend to increase this activity in order to continue the feeling of competence more. Houghton, Bonham, Neck & Singh (2004) argue that because individuals tend to reduce activities that they do not do well because they make them feel incompetent, it is important to develop a sense of awareness about one's competences as this will enhance self-leadership (Houghton et al, 2011). On the other hand, self-control comprises a belief that one has autonomy over their own work behaviours and processes. This enhances self-leadership because activities that give self-control by allowing one to determine and decide by oneself how and where to make activities are naturally rewarding (Furtner et al., 2010; Neck & Manz, 2007).

2.6.3 Constructive thought pattern strategies

Constructive thought pattern strategies refer to formation and maintenance of functional patterns of habitual thinking (Rusok, Basir, Awang & Nawi, 2011). These strategies include self-analysis and improvement of belief systems, visualising successful performance outcomes, and positive self-talk (D'Intino et al., 2007; Stewart et al., 2011; Van Zyl, 2012).

2.6.3.1 Self-analysis and improvement of belief systems

Ugurluoglu, Saygili, Ozer and Santas (2013) define self-analysis and improvement of belief systems as a process of examining one's thinking patterns in order to identify mental distortions and confront their basis or sources. These distorted thoughts are believed to be the results of dysfunctional thinking that are activated by potentially disturbing situations. Nel (2012) identifies a number of different categories of dysfunctional thinking that can hinder personal effectiveness, thus effective self-leadership. These include, among others, all-or-nothing thinking, that is seeing things as black or white; mind reading, which involves drawing negative conclusions without adequate evidence, negative labelling, such as seeing oneself as a failure; and catastrophising, that is, exaggerating how bad something is (Brown, 2003).

It is through self-analysis that these dysfunctional beliefs and assumptions are then replaced by choosing more empowering beliefs to achieve high levels of self-leadership (Godwin, Neck & Houghton, 2009). This can be achieved by identifying activities that one believes to be mostly impacting on actions and feelings, then analysing the accuracy and validity of these beliefs. One has to question whether these beliefs are positively or negatively affecting their actions and feelings, and then isolate the dysfunctional beliefs and replace them by choosing more empowering beliefs (Houghton et al., 2012; Neck & Manz, 2004).

2.6.3.2 Visualising successful performance outcomes

Rusok et al. (2011) describe visualising successful performance as a process by which individuals symbolically create and experience virtual behaviours similar to real ones. It is purposefully generating constructive mental images so as to change

thinking and behaviour, and improve performance. According to Mansor et al. (2013) a person who uses mental imagery to envision successful performance of an activity in advance is more likely to perform successfully when carrying out the actual task. Mental imagery helps generate positive emotions, beliefs and mind set. By symbolically experiencing, for example, an end of a successful presentation at work prior to actual performance can be motivation for doing one's best during the actual presentation. This is due to clear mental pictures that sharpen one's mind and strengthen one's confidence in their abilities (Carmeli et al., 2006).

Tuovinen (2010) states that as one imagines oneself as highly effective, his or her actions will align with the mental image. Firstly, one should start by analysing imagined experiences, verifying whether they focus on the positive or on the negative outcomes of difficult activities whether if these mental images facilitate or undermine one's confidence in the performance of activities whether and if they are realistic. Following this is recognising destructive imagined experience tendencies, such as the tendency to always anticipate negative thinking. Then, one should purposefully and actively choose to think about other more positive images, as well as a sequence of events that boost one's efforts, clarifying and motivating one's actions. Exercising control over one's mental imagery experiences can lead to improved psychological worlds, which will result in increased self-leadership behaviours (Godwin et al., 2009; Stewart et al., 2011).

2.6.3.3 Positive self-talk

Carmeli et al. (2006) define self-talk as what individuals covertly tell themselves. It is a self-dialogue that occurs at unobservable levels as individuals assess, instruct, and respond to themselves mentally. This strategy suggests that individuals should heighten their awareness of the content of their internal dialogues to reduce or eliminate negative, irrational, or pessimistic self-talk while encouraging more optimistic self-dialogue (Hardy, 2006). One has to analyse their current self-talk tendencies, verifying whether they are destructive or they facilitate effectiveness, then identify the negative self-talk that one would like to eliminate, as well as identifying constructive self-messages one would like to develop. Practising self-talk,

aloud at first, and then internalising it, using constructive, self-instructional, and self-motivational inner speech will help one become effective in using this strategy (Hardy, 2006).

Andressen et al. (2012) suggest that positive self-talk improves self-leadership by facilitating direct self-efficacy and self-influence. It results in more constructive internal dialogues, positive thoughts and behaviours. According to Carmeli et al (2006) it can also be used to prepare a person for challenges, to cope with difficulties and to reward oneself whenever dealing with difficulties. By replacing negative and dysfunctional self-talk patterns with more constructive internal dialogues, performance may be enhanced (Boss & Sims, 2012).

2.6.4 Additional strategies of self-leadership

According to Houghton et al. (2013) there are some additional self-leadership strategies that reflect an important degree of self-leadership. These strategies include self-awareness strategies, volitional strategies and motivational strategies. Self-awareness strategies involve specific efforts to focus attention on oneself in order to selectively process self-related information resulting in knowledge about oneself. Self-awareness enables one to make changes in the thoughts and interpretations in one's mind. It is one of the attributes of emotional intelligence and an important factor in achieving self-leadership success. Self-awareness is therefore seen as a complimentary or even prerequisite process in relation to self-observation as described above (Georgianna, 2007; Neck, 2006).

Volitional strategies refer to application of conscious effort, self-determination to pursue goals and to resist temptation and impulses to abandon the goals. Andressen et al. (2012) reason that together with the behaviour-focused strategies, volitional strategies may help individuals become even more effective at engaging in difficult or unpleasant activities. Motivational strategies, on the other hand involve an intentional focus on performance outcomes such as a process of visualising personal competency and effectiveness leading to successful performance. Motivational strategies also include the use of intermediate goals in order to achieve longer-term

or more distal goals as well as the use of self-rewards to facilitate goal striving (Georgianna, 2007).

Muller (2006) is of the opinion that, although these additional strategies overlap somewhat with the three traditional self-leadership strategy sub-dimensions discussed above, these additional strategies make a substantial contribution to overall understanding of self-leadership by addressing several subtle aspects of performance-related cognitive and behavioural processes (Houghton et al., (2013).

The above discussion leads to the presentation of the following core principles of self-leadership.

2.7. CORE PRINCIPLES OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

According to Lauber (2013) the above strategies will cultivate seven principles of self-leadership. These principles are a guiding set of behaviours and beliefs to effectively lead oneself and thereby lead others more effectively. They comprise of personal mission, values and vision, responsibility and accountability for one's behaviour, developing self-awareness in all areas of life, cultivating emotional intelligence, financial responsibility, physical health and creating goals, systems and habits to succeed.

2.7.1 Personal mission, values and vision

Komives, Lucas and McMahon (2007) state that personal mission, values and vision are the foundation for one's life and the type of a leader one wants to become. Personal mission will give a direction and structure of one's purpose in life, while vision is visualisation of the future one aspires, and values are beliefs that keep one motivated to achieve priorities (Palmer, 2012). These elements are important to self-leadership. The mission, values and vision should be written down and reviewed periodically to accommodate reality. Knowing one's personal vision, mission and values will also assist one in seeing how they fit into the organisation's and team's mission, vision and values (Dane, 2012).

2.7.2 Responsibility and accountability for one's behaviour

Self-leadership means taking ownership of one's decisions, actions and outcomes. A person is in a position of power, not a product of circumstances. Self-leadership means one always has a choice in how to react and act in any situation. Embodying responsibility and accountability for one's behaviour gives an edge and a tremendous advantage in life and leadership (Lauber, 2013).

2.7.3 Developing self-awareness in all areas of life

According to Neck and Manz (2007) self-leadership begins with self-awareness. That is, to be an effective self-leader, one need to understand one's underlying behaviours, be aware of one's habits, the good and the bad and know which ones are strengths and which one's sabotage ones mission and vision. Leaders who are aware of themselves will also know how their thoughts, emotions and actions impact on their team and subordinates (Pereira, 2005).

2.7.4 Cultivating emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (D'Intino et al., 2007). This ties in with self-awareness and is important to one's interactions, especially those of self-leaders. One has to learn to manage and regulate emotions to achieve high levels of self-leadership, high value relationships and results. An emotionally intelligent self-leader will also know how to interact with individuals at a much deeper level to achieve more desirable outcomes (Lauber, 2013).

2.7.5 Financial responsibility

Financial responsibility is the process of managing money and other assets in a manner that is considered productive and in the best interests of the individual. Understanding personal finances and knowing how they interplay with one's life is crucial to self-leadership (Lauber, 2013). Money impacts one's moods, emotions and how one approaches achieving his or her vision and mission. Being proficient at the

task of money management involves cultivating a mind-set that makes it possible to look beyond the wants of today in order to provide for the needs of tomorrow. This is a good principle of self-leadership (Lauber, 2013).

2.7.6 Physical health

According to Lovelace et al. (2007) diet and physical fitness impact every emotion, thought, action and outcome. What a person puts in his or her body directly affects his or her brain chemistry and energy. Their level of activity also determines moods, energy and the ability to think clearly. Therefore, it is important that a person treats his or her body well to achieve high levels of self-leadership (Sydänmaanlakka, 2007).

2.7.7 Creating goals, systems and habits to succeed

According to Lauber (2013), goals, systems and habits are sets of activities to live your mission and to achieve your vision. To be a successful self-leader, it is important that a person break his or her bad habits and instil good habits. A person must use systems that push him- or herself out of a comfort zone and do whatever it takes to achieve goals (Zeital & Tat, 2013).

The focus of the next section is on the factors that affect self-leadership within an organisation and individual.

2.8 FACTORS THAT AFFECT SELF-LEADERSHIP

Sahin (2011) argues that self-leadership does not exist in a vacuum, but is developed within a work environment. Individuals also have attributes that directly affect their behaviour including the extent to which they display self-leadership qualities (Palmer, 2012). The following section will therefore discuss organisational and individual factors that affect self-leadership behaviour.

2.8.1 Organisational factors

Important organisational factors that affect self-leadership are social and structural features of an organisation. Some of those that will be discussed in this section

comprise organisational design and structure, relationships at work, rewards systems, and organisational climate and culture (Sahin, 2011).

2.8.1.1 Organisational design and structure

Organisational structure entails determining the patterns and the authority of relationships between the roles in the organisation. It is considered an invisible hand that brings organisations to life and life to organisations as it plays an important role in human and operational sub-dimensions of an organisation (Quick & Nelson, 2008). Konrad, et al. (2009) argue that the way an organisation is designed influences employees' occupational self-regulating behaviours, such as self-leadership. Organisations should therefore be structured to allow for information sharing, autonomy, and individual accountability to positively affect self-leadership behaviour.

High levels of self-leadership are also found in organisational structures with low levels of centralisation and formalisation. Within a properly structured organisational environment a self-leading individual would have opportunity to influence key strategic, administrative and operating outcomes. Organisational structures that have strict organisational control discourage self-leadership practices as they lead to bureaucratic behaviour (Van Zyl, 2012).

2.8.1.2 Relationships at work

Relationships at work refer to day to day interactions between co-workers, managers and employees. These relationships are a natural part of the work environment and induce certain behaviours in individuals (Worrell, 2004). Relationships at work comprise emotional and technical support, and guidance from management, as well as good relationships with co-workers that are emotionally and socially supportive. Emotional support includes the extent to which top management concern themselves with the welfare of the employees while technical support has to do with the extent to which there is support in decision-making (Stoetzer, 2010).

According to Shah and Ali (2011) self-leadership has positive correlations with perceptions of good relations at the work-place. Good relations create a sense of

respect and dignity that promotes personal effectiveness thus self-leadership behaviour. A person has more access to information therefore able to set goals. These relations makes a person feel valued thereby lead to a more satisfied and committed employee who is able to self-lead.

2.8.1.3 Reward systems

Organisational reward systems consist of strategies designed to attract, motivate and retain employees at all levels (Grobler, Warnich, Carrel, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2011). According to Manz (2007) research has also shown that an individual level of self-leadership can be influenced by reward systems of an organisation. Performance-based reward strategy particularly, has been identified as key human resource practice through which employees can gain a greater sense of control over their work. This occurs because performance-based pay structures motivate workers to be self-led and proactive in improving work processes, boosting productivity, and solving problems. These are therefore the most effective reward structure for increasing individual and team level of self-leadership (Gerhart & Rynes, 2003).

2.8.1.4 Organisational climate and culture

Hunter, Bedell, and Mumford (2007) define organisational climate as the recurring patterns of behaviour, attitudes and feelings that characterise life in the organisations. It comprises features such as leadership styles, openness, conflict management styles, work unit or organisational practice, and rewards or punishment emphasis, to mention but a few. Rousseau (2011) suggests that organisational climate is essentially a description of the work setting by those directly involved in it. It precedes organisational culture. Organisational culture is defined as the values, norms and ways of behaving shared by members of an organisation (Rose & Waterhouse, 2004).

According to Seibert, Silver, and Randolph (2004) organisational climate characterised by empowerment, information sharing, autonomy, and team accountability lead to high levels and quality of self-leadership of individuals. Additionally Stewart et al. (2011) demonstrate that high involvement organisational-

level contexts in which workers are given information about various work-related issues, such as processes, quality, performance, competitors, organisational changes, and are granted power to make work-related decisions are more conducive to positive levels self-leadership and individual effectiveness (Stewart et al., 2011).

2.8.2 Individual factors

Research indicates that different individual differences such as emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, hardiness, locus of control, ability to handle work-stress and need for autonomy are some of important factors that affect self-leadership (D'Intino et al., 2007; Campbell, Baltes, Martin & Meddings, 2007; Unsworth, 2012). Age is also considered as one of individual factors that impact on the practise of self-leadership (Norris, 2008). These individual factors are discussed in this section.

2.8.2.1 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence essentially describes the ability to effectively join emotions and reasoning, using emotions to facilitate reasoning and reasoning intelligently about emotions (Cherry, 2011). In other words, emotional intelligence taps into the extent to which individuals's cognitive capabilities are informed by emotions and the extent to which emotions are cognitively managed. According to D'Intino et al (2007) emotional intelligence is one of the most important individual differences that influence self-leadership. The ability to feel intense emotion, control emotions and understand the reason for the emotions leads to effective self-regulation behaviour associated with self-leadership. Individuals high in emotional intelligence are most likely be more effective in leading themselves, as much as self-leadership can improve a person's emotional intelligence. Therefore to be effective in self-leadership it is important that individuals cultivate their emotional intelligence (D'Intino et al., 2007; Van Zyl, 2008).

2.8.2.2 Self-efficacy

Chaijukul (2010) defines self-efficacy as one's belief in his or her competences to rally the inspiration, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational or organisational demands. It is a cognitive process relevant to self-leadership as it influences individual choices, goals, emotional reactions, effort,

coping, and persistence (Nichollas, Polman, Levy, & Borkoles, 2010). Self-efficacy judgments influence the activities a person chooses to undertake or avoid, how much effort one expends on activities, and how long he or she will persist in the face of challenges. An individual perception of their own ability to deal successfully with, and overcome situations in life has an impact on the extent to which one exhibits self-leadership behaviour (Lee & Turban, 2010).

Self-efficacy is particularly linked to mental imagery and goal-setting activities of self-leadership. Individuals who imagine successful performance of activities are more likely to persist in achieving the activity (Neck & Manz, 2007). Individuals who also judge themselves as relatively more capable are more likely to set more challenging goals and exhibit greater long-term goal commitment. Individuals who doubt their own capabilities are likely to be discouraged by failures and obstacles, while self-assured individuals tend to redouble their efforts in the face of failure, persisting until success is achieved (Neck & Houghton (2006). Self-efficacy is said to be a significant performance driver in a variety of job areas. Therefore, it can be concluded that self-efficacy is the key to individual's knowledge and skills enhancement enabling them to engage in self-leadership behaviours (Palmer, 2012; Shah & Ali, 2011).

2.8.2.3 Hardiness

Hardiness refers to the ability to readily recover from situations requiring some sort of adaptation on the part of the individual. It describes individuals with three related tendencies; a tendency to perceive change as a challenge; commitment to the individuals and activities they are involved in, and a sense of personal control in handling life events (Nel, 2012). Hardy individuals view change as a challenge and challenge as an opportunity. They are committed to individuals and activities in their lives, and have a sense of personal control in handling life events. According to Braun (2009) the concept of hardiness is positively related to self-leadership. The ability to adapt and maintain health under pressure improves quality and use of self-leadership strategies, such as self-analysis and positive self-talk (Lovelace et al., 2007).

2.8.2.4 Locus of control

D'Intino et al. (2007) define locus of control as concerning an individual's expectancy for reinforcement. An individual with an internal control orientation believes that reinforcement is contingent on his or her own behaviour whereas an individual with an external control orientation believes that reinforcement is contingent on external factors, such as, luck or chance (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2010). Furthermore, studies of locus of control demonstrated their relevance to the concept of intrinsic motivation embedded in self-leadership. Locus of control is considered to impact on self-leadership behaviour or skills. That is the extent to which a person believes that his or her choices and behaviours can directly shape his or her job, she or he will be more likely to practice self-leadership. On the contrary, if there is expectation that choices and behaviours are largely shaped and limited by external influences one will be less likely to naturally engage in self-leadership (Houghton et al., 2011).

2.8.2.5 Age

According to Ricketts et al. (2012) there is a negative relationship between age and self-leadership. Self-leadership is more present in younger individuals, where individuals are still establishing personal identity and developing personal and professional lives (Kazan, 1999; Ugurluoglu et al., 2013). On the other hand, Norris (2008) indicates that older individuals are better self-regulators than their younger counter-parts. According to Norris (2008) older individuals are better at using their rehearsed ideal behaviours to obtain best results in terms of personal and professional behaviour as required in self-leadership. These behaviours are the results of long-term observations and social experiences.

2.8.2.6 Ability to handle work-stress

Work-stress is defined as a negative perceived quality which, as a result of inadequate coping with sources of stress at work, has negative mental and physical health consequences. The experience of work-stress is subjective and dependent on individual differences (Szilas, 2011). Brink (2009) is of the opinion that individuals with low threshold for work-stress are likely to be poor self-leaders because of their dysfunctional cognitive processes that govern them. On the other hand, individuals

who are able to manage work-stress often engage in behaviours that help gain focus such as planning, setting goals, clarifying activities and completing activities. These behaviours are also relevant and necessary for effective self-leadership behaviour (Campebell et al., 2007).

Furthermore, the ability to handle work-stress reduces some psychological and physical effects, such as depression and illness that may negatively affect an individual's self-leadership (Campbell et al., 2007; Unsworth, 2012). The ability to handle work-stress is also related to an individual's trust in oneself, self-confidence and self-esteem. These results in ability to interpret life experiences which enhance self-leadership through self-goal setting, self-awareness behaviour and ability to make realistic commitments (Stewart, 2011).

2.8.2.7 Need for autonomy

The need for autonomy refers to a person's desire to engage in activities of his or her choosing. Individuals with a desire or predisposition to take responsibility, act independently, and make decisions about their job have been characterised as employees with a high need for autonomy (Yun et al., 2006). Need for autonomy explains expectations about making independent choices, participating in the decision process, taking autonomous action, and choosing for oneself both what to think and what to do. Mathis and Jackson (2006) are of the opinion that there is a positive relationship between need for autonomy and self-leadership. Need for autonomy influences self-leadership and helps motivate autonomous action (Mathis & Jackson, 2006; Yun et al., 2006).

Campbell et al (2004) suggest that individuals have a natural need for autonomy as well as a natural need to freely choose their behaviours. In essence, human agency, rationality, and autonomy are conceptually linked to the theory of self-leadership. Autonomously-oriented individuals make choices using the information available to them and they regulate themselves as they pursue self-selected goals. Self-leadership practises are considered motivational behaviours when the choice of

action flows freely, intuitively, and spontaneously. This implies that self-governance is the best form of leadership (Campbell et al., 2004).

Attention presently shifts to some reported consequences of self-leadership.

2.9 CONSEQUENCES OF SELF-LEADERSHIP

In Chaijukul's (2010) view, self-leadership has several primary outcomes that affect both individuals and the organisation. These outcomes are direct results of the application of self-leadership strategies. Some of these outcomes that will be discussed in this section namely self-efficacy, psychological empowerment, organisational commitment and independence, creativity and innovation, job satisfaction, organisational and personal effectiveness, and increased performance (Andressen et al., 2012; Neck & Houghton, 2006).

2.9.1 Self-efficacy

There is reciprocal relationship between self-efficacy and self-leadership. The ability to lead one-self results in improved self-efficacy, while the use of self-leadership results in increased self-leadership (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Norris, 2008). Neck and Houghton (2006) suggest that a major objective of self-leadership strategies is the enhancement of individual self-efficacy perceptions, calling it the single most common outcome variable proposed in the self-leadership literature (D'Intino et al., 2007; Lee & Turban; 2010).

Dahl (2012) states that self-efficacy manifest particularly as a direct result of mental imagery and goal-setting activities of self-leadership. Individuals who imagine successful performance of activities are likely to persist in achieving the activity. Individuals who also judge themselves as relatively more capable are more likely to set more challenging goals and exhibit greater long-term goal commitment. Individuals who doubt their own capabilities are likely to be discouraged by failures and obstacles, while self-assured individuals tend to redouble their efforts in the face of failure, persisting until success is achieved (Palmer, 2012; Shah & Ali, 2011).

2.9.2 Psychological empowerment

Olapido (2010) views psychological empowerment as an individual's cognitive state expressed by a sense of perceived autonomy over the work environment, competence, the meaningfulness of the job and goal internalisation. It is a multi-faceted construct reflecting different sub-dimensions of being psychologically enabled. Viewed in this way, psychological empowerment is not a stable and generalisable personality trait, but rather a positive cognitive state created by a set of cognitions that are shaped on an on-going basis by one's work environment (Nel, 2012).

Self-leadership influences development of psychological empowerment by promoting an active approach to work that causes individuals to strive toward and feel capable of shaping their work roles and contexts (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). Natural reward strategies are specifically intended to promote feelings of competence, self-control and purpose which in turn influence self-leadership. Similarly behaviour-focused strategies, such as self-observation, self-goal setting and self-reward improve feelings of self-determination and competence (Manz & Neck, 2004).

Manz and Houghton (2006) are of the opinion that it is possible that this relationship is multi-directional. That is, a person experiencing feelings of self-determination, competence, purpose and impact may be more likely to engage in self-leading behaviours than a person who is not experiencing psychological empowerment (Yun et al., 2006).

2.9.3 Organisational commitment and independence

Organisational commitment is identifying with one's employing organisation and its goals and wishing to maintain membership in the organisation; while independence is freedom from outside control (Quick & Nelson, 2009). Individuals involved in self-leadership practices have a feeling of ownership regarding their jobs. Self-leadership practises lead to individuals presenting high levels of dedication to their tasks, reaching their individual, team and organisational objectives. Committed employees will therefore work harder than other workers, based on internal and self-motivation

theories. Self-leading individuals show high levels of commitment to their tasks, goals, teams, or organisations because they develop a sense of ownership of their tasks and work processes (Houghton & Yoho, 2005; Manz & Sims, 2001; Neck & Houghton, 2006).

Self-leadership practices also lead to greater feelings of control and autonomy, leading to increased levels of independence in behaviour and decision-making. Individuals that are actively practising self-leadership become independent and are able to guide their actions and become increasingly capable of independent thought and action (Houghton & Yoho, 2006).

2.9.4 Creativity and innovation

Creativity is defined as the development of original, new, and useful ideas, while innovation is the implementation of creative concepts within in an organisation. Employees who engage in self-leadership behaviours are able to navigate their thought patterns and intentions towards the creation of desired changes, improvements and innovations (Carmeli et al., 2006; DiLiello & Houghton, 2008). Self-leadership works as an effective mechanism of developing a shared and pervasive environment that supports idea generation and creative problem-solving. That is, it is believed that an organisation that encourages self-leadership is likely to experience higher levels of innovation through its employees that can grow useful ideas and ultimately enhance organisational effectiveness (Ali & Shah, 2012).

Carmeli et.al. (2006) point out that due to the current turbulent and competitive leadership environment, organisations are compelled to develop highly innovative and creative organisational environments, where idea generation is encouraged and serves as the life blood for organisational survival. Therefore, based on research, it has been argued that the various self-leadership factors are influencing the ability of employees to foster idea generation and creative potential. These factors are identified as intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, self-determination and self-regulation (Ali & Shah, 2012; Pearce, 2004).

2.9.5 Job satisfaction

Quick and Nelson (2009) define job satisfaction as the attitude a person has towards his or her job as a result of their perception of the job they perform and the degree of cohesion between the individual and organisation. In a study by Politis (2006) it was established that there is a positive relationship between job satisfaction and self-leadership. Self-leadership strategies, including behavioural-focused strategy and constructive thought patterns increase job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is mediated by the absence of dysfunctional thought processes and by subjective well-being (Chaijukul, 2010).

2.9.6 Personal and organisational effectiveness

Effectiveness is defined as capacity to produce desired results (Quick & Nelson, 2009). Practicing self-leadership empowers an individual and increases the potential for higher performance. Individuals are capable of setting goals based on their own standards, monitor progress, and adjust their activities to meet the goals and standards. This means that the application of self-leadership improves individual and organisational functioning (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Palmer, 2012). Manz and Neck (2007) propose that self-leadership is the key to employee effectiveness; the essence of self-leadership is to provide a foundation for taking the pursuit of employee effectiveness to the next level.

Effectively self-led employees, both behaviourally and cognitively offer the best plan for achieving employee and organisational effectiveness in the 21st century. Strategies such as self-observation and self-analysis enable and enhance understanding and one's capacity to take action. Self-leadership through structured reflection is central to any approach to enhancing and sustaining personal effectiveness. Individuals become more effective in managing their change and time prioritisation, creative solutions, dealing with stress and achieving work-life balance (Manz & Neck, 2007).

2.9.7 Performance

Reyes (2008) defines performance as an act that aims to achieve goals. Self-leadership is a set of control strategies that can be taught to increase employee performance. Literature suggests that self-leadership at the individual level is consistently related to improvement in both work attitudes and performance. It is a performance-enhancing intervention. Self-leadership strategies such as, beliefs, self-talk and mental imagery affect thought patterns, which in turn affect performance. These strategies increase performance by increasing positive mental attitude and motivation to perform. Self-goal setting increases direction and focus, thereby promoting effective performance towards goals (Norris, 2008).

Reyes (2008) adds that constructive thought patterns generally increase opportunity thinking, focus on worthwhile challenges and constructive ways of dealing with problems and increased decision making. That is the ability to manage thought processes results in increased productivity thinking and improved performance. According to Neck and Manz (2007) leaders who are self-leaders are better and work more effectively with others, resulting in more productive thinking and improved performance. A person exerts greater effort and persistence in overcoming challenges and to achieve desired performance (Reyes, 2008; Shah & Ali, 2012).

Next is presentation on age differences and self-leadership.

2.10 AGE DIFFERENCES WITH REGARD TO SELF-LEADERSHIP

In this section age differences are based on career life stages. Coetzee and Roythorne-Jacobs (2007) define career life stages as specific stages in a person's career and life, separated by transition periods. According to Ricketts et al. (2012) individuals's self-leadership behaviour is influenced by their experiences of the environment and by changes in these experiences as they grow older.

The purpose of this section is therefore to discuss the moderating effect of age based on different career life stages namely early career life stage (Early CLS), middle

career life stage (Middle CLS) and late career life stage (Late CLS), on self-leadership (Kaur & Sandhu, 2010).

2.10.1 Early CLS and self-leadership

The age ranges assigned to early CLS are considered to range from the ages of 20 to 39 years. At this stage, individuals are seeking to establish their personal and job identity. They seek independence and responsibility and have high need for responsibility and autonomy (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Occupations serve as the outlet for ones' talents, values and ambitions in early CLS. Individuals are establishing self-perceived talents, abilities and values, developing career competency and self-efficacy (Coetzee & Roythorne-Jacobs, 2007).

Ugurluoglu et al. (2013) points out that self-leadership thus suits more of the younger individuals, who are still struggling for creation of personal identities and who are still at the bottom of the ladder. According to Ricketts et al. (2012) behavioural and constructive strategies of self-leadership, specifically self-talk and evaluating beliefs and assumptions are said to increase from early career stages to middle stages when individuals are younger. The use of these strategies decline as individuals gets older. D'Intino et al. (2007) state that this may be because younger individuals are still in the process of creating an identity both in career and in life, are therefore more aim-focused than older individuals who have already achieved most of their career and personal aims (Ricketts et al., 2012).

2.10.2 Middle CLS and self-leadership

The age ranges assigned to Middle CLS are considered to range from the ages of 40 to 59 years. Stability of work and personal life assumes greater importance for the individuals in the mid-career stage (Schreuder & Coetzee, 2006). Individuals at this stage have found stability and are trying to find new occupational satisfaction through creative self-expression as a priority. Thus the middle CLS is associated with increase in use of focusing on natural rewards (Ugurluoglu et al., 2013).

On the other hand, Ricketts et al. (2012) proposes that during the middle CLS the use of general self-leadership remain stable from the early CLS, then starts to decline towards the end of the middle CLS as employees use less constructive and behavioural strategies. As individuals get more experienced they know themselves better and do not think they need to consider evaluating their beliefs and assumptions or self-observe. They feel their self-efficacy is strong and that self-talk is unnecessary. They are better able to make the best use of their strengths (Ricketts et al., 2012).

2.10.3 Late CLS and self-leadership

The age ranges assigned to late CLS are considered to range from the ages of 60 and above. Individuals in the late stage of their career are more oriented to settling down, preparing for retirement as disengagement from organisational life. The relative stability of commitment level along with increased difficulties in leaving the organisation weakens the relation between age and self-leadership in the late-career stages (Kaur & Sandhu, 2010).

Ricketts et al. (2012) states that older individuals show more respect to rules, policies and formal authority systems. They therefore depend more on the organisational structures and procedures than on self-leadership in the cases of motivational and behavioural guidance (D'Intino et al., 2007). While older individuals are more tolerant of their own mistakes, self-rewarding and self-punishment do not play a decisive role controlling one's behaviours, as is suggested by self-leadership theory. Furthermore, older individuals do not only recognise personal interconnections more, but they also tend to make fewer decisions on their own (Ugurluoglu et al., 2013).

However, Ugurluoglu et al. (2013) propose that self-leadership is still relevant to older individuals at late CLS. Older individuals' self-leadership can be increased through formal and informal interventions.

Next, self-leadership amongst nursing leadership will be discussed.

2.11 SELF-LEADERSHIP AMONGST NURSING LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

According to Osbourne (2006) the values and capabilities embedded in self-leadership resonate with nursing leadership in the 21st century. The concept of self-leadership encourages the contemporary nursing leaders to recognise that their experiences, expressed through their beliefs, goals and activities, can shape the inevitable evolution of patient care (Avery, Brown, Da Costa, & Watkinson, 2003). Whilst literature reveal that very limited research exists on self-leadership amongst nurses in leadership positions, self-leadership in nursing includes a set of individual cognitive and behavioural strategies that, when practised together, help to establish the self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform (Jooste, 2011). Self-leadership can promote more effective practice because it provides nursing leaders with a set of tools such as goal-setting, positive self-talk and visualisation, which can be used to improve their personal effectiveness and performance. Practising self-leadership can also act as an example for others and have a positive influence on perceptions of a nursing leader's authenticity and integrity (Avery et al., 2003; Diaz, 2008; Sherman, 2010; Wicker, 2008).

Vesterinen, Suhonen, Isola, and Paasivaara (2012) state that the nursing leaders do not only practice nursing, they live nursing in partnership with others. Self-leadership therefore becomes important in order to have the ability to enact practice and relate to others in a manner which is associated with personal understanding about who one is and what is important to him or her. That is, through self-leadership, nursing leaders bring personal mastery, which means they demonstrate self-confidence and are able to trust and empower others as well as implement different strategies for addressing interdisciplinary and effective team building and management that will improve nurse and patient outcomes (Jooste, 2011). Furthermore, nursing leaders are influencing health care teams by articulating their practice goals of patient-centred care and exercising their self-leadership to perfect their abilities thus expand their circle of influence (Sherman, 2010).

In Armstrong's (2004) view, self-goal-setting is one of the critical steps in self-leadership amongst nursing leaders. The initiative for setting a goal, as well as its

difficulty, is determined by the nursing leaders, rather than top management. For goal setting to be effective, it needs to be combined with self-observation, which involves becoming more aware of the causes of one's behaviour with a view to changing ineffective patterns. The emphasis in self-observation is on tracking progress towards a goal and it includes non-clinical activities, as well as nursing. By observing their own behaviour and its causes, nursing leaders have the necessary information to manage themselves and their performance more effectively, independent of top management (Armstrong, 2004; Tourangeau, 2003).

Nursing leaders can also enhance their self-leadership by building more naturally enjoyable activities into their leadership and by focusing their thoughts on the more rewarding aspects of their job (Manz & Neck, 2007). Armstrong (2004) argues that natural rewards are of particular importance in health care institutions because of the relative absence of discretionary rewards for outstanding performance and the intrinsic satisfaction that can arise from making a difference in patients' lives and their families (Mathena, 2012).

Furthermore, Boss and Sims (2008) argue that individuals who engage in self-leadership are able to move on more quickly from failure. Positive self-talk can assist nursing leaders to acquire new skills, regulate their emotional state and apply themselves, particularly in the face of failure. This, in turn, leads to increased self-confidence. Nursing leaders can avoid being self-critical and identify situations when their self-talk is negative and then practise a more supportive and positive internal dialogue. Over time, positive self-talk can become habitual and it may provide a platform from which nursing leaders are encouraged to take risks and extend themselves by engaging in creative and innovative behaviours (Munir & Nielsen, 2009). Literature has also indicated that self-leadership practice promotes self-efficacy. Individuals with high self-efficacy perceive troubles as challenges, are highly committed to the activities they carry out and invest more time and effort in their daily activities. In the specific context of healthcare workers, such as nurses, self-efficacy has proved to be a powerful motivational and personal effectiveness tool (Salanova, Lorente, Chambel, & Marti'nez, 2011).

Additionally through self-analysis, nursing leaders can alter underlying thought patterns and challenge irrational beliefs and assumptions. Replacing these dysfunctional beliefs with more positive thoughts may have a positive influence on leaders' confidence and motivation to perform. Mental imagery has been less commonly used to improve performance in health care settings, despite its successful use in other domains, including sport psychology, counselling and clinical psychology (Curry, 2005). The use of mental imagery has potential to improve communication skills, given their importance for leadership especially in nursing where nursing leaders adopt the role of interpreter for their patients and subordinates' need. Nursing leaders can visualise successful performing by visualising specific communication behaviours such as, giving praise, talking to patient's families or negotiating with top management. This can help to improve the communication skills of nursing leaders (Vesterinen, et al., 2012).

Lastly, Sherman (2006) suggests that though age differences play an important role in nursing leader's environment, age differences are not apparent in self-leadership behaviours such as self-goal setting and self-observation. Self-leadership strategies are used by all nursing leaders. However wicker (2008) suggests that older nurses may rely more on their experiences than use of self-leadership strategies.

2.12 SUMMARY

The objective of this section was in-depth exploration of the concept of self-leadership. Specific focus was on defining self-leadership, providing theoretical foundations of the concept, as well as giving descriptions of the models of self-leadership. The strategies and core principles of self-leadership, as well as the individual and organisational factors that affect leadership, consequences of self-leadership, and age differences with regard to self-leadership were also discussed. Finally self-leadership amongst nursing leadership was presented.

Chapter 3: WORK-STRESS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

According to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2007), work-stress has become a prevalent state among different employees at various job levels worldwide (Imtiaz, & Ahmad, 2010; Lu, Kao, Chang, & Cooper, 2008). The purpose of this chapter is therefore to present the concept of work-stress by focusing on the nature and definitions of work-stress, and exploring different models of work-stress. Factors that contribute to work-stress and its consequences for individuals and organisations, as well as methods of addressing work-stress within an organisation, are provided. Finally, work-stress amongst nursing/leadership positions will be discussed.

The following section is on the nature of stress.

3.2 THE NATURE OF STRESS

Stress is an interactive process whereby conditions and events of the environment, namely stressors, induce consequences in physical, psychological, mental or social areas for an individual (Addae, 2006). The interpretation of these stressors is a decisive phase of the process, whereby the individual perceives a threatening situation to be overwhelming in light of his or her available resources. This process can induce both positive and negative consequences for individuals depending on the rate and length of necessary adaptation (Hertel, Thielgen, Rauschenbach, Grube, Stamov-Ronagel, & Krumm, 2013). The positive consequences, namely eustress, occur when external demands on the individual contribute to self-fulfilment and the application of important personal capabilities. It is a positive stress that motivates individuals to achieve goals and enables them to meet their challenges (Colligan & Higgins, 2010). On the other hand, the negative consequences, namely distress, result when there is no opportunity to use existing capabilities, and harmful and unpleasant consequences occur. This type of stress reduces the performance of employees and levels of motivation, which results in reduced

performance of organisations (Ali, Farooqui, Amin, Yahya, Idrees, Amjad, Ikhlaq, Noreen, & Irfan, 2011; Vogel, 2006).

The focus of this study is on the process of distress within the workplace. Therefore, the term work-stress used throughout this paper refers to the negative definition of the stress (Szilas, 2011). Thus, work-stress will be defined hereafter.

3.3 DEFINING WORK-STRESS

Work-stress refers to the individual's exposure to physical and psycho-social conditions experienced as negative, where the individual doubts his or her ability to cope with the situation (Ali et al., 2011, p. 2; p. 101; Park, 2008, p. 5; Salami, Ojokuku & Ilesami, 2010, p. 249).

Work-stress is experienced when the demands of the work environment exceed the workers' ability to cope with them (Allisey, 2011, p. 9; Palmer, Cooper & Thomas, 2004, p. 2). Szilas (2011, p. 4) defines work-stress as the interactive process in which workplace conditions and events induce physical, psychological, mental or social consequences for employees.

A summarised definition of work-stress is provided for this study; work-stress is a pattern of reactions that occur when workers are presented with work demands that do not match their resources, such as skills, knowledge and abilities, and challenge their ability to cope. The demands may be related to the amount of work, complexity of the work, physical demands and/or emotional demands of the job (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007, p. 7). The following section will focus on approaches and models of work-stress.

3.4 APPROACHES AND MODELS OF WORK-STRESS

Mark and Smith (2008) state that there are three approaches to work-stress namely the stimulus-based approach, response-based approach and stimulus-response based approach. This section focuses on a discussion of these approaches as well

as their associated models used in recent research studies on work-stress (Salami, 2011; Sonnentag & Frese, 2003; Szilas, 2011).

3.4.1 The stimulus-based approach

According to Vogel (2006) the stimulus-based approach was suggested by Elliot and Eisdorfer (1982). The stimulus-based approach views stress as an aspect of the environment that causes a strain reaction in the individual exposed to the stressful stimulus. That is stress is a characteristic, event, or situation in the environment (Spooner-lane, 2004). The stimulus-based approach is depicted in figure 3.1.

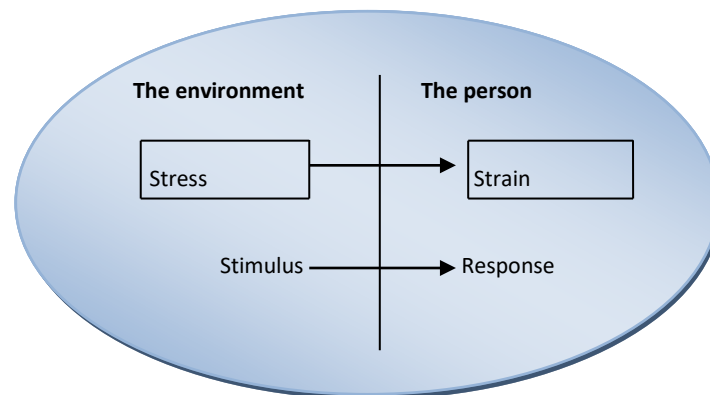


Figure 3.1. Cox's stimulus-based model of stress (Vogel, 2006, p. 22).

According to Vogel (2006) in the stimulus-based approach events are viewed as stressful depending on the basis of whether they lead to stress reactions or not. That is, if the stimulus leads to emotional upset, psychological distress or physical impairment, the stimulus is a stressor. When these events are experienced in sufficient amounts it can alter the balance between the ability to cope with demand, and breakdown in coping, and of the system itself. Stress produces a strain reaction which, although often reversible, could prove to be irreversible and damaging (Amjad & Khan, 2008).

Szilias (2011) points out that the stimulus-based approach is a good foundation from which to view stress, as it outlines events that are likely to lead to stress responses. By creating a taxonomy of stressful events, a platform is set on which differences in

individuals' reactions can be compared, and through which the nature of the events themselves can be further investigated.

3.4.2 The response-based approach

The stimulus-response approach to stress was first applied to humans by Walter Cannon (1932) (Gibbens, 2007). The approach views stress as physiological changes that occur in an individual in response to a harmful stimulus. That is, response to stress is the product of an interaction between the stimulus and psychological program of an individual. The response is generic, pre-dispositional and based on past experiences (Gibbens, 2007; Salami, 2011). The response-based approach is represented schematically in figure 3.2.

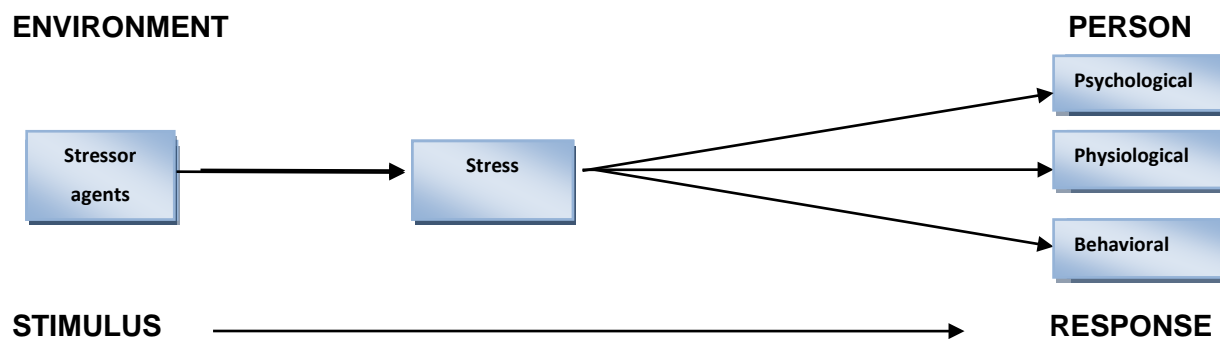


Figure 3.2. A response model of stress (Sutherland & Cooper, 2000, p. 47)

In the stimulus-response approach, stress is treated as a generalised and nonspecific physiological response syndrome. Stress response is conceived in terms of the activation of two neuro-endocrine systems, the anterior pituitary-adrenal cortical system and the sympathetic-adrenal medullary system (Nel, 2012). Stress is considered one of the psycho-physiological activities of human beings as they attempt to adapt to changes in the internal and external setting. This activity relates to the quantity and quality of the relationship between demands and individual somatic, psychological and social capacities or resources in a specific material and social environment (Szilas, 2011).

The response-based approach to stress is exemplified in the writing of Hans Selye (1956), where the process of stress-related illness in terms of the general adaptation syndrome is explained (Weiten, 2013).

3.4.2.1 The general adaptation syndrome

The general adaptation syndrome (GAS) model was developed by Selye (1956). It is a three-stage model that describes the body's physiological responses to stress. The model argues that physiological changes in response to stress are similar, although not identical, in all individuals (Weiten, 2010). The physiological response is triphasic in nature, involving an initial alarm stage followed by a stage of resistance, and a final stage of exhaustion (Dumitru & Cozman, 2012).

According to Schabracq (2003) Stage 1 is an alarm stage, where an individual assesses an event as threatening and reacts with a fight or flight mode. Physiological arousal occurs as the body gathers its resources to combat the challenge. This enables the individual to resist the stressor from increasing. The body defends itself by going into shock and counter-shock phases (Nel, 2012). At the work-place, the flight or fight responses are usually suppressed. This demands extra attention and effort, which can interfere with actual work. It leads to physical and emotional tension such as irritation, anger and violent reactions. In addition, the normal maintenance and recovery of the body occur at a lower level (Schabracq, 2003).

In stage 2, the stage of resistance, Weiten (2013) suggests that the body starts to adapt and cope with the existence of a chronic stressor. Physiological activity declines, but maintains a level of constant readiness as coping efforts get under way. Prolonged exposure to the stressor will however lead to a depletion of the body's resources, and a reduction in the effectiveness of the immune system. This results in health problems such as gastric ulcers, hypertension and migraine headaches (Nel, 2012). The overall effectiveness of an individual at work also declines. That is, motivation to perform and creativity diminishes. Relationships at work also suffer as an individual avoids social interaction and becomes increasingly irritable, eventually feeling alienated and depressed (Schabracq, 2003).

In stage 3, the exhaustion stage, the body's resources are worn out and the body's systems begin to deteriorate. An individual becomes unable to resist the effects of the stress. The chronic over-activation of the stress process depletes the immune system, resulting in psychosomatic illnesses and maladaptive behaviours such as chronic depression, decreased resistance to infection and alcoholism. These causes may also lead to death (Nel, 2012; Vogel, 2006). At this stage an individual is no longer able to focus attention on work. Work performance breaks down, and all other inherent consequences of stress manifest (Weiten, 2013).

Schabracq (2003) suggests that these stress responses are however not an inevitable and unchangeable sequence. If the stressor is dealt with during the alarm stage or early stage of resistance, bodily responses can return to normal.

3.4.3 The stimulus-response approach

According to Gillespie, Walsh, Winefield, Dua and Stough (2010) the stimulus-response approach to work-stress is closely linked to the work of Gerald Caplan (1964) and Eric Landemann (1944), who were among the first to introduce this psychological view of stress. The approach emphasises the importance of perceptual and cognitive characteristics in explaining individual differences regarding responses to stress (Butt, 2009). This means the individual is active, thus individual differences play a role in the stress process. Stress is, therefore, a negative emotional state associated with causes and consequences dependent on the individual's perception and cognitions (Gillespie et al., 2010). Figure 3.3 is the schematic representation of the approach.

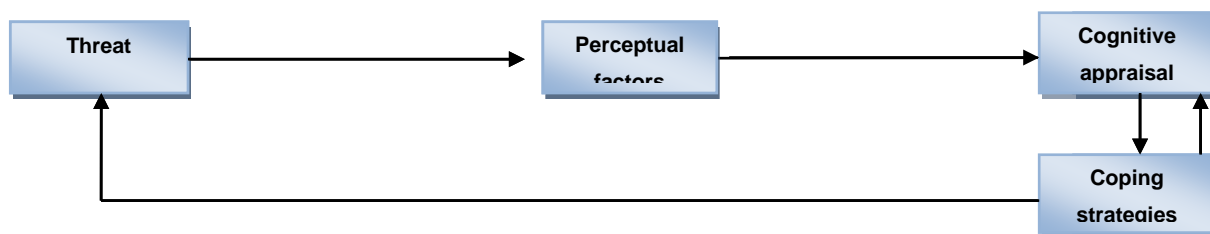


Figure 3.3. Cox and MacKay psychological model of stress with the emphasis on perceptual and cognitive processes, (Vogel, 2006, p. 23).

Gillespie et al. (2010) propose that, in the stimulus-response approach, stress originates when there is a difference between the actual demand and ability to cope, and the perceived demand and perceived ability to cope. Stress is thus the imbalance between perceived demand and perceived coping ability. If an individual can cope, the balance between demand and ability is restored. Failure to cope leads to physiological effects or malfunctions, such as headaches, faintness and low blood glucose, or psychological effects such as, absenteeism and eating disorders (Shchuka, 2010).

The stimulus-response approach, specifically Cox and MacKay's transactional model of work-stress, is most often used in recent work-stress research, and will therefore form the basis of this study. The approach is further illustrated in transactional models of work-stress (Mark & Smith, 2008).

3.4.3.1 Transactional models of work-stress

Transactional models of work-stress emphasise the relationship between the individual and their environment. They recognise that a great deal of variability exists regarding the magnitude of acute stress responses to seemingly comparable stimuli. As such, they look to individual difference factors to explain these observations, and analyse an individual's vulnerability to stress towards enhancing psychological management of work-stress initiation and coping strategies (Butt, 2009; Cox et al., 2000; Salami, 2011). Main transactional models of work-stress that will be discussed include Cox and McKay's transactional model, Lazarus's transactional model and Siegrist, Siegrist, and Webber's effort-reward imbalance model (Van Zyl & Van Zyl, 2012.).

3.4.3.1.1 Cox and MacKay's transactional model of work-stress

Cox and MacKay's transactional model of work-stress was developed by Cox (1978), and later refined by Cox and Mackay (1981). The model views work-stress as an expression of the dynamic process that represents a transaction between the individual and their work environment (Butt, 2009; Griffin & Clarke, 2009). This process comprises three interrelated aspects namely, antecedent factors, cognitive

perceptual processes that give rise to the emotional experience of stress, and correlates of that experience. Emphasis is placed on the feedback implying that the system is cyclical rather than linear (Van Zyl & Van Zyl, 2012). Figure 3.4 below is the schematic representation of the model.

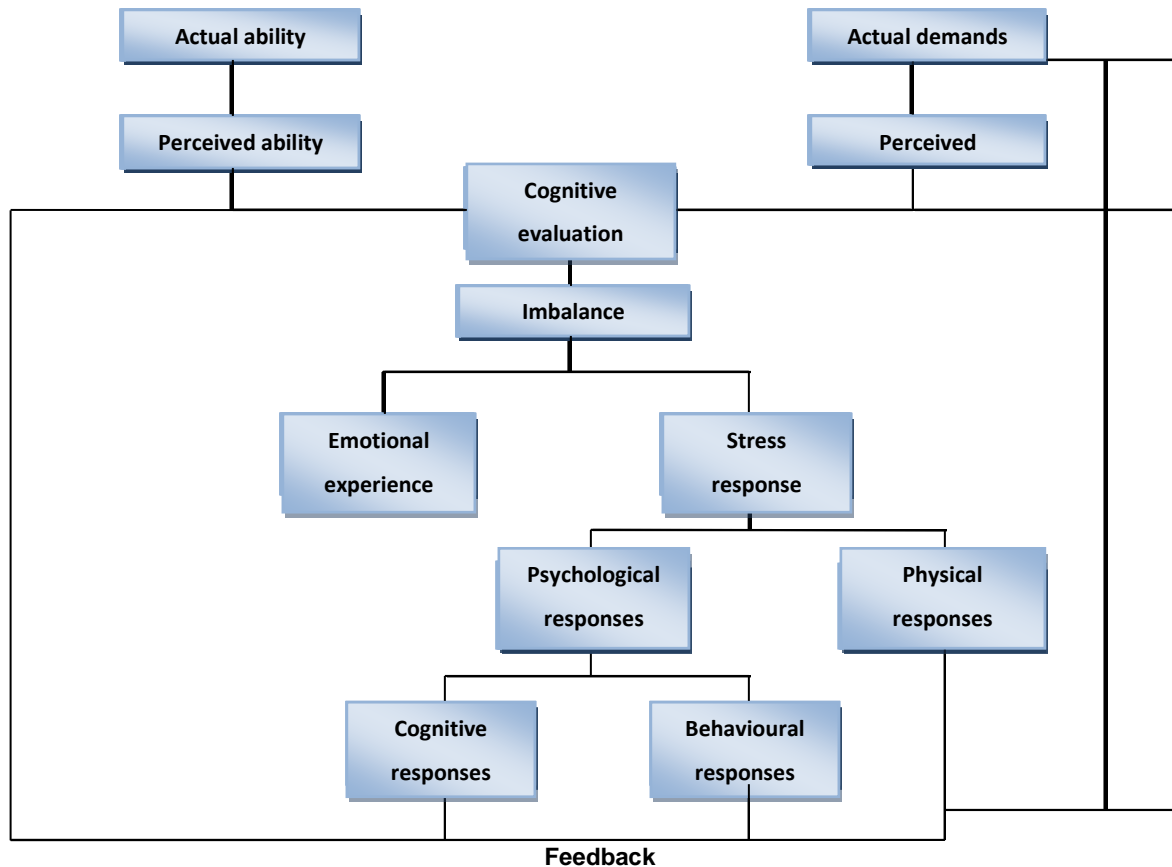


Figure 3.4. Cox and McKay's Model (Mark & Smith, 2008, p. 12).

In Cox and MacKay's transactional model, work-stress is defined as individual perceptual experience rooted in a psychological process. This process is divided into five stages. The first stage represents demands related to the individual's environment. A demand is referred to as a potentially harmful stressor. The environment is divided into an external and internal environment. The external environment includes the demands outside of the individual, while the internal environment is internally formed, including psychological and physiological needs recognised as the demand, which constitutes an individual's behaviour (Griffin & Clarke, 2009; Szilas, 2011).

The second stage involves primary appraisal, and represents the individuals' perceptions of these demands in relation to their ability to cope effectively. At this stage, stress is conceptualised as being the psychological state that occurs when there is a mismatch between perceptions of the significance of a demand, and beliefs about one's ability to cope with it (Griffin & Clarke, 2009). Salami (2011) states that, at this stage, it is believed that stress can be the result of an imbalance between the perceived demand and the individual's perception of his / her capability to meet the demand. Stress is not the result of the demand and the actual capability, but the perceived demand and the perceived capability (Meurs & Perrewe, 2010). Therefore, the emphasis is on an individual's cognitive appraisal of the stressful situation at hand and his / her ability to cope. As a result, the individual will experience stress, or an imbalance, when he / she perceives that his / her limitations have been reached, in other words, that the perceived demand exceeds his or her perceived capability. This perceptual aspect is different from one individual to another, as personality traits, amongst other factors, constitute the outcome. This imbalance is associated with emotional expressions, accompanied by changes in the physiological state as well as cognitive and behavioural attempts to reduce the stressful nature of the perceived demand/stressor, in other words, the direct result of psycho-physiological changes (Gibbens, 2007; Salami, 2011).

The third stage of the model is associated with the psycho-physiological changes that an individual undergoes as a result of the recognition of a stress state, and involves secondary appraisal and coping (Vogel, 2006). Szilas (2011) describes these changes as typically negative, and representative of the experience of stress in the individual. The stressful situation initiates a sequence of behaviours that lead to negative health outcomes such as depression, burnout or tension (Cooper, 2006; Spector, 2003), while the fourth stage represents the outcome of the coping action or response displayed by the individual. It is here that the actual, as well as perceived, outcomes should be considered. The concern is therefore mainly focused on the consequences of coping. The final step, which is feedback, is proposed to occur in relation to all other stages determining the outcome at each step (Cope, 2003).

In summary, Taylor & Barling (2004) state that according to the Cox and McKay's model, the experience of work-stress depends on exposure to particular conditions of work, both physical and psychological, and the worker's realisation that they are having difficulty in coping with important aspects of their work situation. This experience is accompanied by attempts to deal with the underlying coping problem and the changes in cognition, behaviour and physiological functioning. Inappropriate and ineffective responses or coping strategies will result in a prolonged and increased experience of stress, resulting in further physiological and psychological damage (Salami, 2011). These five stages not only define the stress process, but also lay a foundation for further discussion as a backdrop to the transactional approach. An understanding of this process can also facilitate the association of the causes of stress, within or outside of the work environment (Gibbens, 2007).

The developers of the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (WLQ) use this model as a basis for their questionnaire. The WLQ is used as one of measurements in this study, and is discussed in detail in paragraph 6.5.4.

3.4.3.1.2 Lazarus's transactional model

Lazarus's transactional model was developed by Lazarus (1980). The model is based on Lazarus and Folkman's theory of psychological stress and coping (Butt, 2009). According to Shchuka (2010), similarly to Cox and Mackay's model, Lazarus's transactional model is based on an individual's evaluation of the stressor and their ability to use their own resources to cope with it. The model depicts the coexistence of individual and environment in a dynamic relationship, where stress is the psychological and emotional state that is internally represented as part of a stressful transaction (Gillespie et al., 2010; Butt, 2009).

Two concepts are central to the model namely, appraisal and coping. Appraisal is defined as an individual's evaluation of the implications regarding what is happening for their well-being (Gillespie et al., 2010). According to Cox et al. (2000) appraisal is the main factor for understanding stress-relevant transactions. It explains individual differences in quality, intensity and duration of an elicited emotion in environments

that are objectively equal for different individuals (Cope, 2003). It is based on the idea that emotional processes, such as stress, are dependent on expectancies that an individual manifests with regard to the significance and outcome of a specific encounter. The model suggests that appraisal is comprised of successive processes of primary appraisal and secondary appraisal (Mitchell, 2004).

Butt (2009) suggests that primary appraisal is a continuous monitoring of environmental conditions, where encounters are subjectively assessed in terms of potential risks. These assessments allow for the influence of individual differences, meaning the nature of what is considered stressful is individual-specific (Meyer & Dale, 2010; Salami, 2011). There are three components involved namely, goal relevance, goal congruence and type of ego-involvement. Goal relevance describes the extent to which an encounter refers to issues about which the individual cares, while goal congruence refers to the extent to which an episode proceeds in accordance with personal goals, and the type of ego-involvement designates aspects of personal commitment such as self-esteem, moral values, ego-ideal, or ego-identity (Butt, 2009; Cox & Griffiths, 2005).

Secondary appraisal is the identification of a possible managing strategy which occurs when a situation is evaluated as potentially stressful. Potential ways of coping are assessed based on past coping experiences, personality and personal resources. An individual also evaluates where to assign blame or credit, and what future expectations are (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003; Butt, 2009; Meyer & Dale (2010). Vogel (2006) states that there are specific patterns of primary and secondary appraisal that lead to different kinds of work-stress namely harm, threat and challenge. Harm refers to the psychological damage the individual has already sustained. Threat refers to the anticipation of harm that may be imminent. Challenges are events or demands that a person feels confident about mastering. These different types of psychological stress are embedded in specific types of emotional reactions, thus illustrating the close conjunction of the fields of stress and emotions (Langeland, Wahl, Kristoffersen & Hanestad, 2007).

Langeland et al. (2007) state that in the Lazarus model, coping and appraisal are viewed as closely related to the stress-relevant person-environment transactions. Coping is defined as an individual's evaluation of the prospects for generating certain behavioural and cognitive operations that will positively influence a stressing situation. Mark and Smith (2008) add that the coping actions are not classified according to their effects, but according to certain characteristics of the coping process. This process includes behavioural as well as cognitive reactions in the individual (Sonnentag & Frese, 2003). In most cases, coping consists of different single acts and is organised sequentially, forming a coping episode. In this sense, coping is often characterised by the simultaneous occurrence of different action sequences and, hence, an interconnection of coping episodes. Coping actions can be distinguished by their focus on different elements of a stressful encounter. They can attempt to use more rational problem solving type approaches, that is, problem-focused coping, or emotional-oriented coping approaches (Gillespie et al., 2010; Mark & Smith, 2008).

According to Szilas (2011), the model combines all the cognitive and behavioural efforts that an individual makes to manage the demands of a stressor, which can be directed towards the problem itself or towards oneself and one's feelings about the situation. Irrespective of what kind of coping action is taken, the process is transactional as it will have an effect on the appraisal of the stressor. Thus, an interaction of the individual and the environment will create stress for the individual. The investigation of subjective appraisals of stressors is emphasised. Thus, individually attributed meanings to events are found to be greatly affected by the individual's stress experience (Vogel, 2006).

3.4.3.1.3 Effort- reward imbalance model

The effort-reward imbalance (ERI) model was developed by Siegrist, Siegrist, & Weber (1986). The model has key transactional features as it places emphasis on subjective perceptions of the environment (Siegrist, 2010). According to Allisey (2011) and Siegrist (2006) the key concept of the ERI model is reciprocity, where effort at work should be compensated by suitable rewards, and a mismatch between

these will lead to stressful experiences. Figure 3.5 below is a schematic representation of the ERI model.

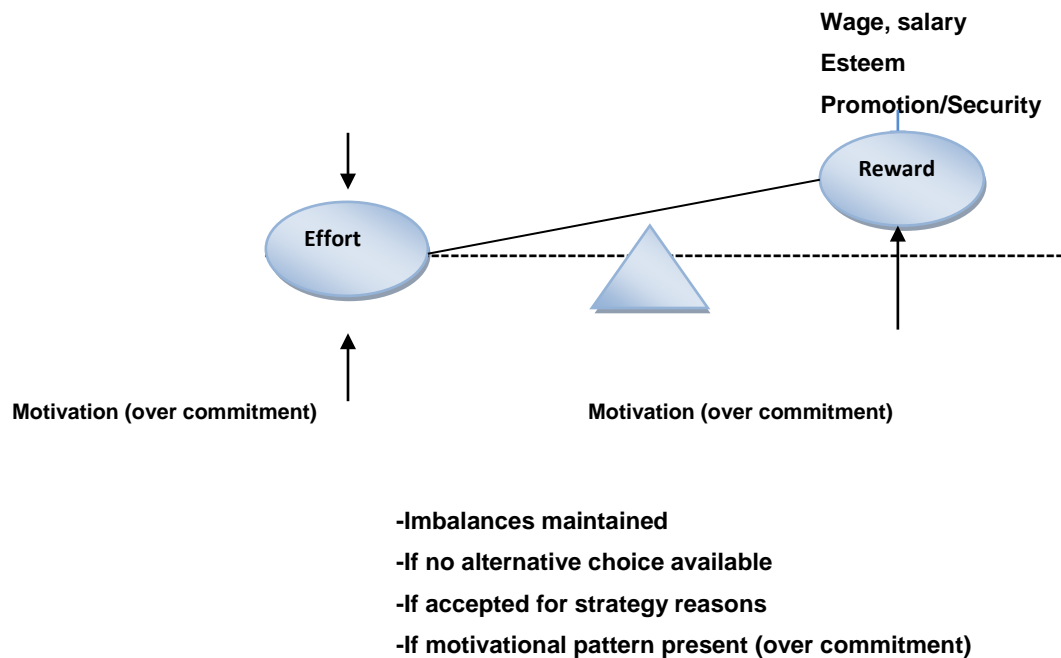


Figure 3.5. Effort-Reward Imbalance Model (Peter & Siegrist, 1999; Department of Medical Sociology, 2008, p. 3).

With the model, two main components of the work environment are identified, namely effort and rewards. Effort refers to perceived demands and pressures from the work environment. Effort at work is used as part of a social contract that pays off effort by adequate reward. Rewards are distributed by three transmitter systems including money, esteem, and career opportunities including job security and promotion, each one shown to influence health. Appropriate social rewards promote positive emotions, well-being, health and survival (Allisey, 2011).

In contrast, Siegrist and Rodell (2006) and Siegrist (2006) state that individuals who put in a great deal of effort at work but receive low rewards are likely to experience regular, negative emotions and sustained stress responses. Szilas (2011) adds that studies have revealed associated, elevated risks of heart disease in those exposed to high effort-low reward conditions, compared to low effort and or high reward. There are also strong effects for the reward components related to self-esteem and job security on psychosomatic complaints and exhaustion. Individuals with high efforts

and low rewards were more likely to suffer emotional exhaustion than those with low efforts and high rewards (Siegrist, 2008; Kivimaki, Vahtera, Elovainio, Virtanen & Siegrist, 2007).

Lastly, Siegrist (2008) suggests that the imbalances between high effort and low reward are due to limited employee choice in alternative workplaces. Those who exhibit specific cognitive and motivational patterns of coping with these imbalances are characterised by over commitment to their work. Over-commitment is characterised by an inability to withdraw from work. High levels of over-commitment, possibly resulting in continued exaggerated efforts combined with disappointing rewards, will increase the risk of stress (Department of Medical Sociology, 2008).

3.4.3.1.4 Palmer and Cooper's Model of Work-stress

Palmer and Cooper's model of work-stress was primarily developed with the intention of practical implementation in workplace risk assessment and education (Palmer, Cooper & Thomas, 2004). It delineates a simple, process-based model of work-stress, highlighting the relationships between work-related stress hazards, organisational and individual symptoms and negative outcomes of work-stress. Figure 3.6 below is a schematic representation of Palmer and Cooper's model of work-stress.

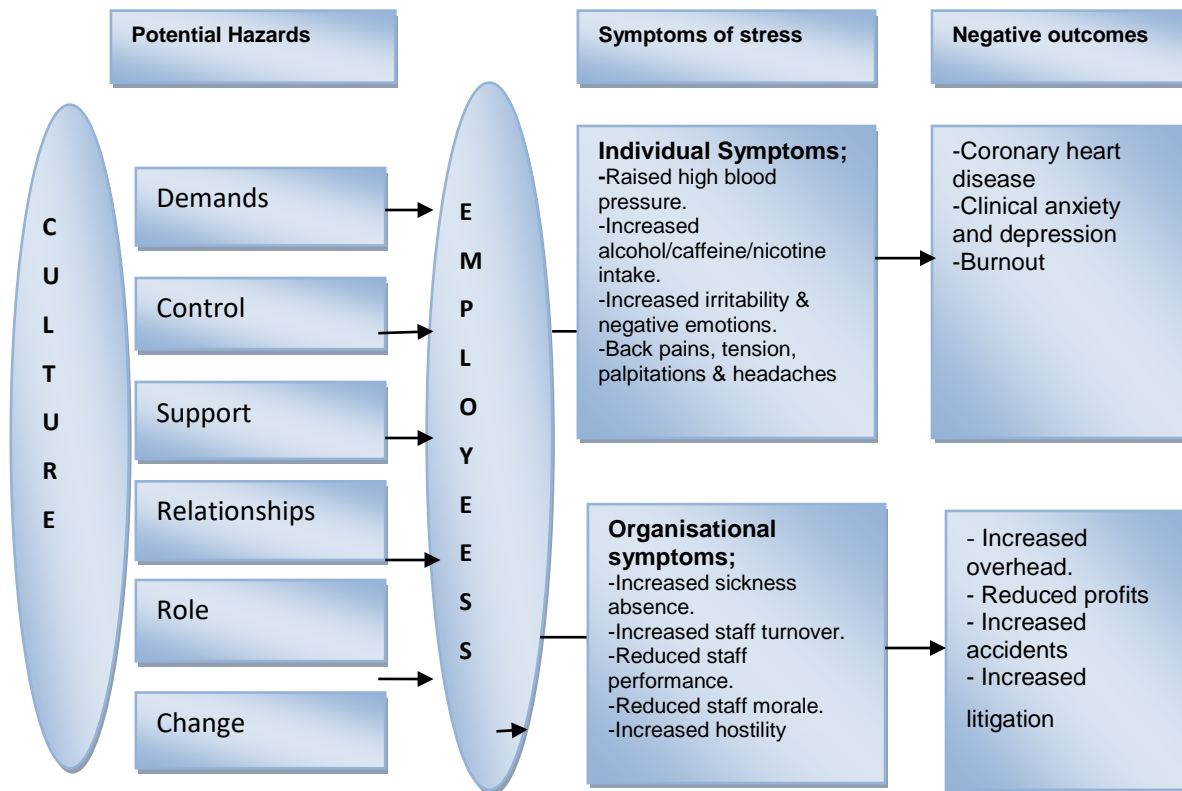


Figure 3.6. The Palmer & Cooper Model of Work-stress (Palmer et al., 2004, p.3)

There are six specific hazards of work-stress differentiated in the model, which are as follows:

- Demands such as workload, work patterns and work environment.
- Control which includes involvement in decisions about work and autonomy.
- Support including encouragement provided by the organisation.
- Relationships including promotion of positive working.
- Roles which refer to individuals' understanding of their roles.
- Change, which refers to how organisational change is managed and communicated in the organisation.

Culture is identified as an influential part of all these hazards (Palmer et al., 2004). Based on the assessment of these hazards, there is also a five-step risk assessment and framework for intervention available to organisations. The five steps include looking for the hazards, deciding who might be harmed and how, evaluating the risk

and deciding whether enough is being done, recording findings, and monitor and review (Palmer et al., 2004).

3.5 CONTRIBUTORS TO WORK-STRESS

This section provides an overview of those factors considered potential sources of work-stress for most employees, and those that are a focus of the current work-stress research (Quick & Nelson, 2009, Singh, Arteche, & Holder, 2011; Vogel, 2006).

3.5.1 Individual differences

According to Kokkinos (2007), individual differences refer to internal factors of the individual that determine whether a situation will be perceived as stressful. Important individual differences that will be discussed in this section include emotional intelligence, locus of control, type A personality, psychological hardiness and sense of coherence (Gillespie et al., 2010; Singh et al., 2011; Szilas, 2011).

3.5.1.1 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence is the capacity to be aware of, regulate, and utilise emotions effectively, particularly in relationships with others (Carmeli, 2003). King and Gardner (2006) argue that stress does not always result directly from the source of pressure itself, but rather from the individual's perception of that pressure. Therefore, dispositional variables, such as emotional intelligence, are associated with work-stress perceptions. Emotional intelligence is a moderating factor of work-stress, thus, emotionally intelligent individuals are likely to have low experiences of work-stress. Emotional intelligence influences an individual's response and ability to deal with organisational demands effectively. Highly emotionally intelligent individuals tend to understand emotions through cognitive reappraisal, and employ strategies that include social resources and disclosure of feelings in the stressful workplace (King & Gardner, 2006). High levels of emotional intelligence are associated with resilience and adaptability in stressful environments. Such high levels reduce or transform the potentially negative effects of job stress (Wu, 2011).

Rohr (2005) argues that emotional intelligence is an important factor in stress management. Emotionally intelligent individuals respond to stress with hardiness, view strenuous work as exciting, and view change as a chance to develop rather than a challenge. They bear the physical burden of stress much better and experience fewer illnesses. The irony of working life is that situations are viewed differently. Some might view something as a devastating threat, while others might view it as an invigorating challenge. With the right emotional resources, what might seem threatening can be viewed as a challenge instead, and can be met with enthusiasm, allowing the brain to generate different chemicals. Chemicals that respond to stress and threat are different from those that respond to enthusiasm (Wu, 2011).

3.5.1.2 Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is a comprehensive summary or judgment of perceived capability for performing a specific task. In an organisational context, information derived from the individual, the work task, and others in the work environment, may contribute to the comprehensive assessment of capability. It reflects a more complex and generative process involving the construction and orchestration of adaptive performance to fit changing circumstances (Nel, 2012). Thus, those with the same skills may perform differently based on their utilization, combination, and sequencing of these skills in an evolving context. This disposition is important in the ability to handle stress. Individuals with high self-efficacy have a relatively low experience of work-stress, whereas those individuals without self-efficacy have high levels of work-stress. That is, high self-efficacy tends to make individuals feel more in control when faced with a stressful situation (Vogel, 2006).

3.5.1.3 Locus of control

According to Quick and Nelson (2009), locus of control is the extent to which individuals believe that they are in control of their own lives. There are two types of locus of control, namely internal locus of control (internals) and external locus of control (externals). Internals are said to believe that they have control over events that shape their lives. Externals, on the other hand, believe that their lives are being controlled by outside forces (Van Zyl & Van Zyl 2012). Langeland et al. (2007) and

Tehrani (2011) suggest that, with respect to work-stress, the extent to which an individual judges himself or herself to have control or mastery in a situation influences how likely they are to perceive the situation as threatening or stressful. As a result, externals are more likely to be stressed while internals are less likely to be stressed regarding the situation (Gillespie et al., 2010).

Brewer and McMahan (2004) argue that internals are, however, more likely to be stressed when they are unable to exercise the control they believe they should, while externals will be particularly stressed in situations in which they have the capability to exercise some degree of control over what is happening. Viewed from this perspective, the locus of control-work-stress relationship is a function of personal beliefs and environmental realities. Work-stress is a consequence of congruency between an individual's beliefs about where control resides and the actual locus of control in a given situation (Colligan & Higgins 2010; Langeland et al., 2007).

3.5.1.4 Type A personality

According to Sharma (2011) type A personality is described as an action-emotion complex including aggressive involvement in a chronic, continual struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, normally against opposing efforts of other things or individuals (Robbins & Judge, 2007). According to Singh et al. (2011) type A individuals are ambitious, hostile, controlling, highly competitive, impatient, and exceedingly time-conscious. The type A personality is associated with greater perceived levels of work-stress, intense reactions to work-stress as well as poorer physical and mental health (Singh et al., 2011; Nortje, 2007).

3.5.1.5 Psychological hardiness

Kokkinos (2007) and Van Zyl and Van Zyl (2012) define psychological hardiness as a personality characteristic that combines three attitudes namely, commitment, control, and challenge. It enables an individual to exercise control over circumstances and provides the ability to interpret environmental stressors as challenges (Van Zyl & Van Zyl, 2012). Psychological hardiness thus affects the extent to which an individual experiences stress by reducing the likelihood of stress and minimising the incidence

and severity of dysfunctional consequences. The three attitudes together provide the courage and motivation required to turn stressful circumstances from potential calamities into opportunities for personal growth. This implies that individuals low in hardiness are susceptible to high levels of work-stress, while those high in hardiness are more likely to experience lower levels of work-stress (Singh et al., 2011).

3.5.1.6 Sense of coherence

Szilas (2011) defines sense of coherence as a global orientation that expresses the extent to which an individual has a persistent stable, yet dynamic, feeling of confidence based on three components namely comprehensibility, manageability and meaningfulness. It is a personal characteristic that supports successful coping with work-stress. Comprehensibility is a belief that things happen in an orderly and predictable fashion. It gives the sense that an individual can understand events in his or her life and reasonably predict what will happen in the future (Kokkinos, 2007).

Manageability refers to the extent to which one believes that resources are available to take care of things, and that things are manageable and within one's control. Meaningfulness is the extent to which demands in life are viewed as challenges, worthy of investment and engagement. The meaningfulness component is the most important part of the sense of coherence concept. Individuals who perceive their work problems and demands as worthy of commitment and engagement have a greater sense of meaningfulness, and typically a greater sense of the other two components (comprehensibility and manageability) as well (Langeland et al., 2007).

Gillespie et al. (2010) propose that sense of coherence is a theoretical formulation that provides a central explanation for the role of stress in human functioning. Beyond the specific work-stress factors that one might encounter in life, and beyond one's perception and response to those events, what determines whether stress will be harmful to an individual is his or her sense of coherence (Tonder & Roodt, 2008).

3.5.1.7 Age

Mauno, Ruokolainen, and Kinnunen (2013) suggest that there is a curvilinear relationship between age differences and work-stress (Costa, Goedhard, & Ilmarinen, 2005; Health and safety executive, 2009). This implies that younger individuals experience higher levels of work-stress at the beginning of their work life. This may be as a result of the fact that they invest all their energy in order to achieve their initial objectives, while they have to deal with a number of stressful and intense demands from their environment simultaneously. Young individuals also lack the appropriate coping strategies to reduce the work-stress imposed by challenges occurring in the job.

Costa et al. (2005) are of the opinion that these difficulties presented at the beginning of younger individual's life are related to adaptation to the work environment, and are therefore not long-lasting. Work-stress is thus moderated as an individual gets older and adjusts their expectations and priorities accordingly and adapt to the work environment. Role burden is diluted because of their potentiality, and increased capacity to analyse their role due to the job clarity. Thus, they can perform their roles better (Mauno et al., 2013). Moreover, older individuals are more experienced and adaptable to the environment and are more ready to cope with stress. Older individuals have also developed higher congruencies between their implicit and explicit motive systems, reducing the need for self-regulation. They have more opportunities for active control at work, and also have higher self-regulation skills compared to younger workers (Hertel et al., 2013).

However, Oshinsky (2005) suggests that, as individuals age, disturbances in the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis, which respond to work-stressors, compound certain health problems that are common among older individuals, such as cardiovascular disease and stroke. Older individuals become more saturated or exhausted, and tired and worn out. This may make individuals feel less competent, less successful, and even incompetent to cope with the challenging demands of their jobs. Anticipation for retirement also increases the experience of work-stress (Aftab & Khatoon 2012).

3.5.1.8 Gender

Naghavi and Redzuan (2011) define gender as delineating differences between females and males. According to Addae (2006) the bodily processes of the work-stress response are similar for both men and women. However, Antoniou, Polychroni, and Vlachakis (2006), Fielden and Cooper, (2002), O’Laughlin and Bischoff (2005), Rivera-Torres, Araque-Padilla, and Montero-Simó (2013), as well as Sliskovic and Sersic (2011) believe that there are distinct differences in the way women and men experience and respond to stress. Men and women are exposed to different stressors in coping, and gender moderates the relationship between coping and strain. Women consistently report higher levels of work-stress than men do. According to Vogel (2006) this is due to unique stressors specific to working women, such as the work-family interface, discrimination, lack of career progress, stereotyping and social isolation (Gyllesten & Palmer, 2005).

In contrast, Tytherleigh, Jacobs, Webb, Ricketts and Cooper (2007) argue that there are no gender differences between men and women in the perception of work-stress and consequences of exposure to stressors. Men and women experience similar amounts of stress. The difference may be in the type of stressors, that is, men experience, more intensely than women, stressors such as organisational structure and climate, inadequate style of management, reduction in participation in decision-making, the level of autonomy, and control over work (Costa et al., 2005).

3.5.2. Organisational factors

Salami (2011) indicates that there is a diversity of organisational factors that actively contribute to individuals’ experience of work-stress. The following section will therefore discuss critical organisational factors affecting work-stress within an organisation. These include nature of the job, organisational structure and management, relationships at work, role stress, decision latitude and control, job insecurity and working conditions (Mark & Smith, 2008).

3.5.2.1 Nature or characteristics of the Job

According to Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2004), characteristics of the job related to work-stress are the extent to which the job provides an individual with meaning and purpose. Addae (2006) suggests that three aspects of job characteristics are particularly important namely lack of control, work-schedule and repetitive, monotonous work (Laszlo & Adam, 2008; Mark & Smith, 2008; Szilas, 2011).

3.5.2.1.1 Lack of control over work:

Lack of control over work reflects the amount of influence individuals have on the way work is done (Mark & Smith (2008). This relates to situations when employees are not allowed to choose the tools appropriate for a job, do not have an influence on the pace of their work, or may not decide which skills to use for solving workplace issues (Szilas, 2011). Workers should be empowered to plan their work, control their workloads, and make decisions about how that work should be completed and how problems should be solved (Noe et al., 2004).

3.5.2.1.2 Working schedule:

Quick and Nelson (2009) define work schedule as the time frame that an employee works during a certain course of time. Schedules can fluctuate, rotate or remain constant throughout work-life. These could be particularly damaging in the case that the work schedule does not fit the employees' biological clock and personal preferences (Szilas, 2011). This could result in the subject's exclusion from social life (Spooner-lane, 2004), providing no opportunities for physical and mental recuperation between work sessions. Laszlo and Adam (2008) focused on the consequences of overwork in their research. The results of their study indicated a linear relationship between the risk of myocardial infarction and the number of working hours per week (Laszlo & Adam, 2008). Work schedules demanding 24-hour duty or availability hold similarly high risks and show an increasing prevalence of work-stress (Szilas, 2011).

3.5.2.1.3 Repetitive, monotonous work tasks:

Employees performing work characterised by repetitive monotony may experience significant stress. Repetitive work, though normally defined by physical characteristics, is inherently correlated with psychosocial factors. For instance, one measure of repetitiveness is the activity cycle time, which may be related to time pressure and perceived job demands (Szilas, 2011). Likewise, repetitive work is most often associated with low job control, skill discretion, and decision latitude. Therefore, it is plausible that the psychosocial load related to repetitive work could lead to stress (Vogel, 2006).

3.5.2.2 Organisational structure and management

Noe et al. (2004) hold that the main reasons for work-stress are due to the structure of the organisation and management style within that organisation. According to Mark and Smith (2008) organisational structures with limited chance for advancement, inadequate performance feedback, little and biased performance appraisal events increase employee's levels of stress (Mark & Smith, 2008). It can be particularly stressful when employees' rights are impaired regarding the influence on work conditions or the resolution of workplace conflicts. Members of organisations with strong hierarchies report a higher level of stress than employees working in flat organisations (Szilas, 2011).

Tonder and Roodt (2008) add that being part of an organisation threatens an individual's sense of freedom and autonomy. This is exacerbated by lack of opportunities to participate in decision-making, and exclusion from office communication and consultation, which result in poor health, especially drinking, depression, low self-esteem, absenteeism and intention to leave. Well-structured organisations, as well as the right style of management such as participative management, create a sense of belonging and improve communication, creating a sense of control vital to the well-being of employees (Ali et al., 2011).

3.5.2.3. Relationships at work

Relationships at work relate to a supervisor's ability to provide emotional and technical support and guidance, as well as good relationships with co-workers that are emotionally and socially supportive (Butt, 2009; Warrell, 2004). According to Abdelrahman (2007) the quality of interpersonal associations at work is important in that helpful relationships are less likely to create force associated with competition. Thomas and Lankau (2009) state that poor work relations are associated with low levels of support, low attention in problem-solving and demanding leadership styles within the organisation. Problems of unsteadiness may occur in situations where the relationship between a supervisor and subordinate are harmful.

Wong and Cheuk, (2005) are also of the opinion that opposition amongst contemporaries and differences in character clashes amongst members can also give rise to work-stress (Butt, 2009). Jarvis (2002) found that negative relations, and the non-attendance of support from colleagues, can cause major work-stress for employees. Conversely, having right of entry to social hold up from other individual in the organisation can reduce strain and ease emotional exhaustion. Good relations at work play a mediating role, and reduce adverse effects of exposure to other negative effects of stress (Thomas & Lankau, 2009).

3.5.2.4. Role stress

Malik (2003) states that role work-stress refers to a condition where role obligations are perceived to be vague, complex and conflicting or impossible to achieve. Leka et al. (2004) add that role stress is the result of discrepancy between an individual's perception of the characteristics of a specific role and the actual results or achievements realised by the individual currently performing the task. In his study, Malik (2003) found that there is a highly significant inverse relationship between role stress and psychological wellbeing. Role stress includes three types of stress namely; role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload (Spooner-lane, 2004).

3.5.2.4.1 Role Ambiguity

Salami et al., (2010) and Vogel (2006) define role ambiguity as the extent to which an employee has adequate information about his or her role. Role ambiguity manifests as a lack of knowledge about the prospect and demands of the job. It thus occurs as a result of unclear articulations of expected role activities, performance contingencies and work methods. A logical extension is that increased ambiguity is likely to frustrate and exert pressure on a job holder (Addae, 2006).

3.5.2.4.2 Role Conflict

According to Lopopolo (2002), role conflict occurs when employees experience a mismatch in their role and their values or goals, or when they have to carry out conflicting work roles. This leads to an inability to be effective, resulting in negative emotional response. That is, the greater the role conflict, the greater the work-stress (Mark & Smith, 2008).

3.5.2.4.3 Role Overload

Role overload is defined as a situation where too many expectations or demands are placed on the individual, or a role is too complicated for an individual to carry out (Spooner-lane, 2004). According to Butt (2009), the number of dissimilar roles an individual has to complete can lead to extreme demands on the individual's time, and may create doubt about the ability to fulfil these roles adequately, resulting in work-stress (Salami et al., 2010).

3.5.2.5 Job insecurity

Vogel (2006) defines job insecurity as a lack of assurance that an employee has regarding the continuity of gainful employment in his or her work life. Job insecurity is one of the detrimental work-related stressors to the individual's psychological well-being, job attitudes and behaviours. Employees generally experience high levels of anxiety when their jobs are insecure, which arises from a lack of certainty regarding when they are going to lose their jobs due to retrenchments. Inherent in job security is the experience of ambiguity that makes this phenomenon highly stressful for the individual (Leka et al., 2003).

3.5.2.6 Working conditions

One of the important factors of work-stress are those that result from the working conditions to which individuals are subjected. The conditions may be experienced as unpleasant or threatening to the physical well-being of employees. Conditions such as poor physical working conditions, overcrowding, noise, lack of resources, air pollution, reduced lighting, poor ergonomics and inflexible or unpredictable hours have been recorded as contributory factors. Individuals in contact with human suffering and individual's reactions to it, as is the case in nursing, can include these as factors affecting the workplace conditions by contributing to increased levels of work-stress (Gibbens, 2007).

3.5.2.7 Responsibility for others

Mark and Smith (2008) explain that there are two types of responsibility. One is a responsibility for things such as equipment and buildings, while the other is responsibility for individuals. The responsibility for individuals has been identified as a potential source of stress associated with role issues. According to Vogel (2006), responsibility for individuals, compared to responsibility for things, is likely to lead to greater risk of coronary heart disease, heavy smoking, raised diastolic blood pressure and elevated serum cholesterol levels. There is also evidence that in caring professions at least, responsibility for individuals is associated with emotional exhaustion and the depersonalisation of relationships with patients (Spooner-lane, 2004).

3.5.2.8 Career opportunities, compensation and benefits

According to Health Advocate (2007), financial rewards from work are important, as they determine the type of lifestyle that an individual can lead. In addition, they often influence individuals' feelings of self-worth and perceptions of their value to the organisation. How individuals perceive their rewards at work as worth their contribution or not, serves as a source of satisfaction, challenge, and fulfilment or a source of uncertainty, mistrust, and perceived inequity and work-stress (Addae, 2006). This is exacerbated by a lack of career advancement and growth in the

organisation. Career advancement refers to the stress experienced by individuals as a result of a perceived lack of opportunity to further their career prospects within the organisation for which they work. Employees who feel poorly compensated in addition to the perception of no opportunities for promotions, advancement and better pay, feel frustrated and experience high levels of work-stress (Butt, 2009).

3.5.3. Extra-organisational factors

Extra-organisational factors are those factors that are outside of the organisation, and can affect employees' levels of work-stress. For the purpose of this study, these consist of work-family conflict, economic factors and socio political changes.

3.5.3.1. Work-family conflict

Wallace (2005) as well as Lu, Kao, Chang, Wu and Cooper (2008) state that work-family conflict exists as a result of problems related to the interface between work and the family. It involves resolving conflicts of demands on time and commitment, and issues around support. According to Health Advocate (2009) there is a relationship between work-family conflict and work-stress. Employees are increasingly complaining that the line between work and non-work time has blurred, creating personal conflicts and stress. Employees with high levels of conflict report high work-stress. Nortje (2007) is of the opinion that family and personal stress is a widespread source of stress in every workplace. Employees are expected to experience some kind of work-family stress within a three month period of a major workplace change dynamic. Conflicts between work and personal life affect productivity and general wellbeing, and employees experiencing work-family conflict are three times more likely to think about resigning from their jobs than those who do not (Araque-Padilla, & Montero-Simó, 2013).

Robbins and Judge (2007) suggest that organisations should assist employees in managing their lives more effectively by, for example, reducing their workloads, offering on-site child care and allowing more flexibility. This will help employees balance their personal and work-lives resulting in a healthier workforce (Nortje, 2007).

3.5.3.2. Economic environment

According to Nel et al. (2004), economic environmental factors have effects on the working of the business. It includes the system, policies and nature of an economy, trade cycles, economic resources, level of income, distribution of income and wealth. Kleynhans, Markham, Meyer and Van Aswegen (2007) assert that economic factors act as environmental uncertainties that impact on an organisation and human resources. Economic decline, particularly unemployment and high inflation rates, are negatively associated with work-stress. Robbins and Judge (2007) suggest that business cycles can cause economic uncertainties, which may increase anxiety and thus affect work-stress levels.

In addition, Somers (2009) states that personal economic situations, such as an increase in personal debt, and concerns over higher living costs, also undermine positive mental health and increase work-stress levels. All of these trends continue to change and increase as the economic environment becomes tougher, putting individuals under greater pressure both at work and at home (Kleynhans et al., 2007).

3.5.3.3 Socio political changes

Socio-political changes refer to changes pertaining to social and political issues within a country. The rate at which social and political change is taking place affects the way individuals live, which in turn affects their work (Szilas, 2011). Political changes and the introduction of programmes such as affirmative action impact on individuals in the workplace, increasing their levels of work-stress (Nortje, 2007). Robbins et al. (2009) adds that political uncertainties, and their negative impact on the economy, are stressful to employees.

3.6 CONSEQUENCES OF WORK-STRESS

There is evidence that stress has implications for both individuals and organisations (Quick & Nelson, 2008). This section will therefore focus on the reported

consequences of work-stress for organisations and individuals (Nortje, 2007; Salami et al., 2010).

3.6.1 Consequences for an individual

According to Tang (2008) a range of negative endings are also exaggerated for individual workers suffering from stress including health problems, mental complaints and physical problems. According to Vogel (2006) work-stress can manifest itself in different ways for individuals. These include physical, psychological and behavioural consequences (Colligan & Higgins, 2010; Schabracq, Winnubst & Cooper, 2006).

3.6.1.1 Physiological and physical consequences

According to the Colligan and Higgins (2010) there are four physiological systems which are particularly vulnerable to the experience of work-stress. These are the immune system, cardiovascular system, endocrine system and gastro-intestinal function. Work-stress related to dysfunction in these systems is potentially harmful to physical health. Work-stress lowers the immune system and plays a role in an individual's susceptibility to colds, flu and other infectious diseases. Individuals who are stressed are more likely to experience pain-related conditions, and a host of other ailments, from teeth grinding and chest tightness to fatigue (Bonfiglio, 2005; Colligan, & Higgins, 2010). Vogel (2006) suggests that work-stress related problems associated with the cardiovascular system include high blood pressure and heart disease, while endocrine problems include muscle tension and headaches, and gastro intestinal problems include gastric and peptic ulcers and constipation.

According to Health Advocate (2007) these ailments have serious effects on both individuals and organisations. Workers who report that they are stressed incur healthcare costs that are 46% higher than those of non-stressed employees, and 60% to 90% of doctors visits are attributed to stress-related illnesses and symptoms worldwide. Left untreated, prolonged stress can raise the risk for developing chronic and costly diseases, or even lead to death. Businesses also incur high indirect costs due to absenteeism, medical expenses, and reduced productivity due to work-stress.

3.6.1.2 Psychological consequences

The psychological effects of work-stress involve changes in cognitive-perceptual function, emotion and behaviour. Some of these changes may represent attempts to cope, including changes in health-related behaviours (Tonder & Roodt, 2008). Abdelrahman (2007) proposes that work-stress has an obvious effect on an individual's psychological wellbeing. Psychological consequences associated with work-stress include the emergence of strong negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, burnout, irritation and depression. Berkel (2009) suggests that individuals affected by work-stress exhibit acts such as sabotage, interpersonal aggression and complaints. These are accompanied by changes in cognition including, among others, decreased self-esteem, irritability, decreased attention span and memory, depersonalisation, concentrated personal events and perception of the social world as hostile. Psychological ill health involves being miserable at work and having little energy and keenness for the job (Schabracq et al., 2006; Jacqueline, 2008).

3.6.1.3 Behavioural consequences

Blaug (2007) states that behavioural consequences of work-stress include a decline in the ability to perform tasks, alcohol and cigarette dependency, proneness to mistakes, accidents and drug abuse. An individual who experiences work-stress may also exhibit either aggressive behaviour or avoidance. They manifest behaviours such as hyperactivity, eruption of emotions, worry about a certain situation, compulsive thoughts, holding a complaint, excessive perturbing, tetchiness, extreme sleeping, poor reminiscence, feeling frightened, and annoyance with delays (Abdelrahman, 2007). Some workers face problems such as lack of social hold up, and exposure to life-threatening risks, which increases their level of work-stress. Also, health-promoting behaviours, such as exercise and relaxation, sleep and good dietary habits, are impaired by the experience of work-stress, while other health risk behaviours, such as smoking and drinking, are enhanced (Szilas, 2011).

3.6.1.4 Loss of engagement, motivation and commitment

Tang (2008), states that another way in which chronic experience of work-stress can have an impact is through its effect on the psychological contract, that is, the

relationship between employee and employer. When employees feel that their employer or their work environment is causing them stress, this can either be seen as a breach of psychological contract leading to work-stress, or as a stressful situation leading to a less functional psychological contract. The result is therefore lower employee engagement, motivation and commitment to work and employer (Jacqueline, 2008).

3.6.2 Consequences for an organisation

The declining physical and mental health of workers invariably leads to deterioration in the performance of the entire organisation. This in turn affects organisational commitment, performance and productivity, as well as increased absenteeism, increased staff turnover and presenteeism with an organisation (Lu, 2008).

3.6.2.1. Low organisational commitment

Quick and Nelson (2009) describe organisational commitment as identifying with one's employing organisation and its goals, thus wishing to maintain membership in the organisation. There are three sub-dimensions of organisational commitment namely normative, affective and continuance commitment. Normative commitment refers to an employee's moral obligation to remain with the organisation, while affective commitment involves the strong desire of an employee to remain with an organisation. Continuance commitment involves remaining with an organisation because an employee feels that they cannot afford to leave (Tang, 2009; Michael, Court, & Petal, 2009). Individuals high in work-stress have low affective and normative commitment to the organisation. They alienate themselves from their jobs and engage in destructive and aggressive behaviours, such as strikes and sabotage (Salami et al., 2010; Somers, 2009; Ali et al., 2011).

3.6.2.2. Low performance and productivity

Job performance and productivity is defined as an activity in which an individual is able to accomplish the task assigned to him or her successfully, subject to the normal constraints of reasonable use of available resources (Tang, 2009). Jamal (2007) and Gaumer, Shah & Cotleur (2006) argue that there are four types of relationships

between work-stress and job performance and productivity. Firstly, there is a negative linear relationship, where productivity decreases with experience of work-stress. Secondly, productivity can also increase as a consequence of stress, thereby implying a positive linear relationship between the two. Thirdly, there is a curvilinear relationship wherein mild stress could increase the productivity initially, up to a peak, after which it declines as the individual descends into a state of distress (Mcgowan, Gardner, & Fletcher, 2006; Salami, 2010).

3.6.2.3. Presenteeism

The European Agency for Safety and Mental Health at Work (2009) define presenteeism as the loss in productivity that occurs when employees come to work, but function at less than full capacity because of ill health. Presenteeism seems to be especially prevalent when workers face problems with stress and mental health (Gaumer et al., 2006). Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright, Taylor, and Millet (2005) state that presenteeism manifests in several ways, including making mistakes, more time spent on tasks, poor quality work, impaired social functioning, burnout, anger, resentment, and low morale.

Mcgowan et al. (2006) states that overall cost related to presenteeism in America costs to nearly \$150 billion a year in lost productivity, according to the International Foundation of Employee Benefit Plans. The cost may be even higher if the stress underlying presenteeism is not addressed, as absenteeism, job resignations, chronic illness, and disability may result (Mcgowan et al., 2006).

3.6.2.4. Absenteeism

According to Grobber and Warnich (2006) absenteeism occurs when individuals stay away from work due to mental health and work-stress. Work-stress affects employees' physical, psychological and social well-being, which results in absenteeism. According to Health Advocate (2007) there are four types of absenteeism due to work-stress. Sickness absence occurs due to stress-related ill-health. That is, employees get sick as a direct consequence of work-stress and require time off work. The second is ill-health which is indirectly due to work-stress, or

is exacerbated by work-stress. Work-stress has an indirect or contributory impact on ill-health, by reducing immune functioning and thereby making an individual vulnerable to infections, such as colds, flu or stomach bugs (Blaug, Kenyon & Lekhi, 2007).

The third is absence as a means of coping with stressful work situations. If an individual perceives his or her work-stress as having reached a level where he or she is at a risk of being made ill, taking a spell of sickness absence is, consciously or unconsciously, a means of coping with the situation or recovering from its effects (Butt, 2009). Tang (2009) argues that this is particularly true in cases where poor relationships are the source of stress. The fourth is absence due to poor engagement, motivation and commitment. This is where stressful work conditions have led to poor employee engagement, where it is more likely that there will be occasions on which individuals are not motivated enough to come to work, even though they are not actually ill enough to warrant time off (Blaug et al., 2007).

3.6.2.5. Staff turnover

Turnover is defined as voluntary and involuntary permanent withdrawal of employees from the workplace as a result of resignations or retirement. According to Blaug et al. (2007) there is a positive relationship between work-stress and turnover. Individuals who are highly stressed as a result of work may decide to stop coming to work permanently. The ill health associated with work-stress may force individuals to resign or take early retirement. This can lead to organisational ineffectiveness and high human resources costs (Cooper et al., 2005).

3.6.2.6. Low job satisfaction

Kalleberg (2004) defines job satisfaction as a work-related attitude that results from positive or negative appraisal by an employee of particular aspects of their work environment. The three components of the appraisal process include the cognitive component, which is how a particular aspect of the job is perceived or judged related to an existing cognitive standard. Secondly, there is an implicit or explicit value standard, and thirdly, judgment of the relationship or disagreement between one's

perceptions and one's values. This means that job satisfaction is not only influenced by components of a job, but depends on the relationship between an individual and the job (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Kalleberg (2009) suggests that those who experience high levels of work-stress are low in these three components. Work-stress leads to feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and an inability to cope in stressful situations that trigger lower emotional health, which leads to feelings of frustration or deprivation. That is, one is not able to cope with stressful work conditions, which provokes feelings of dissatisfaction with the job (Kalleberg, 2004).

3.7 ADDRESSING WORK-STRESS

Blaug et al. (2004) suggests that managing work-stress in the workplace is based on the transactional approach to work-stress, which treats stress as a dynamic process operating between an individual and his or her environment. This section therefore deals with methods related to management of work-stress in the workplace, as well as personally coping with work-stress.

3.7.1 Management of work-stress in the workplace

From a transactional view, managing work-stress is a comprehensive integrated, organisational health framework that focuses simultaneously on the wellbeing of the employee and the performance of the organisation, where employee wellbeing and organisational performance are both influenced by a combination of individual and organisational characteristics (Oosthuizen & Van Lill, 2008). Management of stress can typically be classified into three groups namely primary, secondary and tertiary (Blaug et al., 2004).

3.7.1.1 Primary interventions

Primary interventions aim to prevent work-related stress arising from targeting the employee, the job or the interface between the employee and the workplace. It is a prevention strategy which consists of control over work hazards and exposure to

hazards, by design and worker training, to reduce the likelihood of those workers experiencing stress (Cooper, 2006). The aim is to have a clear understanding of the particular stressors within the work setting, and the needs of individuals, by identifying and assessing stressors particular to the environment and the levels of stress, as well as developing planned organisational interventions to address sources of stress (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2007).

Bessinger (2006) adds that the idea is to create a healthy organisation, characterised as one that manages to balance the needs and demands of all stakeholders (Blaug et al., 2004). A healthy organisation is one in which responsibility for reducing stress is attributed to the organisation, and where individual workers are given more responsibilities in terms of active participation in managing change and job redesign, engaging in honest feedback and communication with their employers, and understanding the constraints which operate on the organisation (Oosthuizen & Van lill, 2008).

3.7.1.2 Secondary intervention

Secondary intervention is based on management and group problem-solving, to improve the organisation's ability to recognise and deal with problems as they arise. It attempts to minimise the impact of stress and diminish the seriousness of its consequences. Secondary intervention aims to treat or mediate the effects of a dysfunction or problem experienced by the individual employee (Ali et al., 2011).

This generally consists of a mixture of several different techniques including assertiveness and personal effectiveness training, cognitive restructuring and the reshaping of personal perceptions by logical reasoning. All techniques involve strengthening the individual's self-esteem or sense of personal worth. The aim is to change individual skills and resources and help the individual change their situation. The training should help prevent the effects of work-stress by means of the following (Copper, 2006):

- Becoming aware of the signs of work-stress.
- Interrupting behaviour patterns when the stress reaction is just beginning, as stress usually builds up gradually. The more stress builds up, the more difficult it is to deal with.
- Analysing the situation and developing an active plan to minimise the stressors.
- Learning skills of active coping and relaxation, developing a lifestyle that creates a buffer against stress (Bessinger, 2006).

Copper (2006) concludes that a number of significant benefits accrue to individuals, including reductions in physiological arousal levels, tension and anxiety, sleep disturbances, somatic complaints, and an increased ability to cope with work and home problems as a result of this intervention.

3.7.1.3 Tertiary intervention

Tertiary intervention, referred to as rehabilitation, often involves offering enhanced support to help employees cope with and recover from problems that affect their functioning at work and at home. It aims to identify and treat the ill effects of stress once they have occurred, and rehabilitating the individual to enable them to return to work as swiftly as possible (Tonder & Roodt, 2008).

Oosthuizen and Van lill (2008) state that one type of tertiary intervention is employee assistance programmes (EAPs). EAPs aim to develop a job-based programme operating within the organisation for the purposes of identifying troubled employees, motivating them to resolve their troubles, and providing access to counselling or treatment for those who need these services. Bessinger (2006) argues that EAPs do not necessarily have to focus only on restoring the health of employees, but can involve all methods of intervention. EAPs should penetrate organisations and target their behavioural risks with on-going programmes of prevention and intervention strategies that reduce employees' exposure to work-stress (Oosthuizen & Van lill, 2008).

Lastly, Bessinger (2006) suggests that it is very important for top management to acknowledge the importance of the process, as well as the content of interventions by the involvement of employees.

3.7.2 Personally coping with work-stress

Coping with work-stress refers to the employee's conscious, and continuously changing, cognitive and behavioural efforts to overcome those threats at work that are considered to exceed their resources. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) these may be classified as follows (Szilas, 2011).

3.7.2.1 Problem-based coping strategy

Choosing this strategy, the employee aims his or her personal coping efforts at the stressor causing the demand. A potential way to do this is by identifying the problem, developing alternative courses of action, and executing the selected solution. This coping may be directed inwardly when there is an intention to change something in oneself (Vogel, 2006).

3.7.2.2 Emotional-based coping strategy

In choosing this strategy the employee concentrates his or her personal coping efforts towards altering his or her own emotional reactions. The goal of coping in this case is to attenuate the unpleasant feelings associated with the situation (Mark & Smith, 2008).

Olayinka, Osamudiamen and Ojo (2013) indicate that, while the distinct coping methods may become characteristic habits of individuals, work-related situations have a much greater significance in the decision-making process.

3.7.2.3 Enhancement of social relationships at work.

According to Szilas (2011) enhancement of social relationships at work is a program aimed at relationship-building skills. Empathy with colleagues, attentive listening and the practice of honest and positive communication may be regarded as proactive coping strategies which are capable of increasing social support among colleagues in

work-stress situations. The strengthened solidarity and trust between fellow workers is considered to be an extremely powerful, general protective factor against work-stress (Szilas, 2011).

3.8 WORK-STRESS AMONGST NURSING LEADERSHIP POSITIONS

Nursing was chosen as one of the occupations to which the international labour organisation (ILO) (1997) has commissioned a manual on stress prevention. Nurses are seen to have more work-stress than most employees due to the nature of the job and the system within which they work (Makie, 2006; Olayinka, Osamudiamen & Ojo, 2013). However, while work-stress experienced by nurses has been studied extensively, there is a gap in the literature regarding the identification of work-stress experienced by nursing leaders. Despite research that supports the notion that management positions are inherently stressful, there has not been enough individual quantitative examination of the nursing leaders' perceived work-stress across multiple organisations (Omoike et al., 2011; Shirey, 2007).

Xie, Wang and Chen (2011) are of the opinion that, in comparison with other nurses, nurses' seniority correlates positively and significantly with the total sources of work-stress scores. That is, nursing leaders experience more work-stress than their employees. Kath, Stichler, Ehrhart and Schultze (2013) state that nursing leaders' workloads are unmanageable. Their responsibility increases dramatically from that one of being an ordinary nurse to nursing leader. The amount of administrative paperwork is excessive, while staff shortages mean that nursing leaders still have to be hands-on in patient care.

Diverse responsibilities and increased workloads are all factors which contribute to high levels of work-stress among nursing leaders (Shirey, Ebright & Mcdaniel, 2013). Shirey (2009) adds that nursing leadership work-stress describes a combination of unpleasant situations and unpleasant inner personal experiences. It is related to a distribution of variables, such as human suffering, occupational role and work environment. Increased span of control, scope of responsibilities, and financial and

operational performance demands are serious challenges for nursing leaders (Sinha, 2010).

Furthermore, nursing leaders are the direct interface between the clinical workforce and healthcare executives. They have a direct influence on professional practice, staff experience, attitudes, retention, and unit culture and climate. Therefore, nursing leaders in health care report significant workloads and work-stress due to top down changes recommended from administration and bottom-up changes requested by subordinates (Omoike et al., 2011). Different from most business leaders, nursing leaders are required to have clinical expertise as well as knowledge of business management. Such a situation appears to lead to work overload and possible role conflict. Performance expectations and the need for staff resources create pressure, as nursing leaders deal with the demands of competing priorities (Olayinke et al., 2013).

Sinha (2010) states that there is also a lack of mutual professional regard between physicians and nursing leaders in most healthcare institutions. Nursing leaders, though in leadership positions, often see themselves slip into the traditional role of a handmaiden to physicians. Shirey (2009) argues that one of the reasons nurses lack status is the fact that nursing is not valued as highly or supported as much as other services. Support by healthcare institutions executive is imperative to nursing leaders, and the lack thereof is a source of work-stress. Nurses feel insecure in operating optimally as leaders because of the lack of support and favouritism towards health professional over nurses sometimes displayed by the top management (Su et al., 2008). This lack of professional support for the nurses leads to feelings of confused expectations, role frustration, limited personal and professional growth, conflict in existing relationships, and a lack of team spirit among others, all of which create a cycle of causes and consequences of work-stress for nursing leaders (Kath et al., 2013).

Other consequences of work-stress among nursing leadership include a lack of job satisfaction followed by staff intent to leave, resulting in increased turnover. The

outcome variable affects the initial sources of stress and resources both at the job and at the personal levels, producing a cyclic process (Shirey, 2009; Spooner-Lane, 2004). Interpersonal difficulties commonly stemming from stressful situations may also compromise group cohesion, thus impacting on the efficient functioning of the complex work units within the health care organisation (Kelly, 2010). Job insecurity can also occur in nursing leadership. This occurs when nursing leaders do not feel confident about their ability to do the job well, and do not have enough time, information, training or support to do the job without making mistakes. If they have no confidence that support will be forthcoming, if mistakes are made and disciplinary procedures are rigidly applied, feelings of insecurity increase (Jennings, 2012).

The consequences of work-stress conditions have a significant impact on individual nursing leaders and their ability to accomplish tasks, specifically poor decision-making, lack of concentration, apathy, decreased motivation, and anxiety may also impair job performance, resulting in lethal threats to patient safety (Shirey et al., 2013).

Nortje's (2007) adds that it is important to determine the work stressors prevalent in nursing leadership. The identification of major sources of stress will offer a twofold benefit for both leaders and employees. Firstly, by resulting in work environment changes that reduce stress and increase productivity, and secondly by facilitating the development of effective interventions that could reduce the debilitating effects of the work-stress (Aucamp, 2003). By turning toxic health care work environments into healthy workplaces, improvements can be realised in recruitment and retention of nursing leaders and nurses, job satisfaction for all health-care staff, and patient outcomes, particularly those related to patient safety (Jennings, 2012).

In addition, Milutinovi, Moluolubovi, Brkić, and Prokeš (2012) state that demographic characteristics such as age also have an effect on the extent to which nursing leaders experience work-stress (Kane, 2009; Makie, 2006). Wilkins (2007) reports that nursing leaders aged 35 to 54 report high levels of work-stress, the highest among all age groups. They experience more mental and physical fatigue and

tension after a workday than other nurses. Xie et al. (2011) argue that this may be due to the combined responsibilities of work, marriage, and children which younger and or much older nursing leaders may not have. However, Lambert (2004) argues that younger nursing leaders may feel uncertain and inadequately prepared for the leadership role, and therefore suffer more work-stress. Older nursing leaders normally delegate their workload to the more senior younger members of their employees. By so doing, the older nursing leaders do not have to contend with the stressors of the workload (Kane, 2009; Sinha, 2010).

3.9 SUMMARY

The focus of this chapter was on the concept of work-stress with specific emphasis on the nature and definitions of work-stress, approaches to and models of work-stress, as well as the individual and organisational variables that may contribute to work-stress. The consequences of work-stress for an organisation, and for individuals, and methods of addressing work-stress within an organisation were also presented. Lastly, the concept of work-stress amongst nursing personnel in leadership positions was also discussed.

Chapter 4: EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Diaz (2008) states that in recent years, increasing attention has been paid to the importance of emotional intelligence. Several practical frameworks have been developed to assist leaders in understanding what emotional competencies they need to acquire in order to be successful at work (Azman, Yeo, Mohd & Noor, 2006; Miranda, 2011). This chapter will therefore deliberate on the concept of emotional intelligence, including the nature of emotional intelligence as well as definitions of emotional intelligence. More recent models of emotional intelligence and components of emotional intelligence will be examined, as well as contributing factors to, and consequences of, emotional intelligence. Lastly, a perspective on emotional intelligence amongst nursing leadership will be discussed.

The concepts of emotions and intelligence as assumptions within emotional intelligence will now be discussed in order to establish the background for defining emotional intelligence.

4.2 THE NATURE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Cox (2010), emotional intelligence is a multi-dimensional construct, involving emotions and intelligence. Emotional intelligence is the idea that emotions and intelligence can combine to perform more sophisticated information processing than either is capable of alone (Assanova & McGuire, 2009; Caruso, 2008; Xavier, 2005).

4.2.1 Emotions

Phin (2009) states that the word emotion is derived from the Latin word, *emoveo*, which means, to move from. It is a spontaneous and functional movement of the mind or soul to the interpretation of an event (Gryn, 2010; Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2007). Emotions are results of brain processes, physiological arousal and behavioural predispositions that are influenced by experience, expression, cognition,

behaviour and physiological changes. Prins (2009) proposes that basic emotions include anger, fear, sadness, enjoyment, disgust, surprise, interest, shame, contempt, distress and guilt. These emotions are used to improve an individual's adaptation to situations and challenges (Marques, 2007; Smith, Profetto-McGrath & Cummings, 2009).

Azman et al. (2006) propose that at the workplace, emotions are sources of motivation which control one's actions and influence decision-making (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006). The core capacity for individuals at work is therefore to access their feelings, and the range of those emotions. It includes the capacity to effect discriminations directly among feelings and eventually, to label them, to entangle them and to draw upon them as a means of understanding and guiding behaviour. Individuals need to notice and make distinctions between others' moods, temperaments, motivations and intentions for effective work environments (Kerr et al., 2006; Gryn, 2010).

4.2.2 Intelligence

Foxcroft and Roodt (2009) define intelligence (IQ) as the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposely, to think rationally and to deal with changes in the environment effectively. Jones (2013) views IQ as the set of intellectual competencies that entail a set of skills, such as problem-solving, enabling the individual to resolve genuine problems or difficulties that he or she encounters, thereby laying a foundation for the acquisition of new knowledge. These abilities are psychological or mental powers to act and express developed skills, and are individual traits, which influence the accomplishment of activity and are preconditions for successful performance (Assanova & McGuire, 2009; Farnham, 2012).

Du Preez (2012) however suggests that human beings are not only motivated by reason or intelligence alone, but are subject to feelings, desires and other emotions that strongly influence them. Human beings operate in two minds, that is, the cognitive mind (IQ) and the emotional mind, which is emotional intelligence. Caruso (2008) states that the key difference between emotional intelligence and traditional

IQ involves the integration of emotion with thoughts, enabling an individual to understand what others are feeling, while traditional intelligence involves the integration, organisation and ordering of thoughts. Emotional intelligence is thus the degree to which intelligence is informed by emotions, and the extent to which these emotions are intellectually managed. It is a distinct type of intelligence that highlights life-enhancing competencies, strengths and their development in the efficient and optimal functioning of human beings (Gryn, 2010; Xavier, 2005).

Proceeding from the nature of emotional intelligence, emotional intelligence will now be defined.

4.3 HISTORICAL ROOTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Naghavi and Redzuan (2011) suggest that the study of emotional intelligence originates from the writings of Wechsler (1940), who referred to the non-cognitive intellectual aspects of general intelligence. According to Prins (2009), Wechsler subsequently defined intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his (or her) environment” (Wechsler, 1958, p.7). This concept involves more than simple cognitive intelligence, and implicates those abilities required to adapt to new situations and cope successfully with life. These factors, undeniably contribute to intelligent behaviour. Wechsler argued that one cannot expect to measure total intelligence unless the tests includes some measures of the non-intellective factors (Prins, 2009).

These early thoughts were succeeded half a century later by the ideas of Gardner (1983, 1993, 1999), who suggested a theory of multiple intelligences that incorporated, kinaesthetic, practical, musical and personal intelligences, thereby expanding on Wechsler’s concept of general intelligence (Jones, 2013). Gardner conceptualised the personal intelligences as an intra-psychic capacity and an interpersonal skill. According to Gardner, intrapersonal intelligence is comprised of the ability to understand oneself, including knowing how one feels about things and understanding one’s range of emotions, as well as having insight into the way one

acts (Jones, 2013). Intrapersonal intelligence assists one to act in ways that are appropriate to one's needs, goals and abilities. Interpersonal intelligence, conversely, includes the ability to read moods, desires and intentions of others and to act on this knowledge. Theorists thus began to challenge traditional IQ-based views of intelligence (e.g. Bar-On, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1993, 1995) (Jones, 2013; Prins, 2006).

Currently, the concept of emotional intelligence adds depth to the concept of human intelligence in an attempt to expand the ability to evaluate overall intelligence (Bar-On, 2007). Kerr et al. (2007) contend that general intelligence includes both cognitive and emotional intelligence, and views the personal intelligences as the predecessors of emotional intelligence (Gryn, 2010).

4.4 DEFINITIONS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Emotional intelligence is a range of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that determine how effectively intelligences understand and express themselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures (Bharwaney, Bar-on & MacKinley, 2011, p. 3).

Emotional Intelligence has also been defined by Oosthuyse (2009, p. 15), Cox (2011, p. 437) as well as Gayathri and Vimala (2013, p. 1230), as an understanding and communication of emotions in the self and in others, and the use of personal and others' emotion to assimilate emotions in motivation and problem-solving. It is the ability to manage emotions, to control experienced and expressed emotion, and to facilitate relationships using emotion resulting from behaviours.

According to Naghavi and Redzuan (2011, p. 41), emotional intelligence is one's ability to comprehend, express, understand, and manage emotions in oneself and others.

For the purpose of this study, Bracket, Rivers and Salovey (2011, p. 89) define emotional intelligence as a collection of capabilities to accurately perceive, appraise

and integrate emotions through information channels to facilitate thoughts, including the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge, and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Parvesh & Kanji, 2010, p. 7; Jones, 2013, p. 8).

There are various models of emotional intelligence.

4.5 MODELS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Ramchundar (2011) proposes that since the initiation of emotional intelligence, a great deal of emotional intelligence models have emerged (Miranda, 2010; Prins, 2006). In this section, focus will be placed on competing models of emotional intelligence used in recent research, and also a few other models of intelligence that have evolved will be briefly discussed.

4.5.1 Competing models of emotional intelligence

Competing models of emotional intelligence include zeitgeist, the Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence, the Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence and the Trait Model of Intelligence. These models are the most prominent in recent studies of emotional intelligence (Naghavi & Redzuan, 2011; Nortje, 2007; Petrides, 2011).

4.5.1.1 Emotional intelligence as a zeitgeist

Zeitgeist is described as a rational and passionate trend that characterises the moment. It is an intellectual approach that symbolises and influences the culture of a particular period in time (Magee, 2011). Emotional intelligence, as zeitgeist therefore, refers to an intellectual and cultural trend that was signalled when Daniel Goleman's (1995) book on emotional intelligence was published and translated into 30 different languages (Rohr, 2005). Commenting on Goleman's book, Mayor (2006) states that the book was an extraordinary claim for the concept of emotional intelligence that created an explosion of activity in a new concept. Goleman popularised the emotional intelligence concept and made it accessible not only to scientists but, for the broader public (Prins, 2006). Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2003) are also of the opinion that that few fields of investigation appear to have impacted so many

dissimilar areas of human industry, in its inception, as has emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence, as zeitgeist marks an intersection of two areas of cultural tension in western society (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000), which are described as follows.

The first tension was the thought between emotion and reason as two opposite ends of a paradigm. Emotional intelligence was viewed as an oxymoron, that is, emotions are unreasonable and should be willed away (Prins, 2006). Payne's (1986) landmark thesis then introduced the concept and framework of emotional intelligence as a way of addressing these ills produced by a long-time suppression of emotion (Rohr, 2005). This Humanistic view in psychology advocated a basic human need to feel good about oneself, experience one's emotions directly, and grow emotionally. In contrast to the prevailing traditional paradigm, where the more emotionally inclined individual was frequently regarded as mentally ill, the emotional intelligence construct attempts to integrate emotion and thought (Mayer et al., 2000; Prins, 2006).

The second area of cultural tension in western society, addressed by the concept of emotional intelligence, was the tension between egalitarianism and elitism. This was a direct result of publication of the emotional Intelligence books (Goleman, 1995) and *The Bell Curve* (Herrnstein & Murray, 1994). These books presented emotional intelligence as the equalizer, and as powerful more so than IQ at times, with the benefit in that crucial emotional intelligence competencies can be learned. Herrnstein and Murray (1994) argued the importance of emotional intelligence in attaining success in western societies. Herrnstein and Murray's arguments were opposed as elitist, while Goleman's views were considered egalitarian refutations of *The Bell Curve* assumptions (Zeidner, Matthews & Roberts, 2004). Prins (2006) therefore suggests that, since emotional intelligence is by nature egalitarian and different from IQ, it has zeitgeist value since it reflects something of the democratic spirit of the present time (Zeidner et al., 2004).

4.5.1.2 Ability model of emotional intelligence

The ability model of emotional intelligence was constructed by Mayer and Salovey (1997). The model views emotional intelligence as a set of mental abilities to do with processing of emotion relevant information (Caruso, 2008; Nel, 2012). The model concentrates on a combination of emotions and thinking concurrently in both personal and interpersonal settings. It brings forth four abilities namely perception of emotion, using emotions, understanding of emotions and managing emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2007). These abilities are arranged hierarchically from basic psychological processes to the more psychologically integrated and complex processes (Merkey, 2010). The model is depicted in Figure 4.1 below.

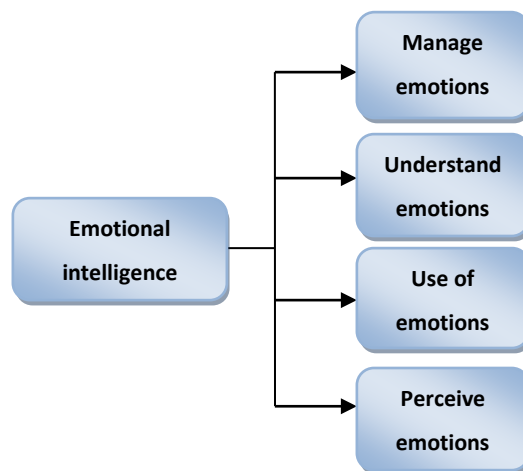


Figure. 4.1. Ability model of emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 11).

Regarding the first ability, perception of emotions, Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, and Boyle (2006) state that it involves identifying and differentiating emotions in one's physical states including bodily expressions, feelings, and thoughts, and in the behavioural expressions of others, such as facial expressions, body movements and voice. This ability focuses on self-awareness and emotional awareness, and it stresses accuracy of perception and judgment (Caruso, 2008). According to Salovey et al. (2007) the ability to perceive and identify emotions is crucial to understanding the needs and wants of others, as well as knowing the difference between what someone says and what he or she really means. It therefore allows for more effective responses and actions. Persons skilled in perceiving emotion are adept at differentiating between

the range of emotion expressions such as frustration, anger, and rage in themselves and in others (Kerr et al., 2006).

According to Jones (2013), the second ability, uses emotions related to the processing of emotional information and is aimed at problem-solving and improving cognitive processes. This includes abilities to redirect and prioritise feelings, to produce emotions assisting in judgment and memory processes, to take advantage of mood changes, to understand multiple view points, and to utilise emotional states to problem-solve and exhibit creativity. Persons skilled at using emotions are better able to generate specific emotional states to perform effectively at work (Caruso, 2008; Salovey et al., 2007). Olhson (2010) contends that leaders can motivate themselves and others through the use of emotions by generating enthusiasm and excitement in the workplace. The use of emotions leads to open-mindedness, diversity and creative solutions (Zhou & George, 2003).

The third ability, understanding emotions, involves the cognitive processing of emotions. That is, the ability to accurately comprehend causes and consequences of emotions, as well as how emotions combine, progress, and shift from one to the other (Grewal & Salovey, 2005; Nel, 2012). Persons skilled in this area have a rich emotion vocabulary, and are knowledgeable about what causes various emotions and what behaviours or thoughts may result from their occurrence. Understanding emotions also provides the leader with strong communication skills and the ability to better understand others' points of view (Olhson, 2010; Caruso, 2008).

Bryne (2012) describes the fourth ability, managing emotions, as the ability to regulate moods and emotions. It involves attending and staying open to pleasant and unpleasant feelings, as well as engaging in or detaching from an emotion depending on its perceived utility in a particular situation (Salovey et al, 2007). Managing emotions therefore involves flexibility in permitting an individual to continue in a manner they think best, taking cognisance of emotional, pragmatic and spiritual information (Caruso, 2008). By effectively managing emotions, individuals can accomplish situational goals, express socially appropriate emotions, and behave in

socially acceptable ways. An individual is able to deal with stressors that are inherent in the job while also facilitating strong, working relationships that contribute to a positive work environment (Caruso & Wolfe, 2004; Jones, 2013).

In summary, according to the ability model of emotional intelligence, these four abilities have a developmental path. Meaning there are various skills within each domain that evolve from basic to more advanced. For example, for perception of emotion, basic skills involve accurately recognising an emotional expression in others and more advanced skills entail expressing emotions in adaptive ways and discriminating between honest and false emotional expressions in others. These abilities are further thought to develop with age and experience, and manifest in certain adaptive behaviours (Caruso, 2008; Hughes & Terrell, 2012).

4.5.1.3 Mixed models of emotional intelligence

According to Rosete (2007), mixed models of emotional intelligence do not only focus on the mental ability, but also take into consideration the personality factors that may have an impact on an individual's emotional intelligence. The most prominent mixed models of emotional intelligence are Goleman's competency based model of emotional intelligence and Bar-On's emotional-social intelligence (Gryn, 2010). These models are discussed hereafter.

4.5.1.3.1 The Competency based model

According to Chopra and Kanji (2010) the competency-based model of emotional intelligence was developed by Goleman (2001). The model was specifically developed for workplace applications. Goleman defines emotional intelligence as a set of competencies that enables individuals to demonstrate intelligence using their emotions in effectively managing both themselves and others at work. Competencies are defined as learned capabilities, based on emotional intelligence, that result in outstanding performance at work. The premise of the model is to link emotional intelligence to the theory of action and performance at work (Goleman; 2011; Hughes & Terrell, 2012; Prins, 2006). Table 4.1 below is a framework that represents the competency-based model.

Table 4.1. A Framework of Emotional Competencies

Self	Others	
	(Personal Competences);	(Social Competences);
Recognition	Self-Awareness; - Emotional self-awareness - Accurate self-assessment - Self-confidence	Social Awareness; - Empathy - Service orientation - Organisational awareness
Regulation	Self-Regulation; - Self-control - Transparency - Optimism - Adaptability - Achievement drive - Initiative	Relationship Management; - Developing others - Influence - Conflict management - Inspirational leadership - Change catalyst - Teamwork & collaboration

Goleman (2001, p. 28)

According to the competency approach, there are twenty competences nested in four general abilities, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, social awareness and relationship management. Self-awareness and self-regulation relate to what Gardner (1983) labels as intra-personal intelligence, whilst social awareness and relationship management are related to inter-personal intelligence (Prins, 2009). Goleman (2001) holds that emotional intelligence is observed when an individual demonstrates the competencies that constitute self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills at appropriate times, and in sufficient frequency to be effective in the situation.

Self-awareness is referred to as the ability to recognise and interpret one’s own emotions, worth and capabilities. It allows an individual to understand him or herself better, and his or her preferences and resources (Goleman, 2011; Olhson, 2010). Self-awareness builds competencies such as, emotional self-awareness, self-confidence and self-reflection (Hughes & Terrell, 2012). Emotional self-awareness refers to the ability to recognise one’s emotions and the impact they have on one’s life, while self-confidence includes being aware of one’s self-worth and capabilities.

Self-reflection involves identifying personal strengths and weakness. These self-awareness skills underpin effective emotional intelligence in the work environment (Goleman, 2006).

Social awareness means effectively managing emotions in relationships and accurately reading social situations and networks, interacting smoothly and using these skills to lead, negotiate and settle disputes for cooperation and teamwork. It is an ability needed to develop and nurture good relationships at work (Goleman, 2011). Competencies under social awareness include empathy, service orientation and organisational awareness. These competencies enable an individual to interpret organisational currents, networks, politics, and to moderate interactions. This helps to create a high morale among employees by allowing balance between work and interpersonal relationships at work (Chopra & Kanji, 2010; Goleman, 2006).

Self-regulation, according to Kunnanatt (2008), is the ability of individuals to handle emotions in order to facilitate rather than interfere with a task in hand. It is being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals. It involves regulating the rational and emotional processes to provide an emotionally supportive pathway for the reasoning mind to make logically correct and socially acceptable decisions and judgments (Rosete, 2007; Taft, 2011). Self-regulation leads to self-control, transparency, optimism, adaptability, achievement drive and initiative. These competencies allow an individual to identify opportunities and act accordingly, and to orientate him or herself to accomplish goals at a standard of excellence (Hughes & Terrell, 2012).

The last ability, relationship management, describes the ability to develop and maintain mutual esteem, unity and good social relations with both co-workers and employees. It involves the ability to communicate clearly and convincingly, dissolve conflict, and build strong personal relationships (Engle & Nehrt, 2011; Yip & Martin, 2006). It also includes competencies such as developing others, which means an individual has the capacity to cultivate others' abilities, understanding their goals, strengths and weaknesses (Exeter, 2005), and catalysing change. Thus, an

individual with skills to initiate, activate and bring about change within an organisation. Relationship management also leads to building and maintaining effective teams at work (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2004). The above conceptualisation of emotional abilities forms the basis of this study.

4.5.1.3.2 The Bar-On model of social-emotional intelligence

The Bar-On model of social emotional-intelligence was developed by Bar-On (1997). Bar-On (1997) defines emotional intelligence as a multi-factorial array of emotional personal and social abilities that influences an individual's ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures (Gryn, 2010; Nortje, 2007). Emotional intelligence is an important factor in determining ability to succeed in life, cope with daily situations, and to get along with others (Bar-On, 2007a). Figure 4.2 is a schematic representation of the Bar-On model of social-emotional intelligence.

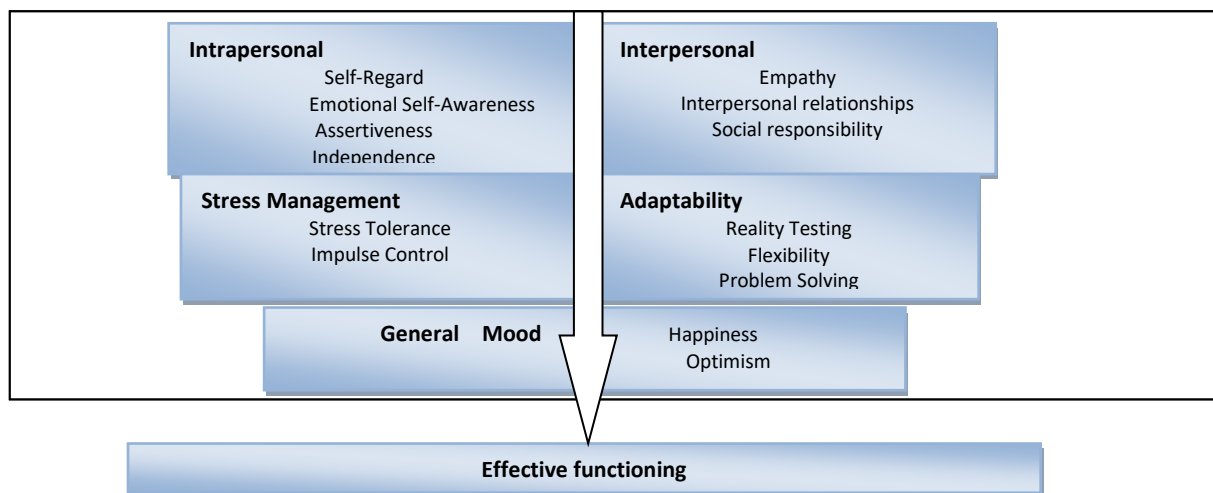


Figure 4.2. Bar-On model of emotional intelligence (Campell, 2012, p. 22)

According to Bar-On, there are specific sub-dimensions of emotional and social intelligence namely, intrapersonal emotional intelligence, interpersonal emotional intelligence, intrapersonal emotional intelligence, adaptability emotional intelligence, stress management emotional intelligence, and general mood emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2007).

The intrapersonal component reflects capabilities, competences and skills pertaining to the inner self. It is the ability to be aware of oneself, to understand one's strengths and weaknesses, and to express one's feelings and thoughts non-destructively (Bharwaney, 2009). Bar-On (2006) states that intrapersonal skills provide the competences to express feelings, independency and confidence in expressing ideas and beliefs. The interpersonal component involves the ability to be aware of others' emotions, feelings and needs, and to establish and maintain cooperative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships. Individuals who are well-developed in this area are responsible, dependable and have well-developed social skills with which to interact and relate well with others (Jonker & Slovo, 2013; Prins, 2006).

The stress management component concerns the ability to manage and cope effectively with stress. It involves managing emotions so that they work for instead of against the individual. Individuals with developed stress management skills tend to be calmer, less impulsive, and work well under pressure (Bar-On, 2010). Bar-On (2006) suggests that the adaptability component is how successfully one copes with environmental demands. That is, how one realistically and flexibly copes with the immediate situation, solving problems and making decisions. This allows one to be flexible, realistic, effective at understanding problematic situations, and more competent at creating adequate solutions (Bar-On, 2010).

Bar-On (2006) states that to be able to achieve all these components, one needs to be sufficiently optimistic, positive and self-motivated. These pertain to general mood, which is the ability to enjoy life and to maintain a positive disposition. Individuals who are well-developed in this regard are positive, cheerful, hopeful, and know how to enjoy life (Bharwaney et al., 2011; Campbell, 2012).

Furthermore, Bar-On (2010) notes that emotional intelligence may also be viewed from two different perspectives namely, systematic and topographic views. The systematic view is such that similar types of factors logically and statistically go together, such as interpersonal components that include empathy, interpersonal relationship and social responsibility (Prins, 2009). In the topographic view, factorial

components are grouped together according to core factors, supporting factors and resultant factors. The most important factors are emotional self-awareness, assertiveness and empathy. Both resultant and core factors are dependent upon supportive factors (Bar-On, 2007a). Lastly, Bar-On (2006) holds that the factorial components of the model resemble personality and are open to change throughout life.

4.5.1.4 Trait-Based model of emotional intelligence

According to Petrides, Vernon, Scherer and Veselka (2011) the Trait-Based model of emotional intelligence was developed by Petrides and Furnham (2001). Petrides and Furnham (2001) define emotional intelligence as a constellation of emotional self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality. It is a concentration of emotional abilities that includes not only mental abilities related to intelligence and emotion, but also other personality dispositions and traits such as motives, sociability and warmth. An emotional ability encompasses behavioural dispositions and self-perceived abilities (Jonker & Vosloo, 2013). According to Petrides and Furnham (2001), emotional intelligence should be investigated within a personality framework. An alternative label for the same construct is trait-emotional self-efficacy (Petrides, 2011).

The trait-based model proposes a conceptual distinction between the ability-based models, where emotional intelligence is seen as actual emotion-related cognitive abilities. The trait-based model is general, and includes Goleman and Bar-On's models discussed above. The model emphasises the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence as a construct that lies outside the classification of human cognitive ability (Austin, Parker, Petrides, & Saklofske, 2008; Susan, 2010). This is an important distinction, as it bears directly on the operationalization of the construct and the theories and hypotheses that are formulated about it. It provides a framework that recognises the inherent subjectivity of emotional experience (Austin et al., 2008). In fact, Petrides and Furnham (2001) propose that it is the type of measurement, rather than the theory per se, that determines the nature of the model. Trait emotional intelligence measures are therefore concerned with cross-situational consistencies in

behaviour as opposed to information-processing emotional intelligence which concerns abilities (Petrides, 2011).

Prins (2006) suggests that emotional intelligence should not be equated to personality since it does not fit in with current perspectives on personality psychology. However, typical personality terminology such as motivation, emotion, cognition and consciousness presents when emotional intelligence is discussed. These traits form a basic level of personality (Prins, 2006).

4.5.2 Other models of emotional intelligence

Other models of emotional intelligence presented in this section are Rahim and Psenicka's model of emotional intelligence and conflict management strategies (2002), Zeidner, Matthews, Roberts, and MacCann multi-level investment model of emotional intelligence (2003), and the Genos model of emotional intelligence (Brink, 2009).

Rahim and Psenicka (2002) developed a model aimed at examining the causal relationship between subordinates' perceptions of their supervisors' emotional intelligence components and their own conflict management strategies with supervisors (Brink, 2009). Rahim and Psenicka (2002) believe that the mixed models of emotional intelligence stretch the concept beyond its acceptable limits, creating a need for a more restrictive model of emotional intelligence. Rahim and Psenicka (2002) therefore set out to develop a measure of emotional intelligence that assesses its most definitive or common components. The model presents emotional intelligence as ability, distinguished from personality, by redefining Goleman's sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. Since Rahim and Psenicka's (2002) model was developed based on Goleman's concepts (that were developed for the specific purpose of measuring emotional intelligence in the workplace) (Goleman, 2006), it will be used for the purpose of this study. The measure is further described in Chapter 6.

Zeidner and Matthews (2004) add another perspective to emotional intelligence by proposing a multi-level investment model in which different concepts of emotional intelligence are located on a developmental continuum. In theories of intelligence, investment refers to the engagement of cognitive processes or traits that underlie the development of human abilities. Matthews, Roberts, & Zeidner (2004) present three concepts of emotional intelligence as competencies associated with qualitatively different levels of processing emotional events. The three levels of emotional intelligence in the investment model are biological temperament, learned rule-based skills, and self-aware emotional regulation. These processing levels do not constitute developmental stages because, at any stage of emotional development, processes at multiple levels will operate. However, the importance of each level changes in different phases of development (Matthews et al., 2004).

Lastly, the Genos model of emotional intelligence was originally conceptualised by Palmer and Stough in the late 1990s, and was published later as a Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT). It has since been revised and used as the Genos emotional intelligence model (Palmer, Gignac, Harmer & Stough, 2009). It involves seven core emotional intelligence skills identified as emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of other, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others and emotional self-control. These seven skills are used to develop specific productive being states in the organisation and to minimise unproductive being states (Gignac, 2008; Palmer et al., 2009).

4.5.3 Summative perspectives on the models of intelligence

Hughes and Terrell (2012) state that models of emotional intelligence have been proposed since the 1990's. All these models aim to understand and measure the elements involved in the recognition and regulation of one's own emotions, and the emotions of others. The models consent that there are certain key components to emotional intelligence, and there is even some consensus on what those components are. The models implicate the awareness of emotions and the management of emotions as being key elements in being an emotionally intelligent

individual (Miranda, 2010; Nortje, 2007). The next section thus focuses on specific components of emotional intelligence.

4.6 COMPONENTS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Azman et al. (2006) the main components of emotional intelligence, include emotional awareness, empathy, motivation, managing emotions and the understanding and use of emotions. These components are embedded in emotional intelligence theories and models, and are vital in representing mental and behavioural functions of individuals beyond their traditional intelligence, to that of emotional intelligence (Miranda, 2011; Oosthuysen, 2009). The components are discussed in this section.

4.6.1 Emotional-awareness

Oosthuysen (2009) define emotional-awareness as being able to identify and understand emotional signals and their impact on oneself, as well as identifying and understanding emotional cues from others. Individuals should be able to convey and express emotions accurately to themselves and to others in effective communication and behaviour (Bipath, 2008). To be emotionally aware enables one to monitor behaviour and feelings, thus assisting in making better decisions. Without awareness of the effect of one's emotions and behaviours on others, one would not be able to motivate others or create and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships that are needed for effective workplaces (Du Preez, 2011).

There are two sub-dimensions to emotional awareness namely, self-awareness and social awareness. Self-awareness requires one to learn, and to listen effectively to internal dialogues through introspection, defeating non-productive emotions and attitudes (Mersino, 2007). It helps one to observe one's own reactions to activities and work-relationships, as well as to find out what activities are motivating, and to focus on developing one's weaknesses. Emotional self-awareness is considered one of the most valuable tools to job performance. Employees who are high in self-awareness are able to monitor themselves, are aware of their abilities and limitations, seek feed-back, and learn from their mistakes (Caruso & Salovey, 2009).

On the other hand, to be socially aware, one needs to be a perceptive listener and observer. This enables one to read verbal and non-verbal cues. It incorporates the ability to initiate relationships as well as respond appropriately and productively in the context of existing relationships. Emotional social awareness means effective expression of emotions and the ability to influence others' behaviour using emotions. It promotes effective interpersonal relationships in order to achieve results, and thus entails the ability to persuade others to work as individuals and in teams, to achieve important work-related goals (Goleman, 2006; Salovey et al., 2004).

4.6.2 Empathy

Empathy is the ability of individuals to understand the feelings of others and to act on those feelings to meet others' needs (Singh, 2006). These abilities forge emotional connections and have the ability to create deeper and stronger bonds between individuals than shared values, ideologies, and beliefs (Kunnanatt, 2008). According to Oosthuysen (2009) there are three facets of empathy and how it occurs within organisations. Firstly, the ability to read the verbal and nonverbal thoughts and emotions of others, secondly the ability to appreciate the thoughts and feelings of others and why they have them, the motivation to use an empathetic response in line with another's needs, often subjugating one's own, and finally the capacity to respect and value individuals from diverse backgrounds and cultures (Nel, 2012).

Mersino (2007) states that, embedded in empathy, is an orientation to another individual, putting oneself in others' situations or positions, and seeking to really understand before one can be understood. Empathetic attitudes promote social solidarity, and to engage in altruistic behaviour that can alleviate the burden imposed by negative emotions (Mersino, 2007; Millet, 2008). Empathy with others is a useful component within organisations as it helps to create effective and authentic relationships at work. Empathy helps to give feedback in a way that makes a difference, and it helps to identify the motives and reasons behind the behaviour of employees at work (Singh, 2006).

4.6.3 Motivation

Oosthuysen (2009) defines motivation as an internal driving force that enables individuals to focus on the task at hand and continue to reach the desired goals. Individuals who are able to motivate themselves are able to control their impulses. They are in charge of their behaviour and feel empowered to change their destiny. Miranda (2006) states that self-motivated leaders work consistently toward their goals, and have extremely high standards for the quality of their work. They are hopeful and optimistic, and find something good every time they face challenges or failures.

Furthermore, motivation provides the ability to control behavioural effects of negative emotions such as, anger or fear, to perform in a positive way. Individuals high in motivation react to negative, disconfirming feedback by diagnosing the causes of low performance and actually increasing their effort directed at improving performance (Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004).

4.6.4 Emotional management

Hein (2007) defines emotional management as modulating experiences, and the expression of emotions within oneself in order to achieve one's goals. Emotions are then balanced appropriately to circumstances. This balance brings personal and emotional well-being and self-satisfaction without being intrusive on the emotions of others. Carusso (2004) points out that successful management of emotions consists of two competences. The first one is the ability to promote positive emotional states, such as calmness and optimism, appropriate to what one is trying to achieve. The second involves the ability to modify the immediate impulses triggered by the experienced emotions. These result in enhanced adaptability to situations in a way that does not harm emotional well-being (Palmer et al., 2009; Oosthuysen, 2009).

In addition, Hughes (2009) suggests that all individuals have to deal with emotions at work at some point, and learning how to cope with these feelings is an important role of emotional intelligence. It is important to be aware of one's own emotional response patterns and try to manage them professionally at work. Goleman (2011) states that

through emotional management, individuals are able to resist an emotional wish, and use self-awareness to regulate the rational and emotional processes. This provides an emotionally supportive pathway for the reasoning mind to make logically correct and socially acceptable decisions and judgments. Effective emotional-management is therefore reflected in the ability to choose more appropriate behaviour in response to conflict situations, turning choices into actions (Merkey, 2010; Prins, 2006).

4.6.5 Understanding and use of emotions

Understanding and use of emotions includes ability to appreciate a range of emotions, their source, their effects and how these emotions change. This should assist in predicting emotional futures in oneself and others, as well as understanding changes in emotions reflected by one's emotional vocabulary knowledge base (Oosthuysen, 2009). Walter, Humphrey and Cole (2012) state that the understanding and use of emotions is influenced by interpretation of past experiences, the environment, personality, self-concept, as well as a person's culture, norms and values (Hein, 2007).

Kunnanatt (2008) argues that in an effective workplace, it is important for leaders and employees to understand their own emotions, as well as the emotions of their co-workers, towards using emotions effectively to guide behaviour. Skilful use of emotions lead to the ability to inspire individuals, determine priorities and be creative in decision making. It promotes the generation of new ideas and facilitates focused and flexible thinking. This improves the quality of decision-making and perseverance in challenging activities (Engle & Nerht, 2011). In addition, effective use of the skill to understand and use emotions is essential for building and managing relationships, for being empathetic, for adaptation and effective communication, as well as managing conflict. The lack of this skill leads to misinterpretation and misconceptions about motives, allowing conflict and unhealthy relationships to brew within organisations (Walter et al., 2012). The next section will focus on factors that contribute to emotional intelligence within an organisation and individual.

4.7 CONTRIBUTORS TO EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

This section examines factors that influence and contribute to the development and level of individuals' emotional intelligence. These factors include individual factors and organisational factors.

4.7.1 Organisational factors

Boyatzis (2009) points out that among those factors that contribute to emotional intelligence within an organisation, four are of most importance. These are organisational climate and culture, human resources practices, relationships at work, and formal training (Jonker & Vosloo, 2013; Mersino, 2007; Stys & Brown, 2004).

4.7.1.1 Organisational climate and culture

According to Rousseau (2011), many activities carried out in organisations subsume under the general concepts of organisational climate and culture. Therefore, organisational climate and culture that are socially supportive, support openness, engage in constructive conflict management, and participative management, assist in increasing employees' emotional intelligence. These features of organisational climate exert a positive and strong influence on employees' emotional intelligence. It encourages and promotes skills such as emotional perception, appraisal and expression of emotion, emotional facilitation of thinking, understanding and analysis of emotions, employment of emotional knowledge, and reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Awwad & Ali, 2012; Momeni, 2009; Reed, 2005).

4.7.1.2 Human resources practices

Human resources practices are those practices that are used to attract and retain employees within organisations (Grobler et al, 2011). Boyatzis (2009) suggests that human resources applications such as selection, training, executive coaching, and performance management can be successfully used to select and develop emotional intelligence in organisations. Organisations can increase emotional intelligence competencies in members of an organisation by using emotional intelligence tests to select individuals who already demonstrate emotionally intelligent competencies and

behaviours. However, Iliescu, Ilie, Ispas and Ion (2012) warn that discernment should be used for effective selection within organisations. It is only in certain levels and services where emotional intelligence is important, and can effectively separate good performers from average performers. Organisations can also increase emotional intelligence in its current workforce through training and development (Caruso, & Wolfe, 2004; Iliescu, et al., 2012).

4.7.1.3 Relationships at work

Momeni (2009) states that emotional intelligence emerges primarily through relationships, and is dependent on the quality of those relationships. Recent studies also support these findings, and further illuminate how and why individuals develop social and emotional competencies through their interactions with others (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008; Boyatzis, 2009; Shipley, Jackson & Siegest, 2010; Webb, 2004). These studies emphasise especially the importance of mentoring, role modelling, coaching and peer relationships at work. Capacities such as self-awareness, self-reflection, empathy, and listening occur as individuals in these relationships build interdependent relationships that provide support and validation, as well as model functions (Shipley et al., 2010). Interdependence that comes with these relationships at work promotes social and emotional learning. In getting to know the challenges for, and concerns of, others within the relationship, one develops empathy or social skills as the relationship evolves. As trust and rapport grow, the boundaries of what can be discussed expand, as does the potential for emotional learning (Bar-on, 2007a; Boyatzis, 2009).

4.7.1.4 Formal training

Bar-On (2007a) suggests that it is possible to help individuals in the workplace to become more emotionally intelligent and effective through formally designed training programs. These programs are termed social and emotional learning and can be applied in a variety of contexts. Stys and Brown (2004) propose that the format of these programs will depend on the preference of the organisation; however the program should address the motivational, cognitive and emotional factors of emotional intelligence.

Motivational factors include the need for an individual to acquire the emotional intelligence skills, while cognitive learning involves fitting new data and insights into existing frameworks of association and understanding, extending and enriching the corresponding neural circuitry (Caruso, & Wolfe, 2004). Emotional learning requires engagement of the neural circuitry where social and emotional habit repertoire is stored. Changing habits such as learning to approach individuals positively instead of avoiding them, to listen better, or to give feedback skilfully, is a more challenging task than simply adding new information to old. Organisations should therefore be aware that social and emotional learning are part of a larger development effort that extends over a period of time, and involves active practice of new behaviours by the trainee employee in a variety of situations (Bharwaney, 2009; Boyatzis, 2009).

4.7 2 Individual Factors

Rauf, Tarmidi, Omar, Yaaziz, and Zubir (2013) state that individual factors such as personality, neurological development, age and gender have an effect on the level of emotional intelligence (Bailey, 2007). These individual factors are discussed in the following section.

4.7.2.1 Personality

According to Weiten (2010), personality is an abstract concept which involves the actions, emotions, recognitions and motivations of a person. Individual personality has a profound impact on how one behaves in a given situation. Athota, O'connor and Jackson (2009) suggest that a few studies, including Avsec and Kavcic (2011) and Brackett and Mayer (2005) and Nawi, Redzuan, and Hamsan (2012) were conducted to link emotional intelligence to personality. These studies mostly used the five-factor model of personality consisting of personality traits namely conscientiousness, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and neuroticism (Othman, Daud, & Kassim, 2011). The results of these studies imply that personality traits, mainly conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience, and agreeableness, lead to stronger emotional intelligence (Athota et al., 2009; Besharat, 2010; Vakola, Tsaousis & Nikolaou, 2004).

Weiton (2010) describes conscientiousness as a tendency to show self-discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement against measures or outside expectations. Extraversion is characterised by pronounced engagement with the external world. Openness to experience is a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience. Agreeableness includes a tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. The traits reflect individual differences in general concern for social harmony (Nawi et al., 2012). These personality traits raise emotional intelligence capabilities such as the ability to maintain one's motivation, resilience, self-control, and empathy (Beshart, 2010). Additionally, openness to experience gives an individual the ability to consider multiple points of view, thereby enhancing the individual's use of emotions to guide decision making and encouraging open-mindedness in idea generation (Othman et al., 2011).

Furthermore, Prins (2006) suggests that another personality aspect important to emotional intelligence is the ego. According to Freud (2005) the ego is the consciousness and rational aspect of personality, responsible for directing and controlling the instincts according to the reality principle. This means that the extent to which an individual is emotionally intelligent fits in with the development of his or her ego. The ego postpones, delays, and directs the pleasure principles according to the realities of a given situation (Du Preez, 2010). Behaviour largely depends on what the environment allows, and how the individual shapes or responds to this environment. The ego helps the individual to adapt in a novel environment. It accentuates feelings and values, and is important in relation to goal directed behaviour. Individuals manoeuvre their interactions in order to seek out advantages for the self or ego whilst attempting to avoid disadvantages. These mechanisms are pertinent to the growth of individuals' emotional intelligence (Prins, 2006).

4.7.2.2 Neurological development

Neurological development refers to the processes that generate, shape, and reshape the nervous system, from the earliest stages of embryogenesis to the final years of

life (Weiten, 2010). According to Lindquist, Wager, Kober, Moreau and Barrett (2012) neuroscience has identified several brain areas crucial for emotional intelligence and social intelligence abilities. An understanding of the neurological substrates underlying emotional intelligence skills has critical implications for how individuals can best acquire, develop and strengthen their emotional intelligence. All domains of emotional intelligence originate from distinct neurological mechanisms that distinguish each domain from the others, and all are from cognitive domains of ability (Goleman, 2011; Prins, 2006; Lindquist et al., 2012; Stys & Brown, 2004).

According to Du Preez (2010) individuals are capable of acting with emotional intelligence as far as their emotional brain namely, the limbic system, allows. The limbic system is a storehouse for emotional data. It governs emotional states, behaviour, as well as feelings, impulses and drives. It acts as the emotional gatekeeper by using the thalamus and amygdala to sort emotions and distribute them to the rest of the brain, including the neo cortex, to be processed, commanding the body and the hormonal system to react. For example, endorphins secreted when humans experience pain or anger. If an individual is not sensitised to these emotional triggers, then regardless of how rational such an individual is considered to be, the risk of emotions overriding rational thinking remains high (Lindquist et al., 2012). Figure 4.3 below is the structure of the limbic system.

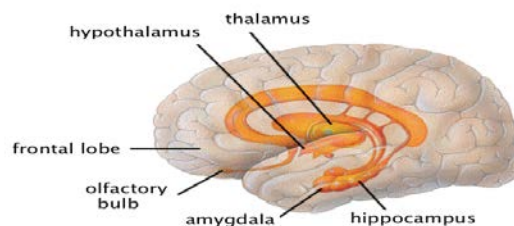


Figure 4.3 The limbic system (shown is the left part alongside the thalamus) (Boeree, 2009, p. 3).

Goleman (2011) adds that there are other sections of the brain that contribute to emotional intelligence as well. The right somatosensory cortex is responsible for self-awareness and empathy. The right insula senses the entire bodily state and indicate show one is feeling. The anterior cingulate manages impulse control and emotions, especially distressing emotions, and strong emotions (Bailey, 2007). The ventral

medial strip of the prefrontal cortex are executive centre abilities to solve personal and interpersonal problems, manage impulses, express emotions effectively, and relate well with others. Self-awareness, self-management and self-regulation rely on the interaction between the prefrontal cortex and the amygdala (Stys & Brown, 2004). Individuals with defects to these parts of the brain tend to exercise poor judgment in decision-making, though they may not show a decline in rational thinking and traditional intelligence, which is especially manifested in the disadvantageous choices they make in their personal lives, and in the ways they relate to others (Goleman, 2011).

4.7.2.3 Age

According to Ng and Feldman (2008) emotional intelligence continues to develop with age. As individuals learn from experiences, their emotional intelligence grows. Studies that have tracked individuals' emotional intelligence over the years indicate that their competencies increase as they grow older (Goleman, 1998; Shipley et al., 2010). Bar-On (2000) found that older groups scored higher on the Emotional Quotient Inventory scale score than did younger groups. The study suggests that emotional and social intelligence increases with age (Shipley et al., 2010). Bar-On (2006) suggests that older individuals have higher emotional-social intelligence, improved emotional functioning, higher degrees of differentiated emotional experiences, and better regulation of their emotional states (Sunil & Rooprai, 2009).

Also, improvements in emotional functioning have been linked to increases in self-awareness and interpersonal skills sub-dimensions, as well as to the development in concert with social skills, as individuals grow older (Chapman & Hayslip, 2006). As age increases, life experience increases as well, thereby equipping older individuals with better tools and more constructive approaches to use in a given conflict situation. Individuals who are 40 years and older are better able to regulate and monitor their emotions, and to understand the emotions of others (Shipley, et al., 2010).

4.7.2.4 Gender

Naghavi and Redzuan (2011) define gender as delineating differences that exist between females and males. According to Rivers et al. (2008) as well as Harrod and Scheer (2005), gender differences exist in emotional intelligence skills or abilities. Bar-On (2006) states that females are more aware of emotions, demonstrate empathy, relate better interpersonally and behave in a more socially responsible manner than males (Sidani & Abu-Zaki, 2006). Sykes (2008) argues that this may be due to biological differences, and differences in childhood socialisation. Socially, females are expected to be more expressive of feelings, whereas abstinence from feelings is encouraged in boys (Sidani & Abu-Zaki, 2006).

However, Goleman (2011) argues that no gender differences in emotional intelligence exist. While men and women may have different profiles of strengths and weaknesses in different areas of emotional intelligence, their overall levels of emotional intelligence are equal (Shin, 2011). The difference is in the brain, meaning the females' brain tend to stay with emotions that they are feeling, while men's brains sense the emotions for a moment, then tune out of the emotions. Men switch to other brain areas to solve the problem creating the emotional disturbance (Goleman, 2011).

Kafetsios (2004) agrees that females are superior solely on the branch of emotional perception. They are more accurate in decoding facial expression than males. Yet, in overall emotional intelligence scores, there is no significant difference between genders. Castro-Schilo and Kee (2010) also state that there are no significant associations between overall emotional intelligence and genders, but there are significant correlations when facets of emotional intelligence are considered (Naghavi & Redzuan, 2011; Shin, 2011).

4.8 CONSEQUENCES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Goleman (2011), emotional intelligence has outcomes for both organisations and individuals. The outcomes for both organisation and individuals are discussed hereafter.

4.8.1 Outcomes for organisations

Within an organisation, emotional intelligence consequences include effective leadership, organisational development, job performance, conflict management, creativity, diversity management as well as job satisfaction (Joseph & Newman, 2010; Ramchunder, 2012; Nortje, 2007). These consequences are discussed below.

4.8.1.1 Effective leadership

George (2000) observes that emotional intelligence plays an important role in leadership effectiveness. The more an individual climbs the hierarchical ladder, the more emotional intelligence abilities account for individual effectiveness (Guillen & Florent-Tracey, 2011). Rosete (2007) suggests that the leader is skilled at perceiving emotions, managing personal emotions and others' emotions, detecting important emotional signals from others, and preventing the interference of emotions with effective action. Emotionally intelligent leaders are effective in resolving conflict and creating positive emotional climates that maximise performance. Furthermore, emotional intelligence enhances the leader's ability to solve problems and to address issues and opportunities in the organisation. It increases leadership effectiveness through competencies such as, flexibility, persuasion, and social reasoning (Herbest & Maree, 2008; Ramchunder, 2012).

Kunnanatt (2008) states that emotional intelligent leaders are effective due to their ability to culminate and nurture productive working relationships, value differences and develop others (Prins, 2006). Leaders who are aware of, and have an accurate understanding of their own and other's emotions, are able to use the understanding to effectively motivate, inspire, challenge, and connect with others. Emotionally intelligent leaders are more effective than traditional managers who actively separate any emotion from the workplace (Miranda, 2011; Ramchunder, 2012).

4.8.1.2 Organisational development

Organisational development refers to increase an organisational effectiveness and viability (Robbins & Judge, 2009). Emotionally intelligent leaders help develop

organisations through their ability to regulate emotions to adapt effectively to organisational changes. This is achieved through behaviours such as self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and the social skill of emotional intelligence. These processes balance the internal interests of the organisation for the benefit of those it intends to serve (Miranda, 2011). Specifically, the utilisation of emotional intelligence principles to develop a shared sense of culture can transform emotional intelligence from an individual behaviour to a group dynamic that promotes organisational effectiveness (Osborne, 2006).

Emotional intelligence also helps organisational development by raising the level of individual and team effectiveness. Due to its enhanced ability to recognise and manage emotions, and brace against distracting emotions, emotional intelligence connects both to individual cognitive-based performance and team task performance skills (Morehouse, 2007). In their research, Butler and Chinowsky (2006) report that teams comprised of members with high emotional intelligence tend to display superior task performance skills as compared to teams made up of less emotionally intelligent members (Miranda, 2011).

4.8.1.3 Job performance

Othman et al. (2011) define job performance as performing tasks specifically related to one's job description within an organisation. Cobb (2004) states that most interactions in the workplace are related to the performance of duties. Therefore emotional intelligence becomes an important predictor of job performance (O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollak, Hawver, & Story, 2003). Individuals with accurate self-awareness are aware of their abilities and limitations, seek feedback, and learn from their mistakes. They know where to improve and when to work with others who complement their strengths, which leads to outstanding performance (Ahangar, 2012; Yu-Chi, 2011).

Furthermore, individuals who are emotionally intelligent are able to articulate and arouse enthusiasm for a shared vision, and guide the performance of others to take more initiative. They are able to read situations objectively, free from their own

biases, allowing them to perform effectively (Ahangar; 2012; Exeter, 2005). Platsidou (2010) is of the opinion that job performance also depends on the support, advice, and other resources provided by others. Emotional intelligence contributes to job performance; thereby enabling individuals to nurture productive relationships at work, work effectively in teams, and build social capital (Gray, 2004; Petrides, 2011; Singh & Woods, 2008).

4.8.1.4 Conflict management

Conflict management is defined as the practice of recognising and dealing with disputes in a rational, balanced and effective way, in order to enhance learning and group outcomes, including effectiveness or performance in organisational settings (Rahim, 2011). Schlaerth, Ensari and Christian (2013) state that emotional intelligence plays an important role in conflict management because constructive solutions require compromise, which requires an ability to recognise and regulate emotions.

Emotional intelligence skills, such as social awareness within employees, facilitates collaboration and group participation, reduces conflict and also improves the efficiency of group members (Heris & Heris, 2011). In general, emotional intelligence cultivates a friendly work environment where individuals do not avoid conflict but engage in coherent solutions for all involved. It creates an atmosphere where individuals are able to express their opinions and engage conflict in creative solutions (Seraji, Otouee, Deldar, & Khah, 2013).

Moreover, high levels of emotional intelligence facilitates collaborative problem-solving behaviour, in which emotions are both controlled and generated to develop new solutions that satisfy parties in conflict. On the other hand, individuals with lower levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to engage in greater use of forcefulness and avoidance, which may signal destructive conflict management (Salami, 2010; Seraji, et al., 2013).

4.8.1.5 Creativity

Olatoye, Akintunde, and Yakasi (2010) propose that emotional intelligence improves creativity, by use of emotions, to facilitate thought processes such as when directing one's efforts to activities best performed in certain emotional states. Through regulation of emotion to reduce negative, or maintain positive, emotions, one can enhance creativity by increasing flexibility and breadth of thinking (Ivcevic, et al., 2007). Emotional intelligence enables individuals to become aware of relationships between emotions and performance and to direct their efforts into activities best suited for certain emotional states and creativity. It facilitates the creative process by reducing work pressure, frustration and high work demands that lead to stress and hamper creativity in decision-making (Blanco, 2010; Olatoye et al., 2010).

Furthermore, Ivcevic, et al. (2007) add that emotional intelligence leads to a new domain of creativity called emotional creativity. Emotional creativity is defined as the ability to experience and express original, appropriate, and authentic combinations of emotions. It is the richness of an individual's emotional life (Olatoye et al., 2010). Emotional creativity refers to the ability to experience and express novel and effective blends of emotions. As such, an individual high in emotional intelligence will have knowledge and use of a range of regulation strategies to achieve emotional creativity (Awwad& Ali, 2012).

4.8.1.6 Job satisfaction

Tram and O'Hara (2006) believe that job satisfaction, as a positive emotional state and behaviour towards work, is the fulfilment of needs recognised through self and social awareness. Therefore, an individual's level of emotional intelligence consequently plays an important part in creating job satisfaction. High levels of emotional intelligence result in a positive attitude, or emotions emanating from the individual's perception of the job. It leads to work and positive interpersonal relationships that fulfil the need to belong and be valued. Self-awareness enables an individual to clarify and understand their vision as goals and priorities to pursue, in order to provide a sense of purpose and motivation towards achieving job satisfaction (Millet, 2008; Oosthuyse, 2009).

4.8.1.7 Managing diversity

Managing diversity means acknowledging individuals' differences and recognising these differences as valuable by preventing discrimination and promoting inclusiveness. Diversity in the workplace is comprised of different values, language, behaviours and preferences (Gardenswartz, Cherbosque & Rowe, 2010). Emotional intelligence and diversity therefore encompasses the ability to feel, understand, articulate, manage, and apply the power of emotions to interactions across lines of difference (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2004). These differences affect everyone at a feeling level, and produce an emotional response. These emotional reactions lead to behaviours that can be effective or ineffective, depending on each individual's level of emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence, in terms of insight and action, brings success to leaders who are ineffectively managing diversity (Chopra & Kanji, 2010; Gardenswartz et al., 2010).

According to Brackett and Geher (2006), emotional intelligence increases the appreciable leverage that diversity can bring to the challenge of achieving an organisation's potential for high performance levels. It assists in addressing sources of unproductive tension resulting from misinterpreted interactions among co-workers. Chopra and Kanji (2010) state that emotions are fundamental in forming reactions to the differences individuals observe and perceive among themselves and others. They determine whether individuals accept, reject, approach, avoid, or engage with others. The higher the emotional intelligence, the more one enjoys greater comfort in relationships, effectiveness in interactions, and inner peace within an organisation (Brackett & Geher 2006; Gardenswartz, Cherbosque & Rowe, 2008).

4.8.2 Outcomes for Individuals

According to Prins (2006), when individuals possess emotional intelligence it will be reflected in three areas namely, management of emotion, subjective wellbeing and resilience (Awwad & Ali, 2012; Hein, 2007).

4.8.2.1 Management of emotion

Management of emotion refers to the ability to manage emotions in oneself and others by restraining disruptive emotions and enhancing pleasant emotions. It is activating the rational mind to regulate the emotional mind (Prins, 2006). Individuals who are emotionally intelligent are able to manage their emotions effectively, which leads to successful functioning and optimal performance at work and in daily life (Hein, 2007; Oosthuysen (2009). Prinsloo (2006) argues that management of emotions provides the self-control necessary to prevent emotional breakdowns. An emotional breakdown is an involuntary response to an emotional situation, such as road rage and tearful outbursts. Emotional intelligence therefore assists with coping strategies critical to managing emotions effectively to avoid breakdown. An individual learns to manage emotionally expressive behaviour when faced with challenging situations. According to Caruso and Salovey (2004) individuals who are able to manage emotions, integrate their emotions into their decisions and behaviours in a way that enhances their lives and other people around them (Prins, 2006; Mersino, 2007).

4.8.2.2 Subjective well-being

Foxcroft and Roodt (2010) define subjective well-being as an individual's evaluation of his or her quality of life, characterised by three domains, namely life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect. Prins (2006) argues that well-being includes a positive temperament, the ability to be optimistic and minimise negative emotions, and to enjoy mutually supportive relationships. Viewed from this perspective, emotional intelligence facilitates subjective well-being, as it justifies one's emotional experience as worthy. According to Nel (2012), research indicates that self-worth mediates both emotional and motivational systems so that positive self-beliefs are associated with positive affect and the pursuit of goals important to the self. That means subjective well-being is an optimistic buffer when things go badly for an individual, since he or she can contextualise the event in time and space (Murray, 2009).

According to Oosthuysen (2009), as individuals grow in emotional intelligence, it changes both their inner minds and outside relationships, and cultivates within better attitudes, clearer perceptions, and better social relationships, which contributes to overall life satisfaction. Emotional intelligence promotes an urge to pursue noble goals, missions, and accomplishments that lead to definable progress both in one's career and personal life (Kunnamatt, 2008).

4.8.2.3 Resilience

Resilience is defined as the ability to adjust effectively, or act with emotional competence, across risky life factors. It relates to the ability to recover quickly after having experienced some or other trauma (Louw & Louw, 2007). Nel (2012) and Prins (2006) contend that emotional intelligence generates continued fulfilment and capacity for positive emotions and generative experiences in times of distress, or immediately after emotionally intelligent individuals has experienced trauma. Bonanno (2010) asserts that the capacity for adaptive flexibility was reflected in a study associating resilience among victims in the aftermath of the September 11 terrorist attacks in America, New York, with flexibility in self-regulation.

4.8.2.4 Social relationships

Beshart (2010) suggests that emotional intelligence plays a role in establishing and maintaining social relationships, and Brackett, Mayer and Warner (2005) propose that the related construct of emotional competence is a crucial component of social development, and contributes to the quality of interpersonal relationships. It is related to both characteristics that build relationships and to the quality of those relationships, through its associations with empathy, ability to self-monitor in social situations, good social skills, and cooperation. It increases relationship quality through affiliation, close affective ties, and a satisfactory close partnership (Cote & Miners, 2006).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence is related to indicators of social functioning, as emotion abilities are integral to effective social interactions. Emotional skills such as, recognising emotions of others, facilitates perspective-taking, promotes empathy and

provision of social support, while expressing emotions in a clear way that leads to fewer misunderstandings. Regulating emotions minimises the chance of expressing emotions at inappropriate times or to inappropriate individuals (Stys & Brown, 2004). Emotional intelligence leads to better quality relationships including more positive relations with others and greater intimacy, companionship, and affection in relationships. It reduces conflict in relationships as well as antagonism (Beshart, 2010; Brackett et al., 2005).

4.8.2.5 Ability to communicate effectively

Caruso and Salovey (2006) suggest that communicating with emotional intelligence involves applying emotional intelligence domains such as social awareness, self-awareness, self-management and relationship management in communicating with others. These skills help an individual to understand themselves better as well as those around them (Exter, 2005). By understanding the emotions and motivations of others, one can choose the words and messages that will make sense and resonate with the audience. Emotional intelligence allows one to anticipate difficult moments and take extra care to send just the right message with correct emotions, whether at work, in a social setting, on a one-to-one basis or in a group (Mersino, 2005).

4.8.2.6 Management of work-stress and coping

Ramesar, Koortzen, and Oosthuizen, (2009) state that work-stress as a form of distress is destructive to both individuals and organisations, and therefore it needs to be managed with appropriate coping strategies. Coping strategies involve skills that allow an individual to adjust to a situation. Coping is regarded as successful if the source of the problem is dealt with, or if the experience of the stress is directly reduced. The ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees in managing and coping with work-stress (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2003; Bryne, 2012).

In addition, Ashkanasy and Jordan (2003) and Ramesar et al. (2009) state that appraisal of affective events is characterised in terms of emotional perception and assimilation, while coping strategies are determined by emotional understanding and

management. This indicates that, emotionally intelligent individuals view work as challenging and exciting, view change as a chance to develop rather than as an enemy, bear the physical burden of stress much better and experience fewer illnesses. They have more self-control, are able to deal with the events in their lives and become less depressed when faced with work-stress (Yu-Chi, 2011). Situations are viewed differently in working life. Some perceive something as a devastating threat, while others might view it as an invigorating challenge. With the right emotional resources, what might seem threatening can be viewed as a challenge instead and be met with enthusiasm, thus assisting in managing and coping with the effects of work-stress (Oosthuysen, 2009; Sunil & Rooprai, 2009). The next section binds the concept of emotional intelligence to nursing leadership.

4.9 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN NURSING LEADERSHIP

Taft (2010) suggests that emotions are fundamental to nursing leadership practice. The nature of the nursing environment obliges nursing leaders to be emotionally intelligent. Nurses provide care through human relationships and therefore, nursing leaders are responsible for contributing to these relationships and the emotions within them (Parker & Sorensen, 2009; Gooch, 2006). Central to this premise, is that understanding and dealing with emotion is a core nursing leadership skill. Understanding and recognising emotion is a high-order leadership practice skill based on the notion that emotional intelligence is vital to practice. This assertion is focused on the assumption that understanding, detecting and conveying emotion is pivotal to the profession and position that requires sensitivity within relationships (Hambleton, 2006). That is, in nursing leadership, emotions influence professional relationships, impact on patient care decisions, emphasise personal reflections, well-being, strong relationships and the pursuit of common goals, as well as highlighting the need for cooperation and a team-based working climate (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008).

Caruso and Wolfe (2004) suggest that complexities surround the leadership role, and it is vital that the leader understand the multifaceted and interconnected nature of emotions and the actions that are associated with specific emotions. Understanding

emotional states and how individuals manage emotional information will allow the nursing leader to assist others as they move through challenges in the work-place (Serio & Epperly, 2006). A nursing leader is therefore able to create social networks of mutually beneficial trust-inspiring partnerships, which are a critical aspect of effective leadership, linked to beneficial outcomes for patients, nurses and organisations (Meyer, Fletcher, & Parker, 2004). Furthermore, emotionally intelligent leaders who attend to the key elements of emotional intelligence are said to grow and learn from life experiences. They are able to guide their staff through challenges to higher levels of emotional intelligence, which can directly increase patient and need satisfaction (Jones, 2013).

In addition, emotional intelligence supports nursing leadership, which fosters healthy working environments (Brown & Schutte, 2006). It is considered a leadership skill that benefits patient care, nurses and organisations. Emotionally intelligent nursing leaders positively influence patient care by motivating their subordinates to make high-level practice decisions. They establish positive relationships with subordinates, relationships that reflect an understanding of the context of care, and an acknowledgement of emotion within context as well as recognition of professional and emotional needs of colleagues. Emotionally intelligent leaders use positive working relationships to link the clinical context and the implementation of nursing practice with the delivery of quality patient care (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008).

Emotional intelligence also concerns sensing what others are feeling, as well as handling relationships effectively, which contributes a crucial set of skills for responsive nursing leadership (Cummings et al., 2005). It also promotes personal growth and professional competence development, determining potential for learning practical skills (Akerjordet & Severinsson 2008).

Furthermore, Carr (2004) states that health care delivery occurs in dynamic environments, and an emotionally intelligent leader positively influences this vibrant milieu. An emotionally intelligent leader is thus sensitive to emotional signals, and uses emotional competencies to manage conflict, convey empathy to staff or families,

and contextualise decisions. The outcome of emotionally intelligent leadership is related to leadership that exerts a positive influence on dynamic environments (Hambleton, 2006). Even when significant changes occur in clinical environments, emotionally intelligent nursing leaders can positively impact on stressful environments. They are tuned into, and understand feelings within, environmental influences. They secure a commitment for excellence in practice through emotionally intelligent relationships that promote improvements in thinking, critical decision and care delivery (Gooch, 2006; Hughes & Terrell, 2012; Morrison, 2008).

In addition, Akerjordet and Severinsson (2010) are of the opinion that emotional awareness, as a component of emotional intelligence, gives a nursing leader the ability to demonstrate a caring attitude, nurture a greater sense of safety and provide a better management of performance. It enables a nursing leader to act out of commitment as opposed to obligation or guilt, reflecting one's own values (Watson, 2004). Positive emotional health is therefore influenced by one's ability to regulate emotions and establish desires that are congruent with core values or personal convictions, enhancing the spiritual capacity (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2007).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence assists nursing leaders to manage their emotions in functional ways and make a greater number of rational decisions, which can be critical in helping themselves and their followers to become more effective workers and better communicators. Emotional intelligence in nursing leaders facilitates a healthy dialogue by encouraging excellent listening while maintaining adequate emotional composure, and harnessing and optimising interpersonal relationships. It increases the ability to clearly articulate and communicate vision as goals and mobilise support to achieve those goals (Morrison, 2008).

Emotional intelligence in nursing leadership may also have implications for the subjective well-being and quality of working life, as it involves better emotional understanding of the complex situations inherent in working with the paradoxical nature of human beings (Stacey, 2003; Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2007). It therefore allows nursing leaders to develop buffers, such as a healthier mood, more adaptive

ways of interpreting the world and better social support (Carr, 2004, Brown & Schutte, 2006).

Moreover, with high levels of work-stress, critical staff shortages and a desperate need for leadership skills, nursing leaders' emotional intelligence is the skill most likely to improve retention and reduce the effects of work-stress among nursing leadership (Jones, 2013). Indeed, nursing leaders with high emotional intelligence build resilience and are able to cope with stressful periods. They experience better health and psychological well-being as well as, work-family or life balance, happiness, subjective well-being, and greater collaboration and teamwork with physicians (Taft, 2010). Emotional skills, such as self-awareness and the ability to reflect, empower nursing leaders to take responsibility for their own jobs (Akerjordet & Severinsson 2008; Parker & Sorensen, 2009).

On the other hand, Stichler (2006) proposes that nursing leaders with low emotional intelligence may cause a climate of fear, discontent, psychosocial sickness and negative patient outcomes (Stichler 2006). Low levels of emotional intelligence in nursing leadership may lead to powerlessness and reduced life satisfaction, reflecting free-flow and unmanaged emotions that could be devastating to an individual (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2010). Nursing leaders should therefore develop their emotional management and demonstrate regulation and intelligence to achieve superior levels of performance from within themselves, into their organisations (Oosthuysen, 2009).

4.10 SUMMARY

The aim of this section was to explore the concept of emotional intelligence with a specific focus on the nature, definitions, models and components of emotional intelligence. Contributors and consequences of emotional intelligence were also discussed. Finally, the concept of emotional intelligence was linked to nursing leadership.

Chapter 5: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-LEADERSHIP, WORK-STRESS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to examine the relationship between self-leadership, work-stress, and emotional intelligence. Firstly the focus will be on the relationship between self-leadership and work-stress. Secondly the relationship between self-leadership and emotional intelligence will be discussed, and thirdly the relationship between emotional intelligence and work-stress. Finally the interrelationship between self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence will be looked at.

5.2 SELF-LEADERSHIP AND WORK-STRESS

Several researchers (e.g. Dahl, 2012; Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Jinkerson, 2007; Lovelace et al., 2007; Nichollas et al., 2010; Shen, 2009; Unsworth, 2012) have explored the relationship between self-leadership concept and work-stress. These authors suggest that the relationship between self-leadership and work-stress is mediated by self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a key element of self-leadership strategies. Self-efficacy affects individuals' weaknesses and strengths and their relationship with the world, and basically the individuals' belief towards themselves and everything in their lives (Lee & Turban, 2010; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2007). This implies that the extent to which work-stress affects self-leadership is influenced by a person's belief in his or her own ability to complete tasks and reach goals (Houghton et al., 2012).

In a work-stress process each external demand is evaluated as a threat or a challenge and the implication is that individuals with high levels of work-stress are more likely to decrease their self-efficacy. This means that a person feels less confident about his or her competence to handle the situation (Zajacova, Lynch, & Espenshade, 2005). This means that work-stress affects the degree to which one can

influence him or herself towards self-leadership. The effects of work-stress on self-leadership are such that work-stress diminishes both the power a person has to face challenges competently and the choices a person is most likely to make (Zajacova et al., 2005).

Zajacova et al. (2005) adds that high levels of work-stress lower individuals's awareness of their own strengths and psychological resources. Individuals with high work-stress are prone to self-doubt, threat appraisals and perception of coping deficiencies when faced with challenging conditions at work. Work-stress therefore decreases self-efficacy and confidence in ability to perform well across a variety of different situations (Brown & Fields, 2011). One feels less in control of his or her work, and unable to deal with challenging situations or be diligent in pursuit of activities. These characteristics mean that high levels of work-stress lower ability to access self-leadership skills due to high mental strain (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Milutinovic et al., 2012).

Furthermore, Carmeli et al. (2006) suggest that during times of work-stress a person's focus is on the work-stressors and how they are hindrances, and one forgets to alter their thought patterns to focus on potentially available opportunities. Thus, the individual engages in dysfunctional thoughts and non-rational beliefs which then translate to low levels of self-leadership. A person does not set goals, reward himself or herself upon reaching the goals, and processes information with dysfunctional thinking. He or she lacks motivation and is unable to focus on enjoyable aspects of the job. This in turn leads to increased work-stress, creating a vicious circle that can lead to destructive behaviours and illnesses (Jinkerson, 2007; Rangiz & Khaksar, 2013).

Rangiz and Khaksar (2013) add that feelings of inadequacy and insecurity manifest as a result of high level of work-stress, which then results in inadequate adaptation of self-leadership methods such as lack of visualising successful performance and positive self-talk (Neck & Houghton, 2006). According to Touvinen (2010) this means priorities get distorted and constructive thought patterns are restricted. A person

becomes inefficient, does not get tasks completed and work feels overwhelming (Papousek et al., 2010).

Kafetsios et al. (2011) are also of the opinion that the effects of work-stress on self-leadership will be reflected in the external environment through low self-leadership behaviours, thus ineffective work outcomes (Dolbier et al., 2001; Lovelace et al., 2007). Individuals with high levels of work-stress keep away from difficult work situations which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult activities, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and on all kinds of unpleasant outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully (Houghton et al., 2012).

On the other hand, Boss and Sims (2008) propose that individuals who have high self-leadership this will invoke positive cognitive thoughts, thus the use of their abilities in handling work-stressors which then can result in lower levels of work-stress. As a person identifies personal goals and sets sights on achieving them, the mind is drawn away from the challenges and towards new successes. If the goals are reachable, the individual can use self-reward to motivate towards that success. Perhaps smaller goals, each with its own reward will increase self-efficacy and lead a person into effectively dealing with work-stress. A change of scenery, a small vacation, or a new routine can act as cueing variables that can help a person to manage their time effectively. These behaviours or actions that constitute self-leadership will help to increase individuals' judgment about how well they can accomplish their responsibilities in the future (Boss & Sims, 2008).

5.3 SELF-LEADERSHIP AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

According to Houghton et al (2012) emotional intelligence and self-leadership are reciprocally related but distinct concepts. Self-leadership primarily relates to self-regulation of thought processes and behaviours, while emotional intelligence relates to emotion regulation (Boss & Sims, 2008; D'Intino et al., 2007). Therefore, individuals with high emotional intelligence can be expected to have self-regulation

abilities and high self-leadership competencies. To be an effective self-leader one needs the synergistic effect of the emotional mind with the cognitive mind of self-leadership. The individual uses his or her optimistic thought patterns to further enhance their self-leadership skills and achieve desired goals (Carmeli et al., 2006; Curry, 2005). Carmeli et al. (2006) adds that the use of natural reward strategies are also enhanced by positive emotions associated with emotional intelligence. A person finds a job pleasant and motivating (Furtner et al., 2010).

Furtner et al. (2010) argues further that emotional intelligence domains, especially different components of socio-emotional intelligence are associated with domains of self-leadership. According to D'Intino et al. (2007), emotional intelligence is specifically associated with behaviour-focused skills; and according to Depape et al. (2006), emotional intelligence predicts self-talk. Boss and Sims (2008) also point out an association between emotion regulation and self-observation, and the dimension of constructive thought patterns also have a close link to emotion regulation.

Houghton and Jinkerson (2007) in their study reported a significant relationship between self-leadership strategies and positive emotions such as emotional intelligence, as mediated by the absence of dysfunctional thinking processes. The study suggests that emotional intelligence focuses on self-awareness and the self-regulation of emotion; processes that also influence individual self-leadership (Nichollas et al., 2010). Furthermore, George (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence processes have an impact on causal attributions. Thus, effective emotion regulation assists individuals in generating causal attributions resulting in emotional reactions that enhance or minimise the damage to their self-leadership skills (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence promotes situational self-leadership. Emotional intelligence abilities such as self-awareness, empathy and self-confidence increase self-leader's flexibility, initiative and the drive to achieve. A person engages in appropriate self-leadership skills at the right time and the right situation. Emotional intelligence affords an individual the competencies needed to match their efforts and

thinking style to the current emotion and situation in order to lead themselves effectively (Blanchard, 2007; Oosthuysen, 2009).

On the other hand, Carmeli et al. (2006) point out that self-leadership also affects emotional intelligence through motivation. According to cognitive motivation theories, one's own control over surrounding activities creates motivation, whereas lack of control leads to not having motivation. Therefore, taking responsibility and claiming control creates motivation and ultimately everyone is responsible for their own motivation (Oosthuysen, 2009). Getting motivated to perform a task is an individual and complex process, in which one can find always three basic factors: goals of the work, positive atmosphere considering the work and faith in one's ability to handle the given task. This covers three important areas of self-leadership, namely, goal-orientation, creating a productive and compelling working atmosphere and redesigning one's mental world so that one genuinely believes that the job is achievable (Tuovinen, 2010).

5.4 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND WORK-STRESS

Lewis, Haviland-Jones, and Barrett, (2008) propose that the link between work-stress and emotional intelligence rests on the belief that work-stress and negative emotions result from a dysfunctional relationship between the environment and aspects of the self. It is presumed that the emotional intelligence ability to correctly perceive and adaptively manage emotions in the self and others, moderates this process (Brink, 2009). Emotions are a result of the interaction between an individual and his or her environment and arise in response to stressors. In response to negative emotions, individuals employ different behavioural patterns in an attempt to mediate work-stress (Tsaousis & Nikolaou (2004).

Emotional intelligence competencies create the abilities in an individual's to better control work-stress (Rahim, 2010). Emotionally intelligent individuals have strong emotions and attitude to deal with stressful events in a positive way. The emotional intelligence competencies generate the skill in individual to choose a variety of courses of action to deal with stressful situations without being overwhelmed (Slaski

& Cartwright, 2002). High levels of emotional intelligence enable the individual to properly handle the negative feelings in a way to express it positively, allowing effective social interaction and synergy for achievement of goals. Emotional intelligence ability facilitates the individual to notice timely and redirect unconstructive stressful reactions, emotions and impulses which helps in management of work-stress (Rahim, 2010).

Brink (2009) states that given the concept of emotional intelligence that enables the ability to effectively recognise the emotions experienced at any given time, effectively manage and deal with such emotions, when dealing with work-stress, individuals with higher emotional intelligence effectively recognise the negative emotion, deal and manage it, in order to effectively cope with the stressful situation (Merowits & Earnest, 2006).

In addition, Mikolajczak et al. (2007) emotional intelligence is an essential factor responsible for determining success in life and psychological well-being. It plays an important role in shaping the interaction between individuals and their work environment. Emotional intelligence moderates the extent to which a person experiences work-stress and prevents employees from negative health outcomes associated with work-stress. That is, emotional intelligence influences one's perception of and their ability to deal or manage the work-stress (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2003; Naidoo & Pau, 2008; Yu-Chi, 2011).

Emotional intelligence is a positive emotion that allows one to perceive work-stressors in the work environment as challenges that can be managed. Highly emotional-intelligent individuals cope with work-stressors through accepting responsibility, seeking support, confronting the challenges, self-control and positive reappraisal. In their studies, Slaski and Cartwright (2002) and Brink (2009) report that individuals high in emotional intelligence report lower levels of work-stress. That is, high levels of emotional intelligence increases a person's resilience to work-stress. Emotional intelligence moderates the extent to which a person experiences work-

stress and prevents employees from negative health outcomes associated with work-stress (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2003; Naidoo & Pau, 2008).

According to Brink (2009) there is a hierarchy of emotional intelligence competencies that facilitate successful coping with work-stress through increasing emotional insight and disclosure, increasing the use of social support and preventing reflection. The first level of the hierarchy is made up of basic emotional skills, such as appraisal, perception and expression of emotion whilst the second level comprises understanding and analysing emotions and the third level is based on emotional regulation. Shen (2009) suggests that the entire hierarchy of skills is needed for successfully dealing with work-stress. Likewise, Naidoo and Pau (2008) suggest that adaptive coping can be viewed as emotional intelligence in action. That is, effectively dealing with work-stress may be attributed to the ability to process and regulate emotions effectively (Brink, 2009).

In his model, Bar-On (2007) also describes that emotional intelligence capabilities, competencies and skills lead to successful coping with environmental demands and pressures. The stress tolerance (ST) in the Bar-On model suggests that emotional intelligence comprises of the ability to withstand adverse events, stressful situations and strong emotions by actively and positively coping with work-stress. Different definitions of work-stress include demands or perceived stressors on a person; individual characteristics, skills and abilities to meet demands; the cognitive appraisal or interpretation of a situation; and the outcomes of behaviour (Ramesar et al., 2009).

Oginska-Bulik (2005) in exploring emotional intelligence in the workplace and its effects on work-stress and health outcomes in human service workers found that those employees reporting higher levels of emotional intelligence indeed perceived lower work-stress levels and experienced less negative health consequences. This implies that emotional intelligence plays a buffering role in preventing employees from experiencing adverse effects of work-stress. Tsaousis and Nikolaou (2004) suggest that the ability to deal effectively with emotions and emotional information in

the workplace assist employees in maintaining a healthy psychological well-being by managing their work-stress better.

Bar On (2010) suggest that skill such as self-awareness of emotional intelligence allows one to know personal strengths and weaknesses. It is the skill to control negative responses to stressful or challenging situations. It involves handling feelings and situations in a way that yields positive results. These two aspects are integral for employees dealing with work-stress. This implies that individuals who have high levels of self-awareness will be able to ameliorate their experience of work-stress. Furthermore Ramesar et al. (2009) argue that all four factors of emotional intelligence: perception, assimilation, understanding, and regulation, have a moderating influence on a person's experience of work-stress. This is because employees need first to be self-aware of the emotions they are experiencing as a result of their perceptions of work-stress.

Employees high in the perception factor of emotional intelligence can therefore be expected to be able to assess the emotions they are feeling to confirm if their perceptions are correct or not. Further, employees high on the emotional assimilation component of emotional intelligence should be able to prioritise the information that is most important to their feelings of work-stress, and then to adopt multiple perspectives to determine if their feelings are accurate and reasonable (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). With respect to the understanding component of emotional intelligence, emotionally intelligent employees are likely to foresee possible complex emotions that will emerge from a situation, including whether their appraisal of the situation is fair or not and how anxiety about their work may lead to feelings of frustration and anger.

Additionally, employees with high ability to regulate their emotions will be more likely than their low ability counterparts to be able to control their initial emotional reaction to perceptions of work-stress. This is especially true if they consider these reactions to be unproductive. In this case, regulation of felt emotion may result in the employee decreasing his or her negative appraisal of their work by generating enthusiasm for

his or her work (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Alternatively, employees high in their ability to manage emotions may decide that it is in their personal interest to suppress their feelings of work-stress and merely to increase their emotional intelligence to safeguard against the effect of work-stress.

Brink (2009) emphasise that the relationship between emotional intelligence and work-stress depends on the employee's ability to exert emotional control. The logic of this argument is that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence are more capable of placing themselves in positive, affective states due to their knowledge to determine emotions and develop strategies to alleviate negative moods (Sunil & Rooprai, 2009).

On the other hand, work-stress erodes mental abilities and makes individuals less emotionally intelligent. Individuals experiencing work-stress decrease their self-awareness and thus have trouble reading their emotions (Sunil & Rooprai, 2009). High levels of work-stress are related to high levels of negative emotions and low levels of positive emotion. Individuals with high levels of work-stress and negative emotions reduce their ability to control their emotions and are over-sensitive and have heightened state of emotions resulting in reduced listening, over-analysing and reactive decision-making (Sunil & Rooprai, 2009).

In addition, employees who are frequently exposed to stressors that may be difficult to handle, experiences a flood of emotions which may be overpowering. Emotional responses may include depression, anger, decreased self-esteem, apathy and impatience. These feelings manifests in feelings of hopelessness, helplessness and inability to cope in stressful situations which then trigger lower emotional health, which can potentially lead to higher negative attitudinal and behavioural outcomes, such as feelings of deprivation or discontentment (Kelly, 2010). Thompson (2010) adds that prolonged work-stress degrades a leader's emotional intelligence harming important relationships and communication venues needed for peak managerial performance.

In summary, Shirey et al. (2013) states that the greater awareness and understanding of the feelings of the employees, and allowing the expression of it, can lead to better working practices and less stressful working environments. Emotional intelligence is one of the best tools in combating the effects of work-stress (Wicker, 2008).

5.5 SELF-LEADERSHIP, WORK-STRESS AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Literature has revealed that a limited research exists on the relationship between the self-leadership, emotional intelligence and work-stress (Houghton et al., 2012). However, Neck and Houghton (2011) contend that work-stress and emotional intelligence are capable of influencing self-leadership behaviour and outcomes. This means that the perception and appraisal processes involved in work-stress and emotional intelligence are associated with development of self-leadership skills (Houghton et al., 2012). As such an individual's ability to engage in self-leadership behaviour is characterised in terms of his or her level and experience of work-stress, as well as their ability to understand, use and manage emotions (Ismail et al., 2011).

According to Ismail et al. (2011) Cox and Mckay's (1978) transactional stress model explains that inability of individuals' cognitive processes and emotional reactions to manage strain environments may lead to increased work tensions. Individuals who feel stressful when exposing with an event in particular environments may experience work-stress. The perception of work-stress will then lead to mental strain that lowers the use of self-leadership, however, Houghton et al. (2012) suggest that applying emotional intelligence will not only help recover from the effect or experience of work-stress but will increase a person's effectiveness as a self-leader (Neck & Houghton, 2011). The individual's level of emotional intelligence will increase individuals' competencies and this can increase their ability to decrease work-stress situations and increase positive individual attitudes and behaviours. Emotional intelligence will increase individuals' competencies and help individuals to decrease work strains and increase self-leadership effectiveness (Ismail et al., 2011).

Further, Houghton et al. (2012) suggest that properly managed emotions in implementing job will strongly increase the capability of employees to cope with work-stress problems. As a result, it may lead to higher positive attitudinal and behavioural outcomes. Thus, these positive outcomes may lead to sustained and achieved organisational strategy and goals. Emotional intelligence can be used to restore more positive or favourable emotional states that will lower levels of work-stress. Brink (2009) states low levels of work-stress and emotional intelligence will make individuals feel more optimistic and enhance their mental efficiency, ensuring better understanding of information, flexible thinking, and ability to use good judgment in decision-making, associated with effective self-leadership skills (Mikolajczak, et al., 2007).

In addition, Rosete and Cirarrochi (2005) state that skills acquired from effectively coping with work-stress and from emotional intelligence combine to help an individual to be able to adapt to life's changes through the use of both rational and emotional skills to better lead themselves. Emotional intelligence skills such as self-regulation and motivation build resilience which buffers the effects of work-stress and enhances self-leadership strategies such as self-observation and focusing on natural rewards (Rosete & Cirarrochi, 2005).

Neck and Houghton (2011) present that self-leadership and emotional intelligence are mechanisms by which individuals can regulate their lives to more effectively cope with the stressors in the workplace. Self-leadership sustains individual's internal environment that leads to better psychological well-being and health. Lewis et al. (2008) adds that high levels of emotional intelligence coupled with the effective use of behavioural and cognitive strategies within the context of self-leadership leads to more positive emotions and higher levels of self-efficacy, ultimately resulting in more effective management of work-stress regulating behaviours are more effective in handling increased job demands from the work environment (Kafetsios et al., 2011). These emotionally intelligent self-leaders can reach their full potential through reduced effects of work-stress and improved human relations that encourage optimal performance (Oosthuysen, 2009).

These means managing employee's work-stress within an organisation, as well as equipping individuals with emotional intelligence competencies will improve self-leadership, thus personal and organisational effectiveness (Adeyemo & Ogunyemi, 2012).

5.6 SUMMARY

The focus of this chapter was to demonstrate the interrelationship between the three study constructs namely, self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence. This was achieved by discussing relationship between self-leadership and work-stress, self-leadership and emotional intelligence, as well as relationship between self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence.

The next chapter provides an overview of the current study's research methodology.

Chapter 6: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the purpose is to give a detailed explanation of the technical aspects involved in conducting this study. Therefore the research design, selection of participants, the research field, data gathering methods and process, as well as the measuring instruments used, and the statistical procedures followed to process the data are presented. The next section is on the study's research design.

6.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

To address the research questions, objectives and hypothesis, as indicated in chapter 1, the study implemented survey research method. Hatch (2009) defines survey research as a collection of information from a sample of individuals through their responses to questions. It is an efficient method for systematically collecting data from a broad spectrum of individuals and in different settings. The method entails primary data collection, using questionnaires or interview schedule, to gather information and examine disparities among test persons on the research variables (Stangor, 2011).

Hatch (2009) defines questionnaire as a survey instrument containing the questions in a self-administered survey, while interview schedule is a survey instrument containing the questions asked by the interviewer in a in-person or phone survey. Surveys can also be administered in at least five different ways: mailed, group administered, by phone, in person, and electronically (Stangor, 2011). In addition the questions in a survey need to be clear and convey the intended meaning to respondents, and time and effort are needed for implementing the process properly (Stangor, 2011).

Advantages of adopting the survey method of research are that it allows the researcher to get closer to the real variables, and develop a valuable understanding of individuals at low cost (Stangor, 2011). Surveys (questionnaires) can be distributed

to large number of individuals, they allow for concrete, specific and unambiguous questions and for statistical analysis to take place. Furthermore, survey research is useful for prediction and description (Stangor, 2011). Surveys also are the method of choice when cross-population generalisability is a key concern because they allow a range of contexts and subgroups to be sampled. The consistency of relationships can then be examined across the different subgroups.

6.3 SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS

Selection of participants involves selecting a group of subjects from the test population in order to conduct a study, known as sampling. The current study population (*N*) is 273 and consisted of nursing leaders employed at the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho. Positions that were included are;

Director nursing services; is the highest level of nursing leadership within the Ministry. The position is responsible for providing direction and resources for execution of the vision and the mission of the nursing department.

Manager nursing services; is responsible for hiring, mentoring and performance for nursing staff.

Senior nursing officer; is responsible for day to day operations of at least one inpatient or outpatient area in the hospital or clinical setting.

A nursing officer, and nursing sister in charge; under the supervision of the senior nursing officer, is responsible for supervising implementation of day to day nursing activities in a section.

According to Sekaran (2003), a *N* of 273 should be represented by approximately 159 respondents to be representative. The Sekaran table is presented below in Table 6.1.

sample size for a given population size					
N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384

copied from Sekaran (2003)

To allow as many questionnaires as possible to be completed, non-probability sampling, specifically, convenient sampling was used for this study. This means that the sample is composed of whatever persons, within the population, that could be most easily accessed to fill out the survey questionnaires. This was mostly determined by the subject's availability, as well as the time and cost implications of the study.

6.4 THE RESEARCH FIELD

The Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in the Lesotho government was selected as a research field for the purpose of this study. The Ministry is responsible for

providing an efficient and compassionate health care and social welfare system, with particular emphasis on the prevention and eradication of priority health and social welfare problems that are amenable to cost-effective interventions (www.gov.ls/health). It has hospitals and health centres (clinics) in the ten districts of the country.

The Ministry has a large workforce which consists of mostly nursing. This part of the workforce is particularly active within the Ministry, which requires effective methods of leadership, such as self-leadership. The Ministry is also implementing a series of reforms aimed at addressing challenges facing the health sector, especially human resource and leadership (www.gov.ls/health).

The data gathering process is discussed next.

6.5 DATA GATHERING

In this section the process followed to gather data and the different measuring instruments used are discussed.

6.5.1 Data gathering process

A comprehensive set of data for the study was obtained through self-administered questionnaires, which consisted of written questions and/or statements on a topic where participants' opinions and judgments were sought. Importantly, the participants completed the surveys or questionnaires themselves. The researcher personally administered the questionnaires to participants, in a group and in some cases individually. Prior to final completion of the questionnaires, a letter was sent to the service organisation outlining the research topic. In this letter, the nature of the research, including its duration, confidentiality, and privacy, as well as issues relating to the survey instrument, were discussed. Participation in this study was entirely voluntary, and participants were free to refuse participation and participants could discontinue their participation at any time without being prejudiced.

Participants were also allowed to ask questions concerning the study at any time. The investigator attempted to keep all information collected in this study strictly confidential. Participants were also guaranteed that if any publication results from this research, that they would not be identified by name. However, the researcher made every effort to minimise their discomfort in this regard. The respondents were told they would not benefit directly from the study except when attending the individual group interventions that would be conducted as a result of the study.

6.5.2 Measuring instruments

Four measuring instruments were used to gather information for this study. The Revised Self-Leadership Questionnaire was used to assess participant's self-leadership qualities, while the Emotional Intelligence Index was used to measure emotional intelligence. To assess participants' work-stress, the Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire was used. Participants were also requested to fill in a biographical questionnaire.

This following sections will therefore discuss these instruments with specific focus on the nature and composition, basic psychometric properties (reliability and validity) and rationale for inclusion.

6.5.2.1 Biographical questionnaire

The respondents responded to 8 items, consisting of age, name of position (position level), length of service, highest qualification received, gender, dependents, marital status and home language. Their names were not required to maintain confidentiality.

6.5.2.2 The Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire

The revised self-leadership questionnaire (RSLQ) was developed by Houghton and Neck (2002). RSLQ is used in this study to measure participant's self-leadership components including behaviour-focused strategies, natural reward strategies and cognitive thought strategies (Van Zyl, 2012).

6.5.2.2.1 Nature and composition

There are 35 item statements in the RSQL scale measuring behaviour-focused strategies, natural reward strategies, and cognitive thought strategies. These strategies are scored using a 5-point likert scale with 1 (not at all accurate), 2 (somewhat accurate), 3 (a little accurate), 4 (mostly accurate), and 5 (completely accurate). There are nine subscales in the RSLQ scale (Van Zyl, 2012). According to Norris (2008) behaviour-focused self-leadership is measured with five subscales identified as self-goal setting (5 items), self-reward (3 items), self-punishment (4 items), self-observation (4 items), and self-cueing (2 items). Natural reward self-leadership is measured with a single 5-item scale. Constructive thought self-leadership is measured with three subscales, including visualising successful performance (5 items), self-talk (3 items), and evaluating beliefs and assumptions (4 items).

6.5.2.2.2 Basic psychometric properties

Basic properties include reliability and validity of the measure. Reliability of an instrument is the degree to which it is free from random error. It has to do with the stability, dependability and predictability of measuring something consistently (Stangor, 2011), while Gregory (2007) defines validity as the degree to which conclusions reached from a test are significant.

6.5.2.2.2.1 Reliability

The reliability of RSLQ was established by Houghton and Neck (2002) in two studies with respondents from two introductory management courses at a large South Eastern University. A report from these studies reported internal consistency with the coefficient alpha of 0.74. Van Zyl (2002) also identified RSQL internal reliability coefficient of 0.60 (Van Zyl, 2012). According to Norris (2008) the latest studies present the Cronbach's alpha at 0.88 for behaviour-focused, 0.78 for natural reward, 0.88 for constructive thought, and 0.93 for general self-leadership.

The reliabilities of the nine underlying sub-scales ranged from 0.65 to 0.94 (Mahembe, Engelbrecht & De Kock, 2013; Neubert & Wu, 2006) as presented in table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2 Alpha coefficients for sub-dimensions of RSQL

Sub-dimensions	coefficients
Visualising successful performance	0.72
Self-goal setting	0.73
Self-talk	0.89
Self-reward	0.94
Evaluating beliefs and assumptions	0.86
Self-punishment	0.71
Self-observation	0.65
Focusing on natural rewards	0.68
Self-cueing	0.91
Self-leadership total	0.84

6.5.2.2.2 Validity

The construct validity of the RSQL was examined by means of a confirmatory factor analysis in a study conducted by Houghton and Neck (2002). Results provided support the validity of RSQL as an acceptable measure of self-leadership and behaviours. Additionally, through the same study, evidence was provided that suggests that the RSQL is measuring self-leadership in a way that is harmonious with the specifications of self-leadership theory, thus providing evidence of RSQL's

construct validity (Houghton et al., 2004). In another study confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the best fitting model included three interrelated higher order factors that match the theoretical sub-dimensions of behavioural strategies, natural rewards, and constructive thoughts, and subsumed the nine underlying factors in a theoretically consistent manner. Subsequent testing of the RSLQ in another student sample confirmed that the factor structure was stable and distinct from personality variables (Houghton et al., 2004; Neubert & Wu, 2006).

6.5.2.2.3 Rationale for the inclusion

The validity and reliability of the RSQL makes it an effective instrument for the measurement of self-leadership and its sub-dimensions. In their study, Mahembe et al. (2013) indicate that the RSLQ proves to be an effective self-leadership measure with much potential to facilitate empirical self-leadership research and practice. The RSQL provides scores with an underlying theoretical structure that conforms to the structures of self-leadership (Van Zyl, 2012). Further, RSQL has been standardised in South Africa, which makes it suitable for application in the current study (Mahembe et al., 2013).

6.5.2.3 The Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire

The experience of work and Life circumstances questionnaire (W.L.Q) was developed by Van Zyl (1991). The W.L.Q was developed with a view to meet the need for a stress questionnaire that is standardised for South African circumstances and attempts to measure levels as well as the causes of work-stress (Vogel, 2006).

6.5.2.3.1 Nature and composition

The Experience of Work and Life Circumstances Questionnaire (W.L.Q) is a self-rating questionnaire for use in the work situation. It gives an indication of the level of work-stress and its possible causes from within and outside the work environment. The questionnaire consists of two parts; experience of work, and circumstances and expectations (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). The experience part, which is scale A, measures the level of individual stress at work. The value obtained is an indication of whether the individual experiences a normal, high or very high level of work-stress.

The result is based on the answers of 40 questions. Ratings are made on a five-point scale ranging from “virtually never” to “virtually always”, which are indicative of how often certain feelings of stress occur (Vogel, 2006).

The circumstances and expectations analyse the causes of the individual’s level of work-stress. The respondents select one of the answers according to a five-point Likert scale that is indicative of how often certain aspects occur. It is made up of two subsections, Scale B and Scale C, totalling 76 questions about the individual’s circumstances and unfulfilled expectations (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1994).

The circumstances that are viewed as stressful may be found within and or outside the work situation. Within the work situation, seven items measure the functioning of the organisation, the characteristics of the job to be performed, physical working conditions and job equipment, social as well as career matters. It also measures remuneration, fringe benefits and personnel policy. A high score is indicative that the individuals experience the above issues as stressors. Outside the work situation 16 items measure family problems, financial circumstances, phase of life, general economic situation in the country, changing technology, facilities at home, social situations, status, health and background. Effects of work on home life, transport facilities, religious life, political view, as well as the availability of accommodation and recreational facilities are also assessed (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009).

6.5.2.3.2 Basic psychometric properties

The reliability and validity of the W.L.Q will be discussed in this section.

6.5.2.3.2.1 Reliability

The reliability of different fields of W.L.Q is calculated by the Kurder-Richards Formula, and ranges from 0.83 to 0.92. The test retesting coefficients vary between 0.62 and 0.92. These reliabilities are satisfactory (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1994).

6.5.2.3.2.2 Validity

This questionnaire has construct and content reliability. Construct validity study on the W.L.Q indicates a fairly significant relation between different scales of the W.L.Q. A construct validity of 0.72 was reported (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2009). The W.L.Q also has good relation with the 16 PF Questionnaire, the PHSF Relations Questionnaire and the Reaction to the Demands of Life Questionnaire (Van Zyl & Van der Walt, 1994).

6.5.2.3.3 Rationale for the inclusion

The W.L.Q has been developed to meet the need for a stress questionnaire standardised for South African circumstances and different cultures, therefore it is well suited for this study source. The acceptable reported psychometric properties of the instrument support its inclusion in the current study.

6.5.2.4 The Emotional Intelligence Index

The emotional intelligence index (EQI) was developed by Rahim and Psenicka (2002). EQI was used in this study to assess the nursing leader's emotional intelligence (Brink, 2009).

6.5.2.4.1 Nature and composition

The EQI is a 30-item instrument developed to measure five components defined by Goleman (1995). These are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills. According to Rahim and Psenicka (2002) the components are defined as follows;

Self-awareness is associated with the ability to be aware of which emotions, moods, and impulses one is experiencing and why. This also includes one's awareness of the effects of his or her feelings.

Self-regulation refers to the ability to keep one's own emotions and impulses in check, to remain calm in potentially volatile situations, and to maintain composure irrespective of one's emotions.

Motivation represents the ability to remain focused on goals despite setbacks, to operate from hope of success rather than fear of failure, delaying gratification, and to accept change to attain goals (Xavier, 2005).

Empathy refers to one's ability to understand the feelings transmitted through verbal and nonverbal messages, to provide emotional support to individuals when needed, and to understand the links between others' emotions and behaviour (Assanova et al., 2008).

Social skills are associated with one's ability to deal with problems without demeaning those who work with him or her, to not allow own or others' negative feelings to inhibit collaboration, and to handle affective conflict with tact and diplomacy (Brink, 2009).

The instrument uses a 7-point likert scale (7= strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree, for ranking each item and a higher score indicates a greater dimension of emotional intelligence (Rahim & Psenicka, 2002).

6.5.2.4.2 Basic psychometric properties

The reliability and validity of the EQI will be discussed in this section.

6.5.2.4.2.1 Reliability

The internal consistency reliability coefficient of the five subscales as assessed with cronbach's alpha ranges between 0.58 and 0.95 (Brink, 2009). Reliabilities of the EQI sub-dimensions as determined by a South African study conducted by Rahim and Psenicka (2002) are presented in table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3 Alpha coefficients for sub-dimensions of EQI

Sub-dimensions	coefficients
Self-awareness	0.71
Self-regulation	0.83
Motivation	0.79
Empathy	0.82
Social skills	0.84

6.5.2.4.2.2 Validity

The EQI was designed on the basis of repeated feedback from respondents and an iterative process of exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of various sets of items. Considerable attention was also devoted to the study of published instruments on EQ. Initially an instrument was designed and filled out by MBA and undergraduate students ($N = 90$). After the students completed the questionnaire, the instructor initiated an item-by-item discussion. Critiques of the instrument were also received from four management professors. The items that were reported to be difficult, ambiguous, or inconsistent were either dropped or revised. A new item was added to compensate for the elimination of an item. Special attempts were also made to make the items free from social desirability contamination. Four successive factor analyses were performed to select items for the EQI (N s: organisational members = 65; employed management students = 365; Chamber of Commerce members = 220, MBA and employed management students = 423). After each factor analysis, the items that loaded less than, .50 and/or loaded on and uninterpretable factors were dropped or rephrased (Rahim & Psenicka, 2002).

6.5.2.4.3 Rationale for the inclusion

EQI was constructed to analyse most prominent definitive common elements of emotional intelligence as described by Goleman (1995). The measure provides a reliable and valid measure of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Brink, 2009). EQI is also standardised for the South African population, which makes it suitable for this specific study. The reported psychometric properties of the instrument also increase the merit for its inclusion (Brink, 2009).

6.6 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The aim of this study is to determine the effect of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership, and establish the role of age differences on quality of self-leadership. To achieve this aim, descriptive and inferential statistics will be used to sum up the collected data and test the study's hypotheses.

6.6.1 Descriptive Statistics

According to Tredoux and Durrheim (2005) descriptive statistics describe essential characteristics of data collected in a study and offers possibilities to generate summary statistics using numbers, frequency data tables, and graphical displays of data. Bar charts, pie charts, dispersion, central tendency, skewness and histograms are some of the illustrations that can be used to describe data and show distribution of scores attained for variables.

Descriptive statistics is used in this study to illustrate the demographic profile of the participants. The bar charts, the mean scores, and the standard deviations are presented.

6.6.2 Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics is the process of using probability and statistical investigation to draw factual conclusions from observed data. It specifies the characteristics of a population based on the data in a sample (Stangor, 2011). Its purpose is to determine if there are any significant differences or relationships between the obtained data (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2005). This section discusses reliability

coefficients, stepwise regression analysis, correlation studies and an independent t-test as part of inferential statistics for this study.

6.6.2.1 Reliability coefficients

Reliability coefficients provide information about the amount of error inherent in any diagnosis, score, or measurement, where the amount of measurement error determines the validity of the study results or scores (Polit & Beck, 2008). Reliability can be calculated in different ways. These are test-retest, alternative forms, split-half, inter-item, as well as inter and intra scorer reliability. The reliability coefficient varies from 0.00 to 1.00 (Stangor, 2011). Table 6.2 below indicates general guidelines (Nunnally, 1967) for interpreting levels of reliability for measures and sub-scales (Deardoff, 2011).

Table.6.4 General Guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients

Reliability coefficient value	Interpretation
0.90 and above	Excellent
0.80 – 0.89	Good
0.70 – 0.79	Adequate
Below 0.70	May have limited applicability

The table above indicates reliability of 0.70 and above to be acceptable; however, Coakes, Steed & Ong (2010), Lawson, Gibbons, Ko & Shekelle (2012) and Mahembe et al. (2013) state that reliability of 0.60 and above is also acceptable.

Cronbach’s alphas were used to determine the reliability of the variables used in this study. Cronbach’s alpha is a statistical procedure that involves correlating test items with each other. It is an adequate index of the overall consistency and reliability of instrument measures (Coakes et al., 2010; Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009).

6.6.2.2 Multiple-regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique for analysing several variables, where the focus is on the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. It is used to understand how the value of the dependent

variable changes when any one of the independent variables is varied (Stangor, 2011). This analysis falls broadly within two groups, namely prediction and explanation. Prediction involves the extent to which the regression variate (one or more independent variable) can predict the dependent variable. Explanation examines the magnitude, sign and statistical significance of regression coefficients (the amount of change in the independent variable for a one-unit change in the independent variable) for each independent variable and attempts to develop a substantive or theoretical reason for the effects of the independent variable (McDonald, 2008). Further, each of the parameters in the regression analysis can have a standard error associated with it, and hence a confidence interval can be calculated for each parameter with a p-value. That is, regression generalises to a case with multiple predictor variables, referred to as multiple regression (Hatch, 2009).

According to SPSS for psychologists (2009) there are three major regression models namely standard, hierarchical and stepwise regression. These models differ in two ways; first, in the treatment of overlapping variability because of correlation of the independent variables, and second, in terms of the order of entry of the independent variables into the equation. In the standard model, all independent variables enter the regression equation at once. This is to examine the relationship between the whole set of predictors and the dependent variable. In hierarchical multiple regression, the order of entry of the independent variables is determined based on theoretical knowledge. Stepwise regression is where a number of independent variables are entered and the order of entry is determined by statistical criteria generated by stepwise procedure. Method of entry can be forward, backwards or a combination of both (McDonald, 2008).

Forwards (F) selection involves the entry of predictors one at the time. The order of entry and whether the predictor is eventually accepted are decided on the basis of whether the F-tests exceed a certain critical value and whether a critical alpha level is met. Backward selection starts with all the variables in the equation and gradually deletes poor performers on the basis of whether the partial F-value is less than a

critical value. Stepwise selection is a combination of both forward and backwards procedures. It allows for the later removal of variables that were previously entered (Kline, 2010).

In this study, stepwise multiple regression analysis is used to determine how much of the variance in dependent (self-leadership) variable is explained when several independent (work-stress and emotional intelligence) variables are theorised to simultaneously influence it. The R-square value is the amount of variance explained in independent variable by the predictors. The R-square value, the F statistic and its significance level are important values in the interpretation of the results and to determine which variables have been significantly explained by set of predictors (Hatch, 2009).

6.6.2.3 Correlation studies

Stangor (2011) indicates that correlation studies are used to determine whether a relationship exists between two variables and specify the direction and magnitude of linear association between two variables. The common correlation technique is the Pearson product-moment coefficient and is represented by the symbol r . Correlation coefficients can be described by in terms of their sign and their size. The sign of the correlation is indicative of the direction of the relationship; that is, a negative (-) sign indicates that the variables are negatively related and a positive (+) sign shows that the variables are positively related. The size correlation is represented by a value that is ranging from $r = -1.00$ to 0.00 for a negative correlation and $r = 0.00$ to $+1.00$ for a positive correlation. This number is a reflection of the strength of the relationship and the closer it becomes to -1.00 or $+1.00$ the stronger it is. An r of 0 means zero correlation (Brink, 2009; Coakes et al., 2010).

Correlations are used as a complementary statistical tool in this study to determine if there is a statistically significant relationship between the three variables used in this study. To interpret the correlation coefficient, the coefficient value is examined with its associated significance value (P).

6.6.2.4 Independent t-test

Independent-samples t-test evaluates the difference between the means of two independent or unrelated groups. That is, it estimates whether the means for two independent groups are significantly different from each other (Howell, 2007). With an independent-samples t test, each case must have scores on two variables, the grouping (independent) variable and the test (dependent) variable. The grouping variable divides cases into two mutually exclusive groups or categories, while the test variable describes each case on some quantitative dimension. The t test evaluates whether the mean value of the test variable for one group differs significantly from the mean value of the test variable for the other group (Stangor, 2011).

Independent t-test will therefore be used in this study to determine if there are differences in self-leadership scores with regard to different age groups (Early CLS and Middle CLS) as hypothesised in null hypothesis 2 of this study.

6.7 SUMMARY

This chapter provides an in-depth description of the research methodological approach that was followed in this study. Firstly is the explanation of the research design, the selection of test persons, and the description of the research field. Secondly the instruments used for collecting data; their nature and composition, basic psychometric properties and rationale for inclusion were discussed. Lastly statistical techniques used to test the research hypotheses, and addressing the questions and objectives of the study, were examined.

Chapter 7: RESULTS AND FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on presenting research results and findings obtained during the current study. The set of descriptive statistics is given in two parts; at first its biographical information of the respondents given diagrammatically using bar charts, then the means and standard deviations of the various sub-dimensions of the study variables are summarised in tables. Lastly, the results of the inferential statistics are given. Inferential statistics results show reliability coefficients of the measures, stepwise regression analysis, correlation studies and the independent t-test. The results are shown with reference to stated hypotheses.

In the next section the descriptive statistics are presented.

7.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The descriptive statistics in this section are used to describe the basic features of the data of the current study (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2005). Bar charts are utilised to display frequency distributions of the sample, and tables show the mean averages and standard deviations of the sub-dimensions of the variables used in this study as measured by the RSQL, the W.L.Q and the EQI.

7.2.1 Biographical information

Biographical data was collected using a biographical questionnaire consisting of 8 items namely, post level, length of service, qualifications, gender, dependents, language, marital status and age. The data represent the biographical details of the 155 respondents from a sample of 159 (N=159). This gives a response rate of 97.48 %, which, according to Nulty (2008) is above the 60% threshold for acceptable response rate.

The bar charts from 7.1 to 7.8 below indicate simple summaries of the above mentioned biographical aspects of the sample included in the current study.

7.2.1.1 Post level

Figure 7.1 below displays a graphical representation of the post level of the respondents.

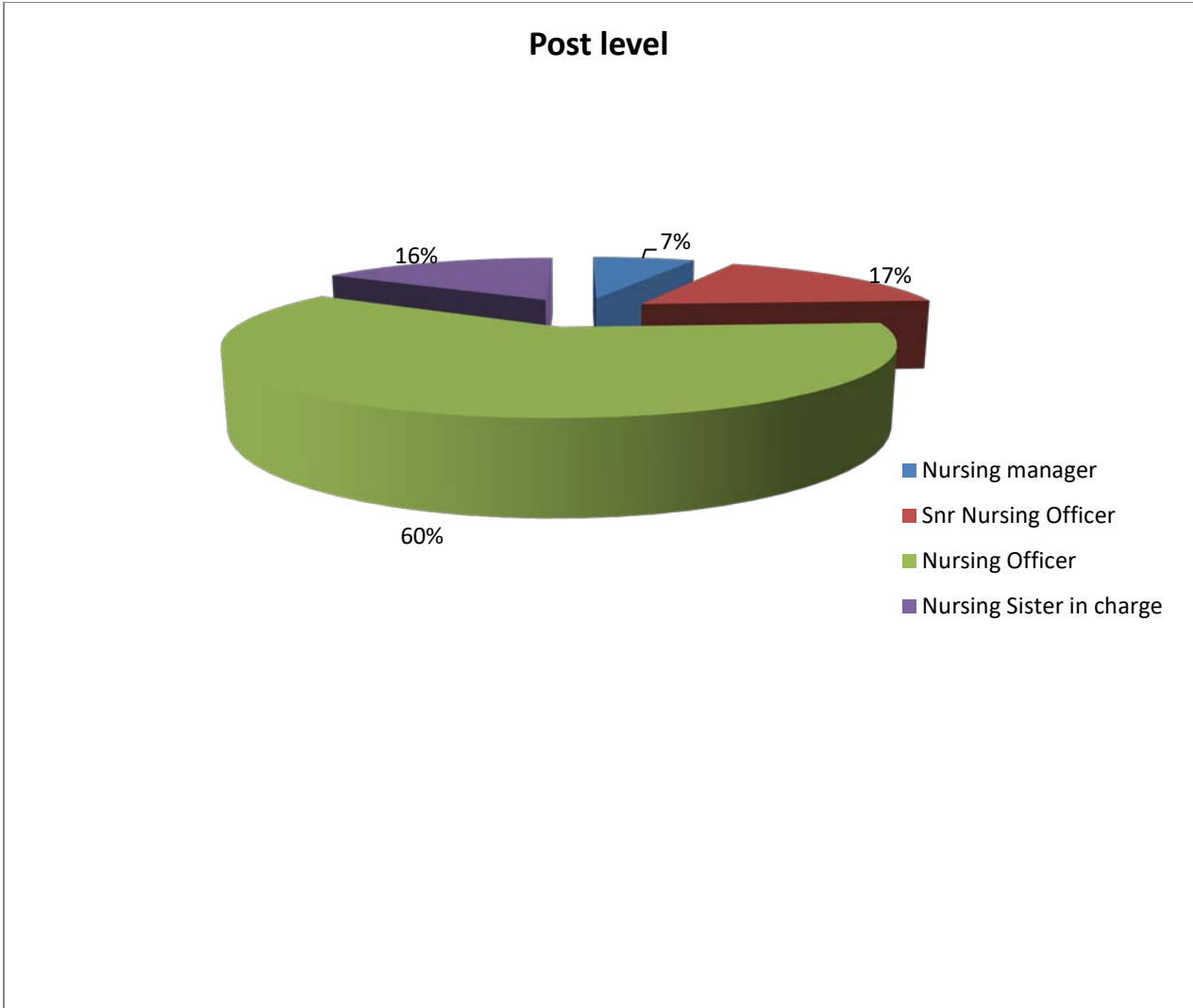


Figure 7.1 Distribution of the respondents in terms of post level

Figure 7.1 above represents the number of respondents per nursing leadership position in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare, Lesotho. Nursing managers account for only 7% of the sample; senior nursing officers are at 16%; a majority of 60% respondents are nursing officers; and 16% are nursing sisters in charge.

7.2.1.2 Length of service

Figure 7.2 displays a graphical representation of the length of service regarding the respondents.

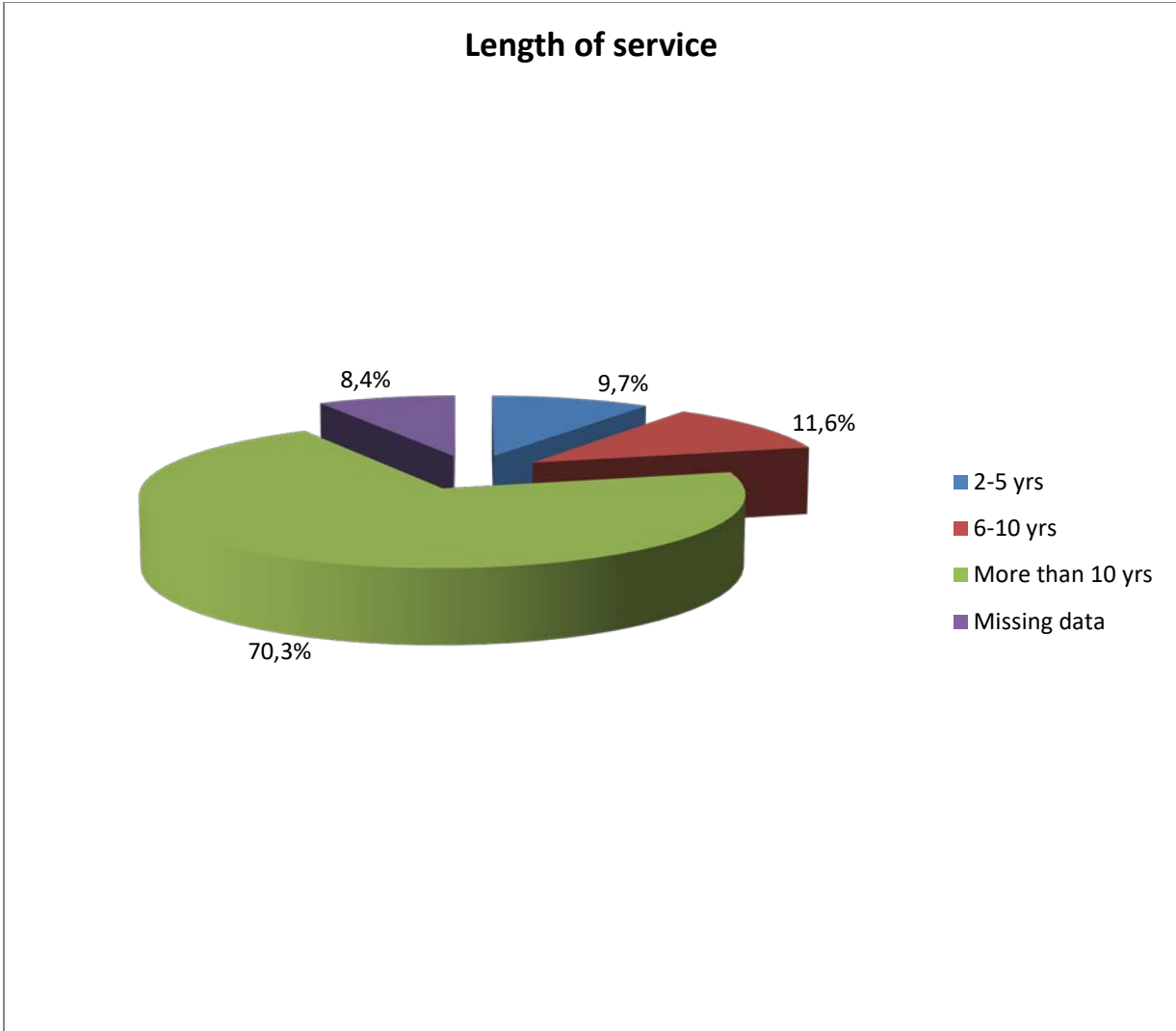


Figure 7.2 Distribution of the respondents in terms of length of service

Figure 7.2 above indicates that 9.7% of nursing leaders have only been working for 2-5 years, 11.6% have been working for 6–10 years, while a prominent 70.3% have been working for more than 10 years. The remaining 8.4% of participants did not indicate their length of service.

7.2.1.3 Qualifications

Figure 7.3 displays a graphical representation of the qualifications of the respondents.

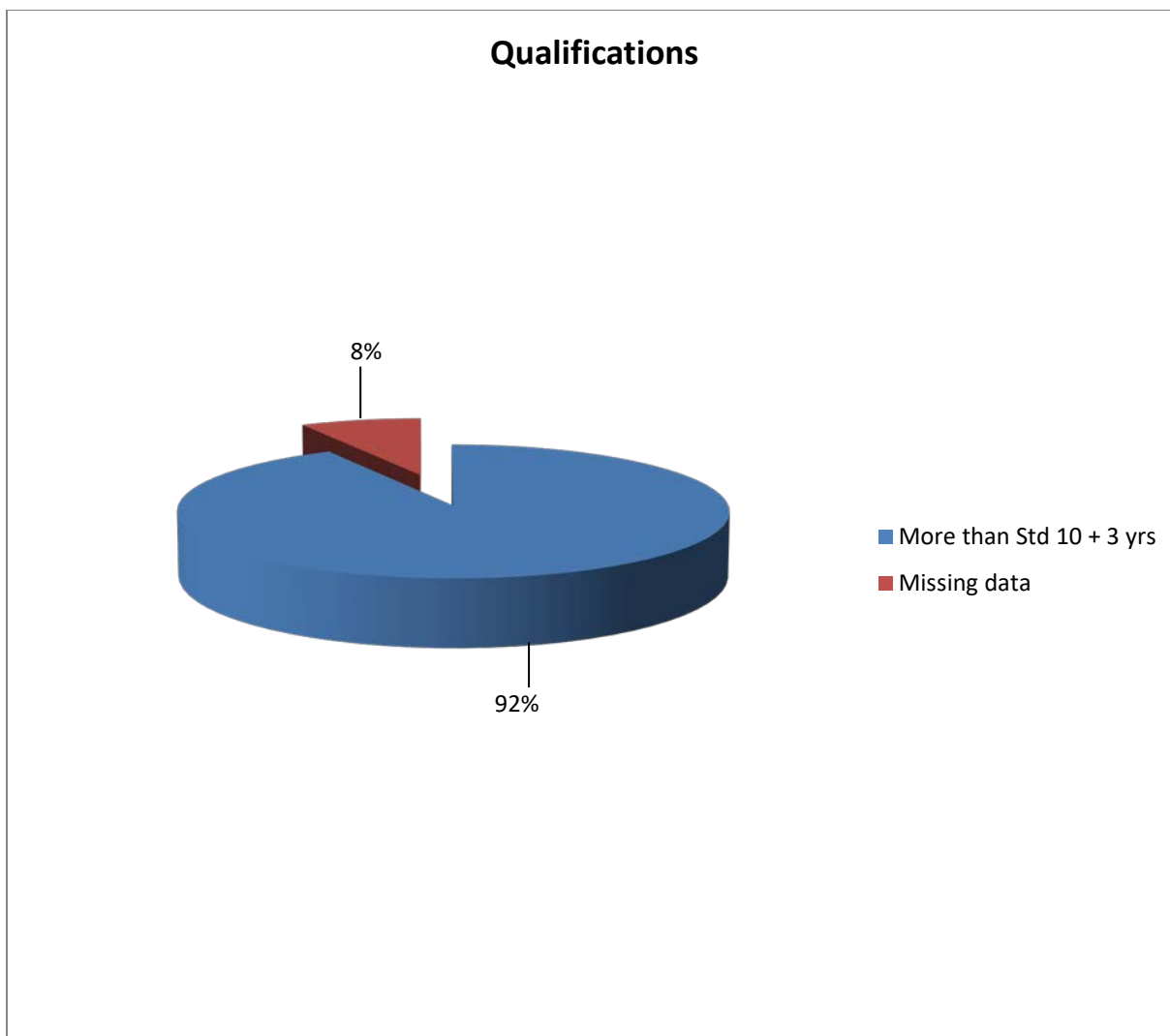


Figure 7.4 Distribution of the respondents in terms of qualifications

Figure 7.3 above shows that 92% of nursing leaders at the ministry who participated in this study to have education of more than Std. 10 plus 3 years, while the remaining 8% of participants did not indicate their qualifications.

7.2.1.4 Gender

Figure 7.4 below provides a graphical representation regarding the gender composition of the respondents.

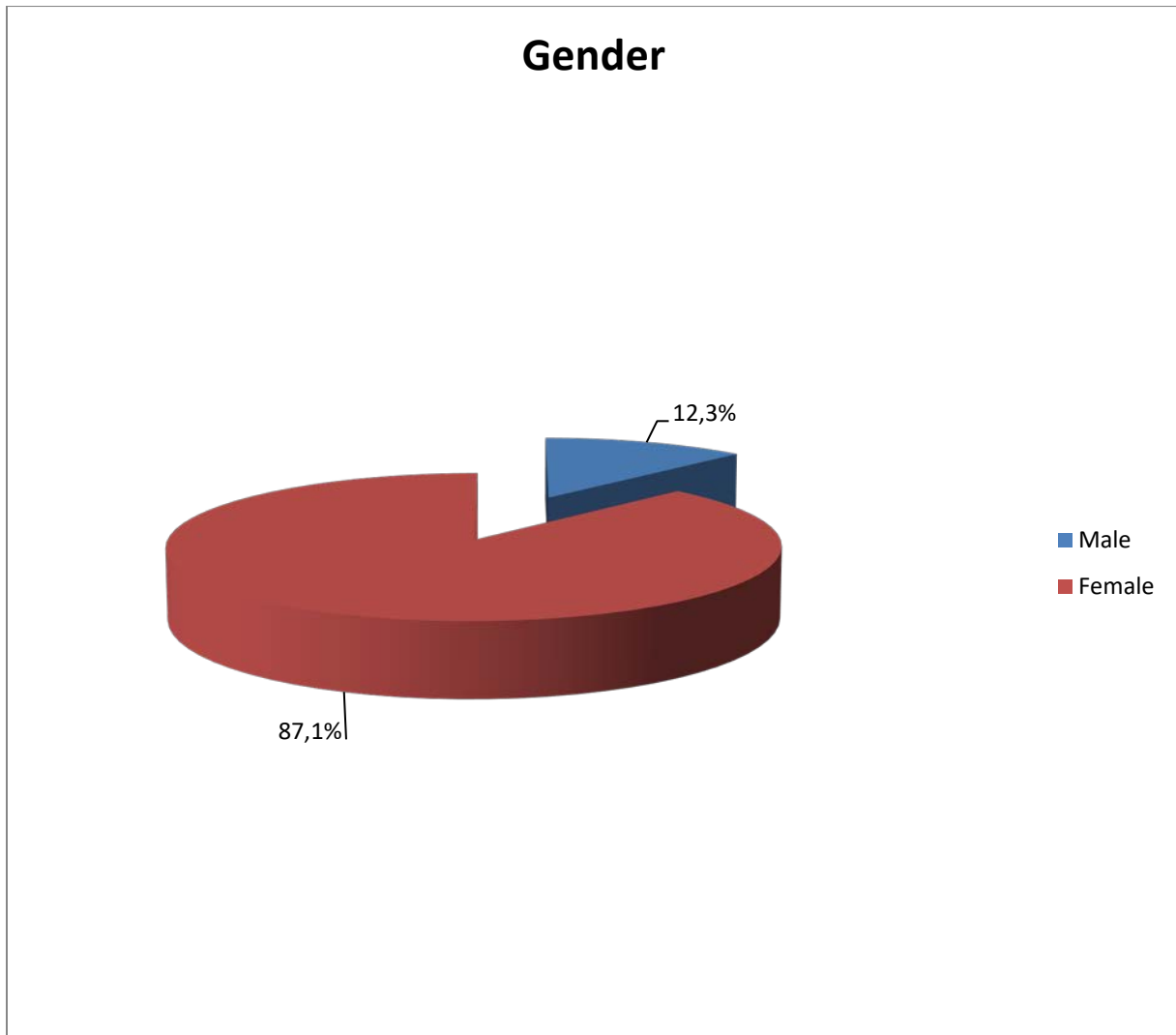


Figure 7.4 Distribution of the respondents in terms of gender

According to figure 7.4 above, a dominant 87.1 % of the respondents are female, while only 12.3% are found to be male.

7.2.1.5 Dependents

Figure 7.5 below provides a graphical representation regarding dependants of the respondents

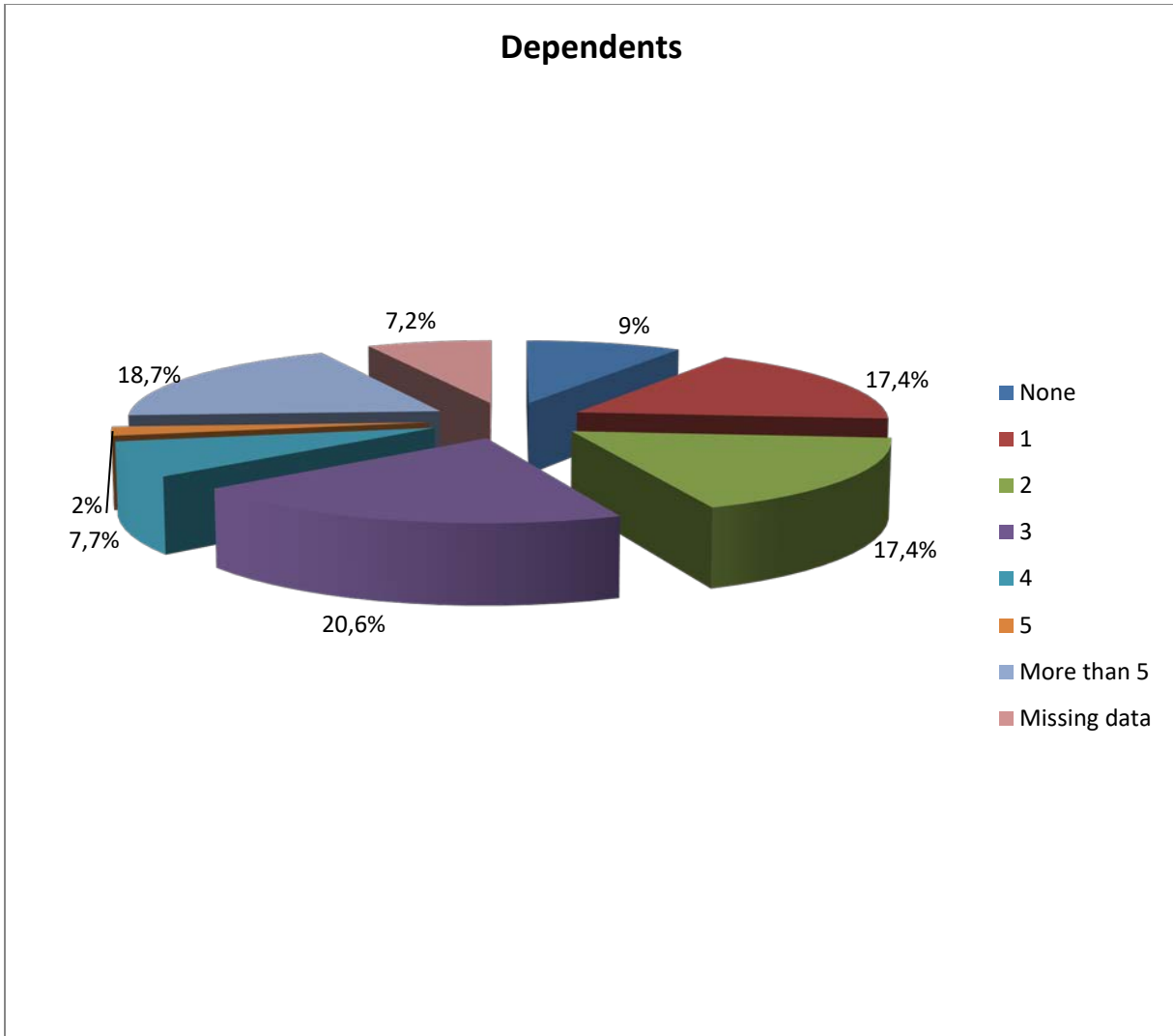


Figure 7.5 Distribution of the respondents in terms of number dependents

Figure 7.5 above shows that 9% of respondents do not have dependents, while 17.4% have only 1 dependent, 17.4% to have 2 dependents, and the majority at 20.6% have 3 dependants. Only 7.7% of respondents have 4 dependents, while 2% has 5 dependants and 18.7% of respondents have more than 5 dependants. The remaining 7.2% of participants did not indicate their number of dependents.

7.2.1.6 Marital status

Figure 7.6 provides a graphical representation regarding the marital status of the respondents.

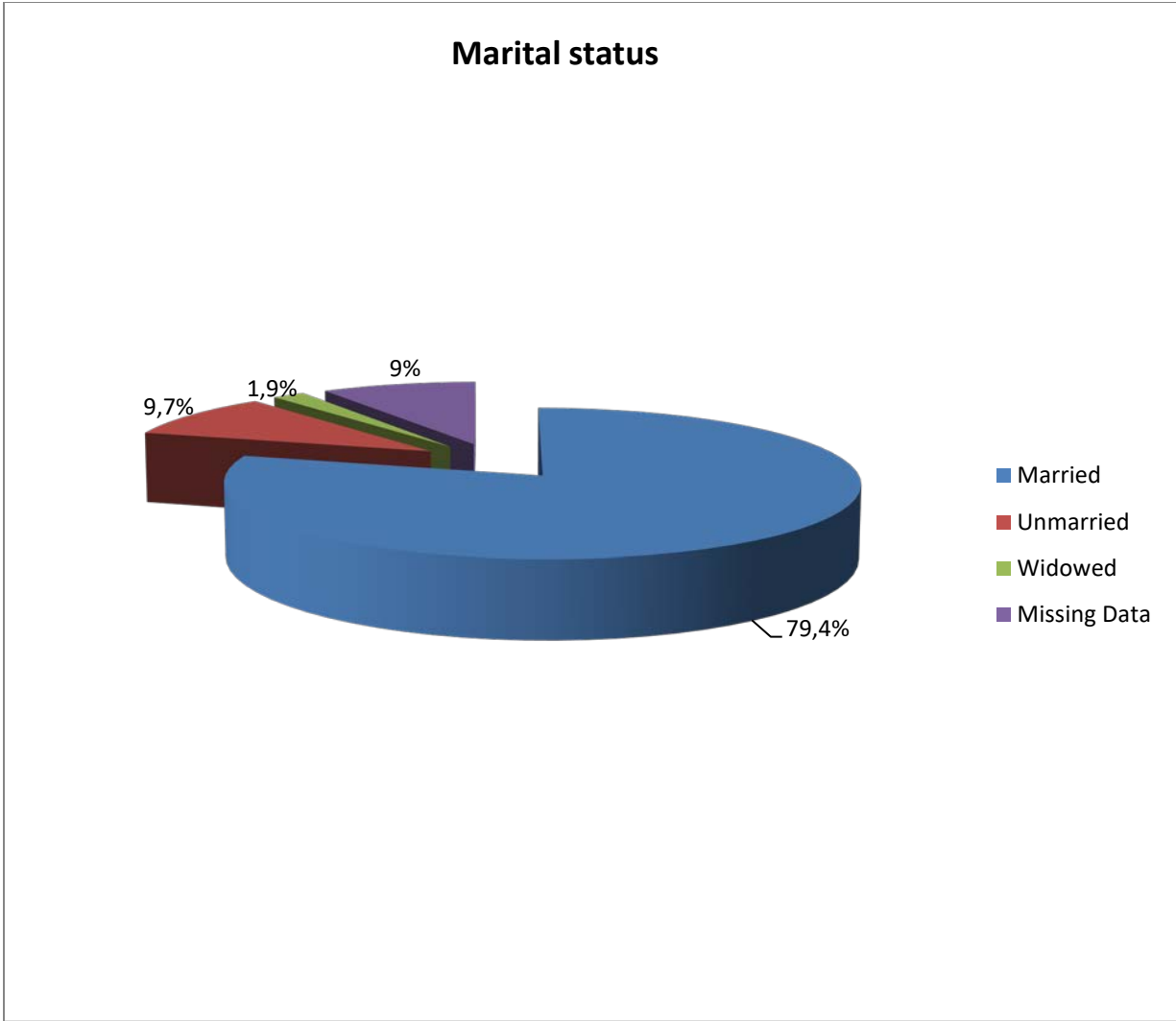


Figure 7.6 Distribution of the respondents in terms of marital status

Most respondents, namely 79.4% are married, while 9.7% is unmarried and 1.9% is widowed as depicted in figure 7.6 above. 9% of participants did not indicate their marital status.

7.2.1.7 Home language

Figure 7.7 provides a graphical representation regarding the home language of the respondents.

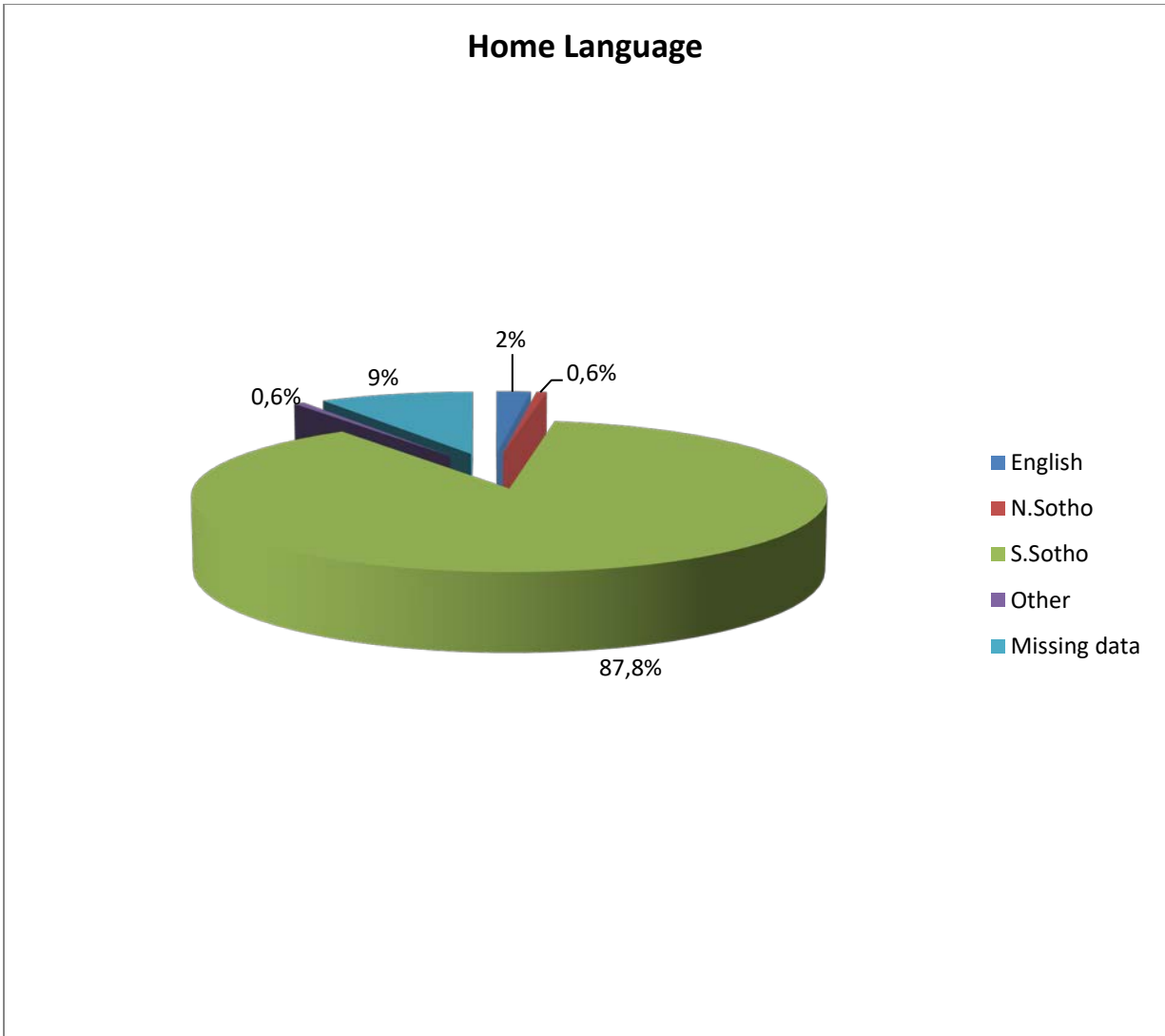


Figure 7.7 Distribution of the respondents in terms of home language

Figure 7.7 indicates that 2% of respondents have english as thier home language, 0.6% have northern sotho as home language, and a dominant 87.8% of the respondents were southern sotho (sesotho) speaking, while only 0.6 % is other. 9% of the respondents did not indicate their home language.

7.2.1.8 Age

Figure 7.8 below displays a graphical representation of the ages of the respondents.

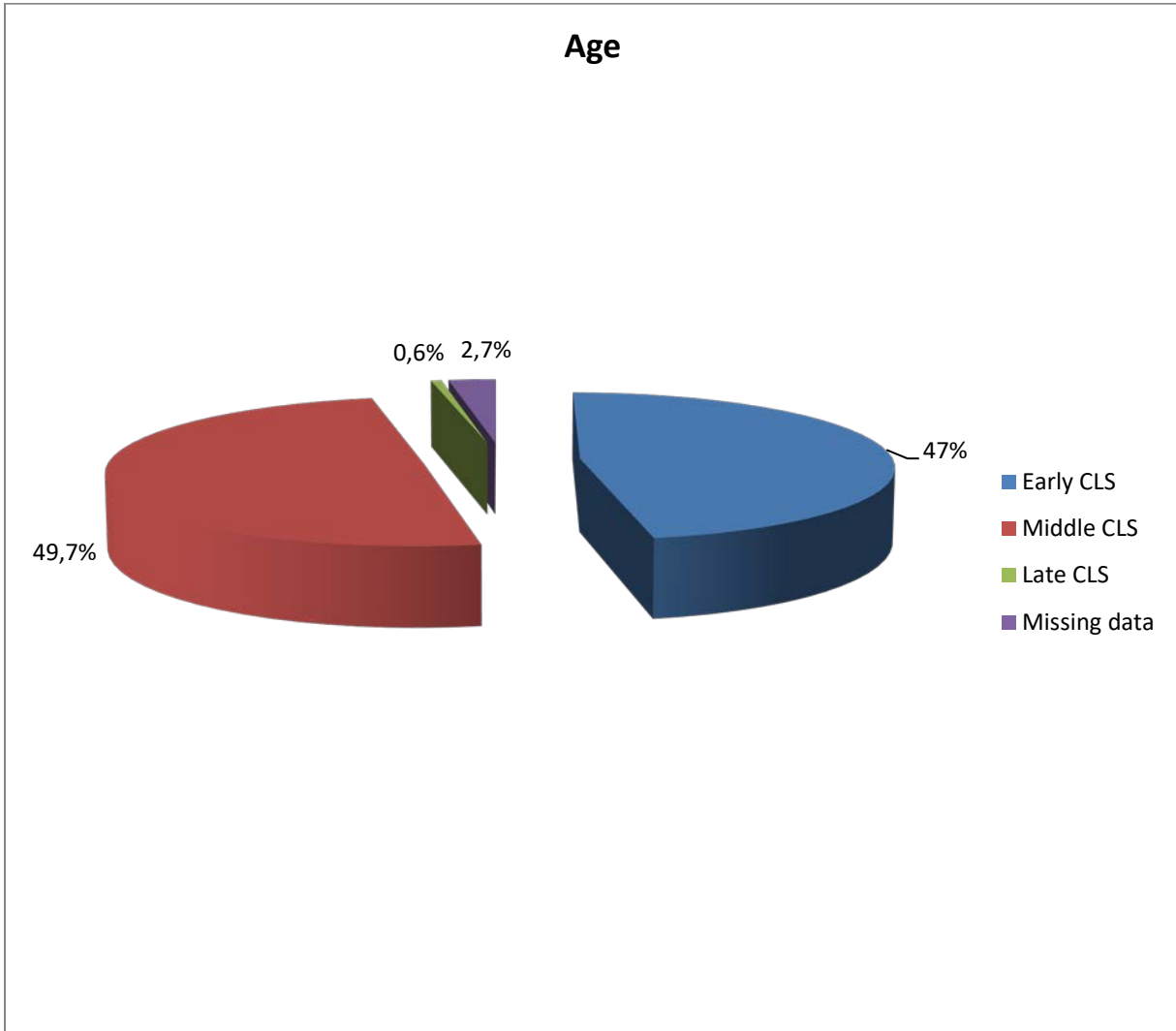


Figure 7.8 Distribution of the respondents in terms of age

Figure 7.8 shows that 47% of the sample to be in early career life stage, which represents ages of 20 to 39. Most nursing leaders are in their middle-career life stage, which is between the ages of 40 to 59 years, constituting 49.7% of the sample. Only 0.6% is at late career life stage, which is 60+. Missing responses amount to 2.7%.

7.2.2 Mean scores and standard deviations of sub-dimensions of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence

The mean value or score of a certain set of data is equal to the sum of all the values in the data set divided by the total number of values. A mean is the same as an average. The standard deviation gives an idea of how close the entire set of data is to the average value. Data sets with a small standard deviation have tightly grouped, precise data. Data sets with large standard deviations have data spread out over a wide range of values (Kline, 2011). In this section, the means and deviations of the items in the study questionnaires are indicated.

7.2.2.1 Mean scores for sub-dimensions of self-leadership

Table 7.1 below presents the mean and standard deviations of the respondents for the sub-dimensions of self-leadership as measured by the RSQL. The RSQL has a 5-point Likert scale.

Table 7.1: Mean scores and standard deviations for sub-dimensions of self-leadership

	Mean (X)	Standard Deviation
Visualising successful performance	20.1355	3.94455
Self-goal setting	20.6462	3.76501
Self-talk	10.7871	2.93653
Self-reward	10.2903	3.25929
Evaluating beliefs and assumptions	14.6774	3.04071
Self-punishment	15.2774	3.39123
Self-observation	16.1032	3.29733
Focusing on natural rewards	19.7742	3.90229
Self-cueing	7.5871	2.23545
Self-leadership total	135.2784	21.18433

According to table 7.1 the overall mean score for self-leadership (total) is at 135.2784, which indicates strong use of self-leadership strategies (Zhang & Zhao, 2012). The standard deviation is at 21.18433. Mean scores for sub-dimensions of self-leadership ranges from 7.5871 to 20.1355.

7.2.2.2 Mean scores for level of stress, causes of stress outside work and causes of stress in the work

Table 7.2 below presents the mean scores and standard deviations of the respondents for the sub-dimensions of work-stress as measured by the WLQ. The WLQ has a 5-point Likert scale.

Table 7.2: Mean scores and standard deviations for sub-dimensions of work-stress

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Stress level	77.2887	15.64703
Causes of stress outside the work environment	35.9161	9.02231
Causes of work-stress within the work environment:		
Organisational functioning	18.4581	5.93278
Task characteristics	44.0839	9.78068
Physical working conditions	19.1226	8.11711
Career matters	22.8710	7.47612
Social matters	21.1290	6.48346
Remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy	17.3355	8.30058

According to table 7.2 the mean score for level of work-stress is 77.2, indicating normal level of work-stress (Vogel, 2006). The sample scored 35.9161 in causes of work-stress outside the work environment which indicates high experience of work-stress in this area. With regard to causes of work-stress within the work situation

respondents find the dimension of remuneration, fringe benefits and personal policy more stressful with a mean of 17.3355, and while all other sub-dimensions are at normal scale, with a mean score ranging from 18.4581 to 44.0839 (Vogel, 2006).

7.2.2.3 Mean scores for sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence

Table 7.3 below presents the mean scores and standard deviations of the respondents for the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence as measured by the EQI. The EQI has a 7-point Likert scale.

Table 7.3 the mean and standard deviations for the sub-dimensions of emotional intelligence:

	Mean	Standard deviation
Self-awareness	19.6065	9.21989
Self-regulation	16.5677	8.06549
Motivation	15.0100	7.99678
Empathy	15.7935	8.30795
Social skills	16.3226	8.21144
Emotional Intelligence Total	83.3003	39.07226

According to table 7.3 the mean score for Emotional Intelligence (EQ) (total) is 83.3003, with a standard deviation of 39.07226. The mean score for EQ (total) ranges from 15.0 to 19.6.

Next is the presentation of results and findings from inferential statistics.

7.3 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferences made from the reliability studies, stepwise regression analysis, correlations and the t-test are reported in this section.

7.3 1 Reliability coefficients

Reliability results of the instruments or measures used in this study are presented below in Table 7.4. These reliability coefficients examine the internal consistency of the scales using Cronbach's alpha (Richardson, 2005).

Table 7.4 Reliability coefficients

	Reliability statistics	
	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items
Stress level (Scale A)	.901	40
Causes of stress outside the work environment (Scale B)	.813	16
Organisational functioning (C1)	.750	7
Task characteristics (C2)	.820	14
Physical working conditions (C3)	.794	7
Career matters (C4)	.824	8
Social matters (C5)	.820	7
Remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy (C6)	.771	10
EQ Index (Self-awareness)	.873	7
EQ Index (Self-regulation)	.868	6
EQ Index (Motivation)	.893	6
EQ Index (Empathy)	.880	6
EQ Index (Social skills)	.851	6
Visualising successful performance	.803	5
Self-Goal setting	.832	5
Self-Talk	.758	3

Self-Reward	.751	3
Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions	.636	4
Self-Punishment	.675	4
Self-Observation	.799	4
Focusing on Natural Rewards	.735	5
Self-Cueing	.851	2

The results show all scales to have acceptable degree of reliability, where according to table 6.2 (general guidelines for interpreting reliability coefficients) 0.90 and above is considered excellent, 0.80 up to 0.89 is good, 0.70 up to 0.79 is adequate and below 0.70 is considered to have limited applicability. According to Dunn (2004) and Polit & Beck (2008) reliability equates to equivalence, consistency and homogeneity of the results of the study.

7.3.2 Stepwise multiple regression analysis

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to evaluate whether the variance in the dependent variable can be predicted by multiple independent variables in this study. The results are presented with reference to the stated hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1

Null hypothesis: The variance in self-leadership scores cannot be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

Alternative hypothesis: The variance in self-leadership scores can be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

7.3.2.1 Stepwise multiple regression analysis results for self-leadership total

In this section stepwise multiple regression analysis for self-leadership total is presented.

7.3.2.1.1 Prediction for self-leadership total

The results of the regression analysis for stated hypothesis, where self-leadership is a dependent variable and work-stress and emotional intelligence represents independent variables, are indicated in Table 7.5. The table comprises model summary for self-leadership total, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.5 Model summary for self-leadership total

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.394	.155	.144	.19.59567

b. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	10745.008	2	5372.504	13.991	.000
Residual	58366.494	152	383.990		
Total	69111.502	154			

c. Predictors: (constant), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standard Coefficients	T	Sig
	Beta		
(Constant)		26.080	.000
EQ Index (Self-Regulation)	-.301	-4.042	.000
Physical Working Conditions (C)	.250	3.360	.001

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p^{**} \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Based on results provided by table 7.5, the variance in self-leadership (total) scores can be attributed to EQI (self-regulation) and causes of work-stress (physical working conditions). The variance is explained by 15, 5%, and the model is statistically highly significant with F value at 13.991, $p = .000^{**}$.

The coefficients indicate that there is an inverse relationship between self-leadership (total) and EQI (self-regulation), while physical working conditions relates positively with self-leadership (total). The results implicate that a high score the EQI (self-regulation) will lead to a decrease in self-leadership for participants in this study.

While, positive relationship between self-leadership (total) and physical working conditions means an increase in work-stress caused by physical working conditions will increase scores in self-leadership (total).

7.3.2.2 Stepwise multiple regression analysis results for sub-dimensions of self-leadership by means of work-stress sub-dimensions and emotional intelligence sub-dimensions

The results of the regression analysis for the sub-dimensions of self-leadership namely visualising successful performance, self-goal setting, self-talk, self-reward, evaluating beliefs and assumptions, self-punishment, self-observation, focusing on natural rewards and self-cueing are presented in this section.

7.3.2.2.1 Prediction for visualising successful performance

Regression analysis results for visualising successful performance are presented below in table 7.6. The table contains model summary for visualising performance, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.6: Model summary for visualising successful performance

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.239	.057	.051	3.84284

a. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	136.742	1	136.742	9.260	.003
Residual	2259.412	153	14.767		
Total	2396.155	154			

b. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		15.887	.000
Level of work-stress	-.239	-3.043	.003

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

It is evident from table 7.6 above, that level of work-stress predicts visualising successful performance. The level of work-stress accounts for 5.7% of the variance in visualising successful performance. The prediction is statistically significant with the F value at 9.260; $p = .003^*$. The coefficients further indicate that there is a negative relationship between level of work-stress and visualising successful performance. This means a lower score in the level of work-stress, the higher the ability to visualise successful performance.

7.3.2.2.2 Prediction for self-goal setting

Regression analysis results for self-goal setting are presented below in table 7.7. The table entail model summary for self-goal setting, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.7: Model for self-goal setting

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.465	.217	.196	3.37656

c. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress (Scale A), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C), Task characteristics (C)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	421.637	3	140.546	12.049	.000
Residual	1761.358	151	11.665		
Total	2182.995	154			

d. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress (Scale A), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C), Task characteristics (C)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		10.585	.000
Level of work-stress (Scale A)	-.220	-2.894	.004
EQ Index (Self-regulation)	.159	1.909	.058
Physical working conditions (C)	-.196	-2.630	.009
Task characteristics (C)	.180	2.119	.036

Highly significant at $p^* \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p^{**} \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Table 7.7 above shows that three predictor variables, namely level of work-stress, physical working conditions, self-regulation as well as task characteristics were found to vary a person's self-goal setting behaviour. As much as 21.7% of the variance in self-goal setting can be attributed to these three variables. The model is highly statistically significant with the F value at 12,049, $p = .000^{**}$. Coefficients indicate a negative relationship between self-goal setting and level of work-stress, as well as between self-goal setting and physical working conditions. A positive relationship exists between self-goal setting and EQI (self-regulation), and between self-goal setting and task characteristics.

The negative relationship between self-goal setting and level of work-stress, as well as between self-goal setting and physical working conditions, indicates that individuals with low scores in level of work-stress and low scores in physical working conditions are more likely to set personal goals. The positive relationship between self-goal setting and EQI (self-regulation) and between self-goal setting and task characteristics implies that individuals who are able to self-regulate, and those experiencing work-stress from task characteristics are also more likely to engage self-goal setting behaviour.

7.3.2.2.3 Prediction for self-talk

Regression analysis results for self-talk are presented below in table 7.8. The table comprises of model summary for self-talk, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.8: Model summary for self-talk

	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.294	.087	.068	2.83434

e. Predictors: (Constant), Career matters (C), Physical working conditions (C), Causes of stress outside the work environment (B)

ANOVA

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	114.921	3	38.307	4.768	.003
	Residual	1213.053	151	8.033		
	Total	1327.974	154			

f. Predictors: (Constant), Career matters (C), Physical working conditions (C), Causes of stress outside the work environment (B)

COEFFICIENTS

Model		Standardised Coefficients	T	Sig.
		Beta		
1	(Constant)		9.930	.000
	Career matters (C)	-.254	-2.721	.007
	Physical working conditions (C)	.276	3.062	.003
	Causes of stress outside the work environment (B)	-.195	-2.403	.017

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Based on the results indicated in Table 7.8 above career matters, physical working conditions and causes of stress outside the work environment are predictors of self-talk. The variance is explicated by 8.7%. The results are statistically significant with the F value at 4, 768, $p = 003^*$.

There is a negative relationship between self-talk and career matters, and between self-talk and causes of stress outside the work environment. This means that a person's self-talk behaviour will be increased by low scores in career issues and low scores in causes of stress outside the work environment. There is a positive relationship between self-talk and physical working conditions. This signifies that self-talk behaviour is enhanced by high score in physical working conditions.

7.3.2.2.4 Prediction for self-reward

Regression analysis results for self-reward are presented below in table 7.9. The table contains model summary for self-reward, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

7.9: Model summary for self-reward

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.234	.055	.048	3.17934

a. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Empathy)

ANOVA

Model		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	89.380	1	89.380	8.842	.003
	Residual	1546.555	153	10.108		
	Total	1635.935	154			

a. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Empathy)

COEFFICIENTS

Model		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		Beta		
1	(Constant)		21.346	.000
	EQ Index (Empathy)	-.234	-2.974	.003

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

The results in Table 7.9, above signify empathy as the only important predictor of self-reward in this model. The variance amount to 5.5%, statistically significant with the F value at 8.842, $p = 0.003^*$. There is an inverse relationship between self-reward and empathy. This means that, for participants in this study, a person with low scores in empathy will increase their self-reward behaviour.

7.3.2.2.5 Prediction for evaluating beliefs and assumptions

Regression analysis results for evaluating beliefs and assumptions are presented below in table 7.10. The table contains model summary for evaluating beliefs and assumptions, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.10: Model summary for evaluating beliefs and assumptions

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.376	.142	.125	2.84513

c. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Self-regulation), Social matters (C), Organisational functioning (C)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	201.564	3	67.188	8.300	.000
Residual	1222.307	151	8.095		
Total	1423.871	154			

c. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Self-regulation), Social matters (C), Organisational functioning (C)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		14.771	.000
EQ Index (Self-regulation)	-.211	-2.758	.007
Social matters (C)	.392	3.669	.000
Organisational functioning (C)	-.246	-2.311	.022

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

It is evident from Table 7.10 above that the EQI (self-regulation), social matters and organisational functioning of work-stress are important variables in predicting evaluating beliefs and assumptions. The variance is explained of 14.2%. The results are statistically highly significant with F value at 8.30, $p = .000^{**}$. Coefficients further indicate that low scores in self-regulation and organisational functioning, as well as high scores in social matters will enhance evaluating beliefs and assumptions of participants in this study.

7.3.2.2.6 Prediction for self-punishment

Regression analysis results for self-punishment are presented below in table 7.11. The table contains model summary for self-punishment, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.11: Model summary for self-punishment

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.410	.168	.157	3.11310

b. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Motivation), Task characteristics (C)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	297.975	2	148.987	15.373	.000
Residual	1473.096	152	9.691		
Total	1771.071	154			

c. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Motivation), Task characteristics (C)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		10.996	.000
EQ Index (Motivation)	-.334	-4.503	.000
Task characteristics (C)	.217	2.920	.004

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Table 7.11 above shows EQI (motivation) and task characteristics as predictors of self-punishment. The results account for 16.8% of the variance. The results are statistically highly significant with the F at 15.373, $p = .000^{**}$. In addition there is a negative relationship between self-punishment and EQI (motivation), and a positive relationship between self-punishment and task characteristics. The results indicate that low score in EQI (motivation) and high score in task characteristics lead to self-punishment behaviour.

7.3.2.2.7 Prediction for self-observation

Regression analysis results for self-observation are presented below in table 7.12. The table contains model summary for self-observation, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.12: Model summary for self-observation

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.442	.196	.174	2.99625

d. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress (Scale A), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C), EQ Index (Social skills)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	327.722	4	81.930	9.126	.000
Residual	1346.627	150	8.978		
Total	1674.348	154			

e. Predictors: (Constant), Level of work-stress (Scale A), EQI (Self-regulation), Physical working conditions (C), EQ Index (Social skills)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		13.730	.000
Level of work-stress	-.245	-3.229	.002
EQ Index (Self-regulation)	-.518	-3.293	.001
Physical working conditions (C)	.201	2.714	.007
EQ Index (Social skills)	.369	2.357	.020

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

According to Table 7.12 above variance in self-observation can be attributed to level of work-stress, EQI (self-regulation), physical working conditions (C), and EQI (social skills). The variance account for 19.6%, statistically highly significant with the F value at 9,126, $p = .000^{**}$. Self-observation is negatively related to level of work-stress and self-regulation, while positive relationship is indicated between self-observation and physical working conditions, as well as self-observation and social skills.

The implication of the results is that individuals with low scores in level of work-stress and in self-regulation will engage in self-observation. However, individuals with low scores in physical working conditions and social skills are more likely to reduce thier self-observation behaviour.

7.3.2.2.8 Prediction for natural rewards

Regression analysis results for natural rewards are presented below in table 7.13. The table contains model summary for natural rewards, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.13: Model summary for focusing on natural rewards

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.380	.144	.127	3.64593

c. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Self-regulation), Remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy (C), Level of work-stress (Scale A)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	337.880	3	112.627	8.473	.000
Residual	2007.217	151	13.293		
Total	2345.097	154			

d. Predictors: (Constant), EQI (Self-Regulation), Remuneration, Fringe Benefits, and Personnel Policy (C), Level of work-stress (Scale A)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients		t	Sig.
	Beta			
1 (Constant)			14.495	.000
EQ Index (Self-regulation)		-.236	-3.034	.003
Remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy (C)		.213	2.815	.006
Level of work-stress (Scale A)		-.179	-2.308	.022

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

It follows from table 7.13 that the EQI (self-regulation), remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy (C), and the level of work-stress predict focusing on natural rewards. These variables account for 14.4% of the variance in focusing on natural rewards. The prediction is statistically highly significant with the F value at $F = 8.47$, $p = .000^{**}$. The coefficients additionally indicate that there is a negative relationship between focusing on natural rewards and self-regulation, and level of work-stress, while there is a positive relationship between focusing on natural

rewards and remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy. This means that a low score in self-regulation and level of work-stress, as well as high scores in remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy will enhance participants' ability to focus on natural rewards.

7.3.2.2.9 Prediction for self-cueing

Regression analysis results for self-cueing are presented below in table 7.14. The table contains model summary for self-cueing, ANOVA and coefficients tables.

Table 7.14: Model summary for self-cueing

R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimation
.496	.246	.237	1.95322

a. Predictors: (Constant), Physical working conditions (C), EQI (Empathy)

ANOVA

Model	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	189.683	2	94.842	24.860	.000
Residual	579.891	152	3.815		
Total	769.574	154			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Physical Working Conditions (C), EQI (Empathy)

COEFFICIENTS

Model	Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
	Beta		
1 (Constant)		13.709	.000
Physical working conditions (C)	.390	5.541	.000
EQ Index (Empathy)	-.310	-4.408	.000

Highly significant at $p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Significant at $p^{**} \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed)

Based on the results provided in table 7.14, the variance in self-cueing scores can be attributed to physical working conditions (C) and EQ Index (empathy). The variance is explained by 24, 6%, and the model is statistically highly significant with the F value = 24,860, $p = .000^{**}$. The coefficients indicate as well that there is a positive relationship between self-cueing and physical work conditions which means high scores in physical working conditions leads one to increase self-cueing behaviour,

while, a negative relationship between self-cueing and empathy means that high scores in empathy will lower self-cueing behaviour of participants in this study.

7.3.3 Correlation studies

Correlation results presented in this section are complementary to the above multiple regression analysis results. The correlation results determine whether there is a relationship between self-leadership (as measured by the RSQL), work-stress (as measured by W.L.Q) and emotional intelligence (as measured by the EQ Index) in the profession of nursing leadership.

The section highlights only significant and highly significant relationships that provide more insight into the effect of the employees' work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership.

7.3.3.1 Correlations between total score of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence

Table 7.15 below shows correlation results between the dependent variable (self-leadership) and the independent variables (work-stress and emotional intelligence) of this study.

Table 7.15 Correlation results for the total scores of self-leadership, emotional intelligence and work-stress

	Self-leadership total	Emotional intelligence total	Work-stress total
Self-leadership total Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	r = -.293 p = .000**	r = .095 p = .239
Emotional intelligence total Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	r = -.293 p = .000**	1	r = .061 p = .453
Work-stress total Pearson correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	r = .000 p = .239	r = .061 p = .453	1

N=155: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to table 7.15 above, there is no statistically significant relationship between the total scores of self-leadership and total scores of work-stress, as well as between the total scores of emotional intelligence and total scores of work-stress. The results also indicate that there is no relationship between work-stress total and self-leadership total or work-stress total and emotional intelligence total. There is, however, a statistically highly significant relationship between total scores of emotional intelligence and self-leadership total, where $r = -.293$; $p = .000^{**}$.

7.3.3.2 Correlations between the sub-dimensions of the constructs of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence

Complementary to the correlations of the total scores of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence, correlations of the sub-dimensions of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence are presented in this section. Only significant and highly significant correlation results are presented. (**Appendix 1: Table 7.16**).

Visualising successful performance as a component of self-leadership is significantly correlated with work-stress dimension level of work-stress ($r = -.239$; $p = .003$). The dimension of self-goal setting as a component of self-leadership is significantly correlated with work-stress sub-dimensions organisational functioning, ($r = .242$; $p = .002$) task characteristics ($r = .300$; $p = .000$), physical conditions ($r = .276$; $p = .001$), level of work-stress ($r = -.320$; $p = .000$), and EQI (self-regulation). Self-talk as a component of self-leadership has relationship with work-stress dimension remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy ($r = .160$; $p = .047$).

Significant relationships were also found between self-reward and EQI (empathy), ($r = -.234$; $p = .003$). Evaluating beliefs and assumptions as a component of self-leadership is significantly correlated with work-stress sub-dimensions social matters, ($r = .239$; $p = .003$) and EQI (self-regulation).

Furthermore, a relationship also exist between self-punishment as a component of self-leadership, and work-stress sub-dimensions task characteristics ($r = .239$; $p = .003$) and EQI (motivation). Self-observation as a component of self-leadership is related to work-stress sub-dimensions level of work-stress ($r = -.312$; $p = .000^{**}$), physical working conditions ($r = .218$; $p = .007^{**}$), and the EQI (Self-regulation) ($r = -.252$; $p = .002^{**}$). Focusing on natural rewards as a component of self-leadership, is significantly correlated with work-stress sub-dimensions Remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy ($r = .193$; $p = .016$), and level of work-stress ($r = -.232$; $p = .004$) and EQI (self-regulation). Lastly, self-cueing as a component of self-leadership is significantly correlated with work-stress physical working conditions($r = .388$; $p = .000$), and EQI (empathy) ($r = -.307$; $p = .000$).

In light of the above stepwise multiple regression analysis results and correlations results, the null hypothesis 1 namely, **the variance in self-leadership scores cannot be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho** is therefore rejected.

The alternative hypothesis 1 namely, **the variance in self-leadership scores can be statistically explained by work-stress and emotional intelligence amongst nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho** is therefore accepted.

7.3.4 Age differences with regard to self-leadership

An independent t-test was conducted to evaluate whether there are age differences with regard to self-leadership for participants in this study. The results are presented with reference to the stated hypotheses.

Hypothesis 2

Null hypothesis:

There is no statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regards to age of nurses in leadership positions at the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

Alternative hypothesis:

There is a statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regard to age of nurses in leadership positions at the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho.

Table 7.17 below presents the results of the independent t-test.

Table 7.17 Age differences with regards to self-leadership

Variable	Groups	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Significance
Visualising Successful performance	Early CLS	68	20.6176	3.52403	.218
	Middle CLS	74	19.7973	4.30349	.215
Self-Goal Setting	Early CLS	68	21.1199	3.25627	.219
	Middle CLS	74	20.3514	4.07946	.215
Self-Talk	Early CLS	68	11.0441	2.57099	.575
	Middle CLS	74	10.7703	3.16897	.571
Self-Reward	Early CLS	68	10.3971	3.36416	.534
	Middle CLS	74	10.0541	3.18340	.534
Evaluating Beliefs and Assumptions	Early CLS	68	15.0588	2.66476	.133
	Middle CLS	74	14.2838	3.37404	.130
Self-Punishment	Early CLS	68	15.3382	3.08395	.774
	Middle CLS	74	15.5000	3.57023	.773
Self-Observation	Early CLS	68	16.4853	3.02967	.235
	Middle CLS	74	15.8243	3.52431	.232
Focusing on Natural Rewards	Early CLS	68	20.0294	3.53224	.472
	Middle CLS	74	19.5541	4.24955	.468
Self-Cueing	Early CLS	68	7.4118	2.15265	.260
	Middle CLS	74	7.8378	2.32336	.259
SELFLEAD_TOTAL	Early CLS	68	137.5023	18.57166	.319
	Middle CLS	74	133.9730	22.99730	.314

* Statistically significant at $p \leq .05$

Table 7.17 above illustrates that there are no significant age differences with regards to early career life stages and middle career life stage age groups.

In light of the above presented results, null hypothesis 2 namely, **there is no statistical significant difference in the scores achieved on self-leadership with regard to age of nurses in leadership positions in the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare in Lesotho** is therefore not rejected.

A brief summary of the chapter is provided below.

7.4 SUMMARY

The aim of this chapter was to present research results from different statistical analyses. First the summary results of biographical data, the means and standard deviations of the data obtained from the respondents were discussed. Secondly, inferences were made from reliability studies, stepwise regression analysis and the correlation studies. Lastly, t-tests results about age differences on self-leadership were presented.

Chapter 8: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions and make recommendations from the findings obtained in the analysis of the scored data collected in this study. Conclusions are made on the literature review, study methodology, descriptive statistics and results of the inferential statistics. Recommendations for further research, and specific recommendations for the sample, are made based on the discussions. The chapter ends with limitations of the study.

8.2 THE LITERATURE REVIEW

The effects of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership have not yet been researched in-depth (Houghton et al., 2012; Merkwits & Earnest, 2006). However, there are several studies on associations between self-leadership and work-stress (Ashkanasy, et al., 2006; Dahl., 2012; Bakker, 2005; Houghton et al., 2012; Houghton & Jinkerson, 2007; Lovelace, et al., 2007; Wu, 2011; Nichollas, et al., 2010; Shen, 2009; Unsworth, 2012), as well as self-leadership and emotional intelligence (e.g. Bar On, 2010; Boss, & Sims, 2008; Furtner, et al., 2010; Depape et al, 2006; Houghton et al., 2012; Low & Nelson, 2005), and on the relationship between work-stress and emotional intelligence (e.g. Bushara, & Parvaiz, 2012; Brink, 2009; King, & Gardner, 2006; Naidoo, & Pau, 2008; Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Ould, 2010; Rivera-Torres et al., 2013; Rooprai & Sunil, 2009).

Self-leadership has a broad spectrum of theoretical origins influencing its definition and the way it is viewed as an individual and team performance energiser. Self-leadership is a normative or prescriptive model which advocates empowering employees, and operates on different psychological theories. Instead of suggesting discontinuation, self-leadership builds on social cognitive, self-control, self-management, self-regulation and intrinsic motivation theories, integrating them in a

set of behavioural and cognitive strategies that improve individuals' self-regulation and self-direction (Neck & Houghton, 2006).

According to Carmeli et al. (2006), Hauschildt and Konradt (2013), Houghton and Yoho (2005), as well as Neck and Houghton (2006), self-leadership theory is a tool that can be used by leaders within organisations to enhance their performance, as well as of that of their subordinates. It breeds personal as well as organisational effectiveness. Employees are empowered to control their behaviour, by influencing and lead themselves through a specific set of behavioural and cognitive strategies. Self-leadership's goal is to make an individual feel accomplished irrespective of any challenge (Manz, 2006; Kazan & Bryant, 2013). Furthermore, self-leadership is best described in terms of evolving models that conceptualise the concept. The models suggest that self-leadership extends beyond behavioural and cognitive strategies to psychological and physiological components. Thus it encompasses a comprehensive view concerning the potential of an individual to truly self-lead him- or herself which is impacted by their condition of intrapsychic, spiritual levels, fitness level and their nutritional in-take, as well as the situation or challenge faced (Houghton & Yoho, 2005).

Self-leadership also encompasses several predictable outcomes associated with the application of self-leadership strategies. These include self-efficacy, creativity, job satisfaction, psychological empowerment and job performance. These outcomes may serve as the mechanisms that affect individual, group and organisational performance. There are also several organisational and personal factors that influence self leadership, as well as benefits of self-leadership for both organisations and individuals.

The importance of self-leadership is emphasised by presentation of the age differences in self-leadership. Norris (2008) explains that the practice of self-leadership increases with age. However, D'Intino et al. (2007); Kazan (1999), Kazan and Earnest (2000), Ricketts et al. (2012), as well as Ugurluoglu et al. (2013) state that the use of self-leadership decreases as individuals get older and gain more

experience at work. The concept of self-leadership within the context of nursing leadership was also highlighted. Given the chaotic nursing leadership environment, the concept of self-leadership was identified as key to strengthening and empowering nurses in leadership positions (Diaz, 2008). According to Wicker (2008) the practice of self-leadership in nursing is further affected by work-stress and emotional intelligence.

Work-stress is defined as a response that results when stressors, in a form of work demands, are perceived as excessive and challenge an individual's ability to cope. Furthermore, work-stress is indicative of the natural limit of human endurance and resilience, and is part of life, being both destructive and constructive (Vogel, 2006). Stressors are either environmental, through the interaction of individuals and their environment, and/or psychological, through interpersonal interactions. Different models of work-stress were identified and are described diagrammatically in Cox and MacKay's transactional model, which was particularly of relevance to this study. In addition, nursing leadership is identified as one of the professions most affected by work-stress due to the nature of the nursing environment. Nursing leaders' work-stress is a combination of the unpleasant situation of the work environment as well as the increased span of control and responsibility (Sinha, 2010).

Furthermore, emotional intelligence addresses the emotional, personal, social, and survival sub-dimensions of the environment. There are various evolving definitions of emotional intelligence as well as differences inherent to the different competing models conceptualising emotional intelligence. Goleman's competency-based model was identified as a model more suited to this study. The model was developed specifically for application in the work environment. Common components in the conceptualisation of emotional intelligence were highlighted, and the different factors that contribute to the development of emotional intelligence within the individual and the organisation were discussed, with cognisance of convincing arguments evolving from the field of neuroscience. It was further argued that emotional intelligence constitutes positive consequences. The literature study served to underpin the theory of emotional intelligence on nursing leadership. Emotional intelligence was identified

as a necessary concept for nursing leadership, as it buffers the pressures that accompany nursing leadership.

In addition, there is a relationship between self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence. The negative effects of work-stress reduce the use of self-leadership strategies. When individuals are overwhelmed and pressured at work, their ability to self-influence is reduced, which negatively affects self-leadership and emotional intelligence. In contrast, emotional intelligence enhances self-leadership. The ability to regulate emotions offers the potential to reduce both negative thoughts and dysfunctional behaviours resulting from work-stress.

Self-leadership on the other hand helps create positive psychological worlds by allowing individuals to choose what to think about and how to think about it. The content of the psychological worlds then shapes how one behaves and feels. This in turn influences an individual's experience of work-stress and emotional intelligence competencies.

Finally, it is evident that self-leadership is an important concept, and has been studied by several researchers however, a gap exists regarding the factors that have an effect on the practice and quality of self-leadership. Therefore, the literature review for the current study served to highlight the importance of self-leadership, as well as how levels of work-stress and emotional intelligence contribute to the use of the self-leadership skills in the workplace. Thus, filling this gap in the literature can be seen as one of the most important contributions of this study.

8.3 METHODOLOGY

As discussed in chapter 6, the study sample consisted of nurses in leadership positions at the Ministry of Health, Lesotho. Data collection was done at different hospitals and health centres across the country. The population size was 273. Sekaran (2001) states that the sample size should be approximately 159 to be representative of this study population. The respondents were selected through the non-probability sampling method of convenience sampling. Three questionnaires

were used to collect the needed data from the respondents. The Biographical Questionnaire was used to acquire the demographic details, which are the statistical characteristics of the respondents. The Revised Self-leadership Questionnaire was used to collect data on self-leadership, while the Experience of Life and Work Circumstances instrument was used to assess respondent's work-stress, and the Emotional Intelligence Index was used to measure emotional intelligence. All the questionnaires are self-report measures. The questionnaires have proven reliability and validity, and have been standardised for the South African population, including blacks, therefore applicable to the sample included in this study.

8.4 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

In this section, conclusions are made on the descriptive statistics in this study. Conclusions are based on the biographical description of the sample and the mean score and standard deviation reported.

8.4.1 Biographical description of the sample

The sample of this study consisted of nursing leadership positions, with over 56.8% respondents being nursing officers. Most officers (70%) have served for 10 years or more, while 92% of respondents have a qualification higher than standard 10, with an additional 3 years. The respondents were composed of both male and female officers, with females being predominant at (87.1%). The majority of respondents (20) have 3 dependents. Furthermore, more than half of the respondents (79.4%) are married, 87.7% of respondents have Sesotho as their home language, while the age groups ranged from 20 to 60 years, with the majority falling within 36 to 50 years of age.

8.4.2 The mean scores and standard deviations

The mean and standard deviations of the sample were measured by the RSLQ, WLQ and the EQI. The RSLQ has a total mean score of 135.2784, and a standard deviation of 21.18433. WLQ mean scores for level of work-stress were 77.2887, with causes outside the work environment being 35.9161, and causes of work-stress

within the organisation ranged from 17.3355 to 44.0839. The EQI has a total mean score of 83.3003, and a standard deviation of 39.07226.

In the next section, conclusions are made regarding the results of the inferential statistics.

8.5 INFERENCE STATISTICS

Inferential statistics provided conclusions from reliability studies, as well as conclusions from the variables in work-stress (as measured by the WLQ) and emotional intelligence (as measured by the EQI), which were found to significantly predict or explain self-leadership (as measured by RSLQ). The significance of the relationship between the predictor variables was also determined (Pearson).

8.5.1 Reliability coefficients

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient was determined for measurement instruments used in the current study, namely the RSLQ, EQ Index and the WLQ. Good to very good reliability could be demonstrated for all the subscales and the overall scale. In this study, the reliability coefficient for RSQL sub-dimensions ranged from 0.64 to 0.85. The coefficients were acceptable and consistent with reliabilities of several other studies (Andressen & Konradt, 2007; Mahembe et al., 2013; Nuebert & Wu, 2006).

Regarding the EQ Index sub sub-dimensions, Rahim and Minors (2003) reported reliabilities ranging from 0.62 to 0.98. A South African study by Van Staden (2007) obtained reliability coefficients ranging between 0.84 and 0.94. In this study, reliabilities for EQI index sub-dimensions ranged from 0.85 to 0.89. This indicates very good and acceptable reliability, which is consistent with previous studies.

Recent literature on the psychometric properties of WLQ subscales, indicated reliability coefficient alphas of 0.72 to 0.92 (Oosthuizen & Koortzen, 2012). This study achieved reliability coefficients between 0.75 and 0.90, which are highly satisfactory and acceptable.

Thus, the RSLQ, EQ Index and WLQ scales can be interpreted with confidence both in this study and in future research.

8.5.2 Stepwise multiple regression analysis

The results of regression analysis and Pearson correlation indicated that there are several significant predictions and relations between the sub-dimensions of self-leadership and the sub-dimensions of work-stress and emotional intelligence.

8.5.2.1 Self-leadership total

As evident in table 7.5 of the results, self-leadership (total) is not influenced by either work-stress (total) nor is emotional intelligence (total), rather is influenced by the EQI dimension (self-regulation) and work-stress dimension (physical working conditions).

The inverse relationship between self-leadership (total) and self-regulation in this study indicates that, for participants in this study, an increase in self-regulation will lead to a decrease in the use of self-leadership skills. This finding is mirrored in Neck and Manz's (2007) explanation that control and regulation of thoughts and behaviours are marginal to self-leadership, as self-leadership refers to control and regulation of thoughts and behaviours. Self-leadership is thus rooted in a cognitive-behavioural domain, and may not necessarily influence, or may even lower, affect-emotion (Furtner et al., 2010).

However, Moafian and Ghanizadeh (2009) as well as Gundlach, Martinko and Douglas (2003) argue to the contrary, that effective self-regulation leads to greater self-leadership. Effective self-regulation assists individuals in generating causal attributions, resulting in emotional reactions that either enhance or minimise damage to self-efficacy beliefs, increasing self-leadership skills. Recent research has also provided some empirical evidence in support of this relationship (Houghton & Neck, 2011).

Furthermore, good physical working conditions are found to positively influence self-leadership (total). Physical working conditions include the availability of resources

needed to execute the job, as well as the provision of adequate, pleasant physical working conditions (Vogel, 2006). Renn and Huning (2008) suggest that adequate or good physical working conditions can increase self-leadership by promoting feelings of optimism and competency within an individual. Adequate resources with which to carry out tasks this can play an extrinsic motivational role, as they are instrumental in achieving work goals (Van den Broeck, Vansteenkiste, De Witte, & Lens, 2008).

Sahin (2010) also reported that employees' favourable view of their physical working environment (such as availability of resources) positively affected their practice of self-leadership (Neck & Houghton, 2006; Renn & Huning, 2008). Furthermore, adequate working conditions such as availability of information, lead to an increase in self-leadership strategies such as self-observation, where employees condition themselves to use environmental information and pleasant working conditions, to improve work behaviour (Bramming, 2008).

8.5.2.2 Visualising successful performance

Visualising successful performance involves mental imagery of successful performance at work (Neck, Nouri, & Godwin, 2003). Participants in this study deemed it important to visualise their roles in practice and imagine themselves performing well on these roles. Participants often mentally rehearse the way they will deal with a challenge before they actually face the challenge. This assisted in building the right attitude towards work, giving participants inner mental strength to pursue challenges in anticipation of successful results (Mansor et al., 2013).

In this study, visualising successful performance was negatively influenced by the level of work-stress, suggesting that those with lower levels of work-stress should be able to visualise successful performance effectively. Levels of work-stress were associated with stressors such as high job demands, role ambiguity and conflicts at the work-place. This can consequently lead to feelings of stress such as anxiety, depression or frustration (Mark & Smith, 2008). Low levels of work-stress however, allow clear thinking which enables the purposeful use of imagination to picture successful performance of important tasks, or reactions to certain pressures,

situations and challenges prior to their occurrence (Dahl, 2012). This means those with low levels of work-stress are able to map out ways in which to deal with challenges beforehand (Houghton, Neck & Manz, 2003).

According to Dahl (2012), low levels of work-stress will result in the ability to focus on all of the positive energy that will emanate during actual performance. Actions thus find new focus and inner guidance towards fulfilling that which the mind has set as the desired result, successful presentation. Low level of work-stress will allow the experience to become familiar, comfortable, and solidly imprinted in a neural map, so that when it is time for actual performance, reserved positive energy built up during visualisation can be tapped into (Dahl, 2012).

The Raj Soin College of Business (2012) also reported an interrelationship between visualising successful performance and levels of work-stress among sports and managerial personalities. Low levels of work-stress give an individual confidence to imagine successful performance, while visualising this successful performance lower levels of work-stress, by lowering the anticipation of failure or increasing the perception of successful performance (Dahl, 2012; Neck et al., 2003).

Rusok (2011) adds that imagining good performance on important tasks before actual performance strengthens the actual ability to perform the tasks, simultaneously alleviating performance anxiety. Work-stress is experienced when a threat that cannot be managed effectively is perceived, which could block successful imagination. However, in low levels of work-stress self-confidence improves, as does the ability to visualise successful performance in dealing with work challenges.

8.5.2.3 Self-goal setting

Locke and Latham (2006) state that self-goal setting provides direction for performance at work and in life, it is one of the most important strategies regarding the achievement of goals. Self-goal setting provides motivation for performance, as well as generation of creative ideas. Participants in this study establish specific goals relevant to their activities, and work towards these goals in their daily performance.

Self-goal setting was enhanced by poor task characteristics in the current study. The higher the work-stress resulting from task characteristics, the more likely an individual is to set personal goals. Barrick, Mount and Li (2011) purport that job characteristics determine the individual's motivation through implicit personal goals. Thus, the content of the job influences work behaviour such as the motivation to set and achieve personal goals. This implies that those who are faced with poor task-characteristics, such as lack of sufficient information about the job, may enhance set specific goals to maintain performance or increase motivation (Deshon & Gillespe, 2005).

Self-goal setting is also negatively associated with levels of work-stress and poor physical working conditions. Thus, when employees experience high levels of work-stress, as well as issues or stress emanating from physical working conditions, self-goal setting behaviour will decrease. According to Marshall et al. (2012), high levels of work-stress and poor working conditions erode emotional and mental resources, reducing the ability to map out goals. This leads to low creativity in decision making and the establishment of personal goals (Marshall et al., 2012).

However, those with lower levels of work-stress should be able to set personal goals. Shirey (2006) suggests that those with low levels of work-stress are in a clear state of mind, and are therefore able to focus on and achieve specific desired goals. Low levels of work-stress enhance feelings of capability and competence in performing a job, increasing motivation towards purpose and goals (Shirey, 2006).

In predicting self-goal setting, changes in EQI self-regulation also contributed significantly, suggesting that an individual's ability to set personal goals is enhanced by their ability to control their emotions or impulses. This is in line with Houghton et al. (2012), Kazan (1999), as well as Bryant and Kazan (2013) who suggest that self-regulation should allow individuals to identify opportunities, act accordingly, and orientate themselves to set and accomplish goals. Through self-regulation, also individuals are able to prevent themselves from deviating from set goals (Hughes & Terrell, 2012).

8.5.2.4 Self-talk

Participants in this study reported the use of positive self-talk as an aid in managing daily challenges at work. This strategy helped to reinforce the desire to succeed in challenging situations, by enhancing self-esteem when nursing leaders were faced with unfamiliar leadership activities, and increasing their assertiveness when making leadership choices or decisions (Shirey, 2007; Mansor et al., 2013).

The results of this study indicated a negative association between self-talk and career matters associated with concern about issues such as progress at jobs and job security (Szilas, 2011). Thus, employees faced with uncertainty about future position within the organisation were less able to access self-leadership behaviours such as self-talk. Due to low levels of self-efficacy individuals are unclear as to the possibility of positive dialogue. However, Kawondera (2007) suggests that employees who are insecure about their future or jobs, may use self-talk to increase performance as a basis for improving employment opportunities towards reducing uncertainty.

Self-talk is also related to stress resulting from issues outside of work. Thus, participants in this study experiencing work-stress from issues outside of work, such as work-family conflicts or poor economic or health statuses, were less likely to engage in self-dialogue. Dahl (2012) suggests that these issues may appear to be beyond the control of an individual, thus impacting negatively on constructive thought patterns. Work-stress reduces positive thinking, and thus the ability to engage in self dialogue to aid in challenges faced. Houghton et al.(2003) adds that self-talk is directly related to perception of the challenging situation, self-efficacy and the resulting behaviour.

Favourable physical working conditions in this study enhanced self-talk. In this study, those experiencing work-stress from physical working conditions used positive self-talk to confront the situation. Flaxington (2013) suggests that those experiencing work-stress from poor physical working conditions understand that working conditions

are not going to change soon, and use positive self-talk to reframe their working conditions in their minds to avoid failure. Dahl (2012) suggests that this will increase self-leadership by increasing perceived self-efficacy.

8.5.2.5 Self-reward

Self-rewards serve as incentives for personal accomplishments, and are widely recommended to increase personal motivation (Mersino, 2007). Participants who reported rewarding themselves, by taking time off work, taking a break for a cup of coffee, or making a social phone call, found that this reinforced their accomplishments, thus increasing their personal motivation.

A change in self-reward can be explained by changes in empathy according to the results of this study. The inverse relationship means that high levels of empathy reduce motivation and effectiveness to reward desirable behaviour for nursing leaders in this study. Litman (2011) is of the opinion that this may be the result of empathetic behaviour being associated with pro-social behaviour. Thus, a highly empathetic individual's actions are always directed towards the benefit of another, without any self-benefit, hence its association with low self-reward.

In contrast, O'Connell, Christakou, Haffey and Chakrabarti (2013) found that those who are empathetic towards others are also more likely to self-reward. An individual who is empathetic experiences good feelings, and shows activation of reward-related brain areas. Thus, empathy serves as an emotional signal for interpersonal oneness, and is the perception of oneness. Therefore, those concerned about others are more likely to engage in self-interested behaviours such as self-reward (Sturmer, Snyder, Kropp, & Siem, 2006).

Batson (2014) points out that empathy itself can serve as a form of self-reward. Usually, being empathetic towards others may help to gain additional rewards such as a special feeling of pride. This means the additional need evoked by empathy makes helping self-rewarding. Individuals who experience empathy for others in a negative state can find themselves in a negative affective state, a state of temporary

sadness. This negative state creates a need to feel better, which leads to an increased desire to relieve the other individual. Therefore empathy is felt because of a purely egoistic desire to gain self-rewards (Batson, 2014).

8.5.2.6 Evaluating beliefs and assumptions

Evaluating beliefs and assumptions were used by participants in this study to reflect upon, make sense of, and appreciate their own beliefs, values and perceptions. This strategy was used where participants were faced with challenges, and where it was not possible to apply standard categories of analysis and action. Participants reported that they actively evaluated the assumptions they held about a situation and assessed the accuracy of their beliefs about challenging situations they faced. This helps respond to the situations with flexibility of mind and a range of responses (Manz & Neck, 2007).

Evaluating beliefs and assumptions of participants in this study were also positively affected by poor social matters. Thus, for participants in this study, poor social matters increased the likelihood of their engaging in evaluating beliefs and assumptions.

The relationship between evaluating beliefs and assumptions and social matters is alluded to in Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. Bandura (1986) suggests that evaluation of behavioural change (based on beliefs and assumptions) is influenced by the social environment. The social environment therefore provides a framework from which the individual understands their behaviour, evaluates how to change, and improves or sustains that behaviour (Bramming, 2008).

On the other hand, organisational matters are found to negatively affect an individual's ability to evaluate beliefs and assumptions. Organisational matters include issues such as a share in decision-making, trust in the supervisor, effective communication and effective organisational structure. Dahl (2012) adds that organisational matters are important to personal effectiveness, but are usually

outside the control of employees. Therefore avoidance coping may be used to deal with work-stress.

Evaluating beliefs and assumptions are also associated with EQI self-regulation. The negative relationship implies that the ability to control emotions and impulses associated with self-regulation may result in a decreased evaluation of beliefs and assumptions. There were no studies found to concur with these findings.

8.5.2.7 Self-punishment

Participants in this study reported feeling guilt after poor performance of activities or failure to achieve a goal in a specified time. Therefore, self-punishment was used by participants in this study to regulate negative behaviour through internal negative speech and withdrawal of positive reinforce.

Poor task characteristics were found to predict self-punishment. The positive influence suggests that those experiencing work-stress from task characteristics are more likely to engage in self-punishment behaviour. Participants in this study therefore reported that an inability to fulfil characteristics of the jobs, or a lack of them in a job, lead to self-correcting behaviour. Dahl (2012) concurs, reporting that task characteristics, such as highly challenging job demands, were found to increase the use of self-punishment strategies. Braynt and Kazan (2013) suggest that self-punishment is dependent on the completion of an activity. Those who do not find meaning or purpose in their work, are confused about their role and are therefore unable to execute tasks properly or finish activities, may engage in self-punishment behaviour as a self-modification effort to increase performance (Dahl, 2012).

Furthermore, Addae (2006) states that meaningful work is the way one expresses the meaning and purpose of one's life through work activities. In essence, meaningful work is that which gives real substance to what one does, which brings a sense of fulfilment to one's life, and contributes significantly to one's purpose in life. Self-punishment therefore may increase the lack of meaning as a way to enhance persistence. Dahl (2012) adds that positive self-criticism can help to honestly redefine

values and the manner in which individuals live their lives and work, which could bring new meaning and purpose to life and work.

Self-punishment has also been found to be negatively influenced by EQI motivation. Motivation is the ability to control behavioural aspects of emotions. Astray-Caneda, Busbee, and Fanning (2011) state that self-punishment is a result of self-judgement. Self-judgement takes place when an individual compares their observations of their own behaviour with standards set by society. Therefore those who are not motivated, and observe themselves as behaving in less desirable ways, are more likely to engage in correcting behaviour such as self-punishment. Thus, a lack of motivation will lead to self-criticism because of poor performance, or performance that does not meet the expected standards.

A lack of motivation is seen as a transgression. In this way, self-punishment is used as an adaptive function to increase motivation. However, Weiten (2010) warns against excessive use of self-punishment. If self punishment is overused it can lead to destructive behaviours and impaired motivation (Weiten, 2010).

8.5.2.8 Self-observation

Participants in this study used self-observation to establish when, or whether, their behaviour was in alignment with goals and beliefs. Therefore they pay attention to how well they are doing and keep track record of their activities.

Self-observation was predicted by low levels of work-stress in this study. The inverse relationship implies that those experiencing low levels of work-stress were more able to engage in self-observation. Dahl (2012) states that for an individual to understand his or her levels of work-stress, they must engage in observation. Low levels of work-stress therefore allow for the shift of attention to the inner self towards consciousness of the inner psychological state. This provides the ability to better understand thought processes and behaviours (Lovelace et al., 2007; Manz & Neck, 2006).

There was also a positive relationship between self-observation and physical working conditions in this study. It is therefore concluded that for participants in this study, an increase in poor working conditions lead to an increase in self-observation. According to Jacqueline (2008), physical working conditions affect the psychological contract between the employer and employee, thus impacting on the engagement, commitment and motivation levels of employees. Self-observation allows employees to remain independent of their physical working conditions, which generates recovery of essential commitment to work and personal effectiveness (Jacqueline, 2008).

The variance in self-observation in this study can also be statistically explained by changes in self-regulation and social skills. Self-regulation negatively influences self-observation. Thus, participants who are able to control their emotions and choose their actions accordingly, are less likely to observe their behaviour. There were no studies found that correlate with these results.

On the other hand, social skills influence self-observation positively. This means that high levels of social skills increase the ability to self-observe. According to Astray-Caneda et al. (2012), social skills increase the ability to self-observe as they promote pro-social behaviour and an understanding of the consequences of behaviour. That is, nursing leaders in this study used their status and social interactions with colleagues, as a barometer to keep track of how well work was being done.

8.5.2.9 Focusing on natural reward

Focusing on natural rewards was one of the strategies most used by nursing leaders in this study. Participants reported making an effort to perform their activities in enjoyable ways, as well as focusing on parts of the job that provide more fulfilment. In this way, more self-control and purpose is gained.

In the results of this study, focusing on natural rewards was positively influenced by remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy, while levels of work-stress negatively influenced the focus on natural rewards. Therefore, the degree to which nursing leaders focused on thinking of the pleasant rather than the unpleasant aspects of the job, or found pleasant ways of performing tasks, was increased by

work-stress experienced from organisational remuneration, fringe benefits, and personnel policy. Lee and Turban (2010) state that focusing on natural rewards influences attention, effort, and sustained achievement. Those who feel that are not being compensated fairly may choose to focus on intrinsic rewards of the job, to increase commitment and achievement of goal pursuit, towards achieving better performance.

However, focusing on natural rewards is also associated with low levels of work-stress. Unsworth and Mason (2012) argue that focusing on natural rewards allows an individual to buffer the effects of work-stress. Those who focus on the intrinsic enjoyment from performing tasks are less likely to experience high levels of work-stress (Neck & Manz, 2007). These results indicate that applying natural rewards to tasks makes the work less draining, enabling employees to be more effective. This argument is consistent with the underlying principle of natural rewards theory, which is that a sense of competence will be enhanced when tasks are approached in ways that draw on positive attitudes, personal interests, and a sense of purpose (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Furthermore, EQI self-regulation predicts a variance in focusing on natural rewards. The negative influence indicates that low self-regulation should increase the focus on natural rewards in this study. These results are not consistent with Wagner, Altman, Boswell, Kelley, and Heatherton (2013), who found that focus on natural rewards increased with self-regulation. Individuals who focus on natural rewards use self-control to immerse themselves in their activities. These individuals are able to keep their emotions and disruptive impulses in check, so that they can focus on the intrinsic rewards of their activities (Lee & Turban, 2010).

8.5.2.10 Self-cueing

Self-cueing was also utilised by participants in this study. Participants reported using lists and notes as reminders for daily activities.

In this study, self-cueing was predicted by the physical working environment. The positive relationship means that an increase in work-stress from the physical working conditions lead to an increase in the participant's ability to set reminders and attention focusers that helped identify important areas in their jobs. Bryant and Kazan (2013) state that in a physically challenging environment, individuals may use self-cueing to move from one state of mind to another. A simple strategy is to use physical objects as a reminder of what needs to be done, or where attention needs to be focussed. A list of pending tasks is also often used to provide the basis for a feeling of personal accomplishment and reward as items are crossed off the list (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Lastly, results also indicated that self-cueing was influenced by empathy. The negative relationship between self-cueing and empathy indicates that self-cueing should be increased by lower levels in empathy. No other studies were found to correlate self-cueing, or its sub-dimensions, with empathy.

8.5.3 Independent t-tests results

The results presented in table 7.17 in chapter 7 illustrated no statistically significant differences in self-leadership between the age groups in the sample included in this study. That is, respondents' levels of self-leadership in this study are the same, irrespective of age. However, D'Intino et al. (2007); Ricketts et al. (2012), Kazan (1999), as well as Ugurluoglu et al. (2013) found statistically significant differences in age groups with regards to self-leadership. Accordingly it was reported that younger individuals use self-leadership strategies more than older individuals. Ricketts et al. (2012) adds that, although younger employees have less to lose in terms of career investment, they are inclined to take risks and implement more self-leadership strategies when embarking on a job. These strategies are used by younger individuals to establish themselves and promote personal effectiveness in their careers (Ricketts et al., 2012).

8.5.4 Correlation results

The correlation results presented in this section are additional to the results of the multiple regression analysis. The correlation results indicated that there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and self-leadership. As per the negative correlation, emotional intelligence will decrease when self-leadership increases, and vice versa. However Boss and Sims (2008), D'Intino et al. (2007), and Houghton et al. (2012) found a positive relationship between emotional intelligence and self-leadership. That means individuals who are high in emotional intelligence are likely to be effective in leading themselves. Likewise, high self-leadership may help individuals to become more emotionally intelligent, Furtner et al. (2012), contrary to the results of this study.

8.5.5 Summary of conclusions

The intention of this study was to contribute to the body of knowledge on the effects of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership, specifically in a nursing leadership context. The above conclusions illustrate that respondents have basic knowledge of self-leadership concepts, and are able to implement these concepts in their jobs. Participants demonstrated the practise of skills such as self-observation, establishment of personal goals, and the use of imagination to picture successful performance of important activities, to mention but a few. Furthermore, generally low to average levels of work-stress were exhibited by participants, except in the case of remuneration, fringe benefits, personnel policy and causes outside of work.

A positive relationship was found between the sub-dimensions of self-leadership and work-stress. Thus, individuals who experienced or were exposed to work-stress used higher degrees of self-leadership strategies in this study. The implication is that when individuals feel pressured by work demands and other stressors at work, they engage in self-influencing behaviours to cope with the situation. Therefore for participants in this study, work-stress predisposed individuals to engage in self-leadership behaviours. These results are consistent with most literature, where it is found that self-leadership skills raise awareness and alter individuals' thoughts and behaviour. By changing patterns of thought, individuals increase their ability to

manage work-stress. Literature also indicated that increased self-leadership results in increased self-efficacy, which in turn improves the ability to manage work-stress (Boss & Sims, 2008; Dahl, 2012; Houghton et al., 2012; Shen, 2009).

The above results are accompanied by a generally negative relationship between emotional intelligence and self-leadership. Houghton and Neck (2010) state that, even though self-leadership and emotional intelligence are related, they remain distinct concepts. Self-leadership involves modulating thoughts, while emotional intelligence involves modulating emotions (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Furthermore, Hambleton (2006) adds that nursing leaders may not be effective in their use of emotional intelligence due to the fact that nurses in general are not encouraged to exhibit emotions at work, as it is considered to reflect a lack of professionalism. Nursing leaders have therefore learnt to suppress their emotions, and instead exercise more control of their jobs through self-leadership. However, Shirey et al. (2013) states that by suppressing their emotions, nursing leaders are denying themselves one of the best tools in promoting their self-leadership and combating the effects of work-stress.

Wicker (2008) adds that less stressful nursing work environments, greater awareness and understanding of nursing leaders' feelings, and allowing the expression thereof, can lead to better working practices and both personal and organisational effectiveness symptomatic of effective self-leadership.

In conclusion, nursing leaders' knowledge of self-leadership is useful, although insufficient. Nursing leaders can use their knowledge of self-leadership skills more effectively to prevent work-stress and improve their emotional intelligence. It is on the basis of these conclusions that future and specific recommendations are made for this study.

Recommendations for future research and recommendations specific to the current are presented below.

8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the literature review and the results provided from this study, several recommendations for future research, and for the study sample, are hereafter presented.

8.6.1 General recommendations

Self-leadership demands increased research attention given its potential positive implications for enhancing individual performance and effectiveness, and adapting to organisational change, and its potential to substitute formal leadership (Nurbert & Wu, 2010). However, focus has been placed on the commercial context. It is, therefore, necessary to explore the role of self-leadership in other contexts. This research serves as a good foundation for future research on the effects of work-stress and emotional intelligence on self-leadership amongst nursing leaders.

Andressen et al. (2012) demonstrates the positive effects of self-leadership on individual members' proficiency, adaptivity, and proactivity in teams. Future research should therefore continue to explore self-leadership in teams to enhance team effectiveness, especially interdisciplinary teams, such as those in health environments. Additional research is also necessary to further explore other potential mediating and moderating variables of self-leadership.

This research indicates that emotional intelligence has a low influence on self-leadership, whereas self-leadership has stronger ties with work-stress. Therefore further research should explore this relationship in other contexts, amongst other nursing work groups. Additional research can investigate the possibility of self-leadership as a preventative measure against work-stress. Furthermore, this study was carried out in a specific cultural context. Empirical research efforts could also be directed to further examination of the cultural aspects of self-leadership, as well as emotional intelligence and work-stress. Dahl (2012) states that most research on self-leadership has been conducted in the United States of America, and recently in Asia (Dahl, 2012). Therefore, there is a need for more research on how self-leadership strategies can be used in an African context.

Future research in the nursing environment should also be conducted to replicate the findings of this investigation. When additional analyses are conducted, investigators should consider using other statistical techniques, such as hierarchical regression or structural equation modelling, as well as more objective measures that are not self-reporting, to further validate the results. Due to academic nature of this study, it was limited in terms of time and resources. Therefore further research may also examine other nurses in other health institutions that are non- governmental. This can be done to further explore the relationship between the study variables in this specific sample, and as a matter of comparison between nurses in different institutions. Lastly, future research may explore the differences in age groups in a longitudinal study to examine whether there are changes in self-leadership among the current younger age group as they grow older.

8.6.2 Specific recommendations

Specific recommendations are presented in this section. The recommendations include developing self-leadership skills, development of emotional intelligence by nursing leaders, employee health and wellness programs, and participation and recognition.

8.6.2.1 Developing self-leadership skills

Based on the results of this study, development of self-leadership skills entails empowering nursing leaders to actively acquire and use their self-leadership knowledge to be proactive in responding to challenges of their work environment. Building on self-leadership competencies through practice can create a strong foundation of knowledge and skills that will ultimately impact on hospitals at the unit-level, where the impact of nursing leaders on staff and patients is the greatest (Shirey, 2012). The following suggestions are made.

8.6.2.1.1 Total self-leadership

According to Van Zyl (2007), it is through executive leadership commitment that a culture of self-leadership can be cultivated and maintained within an organisation. Regular communication sessions on successes achieved, as well as problems

experienced, can be implemented. In this way, a self-leadership culture can be created which could establish an improved and more productive nursing leadership. It should be endeavoured to create an environment in which self-leadership can be applied (Van Zyl, 2007). Self-leadership should be seen as a central element in organisational processes such as leadership, control and management in general. By implementing self-leadership practices, and integrating traditional individual values and beliefs, nursing leaders will be supported in the achievement of their potential both at work and in life.

8.6.2.1.2 Visualising successful performance

Brynt and Kazan (2013) suggest that both physical and psychological reactions in certain situations can be improved with visualisation. Such repeated imagery can build both experience and confidence in an individual's ability to perform certain skills under pressure, or in a variety of possible situations. Nursing leaders should effectively use visualisation to create vivid experiences in which they have complete control over a successful performance, and a belief in them. Purposely visualising how to overcome the challenges faced, and mentally rehearsing how to overcome a challenge before it happens, will allow nursing leaders to handle feelings of pressure that may otherwise lead to high levels of work-stress.

8.6.2.1.3 Self-goal setting:

Deshon and Gillespie (2005) recommend that realistic behavioural and cognitive goals, connected to specific time-frames, should be set. Nursing leaders must maintain and update their personal goals as they relate to career, family and overall life planning. They must consciously have the goals in mind for work effort, work towards specific goals, write down goals and incorporate self-monitoring.

The nature of nursing leadership is characterised by ambiguity and a lack of autonomy due to hierarchical structures of health institutes (Osbourne, 2006). Thus, nursing leaders can use this challenge to set specific personal goals to increase their effort and motivation, towards achieving their role within these environments. These

will reduce their level of work-stress and alleviate pressure from their physical working conditions (Neck & Manz, 2007).

Nursing leaders must also periodically seek feedback on their performance from their supervisors, as well as their subordinates. The leader may also appoint a mentor who will hold him or her accountable for accomplishing these goals. Such performance monitoring will also help improve the nursing leader's self-regulation.

8.6.2.1.4 Positive self-talk

Nursing leaders should be aware of their own self-talk. Constant negative thoughts or patterns of thinking should be changed. One should try to search for opportunities rather than obstacles (Van Zyl, 2009). Bryant and Kazan (2013) suggest keeping a journal of one's thoughts throughout the day, as well as changing self-limiting statements such as "I can't do this or its impossible" to questions such as "how can I do this" or "how is this possible".

Through this exercise, nursing leaders will be able to better understand how they can reframe their inner dialogues and thought processes, toward a more positive mode that may enhance their positive affect, their self-efficacy for dealing with their career matters and issues outside of work, and ultimately their work-stress coping skills (Houghton et al., 2012).

8.6.2.1.5 Self- rewards

Nursing leaders should learn to give themselves rewards when they have attained an objective. Rewards could include buying a favourite book, or travelling to a favourite getaway for the weekend.

8.6.2.1.6 Evaluating beliefs and assumptions

It is important that nursing leaders build strong, supportive relationships with their peers, subordinates and other health workers. This will provide a healthy social environment that will allow change in behaviour through evaluation of beliefs and assumptions.

8.6.2.1.7 Self-punishment

This strategy is useful when implemented as self-correcting feedback which includes acknowledging when goals were not achieved. It is important to understand the reasons for this, seek advice from other individuals or a professional if needed. These will help nursing leaders to gain a better or a different perspective on their performance, and will reduce ambiguity associated with the characteristics of a nursing leader's role.

8.6.2.1.8 Self-observation

It is essential that individuals observe and gather information about themselves, including strengths and weaknesses. This will lead to discovery of situations that create high levels of work-stress, and ways to effectively deal with this to minimise the effect of work-stress. Nursing leaders should focus on those aspects which should be developed, while constantly being aware of the strengths. Time should be set aside for honest reflection. This will allow a good understanding of what one is good at or does well, as well as ways to deal effectively with challenges faced.

8.6.2.1.9 Focusing on natural rewards

Milutinovic et al. (2012) suggest keeping a natural rewards inventory. The natural rewards inventory is a tool for discovery of what motivates each individual. Natural rewards result from the discovery of what an individual finds engaging about his or her work.

8.6.2.1.9 Self-cueing

Nursing leaders should improve their self-cueing to strengthen their self-leadership behaviour. Nursing leaders should arrange their physical working environments to allow for cues, such as placing a list of important things to do for the day around the office. This will activate their memory on important events and activities. It is also important to be in an environment surrounded by those who believe in and support them, and to cultivate those relationships. Spending time with those who make them stronger requires intentional effort, and is a key component in being able to move

forward. It is equally important to avoid those individuals who they feel bring them down, waste their time, and take them backward (Manz & Neck, 2010).

In addition it is also important to be in an environment surrounded by individuals who believe in and support them and to cultivate those relationships. Spending time with individuals who make them stronger requires intentional effort, and is a key component in being able to move forward. Equally important is to avoid individuals who they feel bring them down, waste their time, and take them backward (Manz & Neck, 2010).

In conclusion, these practices will help nursing leaders to develop stronger self-leadership embedded in their thinking pattern over a period of time. These behaviours must be repeated over time, and past successes and failures must be analysed to determine how much influence one had on the outcome of the events. By repeatedly analysing the relative contribution of internal versus external factors in shaping events, one may learn to feel more in charge of key events in life (Van Zyl, 2009).

8.6.2.2. Employee health and wellness programs

Even though participants displayed normal levels of work-stress, some causes such as remuneration, fringe benefits, personal policy and causes outside of work environment were high. It is therefore recommended that the ministry develop a comprehensive employee health and wellness program that focuses on the physical, mental, psychological and emotional aspects of employees. These areas are identified to support wholesome regeneration and increased engagement, as well as support healthy behaviour in the workplace and to improve health outcomes. It encompasses the overall creation of a culture of health that will reduce the effects of work-stress from within the work-environment and the outside environment (Lovelace et al., 2007; Syndanmaalakka, 2007).

The results of this study strongly suggest introducing new strategies and measures into nursing working environments to improve the psychosocial and physical health of nurses. The first measure to undertake is to improve the psychosocial work climate

by providing more social and emotional support to nurses from their associates and supervisors. In view of the permanent escalation of professional stressors, creating a supportive working environment is essential for positive health outcomes, prevention of job-related diseases and better protection of already ill nurses. Likewise, nursing leaders need to be trained through a stress-management program. This would boost their confidence and develop abilities to communicate with doctors, and other health workers, which would improve overall teamwork. Managerial skills acquired this way could also reduce work-stress caused by bureaucratic and organisational tasks. Providing other forms of continuous managerial training, and acquiring techniques for handling leadership pressures, represent an important part of workplace wellness (Milutinovic et al., 2012).

8.6.2.3. Developing emotional intelligence

According to the results of this study it is also important that nursing managers manage their emotions in the health care environment, especially in leadership positions. It is essential that when nurses are selected for leadership positions the processes seek out applicants with social and emotional intelligence to assure that a new nursing leader will be able to develop key verbal and written communication skills. This includes being placed under pressure and exhibiting humility in communication, which builds relationships. Having a clear understanding of the need to develop these skills is critical when selecting managers, more so when a nurse chooses to become a nursing leader.

In addition, it is important that nursing leaders maintain composure irrespective of their emotions, manage change effectively, and provide useful and timely feedback, to mention but a few. It is therefore important to identify and investigate emotion evoking events, and map out ways of dealing effectively with emotions at work. and seminars can be organised in order to discuss with the employees how emotions influence outcomes such as work performance, team-work, cooperation, and relationship building. Mentoring relationships can also be built between nursing leaders and subordinates to allow the leaders to develop the emotional and social

capabilities necessary to deal effectively with subordinates (Akerjordet & Severinon, 2010).

Next are implications of the current study research.

8.7 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study includes a theoretical part and practical part. In terms of the theoretical part, the results of this study confirmed that there is a relationship between work-stress, emotional intelligence and self-leadership in the studied group. This result is consistent with studies by Dahl (2012). This finding indicates that the ability of individuals to develop and use self-leadership skills is increased by an individual's perception of their level of work-stress as well as their ability to properly manage emotions.

In terms of practical contributions, the findings of this study can be used as a guideline by management to increase self-leadership and emotional intelligence, and overcome work-stress problems in organisations. This objective may be achieved if practitioners follow the recommendations made.

Limitations of the current study follow next.

8.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The number and the length of, questionnaires may have impacted on the response quality of this study, as they took a great deal of time to complete. Three questionnaires had to be administered for the purpose of this study, which included 35 items for the self-leadership questionnaire and 116 items for work-stress. The third questionnaire consisted of 30 items measuring emotional intelligence.

A summary of the chapter is presented below.

8.9 SUMMARY

In this final chapter, specific conclusions were made on the literature review, the study methodology, as well as the biographical description of the sample, and the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments. The results of the inferential analyses were also argued in conjunction with the stated hypotheses and the objectives of the study. The chapter concludes by providing the limitations of the study, and by giving specific recommendations for future research.

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DEFINATION OF TERMS

Self-leadership; The practice of intentionally influencing your thinking, feeling and behaviours to achieve objectives.

Work-stress; The psychological state that results when the resources of the individual are not sufficient to cope with the demands and pressures of the situation.

Emotional intelligence; The emotional, personal, social and survival sub-dimensions of intelligence. It is concerned with understanding oneself and others, relating to individuals, and adapting to and coping with environmental demands.

Nursing leadership; A registered nurse who manages one or more defined areas within nursing services. An individual who has a line management position for designated patient care services which includes patient care delivery, fiscal and quality outcomes.

For the purposes of this study the nursing leader is also is the person to whom the staff nurses and other auxiliary health workers such as ward attendants and porters report, the person is responsible for evaluating the knowledge and behavioural skill competencies important in the role.

Age; The chronological period of time (in years) that a human being has lived.

Self-efficacy; Individuals's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives.

Appendix A: Table 7.16 correlations of sub-dimensions of self-leadership, work-stress and emotional intelligence

Correlations																									
EQ Index (Self-Awareness)	Pearson Correlation	1	.853**	.795**	.835**	.865**	-.162'	-.203'	.039	-.209**	-.253**	-.305**	-.205*	-.206*	-.297**	-.279**	.934**	.027	.046	.007	-.013	-.092	.158'	-.034	.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.045	.011	.631	.009	.001	.000	.010	.010	.000	.000	.000	.737	.571	.934	.873	.255	.049	.673	.055
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
EQ Index (Self-Regulation)	Pearson Correlation	.853**	1	.828**	.811**	.883**	-.191'	-.247**	-.038	-.195*	-.192*	-.311**	-.252**	-.262**	-.235**	-.305**	.935**	-.001	.013	-.013	-.066	-.130	.075	.077	.234**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.017	.002	.637	.015	.017	.000	.002	.001	.003	.000	.000	.988	.872	.875	.414	.107	.356	.343	.003
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
EQ Index (Motivation)	Pearson Correlation	.795**	.828**	1	.858**	.827**	-.086	-.179'	-.033	-.196*	-.239**	-.349**	-.126	-.214**	-.226**	-.256**	.919**	.016	-.068	-.043	-.052	-.131	.064	.111	.113
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.290	.026	.685	.015	.003	.000	.117	.007	.005	.001	.000	.846	.398	.594	.521	.104	.432	.169	.160
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
EQ Index (Empathy)	Pearson Correlation	.835**	.811**	.858**	1	.866**	-.124	-.200*	-.055	-.234**	-.248**	-.334**	-.123	-.229**	-.307**	-.285**	.935**	-.027	-.006	.008	-.059	-.111	.087	.115	.090
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.123	.013	.501	.003	.002	.000	.126	.004	.000	.000	.000	.735	.938	.917	.469	.171	.281	.153	.264
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
EQ Index (Social Skills)	Pearson Correlation	.865**	.883**	.827**	.866**	1	-.104	-.206*	.023	-.193*	-.185*	-.283**	-.149	-.224**	-.248**	-.245**	.950**	-.112	-.042	-.046	-.125	-.177*	.007	.060	.209**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000		.199	.010	.773	.016	.021	.000	.064	.005	.002	.002	.000	.167	.603	.573	.122	.028	.932	.458	.009
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Visualising Successful Performance	Pearson Correlation	-.162'	-.191'	-.086	-.124	-.104	1	.677**	.336**	.249**	.554**	.448**	.669**	.706**	.235**	.802**	-.143	.073	.126	.168*	.141	.213**	.106	.022	-.239**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.045	.017	.290	.123	.199		.000	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.075	.368	.117	.037	.080	.008	.191	.784	.003
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Self-Goal Setting	Pearson Correlation	-.203'	-.247**	-.179'	-.200*	-.206*	.677**	1	.300**	.353**	.499**	.381**	.765**	.753**	.487**	.841**	-.221**	.242**	.300**	.276**	.285**	.298**	.156	-.103	-.320**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.002	.026	.013	.010	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.006	.002	.000	.001	.000	.000	.053	.200	.000
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Self-Talk	Pearson Correlation	.039	-.038	-.033	-.055	.023	.336**	.300**	1	.095	.138	.284**	.267**	.286**	.169'	.447**	-.012	.051	.022	.156	-.066	-.031	.160'	-.136	.002
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.631	.637	.685	.501	.773	.000	.000		.238	.088	.000	.001	.000	.036	.000	.881	.531	.785	.052	.414	.702	.047	.090	.976
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Self-Reward	Pearson Correlation	-.209**	-.195*	-.196*	-.234**	-.193*	.249**	.353**	.095	1	.483**	.308**	.302**	.448**	.366**	.563**	-.220**	.011	.044	-.025	.069	.078	-.052	.041	-.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.015	.015	.003	.016	.002	.000	.238		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.006	.893	.590	.756	.396	.336	.518	.616	.064
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155
Evalua	Pearson	-.253**	-.192*	-.239**	-.248**	-.185*	.554**	.499**	.138	.483**	1	.420**	.433**	.618**	.302**	.709**	-.240**	.023	.188'	.140	.183'	.239**	.065	-.147	-.115

ting Beliefs and Assumptions	Correlation																									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.017	.003	.002	.021	.000	.000	.088	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003	.780	.019	.082	.023	.003	.423	.068	.155	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Self-Punishment	Pearson Correlation	-.305**	-.311**	-.349**	-.334**	-.283**	.448**	.381**	.284**	.308**	.420**	1	.499**	.493**	.311**	.660**	-.338**	.120	.239**	.190*	.116	.180*	.065	.018	.052	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.139	.003	.018	.151	.025	.420	.829	.517	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Self-Observation	Pearson Correlation	-.205*	-.252**	-.126	-.123	-.149	.669**	.765**	.267**	.302**	.433**	.499**	1	.721**	.382**	.815**	-.184*	.135	.126	.218**	.079	.231**	.128	-.040	-.312**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.002	.117	.126	.064	.000	.000	.001	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.022	.095	.118	.007	.327	.004	.112	.619	.000	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Focusing on Natural Rewards	Pearson Correlation	-.206*	-.262**	-.214**	-.229**	-.224**	.706**	.753**	.286**	.448**	.618**	.493**	.721**	1	.378**	.878**	-.242**	.127	.173*	.168*	.132	.234**	.193*	-.144	-.232**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010	.001	.007	.004	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.002	.116	.031	.036	.102	.003	.016	.073	.004	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Self-Cueing	Pearson Correlation	-.297**	-.235**	-.226**	-.307**	-.248**	.235**	.487**	.169*	.366**	.302**	.311**	.382**	.378**	1	.538**	-.282**	.214**	.162*	.388**	.278**	.314**	.099	.045	.016	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.005	.000	.002	.003	.000	.036	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.008	.044	.000	.000	.000	.223	.579	.840	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
SELFLEAD TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	-.279**	-.305**	-.256**	-.285**	-.245**	.802**	.841**	.447**	.563**	.709**	.660**	.815**	.878**	.538**	1	-.293**	.155	.221**	.254**	.189*	.276**	.147	-.073	-.221**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001	.000	.002	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.055	.006	.001	.018	.001	.068	.365	.006	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
EL TOTAL	Pearson Correlation	.934**	.935**	.919**	.935**	.950**	-.143	-.221**	-.012	-.220**	-.240**	-.338**	-.184*	-.242**	-.282**	-.293**	1	-.020	-.011	-.018	-.066	-.136	.086	.068	.171*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.075	.006	.881	.006	.003	.000	.022	.002	.000	.000		.806	.895	.827	.414	.091	.289	.403	.033	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Organizational Functioning (C)	Pearson Correlation	.027	-.001	.016	-.027	-.112	.073	.242**	.051	.011	.023	.120	.135	.127	.214**	.155	-.020	1	.692**	.537**	.702**	.700**	.574**	-.232**	-.220**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.737	.988	.846	.735	.167	.368	.002	.531	.893	.780	.139	.095	.116	.008	.055	.806		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	.006	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Task Characteristics (C)	Pearson Correlation	.046	.013	-.068	-.006	-.042	.126	.300**	.022	.044	.188*	.239**	.126	.173*	.162*	.221**	-.011	.692**	1	.498**	.697**	.751**	.366**	-.221**	-.201*	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.571	.872	.398	.938	.603	.117	.000	.785	.590	.019	.003	.118	.031	.044	.006	.895	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.006	.012	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	
Physical Working Condition	Pearson Correlation	.007	-.013	-.043	.008	-.046	.168*	.276**	.156	-.025	.140	.190*	.218**	.168*	.388**	.254**	-.018	.537**	.498**	1	.495**	.495**	.472**	-.030	-.112	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.934	.875	.594	.917	.573	.037	.001	.052	.756	.082	.018	.007	.036	.000	.001	.827	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.709	.167	
	N	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	155	

