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Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Style, and Job Satisfaction in Contrasting Workplace Environments

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Walden University

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2016

Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Style, and Job Satisfaction in Contrasting Workplace
Environments

by

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MBA, Walden University, 2005

BS, Grace University, 2004

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Applied Management and Decision Sciences

Walden University

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Abstract

Managers in direct contact with employees in operational and organizational settings have a profound effect on employee satisfaction and performance. The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) indicated distinctly different levels of occupational stress between blue- and white-collar workers. A quasi-experimental design tested if the levels of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style of managers had different effects on employee job satisfaction between blue- and white-collar workers. The theories of emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and employee job satisfaction grounded the framework of the study. Data was collected using the Multifactor Leadership (MLQ) questionnaire, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), and the Emotional Judgement Inventory (EJI) from 35 managers and 120 workers from a single organization located in the State of Texas. Chi-square tests measured the association between the independent variables of blue- and white-collar workers' job satisfaction and the independent variables of the level of managers' emotional intelligence and their transformational leadership style. Data from the EJI and JSS revealed that the managers' level of emotional intelligence had a moderate influence on the blue- and white-collar employees' job satisfaction. Findings also indicated no associations between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style measured by the MLQ and job satisfaction of blue- and white-collar employees measured by the JSS. These findings may indicate that managers should focus on emotional intelligence to improve the level of job satisfaction among blue- and white-collar employees.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Employee turnover, customer satisfaction, and product/service quality are business related constructs that have been extensively researched and directly influenced by managerial/leadership styles and qualities (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011). Although leadership styles (e.g., transformational, transactional, servant-based, laissez-faire) have been extensively researched over the past 20 years, emotional intelligence is a newer and far less researched aspect of effective managerial leadership (Berman & West, 2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles has emerged as an area of interest for scholars and leaders. Goleman (1998) studied the importance of intelligence and the leadership qualities of the manager. Ever since Goleman's initial research, scholars have explored the significance of emotional intelligence in the workplace (Feldman, 1999; Weisenger, 1998).

Some researchers (Berman & West, 2008) suggested that managerial leaders with high emotional intelligence who achieved an appropriate level of status (Prajya, Smriti, & Robert, 2014) may have a direct effect on the organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover intention of their employees. However, Farh, Seo, and Tesluk (2012) argued that research concerning the impact of emotional intelligence on valued organizational outcomes is lacking. In the following section, a brief summary of literature that addresses varying types of leadership behaviors has been presented. This literature review particular emphasis on the importance of emotional intelligence (Berman & West, 2008) and its role in facilitating management functions and improving leadership outcomes (Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010).

Background of the Study

Individuals in positions of authority in business have not consistently treated subordinates in the same manner that they themselves would demand to be treated. In 2012, a President for a Minnesota-based non-profit organization permanently removed all of the office chairs when employees did not meet specific fund raising goals (Working America, 2012). Ironically, the goals, aspirations, and basic needs of frontline employees tend to mirror goals of their managerial counterparts (Rozell, Pettijohn, & Parker, 2011). Researchers have studied the efficacy of contrasting theories of human motivation and management within the workplace (Shafritz, Ott, & Jang, 2015). Scholars have recognized the need to address the untapped motivations of entry-level workers (Berman & West, 2008). Emotional intelligence has become a measure for recognizing effective leaders, and has become an instrument for developing viable leadership skills. Numerous researchers have contended that emotional intelligence is a key variable that influences the leader's performance (Prajya, et al., 2014). Emotional intelligence includes the capacity to comprehend behaviors in social settings, to identify the subtleties of emotional responses, and to use such information to impact others through enthusiastic regulation and control. Emotional intelligence is an essential competency for team performance and effective leadership in workplaces today.

A growing body of evidence suggests that workplaces have begun to transform their approach for addressing manager/subordinate associations (Berman & West, 2008). Wall (2006) reported that industry managers tend to develop their own employees through proper coaching. This trend continues to affect future leadership in respective organizations (Noeverman & Koene, 2012). The necessity for leaders to treat

subordinates better is an area of increasing emphasis in literature and the world of business (Martindale, 2011). The focus has narrowed further where managers assume the role of coach, mentor and employee developer. This creates a need for leaders to complete the tasks of the organization and be effective in work that was once facilitated by human resources personnel (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

A study by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) indicated that the majority of occupational stress cases were experienced by white-collar workers. Specifically, 48% of documented cases of occupational stress occurred in white-collar settings related to technology, sales, and administrative support (BLS, 2009). In addition, BLS identified that 16% of stress cases occurred in managerial and professional jobs. In contrast, as per BLS, 15% of occupational stress cases occurred in blue-collar settings related to manufacturing/fabrication/general labor and 9% in production/repair settings. There are distinct differences in occupational stress between blue- and white-collar work settings and a general acceptance that increased work stress results in lower job satisfaction and higher turnover. Leadership studies continue to be necessary to address employee-related stress (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

Two studies on emotional intelligence among managerial leadership provide direct impetus and the framework for the study. Howard (2008) evaluated emotional intelligence using the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI) as a predictor of job satisfaction. Utilizing the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), Howard studied organizational and occupational commitment among 126 human service workers. Four of the seven dimensions of emotional intelligence had statistically significant correlations with levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and occupational commitment. Findings

of Howard revealed that being aware (BA) of emotions had positive correlation with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment. Managing others' (MO) emotions had strong correlation with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment. Moreover, using emotions in problem solving (PS) and expressing emotions adaptively (EE) were also correlated with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment.

Howard (2008) found that higher emotional intelligence was correlated with higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment among the study participants. Based on the strength of the correlates, Howard concluded that emotional intelligence was a unique predictor of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and occupational commitment among human service workers. One of Howard's recommendations for future study was related to other managers and leaders in various industries, with specific reference to blue-collar (i.e., manufacturing/production) and white-collar (i.e., service) environments. Rajagopalan (2009) examined the strength of associations between emotional intelligence using the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (1998). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles, as measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bass and Avolio (1990), were examined among a group of 134 information systems project managers in virtual teams. Results indicated that a weak (23.8%) predictive association existed between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership, which was not statistically significant.

Hess and Bacigalupo (2011) found that there were statistically significant predictive associations between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership

qualities among different participants working in different types of industries. Emotional intelligence and transactional leadership were not related or predictive, nor were emotional intelligence and laissez-fair leadership qualities. However, Hess and Bacigalupo posited that there may have been many confounding variables influencing emotional intelligence or leadership qualities/style that were limitations of the study (e.g., age, gender, ethnicity, education, tenure/experience, marital status, and income).

Problem Statement

Stress levels and employee dissatisfaction appear to have always been problematic in the traditional workplace (Rozell, et al., 2011). Stress has been shown to correlate with increased sick days, decreased morale, and increased employee turnover (Shafritz, et al., 2015). Many researchers have attempted to measure the level of stress among workers in different organizations (Siukola, Nygård, & Virtanen, 2013). However, stress is likely to vary based on the working environment (Loepp, 2015; Nydegger, 2011). Thus, organizational administrations must be concerned with the environment that surrounds their employees and its impact on their stress levels. An unpleasant workplace environment can cause stress among employees, which may negatively impact the organization and the success of the business (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

This quantitative study was conducted to differentiate between the levels of work stress among blue- and white-collar workers. Based on the strength and direction of associations found in the study, business leaders may have a better understanding of managerial/employee associations related to transformational leadership characteristics, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction ratings. The effort and money spent on

enhancing the highlighted managerial leadership skills may positively impact both blue- and white-collar organizations.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative survey was to use a correlational survey design to test the hypothesis that leadership style influences blue- and white-collar employee job satisfaction, which ultimately impacts the success of a business. The variables of emotional intelligence and leadership style were examined in the study. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI), while leadership style was assessed using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). I examined how results from the EJI and MLQ were associated with employee-reported job satisfaction as reported in the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by selected production workers and office workers.

The independent variables were emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style. Emotional Intelligence was defined using the Corporate Model of Emotional Intelligence (Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010), which is based on a basic definition of emotional intelligence established by Goleman (2004). Emotional Intelligence (EI) was specifically defined by Berman and West (2008) as “a person’s ability to possess the qualities of being aware of the emotions, utilizing or expressing the emotions in problem solving, identifying and managing own emotions, and identifying and managing others’ emotions” (p.744). Transformational leadership is used by leaders who transform or change followers and the organization with emphasis on motivation rather than manipulation (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is defined as “a set of four leadership characteristics (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) that has the effect of transforming the people being led because it taps into their needs, desires, and centers of motivation and meaning” (Berman & West, 2008, p. 745). Transformational leadership is measured by the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

The dependent variable was employee job satisfaction, which was defined as “a measure of employee satisfaction represented by the Job Satisfaction Survey ratings” (Spector, 1985, p. 52). The researcher has included the assessment of job satisfaction among employees working in selected blue- and white-collar work environments as a proxy measure of leadership effectiveness based on emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style. Participants were required to identify their working environment, and more specifically their current job level. The profiles of the participants were assessed for their potential as intervening variables to develop necessary control measures in future versions of the study. If a significant association were found between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership on employee job satisfaction, then appropriate training programs could emphasize the elements to benefit managers, employees, customers, and corporations. Furthermore, the main purpose was to distinguish between the working conditions of the production workers and office workers. This would help to determine how transformational leadership could be effective in ensuring job satisfaction in different working conditions. Managers may be able to understand the need for adopting a different leadership style and emotional intelligence to ensure job satisfaction in different work environments. Although many studies have been conducted to identify the ways for ensuring job satisfaction through different

strategies, the need to analyze employees' job satisfaction in office and production environments was emphasized in the study.

Nature of the Study

The focus of this study was to determine the effects of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style on the job satisfaction level of the employees working in blue- and white-collar environments. Therefore, this study was quantitative in nature and all the variables were measured quantitatively with the help of surveys. This was a non-experimental study and incorporated the descriptive and correlational research design. The researcher developed five hypotheses in order to figure out the association and relation of the different independent and dependent factors in the blue- and white-collar work environments. The surveys used for the purpose of identifying the factors, such as emotional intelligence, leadership style, and job satisfaction level, were quantified with the help of rating scales and were analyzed statistically.

Research Question

The research question developed for this study by keeping in view the overall purpose of this study was:

RQ: What impact do emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style of managers have on the job satisfaction level of the employees working in blue- and white-collar work settings?

Hypotheses

The hypotheses initially emerged through personal interest and questions that arose during partial exposure to the field. This interest was later honed through an exhaustive review of the available literature. During the review process, no studies were identified that successfully confirmed the outcomes of leadership styles and the combination of variables proposed in relation to contrasting types of work environments. It became evident that further inquiry was needed to understand whether or not leadership style has the ability to influence the environment in a capacity that impacts employee outcomes. Whether the outcomes are universal in nature, or if limitations and restrictions are required, may be dependent on the characteristics of contrasting workplace environments. As a result, the following hypotheses were tested.

Null hypothesis 1.

Ho1: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha1: There is a statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Hypothesis 1 will be tested by utilizing chi square test for the purpose of identifying the strength and direction of the differences in association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction in the blue- and white-collar workplace groups. If P value result of emotional intelligence ratings of the leaders and the job satisfaction ratings of employees is less than significance level (0.05), then the null hypothesis can be

rejected. An association between the variables of job satisfaction and emotional intelligence of management can then be assumed.

Null Hypothesis 2.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha2: There is a statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Hypothesis 2 will also be tested by using chi square test. This will identify the strength and direction of differences in associations between the variables of management style and job satisfaction in the blue- and white-collar workplace groups. If P value of management style and job satisfaction is less than significance level (0.05), then the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Null Hypothesis 3.

Ho3: There are no statistically significant associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha3: There are statistically significant associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Hypothesis 3 will follow the same protocol as hypotheses 2 and 3 by utilizing chi square. The end result will demonstrate the direction and strength of potential differences in associations between emotional intelligence and leadership style of managers through job satisfaction ratings. This will depend on the associated blue- or white-collar environment. If a coefficient results in a figure that is sufficiently far from “0” to qualify for significance, it can then be assumed that the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Null hypothesis 4.

Ho4: There are no statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ha4: There are statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

The end result will demonstrate the direction and strength of potential differences in emotional intelligence level of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders. This will depend on the associated blue- or white-collar environment.

Null Hypothesis 5.

Ho5: There are no statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ha5: There are statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

The end result will demonstrate the direction and strength of potential differences in associations between leadership style levels of white- and blue-collar leaders. This will depend on the associated blue- or white-collar environment.

Statistical Measures

The independent variables are the variables which are manipulated to create groups and subgroups and identify the outcomes associated with each. The independent variables are the variables that will be controlled by the researcher in the study. The independent variables of interest include managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style in blue- and white-collar work environments. The independent variables were measured with the help of survey instruments. Emotional intelligence will be measured with the help of EJI instrument and transformational Leadership style will be measured with the help of MLQ survey. The mean scores and the standard deviations of the survey items assisted in measuring the level of emotional intelligence and leadership style of the managers of blue- and white-collar work environments.

The dependent variables are assessed for changes that occur as a function of the treatment or conditions of the independent variables. Examination of how the dependent variable changes will provide insight into the influence of the independent variables. The primary dependent variable of interest involves job satisfaction among employees working in selected blue- and white-collar work environments as a proxy measure of leadership effectiveness. This variable is based on emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style. Job satisfaction was measured using the JSS as developed by Spector (1985). Scoring involved the assessment of 36 survey items using a six-point Likert scale. Calculated mean scores indicated ambivalence if the rating was between 3 and 4, satisfaction if the mean results were higher than 4, and lack of satisfaction if the mean results were 3 or lower.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

Three theories were used for the three variables in the study. Rational choice theory (RCT) was used to frame the variable of job satisfaction. Content and process theories of motivation were used to frame the variable of leadership style. Goleman's (2004) four dimensional ability model was used to frame the variable of emotional intelligence. Goleman (2004) concluded that managerial leaders with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more successful in motivating employee behaviors. The contemporary construct of leadership, known as the transformational style, has been explored roughly by Brown (2009). Transformational leadership has also been related to increased employee motivation, job satisfaction, and other related benefits, according to Brown. However, transformational leadership and emotional intelligence have yet to be fully examined in more current literature concerned with the impact on employee job satisfaction (Brown, 2009).

According to the BLS (2010), distinctly different levels of occupational stress existed among blue- and white-collar workers. White-collar workers experienced more job-related stress and job dissatisfaction. Blue-collar workers showed lower job-related stress and overall job dissatisfaction. Consequently, the variables of interest in order to determine the relationship or association with employees were the emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, job satisfaction, work environment (blue- vs. white-collar), and confounding/demographic variables. Emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2004) and transformational leadership (Brown, 2009) have some effect on the job satisfaction of the employees. The effect of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership on job

satisfaction of employees is also influenced by the work environment and other demographic variables. Therefore, the conceptual framework for the study was follows:

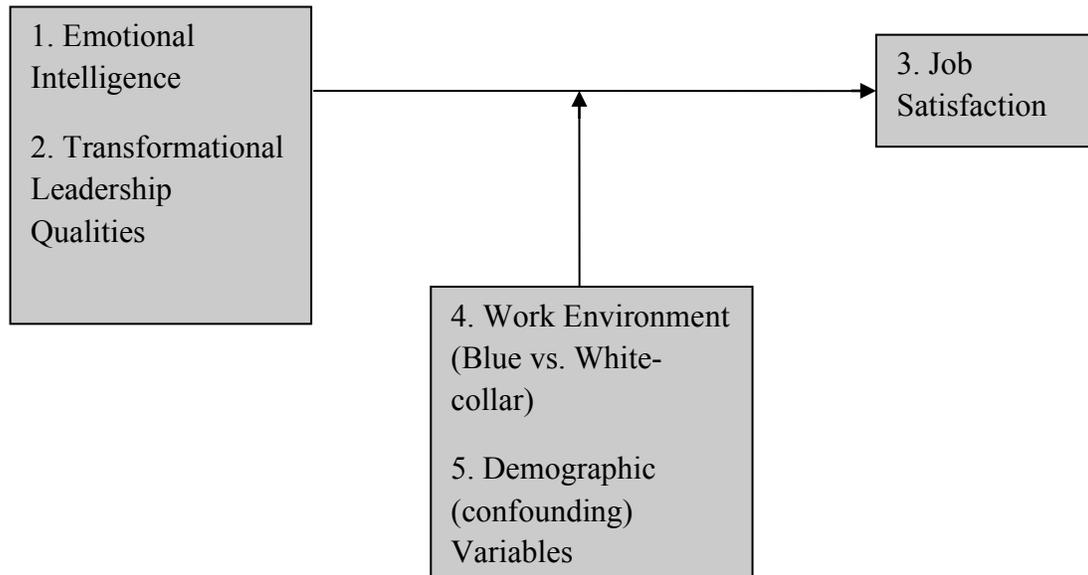


Figure 1. Theoretical/conceptual framework

Definition of Terms

Blue-collar workers: “Worker and work environments related to manufacturing, fabrication, general labor, production and repair settings” (BLS, 2010, p. 1).

White-collar workers: Employees whose job entails clerical work, particularly in an office setting. White-collar employees can be characterized as nonmanual workers. Today, white-collar workers are referred to as professionals who are more skilled and educated. The work of white collar employees is knowledge based and unstructured, such as work done by lawyer (Carnes, 2013, p.156).

Emotional intelligence (EI): “A person’s ability and processing represented by seven qualities: (a) BA being aware of emotions; (b) IS identifying own emotions; (c) IO

identifying others' emotions; (d) MS managing own emotions; (e) MO managing others' emotions; (f) PS using emotions in problem solving; and (g) EE expressing emotions adaptively as measured by the Emotional Judgment Inventory” (Rajagopalan, 2009, p. 11).

Job satisfaction: “A measure of employee satisfaction represented by the Job Satisfaction Survey ratings” (Spector, 1985, p. 52).

Transformational leadership style: “A set of four leadership characteristics (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) that has the effect of transforming the people being led because it taps into their needs, desires, and centers of motivation and meaning” (Rajagopalan, 2009, p. 8). Transformational leadership style is measured by the MLQ.

White-collar work environments: “The surroundings related to technology, service/sales, and administrative support including managerial and professional settings” (BLS, 2010, p. 2).

Blue-collar work environments: “The surroundings of unskilled or skilled work that is often done manually related to technical installation, warehousing, mechanical maintenance, construction, manufacturing, and many other kinds of physical work” (BLS, 2010, p. 2).

Assumptions and Limitations

There were several assumptions for the study. First, I assumed participants answered all survey questions honestly and without bias or social pressure. Second, I assumed that the JSS survey instrument was representative of employee job satisfaction regardless of the primary work environment (i.e., blue- or white-collar) with equivalent

validity and reliability measures as reported in Chapter 3. Third, I assumed that the MLQ survey instrument was representative of transformational leadership style, regardless of the primary work environment (i.e., blue- or white-collar), with equivalent validity and reliability measures as reported in Chapter 3. Fourth, I assumed that the EJI survey instrument was representative of emotional intelligence among managerial leaders, regardless of the primary work environment (i.e., blue- or white-collar), with equivalent validity and reliability measures as reported in Chapter 3. Survey responses may have been influenced by extraneous factors that I could not control. These factors included, but were not limited to, (a) personal events resulting in a halo effect or negative emotional bias, (b) time of day variations of respondent ratings, (c) temperature and weather-related factors, (d) the amount of time available to complete interview questions, and (e) individual experiences. Additionally, generalizability of results was limited to the sample population of blue- and white-collar managerial leaders and employees. This was due to the non probability based sampling procedures as described in Chapter 3.

Scope and Limitations

The scope was limited to two workplace environments (blue- and white-collar) and the managers and subordinates working in those departments. The sample size was large to ensure that the views of the target population were represented. The study focused on only two sets of participants and their subordinates at a single work site. The scope of the sample may restrict the applicability of findings to additional workplace settings of varying contexts.

Significance of the Study

Companies have been able to achieve a competitive advantage by using advances in technology to increase production. The utilization of the technology into business means turning to their human capital and developing it to an optimal extent for the benefit of the organization (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011). However, few managers tend to regard themselves as adequate in developing their employees to generate their best and highest level of work (Shafritz, et al., 2015). However, most of the managers believe that developing employees can backfire because the newly developed employees usually replace the old managers and take their position (Rozell, et al., 2011).

A broad range of businesses in manufacturing, software, and other white-collar areas may recognize the benefits of the study by applying the identified types of managerial behavior. This may occur especially if positive associations are realized between emotional intelligence, transformational leadership qualities, and employee job satisfaction. The benefits may be seen in improved employee output and performance and increased employee job satisfaction. Corporations could then implement education for frontline managers that pertains to their interpersonal emotional intelligence or transformational leadership qualities. Associations between blue- and white-collar work settings could then be applied for more beneficial behaviors and to motivate and empower interactions with subordinates (Dasgupta, Suar, & Singh, 2012). In addition, the study results may contribute to the current body of literature related to leadership effectiveness.

Summary

Much of the contemporary literature pertaining to effective leadership in business refers to management skills as coaching. The behaviors that fall within the category of coaching can be learned by managers in the industry. The work organizations can leverage the ability to learn effective behaviors as a tool for success within the organizations. Based on Goleman's (2004) model and the concept of emotional intelligence, leaders possess the ability to beneficially impact the behavior of participating subordinates as it is perceived and reported in their job satisfaction surveys. Though the findings may not be extrapolated to all businesses, they will act as a catalyst for future studies. They could motivate researchers to examine the effects of intervention in a broader variety of industry populations and contrasting fields. They could also encourage the use of interventions within contemporary workplace environments. They may facilitate realization of the full potential of human capital resources and promote the maximum benefit from frontline managers. Chapter 2 presents relevant literature pertaining to leadership from a coaching/EQ framework

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The purpose of this quantitative study was to conduct a survey to test the theory that leadership style influences employee outcomes. It is thought that this association impacts the success level of a business and its output. More specifically, the impact that emotional intelligence and leadership style may have on job satisfaction levels of employees was examined (Dasgupta et al., 2012). Chapter 2 presents an overview of the hypotheses and variables addressed in the study. Next, theories related to each variable of interest and their associations are described. Contemporary research devoted to each variable of interest is then reviewed. Using the keywords *emotional intelligence* and *transformational leadership* in a search of the ProQuest database, 38 peer-reviewed articles and dissertations were returned. First, leadership styles are examined, followed by emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Finally, a synthesis of the related research literature is presented.

Hypotheses and Variables

The associations between selected variables of interest as they are compared and contrasted in two work environments (blue- and white-collar) were examined. Managerial leaders in both work environments were assessed on two constructs of interest. Assessments began with emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, followed by the transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ. Employees in both work environments were assessed on job satisfaction using the JSS. The strength and direction of associations between emotional judgment and job satisfaction, and leadership style and job satisfaction were included. Emotional intelligence, leadership

style, and job satisfaction were analyzed via survey responses. Analysis was done to compare and contrast blue- and white-collar environments.

Theoretical Basis

Three primary theories were applied to the variables of interest. RCT was used to frame the variable of job satisfaction. Content and process theories of motivation were used to frame the variable of leadership style. Goleman's (2004) four dimensional ability model was used to frame the variable of emotional intelligence.

Rational Choice Theory (RCT)

According to Goleman (2004), no definitive formulation of RCT exists. However, the term is generally used to summarize a common set of methods in relation to how and why choices/decisions are made (Goleman, 2004). The fundamental premise of RCT is based on an objective assessment of a potential choice and the resultant action that maximizes advantages and minimizes disadvantages (Pinos, Twigg, Parayitam, & Olson, 2006). According to Goleman (2004), RCT is based on the 'Economic Man' principle and assumes that people make value-charged choices that maximize self-interests. According to Goleman (2004), RCT is most commonly applied when attempting to understand the complexity of job satisfaction. Employee job satisfaction refers to an attitude that people have about their jobs and the organizations within which they perform them. Job satisfaction is generally recognized as a multifaceted construct that includes employee feelings about a variety of both intrinsic and extrinsic job elements. It encompasses specific aspects of satisfaction that are related to pay, benefits, promotion, working conditions, organizational practices, supervision, and associations with coworkers (Dasgupta et al., 2012).

Numerous factors influence employee job satisfaction. The factors include salaries, fringe benefits, achievement, autonomy, recognition, communication, working conditions, job importance, coworkers, degree of professionalism, organizational climate, interpersonal associations, supervisory support, positive affectivity, job security, workplace flexibility, working within a team environment, and genetic factors. Sources of low satisfaction are often associated with having to work with inappropriately trained or unskilled staff and being repeatedly compelled to complete laborious tasks such as documentation. Other reasons for low job satisfaction include repetition of duties, tensions within role expectations, role ambiguity, role conflict, feeling overloaded, the need to be available for overtime, relations with coworkers, and personal and organizational factors (Spector, 1997). Shih and Susanto (2010) emphasized the importance of work characteristics (e.g., routine, autonomy, and feedback), of how the work role is defined (e.g., role conflict and role ambiguity), and of the work environment (e.g., leadership style, stress, advancement opportunities, and participation) in relation to job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is closely related to leadership style and the ability of leaders to motivate behavior (Shih & Susanto, 2010).

Content and Process Theories of Motivation

According to Morgan and Baker (2012), two categories of motivational theories and methods prevail. Content theories and methods focus on what motivates employee behavior (e.g., need-hierarchy theory, erg theory, achievement motivation theory, motivator-hygiene theory, stages of adult development, personality studies, and transactional analysis). Process theories and methods focus on how to motivate employee

behavior (e.g., equity theory, expectancy theory, reinforcement theory, goal-setting theory, McGregor's theory X and theory Y, and Ouchi's theory Z).

Maslow is credited with the earliest model of motivational theory. Maslow described behavior within the construct of a hierarchy of internal motives or needs. If the hierarchical needs, like safety (e.g., adequate food and physical protection) and security (e.g., medical care and illness assurance) are fulfilled, then the employee can progress to fulfill higher needs. The needs include social concerns, self-esteem, commitment, and satisfaction (Dasgupta et al., 2012). The contemporary construct of leadership success, as a function of motivational ability, has been described as the transformational style. According to Dasgupta et al. (2012), transformational leadership has also been related to increased employee motivation and job satisfaction.

Goleman's Four Dimensional Ability Model (Emotional Intelligence)

The corporate model of emotional intelligence, developed by Hess and Becigalupo (2011), is based on the tenets of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2004). McEnrue, Groves and Shen (2009) outlined four components that are known as the four-dimensional ability model. The four components are essential in emotional intelligence representation and include (a) perceiving, (b) assimilating, (c) understanding, and (d) regulating emotions. The definition distinguishes emotions from general intelligence. McEnrue et al. (2009) later modified and augmented the four abilities that represent emotional intelligence to include (a) self-awareness, (b) self-management, (c) social awareness, and (d) association management.

According to Shih and Susanto (2010), "emotional competency is connected to and is based on emotional intelligence" (p. 7). Consequently, the competency of leaders

with high emotional intelligence is based on their ability to recognize and understand the emotions of employees, as well as of others. When emotional intelligence is ascribed to leaders or leadership, the term *resonant leader* is applicable (Rajagopalan, 2009). Resonant leaders inspire, motivate, arouse, and sustain commitments from followers and related stakeholders based on their ability to be congruent with their emotions. According to Rajagopalan (2009), this is referred to as being on the same wavelength as your people. Regarding Goleman's model of emotional intelligence, researchers have concluded that managerial leaders with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more successful leaders in terms of motivating employee behaviors (Prajya, et al., 2014). However, this association has yet to be fully tested, accepted, and reported in literature related to employee job satisfaction.

Leadership

According to Mayer (1990), although many researchers tend to promote a transformation in the most frequently held assumptions that managers may apply to views of their subordinates, I took a different stance in this review. I focused on the varying types of influences that researchers found to be most effective in the contemporary workplace. This section begins with a general definition of the term *leadership* and a review of different styles, including the visionary, affiliative, coaching, democratic, coercive, and pacesetting styles of leadership execution. I also compare transformational versus transactional styles. Although some of the management styles are conducive to empowering the individual and incorporating emotional intelligence as is applicable, others are not.

Leadership versus Management

Although the terms leadership and management are commonly known and used interchangeably, leadership and management definitions involve distinctly different duties and skill sets. According to Rajagopalan (2009), the simplest difference between leadership and management has to do with motivation. Leaders have inherent abilities to motivate and lead subordinates. In contrast, managers are most often in charge of managing resources. Despite the fact that much literature exists about both leadership and management, leadership is the construct of interest.

Leadership and Motivation

Regardless of the specific leadership style, the goal of all leaders is to effectively and efficiently lead subordinates to perform appropriately for the benefit of the organization (i.e., profitability, quality service, and products). The mechanism from which to effectively and efficiently lead is therefore based on motivational theories and methods delineated by content and process models (Rajagopalan, 2009). Content theories are primarily concerned with the question of what causes behavior. The theories include need-hierarchy theory, ERG theory, achievement motivation theory, and motivator-hygiene theory, stages of adult development, personality studies and transactional analysis. Process theories are primarily concerned with the question of how people are motivated. Process theories have received only a fraction of the critical analysis bestowed upon content theories of motivation. The six process theories/methods of motivation include, equity theory, expectancy theory, reinforcement and goal-setting theory, McGregor's theory X and theory Y and Ouchi's theory Z.

Leadership Development

Another question in the leadership literature is whether or not effective leaders are made or born. Although some theorists have posited that effective leaders are demonstrative of individuals who are using innate abilities, others have argued that the ability to successfully influence others is a trait or skill that can be developed over time and gained through experience (Morgan & Baker, 2012). Conversely, Rajagopalan (2009) advocated for a middle road on this point, contending that effective leaders may not necessarily be born, but that they do use a set of innate traits that can contribute to leadership success. In what he referred to as “personal theory,” Rajagopalan (2009) claimed that “necessary (leadership) skills are being identified, are teachable and should also be a part of leadership education” (p. 29). Findings in the literature tend to support the potential for developing leadership skills and creating more advantageous leaders through interventions.

Leadership events or circumstances surrounding leadership behavior occur quite frequently in a variety of settings and in varying capacities, such as between classmates or coworkers. The specific focus of this study was on leaders who occupy a formal leadership position in the workplace. The distinguishing variable was that the leaders were expected to produce results as a function of their leadership ability while fostering the development of their subordinates and brokering positive relations among fellow colleagues. Therefore, the investigation of phenomenon of informal leadership, such as among friends or family, remains a topic for additional research outside the scope of this study. Within the context of the workplace, the various ways in which a supervisor or manager guide people can be grounded in a broad scope of variables, including personal

values and motives associated with the individual. Personal values and motives are referred to as the bases of influence, which are described in the paragraphs that follow (Rajagopalan, 2009).

Leadership Styles

As many researchers and theorists have proclaimed, there is no single style of leadership that is appropriate in each and every circumstance (Bass & Avolio, 1990). However, leadership styles can vary across a broad spectrum of possibilities, from authoritarian dictatorial styles to an anything-goes laissez-faire style (Rajagopalan, 2009). A leader who is effective must hold a certain degree of control over the situation at hand, the dynamics of the team, and the actions of the team's subordinates. As a result, an effective manager will also possess some control over the outcomes of the business through the assertion of influence that falls somewhere within this broad range of leadership styles.

However, before assessing the varying leadership styles, it is necessary to understand concepts that pertain to motivation within the workplace. This motivation provides reasons for employees to respond to their leaders in one manner over another. Berman and West (2008) suggested that the most closely supervised responsibilities within the workplace are the responsibilities that have more potential to reach completion than the tasks to which a supervisor or leader shows little interest. Berman and West (2008) elaborated on the characteristics of a successful leader and the requirements to achieve a level of effective (and even exemplary) management of their subordinates.

- Challenging the process by looking for new ways of doing things;

- Inspiring a shared vision by looking into the future and communicating the company's goals to the rest of the group;
- Enabling others to act by listening and encouraging others to participate;
- Modeling the way by first knowing the philosophy, goals, and plan of the organization;
- Encouraging others to grow by acknowledging and rewarding their accomplishments.

There are many combinations of leadership influence styles, including visionary, affiliative, coaching, democratic, coercive, and pacesetter. The following sections address the styles that promote the most significant degree of individual motivation.

The Visionary Style

In the 1980s, Tichy and Devanna (1986) began their exploration into what managers required when reviving struggling organizations. One approach was to disregard conventional wisdom and traditions and create a new vision that could be incorporated into the company's employees, strategies, and structures. This approach emphasized the role of the leader in facilitating organizational change. However, while Tichy and Devanna understood the modicum of power that leaders possessed to effect organizational change, Tichy and Devanna also issued a warning against supervisors who felt it necessary to occupy the hero role. A leader who adopted an omnipotent attitude or only appeared intermittently to save the day (and abruptly take credit for it) would not benefit the organization or its pool of human capital (Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Instead, Tichy and Devanna recommended a style of leadership that involved articulating a

compelling vision of the future and empowering the people around the leaders to join in the pursuit of the vision.

Tichy and Devanna (1986) have not been alone in describing the visionary style of leadership within an organization. Rajagopalan (2009) included a visionary style of leadership as one of six contrasting styles of influence that can impact the workplace. Rajagopalan specifically sought to identify the impact that each style of leadership had on the workplace climate. Findings revealed that the impact of the visionary style was (appropriated) a mobilization of employees towards a common vision that speaks to the involved employees (Rajagopalan, 2009). Essentially, a mode of influence produces confidence in one's self, empathy for others, and a propensity to lead change while moving in a positive direction.

The Affiliative Style

The affiliative style shares similar qualities but also capitalizes on the leader's ability to develop friendly associations or "connect" with subordinates. In essence, affiliative style builds on the ideas of Kouzes and Posner (1987) who proposed the building of a *shared vision* and working together towards common goals. Leaders tend to be more emotionally liberated, strive to create harmony, maintain satisfaction among team members and bring people together. The focus is to ultimately create a strong team atmosphere with an ambiance of *togetherness* (Sullivan, 1937). Though some believed that being *nice*, isn't sufficient to deliver results, this kind of leader can implement significant influence within the workplace, particularly in combination with other forms of power. However, the affiliative style may not have long-term sustainability based on the depth and breadth of the affiliation a leader tries to establish with subordinates.

Additionally, there are similar methods of influence that an individual can utilize in workplace associations. This is particularly relevant when discussing the association between a leader and their followers. According to Sullivan (1937), 30 variations of influence exist, including one category labeled *association*. Because, Sullivan states that effective and sustainable leadership evolves from forms of influence that are principle-centered, the methods presented in this category are long-term, meaningful manager-subordinate associations that most leaders strive to establish and sustain. Sullivan introduced 11 methods of influence within manager-subordinate association category, such as:

1. Assume the best of others.
2. Seek first to understand.
3. Reward open, honest questions and expressions.
4. Give an understanding response.
5. If offended, take the initiative to clear things up.
6. Admit mistakes, apologize, and ask for forgiveness.
7. Let contentious arguments fly out open windows.
8. Go one on one.
9. Renew your commitment to things you have in common.
10. Be influenced by others first.
11. Accept the person and the situation.

After a careful examination of the methods of influence, it is apparent that the association-based influence style (or Affiliative Style) is significantly similar to the next style of leadership to be discussed (i.e., *coaching*).

The Coaching Style

Many researchers have advocated for guiding and encouraging individuals to move in the desired direction towards a common goal (Sullivan, 1937). In this case, a certain degree of nurturing is required to motivate subordinates in the proper direction to attain the designated goal. Sullivan (1937) explicitly addressed five steps that involve nurturing behaviors under what he refers to as a label of empowerment. This creates a win-win situation that promotes the growth of new subordinates and encourages them to learn about the work they are performing as the process unfolds (Berman & West, 2008). Admittedly, this approach was at least partially reliant on a basic knowledge of psychology since this style of leadership was trying to motivate subordinates based on their human nature (Sullivan, 1937). Nevertheless, the more leaders are genuinely pleased with the achievements, successes and overall good fortune of others, the more they are able to direct subordinates toward activities that are intrinsically motivating (Sullivan, 1937). This concept is referred to as the “abundance mentality”. Abundance Mentality implies that the leader possesses enough self-security, believe in themselves, their ability and position are not threatened by others, and easily promotes deserving others (Sullivan, 1937).

Hersey (2008) also addressed this form of motivational selling by placing a somewhat biased emphasis on the perspective of the subordinate. In his view, whatever leadership styles the subordinate perceived the manager to be using was the one to consider rather than the style the leader thought they were using or intended to execute (Hersey, 2008). Nevertheless, though it is important to acknowledge and understand how subordinates may or may not perceive a leader, this variable alone is not sufficient for

defining the leadership style of any manager in question. Each and every subordinate may potentially perceive the manager to possess a different style than the other subordinates and, in reality, this overall composite of style perceptions may vary markedly from the manager's primary style. In later versions of Hersey's research, he changed the name of the model from "selling" to "coaching". Coaching has been defined as the style of influence that is most effective as well as appropriate for a subordinate that is essentially "unable" but willing to follow (Hersey, 2008). More specifically, when an employee does not completely comprehend the objective or task at hand but is willing to follow and make the effort, this situation demands an increased level of guidance, direction and overall support from the leader.

Democratic Style

The style most frequently assumed to be the most effective in any given situation has been the democratic approach. Quite simply, this is due to the fact that a democratic approach involves input from all that wish to be a part of the process (Hammig, 2014). Democratic approach affords all employees the opportunity to express their own opinions and vote on a solution of their choice. The resulting outcome is a course of action that has been agreed upon by the vast majority. However, even this seemingly agreeable approach has its downfalls. A group of intelligent and articulate individuals may be led down a path of false agreement or what some may consider the concept of "groupthink" (Sims & Saucer, 2013). This refers to a group's willingness to favor cohesiveness over decisions that may seem more rational (Sims & Saucer, 2013).

In contrast, Shi and Susanto (2010) found that the democratic style was particularly effective at bringing about the ideas and interests of a subordinate population

that could serve to enlighten an undecided leader or one who needed additional feedback. Nevertheless, even Shi and Susanto acknowledge the limitations of this style. They concede that a leader who is overly relying on this method of influence may become engaged in a seemingly infinite number of meetings that present a myriad of ideas without any real decisions or definitive conclusions. Hence, more similar meetings must occur. Although some researchers claim that the democratic approach removes the power of a leader, others postulate that by eliciting feedback, listening, sharing the decision-making process, and engaging subordinates, a leader's power over others increases (Hammig, 2014).

Recently, a growing number of organizations have taken measures to ensure their employees have some input in planning and controlling their own positions (Martindale, 2011). However, overall, workplace democracies appear to not be feasible, especially when the manager or leader is ultimately responsible for finalizing or approving all decisions. It is the manager, not the employees, who are still responsible for both output and outcomes, regardless of whether or not employees hold sway in the decision-making process (Martindale, 2011).

The Coercive Style

This leadership style was heavily relied upon in the past. However, even in contemporary society, many managers continue to utilize this style as their primary source of sustaining power. Quite often, managers do not need to be taught how to be dictatorial when dealing with their subordinates or in executing decisions in an autocratic manner. Because coercive leadership style is so historically prominent, the coercive style

has the largest body of literature devoted to it, such as the in-depth research of Caughron and Mumford (2012).

In general, coercion is a style of control that utilizes a, “do what I say or else” attitude from a manager to their subordinates. In order to make coercion style more effective, a leader must occupy a formal and easily recognized position of authority. The coercion style lends credibility, feasibility, and substance to the threats as a means of ensuring that subordinates will comply. Often, the employees with such power institute this type of style naturally, but unknowingly. In essence, leaders will be attracted to a management style that comes naturally as an extension of the personality and character traits of the leader. Some people are naturally drawn towards a coercive style and may implement coercion styles without even trying.

Conversely, Watson (1957) suggested that the coercive approach is the least effective style of leadership even when it comes naturally to the individual. Instead, coercive style is often balanced by alternative styles that supplement it and contribute to establishing and fostering an attitude of teamwork (Watson, 1957). Watson noted that many companies tend to establish reward systems that encourage coercion by using reward and punishment incentives that are outdated, ineffective, and built for an authoritarian style of controlling subordinates. Watson does not address the dynamics of maladaptive systems, where a contemporary set of leadership practices is taught and encouraged among managers. Instead, the systems discussed appear to be somewhat outdated in contemporary workplace environments and were designed to create autocratic leaders. Rather than proving an effective means of leadership, this style tends to destroy any potential trust that may exist between employers and employees.

Sullivan (1937) believed that there are three distinct types of power. Three distinct types of power are coercive power, utility power (based on the exchange of services or goods between the people involved) and principle-centered power. Sullivan found that negative psychological and emotional outcomes often developed into leaders and employees from exercising a coercive style of influence. Outcomes include suspicion, dishonesty, deceit and even eventual dissolution (Sullivan, 1937). Another means of coercion involves the leader's propensity for perfection in own work. This creates a demanding and often unreasonable pace for employees contend with.

Pinos, et al. (2006) focused on the kind of leader that possesses a seemingly infinite amount of energy while viewing everything as a potential opportunity for change and growth. The outcome of such mindset is a vigorous propensity to work longer hours than their less energetic counterparts. In essence, slowing down is not a viable option (Tich & Devanna 1997). To the outside observer, such individuals seem to do little else but engage in work. They also appear to have sacrificed almost everything else in life to achieve professional success. However, in this style of management, hard work and long hours are not seen as a necessary sacrifice or condition of the job. Instead, this behavior is simply a choice they have made (Tich & Devanna 1997).

At first blush, this may sound like a positive attitude. However, Goleman (2004) believes this type of work ethic often leaves subordinates feeling overwhelmed by the infinite demands of their supervisor. Subordinates often feel as though their leader cares more about the goals to be achieved than the leaders who must help to achieve the goals (Goleman, 2004). In fact, Goleman demonstrated that the pace-setting style can "poison the climate" in the workplace and that this significant pressure on employees can become

debilitating. Striking a balance between the sentiment of Tichy & Devanna (1997) and that of Goleman will create a style that best serves the leader that wishes to employ the most beneficial and appropriate style of influence.

Leadership Styles in the Literature

Contemporary research on leadership styles and methods has resulted in the most frequent delineation between blue- and white-collar environments based on transactional or transformational leadership styles respectively. The leadership styles are compared in the following section.

Transformational versus Transactional Leadership

Modern leadership delineated by transactional and transformational styles is grounded in the works of Burns (1978). In the simplest definitions, transactional leadership characteristics and styles are marked by transactions between leaders and followers that best meet the needs of both the organization and individual. Transactional leadership is less flexible or proactive than transformational leadership. Conversely, transformational leadership characteristics and styles are marked by leaders who transform or change followers and the organization with an emphasis on motivation rather than manipulation (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Burns, 1978). It is important to note that leaders are not solely transactional or transformational. Rather, a blend of both approaches is present 98% of the time (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transactional leadership is typically applied more often in blue-collar (i.e., industrial, manufacturing, and military) settings where creativity and independent thinking and acting have limited emphasis. Conversely, transformational leadership is

typically more applied in white-collar (i.e., service, healthcare, and professional) settings where motivation and social interactions have more emphasis (Parker, 2014).

According to Burns (1978), transactional leadership is characterized by four distinct categories:

1. *Contingent Reward* is characterized by transactional leaders that focus on an exchange of resources for subordinate efforts and performance.
2. *Management by Exception Active* is characterized by transactional leaders that monitor subordinate performance and only take action when performance falls below established standards.
3. *Management by Exception Passive* is characterized by transactional leaders that only intervene with subordinates when performance problems get serious.
4. *Laissez-Faire* is characterized by transactional leaders that avoid leadership responsibilities.

According to Burns (1978) and Bass and Avolio (2004), transformational leadership is characterized by four distinct classifications referred to as the “four I’s”:

1. *Idealized Influence* refers to the concept of a leader who acts as a strong and positive role model for his or her followers (i.e., charisma). The character and behavior of the transformational leader are idealized by the follower and thereby has the effect of exerting a high level of influence upon him or her.
2. *Inspirational Motivation* refers to the leader inspiring his or her followers and instills higher levels of motivation among them. This is often done through the use of symbols (a brand or logo, for example), a slogan, or some other simple yet powerful image or phrase that appeals to the followers’ emotions.

3. *Intellectual Stimulation* is based on leaders who encourage their followers to approach problems creatively. They are not afraid of risk or mistakes because they believe that it will promote learning for the individual and for the organization at large (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).
4. *Individualized Consideration* is, perhaps, one of the most distinguishing features of transformational leadership since it breaks away from the classical hierarchical models of manager/leader and subordinates. In the transactional model, the leader tends to consider his or her followers as a group and is not particularly concerned about individual needs or development that is considered to be far too time-consuming. In contrast, the transformational leader recognizes that the consideration of each and every member of the organization is likely to contribute to a healthier, more effective, and more pleasant organization (Brown, 2009).

Berman and West (2008) concluded that transformational leaders have higher levels of amicability, extraversion, and openness than transactional leaders in relation to personality factors. According to Carter, Armenakis, Feild, and Mossholder (2013), the impact of transformational versus transactional leadership on followers results in statistically significant and positive associations between employee performance and individual development when the leader had strong measures of transformational leadership. Conversely, there were significant and negative associations between leaders with predominantly transactional leadership characteristics in relation to the achievement of business goals and objectives.

According to Berman and West (2008), transformational leaders have more success in achieving organizational goals. Transformational leadership traits were significantly correlated with high ratings of optimism and self-efficacy. Similarly, Brown (2009) found major positive associations between transformational leadership and team performance. Before concluding that the transformational is superior to transactional leadership style, other organizational performance factors must be considered. Adeoye and Victor (2011) reported that organizational performance is affected by five primary factors. The primary factors include the model of motivation, leadership styles, organizational environment and culture, job design and human resource policies. Only one is based on leadership style.

The MLQ Survey Summary

Although other researchers have developed and utilized survey measures of emotional intelligence, the MLQ is one of the most common tools since it is valid and reliable (Hunt & Fitzgerald, 2013). The MLQ is a 45-item questionnaire created for the identification of the leadership style by the researchers. The 45-item questionnaire is rated on a five-point Likert scale (*0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not always*). Individual questions are grouped to represent 10 leadership subscales (i.e., Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception, Laissez-Faire Leadership, Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction). Individualized influence has an alpha of .73, inspirational motivation .82, intellectual stimulation .74, and individualized consideration .78. Additional validity and reliability evidence of the MLQ survey is reported in Chapter 3.

Emotional Intelligence

Advantages of emotional intelligence, whether it is inherent in the specific style of leadership or utilized independently, enhances the manager-subordinate association. Such an analysis of existing literature will lay the foundation to assess prior research while identifying gaps that warrant attention. The most precise definitions of emotional intelligence emanate from key experts. Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability, whether acquired through experience or learned, “to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulses and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to empathize and to hope” (Parker, 2014). Emotional intelligence (EQ) has also been described as the ability to, “intentionally make your emotions work for you by using them to guide your behavior and thinking in ways to enhance your results” (Parker, 2014). EQ is generally accepted as an enhanced term for people skills. In a work environment, EQ has been described as not only the intelligence and insight to understand others, but how to work with others in a cooperative manner (Berman & West 2008).

More specifically, Berman and West (2008) identified emotional intelligence as, “the ability to process emotional information, particularly as it involves perception” (p.742). EQ consists of four branches of mental ability. The branches of mental ability include accurately identifying emotions, using emotions to help one think, understanding what causes emotions and managing to stay open to such emotions to utilize them in regulating one’s own behavior. Each branch is better described below.

1. *Emotional Perception*. Despite the fact that emotional perception relates to the identification of emotions, this can refer to the emotion that is expressed in people's faces, as well as in music or stories.
2. *Emotional Facilitation of Thought*. Also known as assimilation, it involves the ability to relate emotions to other sensations (i.e. taste or colors), then using this perception in decision-making through reasoning and problem-solving.
3. *Emotional Understanding*. This involves the actual solving of problems associated with emotions which are comprised of such tasks as determining what emotions are similar or opposite in nature. From this, one can conclude what type of association or interaction is taking place between individuals.
4. *Emotional Management*. This involves comprehending possible outcomes of social behaviors associated with various emotions and correctly regulating such emotions in one's self, as well as others (Snyder & Lopez, 2009).

Therefore, possessing the ability to implement the components of emotional intelligence should result in effective interpersonal interactions. Berman and West (2008) expounded on this definition to create an explanation that was specifically tailored to the workplace environment and conducive to the execution of optimal leadership. According to Goleman (2004), emotional intelligence involves the ability to control emotions and the behaviors associated with them to produce positive interpersonal interactions. Goleman further contended that, while this variable of the control does have a genetic component, an individual still possesses the ability to learn how to control emotions and hone this ability for greater emotional management. Although no strong correlation has

been identified between IQ and success in life, it has been demonstrated that success later in life can be closely tied to EQ (Goleman, 2004).

Goleman's (2004) definition of emotional intelligence involves five EQ competencies related to the promotion of effective leadership, rather than the competencies generally applicable to nonspecific interpersonal relations. Goleman's (2004) five competencies pertaining to the corporate version of emotional intelligence include:

1. The ability to identify one's emotional state and to comprehend the link between the emotions, thoughts and actions.
2. The ability to manage one's emotional state by controlling emotions or "shifting undesirable emotional states to adequate ones".
3. The ability to engage in emotional states that are associated with a motivation to be successful and a drive to achieve.
4. The ability to read others' emotions and be sensitive to them, thereby influencing the emotions of others.
5. The ability to enter into and maintain satisfying interpersonal associations.

According to Goleman (1995), the competencies exist in a hierarchy where one must be mastered before advancing to the next one. For example, it is necessary to identify emotions before one can manage them. In the same way, it is necessary to be able to manage emotions before applying them to the goal of entering into emotional states that promote a drive to achieve. Once the first three competencies have been learned adequately, they can then be applied towards one's interactions with other people to produce sufficient mastery of the fourth competency. Finally, all four of the

competencies contribute to the final outcome of the last competency. This is an increased ability to engage in and sustain positive and fulfilling associations (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1995) concluded that EQ can be learned. He also hypothesized that it tends to naturally improve with age. Mayer (1997) also conveyed their belief that emotional intelligence develops with age, emotional knowledge can be enhanced and emotional skills can be learned. In fact, Goleman (1995) proclaimed that developing EQ was critical to leadership success. The skills of developing EQ which is most critical to success include self-awareness, empathy, and sociability. The self-awareness, empathy, and sociability variables are associated with an emotional kind of intelligence. The capacity of emotional intelligence to be taught and learned was later confirmed by Mayer (1990). Both Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1995) reaffirmed the critical nature of EQ to workplace outcomes by concluding that emotional intelligence can be trained and it does predict job performance.

However, while proponents of emotional intelligence contend that it can be taught through the implementation of proper programs, others suggest otherwise. For example, trait theorists have proposed that personality traits are strongly influenced by genetics. Personality traits follow a specific developmental pattern that results in enduring characteristics by adulthood. Therefore, a transformation of an individuals' attitudes and behaviors may be feasible, but it would most often result in only short-term outcomes due to the enduring and pervasive nature of lifelong traits.

Emotional Intelligence Models

Emotional intelligence, while a relatively new construct, has had a plethora of supporting literature. Berman and West (2008) have provided various, but related

definitions of emotional intelligence. They refer to a set of skills related to the appraisal of emotions and utilization of emotions in reasoning. Two commonly accepted models of emotional intelligence exist. Berman and West (2008) postulated mixed and ability models of emotional intelligence. Aspects of personality are considered mixed models. Ability models are strictly defined within the parameters of the above definition without specific personality trait inclusion or considerations.

Brown (2009) also postulated two models of emotional intelligence (i.e., trait and information processing). The trait model of emotional intelligence is based on behavioral consistency in various situations. Conversely, the information processing model of emotional intelligence is based on the association between emotional intelligence and cognitive abilities. Because there are at least four common models associated with emotional intelligence, corresponding and diverse measurement methods have been primarily based on survey or task-based instruments. Berman and West (2008) concluded that self-report instrumentation (i.e., survey measures) of emotional intelligence is most valid and reliable. This conclusion is consistent with other models, such as transformational leadership, with the primary instrument of measurement being survey-based.

Additionally, research by Berman and West (2008) found significant correlations between self-report measures of emotional intelligence and personality characteristics (e.g., neuroticism, extraversion, and agreeableness). Schutte et al., (1998) limited the conclusion of self-report validity within a narrow definition as correlated with personality traits. In view of the fact that emotional intelligence is, by definition, a complex construct, Schutte et al., concluded that it is best assessed through qualitative methods.

Emotional Judgment in the Literature

The question remains as to how important EQ is within the organizational environment. Some studies have set out to examine the outcomes resulting from a demonstration of emotional intelligence in the workplace. Although this variable of effective management systems has only been illuminated within the last decade, the interest in it has been gaining exponential momentum. More studies are finding this to be a definitive variable in producing an effective leader. Further, its impact has been replicated in the areas of employee satisfaction and retention, as well as the quality of work, the employees subsequently produce. Berman and West (2008) concluded that much of the popular press espoused the benefits of emotional intelligence as the key foundation for an organization's success. Berman and West found support for this premise in both the domains of emotional intelligence and management.

Overall, a growing theme in the literature states that effective leadership is related to higher levels of emotional intelligence. According to Berman and West (2008), effective management arises from this variable since it is the vehicle through which motivation of subordinates to perform at a higher level occurs. It also empowers managers to offer intellectual challenges, pay attention to individual developmental needs and lead followers to a higher collective purpose, mission or vision. This concept of creating goals that both leaders and subordinates collectively move towards is also an essential element of coaching. However, EQ is one means of executing this objective and improving the chances of its success.

The positive findings regarding the outcomes pertaining to emotional intelligence are not without its critics. Robbins, Judge, Millett, and Boyle (2013) denounced the

validity of EQ due to the lack of reliable means of measuring its presence and impact. He argued that, if the construct of emotional intelligence could not be accurately measured, then it is not feasible to come to a determination of its existence and influence. This is implying that the positive outcomes attributed to EQ may be a function of other variables, the power of suggestion, or even pure imagination. Snyder and Lopez, (2009) further suggested that EQ may be nothing more than IQ directed at “emotional phenomena”.

Snyder and Lopez (2009) posited that the issues surrounding emotional intelligence are not with the construct. Instead, they are related to the inconsistencies surrounding the broad range of definitions associated with the concept and the way it is operationalized. Finally, other researchers have claimed that the term, “emotional intelligence” is just a new buzzword in the business world (Prajya, et al., 2014). This new term describes competencies that have already been established and just labeled in different or more traditional ways.

However, in studies where a means of defining emotional intelligence has been established and an adequate method of measuring it utilized, it has proven to be a beneficial asset in many aspects of life, including the workplace (Farh, et al., 2012). In fact, Farh, et al. (2012) presented two primary reasons to explain why the workplace environment was an optimal setting for the evaluation and practice of EQ. First, the competencies associated with emotional intelligence were critical for workplace success, yet many employees will enter the workplace without the very necessary skills of emotional intelligence (Farh, et al., 2012). Therefore, the organizational environment is an appropriate place to learn, put into practice and recognize the tenets of emotional intelligence.

The first two reasons are supported by the fact that many employers are motivated and also have the means to provide emotional intelligence training, making it feasible to incorporate emotional intelligence skills and training into the workplace. In view of the fact that many adults spend a good portion of the day hours at work, it makes sense to present training opportunities during such hours (Farh, et al., 2012). The contentions support the validity and applicability of the exact type of treatment intervention proposed in the research.

In addition to Farh, et al. (2012) viewpoint, other researchers have their own conclusions about emotional intelligence, its applicability within the workplace, and benefits to be gained. The components of emotional intelligence are inherent in the concept of effective coaching and management. c and Susanto (2010) pointed out that its origin evolved out of the concept of social intelligence advanced by Thorndike in the early 1900s. Thorndike defined his theory of social intelligence as the “ability to *manage* men and women, boys and girls... to act wisely in human relations” (p.149). The link between effective management and emotional intelligence is apparent in this example. Here it implies that the ability to effectively manage individuals *is*, in and of itself, emotional intelligence defined in the most straightforward way. Therefore, a manager who possesses emotional intelligence, while applying the skills to the behavioral objectives of coaching, will produce an employee population that feels appreciated. The employees will be acknowledged by reward or praise for the best efforts and will be motivated to present a higher quality of work performance than others. The appreciating and acknowledging environments reflect an attitude of teamwork, high employee morale and increased motivation. The logical result of emotional intelligence in management

should consist of a combination of increased satisfaction, longer retention, and enhanced employee work performance.

Parker (2014) found an initial correlation between emotional intelligence in workplace management and individual performance and Hess and Becigalupo (2011) established a direct correlation. A positive association between emotional intelligence and customer satisfaction was demonstrated. This finding strengthened the credibility of EQ since customer satisfaction would support a positive performance by the identified employees. Burns (1978) found that emotional intelligence was first modeled and taught by management. Later, the employee pool acquired it. The team of employees modeled themselves after management. Behavioral cues related to appropriate and effective work conduct were adopted from management. As emotional intelligence developed amongst the team, work performance also began to improve. The positive findings were somewhat replicated in a study conducted by Pinos, et al. (2006) who found that emotional intelligence was positively correlated with job success ($r = .33$), salary ($r = .40$) and overall life success ($r = .46$).

EJI Survey Summary

Although other researchers have developed and utilized survey measures of emotional intelligence, the EJI is one of the most common. The EJI represents seven dimensions (e.g., Being Aware of Emotions (AW), Identifying Own Emotions (IS), Identifying Others' Emotions (IO), Managing Own Emotions (MS), Managing Others' Emotions (MO), Using Emotions in Problem Solving (PS), and Expressing Emotions (EX). Initial Cronbach's alpha values for all seven dimensions ranged between .67 and .78. Further validity and reliability facts of the EJI survey are reported in Chapter 3.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have multidimensional constructs. The effective component of job satisfaction and organizational commitment is similarly described in various emotional intelligence models (Mayer, 1990). However, it is contested as to whether emotional intelligence contributes more to occupational success or cognitive ability. Mayer (1990) concluded that the emotional dimension of job satisfaction/organizational commitment (i.e., emotional intelligence) has limited research but tremendous implications for leaders and employees. Job satisfaction is negatively correlated with employee turnover rates and shown to be consistent among various occupations, service industries and other demographic dichotomies (Urban Institute, 2008). Higher job satisfaction relates to lower employee turnover resulting in organizational direct and indirect savings. The direct and indirect savings include replacement, recruiting and training costs, quality changes or production decreases with a turnover. Conversely, burnout is a related, but different, component of job satisfaction.

Job Dissatisfaction versus Burnout

According to Brown, (2009), burnout is characterized by a lack of engagement in work duties. The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was created as a survey instrument to measure the degree of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and decreased personal accomplishment that characterizes burnout. According to Adeoye and Torubelli (2011), job satisfaction is commonly accepted as both a buffer against and a contributor to burnout if the employee is dissatisfied. However, the largely unknown and controversial impact that emotional intelligence has on job satisfaction or burnout warrants further attention.

Job Satisfaction in the Literature

According to Brown (2009), employee turnover directly correlates with job satisfaction levels in all work settings. Higher job satisfaction results in lower employee turnover rates. However, there are a plethora of factors that affect job satisfaction. The factors include leadership style, type of work, work environment, personality factors, education level, experience/tenure, family issues, and remuneration. Consequently, job satisfaction is a complex construct influenced by many contributing and confounding variables. However, Brown (2009) classified job satisfaction as fulfillment from the organization, work/career, and salary/benefits. Brown (2009) expanded job satisfaction to include organizational policies and administration. Also included were interpersonal relations with supervisors and peers, salary/benefits, job security, personal factors, work conditions, and social status. Berman and West (2008) classify job satisfaction into organizational based, individual characteristic based and job specific based categories.

Literature about the investigation of job satisfaction, apart from classification, has concluded that job satisfaction is an attitude-affect combination of cognitive and emotional responses. According to Snyder and Lopez (2009), job dissatisfaction is the most important reason why people leave their jobs. A combination of job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively correlated with turnover intention. Moreover, autonomy, pay, task requirements, and organizational policies were the most statistically significant factors linked to job satisfaction. This was measured by the Index of Work Satisfaction (IWS) survey of 600 white-collar healthcare professionals. Job satisfaction is only partly rationalized based on findings from two other related studies (Mayer, 1990).

In Brown's (2009) independent research, he demonstrated that increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment, combined with decreased turnover intention, were all correlated to selected organizational inducements promised to employees. From a psychological perspective, employees feel more satisfied and less likely to leave when they perceive their needs are being met. Emotional factors such as loyalty and feelings of worth relate to job satisfaction, but influenced by a combination of organizational, leadership and job-related factors.

JSS Summary

One survey instrument that includes and delineates the plethora of factors that are commonly used in the related research literature is the JSS. Although other researchers have developed and utilized survey measures of emotional intelligence, the JSS is one of the most common, valid and reliable. Spector (1985) developed the JSS to reflect employee attitudes about their job based on nine different job aspects, such as pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards-performance based rewards, operating procedures-required rules and procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The 36-item JSS survey questions are rated on a six-point Likert scale from *1 = Disagree very much* to *6 = Agree very much*. Items are written in both directions so about half must be reverse scored. Average scores of four or more represent satisfaction. Mean responses of three or less represent dissatisfaction. Mean scores between three and four are ambivalent. Internal consistency reliabilities (i.e., Cronbach's alpha scores) range from .60 to .75 by subscale and .91 overall. Additional validity and reliability information for the JSS survey is reported in Chapter 3.

Contemporary Research Studies and Summaries

The following section of the chapter selected contemporary dissertation research studies for analysis related to combinations of the variables of interest. The variables of interest are emotional intelligence and personality, emotional intelligence and job stress, emotional intelligence and leadership style, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, leadership style and job satisfaction.

Emotional Intelligence and Personality

Farh, et al. (2012) used the EJI survey in correlation with personality and job performance. It was rated by supervisors across 14 dimensions, i.e. professionalism, effort and personal discipline, listening, associations with clients, decision making and judgment, oral communication, written communication, job knowledge, organization and planning, safety orientation, emotional control, teamwork, association with a supervisor, and overall performance. The dimensions were rated on a five-point Likert scale (1 = Very Poor, 5 = Excellent). A total of 66 activity staff personnel responsible for social and emotional support of individuals with physical and mental impairments was included. The sample's demographics were primarily female (75%) and Caucasian (80%) with an average age of 41 years and limited education beyond high school (30%). Personality was delineated by the Five Factor Model (e.g., extraversion, anxiety, independence, tough-mindedness, self-control) (Dasgupta, et al., 2012). The study results of the Farh, et al. indicated the following statistically significant associations between emotional intelligence, personality, and job performance:

- EJI scores on Identifying Others Emotions (IO), Using Emotions in Problem Solving (PS), and Expressing Emotions (EX) were positively and significantly

correlated with job performance ratings, particularly the ratings related to interpersonal associations. Higher emotional intelligence was positively correlated with higher job performance ratings.

- Lower personality variable ratings of Anxiety (Neuroticism) were most related to higher job performance ratings. Anxiety therefore appeared as the personality variable that was more likely to interfere with the results concluded between emotional intelligence and job performance.

The cumulative average for all seven subscales of the EJI resulted in a rating of 52.01 out of a potential maximum 70.0 EI score. Average performance ratings in the study were 3.79. This was above the Adequate rating of 3.0 but below the Good rating of 4.0 and the possible Excellent rating of 5.0. Two limitations were noted that may have affected the findings. First, the demographic variability of the participants was limited. Second, results were based on slightly above-average job performances rather than very high performing individuals like in other studies.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Stress

Berman and West (2008) developed and assessed the psychometric properties of the 180-item Spina Officer Stress Scale (SOS Scale). This scale was designed to measure internal and external stress factors delineated into seven categories, such as administration, personnel matters, public relations, time, judgment, departmental procedures, and image, which are factors that are unique to law enforcement officers. Items were rated on a four-point Likert scale (1 = not stressful at all, 4 = extremely stressful). Law enforcement officers have one of the highest occupational stress and turnover rates among professional groups (Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler, 2010). According to

Berman and West (2008), stress is delineated by cause (e.g., physical, psychological, and/or emotional). Therefore, the internal stress factor component was identified as directly influenced by emotional intelligence. Specifically, Berman and West (2008) demonstrated a statistically significant and negative association between job stress and emotional intelligence using the Bar-On EQ-I survey instrument. Lower job stress among a cohort of 167 police officers was correlated with higher ratings of emotional intelligence. Consequently, the SOS statements in the judgment category are most directly related to emotional intelligence in the Spina study.

Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) used the State and Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) as a related instrument for their study since anxiety affects stress. When internal consistency coefficients were applied, the correlation coefficients for all seven SOS categories ranged from .68 to .98. The results of the study indicated that the officers were most stressed by factors related to daily job responsibilities, police department administration, and other personal non-job related issues. A total of 162 Florida state law enforcement officers participated in the study. The demographics of the participants were primarily male (80%), Hispanic (45%), Caucasian (33%) and African American (22%). Their average age was 38 years and their average time on the job was 11 years.

Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010) reported statistically significant and negative correlations between age and job stress ($r = -.27$) and tenure and job stress ($r = -.16$). Older and more experienced officers experienced less job stress. One conclusion offered to explain this association was related to emotional intelligence. According to Vigoda-Gadot and Meisler (2010), police officers show enhanced emotional intelligence skills through their ability to accurately focus on and diagnose immediate situations and resolve

them efficiently. Specifically, Pinos, et al. (2006) hypothesized that older and more experienced officers likely possessed higher levels of emotional intelligence that helped them tolerate stress without burning out and changing careers. Pinos, et al. strongly recommended future research to examine the mediating effect of emotional intelligence. This would best be accomplished by using the EQ-I survey on job stress/dissatisfaction/burnout among highly stressed occupational groups.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style

Rajagopalan (2009) examined the degree to which emotional intelligence is able to predict the leadership traits of project managers (i.e., white-collar) who deliver software and system projects in the IT sector. According to Adeoye and Torubelli (2011), information officers and related project managers have universal difficulties with balancing knowledge and skills between technology, business, and behavioral associations with peers and subordinates. Mullahy (2008) was more specific by concluding that leadership, regardless of the style, is only successful in accordance with a reflective personality of which emotional intelligence is a component. To be a change agent, emotional intelligence is necessary.

To test the strength of associations between emotional intelligence and leadership style, Rajagopalan (2009) utilized the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) and the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004) to represent the variables of interest. A total of 134 project managers working in the Midwest completed surveys. The demographic profile of participants was characterized by having six or more years of experience (90%), male (65%), a Master's degree (46%), and between 36 and 55 years of age (68%). The correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational

leadership was positive and statistically significant ($r = .41$). Therefore, it was concluded that individuals with higher emotional intelligence had higher transformational leadership qualities among the cohort of project managers. The other leadership components measured by the MLQ instrument (e.g., transactional leadership qualities and laissez-faire) were not statistically significant or related to emotional intelligence.

Emotional Intelligence and Job Satisfaction

Howard (2008) examined the association between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction among a cohort of human services workers. Although job satisfaction, which is synonymous with organizational commitment, has an extensive history of research, emotional intelligence is a newer, less researched concept. It has been around since the early 1990s. Personality was also included as a variable of interest has given the controversy over whether emotional intelligence is simply a manifestation of personality or a separate skill set. According to Dasgupta, et al. (2012), minimal research exists that explores associations between personality factors and emotional intelligence as moderators of job satisfaction/organizational commitment. However, Clark, Michel, Zhdanova, Pui, and Baltes (2014) did conclude that extraversion was significantly and positively correlated with the effective dimension of job satisfaction. Related studies concluded the following:

- Higher emotional intelligence was correlated with a higher organizational commitment among a group of direct care workers.
- Higher emotional intelligence was correlated with higher job satisfaction (i.e., lower job stress) among a group of blue-collar factory workers.

Howard's (2008) EJI instrument represents emotional intelligence and Spector's (1985) JSS instrument represents job satisfaction. Demographic variables of interest included age, education level, tenure, and gender. A total of 126 individuals agreed to participate from various medium to large industrial organizations of 51 to 200+ employees. The demographic profile was characterized by an average age of 40 years, female (61.2%), African-American and Caucasian (36.4%). The majority of participants were college educated (79%) and most had been employed less than 3 years (59%). The results from Howard's (2008) study included the statistically significant associations among the emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. Findings showed that there was a high correlation among personality factors (agreeableness), emotional stability, openness, and emotional intelligence. Howard concluded that the emotional intelligence and job satisfaction were positively related similar to the selected personality factors and emotional intelligence among the cohort of participants. No significant associations between personality factors and job satisfaction were noted. The same holds true for demographic variables, emotional intelligence, job satisfaction, or personality (Howard, 2008).

Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Many researchers have focused on leadership style and job satisfaction or organizational commitment, but most of the research are non-minority or non-blue-collar based. In addition, most research on leadership relates to attributes of leaders as opposed to preferred attributes. According to Rajagopalan (2009), 22 million immigrant workers represent about 20% of the American workforce with higher rates in the meat, poultry and construction sectors. Rajagopalan also concluded that leadership preferences by

employees are culturally specific. The lack of conclusive preference among various blue-collar sector employees provides an opportunity to maximize productivity and organizational profitability.

In response to Rajagopalan's (2009) conclusion, the association between leadership style preferences and job satisfaction among a group of low paid participants was studied (i.e., wages between \$8.50 and \$12.10 per hour). The participants were the Hispanic immigrant and non-Hispanic workers in a low skilled manufacturing environment (i.e., blue-collar). The MLQ survey with two job satisfaction questions was used to represent leadership style preferences by participants. Interviews were conducted with 10 randomly selected American born and Hispanic-immigrant participants in order to confirm or refute the survey findings. Demographic variables of interest included gender, age, time in the U.S., pay, and education level.

A total of 203 plant workers completed surveys. The demographic profile was characterized by Hispanic immigrants (50%), Caucasians (30%) and Hispanic-Americans (20%) individuals. Most were male (83%) with the completed level of education that varied from grades 1-6 (20.9%), grades 7-9 (13.4%), 10-11 (15.9%), 12 (32.8%), some college (13.9%) and college degree (3%). The preferred leadership style among Hispanic immigrants was a transformational leadership style regardless of demographic delineation. In addition, transformational leadership ratings were positively correlated ($r = .83, P < .01$) with job satisfaction, whereas transactional leadership style was negatively correlated ($r = -.76, P < .01$) with job satisfaction. Some descriptive differences were noted relative to age, education level and time spent in America. Specifically, older, more educated and longer acculturated workers produced higher ratings of preference for

transformational leadership qualities in their supervisors. There were also differences between Hispanic immigrant and non-Hispanic immigrant workers. Specifically, Hispanic immigrants had statistically significant and lower average ratings of preference for transformational leadership qualities in their supervisors than Hispanic-American or non-Hispanic workers. However, all groups preferred transformational leadership qualities over transactional or laissez-faire leadership qualities (Rajagopalan, 2009).

The above results run contrary to traditional leadership paradigms as blue-collar workers typically prefer to be led by transactional leaders. However, job satisfaction comparisons between employees led from transformational and transactional styles have shown mixed results (Burns, 1978). Based on the results of Shelton's research (2007), transformational leadership qualities in supervisors may also be partially related to the American culture. Further research is needed to confirm this contention

Brown (2009) investigated the association between the leadership styles of K-12 principals and the job satisfaction of teachers (i.e., white-collar). Leadership style was again represented by the MLQ survey instrument. Research by Brown (2009) concluded that K-12 teachers were more likely to leave the field due to ineffective leadership styles than any other reason. In the Brown's study, demographic independent variables of interest included age and tenure. A total of 133 surveys were completed by teachers. The demographic profile was characterized by primarily female participants (88.2%) who were married (75%) with an average age of 38.1 years and 12.3 years of experience. There were statistically significant and positive correlations between transformational leadership qualities and job satisfaction (e.g., supervision, colleagues, working conditions, pay, responsibility, work itself, advancement, security, recognition) in all

categories except responsibility. The strongest correlations existed between the sub-component of transformational leadership inspirational motivation and job satisfaction sub-categories. However, there were slightly negative, but not statistically significant, associations between age, tenure, and transformational leadership qualities. Therefore, age and tenure slightly decrease, or have limited effect, on the need for transformational leadership qualities in their supervisors. Age and tenure did however have some statistically significant and negative correlations on job satisfaction (e.g., supervision $r = -.30, -.36$; advancement $r = -.27, -.35$; and recognition $r = -.20, -.28$). Therefore, it was concluded that older and more experienced K-12 teachers had lower job satisfaction than younger, less experienced K-12 teachers in the specific sub-categories noted above (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

Job Satisfaction for Blue- and white-collar Workers

Many researchers have attempted to examine the ways in which job satisfaction and stress are related (Shafritz, et al., 2015). According to Nydegger (2011), there are significant differences in the level of stress and job satisfaction among blue- and white-collar occupations. He conducted a survey with 140 respondents from office and production employees. The research included twelve possible stressors that were divided into three levels of stress, i.e. Independent, Group, and Organizational, to be analyzed. The researcher conducted a factorial ANOVA analysis, the findings of the study showed the main effects of stress that was experienced by the workers working in both organizations. However, the researcher did not find any differences between the types of stress and level of job satisfaction in both the organizations. Furthermore, Hu, Kaplan, and Dalal (2010) proposed the ways in which the workers belonging to two different

categories differently conceptualize different job facets such as the type of work, their co-workers, supervisors and pay. Hu, et al. conducted series of analyses based on job satisfaction ratings. The findings of the study showed employees from both occupational levels differently conceptualized the nature of work, pay, their co-workers, but not supervisors. Additionally, it highlighted that there are further dimensions for each of the facets for white-collar workers, which depicts that the white-collar employees have more multi-dimensional evaluation of the job facets as compared to blue-collar workers.

Working Environment and Health Conditions

There have been significant changes in the working environments over the past decades. Although, there is a decline in the physical workload, employees consider psychosocial working conditions are extremely important (Nielsen & Abildgaard, 2012). The work environment contributes significantly to the health and well-being of the employees. It is believed that the relation between occupation and perceived health among the employees is largely dependent on the differences in the distribution of their work environment. Many of the employees who are working in bad conditions have reported poor health quite often than the employees working in the upper occupational classes (Siukola, et al., 2013). Studies have shown a stronger association between workload and job control with general health (Rozell, et al., 2011). However, on the other hand, research showed a greater impact of job demands on workers' mental health. Therefore, there are substantially larger differences in effects on the association between work environment and health outcomes (Schrager, 2014). It is possible to reduce the effects on health by adjusting the workplace characteristics. Furthermore, organizations can reduce health inequalities among employees working at different organizational

levels by intervening in the working environment. Several health complaints have resulted due to working conditions. Although, physical workload has been considered as a risk factor for physical health complaints, working conditions at different organizational levels lead to stress and job dissatisfaction.

Hu, et al. (2010) found that employees who are working in the highest exposure quartiles for physical workload experienced more pain than the employees working in the lowest quartile. They also found an occupational class gradient, particularly for musculoskeletal disorders mainly as a result of greater physical demands at work. As a result of psychological job demands employees face coronary heart disease, psychological distress, and mental health disorders; specifically, it is more common among workers employed in lower qualified jobs. Because, there has been a shift in work from industrial to service there have been substantial changes in the risk of health resulting from working conditions that that of a few decades ago. Therefore, it is important to examine the health conditions and the rate of job satisfaction at the occupational level. Schreuder, Roelen, Koopmans, and Groothoff (2008) studied the impact of different job demands on the health complaints among white- and blue-collar workers. They used questionnaires of 280 white and 251 blue-collar workers for analysis. The study results showed that there are higher psychological job demands among white-collar workers and higher physical job demand among blue-collar workers. Employees working in both occupational groups reported low back pain, fatigue, and upper respiratory complaints as being the most common problem.

Differences in Working Environment and Life Quality of Workers

It is important for individuals to ensure that the job they are employed at, irrespective of its location and type of activity, has certain demands and stress factors. The demands must be balanced with the individual capacities to avoid mental and physical stress. The ability of the workers to meet the work demands has a significant contribution in executing the jobs and improving work processes; therefore eventually resulting in better health of the worker. The working environment conditions are strongly associated with profession pursued by the worker and his physical and psychological abilities (Schreuder, et al., 2008). There are significant differences in the physical activity of the workers between populations, according to social class and education. Employees engaged regularly in certain physical activity are likely to have better and improved quality of life. It can result in several benefits that have a direct impact on the daily life of an individual. This eventually leads to improved performance and also better functional well-being. Workers involved in more physical activities, specifically working at the production level are likely to have less risk of developing diseases that are related to a better lifestyle.

On the other hand, Schager (2014) argues that the life expectancy of people has increased, and some of them are living even longer than others. More specifically, white-collar salaried workers and the workers who are not part of any labor union are likely to have a life expectancy rate of 50% more than blue-collar workers. In contrast to Soares (2012), the study of Schager revealed the mortality trends among office workers and production workers based on the findings of the Society of Actuaries. The results showed blue-collar workers typically have a lower life expectancy rate than white-collar workers.

The worker of production employees is physically more stressful with less pay, and thus, both the factors are correlated to job expectancy. Therefore, the impact of variations in working conditions on level of job satisfaction among blue- and white-collar workers will further be analyzed.

Summary

The variables of interest were summarized, synthesized, and evaluated to conclude that there are associations between leadership style, emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. The strength and direction of the associations are contingent on many factors identified in the literature. The most recent doctoral-level research related to the constructs of interest was represented in the chapter as follows: (a) emotional intelligence and personality, (b) emotional intelligence and job stress, (c) emotional intelligence and leadership style (Rajagopalan, 2009), (d) emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Howard, 2008), and (e) leadership and job satisfaction among blue and white-collar workers (Brown, 2009). However, it is unknown and unreported what impact emotional intelligence and transformational leadership styles have on employee job satisfaction as differentiated between blue and white-collar work settings. Consequently, a gap exists in the inventory of literature that this current study was equipped to fill. Current research provides an insight into the managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style and the influence these variables have on the employees working in the different work settings.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the association of emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, of managerial leaders with employee-reported job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in selected blue-collar (i.e., manufacturing and production) and white-collar (i.e., service) work environments. This chapter presents the methods that were used to conduct the research. The design and approach undertaken to conduct the research has been described. I described the measurement of the intervention, data collection, and data analysis and also presented the methods used to protect the identities and preserve the rights of all participants.

Guiding Hypotheses

Null hypotheses use the abbreviation *Ho* while alternate hypotheses use the abbreviation *Ha*. This procedure is consistent with standards reported by Adeoye and Torubelli (2011). The following hypotheses guided the study.

Ho1: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha1: There is a statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha2: There is a statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ho3: There are no statistically significant associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ha3: There are statistically significant associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ho4: There are no statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ha4: There are statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ho5: There are no statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ha5: There are statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

The common goal that exists among all businesses, both blue- and white-collar, is to maximize profits through the delivery of quality products/services. One of the keys to organizational success depends on the relationship between leaders and employees.

Billions of dollars are spent by U.S. businesses for management education (Gordon,

2014). Recently, there has been significant interest in enhancing transformational leadership skills and emotional intelligence of managerial leaders in both blue- and white-collar settings (Carter, et al., 2013). However, without measuring the impact of leadership training through employee job satisfaction ratings, one cannot conclude its effectiveness based solely on change in corporate profitability.

Moreover, studies have shown that the majority of business-related stress exists among white-collar employees (BLS, 2009). Such stress results in increased sick days, decreased morale, and increased employee turnover. Therefore, reducing job stress through differences in transformational leadership style and/or the emotional intelligence of managerial leaders offers information to support or refute the managerial education and training programs. The impact of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership styles on employee job satisfaction as differentiated between blue- and white-collar work settings is currently unknown. Consequently, there is a gap in the existing literature that can be partially filled. It was necessary to study the influences that a managerial leader's emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style may have on employees in distinctly different work environments.

Moreover, from the strength and direction of associations developed, business leaders may better understand managerial/employee associations based on transformational leadership characteristics, emotional intelligence, and job satisfaction ratings. Consequently, the resources spent on enhancing managerial leadership skills can be apportioned more efficiently for the type of organization represented (i.e., blue- or white-collar).

Research Design and Approach

According to Hess and Bacigalupo (2011), epistemology refers to the area of philosophy that studies the nature of knowledge, its fundamentals and legitimacy.

Various methods are used to study assumptions about the world. The assumptions are roughly divided between positivism (i.e., one reality that can be measured quantitatively) and constructivism (i.e., multiple realities that are typically measured qualitatively). The characteristics and considerations of quantitative and qualitative research methods are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Quantitative Versus Qualitative Evaluation

Point of Comparison	Qualitative Research	Quantitative Research
Focus of the research	Quality (nature, essence)	Quantity (how much)
Philosophical roots	Constructivism, symbolic	Positivism, logical
Associated phrases	Fieldwork, ethnographic, naturalistic, grounded, phenomenological	Experimental, empirical, statistical, numerical, theoretical
Design characteristics	Flexible, evolving, emergent	Predetermined, structured
Sample	Small (1-15)	Large (30+)
Data collection	Researcher as primary, Observations, instrument, interviews	inanimate instruments, computers, tests, surveys, questionnaires
Mode of analysis	Inductive (by researcher)	Deductive (by statistics)
Findings	Comprehensive, holistic	Precise, narrow, reductionist

In addition to the above considerations in choosing a research method, validity of the results is important. According to Farh et al. (2012), the six most common types of validity for quantitative research include, (a) face validity in which the quantitative

instrument (e.g., survey) appears to measure what it intends to measure, (b) content validity, which is the extent to which an instrument is representative of the content being measured, (c) criterion validity, which is the extent to which a measurement instrument is correlated with another related instrument, (d) construct validity, which is the extent to which an instrument measures a characteristic that cannot be directly observed, but instead is inferred from patterns, usually behavioral, (e) internal validity, which is related to the design and data a research study yields that allows the researcher to draw accurate conclusions about cause and effect, and (f) external validity, which is related to how the results of a study apply to situations beyond the study itself (i.e., generalizability).

According to Hess and Bacigalupo (2011), internal validity often comprises a combination of face, content, construct, and criterion validity. This type of validity is much stronger in quantitative methods as compared to qualitative methods. Likewise, external validity is greater in quantitative methods due to the larger sample sizes that are typically absent in qualitative methods (Farh et al., 2012). According to Farh et al. (2012), the appropriateness of a quantitative research design is justified by how it most effectively and efficiently accomplishes the goals of the study. I chose a non-experimental descriptive and correlational survey design because I wanted to quantify each variable, measure variables using a survey instrument, and study a large population of participants who qualified for inclusion. This design is based on the epistemological constructs of positivism (i.e., variables or constructs of interest have one measurable reality) to measure the strength and direction of associations and magnitude of differences between variables of interest. Survey research is an efficient and effective

design to use when a large amount of data is required in a short period of time (Mayer, 1990).

Population

The population consisted of managers and employees from a single large organization containing blue- and white-collar employees as defined in Chapter 1. The total number of managers was 35, and the number of employees was 120. The location was chosen for the following reasons:

1. Verbal agreement with the executive allowed survey research to be conducted using an email list of all managers/employees.
2. I had personal work-related experiences at the location.
3. The organizational and employee size of the location aligns with the sizes of geographically similar locations.

A non probability purposive study was conducted that included a non proportional quota sampling method. The method of selection for participants did not qualify as a purely random selection derived from the general target population. Instead, the sample was restricted to the workplace environments that were the most easily accessible for the study. Feasibility and convenience were taken into consideration. However, while the participants were selected from a population that was convenient and accessible, the selection process was still purposive. The participants were relevant to the study because they represented the subgroups of managers and subordinates within blue- and white-collar workplaces.

One distinction that should be made is that, although the selection of potential participants was convenient, the overall method for sampling did not meet the criteria for

categorization as convenience sampling (Hess & Becigalupo, 2011). Convenience did not serve as the primary driving criterion. For example, participants were not solicited off the street as would occur in a pure form of convenience sampling. Instead, they were selected from the most conveniently accessible population of potential participants who were relevant to the intended purpose of the study. The sampling process included the types of individuals for whom the results would ultimately be relevant. This created a nonrandom subgroup that was part of the larger population for which results were generalized.

The sampling method reflected characteristics of non proportional quota sampling. Samples of individuals used in each subgroup were not necessarily proportionate in characteristic, title, or other traits to the exact fundamentals of the same subgroups that were present in the larger population. However, a sufficient number of responses from each subgroup were included to allow for application of results to the larger population of subordinates and managers in contrasting workplaces. This lent credibility to the findings, in light of the lack of extrapolation potential, which is conducive to the alternative random sampling techniques (Hess & Becigalupo, 2011).

Consistent with the concept of non proportional quota sampling, the following assessments were used. Pertaining to survey execution (Hess & Becigalupo, 2011), survey participation rates vary widely depending on the nature or length of the survey questionnaire. Adeoye and Torubelli (2011) reported an expected survey participation rate of 30-50%. This would result in approximately 9-15 managers and 90-150 employees who would be expected to complete surveys. According to Adeoye and Torubelli (2011), a minimum of 30 completed surveys (i.e., sets of data) is required to meet the central limit theorem requirement. This allows the statistical calculations and

results of the study to be representative of the greater population. I anticipated that most managers would complete their surveys because they had shown interest in improving their managerial leadership skills.

The findings were not as specific as the findings rendered from a probability sample. This is a function of a sample error calculation. However, in spite of this, the sampling method employed still met the criteria for the production of results that are relevant and advantageous when applied to the overall target population of interest. This lent credence to the applicability and usefulness of the findings presented here.

According to Adeoye and Torubelli (2011), purposive sampling allows for a convenient analysis of a sub portion of the target population, though the characteristic of proportionality does not result in a primary strength. Nevertheless, while it is likely that opinions and findings that occur within the larger target population will occur, it should be acknowledged that certain traits associated with the convenience of the potential samples may show some bias. The bias may manifest in the form of certain subgroups that could be over weighted within the sample as a function of the potential variables (Adeoye & Torubelli, 2011).

The samples selected for this research were contacted and surveyed within 30 calendar days. The targeted sample size for this research was assumed to be 30 managers and 100 employees working in blue- and white-collar work environment, but the survey results analyzed after the completion of surveying process revealed that a total of 35 managers and 120 employees had participated in the survey. Hence, there appeared no need of applying any kind of non-parametric statistics in order to make the data more reliable.

Instrumentation

The gold standard for survey validity/reliability is a Cronbach's alpha score of .70 or higher. There were three different instruments used in the research process for the purpose of identifying the level of emotional intelligence, leadership style and job satisfaction in managers and employees working in blue- and white-collar environments. The instrument used to measure the emotional intelligence, leadership style, and job satisfaction level was EJI, MLQ, and JSS respectively.

Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI)

Emotional Intelligence (EI) refers to a person's ability to recognize, manage, and assess human emotions. This ability is represented by seven qualities on the EJI. The qualities include (a) *BA* being aware of emotions, (b) *IS* identifying own emotions, (c) *IO* identifying others' emotions, (d) *MS* managing own emotions, (e) *MO* managing others' emotions, (f) *PS* using emotions in problem solving, and (g) *EE* expressing emotions adaptively as measured by the Emotional Judgment Inventory (Berman, Evan, & Jonathan, 2008). The cumulative value of the emotional judgment is represented by an 80-item survey rated on a 7-point scale from 1 = *absolutely disagree* to 7 = *absolutely agree*, with 4 = *not sure*.

EJI Validity and Reliability

According to Berman and West (2008), internal consistencies ranged from .76 to .88 in the calibration sample and .73 to .88 with a cumulative average of .78 in the validation sample of more than 1,200 participants. Test-retest (four weeks) reliabilities ranged from .64 to .90 among the seven EJI subscales and have a cumulative average of

.73. The EJI instrument is available for purchase from IPAT Inc., which grants permission for use and publication of results.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The MLQ, a 45-item questionnaire, was created by transformational leadership researchers (Bass & Avolio, 2009). The 45-item questionnaire is rated on a 5-point Likert scale (*0 = not at all, 1 = once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, 4 = frequently, if not always*). Individual questions are grouped to represent 10 leadership subscales (i.e., Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception, Laissez-Faire Leadership, Extra Effort, Effectiveness and Satisfaction). Transformational leadership encompasses four interdependent components:

1. *Idealized influence* is a component based on the attributes and behaviors that build confidence and trust providing a role model, which followers seek to emulate. Transformational leaders are admired and respected. It is the leader in the person and not the authority. MLQ questions 6, 14, 23, 34, 10, 19, 21, 25 represent this sub-category of transformational leadership.
2. *Individualized consideration* refers to the way followers are treated individually and differently based on given talents and knowledge allowing them to reach their levels of achievement. MLQ questions 9, 13, 26, 36 represent this sub-category of transformational leadership.
3. *Intellectual stimulation* refers to that which changes the follower's awareness of problems and allowing them to solve the problems. The transformational leader empowers the followers and persuades them to develop new ideas.

MLQ questions 2, 8, 30, 32 represent this sub-category of transformational leadership.

4. *Inspirational motivation* lets the leader offer a conception of the future that is appealing to the followers and an opportunity to realize that work is meaningful, thus challenging them to maintain a high standard. MLQ questions 15, 19, 29, 31 represent this subcategory of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership style is defined as a set of four leadership characteristics (e.g., idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration) that have the effect of transforming the people being led because it taps into their needs, desires, and centers of motivation and meaning (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Farh, et al., 2012). Such characteristics have been cumulatively measured and evaluated by the average for all four subcategories of transformational leadership and individually evaluated among the managerial leaders participating in the study.

MLQ Validity and Reliability

The average intercorrelation coefficient (Cronbach's) among the transformational subscales was .83. Individualized influence has an alpha of .73, inspirational motivation .82, intellectual stimulation .74, and individualized consideration .78. All subscales exceed the validity/reliability criteria for this survey instrument being representative of the construct of transformational leadership. The MLQ survey is available for purchase through Mind Garden Inc., which grants permission for use and publication of results.

Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

Spector (1985) developed the JSS to reflect employee attitudes about their jobs. This is based on nine different job aspects (e.g., pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards-performance based rewards, operating procedures-required rules and procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication). The 36-item JSS survey questions are rated on a six-point Likert scale from *1 = Disagree very much* to *6 = Agree very much*. Items are written in both directions so about half must be reverse scored. Average scores of four or more represent satisfaction, whereas mean responses of three or less represent dissatisfaction. Mean scores between three and four are ambivalent (Speckerm, 1985).

JSS Validity and Reliability

Spector's 1997 scoring guide of results and internal consistency reliabilities (i.e., Cronbach's alpha scores) is based on studies with 2,870 participants published since 1985 which states that the total alpha value of all nine job satisfaction aspects should be .91, including pay (.75), promotion (.73), supervision (.82), fringe benefits (.73), contingent rewards (.76), operating procedures (.62), coworkers (.60), nature of work (.78), and communication (.71). Again, the Cronbach's alpha values of .7 or higher indicates outstanding validity and independent question consistency. Spector provides permission for JSS use in non-commercial applications.

Variables

The independent variables were the managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style in blue- and white-collar work environments. The primary dependent variable was job satisfaction among employees working in selected

blue- and white-collar jobs. This acted as a proxy measure of leadership effectiveness based on emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style. Job satisfaction was not only represented by the cumulative ratings of the 36 questions on the JSS instrument, but was also analyzed for the nine sub-components of job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence was not only represented by the cumulative ratings on the EJI instrument, but was also analyzed for the seven sub-scales of emotional intelligence. Transformational leadership was not only represented by the cumulative ratings of the 45 questions specified on the MLQ instrument, but was also analyzed for the four subscales of transformational leadership. The strength and direction of associations and magnitude of differences between demographic, independent, and dependent variables have helped in deciding which variables were within the control of organizational leaders. This led to more proportionate emphasis and money spent on enhancing the managerial leadership skills through transformational leadership skill and/or emotional intelligence education and training.

Data Collection Procedures

No data was collected or examined until successful completion of the following three-part process:

- University mentor/committee and IRB approval. (IRB #11-25-15-0096525)
- Permission to survey managerial leaders and employees is attained from the person(s) with the authority to grant such permissions from the blue and white-collar work settings noted in the Population/Sample section.
- Informed consent is agreed to by the participants.

Potential participants were advised in advance that the survey was strictly voluntary with no repercussions for non-cooperation or withdrawal. Upon completion of the procedures, the survey solicitation form was posted in the location break rooms. Interested parties were instructed to contact the researcher to obtain copies of the survey instruments. Informed consent was obtained before surveys are released to prospective participants. Managerial leader participants received the EJI and MLQ surveys in a self-addressed stamped envelope for return to the researcher. Employee participants received the JSS surveys with identical instructions for return. Survey solicitation was extended to 30 calendar days in order to obtain the minimally statistically valid sample representation from each group (i.e., blue and white-collar managerial leaders and employees).

All identifying information of each participant was coded alpha-numerically in order to preserve the anonymity and confidentiality requirements. Blue-collar managerial leader survey codes were labeled *BCL* with a following number “1-35” based on the order of survey completion. White-collar managerial leader survey codes were labeled *WCL* with a following number “1-35” based on their order completed survey completion. Blue-collar employee survey codes were labeled *BCE* with a following number “1-120” based on their order of survey completion. White-collar employee survey codes were labeled *WCE* with a following number “1-120” based on their order of survey completion.

Survey completion time was expected to be 45 minutes for managerial leaders and 30 minutes for employees based on their respective survey instruments. All completed and received surveys were transferred by the researcher to a password protected SSPS

electronic database. No personally identifying information was gathered or stored. Data will be kept for seven years and then shredded and discarded appropriately.

Data Analysis Approach

Electronic data coding of data began as soon as the completed surveys from all the participants were received. Backup copies were made and stored appropriately in case of fire, damage, theft, and confidentiality. Each hypothesis was statistically analyzed using SPSS version 16.0. Descriptive data included the number of responses (n), mean (\bar{x}), median (med), mode (m), and standard deviation (sd), as applicable for all demographic and survey responses.

Inferential statistics were applied to test the corresponding hypotheses. Alpha levels (P) of ≤ 0.05 were set as the cutoff for Type I error representation of all inferential statistics. Alpha values ≤ 0.05 supported the alternate hypothesis, whereas alpha values of > 0.05 supported the null hypothesis. The researcher has used chi-square test to examine the association between the two categorical variables i.e. blue- and white-collar workers. It is a test that facilitates in evaluating the “goodness of fit between” between certain observed values and the values that are observed theoretically.

Protection of Participants

The surveys that contain information about the subordinates’ perceptions of job satisfaction have been kept confidential and will only be viewed by the researcher. Individual managers have not received any form of personal feedback regarding their employees’ perceptions of their behavior. In addition, participating subordinates were informed about the measures of confidentiality and reassured before the execution of the survey that the information they report was kept in strict confidence. Participants are not

subjected to any form of retaliation or punitive action from their managers as a result of their participation in the study. The nature of the study, as well as the process for handling surveys, was explained to respondents upon request. This was in addition to the initial information that was presented in the original cover letter that accompanies the first administration of the survey.

Participants have not, however, been given any information regarding the specific nature of the research. This was primarily to prevent (or at least diminish) the potential for Hawthorne effects that might result from the participants' knowing the intent of the research. This compromises the overall reliability of the design (Rajagopalan, 2009). Instead, participating subordinates were simply been informed that the general intent of the intervention was to improve the workplace, as a whole, through leadership development programs such as the one presented in the research. To further ensure the confidence of participating subordinates and to increase the potential for accurate and honest responses, all surveys was administered in the absolute absence of managers. The surveys were collected immediately upon completion. The surveys were then been sealed in an envelope and opened only by the researcher at a later date for their entry into an electronic database.

Expected Findings

Based on the theoretical framework and related research literature, the author expects the following results:

- Positive associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence as measured by the EJI and employees' job satisfaction using the JSS in blue and white-collar environments.

- Positive associations between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style as measured by the MLQ and employee reported job satisfaction using the JSS in blue and white-collar environments.
- Positive associations between blue and white-collar managerial leaders' emotional intelligence using the EJI and transformational leadership style as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, using the JSS.
- Differences in the strength of associations between emotional judgment and job satisfaction, leadership style and job satisfaction, emotional judgment and leadership style between blue and white-collar settings. However, given the conflicting research findings related to the variable combinations in blue and white-collar settings reported in Chapter 2, the author cannot make a prediction at this time.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlational survey study was to test the hypothesis that leadership style influences blue- and white-collar employee job satisfaction, which ultimately impacts the success of a business. The aim was to determine the associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence as measured by the EJI, managerial leaders' leadership style as measured by MLQ and employees' job satisfaction as measured by the JSS in blue- and white-collar environments. The analysis of the findings and the results of the study are presented in the sections below. The statistical test used in the study, chi-square, is described in the following sections. The estimation results are presented in tables where the coefficients of the independent variables and their individual and joint significance are shown. The model turned out to be significant, and all variables presented the expected significance and were relevant to the explanation of the probability.

Data Collection

An overview of the total respondents qualified for the study and their demographics is provided below. Three different survey questionnaires were distributed among the employees of the organization to collect data suitable for the testing of the hypotheses.

Response Rate of the Sample

The survey was conducted using three different instruments: emotional judgment inventory (EJI), multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ), and job satisfaction survey (JSS). Table 2 presents the total number of people who participated in the three surveys and their designations as managers or non managers.

Table 2

Total Selected Respondents

	JSS	MLQ	EJI
Participated	127	36	35
Managers	5	35	32
Non-managers	120	1	3
Selected Respondents	120	35	32

The data collection lasted 30 days. A total of 120 respondents were selected in the JSS survey out of 127 participants because the survey was for non-managers only. Five participants were managers, who were asked not to continue, while the remaining two participants were not willing to continue. The MLQ survey was for managers and included 35 respondents. One participant was a non-manager, and was therefore excluded. For the EJI survey, 32 managers were selected and three non-managers were excluded.

Demographic Characteristics

Table 3 depicts the total number of blue- and white-collar employees who participated in the JSS, MLQ, and EJI surveys.

Table 3

Employee Characteristics

	JSS	MLQ	EJI
Blue-Collar Employee	75	7	11
White-Collar Employee	45	28	21
Total	120	35	32

Results

The frequencies of responses received in each of the three instruments surveyed have been presented in this section. This section is sub-divided into three parts: Survey Instrument results, Hypotheses Testing and main Findings. The survey instrument result section provides the descriptive analysis of the all three instruments (Emotional Judgment Inventory (EJI), Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)) used and determines the mean score and standard deviation along with frequencies of the responses for each statement of each questionnaire. Hypotheses testing section provides the results of the statistical tests applied against each hypothesis so that the analysis could be made on stronger grounds. The tests were applied with the help of SPSS software. Finally, the last sub-section provides the overview of the main findings.

JSS Survey Results

Table 4 presents the JSS survey results, which indicate that a majority of the participants were dissatisfied with their job.

Table 4

JSS Survey Results

Statements	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	3	5	20	46	36	8	4.11	1.068

(table continues)

Statements	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
2. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	2	10	32	41	26	7	3.85	1.099
3. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	0	8	32	31	36	11	4.08	1.106
4. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	3	15	32	31	27	10	3.80	1.244
5. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	4	18	21	32	32	11	3.87	1.318
6. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	4	10	30	26	36	12	3.98	1.274
7. I like the people I work with.	2	11	33	20	41	11	4.02	1.240
8. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	9	20	24	35	25	5	3.53	1.319
9. Communications seem good within this organization.	4	25	24	26	31	8	3.67	1.340
10. Raises are too few and far between.	3	13	23	37	28	14	3.98	1.261
11. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	3	15	33	37	22	8	3.71	1.185
12. My supervisor is unfair to me.	11	22	15	33	36	1	3.54	1.363
13. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	2	12	30	29	39	6	3.92	1.163
14. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	2	15	21	39	33	8	3.93	1.182

(table continues)

Statements	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
15. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	2	16	38	27	26	9	3.73	1.217
16. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	3	12	21	43	32	7	3.93	1.153
17. I like doing the things I do at work.	1	10	26	23	42	16	4.21	1.225
18. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	4	17	25	34	33	5	3.76	1.224
19. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	6	14	29	34	30	5	3.70	1.236
20. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	5	16	37	29	26	5	3.59	1.214
21. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	6	11	26	33	36	6	3.85	1.245
22. The benefit package we have is equitable.	4	13	22	37	33	9	3.92	1.235
23. There are few rewards for those who work here.	3	7	35	33	34	6	3.90	1.120
24. I have too much to do at work.	3	18	29	39	24	5	3.66	1.164
25. I enjoy my coworkers.	0	14	25	30	40	9	4.04	1.158
26. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	0	12	34	32	36	4	3.88	1.064

(table continues)

Statements	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
27. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	2	13	20	37	33	13	4.06	1.222
28. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	7	18	23	40	27	3	3.60	1.234
29. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	0	13	26	39	33	7	3.96	1.089
30. I like my supervisor.	0	12	32	32	31	11	3.97	1.151
31. I have too much paperwork.	3	20	24	37	27	7	3.73	1.231
32. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	10	29	31	42	5	4.00	1.094
33. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	8	12	23	46	24	5	3.69	1.224
34. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	2	11	34	38	25	8	3.82	1.129
35. My job is enjoyable.	1	7	22	38	41	9	4.17	1.065
36. Work assignments are not fully explained.	5	28	35	28	19	3	3.31	1.196

The mean score of the negative statements were all above 3, which indicated that the participants agreed with all of the negative statements that reflected job dissatisfaction. The statements focused on the respondents' perceptions, which indicated that there was minimal chance for promotion (3.85), workers were not pleased with the obtained remunerations (3.80), rules and procedures of the organization were making a good job difficult (3.98), participants' job was meaningless (3.53), incentives and raises

were too few (3.98), the supervisor was unfair (3.54), the work participants did was not appreciated (3.93), participants needed to work harder because of the ineffectiveness of individuals they worked with (3.93), goals of the organization were not clear (3.76), participants were unappreciated by the organization (3.70), supervisors showed little interest in the feelings of the subordinates (3.85), there were few rewards (3.90), there was too much work (3.66), participants had no idea about the current or ongoing work process of their organization (3.88), there were no benefits (3.96), there was too much paperwork (3.73), participants did not feel that their efforts were rewarded (4.00), there was too much bickering and fighting at work (3.82), and participants 'work assignments were not fully explained to them (3.31).

Seven statements that were positively worded had a mean score greater than or equal to 4, which indicated that the participants agreed with the statements showing they were satisfied with their job. The participants agreed that they were being paid a fair amount (4.11), their supervisors were quite competent in doing their jobs (4.08), participants liked the people they worked with (4.02), participants liked the nature of their work (4.21), participants enjoyed their coworkers (4.04), participants felt a sense of pride in doing their jobs (4.06), and participants 'jobs were enjoyable (4.17).

MLQ Survey Results

Table 5 presents the results obtained regarding the leadership qualities of the respondents based on the MLQ questionnaire.

Table 5

MLQ Survey Results

Statements	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently If not always	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
1. I provide others with assistance for their efforts.	0	6	9	14	5	3.53	.961
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	0	3	11	15	5	3.65	.849
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious.	4	7	14	7	2	2.88	1.066
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	0	6	9	15	4	3.50	.929
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.	8	4	10	10	2	2.82	1.267
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs.	1	6	12	12	3	3.29	.970
7. I am absent when needed.	6	8	7	9	4	2.91	1.311
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	1	6	10	13	4	3.38	1.015
9. I talk optimistically about the future.	2	6	6	14	6	3.47	1.161
10. I instill pride on others for being associated with me.	1	6	18	3	6	3.21	1.038

(table continues)

Statements	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently If not always	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	1	6	9	15	3	3.38	.985
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	7	8	8	9	2	2.74	1.238
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	6	8	11	9	3.68	1.065
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	7	10	13	4	3.41	.957
15. I spend time teaching and coaching.	1	3	10	11	9	3.71	1.060
16. I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	2	3	13	12	4	3.38	1.015
17. I show that I am a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it."	1	8	10	13	2	3.21	.978
18. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	3	6	8	9	8	3.38	1.280
19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	0	4	11	15	4	3.56	.860
20. I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.	6	8	9	10	1	2.76	1.156
21. I act in ways that build others' respect for me.	1	7	9	14	3	3.32	1.007
22. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.	1	7	12	11	3	3.24	.987

(table continues)

Statements	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently If not always	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
23. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1	5	11	11	6	3.47	1.051
24. I keep track of all mistakes.	1	3	15	15	0	3.29	.760
25. I display a sense of power and confidence.	0	7	12	14	1	3.26	.828
26. I articulate a compelling vision of the future.	1	5	11	14	3	3.38	.954
27. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.	1	5	14	10	4	3.32	.976
28. I avoid making decisions.	9	12	8	5	0	2.26	1.024
29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	3	5	11	12	3	3.21	1.095
30. I get others to look at problems from many different angles.	1	7	8	13	5	3.41	1.076
31. I help others to develop their strengths.	1	3	13	9	8	3.59	1.048
32. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1	7	9	14	3	3.32	1.007
33. I delay responding to urgent questions.	9	4	14	7	0	2.56	1.106
34. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	1	7	13	10	3	3.21	.978
35. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.	0	6	11	11	6	3.50	.992
36. I express confidence that goals will be achieved.	2	5	9	7	11	3.59	1.258

(table continues)

Statements	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently If not always	Mean Score	Std. Deviation
37. I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.	0	5	9	13	7	3.65	.981
38. I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.	0	5	13	11	5	3.47	.929
39. I get others to do more than they expected to do.	1	4	15	11	3	3.32	.912
40. I am effective in representing others to higher authority.	1	5	12	10	6	3.44	1.050
41. I work with others in a satisfactory way.	0	9	10	7	8	3.41	1.131
42. I heighten others' desire to succeed.	1	6	13	7	7	3.38	1.101
43. I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.	1	7	13	7	6	3.29	1.088
44. I increase others' willingness to try harder.	0	7	11	9	7	3.47	1.051
45. I lead a group that is effective.	2	6	13	7	6	3.26	1.136

The mean score of greater than 3 was observed in all the items of MLQ

questionnaire results. Therefore, almost all the participants had some leadership qualities.

Moreover, the participants had the transformational leadership quality was revealed by MLQ survey. The statements which showed the transformational quality of the participants were that they usually re-examined critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate (3.65), they talked about their most important values and beliefs (3.29), they seek differing perspectives when solving problems (3.38), they talked

optimistically about the future (3.47), they instilled pride on others for being associated with them (3.21), they talked enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (3.68), they specified the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (3.41), they usually spent time teaching and coaching (3.71), they treated others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group (3.56), they acted in ways that build others' respect for them (3.32), they considered the moral and ethical consequences of decisions (3.47), they displayed a sense of power and confidence (3.26), they articulated a compelling vision of the future (3.38), they considered an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others (3.21), they get others to look at problems from many different angles (3.41), they helped others to develop their strengths (3.59), they suggested new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (3.32), they emphasized the importance of having a collective sense of mission (3.21), and they expressed confidence that goals will be achieved (3.59).

EJI Survey Results

Table 6 presents the mean scores and the standard deviation scores of the participant's survey through EJI Questionnaire.

Table 6

Mean and Standard Deviation of EJI survey results

Dimensions	Mean Scores	Std. Deviations
Being aware of emotions	41.5	0.929
Identifying own emotions	45	1.267
Identifying others' emotions	39.5	0.97
Managing own emotions	43	1.311
Managing others' emotions	30.5	1.015
Using emotions in problem solving	39	0.985
Expressing emotions adaptively	48	1.038

The values of the standard deviation of just 0.9 to 1.0 show that much variation in the answers of the respondents was not found and emotion-related behavior and management was all the same amongst all the participants (blue- and white-collar).

Hypotheses Testing

Ho1: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue- and white-collar environments.

Table 7

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.845	31	0.002
Likelihood Ratio	26.936	31	0.025
Linear-by-Linear Association	.056	1	0.812
N of Valid Cases	34		

The Chi-Square value of 0.002 is less than the test value (p-value = 0.05), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and employees' job satisfaction in blue- and white-collar environments.

Ho2: There is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, and employees' job satisfaction, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Table 8

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	298.611 a	289	.336
Likelihood Ratio	118.988	289	1.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	.020	1	.888
N of Valid Cases	25		

The Chi-Square value of 0.336 is greater than the test value (p-value = 0.05), therefore, there is no statistically significant association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style and employees' job satisfaction in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Ho3: There are no statistically significant associations between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence, as measured by the EJI, and transformational leadership style, as measured by the MLQ, on employee job satisfaction ratings, as measured by the JSS, in blue-collar and white-collar environments.

Table 9

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	298.611	31	.003
Likelihood Ratio	118.988	31	0.254
Linear-by-Linear Association	.020	1	.018
N of Valid Cases	25		

The Chi-Square value of 0.003 is less than the test value (p-value = 0.05), therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant difference in associations between blue- and white-collar managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style on employee job satisfaction ratings.

Ho4: There are no statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Table 10

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	28.621	31	.001
Likelihood Ratio	19.38	31	0.414
Linear-by-Linear Association	.020	1	.022
N of Valid Cases	25		

The Chi-Square value of 0.001 is less than the test value (p-value = 0.05), therefore, null hypothesis is rejected. There is a statistically significant differences in emotional intelligence levels of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Ho5: There are no statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Table 11

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	25.845	23	.308
Likelihood Ratio	26.936	23	.259
Linear-by-Linear Association	.056	1	.812
N of Valid Cases	34		

The Chi-Square value of 0.308 is greater than the test value (p-value = 0.05), therefore, there is no statistically significant differences in leadership style between white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Main Findings of the Study

The main findings of the study were as follows:

- There is a statistically significant difference in the association between managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and employees' job satisfaction in blue- and white-collar environments. This indicates that, as the degree of emotional intelligence presence increases, the job satisfaction ratings of employee's at both office and production level also strengthens, resulting in increased ratings levels.
- There is no statistically significant difference in the association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style and employee-reported job satisfaction in blue- and white-collar environments. An association between the variables of job satisfaction and leadership style cannot be assumed.
- There is a statistically significant difference in associations between blue and white-collar managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style on employee job satisfaction ratings. The variations in emotional intelligence, leadership style and employee outcomes do exist, dependent on the variable of environment.
- There is a statistically significant difference in the emotional intelligence level of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.
- There is no statistically significant difference in the leadership style level of white-collar leaders and blue-collar leaders.

Summary

The findings of the study obtained through the survey of the employees from both, the blue- and white-collar environment were presented. The results of the three instruments and applied statistical tests, correlation and chi-square tests, to find out the association and relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles with the job satisfaction of the employees working in blue- and white-collar environments were analyzed. The important findings were also discussed in the chapter. For the interpretation and discussion of the findings in contrast to the findings of previous researchers, the following chapter provides the critical analysis.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The main findings and practical implications of the study are presented below. The following sections also provide discussion of the research objectives and results presented in Chapter 4. In addition, the limitations of the study and the recommendations for future research are provided.

Interpretation of the Findings

I conducted a quantitative study using a correlational survey design to test the hypothesis that leadership style influences blue- and white-collar employee job satisfaction, which ultimately impacts the success of a business. More specifically, I examined the variables of leadership style and emotional intelligence, concentrating on the impact of these variables on employees' job satisfaction. The independent variables were managerial leaders' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style in blue- and white-collar work environments. The dependent variable was job satisfaction among employees working in selected blue- and white-collar jobs.

Leadership skills are the most important for all the change processes because leadership skills are often considered the highest sought after. A leader holds the power that is capable of generating the desired performance attributes that are required in the process of managing change (Brynjolfsson, Renshaw, & Van Alstyne, 2012). A leader is the main influencer to manage people and change at the same time. No successful change can be imagined in the absence of any leader (Robbins, et al., 2013). Keller (2009) revealed that every team, group, business or organization requires a leader to excel and achieve the set goals. A leader provides direction and motivation to the employees of an organization or members of the group (Avolio & Yammarino, 2012). Durbin (2015) stated

that leadership is one of the most important features that have the power to lead individuals in the preferred way. Leadership provides a significant path to influence minds and motivate the organization or group toward the attainment of recognized goals (Barth-Farkas & Vera, 2014). In comparison, the findings of this study indicated that there was no association between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style and employee-reported job satisfaction in blue- and white-collar environments.

Employees who possess greater emotional intelligence will realize greater job satisfaction (Howard, 2008). The study findings showed that there was an association between job satisfaction and emotional intelligence. The major reason is employees who have greater emotional intelligence possess the capability to develop plans to resolve issues that might arise due to stress, whereas employees who have less emotional intelligence will probably not manage those issues. Job satisfaction is one factor that shows how employees feel about their jobs, and job satisfaction helps to predict employees' behavior toward work, such as absenteeism and turnover.

Emotional intelligence includes the ability to handle data precisely and effectively, including data important to the acknowledgment, development and regulation of feeling in oneself and other people (Dasgupta et al., 2012). Individuals who have greater levels of emotional intelligence possess emotional expertise that provides strength to deal with the daily challenges of life and to promote. Considering the role of emotional intelligence in coping behavior, researchers have brought forth substantial benefits for people (Clark, et al., 2014). Emotional intelligence has consistently been associated with positive consequences including work and life satisfaction, healthy interpersonal

relationships, psychological well-being, and psychophysiological measures of adaptive coping and physical health (Rajagopalan, 2009).

Individuals are not equally capable of perceiving, understanding and using emotional intelligence. The individual variances are more frequently called differences in emotional intelligence that affect the mental health of the individuals (Berman & West 2008). Many researchers have suggested that higher emotional intelligence promotes better feelings of psychological well-being (Farh et al., 2012; Goleman, 2004; Parker, 2014). In various studies (Schreuder et al., 2008), differences have come into view in the level of abilities through which individuals' knowhow to recognize the feelings in themselves and others, and how to regulate the feelings and use the information sent by the feeling to promote effective behavior. The emotional abilities have been theorized as composing the construct of emotional intelligence (Schreuder et al., 2008).

Emotional intelligence has been given significant attention by researchers and professionals (Parker, 2014). Researchers have suggested a different perspective in the study of emotions, and emotional intelligence has been considered an important phenomenon providing constructive information to help individuals deal with daily problems effectively (Brown, 2009). The intellectual use of the emotions is vital for one's psychological and physical adjustment (Parker, 2014). Emotional intelligence is the ability to communicate affective information in an accurate and efficient way, including the information related to the identification, construction, and regulation of emotions within one's self and in others (Farh et al., 2012). The emotional information usually depicts the understanding of individuals' relations with the environment (Berman & West

2008), and can be processed and in a different way from cognitive information (Avolio & Yammarino, 2012).

Emotional intelligence is considered as the most important aspect for the success of an organization because leaders play an essential role in developing the skills and shaping the attitude and behavior of employees towards business growth and improved performance (Ubben, Hughes & Norris, 2015). According to García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrionuevo, and Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez (2012), the concept of leadership has been developed with the passage of time and along with the changing needs of the organization, which have been affected by the changes in the working environment. The changes in the working environment were the main reason for developing the leadership skills on the basis of environmental context and to choose different approaches that would be most significant for the organization (Song, Kolb, Lee, & Kim, 2012). However, findings showed that there is no significant difference in the leadership styles of blue- and white-collar managers. On the contrary, Leithwood and Sun (2012) stated that the leaders holding different styles of leadership skills are admired if they guide the people in the direction of success.

A number of researchers have investigated the means by which emotional intelligence increases in a person (Goleman, 2004). Other researchers have examined the differences in emotional skills by means of socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, education, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status (Avolio & Yammarino, 2012). Farh et al. (2012) revealed that emotional intelligence is linked to specific measures of personality, such as empathy, and other decisive factors such as job satisfaction. Farh et al. also noted that emotional intelligence usually has four elements: (a) the ability to

assess and express feelings or sentiment, (b) the ability to use sentiments to improve decision making and cognitive processing, (c) the ability to comprehend and analyze feelings, and (d) the intelligent regulation of feelings. Emotional intelligence relates to affective knowledge, specifically the perception, integration, interpretation, and organization of emotions (Berman & West, 2008). Emotional intelligence refers to understanding and expressing oneself, being aware of and relating to others, dealing with difficult emotions and maintaining control of one's impulses, adjusting to change, and resolving difficulties of a personal and social matter (Berman & West, 2008). The findings revealed that emotional intelligence plays a vital role in influencing the level of job satisfaction in the employees working in the blue- and white-collar work settings. Although, the effect was found to be moderate, but the employees' level of job satisfaction is impacted in a positive way by the emotional intelligence of the managers.

Limitations of the Study

There are certain factors for research that are not in control and limit of the conduct of the research. The limitation of the study includes the selection of only two independent variables, emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style, to determine the influence of job satisfaction level in employees of blue- and white-collar work environments. The study focused on only two sets of participants and their subordinates at a single work site. The time and budget constraints hindered in the way of selecting a larger sample size from different organizations and inclusion of larger geographic area. The scope of the sample restricted the applicability of findings to additional workplace settings of varying contexts.

Recommendations

The main recommendations of the study are as follows:

- The emotional intelligence of managers working in blue- or white-collar environments should be recognized as the main factor influencing employee's life.
- Managers possessing transformational leadership qualities have the ability to motivate employees working in blue- or white-collar environments, which will impact the employees' ability to work hard and provide positive results for the organization.
- The emotional intelligence of the managers is directly associated with the transformational leadership quality of the managers working in blue- or white-collar environments.
- Because the emotional intelligence of managers in blue- and white-collar environments is different, the managers need to manage employees differently, based on the job satisfaction level of the employees, in each environment.

Through the implementation of these recommendations, there is a possibility that the situation can be ameliorated by making companies to focus more on 'how' to make employees more productive, 'what' leadership style of managers better suit the environment, and 'how' to utilize the emotional intelligence in work environments. The organization can understand the different efforts to be made to satisfy and retain its employees. Furthermore, managers could also focus on leadership styles and emotional intelligence skills to increase job satisfaction among employees working in blue- or white-collar environments.

Implications

I examined the strength of associations between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction, leadership style and job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence and leadership style in blue- and white-collar settings in the United States. One of the implications for further study at hand is examining these associations in more than one retail business across the United States to evaluate the impact comparatively. Future studies could expand the scope and depth of knowledge by undertaking the research in different settings across the world. Moreover, future studies could broaden the scope of the findings by including both qualitative and quantitative data.

Conclusion

The main focus of the study was the association between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction among blue-collar workers and white-collar workers. The findings revealed that there were no associations between managerial leaders' transformational leadership style as measured by the MLQ and employee reported job satisfaction using the JSS in blue- and white-collar environments. A noteworthy finding for organizations was that job satisfaction had a somewhat weak connection to productivity at work. There was no direct relationship between satisfaction and productivity; however, productivity can be influenced by various other constructs related to work, and the notion that "a happy worker is a productive worker" must not be a basis for decision making in organizations. In general, the results linking emotional intelligence with transformational leadership were not as convincing as findings from previous studies reviewed in Chapter 2. A strong linkage between emotional intelligence

and a transformational leadership style was anticipated, but findings indicated a moderate relationship between the variables.

In the traditional workplace, the level of stress and employee dissatisfaction has always been challenging. Stress has been associated with increased employee turnover, more sick days, and less confidence in timely completion of projects. According to the studies that were reviewed in Chapter 2, white-collar employees give priority to the nature of the work, completing the task, and being appreciated for the work done. White-collar employees appreciate the method of the employment, i.e. value the way of executing tasks and the technique for the work. White-collar employees get motivated when they work more efficiently, manage challenging work, and are recognized when they solve problems. Such factors provide positive fulfillment emerging from the employment itself. Blue-collar workers are motivated to work by receiving paychecks, relations with peer, job security, and working conditions. The specified factors may not give positive fulfillment; however, disappointing results from the absence of such motivating factors. In the end, emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style positively impacts the employee job satisfaction level as differentiated between blue- and white-collar work settings. The job satisfaction level of the employees increases with the application of emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style of the managers in the work environments.

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Appendix A: Instrumentation

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.		
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree very much Disagree slightly Agree slightly
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1 2 3 4 5 6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1 2 3 4 5 6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1 2 3 4 5 6
7	I like the people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6

8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1 2 3 4 5 6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1 2 3 4 5 6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1 2 3 4 5 6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1 2 3 4 5 6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1 2 3 4 5 6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1 2 3 4 5 6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1 2 3 4 5 6
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1 2 3 4 5 6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1 2 3 4 5 6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1 2 3 4 5 6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1 2 3 4 5 6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1 2 3 4 5 6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1 2 3 4 5 6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.	Disagree very much Disagree moderately Disagree slightly Agree slightly Agree moderately Agree very much Disagree slightly
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1 2 3 4 5 6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1 2 3 4 5 6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1 2 3 4 5 6
30	I like my supervisor.	1 2 3 4 5 6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1 2 3 4 5 6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1 2 3 4 5 6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1 2 3 4 5 6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1 2 3 4 5 6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1 2 3 4 5 6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1 2 3 4 5 6

Paul E. Spector

The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) is a 36 item, nine-facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”. Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine facets are Pay,

Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance based rewards), Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The norms provided on this website include a wide range of organization types in both private and public sector.

Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870.

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

For more information about the development and psychometric properties of the JSS, consult the following sources:

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 13, 693-713.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Note: The JSS is a copyrighted scale. It can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes, in return for the sharing of results. See the “Sharing of results” page above for instructions. The JSS is copyright © 1994, Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved. Page last modified December 27, 2007.

Instructions for Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

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The Job Satisfaction Survey or JSS, has some of its items written in each direction-- positive and negative. Scores on each of nine facet subscales, based on 4 items each, can range from 4 to 24; while scores for total job satisfaction, based on the sum of all 36 items, can range from 36 to 216. Each item is scored from 1 to 6 if the original response choices are used. High scores on the scale represent job satisfaction, so the scores on the negatively worded items must be reversed before summing with the positively worded into facet or total scores. A score of 6 representing strongest agreement with a negatively worded item is considered equivalent to a score of 1 representing strongest disagreement on a positively worded item, allowing them to be combined meaningfully. Below is the step-by-step procedure for scoring.

1. Responses to the items should be numbered from 1 representing strongest disagreement to 6 representing strongest agreement with each. This assumes that the scale has not be modified and the original agree-disagree response choices are used.

2. The negatively worded items should be reverse scored. Below are the reversals for the original item score in the left column and reversed item score in the right. The rightmost values should be substituted for the leftmost. This can also be accomplished by subtracting the original values for the internal items from 7.

$$1 = 6$$

$$2 = 5$$

$$3 = 4$$

$$4 = 3$$

$$5 = 2$$

$$6 = 1$$

3. Negatively worded items are 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 23, 24, 26, 29, 31, 32, 34, 36. Note the reversals are NOT every other one.

4. Sum responses to 4 items for each facet score and all items for total score after the reversals from step 2. Items go into the subscales as shown in the table.

Subscale	Item numbers
Pay	1, 10, 19, 28
Promotion	2, 11, 20, 33
Supervision	3, 12, 21, 30
Fringe Benefits	4, 13, 22, 29
Contingent rewards	5, 14, 23, 32
Operating conditions	6, 15, 24, 31
Coworkers	7, 16, 25, 34
Nature of work	8, 17, 27, 35

Communication	9, 18, 26, 36
Total satisfaction	1-36

5. If some items are missing you must make an adjustment otherwise the score will be too low. The best procedure is to compute the mean score per item for the individual, and substitute that mean for missing items. For example, if a person does not make a response to 1 item, take the total from step 4, divide by the number answered or 3 for a facet or 35 for total, and substitute this number for the missing item by adding it to the total from step 4. An easier but less accurate procedure is to substitute a middle response for each of the missing items. Since the center of the scale is between 3 and 4, either number could be used. One should alternate the two numbers as missing items occur.

Interpreting Satisfaction Scores with the Job Satisfaction Survey*

I am frequently asked how to interpret scores on the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS). The JSS assesses job satisfaction on a continuum from low (dissatisfied) to high (satisfied). There are no specific cut scores that determine whether an individual is satisfied or dissatisfied, in other words, we cannot confidently conclude that there is a particular score that is the dividing line between satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Where there is a need to draw conclusions about satisfaction versus dissatisfaction for samples or individuals, two approaches can be used.

The normative approach would compare the target person/sample to the norms for the sample. My website provides norms for several different groups. One can reference the norms and describe given individuals/samples as being more satisfied, dissatisfied, or

about the same as the norms. These norms are limited in three ways. First, there are a small number of occupations and organizations represented. Second, the norms are not from representative samples, but rather are an accumulation of mostly convenience samples people send me. In other words, they are a convenience sample of convenience samples. Third, the norms are mainly from North America—Canada and the U.S. Mean levels of job satisfaction varies across countries, so one should not assume these norms are representative of other countries, particularly the countries that are culturally dissimilar from North America.

The absolute approach picks some logical, if arbitrary cut scores to represent dissatisfaction versus satisfaction. Given the JSS uses 6-point agree-disagree response choices, we can assume that agreement with positively worded items and disagreement with negatively worded items would represent satisfaction, whereas disagreement with positive-worded items, and agreement with negative-worded items represents dissatisfaction. For the 4-item subscales, as well as the 36-item total score, this means that scores with a mean item response (after reverse scoring the negatively-worded items) of 4 or more represents satisfaction, whereas mean responses of 3 or less represents dissatisfaction. Mean scores between 3 and 4 are ambivalence. Translated into the summed scores, for the 4-item subscales with a range from 4 to 24, scores of 4 to 12 are dissatisfied, 16 to 24 are satisfied, and between 12 and 16 are ambivalent. For the 36-item total where possible scores range from 36 to 216, the ranges are 36 to 108 for dissatisfaction, 144 to 216 for satisfaction, and between 108 and 144 for ambivalent.

Job Satisfaction Survey Norms

American Samples

Education (Primary/secondary includes teachers in some samples).

Manufacturing

Medical (Mostly nurses and technicians)

Mental health

Nurses

Police

Retail

Private sector

Public sector

Social services

Total

Note: Norms are not a representative sample of the U.S. economy, but contain an over-abundance of public sector, and medical/mental health organizations which tend to exhibit lower job satisfaction than private sector or other types of work.

EJI

Emotional Judgment Inventory and Report (EJI)

(Bedwell) Publisher: IPAT

The EJI is a brief measure of emotional intelligence designed to enhance the employee selection process by providing insight into an applicant's tendency to recognize and effectively use emotional information. It is also useful in professional development and placement applications as a tool to increase self-awareness.

The seven dimensions of emotional intelligence measured are:

- Being aware of emotions
- Identifying own emotions
- Identifying others’ emotions
- Managing own emotions
- Managing others’ emotions
- Using emotions in problem solving
- Expressing emotions adaptively

EJI test booklets (pkg 10 – reusable) \$36.00

EJI answer sheets (pkg 25) \$36.00

Emotional judgment inventory report \$55.80

MLQ

The MLQ Manual and Sampler Set, 3rd Edition, includes extensive research being conducted with the MLQ as well as adding chapters on development, theory, use and topics such as gender differences and diversity.

This manual includes the non-reproducible MLQ forms and scoring as well as a Technical Report of MLQ Research in the Sampler Set. The forty-five item MLQ contains the twelve Full Range Leadership styles, rater and leader forms.

MLQR3 Manual/Sampler Set

Includes non-reproducible instrument and scoring key marked “sample”

Cost \$40