

**THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERS' PERSONALITY TYPES AND EMOTIONAL
INTELLIGENCE ON RETENTION FACTORS**

by

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submitted in accordance with the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF COMMERCE

in the subject

INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANISATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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NOVEMBER 2011

DECLARATION

I, DESIRÉ PAUW, student number 3739-937-3, declare that the dissertation of limited scope titled “**The influence of leaders’ personality type and emotional intelligence on retention factors**” is my own work, and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other university.

I further declare that ethical clearance to conduct the research has been obtained from the Department of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, University of South Africa, as well as from the participating organisation.

DESIRÉ PAUW

30 NOVEMBER 2011

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge those that contributed most towards the completion of this study and offer my deepest appreciation for the ways in which each person uniquely inspired me to write this dissertation:

- My supervisor, Professor Melinde Coetzee. Thank you for your expert guidance, motivation, enthusiasm, and dedicated support during the completion of my studies and this dissertation. Thank you for your patience, kind words, and for always challenging me to deliver in a far greater way than I could have done if left to my own devices. You really are an inspiration.
- All the people who participated in the study. Thank you for your time and your valuable contributions. Without you this research would not have been possible. I would also like to thank the organisation that participated, in particular the individuals within the organisation who were instrumental in assisting and supporting the research.
- My husband, Werner Pauw. Thank you for always believing in me and motivating me when I needed it and for all the sacrifices you had to make during my studies. I would not have been able to do this without you!
- My parents, Johan and Yvonne de Wet, who have supported me throughout my academic career. Without your support this journey would have been impossible.
- Most importantly, my deepest gratitude is for my Heavenly Father who has blessed me with the privilege to study and who gave me the strength and wisdom to complete my studies.

SUMMARY

THE INFLUENCE OF LEADERS' PERSONALITY TYPES AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE ON RETENTION FACTORS

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DEPARTMENT : Industrial and Organisational Psychology
DEGREE : M.Com (Industrial and Organisational Psychology)

The objectives of the study were: (1) to determine whether staff and leaders differ significantly in terms of their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) to investigate the relationship between personality types (as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator), emotional intelligence (as measured by the Emotional Competency Profiler), and retention factors (as measured by the Retention Factor Scale); and (3) to determine whether demographical groups differ significantly in terms of the retention factor variables.

A non-probability purposive sample of 160 working adults from an organisation within the asset management industry participated in the study. The research findings indicated that there is a difference in terms of leaders' and staff's perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors. There is a relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Biographical groups (gender, race and age groups, and business units) differed in terms of the retention factors. The findings contributed valuable new knowledge that may be used for organisational retention practices.

KEY TERMS

Personality, personality types, personality preferences, emotional intelligence, emotional competence, retention factors, retention practices and leadership.

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CHAPTER 1

SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study focuses on exploring the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors within the asset management industry. In this chapter, the background and motivation for the study are described. In addition, the problem statement and research questions are formulated, and the general and specific theoretical and empirical aims are stated. The paradigm perspectives that define the boundaries of the study, the research design and methodology are also discussed. The final section of this chapter contains details relating to the presentation of the chapters within this dissertation, and the chapter concludes with a chapter summary.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION FOR THIS STUDY

The context of this research is retention. The research focuses specifically on the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors in South Africa's multi-cultural organisational context. Simon Ellis, managing director of unit trusts at Legal & General, states that the organisation relies heavily on investment skills and therefore invests a considerable amount of money on acquiring and retaining talent in this area. According to Ellis, the hunt for talent in the asset management industry is universal. Ellis also states that retention packages are vital in keeping talented employees within the asset management sector (Anonymous, 2010).

Not having the right people in place to lead an organisation and confront business challenges can have a significant impact on organisations (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Retaining core employees and keeping staff turnover to a minimum is a key strategic issue for organisations (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). The problem of employee turnover is a global one and it affects all organisations (Zimmerman, 2008). High turnover rates are associated with decreased productivity, low levels of customer satisfaction, and a downturn in future revenue growth and profitability (Baron, Hannan & Burton, 2001; Glebbeek & Bax, 2004; Huselid, 1995; Koys, 2001). Curtis and Wright (2001) state that high employee turnover can affect the quality of output and customer service, which in turn can lead to erosion of a competitive advantage, constriction of business growth and a decline in the level of business activity. Pekala (2001) refers to a "retention deficit disorder" and describes it as a decline in profits and an organisation's ability to

compete in the market due to the loss of top talent. Losing employees causes instability in the workforce (Herman & Gioia-Herman, 2001).

Employee turnover is not an event but rather a process of disengagement that can take days, weeks, months, or even years to manifest (Branham, 2005). Loss of human capital involves the loss of organisational history, knowledge, and abilities (Buhler, 2006). Retention can be categorised as functional or dysfunctional (Johnson, Griffeth & Griffin, 2000). Functional retention occurs when non-performers leave organisations and performers stay. When performers leave organisations and non-performers stay, retention is considered highly dysfunctional and results in damages to organisational innovation and performance (Abbasi & Hollman, 2000). Retention is viewed as critical to maintain an organisation's competitive edge and an indicator of success (Bogdanowicz & Bailey, 2002). Voluntary turnover causes a talent gap in organisations and often results in employees moving to competing firms and sharing their skills and knowledge with competitors (Stovel & Bontis, 2002).

Turnover is costly (directly and indirectly), and must therefore be minimised (Frank, 2006). Indirect costs are very difficult to estimate, while direct costs could be as high as fifty to sixty percent of an employee's salary (Clayton, 2006; Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). The financial implications can be categorised as separation costs (administration, leave pay, and exit interviews), temporary replacement costs (overtime, agency fees, administration, and training), recruitment and selection costs (advertising, agency fees, administration, and interviews) as well as induction and training costs (Curtis & Wright, 2001).

Research by Kerr-Phillips and Thomas (2009) indicates the difficulties associated with retaining talented employees as due to various factors on macro and micro levels. Macro level contributors to losing talent are political transformation and crime levels that lead to emigration. Micro level contributions are organisational culture, and a lack of development, mentorship programmes, and recognition. To improve retention, employers must have a clear understanding of turnover intentions (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007). Beechler and Woodward (2009) concluded that the global war for talent is far from over and that it will continue into the foreseeable future.

Compensation is indicated as one of the primary motivations for employees to leave organisations (Crisp, 2009; Tanton, 2007). When employees consider resigning, talent

management in the form of personal development opportunities and opportunities for utilisation of their skills become important factors to take into account (Tanton, 2007). Perceptions of job inflexibility, feeling overworked, excessive workloads, concerns regarding management's ability to take the organisation to the next level, a lack of challenging work, and not enough recognition all contribute to job dissatisfaction (Tanton, 2007). Job satisfaction is affected by the leadership style of managers as well as job stress, which is a key contributor to voluntary employee turnover (Tanton, 2007). Previous research indicated that compensation and benefits, organisational environment, work and/or development environment, and work-life balance were among the variables that are valued by talented employees (Buckingham, 2000; Cappelli, 2000a; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000).

Retaining talent is regarded as important in order to achieve business results (Frank, 2006). Maximising motivation, team engagement, attendance, and retention are seen as vital in today's highly competitive environment (Clayton, 2006). According to Pekala (2001), employees must be offered more than a pay check. Employers have to design challenging jobs accompanied by a desirable vision in order to attract high performers. Frank (2006) states that companies will survive only if they are ahead of the curve and if they transform their managers into great retention leaders. Boe (2010) supports this notion by pointing out that people are a company's most valuable asset.

Another prominent trend in research is to explore the influence of leaders' personality and emotional intelligence on the retention of employees (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). A study that was completed by Smith (2005) indicated a relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and their effectiveness. Transformational leaders strongly relate to retention of staff (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). Goleman (1998) states that retention is a product of possessing emotional intelligence competencies.

Personality type is defined as the dominant and conscious predisposition to either act or react in a characteristic manner when observing one's outer world and assigning meaning to each experience (Coetzee, 2005). The concept of personality type is based on Jung's (1921) theory of psychological types, which argues that predictable differences in individuals are caused by differences in the way people prefer to use their minds to absorb information, to organise that information, and ultimately, reach conclusions.

Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability to monitor one's own feelings, as well as those of others, to discriminate between them and to use this information to guide one's own thinking and action (Pfeiffer, 2001, p.139). Emotional intelligence is the ability to manage one's emotional mind with intelligence in every facet of life (Clarke, 2004). Goleman (1995, p.23) defines emotional intelligence as the knowledge of what feelings are and how to utilise them to make good decisions in life, as well as being able to manage distressing moods and control impulses.

Emotional intelligence is a form of social intelligence that combines feelings with thinking and thinking with feeling (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). Emotional intelligence is a concept learned from infancy (Goleman, 1995; Harmon, 2000). A desire to understand and use emotions as a means of communication develops through maturity (Harmon, 2000). Harmon (2000) asserts that using emotional intelligence as a means of communicating can stimulate and raise personal renewal of learning and motivating in organisations.

Researchers have found that individuals who exhibit well-developed emotional intelligence competencies have a greater tendency to impact and influence the motivation and performance of others (Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Johnson & Indvik, 1999; Lam & Kirby, 2002). Five research findings provide an overall picture of emotional intelligence, namely that emotional intelligence is distinct from other intelligences, it differs between individuals, it develops over a person's life span, it can be enhanced through training and it involves particular abilities to reason intelligently about emotions (Palmer, Jansen & Coetzee, 2006).

From the preceding review of the research literature, it appears that by exploring the influence that leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence have on the retention of employees, new valuable insights into both the retention literature and practical application thereof may be added. South Africa has arrived at a crossroad with regard to talent creation (Joubert, 2007). Employers can create and manage talent through creative and innovative methods (Joubert, 2007). The stock and quality of human capital of a nation can determine the future of that country (Joubert, 2007). Countries that were bold enough to invest money in training and education are able to see a return on their investments today, as they dominate the global economy (Joubert, 2007). If South Africa successfully manages to create an abundance of talent and nurture the talent of its youth, it will be able to make a turnaround (Joubert, 2007).

A shortage of skilled people places pressure on organisations (Oberholzer, 2001). These pressures increase salaries as well as the value of other benefits to extraordinary heights, making it difficult for organisations to retain key skills (Oberholzer, 2001). Overseas companies lure South Africa's best talent with hard-to-beat offers (Oberholzer, 2001). In order to find solutions to this problem, an employer must have a very clear understanding of turnover intentions (Pienaar, Sieberhagen & Mostert, 2007). Another issue to take into account is that of addressing past discrimination and the effect it can have on trying to retain all talented employees, irrespective of their demographics.

The question then arises whether leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence have an influence on retention factors.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

As pointed out in the background to this study, retaining talented employees should be a strategic business priority in order to achieve and sustain a competitive advantage and to take the business to the next level. The question asked is whether leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence have an influence on the factors that are regarded as important for retaining employees. Increasing attention is given to why people stay in their jobs, organisations and occupations (Feldman & Ng, 2007). In order to attract and retain top talent, managers need to fundamentally change their way of thinking (Frank, 2006). To attract the brightest people in the market, an environment must be created where employees will be motivated to stay (Morgan, 2008).

The number one reason why employees leave organisations is leadership failure of the key managers (Morgan, 2008). "People don't leave jobs, they leave bosses" (Frank, 2006, p.9). Management must take responsibility to value their top talent and must make it difficult for the talented employees to consider options elsewhere (Morgan, 2008). Ineffective managers are the main cause of many frustration experienced in the workplace (Crisp, 2009). Effective bosses can explain, justify and reinforce alignment with all senior management decisions, while a great leader can keep people happily employed and engaged with motivations such as growth and work/life balance (Crisp, 2009).

Groseline (2009) points out that leaders who inspire confidence in the future and respect and recognise employees' contribution, are some of the macro drivers of engagement. Leading involves setting direction for employees who are willing to support that direction (Groseline, 2009). Transformational leadership is positively related to organisational commitment and job satisfaction, which can lead to the retention of staff (Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004).

One factor that causes low job satisfaction is employees' perception of ineffective leadership (Burmeister, 2004). Little research has been conducted regarding how leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence relate to retention factors, especially in the South African asset management industry. A review of the current literature on personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors indicate the following research challenges:

- Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between personality type and emotional intelligence of leaders and the factors that influence the retention of employees.
- Industrial and organisational psychologists lack knowledge about the theoretical and empirical relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors.
- The relationship dynamics between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, retention factors, and the implications of the relationship for organisational retention practices are not fully known, particularly in the South African context – hence the need for exploration.

It is evident that research on the relationship dynamics between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and talent retention factors will make a significant contribution to the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, particularly regarding retention practices within the dynamic and ever-changing organisational environment. The potential value added by the research will be an indication of the degree to which personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders relate to the factors that influence talented employees' decision to leave an organisation. From the above, the following research questions are formulated in terms of the literature review and empirical study.

1.2.1 Research questions with regard to literature review

Against the preceding background, the general research question that requires further research is as follows:

Do leaders and staff differ regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors? In addition, what is the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors? Do people from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ regarding the retention factor variables?

1.2.2 Research questions with regard to the research

In terms of the *literature study*, the following specific research questions will be addressed in this research paper:

- How is "personality type" conceptualised in the literature?
- How is "emotional intelligence" conceptualised in the literature?
- How are "retention factors" conceptualised in the literature?
- Does a theoretical relationship exist between the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors?
- What are the implications of the theoretical relationship between the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors for retention practices?

In terms of the *empirical study*, the following specific research questions will be addressed:

- Do staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of the emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors?
- Does an empirical relationship exist between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors, with specific reference to the sample of respondents within the South African asset management industry?
- Do groups from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding the retention factor variables?
- What recommendations can be formulated for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and for further research based on the findings of this study?

1.3 AIMS

Both specific and general aims were formulated for this research study and are discussed below.

1.3.1 General aim of the research

The general aims of this research are: (1) to determine whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) to explore the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors; and (3) to determine whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding the retention factor variables.

1.3.2 Specific aims of the research

The following specific aims were formulated for the literature review and the empirical study:

1.3.2.1 Literature review

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims are to conceptualise:

- personality type from a theoretical perspective;
- emotional intelligence from a theoretical perspective;
- retention factors from a theoretical perspective;
- the theoretical relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors; and
- the implications of the theoretical relationship between the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors for retention practices.

1.3.2.2 *Empirical study*

The specific aims of the empirical study are to:

- investigate whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors;
- investigate the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors as manifested within a sample of respondents within the South African asset management industry;
- Investigate whether groups from different gender, race and age groups and business units and differ significantly regarding the retention factor variables.
- Formulate recommendations for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and for further research based on the findings of this study.

1.4 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE OF THE STUDY

A paradigm can be defined as an intellectual climate or viewpoint that is commonly shared by most members of science. It suggests a shared set of belief, values or assumptions about a specific theory or chosen subject matter (Hergenhahn & Olson, 2005; Mouton & Marais, 1991). The use of paradigms and supporting theory has substantially impacted the philosophy and methodology of social sciences (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In the context of the present study, the concept of a paradigm is used in its meta-theoretical and philosophical sense to illustrate an implicit or explicit view of reality (Morgan, 1980).

1.4.1 The relevant paradigms

Thematically, the literature survey will cover theories related to the constructs of personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors, which will be presented from the psychodynamic analytical, cognitive social learning and humanistic paradigms. The empirical study will be presented from the positivist research paradigm.

1.4.1.1 *Psychodynamic analytical paradigm*

The psychodynamic analytical paradigm is concerned with uncovering basic, general principles that can account for a variety of behaviours that people are capable of engaging in and further proposing different and specific units for conceptualising and studying people (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The psychodynamic paradigm of analytical psychology, with specific reference to Jung's (1921, 1957, 1971) personality preferences, is applicable to this research. Jung's theory (cited in Feist, 1994) is based on the assumption that the psyche has both a conscious and an unconscious level.

The following assumptions underlie Jung's (1921, 1959, 1971) analytical theory:

- Humans are complex beings with many opposing poles and this complexity invalidates any simple or one-sided description.
- The persona is only a fraction of a person. Every individual has a dark side (shadow), but what one shows others is usually only the socially accepted side of personality. Each woman possesses an animus and every man possesses an anima (Jung, 1969).
- Various complexes and archetypes are responsible for many of their words, actions and most of their dreams and fantasies. All people have a limited capacity to determine the course of their lives (Jung, 1959).
- People's prejudices, fears, interests, dreams and creative activities are controlled and influenced by an impersonal collective unconscious, and even after achieving individuation, the collective unconsciousness makes contact with their inner world and brings the various opposing forces into a state of equilibrium (Jung, 1959, 1971).
- The collective unconscious is part of humans' biological inheritance, with cultural differences being superficial and similarities being profound (Feist & Feist, 2002; Jung, 1971; Meyer et al., 1994).

Thematically, personality types will be discussed from the psychodynamic analytical paradigm.

1.4.1.2 *Cognitive social learning paradigm*

Cognitive social learning or social observational learning refers to the major role cognition plays in demonstrating behaviour (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1998). Learning occurs through observation,

even though the learner remains passive and does not demonstrate new learning so that it can be reinforced (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1998).

People identify with the values and attitudes of their significant others and (or) the groups they belong to, and this manifests in their behaviour (Jordaan & Jordaan, 1998). Cognitive social learning focuses on individuals' cognitive activities and behaviour patterns, which are studied in relation to the specific conditions that evoke, maintain and modify them (Mischel, 1968). It is an assessment of what people do – behaviourally and cognitively – in relation to the psychological conditions in which they do it (Mischel, 1973). The person variables relating to the cognitive social learning paradigm, as proposed by Mischel (1973) are:

- the individual's competencies to construct diverse behaviours under appropriate conditions;
- the individual's encoding and categorisation of events;
- the comprehensive analysis of the behaviours a person performs in particular situations requires attention to the expectancies about outcomes, the subjective values of such outcomes and the self-regulatory systems and plans.

Mischel and Shoda's (2000) cognitive affective units theory follows from the social cognitive learning theories. The cognitive affective framework was developed to predict two types of behavioural consistency, as discovered in personality research (Mischel & Shoda, 1998). The personality system contains mental representation and the activation thereof leads to behavioural consistencies that characterise the person. These representations consist of diverse cognitive affective units, which include the person's explanation and representations of the self, people and situations, enduring goals, expectations-beliefs, feeling states and memories of people and events in the past. The cognitive social learning paradigm is highly relevant to this research as it forms part of the theoretical underpinning of emotional intelligence.

1.4.1.3 Humanistic paradigm

Humanistic psychology is about understanding individuals' life experiences and the ways in which they construct meaning. The humanistic paradigm places high value on the unique ways in which individuals develop their own view of situations (Ivey, Ivey & Simek-Morgan, 2007). The

humanistic paradigm is a belief that human beings are continuously striving towards self-actualisation (Bergh & Theron, 2009), and focuses on the individual, self-actualisation, and self-development (Schreuder, 2001). It supports the notion that humans are forever searching and changing their career for something better and continuously strive to perform better. The humanistic paradigm places significant value on conscious processes and regards individuals as active agents that construct realities in their own world (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The basic assumptions of the humanistic paradigm are (Cilliers, 2000; Garrison, 2001):

- Individuals are more than the sum of their parts and can be studied as a whole;
- Individuals are principally good and should be seen as dignified beings;
- People exist in a human context and form the basis of human identity;
- Individuals act in self-awareness, where they continuously grow while realising their own full potential; and
- People have the freedom and responsibility to make choices and to live purposefully.

People almost instinctively value positive affection – love, affection, attention and nurturance (Watkins, 2001). People are constantly striving towards self-actualisation (Watkins, 2001). Talented individuals always strive to become better and if there are obstacles in their path that could inhibit the achievement of their goal, they will leave. Retention factors will be discussed from the humanistic perspective.

1.4.1.4 Positivist research paradigm

The empirical part of this study was approached from the perspective of the positivist research paradigm. The object of study is independent of researchers and knowledge is discovered and verified through direct observations or measurements of phenomena (Krauss, 2005). The phenomenon is examined by taking it apart to examine the components of the parts in order to establish the facts (Krauss, 2005). According to the positivist epistemology, science is seen as the way to acquire truth so that it can be understood well enough to be predicted and controlled (Krauss, 2005). The positivists believe in empiricism – the idea that observation and measurement are at the core of any scientific endeavour.

Neuman (1997) states that, in the positivist research paradigm, scientists are involved in a quest for value-free knowledge of truthful, factual information, based on observable reality and general

laws that withstands strict, logical reasoning over time. Furthermore, Burrell and Morgan (1979) state that the positivist research paradigm seeks to explain and predict what happens in the social world by searching for regularities and causal relationships between its basic parts. Social scientific knowledge is real, has order and stable basic patterns that are better than common sense (Neuman, 1997). The social science approach is rooted in the tradition of positivism, which assumes that scientific theories can be objectively assessed by reference to empirical evidence (Kavous, 2000).

1.4.2 The market of intellectual resources

The collection of beliefs that have a direct bearing upon the epistemic status of scientific statements is known as the market of intellectual resources (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). Two major types of beliefs can be differentiated, namely theoretical beliefs and methodological beliefs (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Theoretical beliefs refer to the nature and structure of phenomena and methodological beliefs are concerned with the nature and structure of the research process (Mouton & Marais, 1996). For the purposes of this study, the meta-theoretical statements, theoretical models, conceptual descriptions of personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, retention factors and the central hypothesis are presented.

1.4.2.1 Meta-theoretical statements

Any meta-theoretical statement or world view may include different schools of thought. These are described as different ways of approaching and studying a shared reality or world view (Morgan, 1980). The discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology relies on various domains of applied psychology that are used to integrate practices and research (Venter & Barkhuizen, 2005). More specifically, the focus of the literature survey is on the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and retention factors. In terms of the empirical study, the focus is on psychometrics and statistical analysis. Meta-theoretical statements are presented on the following: Industrial and Organisational Psychology; Personnel Psychology, Career Psychology, Organisational Psychology, Personality Psychology and Psychometrics.

a) Industrial and Organisational Psychology

This research is undertaken within the context of the Industrial and Organisational Psychology discipline. The scope of Industrial and Organisational Psychology is very wide and can describe the work of any behavioural scientist (Benjamin & Louw-Potgieter, 2008). The basic aims in Industrial and Organisational Psychology are to understand, explain and predict human behaviour and experience in the workplace (Watkins, 2001). According to the South African Organising Framework of Occupations, the skills specialisation of an Industrial Psychologist can be described as the ability to apply psychological principles and techniques to the study of occupational behaviour, working conditions, and organisational structure in order to solve problems related to work performance and organisational design. Theoretical knowledge and research competencies are important in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology (Barnard & Fourie, 2007).

Some of the practical contributions of industrial psychologists can be found in the spheres of labour relations, training and development, change management, evaluation or assessment, organisational development, strategic management, career management, selection and placement, human resources management and counselling (Barnard & Fourie, 2007). The current study serves to clarify the relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders and the influence thereof on retention factors. It seeks to add value to the discipline of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, particularly with regard to retention practices within the dynamic organisational environment.

b) Personnel Psychology

Within the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, the study of Personnel Psychology is concerned with the measurement of personality differences between individuals with the aim of utilising the perceived differences to predict the optimal fit between employees and organisations or leaders (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The study of personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, as well as retention factors, aims to establish the effect that leaders have on job satisfaction and the retention of valued employees. Personnel Psychology focuses on behaviours that influence productivity and employee satisfaction through assessment and selection procedures, job evaluation, performance appraisal, ergonomics and career planning methods (Watkins, 2001). By exploring individual leaders' personality types and emotional

intelligence, personnel psychologists will be able to identify whether certain personality types and their emotional intelligence traits and behaviours have an influence on retention factors.

c) Career Psychology

Career psychology is a field that focuses on career development and career behaviour as an integral part of human development (Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000). Career psychology involves career development and helping employees resolve career conflict (Bergh & Theron, 2009). The current study has relevance in the field of career psychology because it supports the need for an overall conceptual framework of career development support initiatives that relate to effective retention practices.

d) Organisational Psychology

Organisational Psychology concentrates on organisational responsiveness to psychological, economic and socio-political forces. The focus is on individual, group and system level interventions (Watkins, 2001), and is more concerned with social and group influences. Work in this area focuses on factors such as role-related behaviour, group dynamics, personal feelings of commitment to an organisation and patterns of communication within an organisation (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 1998).

Organisational psychology is a discipline of psychology that focuses on how the behaviours and attitudes of people are influenced by the organisational contexts in which they are employed (Muchinsky, Kriek & Schreuder, 1998). Organisational psychology is also known as the study of organisational behaviour (Ivancevich & Matteson, 2002). Management in organisations is increasingly focusing on issues such as employee productivity, quality of work life, job stress and career progression by understanding the organisational behaviour of employees. Organisational behaviour has four dependent variables affecting organisational effectiveness, namely turnover, productivity, job satisfaction and absenteeism (Robbins, 1993). Organisational psychology has a predominant focus on assessing whether personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders influence retention.

e) Personality Psychology

Personality psychology is concerned with analysing human nature (Hogan, 1998). Personality psychology includes some assumptions about human motivation, as all humans have conscious and unconscious tendencies (Hogan, 1998). How individuals develop and adapt to the larger social environment must be considered. Personality types and emotional intelligence are also considered from this perspective.

f) Psychometrics

Psychometrics involves the development of psychological measuring instruments to measure ability or personality (Bergh & Theron, 2009). Psychometrics is used by industrial psychologists to measure behaviour in various forms, offering different interpretations of individual and group functioning in the workplace (Stümpfer, 2007). Psychometrics involves the statistical analysis of assessment results to determine the value of psychological assessment instruments (Bergh & Theron, 2009). In the current study, questionnaires were used to measure leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

1.4.2.2 *Theoretical models*

The literature survey on leaders' emotional intelligence and personality types will be presented from the Career Psychology and Personality Psychology perspective. Leaders' emotional intelligence will be analysed to determine the participants' current emotional competence. The model of Wolmarans and Martins (2001) will also be discussed. Personality types will be approached from the Myers and Briggs's theory of personality types (Myers, 1998; Myers, McCauley, Quenk & Hammer, 2003). In order to understand the Myers-Briggs' (Myers, 1987) psychological type theory, Jung's (1971) theory of psychological types will also be discussed. The literature survey on retention will be presented from the Organisational Psychology perspective. In terms of retention, Döckel's (2003) framework of retention factors will be discussed.

1.4.2.3 *Conceptual descriptions*

The following conceptual descriptions serve as a point of departure for discussions in this research:

a) Personality types

Personality is considered inborn, predisposing people to behave in certain ways (Engstrom, 2005). Personality, as defined by Myers et al. (1998), is the unique pattern of behaviour that an individual portrays in social circumstances, motivated by dynamic energy systems with interacting processes. There are sixteen personality types, each with unique characteristics (Myers, 1987). Each personality type has strengths and areas of development, and is based on preferences.

b) Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence has been identified as an important part of an individual's ability to successfully contribute to organisational success (Stein, Papadogiannis, Yip & Sitarenios, 2009). Emotional intelligence is defined as an awareness of one's own emotions and those of others (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). It is further also an understanding of emotions and the ability to manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others. According to Wolmarans (2001), emotional intelligence consists of a unique set of competencies, described by mixed models of emotional intelligence. The model of Wolmarans (2001) is especially relevant as it measures overall emotional intelligence and was developed in the South African context (Palmer et al., 2006).

c) Retention factors

One of the core beliefs found in human resources literature is that employers should retain and develop their human capital to obtain a competitive advantage (DeYoung, 2000; Storey, 1992). Retention can be seen as initiatives taken by line managers to keep employees from leaving the organisation. This can be done through rewarding workers for effectively performing their roles, ensuring harmonious relations between employees and line managers, and maintaining a safe and healthy work environment (Cascio, 2003).

Employers must seek to treat employees as valued assets who can be a source of competitive advantage through their trust, commitment, adaptability, high-quality knowledge and skills (Storey, 1992). Managing turnover is an increasing challenge (Döckel, 2003). Retention factors are critical in employee retention (Döckel, 2003). For the purpose of the current study, Döckel's (2003) framework of retention factors, which focuses on compensation, job characteristics, training and development opportunities, supervisor support, career opportunities and work/life policies will apply to the research.

1.4.2.4 The central hypothesis

The central hypothesis for this study can be formulated as follows:

Staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors. A statistically significant relationship also exists between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Leaders from different gender, race and age groups and business units will differ significantly regarding their personality type, emotional intelligence and association with retention factors.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

The concept of research design refers to how the research was conducted by the researcher. Research design is "the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research aim with economy in procedure" (Sellitiz, Jahoda, Deutsch & Cook, 1965, p.50).

1.5.1 Research variables

A variable can be defined as any entity that can take on different values. The effect of independent variables on a dependent variable is measured (Trochim, 2006). The dependent variable in this study is retention factors and the independent variables are the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders. The current research focuses on determining whether a significant empirical relationship exists between the three variables of leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

1.5.2 Type of research

A quantitative research approach is used in this study. This research meets the requirements of descriptive research by describing the conceptual characteristics of the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, and retention factors as well as the relationship between these variables. Descriptive statistics provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures (Trochim, 2006). Thereafter, the empirical relationship between the three variables will be investigated using descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses.

A survey design is used to achieve the research objectives. The study makes use of a cross-sectional survey, which means the primary data is collected from the participants at one specific point in time. Cross-sectional research is most consistent with a descriptive approach to research. The advantages are that it is simple and cost-effective (Mouton & Marais, 1996). The disadvantage is that it cannot capture change or social progression, as in the case of using longitudinal research (Neuman, 1997). Primary data is analysed using descriptive statistics such as Cronbach's Alpha, correlations such as Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficients and inferential statistics such as multiple regressions, ANOVAS and t-tests.

1.5.3 Methods used to ensure reliability and validity

The measures taken to ensure validity and reliability are discussed in this section.

1.5.3.1 Validity

Validity is evident when a construct measures what it intended to measure (Zikmund, 2003). Internal as well as external validity are important in research design (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 2002). External validity is the degree to which conclusions would hold for other persons in other places and other times (Trochim, 2006). It is the approximate truth of conclusions, and involves generalisations (Trochim, 2006). Internal validity, on the other hand, is the approximate truth about inferences regarding cause-effect relationships (Trochim, 2006). The literature review and empirical study must be valid in terms of the variables in the study (Mouton & Marias, 1996). Literature that is relevant to the topic, problem statement and aims ensures that the literature review is valid. Furthermore, standardised instruments of measurement are used that will ensure the validity of data obtained for the empirical study (Gregory, 2000).

1.5.3.2 *Reliability*

Reliability is the degree to which measures yield consistent results and are free from error (Zikmund, 2003). Two very important aspects that relate to reliability are repeatability and internal consistency. Using existing literature sources, theories and models that are available to researchers ensure the reliability of the literature review (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001). The reliability of the measuring instrument is based on inter-item correlations using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. The greater the number of similar items that is compared, the greater the internal consistency. A correlation reliability score of between 0.70 and 0.80 is regarded as highly reliable (Gregory, 2000). The reliability of the empirical study is ensured through the sampling methods. The reliability of the current study was also addressed through the standardised assessment conditions and standard scoring instructions for the instruments (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2001).

1.5.4 **Unit of study**

The unit of analysis distinguishes between the characteristics, conditions, orientations and actions of individuals, groups, organisations and social artefacts (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In terms of individual measurement, the unit of analysis is the individual. In terms of the analyses of data, the unit of analysis is groups and sub-groups. In social sciences, the most common object of research is the individual human being (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.6 **RESEARCH METHOD**

In the current study, the research method is divided into two phases, which address the literature review and the empirical study respectively.

a) Phase one: Literature review

Step 1: Conceptualisation of personality type from a theoretical perspective.

Step 2: Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence from a theoretical perspective.

Step 3: Conceptualisation of retention factors from a theoretical perspective.

Step 4: Conceptualisation of the theoretical relationship between the personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, and retention factors.

Step 5: Conceptualisation of the implications of the theoretical relationship between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, and retention factor variables for retention practices.

b) Phase two: Empirical study

The empirical study is presented in the form of a research article in chapter 3 of this dissertation. The research article outlines the core focus of the study, the background to the study, relevant trends identified from the research literature, the potential value added by the study, the research design (research approach and research method), the results of the empirical study, a discussion of the results, conclusions and limitations of the study and recommendations for practice and future research. Figure 1.1 outlines the various steps followed to ensure the systematic and rigorous execution of the empirical study.

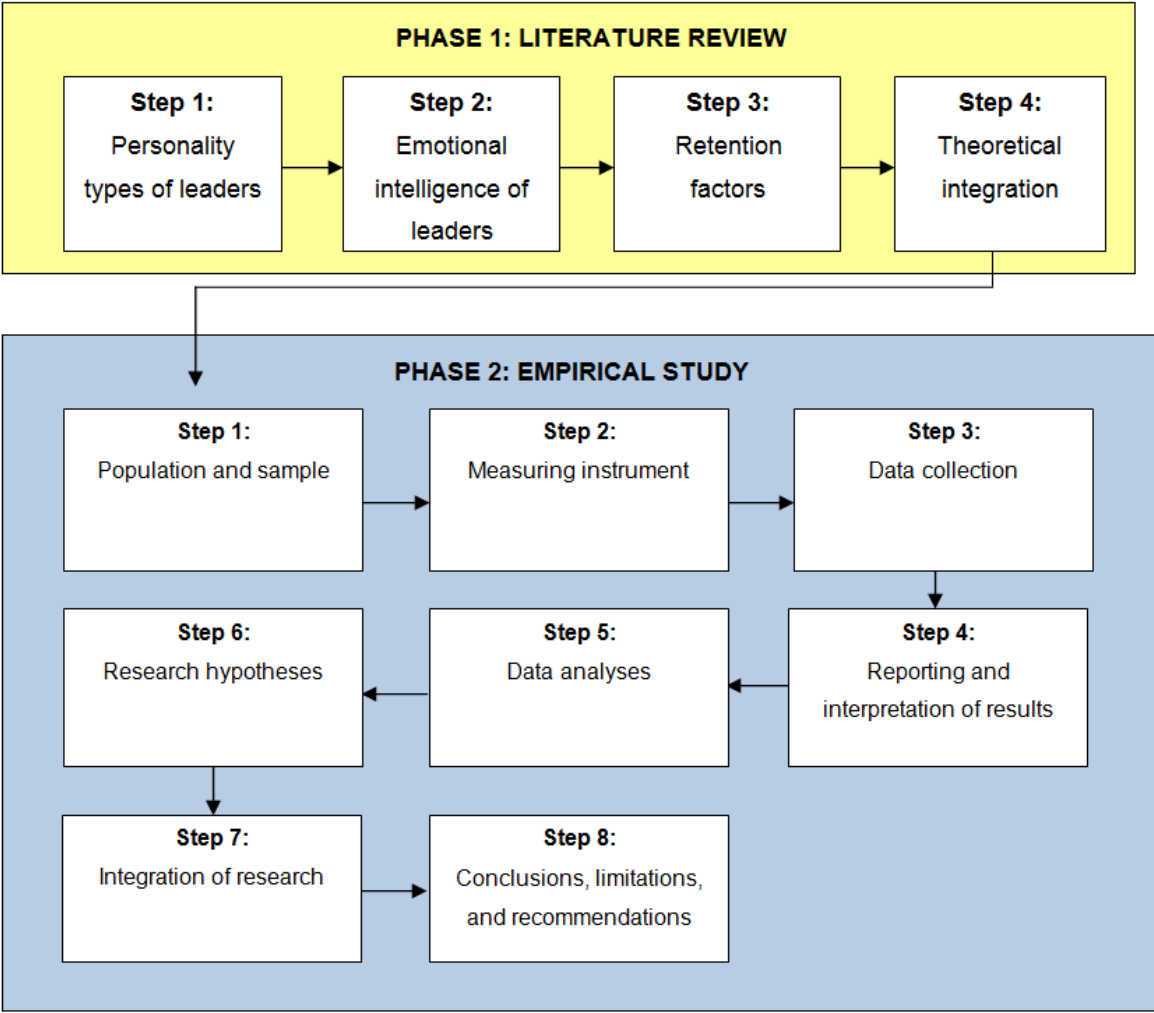


Figure 1.1. Flow diagram of the research model.

1.7 CHAPTER LAYOUT

The chapters will be presented in the following manner:

1.7.1 Chapter 2: Literature Review consisting of three constructs

The following three constructs will be discussed in chapter 2:

a) Personality types

The construct of personality types will be conceptualised. Personality will be discussed from Jung's (1990) and Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1978) perspective. The various personality types will be discussed and compared.

b) Emotional intelligence

The construct of emotional intelligence will be conceptualised and the conceptual foundations of emotional intelligence will be discussed. The importance of emotional intelligence will be explored, and the practical implications of a lack thereof from both an individual and organisational perspective will be discussed. Emotional intelligence will be studied from Wolmarans and Martins' (2001) Emotional Competency Model.

c) Retention factors

The concept of retention and the consequences of a lack of retention for organisations will be explored, clarified and described. The conceptual foundations of retention will be discussed, followed by the exploration of different approaches and models.

Finally, the chapter will conclude with an integration of the leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence, and the implications for retention factors will be discussed.

1.7.2 Chapter 3: Empirical study (Research Article)

This chapter will focus on the empirical study of the research methodology used in this study in the form of a research article. The research article will comprise of the following sections:

- An abstract that outlines the scope of the work and the principal findings.
- An introduction that contextualises the study according to the key focus, the background and the objective. The trends identified from research literature, the potential value-add to Industrial and Organisational Psychology and what will follow in the rest of the article will be discussed in the introduction.

- A discussion of the research design, which outlines and describes the research approach, method, participants, instruments, procedure and statistical analysis.
- The results, which will provide an overview of the descriptive statistics, as well as the reliability of the statistics. Tables and figures of the statistics will be presented in this section.
- A discussion of the results as per the stated research objectives.
- A discussion of the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.
- A conclusion that summarises the most important findings of this study.

1.7.3 Chapter 4: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This is the final chapter in which the results are integrated and conclusions are reached. The limitations of the study are explained and recommendations are made for the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology, especially for retention practices, both in terms of application and for further research. Finally, the chapter will end with concluding remarks to integrate the research.

1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The background to and motivation for the research, the problem statement, the objectives of the study, paradigm perspectives, the research design and research methodology of the study were discussed in this chapter. The motivation for this study is based on the fact that by exploring the relationship that exists among leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors, can help leaders in organisations to retain employees more effectively. Chapter 2 discusses the three variables (personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors) in more detail.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW: PERSONALITY TYPE, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND RETENTION FACTORS

Chapter 2 conceptualises the constructs of leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors. This chapter includes the integration of existing literature and the presentation of models to explain the practical implications of the relationship between leaders' personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors for the retention of employees. The final section of the chapter reviews the influence of biographical variables (gender, race and age groups and business units) and the practical implications of these constructs for retention practices in South Africa.

2.1 PERSONALITY TYPE

The concept of personality type is defined and discussed in more detail in this section.

2.1.1 Conceptualisation

Personality types will be discussed from the perspective of Jung's theory of personality. Jung's (1921) theory of psychological types explains that predictable differences in individuals are caused by differences in the way people prefer to use their minds to take in information, organise that information and reach conclusions. Psychological type refers to a personality pattern that involves certain psychological processes that determine an individual's orientation to life (Jung, 1921, 1971, 1990). People differ according to the various combinations of the processes that constitute their types (Jung, 1971).

Jung's (1990) theory suggests two attitudinal orientations namely introversion (I) and extraversion (E), as well as four psychological functions namely sensation (S), intuition (N), thinking (T) and feeling (F). Implied in Jung's typology are two additional orientations included by Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1987) that relate to the way people approach their outer world in terms of judgment or perception. These orientations are labelled judging (J) and perceiving (P).

2.1.2 Theory

The theory of relevance is Myers and Briggs's (Myers, 1987) personality type theory, which is based on Jung's (1921, 1959, 1971, 1990) theory of psychological type.

2.1.2.1 *Jung's theory of psychological type*

Carl Gustav Jung (1921) developed a theory of personality which postulates psychological type as a major construct through which personality can be understood. Jung's (1990) theory of personality types provide a framework for understanding personality differences in cognitive and perceptual styles, motives and values. This theory is also used in self-assessment activities to enhance an individual's self-insight (Jung, 1990).

Jung's (1990) theory is based on clinical observations and consequently portrays each mental process in sharpest focus and with the maximum contrast between its extraverted and introverted forms. Feist and Feist (2002) consider Jung's (1921, 1959, 1971) theory of personality as complex as Jung drew on information from a wide spectrum of disciplines such as psychology, psychiatry, philosophy, theology, physics, biology, archaeology, chemistry, history, literature, anthropology and mythology.

a) The structure of personality

The total personality is called the mind or psyche (Jung, 1921, 1959, 1971, 1990) and is seen as a complex network of interacting systems with psychic energy flowing from one system to another, striving for harmony. The psyche consists of three primary independent systems namely the conscious, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious.

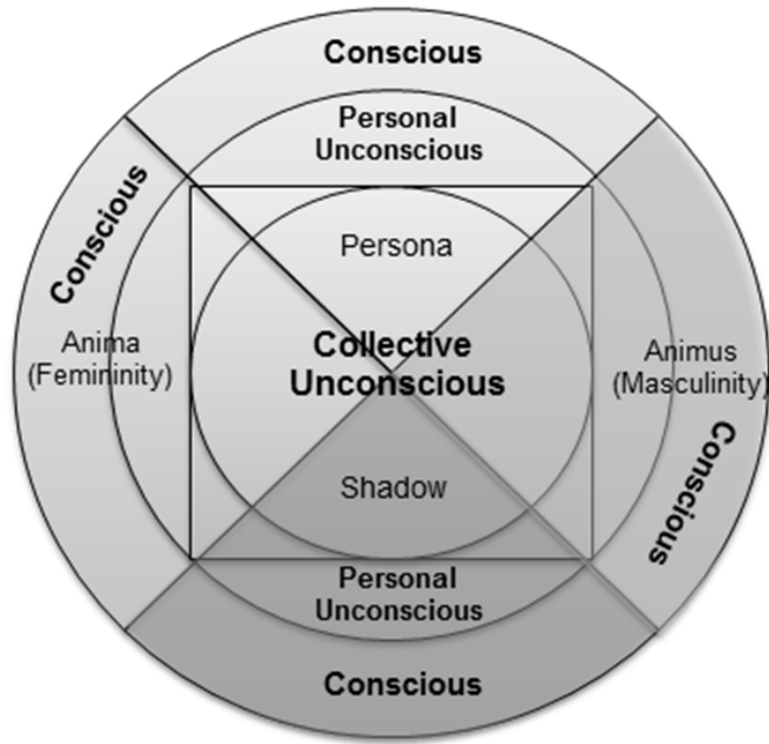


Figure 2.1. The mind or psyche of personality (Feist & Feist, 2008, p.97).

The first system of the human personality is the personal conscious (Jung, 1971, 1990). The consciousness consists of the ego and the persona (Jung, 1971, 1990). The centre of consciousness is called the ego, and the persona is the mask that an individual adopts in the outside world.

In figure 2.2 the conscious is displayed in blue. The ego is the essence of the conscious and functions both externally and internally. The external ego refers to the processes used to structure reality through sensory perception and is the way in which the psyche interacts with the external world. The internal ego involves the structuring and creation of an individual's awareness of him- or herself, and where an individual's identity is constructed through the internal functioning of the conscious (Feist & Feist, 2008; Jung, 1971; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1994).

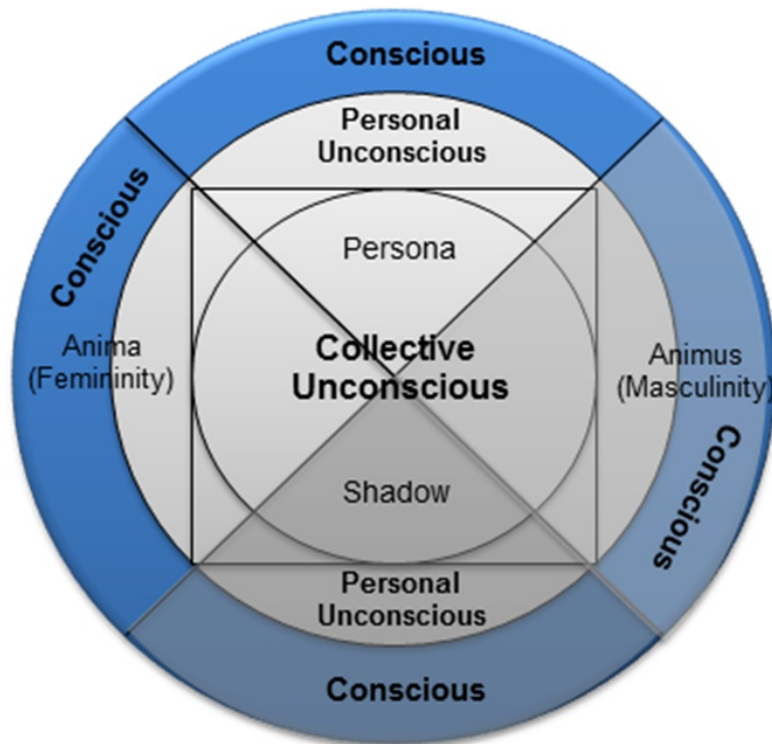


Figure 2.2. Jung's conception of the psyche with specific focus on the conscious (adapted from Feist & Feist, 2008, p. 97).

The personal unconscious is a unique and rich part of the psyche that consists of the individual's personal experiences and interactions with the world and the individual's interpretation of these experiences and interactions (Jung, 1959). The personal unconscious contains repressed infantile memories and impulses, sensory experiences and forgotten events. Complexes are the contents of the personal unconscious, and are usually personal but can draw from the collective unconscious (Feist & Feist, 2008; Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2008). All people have a shadow side that is unconscious (Jung, 1921, 1959). The anima and animus are part of the personal unconscious. A woman has an animus or male image in her unconscious and every man has an image of his unconscious called the anima or female image. The personal unconscious is highlighted in red in figure 2.3.

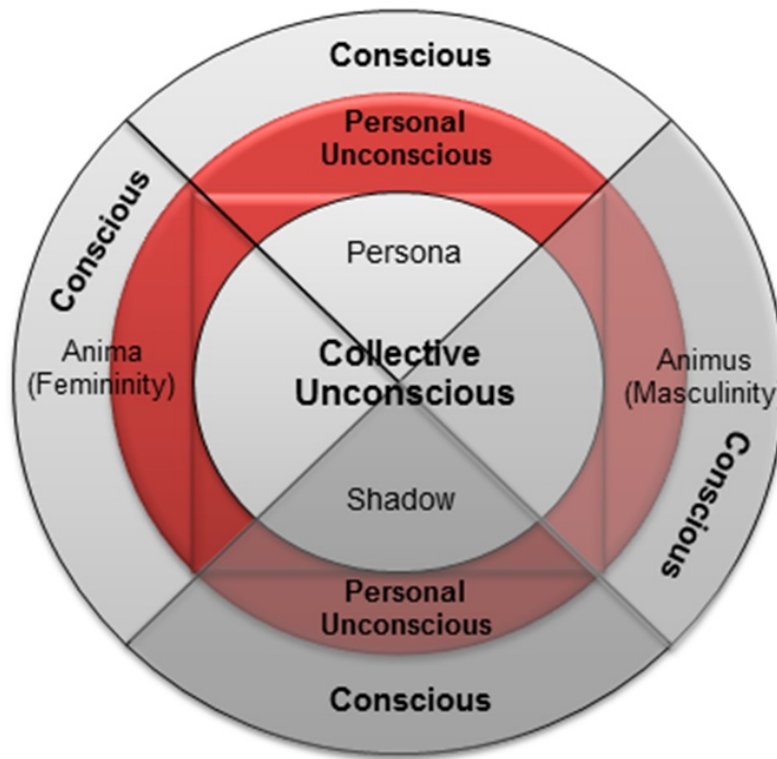


Figure 2.3. Jung's conception of the psyche with specific focus on the personal unconscious (adapted from Feist & Feist, 2008, p. 97).

Jung (1969, p.42) defined the collective unconscious as "a part of the psyche which can be negatively distinguished from the personal unconscious by the fact that it does not, like the latter, owe its existence to personal experience and consequently is not a personal acquisition". According to Jung (1921, 1959), the contents of the collective unconscious are similar for people across all cultures. The contents of the collective unconscious are active and influence a person's thoughts, emotions and actions. The collective unconscious refers to humans' innate tendencies to react in a particular way when their experiences stimulate a biologically inherited response tendency (Jung, 1969). The collective unconscious is independent and is not influenced by the personal unconscious or the conscious. However, the collective unconscious is active and influences the conscious through thoughts, emotions and reactions. The collective unconscious is displayed in green in figure 2.4.

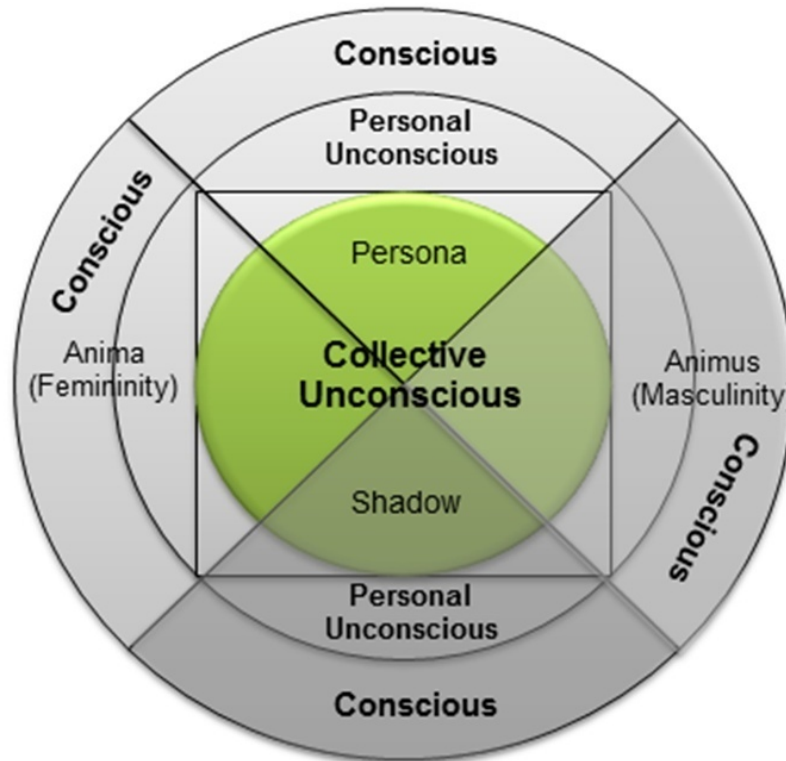


Figure 2.4. Jung's conception of the psyche with specific focus on the collective unconscious (adapted from Feist & Feist, 2008, p. 97).

b) Stages of personality development

Personality development is a dynamic process that takes place throughout life. Jung (1969) believed that personality develops through a series of stages. The stages of life can be grouped into four general stages namely childhood, youth, middle life and old age (Jung, 1969).

- Childhood - There are three stages within childhood namely the anarchic, monarchic and dualistic stages (Jung, 1969). In the anarchic phase, chaotic and sporadic consciousness is experienced (Jung, 1969). The monarchic phase is characterised by the development of the ego and verbal and logical thinking. In the dualistic phase the ego is divided into the objective and subjective and the ego as perceiver arises (Jung, 1969).
- Youth - This stage can stretch from puberty up to the age of about thirty five years. At this stage of life people strive to gain physical and psychic independence from their parents. They strive to find a mate, raise a family and make their mark in the world (Jung, 1969).

Youth is characterised by increased activity, growing consciousness, maturing sexuality and recognition that the problem-free years of childhood are over (Jung, 1969).

- Middle life - This phase runs from around the age of thirty five or forty, up to sixty years. This phase is characterised by the expansion of the conscious, which occurs through the acquiring of new knowledge and experiences (Jung (1969). The focus moves to the unconscious and individuals begin to pay attention to the inner aspects of themselves, which they have neglected before (Jung, 1969). Insight is gained into dimensions of themselves of which they were not aware.
- Old age - In this phase a balance of harmony is gained through reconciliation of opposing forces of many different experiences (Jung, 1969). The person has the opportunity for individuation.

c) Personality type theory

Each personality may be divided into one of various personality types in terms of two constructs namely attitudes and functions (Jung, 1990). An attitude is a predisposition to act or react in a characteristic direction, whereas a function is defined as the observations of an individual's world and how the individual assigns meaning to each experience (Jung, 1990).

The two basic attitudes are extraversion and introversion. The two attitudes do not present a dichotomy as every personality has both introvert and extravert characteristics with one of the two being dominant and conscious and the other subordinate and unconscious (Jung, 1921, 1971, 1990). The subordinate attitude will compensate for the dominant attitude and vice versa. Jung's (1990) theory of personality types is concerned with conscious use of functions, perception and judgement (decision-making). Apart from the dominant attitude a person has a specific way of assigning meaning to experiences. Jung distinguishes four conscious mental functions namely two perception functions (sensing and intuition) and two judgment functions (thinking and feeling) (Jung, 1990).

When the individual's dominant attitude and function are combined, the basic personality type may be determined (Jung, 1990). Thus personality types are patterns in the way people prefer to perceive things and make judgements (Jung, 1990). The two basic attitudes in Jung's typology can be defined as follows:

- Extraversion (E)

Extraversion is an attitude where people focus their psychic energy on the external and the objective outside of themselves. Extraverted individuals feel, think and act in relation to the object in a direct and observable manner with their interest in the immediate environment, people and things (Jung, 1971). People with a preference for extraversion draw energy from the outer world (Siegel, Smith & Mosca, 2001). Extraversion can be defined as an outgoing, candid and accommodating nature that adapts easily to a given situation. Extraverted individuals will form attachments quickly, setting aside any possible misgivings and often venture into an unknown situation (Jung, 1990).

- Introversion (I)

Introversion implies a hesitant, retiring and reflective nature that keeps itself to itself, is always slightly defensive, shrinks from objects and prefers to hide behind mistrustful scrutiny (Jung, 1990). People with a preference for introversion will draw their energy from their inner world of ideas, emotions and impressions (Siegel et al., 2001). Introversion is an attitude where individuals focus their psychic energy on subjective factors within themselves. They are aware of the objective data or external conditions but will select subjective data to feel, think and act. Their interest is motivated by the inner world of concepts and ideas (Jung, 1971).

The four mental functions can be defined as follows:

- Sensing (S)

This is a perceptual mode mediated by the sense organs and body senses – the perception of external and internal stimuli. Sensing involves an orientation to experience that which is present, concrete or visible (Jung, 1971).

- Intuition (N)

Intuition refers to a perceptual mode mediated by the unconscious and is not based on objective facts but an instinctive kind of apprehension beyond the visible (Jung, 1971). Something is therefore known without knowing the reasons why.

- Thinking (T)

Thinking is the mode of judging by which individuals try to understand things and link ideas by means of a concept (Jung, 1971). Thinking involves judging that is intentional or unintentional.

- Feeling (F)

This is the mode of judging by which a person accepts or rejects things or ideas because of a pleasant or unpleasant feeling (Jung, 1971). Feeling is a subjective process whereby individuals impart a value judgement.

2.1.2.2 *Myers and Briggs' theory of personality type*

Myers (1987) argued that a personality theory must portray and explain people as they are. Myers (1980) extended Jung's (1990) theory of personality types to include a degree of balance between the functions of perception and judgement and the attitudes of extraversion and introversion. The extension included the auxiliary process, the result of the combination of perceptions and judgment, and the role of the auxiliary in balancing extraversion and introversion (Myers, 1987). The judging-perception dichotomy was added to Jung's model which was undeveloped in Jung's theory (Myers et al., 1998). The judging-perception function can be defined as follow:

- Perception (P)

Perception refers to the manner in which people become aware of things, events, people or ideas and includes information gathering, visual sensation or inspiration and the selection of a stimulus to attend to (Myers et al., 1998).

- Judgement (J)

Judgement is the way in which conclusions about perceptions are reached. It includes choice, evaluation, decision-making and the selection of a response after perceiving a stimulus (Myers et al., 1998).

Myers' (1980) theory of personality types differentiates between sixteen personality types. Jung (1971) believed that individuals' behaviours are orderly and consistent. The Myers-Briggs theory of personality types postulates that personality is governed by a person's preferences for using his or her own perceptions and judgments in all daily activities. Figure 2.5 gives a holistic picture of the attitudinal orientations and the psychological functions of personality.

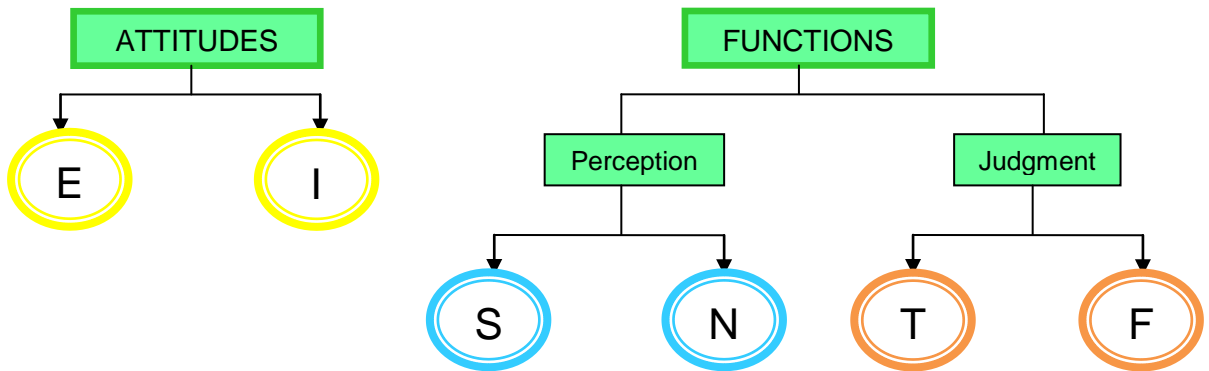


Figure 2.5. Attitudes and functions of personality (Jung, 1971).

The Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1987) theory of personality type is concerned with four bipolar preferences to determine the relative preference of one over the other. The four scales correspond to the four dimensions of personality type theory as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1.

The four preferences are scored to arrive at a person's personality type (Lawrence, 1993, p.50).

Does the person's interest flow mainly to	
E	The outer world of actions, objects and persons
I	The inner world of concepts and ideas
EXTRAVERSION	INTROVERSION
Does the person prefer to perceive	
S	The immediate, real, practical facts of experience and life?
N	The possibilities, relationships and meanings of experiences?
SENSING	INTUITION
Does the person prefer to make judgments or decisions	
T	Objectively, impersonally, considering cause of events and where decisions may lead?
F	Subjectively and personally, weighing values of choices and how they matter to others?
THINKING	FEELING
Does the person prefer mostly to live	
J	In a decisive, planned and orderly way, aiming to regulate and control events?
P	In a spontaneous, flexible way, aiming to understand life and adapt to it?
JUDGING	PERCEIVING

Table 2.2 below highlights the strengths, similarities and differences of the sixteen personality types (Lawrence, 1993). The interaction of functions and attitudes is known as type dynamics (Quenk, 1996). The sequence of the four-letter MBTI types must be examined to understand the dynamic relationship. The first letter designates a person's preferred attitude or orientation of energy in the form of an E (extraversion) or I (introversion) (Quenk, 1993). The second letter identifies how a person gathers information which is either S (sensing) or N (intuition). The third letter signifies a person's preferred judging function in the form of a T (thinking) or F (feeling) (Quenk, 1993). The judging or perceiving attitude towards the outer world is represented by the fourth letter, which is either J (judging) or P (perceiving) (Quenk, 1993).

Table 2.2.

Description of each of the sixteen personality types (Lawrence, 1993, p.55).

ENTJ	ISFP
Intuitive, innovative <i>organiser</i> ; analytical, systematic, confident; pushes to get action on new ideas and challenges.	Observant, loyal <i>helper</i> ; reflective, realistic, empathic, patient with details, gentle and retiring, shuns disagreements; enjoys the moment.
ESTJ	INFP
Fact-minded, practical <i>organiser</i> ; assertive, analytical, systematic, pushes to get things done and works smoothly and efficiently.	Imaginative, independent <i>helper</i> ; reflective, inquisitive, empathic, loyal to ideas, more interested in possibilities than practicalities.
INTP	ESFJ
Inquisitive <i>analyser</i> ; reflective, independent, curious: more interested in organizing ideas than situations or people.	Practical <i>harmoniser</i> and works-with-people; sociable, orderly, opinionated; conscientious; realistic and well tuned-in to the here and now.
ISTP	ENFJ
Practical <i>analyser</i> ; values exactness: more interested in organizing data than situations or people; reflective, a cool and curious observer of life.	Imaginative <i>harmoniser</i> and worker-with-people; sociable, expressive, orderly, opinionated, conscientious; curious about new ideas and possibilities.
ESTP	INFJ
Realistic <i>adapter</i> in the world of material things; good natured, tolerant, easy going; orientated towards practical, first-hand experience: highly observant of details of things.	People-oriented <i>innovator</i> of ideas; serious, quietly forceful and persevering; concerned with the common good and with helping others to develop.
ESFP	INTJ
Realistic <i>adapter</i> in human relationships; friendly and easy with people, highly observant of their feelings and needs, orientated towards practical first-hand experience.	Logical, critical, decisive <i>innovator</i> of serious intent, highly independent, concerned with organisation; determined and often stubborn.
ISTJ	ENFP
<i>Analytical manager of facts and details</i> ; dependable, decisive, painstaking and systematic; concerned with systems and organisation; stable and conservative.	Warmly enthusiastic <i>planner of change</i> ; imaginative, individualistic; pursues inspiration with impulsive energy; seeks to understand and inspire others.

ISFJ	ENTP
Sympathetic manager of facts and details, concerned with people's welfare; dependable, painstaking and systematic; stable and conservative.	Inventive, analytical planner of change; enthusiastic and independent; pursues inspiration with impulsive energy; seeks to understand and inspire others.

2.1.3 Variables influencing the development of personality type

In a study by Martins and Coetzee (2007), it is suggested that the occupational context of an organisation tends to be characterised by certain personality type preferences. Research indicates that extraverted types are more commonly found in leadership roles (Kets de Vries, 2001; Sieff & Carstens, 2006). Sieff (2009) found that extraverted personality types are more comfortable with leadership challenges. In a study conducted by Martins and Coetzee (2007) in a South African engineering company the extraversion attitude was also indicated as the dominant preference of senior leaders. A study conducted on mid-level leaders indicate that in a time of organisational change, leaders with a preference for feeling and perception are better positioned for focus in the leadership role (Sieff, 2009).

In research conducted by Sieff and Carstens (2006), leaders with a preference for the intuitive-feeling (NF) type were shown to be more challenged by tasks that require focus than sensing-thinking (ST) types. Intuitive-thinking (NT) types reported that overall they were comfortable with challenging tasks. Western-based civilisation socialises men towards the thinking (T) preference and women towards feeling (F). Both groups are more likely to be extraverts (E) with a sensing (S) and judging (J) attitude (Myers & Myers, 1980). Myers et al. (1998) indicated that the MBTI might not be appropriate in cultures with strong values for the following reasons:

- There may be significant differences in the ways in which type preferences are expressed within these cultures; and
- Individual preferences may be difficult to identify as the centrality and importance of group identity and cultural norms are seen as important.

In an analysis conducted by De Beer (1997), it was found that indigenous black people tend to have a preference towards feeling rather than thinking based on the values and characteristics

of *ubuntu*. The same study reported that ESTJ and ISTJ are the most common personality types for both black and white South Africans.

The most common and important influences on personality type development include:

- Environmental influences – these can influence the development of an individual's innate preferences (Myers & Kirby, 1994). A child might grow up in a family that has a value for sensing (S) types, but the child naturally prefers the intuitive (I) type. Due to the influence of what he or she is taught in the family, this child may report the sensing type as a personality preference (Myers & Kirby, 1994; Roberts, 2009);
- Gender – this can impact significantly on the development of personality preferences. Social values about gender-appropriate behaviour can play a role as it is often suggested that boys should show a thinking (T) preference and girls the feeling (F) preference (Myers & Kirby, 1994);
- Cultural values and expectations – these can play a role in the development of personality types. The cultural group to which a person belongs may create roles and identities with related ways of behaving. These roles and identities will govern the way people think, feel and do things which will, in turn, influence a person's preferences towards a certain function or attitude (Bergh & Theron, 2009); and
- Individual factors – these can influence a person's preference towards a specific personality type. Life choices, an accident or personal trauma, unexpected changes in family and financial responsibilities, marriage to a spouse with opposite preferences and occupation may influence the development and display of personality types (Myers & Kirby, 1994).

2.1.4 Implications for leader effectiveness

Leadership can be conceptualised and measured in variety of different ways (Hogan, Curphy & Hogan, 1994). It is possible to separate leadership into two broad categories namely leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (Lord, De Vader & Alliger, 1986). Hogan et al. (1994) state that the concept of leadership emergence relates to factors associated with someone being perceived as a leader. An individual may be viewed by others as a leader even when the onlookers have limited information about the individual's performance.

Smith and Canger (2004) state that leaders can have a profound impact on the organisations they lead. A meta-analytic review of personality concluded that the Big Five personality dimensions relate highly to successful leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Werner, 2002a). The Big Five factors (Barrick & Mount, 1993) are:

- Extraversion
- Agreeableness
- Conscientiousness
- Emotional stability
- Openness to experience

The results of studies concerning the relationship between traits and leadership have been disappointing and inconsistent (Smith & Canger, 2004). House and Aditya (1997) state that there are only a few, if any, traits that can be associated with leadership effectiveness. Lord et al. (1986) also failed to find a strong relationship between leadership effectiveness and traits of leaders.

The ability to predict effective leadership remains crucial (Smith & Canger, 2004). Stable qualities that predict leader performance are needed to identify individuals who will most likely be good leaders in the future (Smith & Canger, 2004). Studies have proved a positive relationship between personality and job performance but empirical evidence for the relationship between personality, job performance and leadership is lacking (Barrick & Judge, 2001). It is difficult to conduct empirical research on the predictors of good leadership as there is no single best way to assess leadership effectiveness (Hogan et al., 1994). Some researchers have used objective measures of team performance, while others used 360-degree ratings, self-ratings or assessment centres. Some researchers have also used subordinate behaviours and attitudes as a measure (Bass, 1990). Organisations should move to a point where greater emphasis is placed on employee attitudes and retention and employee attitudes and turnover should therefore be viewed as legitimate concerns for organisations and researchers (Smith & Canger, 2004).

A study by Smith and Canger (2004) provide evidence in support of the notion that supervisors' personalities are related to the attitudes of their subordinates. Hogan and Kaiser (2005) suggest that personality predicts leadership style, leadership style impacts employee attitudes and team

functioning and these variables predict organisational effectiveness. Leadership involves an ability to persuade others to contribute to the overall performance of the organisation (Hogan et al., 1994). Leadership entails building and motivating a team to outperform the competition.

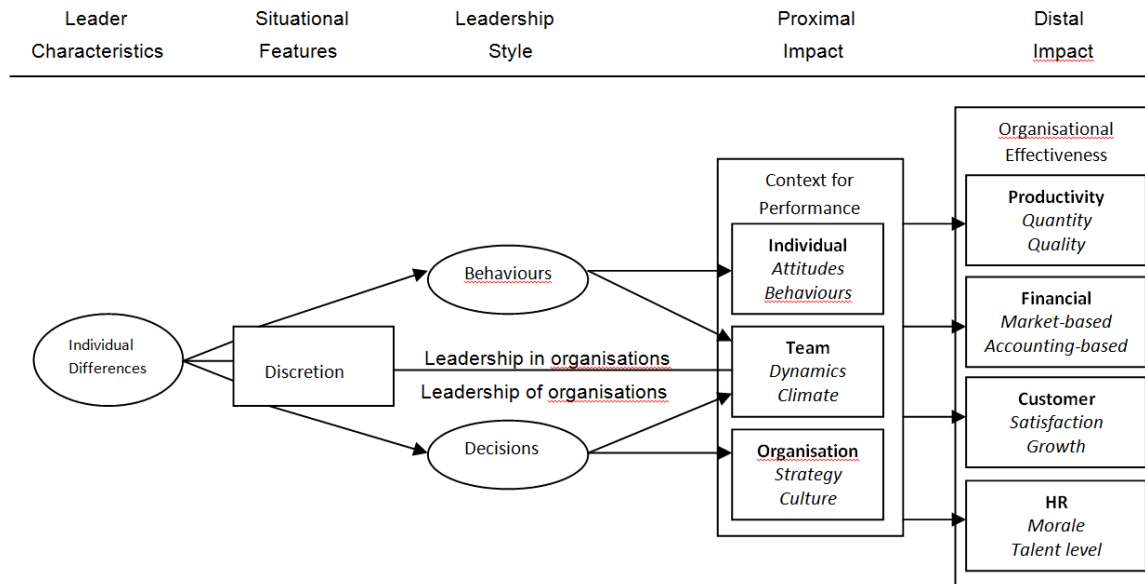


Figure 2.6. How leaders impact organisational effectiveness (adapted from Dubin, 1979).

Kaiser and Hogan (2007) state that although discretion moderates the effect of leader attributes such as cognitive ability, knowledge, skills and experience, personality remains the most potent source of individual differences in leadership. Further proof of this can be found in research that indicates that personality is the primary source of differences among leaders (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1985). This phenomenon is found in meta-analyses that demonstrate that when organised in terms of an adequate taxonomy, the validity of personality is greater than the validity of cognitive ability in predicting leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Ilies & Colbert, 2004).

The more discretion a leader has, the more their leadership style will reflect their personalities (Kaiser & Hogan, 2007). Leadership style affects organisational performance directly and indirectly. The proximal effect of leadership is that leaders influence people, teams and organisational features. Yoammarino and Dansereau (2002) suggest that the effects of leadership are evident at three levels of analysis – the individual, the team or group and the organisation as a whole. Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) established that leader behaviours directly influence attitudes (satisfaction and commitment) and behaviours

(performance) of individual employees, and further influence group dynamics and climate (Peterson, Smith, Martorana & Owens, 2003). This will occur, for instance, through facilitating communication and co-ordination, resolving intragroup conflict and rewarding or sanctioning certain behaviours. Leaders' decisions influence organisations by defining strategic direction, organisational structure, resource allocation and formal policy (Zaccaro, 2001). Leaders' decisions therefore indirectly influence teams by establishing goals, assigning individuals to roles and distributing resources (Antonakis & House, 2002).

Transformational leadership has a greater impact than transactional leadership on organisation culture (Block, 2003). A study conducted by Sieff and Carstens (2006) supports this finding. Leaders with extraverted, intuitive and perceiving preferences lean towards transformational leadership (Hautala, 2005). These findings corresponded with a study conducted by Sieff and Carstens (2006) who found that ESTJ personality types are more likely to experience a fit with organisation type and will engage in transactional leadership behaviour.

Myers et al. (1998) state that it is very difficult for extraverted-thinking managers to recognise the process of decision-making, which involves the information and recognition seeking inclusion and support needs of others. While ESTJ might be suited to leadership positions, it is suggested that these leaders learn ancillary personality behaviours from alternative personality types to provide a better form of leadership.

2.1.5 Implications for retention

Each of the sixteen personality types has a number of strengths but also pose development areas which will have implications for staff retention. Table 2.3 summarises these for each of the different personality types. It is clear that some personality types will make better people managers due to their preferences and as a result, will be more successful in retaining employees.

Table 2.3.

Strengths and weaknesses of the different personality types (Anonymous, unknown date).

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ISTJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Honour commitments • Take their relationship roles very seriously • Able to correctly communicate what is on their minds • Good listeners • Extremely good with money • Able to take constructive criticism well • Able to tolerate conflict situations well • Able to dole out punishment or criticism when needed 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to believe that they are always right • Tendency to get involved in "win-lose" conversations • Not naturally in tune with what others are feeling • Their value for structure may seem rigid to others • Not likely to give enough praise or affirmation to their loved ones
ISFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warm, friendly, and affirming by nature • Service-orientated; wanting to please others • Good listeners • Will put forth lots of effort to fulfil their duties • Excellent organizational capabilities • Good at taking care of practical matters and daily needs • Usually good at handling money • Take their commitments seriously and seek lifelong relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do not pay enough attention to their own needs • May have difficulty branching out into new territory • Extreme dislike of conflict and criticism • Unlikely to express their needs, which may cause pent-up frustrations to build inside • Have difficulty leaving a bad relationship • Have difficulty moving on after the end of a relationship
ISTP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good listeners • Usually self-confident • Generally optimistic and fun to be around • Practical and realistic, they handle daily concerns • Not threatened by conflict or criticism • Able to leave a relationship with ease once it is over • Able to administer punishment, although they are not interested in doing so • Likely to respect others' needs for space and privacy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Live entirely in the present and have difficulty with long-term commitments • Not naturally good at expressing feelings and emotions • Not tuned in to what others are feeling, they may be insensitive at times • Tendency to be overly private and hold back part of themselves • Need a lot of personal space, which they do not like to have invaded • They thrive on action and excitement, and may stir things up to create it

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ISTJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warm, concern about, and caring towards others • Sensitive and perceptive about what others are feeling • Loyal and committed - they want lifelong relationships • Deep capacity for love and caring • Driven to meet others' needs • Strive for "win-win" situations • Nurturing, supportive, and encouraging • Likely to recognize other's need for space • Able to express themselves well • Flexible and diverse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May tend to be shy and reserved • Do not like to have their "space" invaded • Extreme dislike of conflict • Extreme dislike of criticism • Strong need to receive praise and positive affirmation • May react very emotionally to stressful situations • Have difficulty leaving a bad relationship • Have difficulty scolding or punishing others • Tend to be reserved about expressing their feelings • Perfectionistic tendencies may cause them to not give themselves enough credit • Blame themselves for problems
ESTP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Can be quite charming • Witty, clever, and popular • Earthy and sensual • Not personally threatened by conflict or criticism • Excellent and clear-headed dealing with emergency situations • Enthusiastic and fun-loving, they try to make everything enjoyable • Being "big kids" themselves, they are eager, willing, and able to spend time with their children 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not naturally in tune with what others are feeling • Not naturally good at expressing feelings and emotions • May inadvertently hurt others with insensitive language • May be very good with money, but highly risky with it as well • Live in the present; not good long-range planners • Can ignore conflict rather than solving it • Do not naturally make lifelong commitments • Prone to get bored easily • More likely than other types to leave relationships quickly when they get bored

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ESFP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enthusiastic and fun-loving; make things enjoyable • Clever, witty, direct, and popular • Earthy and sensual • Down to earth and practical; able to take care of daily needs • Artistic and creative • Flexible and diverse • Can leave bad relationships, although it is not easy • Try to make the most of every moment • Generous and warm-hearted 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May be frivolous and risky with money • Tend to be materialistic • Extreme dislike of criticism; likely to take things extremely personally • Likely to ignore or escape conflict situations rather than face them • Lifelong commitments may be a struggle for them - they take things one day at a time • Do not pay enough attention to their own needs • Tendency to neglect their health • Always excited by something new – change is regular
ISFP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally enthusiastic, upbeat and friendly • Stable and dependable • Put forth a lot of effort to fulfil their duties • Responsible about taking care of day to day tasks • Usually good with money • Not personally threatened by conflict or criticism • Interested in resolving conflict rather than ignoring it • Take their commitments very seriously and seek lifelong relationships • Able to move on after a relationship breaks up • Able to administer discipline when necessary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to believe that they are always right • Tendency to need to always be in charge • Impatient with inefficiency and sloppiness • Not naturally in tune with what others are feeling • Not naturally good at expressing their feelings and emotions • May inadvertently hurt others with insensitive language • Tendency to be materialistic and status-conscious • Generally uncomfortable with change and moving into new territories

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ESFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Put forth a lot of effort to fulfil their duties • Warm, friendly, and affirming by nature • Service-orientated, they want to please others • Take their commitments very seriously and seek lifelong relationships • Responsible and practical, they can be counted to take care of day to day necessities • Generally upbeat and popular, people are drawn towards them • Generally very good money managers • Traditionally-minded and family-orientated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Generally uncomfortable with change • Extreme dislike of conflict and criticism • Need lots of positive affirmation to feel good • May be overly status-conscious • Have a very difficult time accepting the end of a relationship • Have difficulty accepting negative things about people close to them • Do not pay enough attention to their own needs • May tend to use guilt to manipulate in order to get what they want
INFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warm and affirming by nature • Dedicated to achieving the ultimate relationship • Sensitive and concerned for others' feelings • Usually have good communication skills • Take their commitments very seriously and seek lifelong relationships • Have very high expectations of themselves and others (both a strength and a weakness) • Good listeners • Are able to move on after a relationship has ended 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to hold back part of themselves • Not good with money or practical day to day necessities of life • Extreme dislike of conflict and criticism • Have very high expectations of themselves and others (both a strength and a weakness) • Have difficulty leaving a bad relationship
INTJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not threatened by conflict or criticism • Usually self-confident • Take their relationships and commitments seriously • Generally extremely intelligent and capable • Able to leave a relationship which should be ended, although they may dwell on it in their minds for a while afterwards • Interested in "optimising" their relationships • Good listeners 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not naturally in tune with others' feelings; may be insensitive at times • May tend to respond to conflict with logic and reason, rather than the desired emotional support • Not naturally good at expressing feelings • Tendency to believe that they are always right • Tend to be unwilling or unable to accept blame • Their constant quest to improve may be taxing on relationships • Tend to hold back part of themselves

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ESFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Warm, concerned about, and caring towards others • Sensitive and perceptive about what others are feeling • Loyal and committed - they want lifelong relationships • Deep capacity for love and caring • Driven to meet others' needs • Strive for "win-win" situations • Nurturing, supportive, and encouraging • Recognize and appreciate others' need for space • Able to express themselves well • Flexible and diverse 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • May tend to be shy and reserved • Do not like to have their "space" invaded • Extreme dislike of conflict • Extreme dislike of criticism • Strong need to receive praise and positive affirmation • May react very emotionally to stressful situations • Have difficulty leaving a bad relationship • Have difficulty scolding or punishing others • Tend to be reserved about expressing their feelings • Perfectionistic tendencies may cause them to not give themselves enough credit • Tendency to blame themselves for problems
INTP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They feel love and affection for those close to them • Generally laid-back and easy-going • Approach things that interest them very enthusiastically • Richly imaginative and creative • Do not feel personally threatened by conflict or criticism • Are usually not demanding, with simple daily needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not naturally in tune with others' feelings • Not naturally good at expressing their own feelings • Tend to be suspicious and distrusting of others • Not usually good at practical matters, such as money management • They have difficulty leaving bad relationships • Tend to "blow off" conflict situations by ignoring them, or else they "blow up" in heated anger

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ENFP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good communication skills • Very perceptive of people's thoughts and motives • Motivational, inspirational; bring out the best in others • Warm, affectionate, and affirming • Fun to be with - lively sense of humour, dramatic, energetic, and optimistic • Strive for "win-win" situations • Driven to meet others' needs • Usually loyal and dedicated 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to be smothering • Their enthusiasm may lead them to be unrealistic • Uninterested in dealing with mundane matters • Hold onto bad relationships after they've turned sour • Extreme dislike of conflict • Extreme dislike of criticism • Do not pay attention to their own needs • Constant quest for perfect relationship may make them change relationships frequently • May easily become bored • Have difficulty scolding or punishing others
ENTP	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enthusiastic, upbeat, and popular • Can be very charming • Excellent communication skills • Extremely interested in self-improvement and growth • Laid back and flexible; usually easy to get along with • Big idea-people • Usually good at making money • Take their commitments and relationships seriously • Able to move on with their lives after leaving a relationship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always excited by anything new, they may change partners frequently • Tendency to not follow through on their plans • Love of debate may cause them to argue often • Big risk-takers and big spenders, not usually good at managing money • Although they take their commitments seriously, they tend to abandon relationships that no longer offer opportunity for growth
ENFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good verbal communication skills • Very perceptive about people's thoughts and motives • Motivational, inspirational; bring out the best in others • Warm, affectionate, and affirming 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to be smothering and over-protective • Tendency to be controlling and/or manipulative • Do not pay enough attention to their own needs • Tend to be critical of opinions and attitudes that do not match their own

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
ENFJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Fun to be with - lively sense of humour, dramatic, energetic, optimistic • Good money skills • Able to move on after a love relationship has failed • Loyal and committed - they want lifelong relationships • Strive for "win-win" situations • Driven to meet others' needs 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sometimes unaware of social appropriateness • Extremely sensitive to conflict • Tendency to blame themselves when things go wrong • Their sharply-defined value systems make them unbending in some areas • They may be so attuned to what is socially accepted that they are unable to assess if something is right or wrong
ENTJ	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Genuinely interested in people's ideas and thoughts • Enthusiastic and energetic • Take their commitments very seriously • Fair-minded and interested in doing the right thing • Very good with money • Extremely direct and straightforward • Verbally fluent • Enhance and encourage knowledge and self-growth • Able to leave relationships without looking back • Able to turn conflict situations into positive lessons • Able to take constructive criticism well • Extremely high standards and expectations (both a strength and a weakness) • Usually have strong affections and sentimental streaks • Able to dole out discipline 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Their enthusiasm for verbal debates can make them appear argumentative • Tendency to be challenging and confrontational • Tend to get involved in "win-lose" conversations • Tendency to have difficulty listening to others • Tendency to be critical of opinions and attitudes that do not match their own • Extremely high standards and expectations (both a strength and a weakness) • Not naturally in tune with people's feelings • May have difficulty expressing love and affection • Can be overpowering and intimidating to others • Tendency to want to always be in charge • Harsh and intolerant of messiness or inefficiency • Tendency to be controlling • May be slow to give praise • If unhappy, may be very impersonal • Tendency to make hasty decisions • May explode with terrible tempers under stress

Voluntary organisational turnover is often dysfunctional and can be detrimental to organisations (Mobley, 1982). Leaders may have an impact on the effectiveness of groups and also impact group members' attitudes and feelings (Smith & Canger, 2004). It may be more fun and satisfying to work for an approachable, sympathetic leader than a person who leads by fear and intimidation. There is a link between job satisfaction, attitudes and turnover (Smith & Canger, 2004). Several authors have noted the key role that leaders play in the retention of key employees (Harris & Brannick, 1999; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 1999).

2.2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The concept of emotional intelligence will be defined and discussed in more detail in this section.

2.2.1 Conceptualisation

The literature differentiates between mental ability models and mixed models of emotional intelligence (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). The mental ability model concentrates on emotions and how these emotions interact with thought (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), while the mixed models treat mental abilities and a variety of other characteristics (motivation, states of consciousness and social activity) as a single entity (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995).

2.2.1.1 Emotions

For decades management believed that emotions should be kept out of the workplace (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993). Emotions were only discussed in terms of how they interfered with rational decision-making or when they were part of interpersonal conflict. Researchers have now realised the benefits that come from recognising the value of emotions in the workplace (Humphrey, Pollack & Hawver, 2008). Emotions are regarded as the primary motivating force that arouse, direct and sustain activity (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). Watson (2000) defines emotion as an integrated, distinct, psycho-physiological response system. It is an organised, structured reaction to an event that is relevant to goals, needs or survival.

Conversely, Weiss (2002) states that emotion is not a single thing, but must be considered as a response or responses produced by unified physiological, subjective and behavioural components. Russell and Barchard (2002) define emotion by subdividing it into five components, namely:

- 1) *Objectless affect*. This is described as “primitive affective feelings... not necessarily associated with a particular object” (Russell & Barchard, 2002, p.365).
- 2) *Attributed affect*. This is defined as “objectless affect that has been linked to a specific object” (Russell & Barchard, 2002, p.365), which refers to a feeling in reaction to an event.
- 3) *Emotional behaviour*. This can be defined as “any overt activity associated with objectless affect or attributed affect” (Russell & Barchard, 2002, p.365) such as body language or a hand gesture.
- 4) *Perception of affective quality*. This is the ability of a specific object or situation to cause a particular feeling (Russell & Barchard, 2002).
- 5) *Emotional episode*. This has been defined by Russell and Barchard (2002, p.365) as the “co-occurrence of the above-listed events: Objectless affect attributed to an object (constituting attributed affect) with the object perceived in terms of affective quality and with emotional behaviour directed at the object”.

Weiss (2002) considers emotion not as a single thing but rather as a response or responses produced by unified psychological, subjective and behavioural components. Weiss (2002) further refers to Frijda's (2000) summary of the components of emotions as experiential effects of the subjective appreciation of affect, the person-situation-object connected with the experiential element, the psychological changes within the person and the actual tendencies emanating from the person.

Emotions can further be described as operating on two levels namely intrapersonal states and interpersonal states (Frijda, 2000). The interpersonal is concerned with the relationship between a subject and an object, and the intrapersonal is considered as operating around feelings, being in a state of arousal or experiencing certain motor patterns. Certain processes cover the different theories and Frijda (2000, p.62) defines these emotion units at higher levels as "complexes made up of basic processes, such as feelings of pleasure or pain, individual facial expression components, particular appraisals and particular action plans and activation states". According to Brown, George-Curran and Smith (2003), there are three main reasons why

emotion is important in the work context namely it motivates an individual to act, it controls one's emotions and it plays a role in career development.

Emotions influence decision-making (Ashkanasy, Zebre & Härtel, 2002). Goleman's (1995) research also shows the significance of emotions in decision-making. Leaders have to display a wide variety of emotions ranging from sympathy to support and from friendliness to anger (Humphrey et al., 2008). Several studies have demonstrated that leaders have an influence on employees' moods and emotional states, which can either help or hinder performance (McCull-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pescosolido, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Haertel, Mann & Hirst, 2002).

2.2.1.2 Intelligence

Intelligence can be defined as the global ability of an individual to act purposefully, to think logically and to effectively deal with his environment (Wechsler, 1958). Wade and Tavis (2006, p.321) describe intelligence as "the ability to profit from experience, acquire knowledge, think abstractly, act purposefully or adapt to changes in the environment". Intelligence can be distinguished from rationality in that intelligence refers to an individual's capacity to grasp abstractions, and rationality refers to how an individual actually uses his or her mind (Locke, 2005). Rational individuals take facts seriously and use thinking and logic to reach conclusions. An individual can be very intelligent, yet be irrational.

Intelligence is cognitive processing that can be measured by performance on certain elementary cognitive tasks (Fagan & Detterman, 1992; Fagan, 2000). According to Fagan (2000), an IQ score depends on processing ability and what one has been taught. Fagan's (1992; 2000) theory argues that as information is processed, the mind changes. The change is called knowledge which is a state of mind. An individual's genetic plan and the world's influence on an individual's brain determine how good information is processed. Fagan (1992, 2000) further states that what knowledge is, is dependent on processes and culture.

The most common elements in the definitions of intelligence are (a) higher-level abilities like abstract reasoning, mental representation, decision-making and problem-solving; (b) ability to learn; and (c) effective adaptation to meet the demands of the environment (Sternberg, 1997). Adaptation seems to be a common theme in many definitions for intelligence (Barkow,

Cosmides & Toobey, 1992; Buss, 1995). Human beings do not just adapt to the environment, they shape their environment and, at times, they select a new environment (Sternberg, 1997).

2.2.1.3 *Emotional intelligence*

Emotional intelligence can be defined as the capacity of an individual to recognise his or her own emotions as well as those of others (Hicks & Dess, 2008). According to Macaleer and Shannon (2002), emotional intelligence is generally accepted to be a combination of emotional and interpersonal competencies that influence behaviour, thinking and interaction with other people. Dreyfus (cited in Macaleer & Shannon, 2002, p.231) views emotional intelligence as non-cognitive intelligence. Dreyfus states that emotional intelligence is something apart from skills and knowledge which enables individuals to understand themselves and others in relating to people and adapting to surroundings.

Emotional intelligence reflects how knowledge is applied and reflected throughout life (Macaleer & Shannon, 2002). Mayer and Salovey (cited in Groves, McEnrue & Shen, 2008, p.227) define emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive accurately, appraise and express emotion. It is the ability to access and generate feeling through thought and to understand emotion and emotional knowledge (Groves et al., 2008). It is further believed by Mayer and Salovey (cited in Groves et al., 2008, p.228) to be the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Ashkanasy and Daus (2005, p.449) established the following:

- Emotional intelligence is distinct from, but positively related to, other intelligences;
- Emotional intelligence develops over an individual's life span and can be enhanced through training;
- Emotional intelligence is an individual difference where some people are more endowed and others less so; and
- Emotional intelligence involves a person's ability to identify and perceive emotion (in oneself and in others), as well as the skills to understand and manage those emotions.

Mandell and Pherwani (2003) state that real intelligence is made up of intellectual, emotional and social elements. Emotional intelligence is a vital element in leading an outstanding climate for delivery, quality and ability to deal with workplace conflict amongst others (Morehouse, 2007). In a study conducted by Goleman (1998) to measure performance competencies, it was

ascertained that twenty three percent of performance was based on intellect and technical expertise and sixty seven percent could be ascribed to emotional intelligence (EI) capacities. In another study conducted by Rahim and Minors (2003), positive correlations were found between EI competencies (self-regulation and empathy as well as manager's concern for product and service quality) and self-awareness, self-regulation and effective problem-solving skills during conflict. Research also demonstrates a relationship between EI and individual and team performance (Morehouse, 2007).

Evidence led to the popular quotes that states "intelligence quotient (IQ) gets you hired, but emotional quotient (EQ) gets you promoted" (Hicks & Dess, 2008, p.18). Goleman (cited in Hicks & Dess, 2008, p.18) states that a manager can have excellent training, an incisive and analytical mind and good ideas but will not be a great leader without emotional intelligence skills. According to Hicks and Dess (2008), emotional intelligence has five components namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

Emotional intelligence can assist individuals in negotiating their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulate their emotional experiences (Coetzee et al., 2006). Emotional competence further implies a positive inner state of being and an ability to competently, creatively and confidently adapt in an unstructured, unsure and changing socio-cultural environment (Wolmarans, 2002).

2.2.2 Theory

Wolmarans and Martin's (2001) model of emotional competence is relevant to the present study. According to Wolmarans (2001), EI entails a unique set of competencies described by mixed models of EI.

Wolmarans and Martins (2001) categorise emotional intelligence into seven clusters of emotional competencies namely emotional literacy, self-esteem/self-regard, self-management, self-motivation, change resilience, inter-personal relations and integration of the head and heart. These seven dimensions will be briefly discussed below:

2.2.2.1 *Emotional literacy*

Emotional literacy refers to understanding the flow of an individual's own and others' emotions – what caused it and how to react to the particular emotion within the specific context (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). To put it differently, it is an awareness of the ebb and flow of one's own and other's emotions with an understanding of what causes the emotions, combined with the skill to interact in an appropriate emotional manner, at the right time, with the right person and within the boundaries of the context (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Emotional literacy is demonstrated by an ability to acknowledge and apologise for hurt caused and express sincere regret in order to mend damaged relationships.

2.2.2.2 *Self-esteem or self-regard*

Self-esteem refers to “an honest, objective and realistic assessment of, and respect for one's own worth as an equal human being” (Palmer, et al., 2006, p.10). It is about accepting one's own strengths and weaknesses and the ability to laugh at oneself without feeling inferior (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Self-esteem includes unconditional, non-defensive acceptance of one's talents, values, shortcomings and skills. Self-esteem is evident when one has the courage to act in accordance with personal values in the face of opposition (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

2.2.2.3 *Self-management*

Self-management is the ability to handle stress and stressful situations without over-reacting, and finding a balance between mind, body and soul in order to handle emotions optimally (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). This is visible in the ability to remain calm in the face of conflict and provocation thereby minimising defensiveness and restoring rationality in the aggravated party (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

2.2.2.4 *Self-motivation*

Self-motivation is about setting one's own challenging goals and extending individual capabilities in an effort to achieve them while staying focused and optimistic, regardless of hardship or setbacks. Self-motivation is also explained as unceasingly striving towards one's

own goals (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Self-motivation entails taking responsibility for one's successes and failures and to "hang in there" when others have given up (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

2.2.2.5 Change resilience

Change resilience is characterised by being flexible and open to new things and to change when needed. Those with high change resilience are able to cope with and thrive in times of difficulty and remain excited and driven by future prospects (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Change resilience is demonstrated by an ability to cope with ambiguity, to thrive amidst chaos and to be re-energised by beautiful scenes encountered along the way (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). An advanced level of change resilience is demonstrated by the above-mentioned factors as well as displaying anticipation of the unknown (Palmer et al., 2006).

2.2.2.6 Interpersonal relations

Interpersonal relations are characterised by an intuitive understanding of, and a deep level of caring and compassion for people. This suggests that one needs to have a real concern for the well-being, growth and development of others. It further suggests that one take pleasure in, and recognise their success. Interpersonal relations involve motivating others by setting high expectations and getting them to commit to a cause. This competency also includes the ability to be a team leader as well as a team contributor in order to achieve set goals. A high level of interpersonal relations is demonstrated through the ability to connect with others on an emotional level, and by being able to build trust and loyalty in order to sustain long-term relationships (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

2.2.2.7 Integration of head and heart

The integration of the head and the heart is one's ability to use both left and right sides of one's brain in decision-making and problem-solving. Those who are able to integrate feelings and facts create win-win solutions that serve both the goals and relationship concerned (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). This integration is demonstrated by the ability to turn adversity into opportunity and making inventive, intuitive and implementable breakthroughs in a crisis situation (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

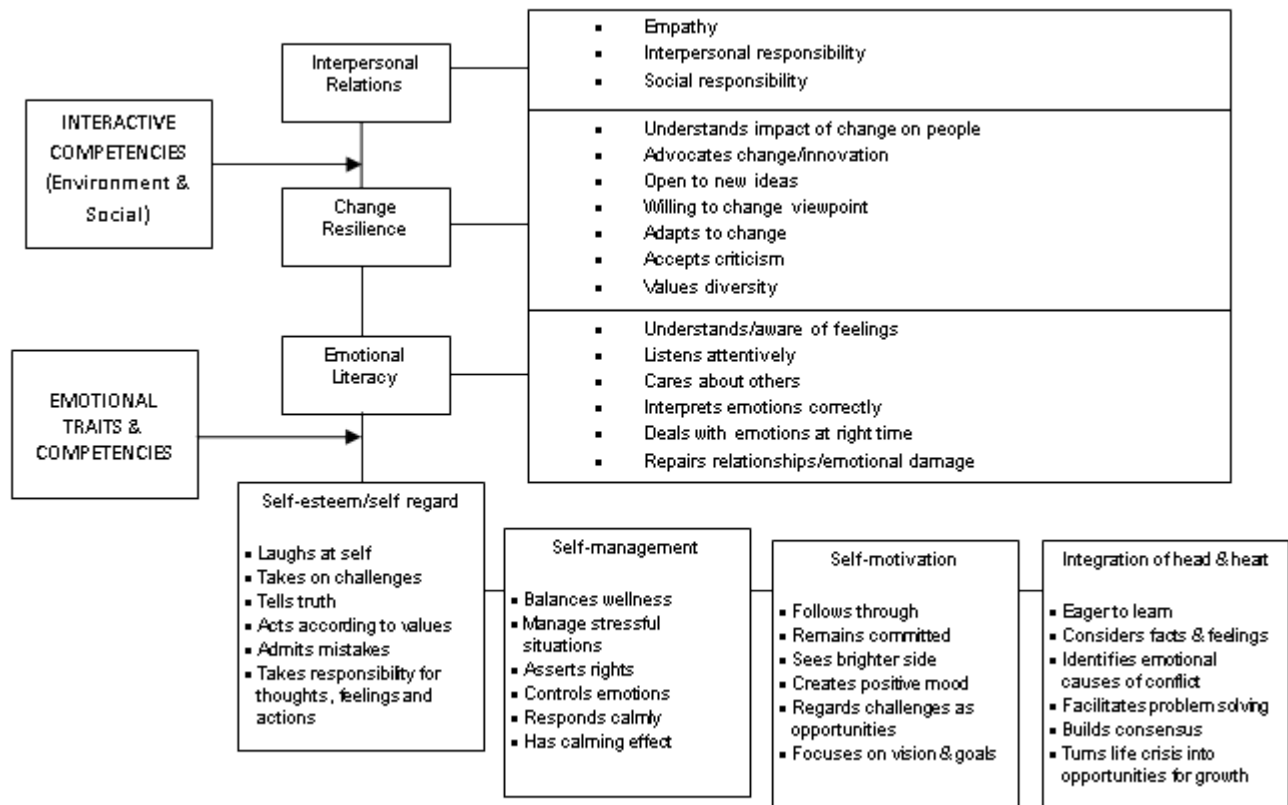


Figure 2.7. The major elements of emotional competence (based on Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

2.2.3 Variables influencing the development of emotional intelligence

Wang and Huang (2009) believe that transformational leaders have a higher emotional intelligence as they are more sensitive to employees' feelings and emotions, and are better able to display greater amounts of empathy towards them. Transformational leaders also better understand how employees feel and increase their desire to remain a member of the team. A study by Wang and Huang (2009) indicated a significant relationship between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence.

There is a consistent trend in research results which indicates that women are more emotionally intelligent than men (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000). Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) suggest that females might have an advantage when compared to men in terms of emotional intelligence. A study conducted by Stein, Papadogiannis, Yip and Sitarenios (2008) showed that females reported much higher levels of emotional self-awareness and social responsibility. Bar-

On (2000), however, suggests that there are no significant differences between males and females regarding their overall emotional intelligence and social competence.

Unlike intelligence (IQ) which increases up to one's teen years, emotional intelligence continues to develop over time (Cook, 2006). People's competencies increase as they grow older (Goleman, 1998). Bar-On (2000) found that individuals in their late forties and early fifties scored the highest in terms of emotional intelligence. However, no differences in EQ were found in groups of executives of different ages (Stein et al., 2008).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) state that emotional skills become increasingly important as people climb the corporate ladder to more senior roles. Emotional intelligence competencies have been shown to relate to selected personality measures (Reed, 2006). Emotional intelligence has revealed associations with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator measures of intuiting and feeling (Chereniss & Goleman, 2001).

2.2.4 Implications for leader effectiveness

According to Stuart and Pauquet (2001), emotionally intelligent leaders use emotions to improve their decision-making, and are able to instil a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation within and amongst employees. Collins (2001) found that managers who had higher emotion management skills develop staff with higher levels of organisational commitment.

Research by Dashborough (2006) indicates that leaders evoke emotional responses in employees in workplace settings. The study further indicates that leadership is an emotion-laden process and if leaders can manage their own emotions and have empathy for their subordinates, they will be more effective in the workplace. It has been found that high emotional intelligence creates more effective leaders and is a good predictor of success (Hicks & Dess, 2008).

In a study conducted by Martins and Coetzee (2007), the affective and social aspects of emotionally intelligent behaviour appeared to be perceived as an area for development for leaders. These aspects relate to self-regulatory and self-management abilities of managers and their ability to generate, access, express and regulate their emotions appropriately. Social

aspects relate to the managers' ability to manage their emotions appropriately in their social relationships (BarOn, 1997; Cooper & Sawaf, 2000; Martinez-Pons, 2000).

Managers in the western organisational context tend to support rational approaches to decision-making which indicates challenging visions, setting goals that are "stretched" and demonstrating self-confidence in achieving these targets in a detached and "hard-headed" way (Myers et al., 1998). The rational approach puts emotions aside and follows logic.

Studies have indicated that the ability to manage emotions contributes positively to the quality of social interactions (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin & Salovey, 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Cote & Beers, 2004). Leadership researchers argue that effective leadership behaviour depends on a manager's ability to solve complex social problems in organisations (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs & Fleishman, 2000; Zaccaro, Mumford, Connelly, Marks & Gilbert, 2000).

According to Goleman (2001), evidence from managerial competency research indicates that emotional intelligence is twice as important for high performance as technical competencies and IQ in all jobs. Emotional intelligence also determines the difference between mediocre leaders and the best leaders, as top performers reveal significantly greater strengths in a range of emotional competencies like team leadership, influence, political awareness, self-confidence and achievement drive (Goleman, 2001). Close to ninety percent of leaders' successes in their roles were due to emotional intelligence.

In a study conducted by Palmer et al. (2006), the managers appear to be adept in using their cognitive capacity to solve problems and in directing their behaviour in social encounters. Affective and social aspects of emotionally intelligent behaviour appear to be areas of development. Managers who are not able to maintain a degree of control over their emotional life have inner battles that impair their ability to remain focused at work and to have clear thoughts (Goleman, 2001; Stuart & Pauquet, 2001).

Emotions are vital for activating the energy required to adhere to ethical values such as resilience, integrity and trust (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). Social capital is fed by emotions which, in turn, represent a manager's ability to build and maintain trusting, profitable business relationships (Whitney, 1996; Wolmarans, 2001). According to Goleman (2001), emotional

intelligence includes the ability to motivate oneself and others which is seen as a vital part of successful leadership.

Research indicates that managers with high emotional intelligence produce positive work attitudes and altruistic behaviours (Carmeli, 2003). Furthermore, employees enjoy higher levels of job satisfaction and performance when managers have higher level of emotional intelligence (Wong & Law, 2002). Managers with high emotional intelligence are able to facilitate the performance of their employees by managing employees' emotions that foster creativity, resilience and confidence (Zhou & George, 2003). Managers with high emotional intelligence are more skilful at nurturing positive interactions between employees which could, in turn, foster better co-ordination (Sy, Cote & Saavedra, 2005), co-operation (Barsade, 2002) and organisational citizenship behaviours that contribute to the overall performance of the organisation (Mossholder, Bedian & Armenakis, 1981; Wong & Law, 2002).

Managers who are able to regulate their own emotions are able to read others' emotions, communicate effectively and resolve conflict in a positive way, thereby facilitating high performance in their organisations (Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo & Hoffman, 2003). High emotional intelligence in managers reduces anxiety in subordinate and allows for the employment of emotional awareness as a guide to one's behaviour (Shipper et al., 2003). Shipper and Wilson (1992) identified a cluster of skills similar to the activities identified as the utilisation of emotional intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Managers making use of the skills, termed interactive skills, have been associated with high performance. Interactive skills include abilities such as planning and problem-solving, communicating goals, coaching, supporting, training, providing feedback, delegating and expressing appreciation (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Increasing evidence in recent years suggests that social effectiveness skills are crucial to performance and effective leadership (Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003). Emotional intelligence has emerged as one of the most notable social effectiveness constructs (Prati et al., 2003).

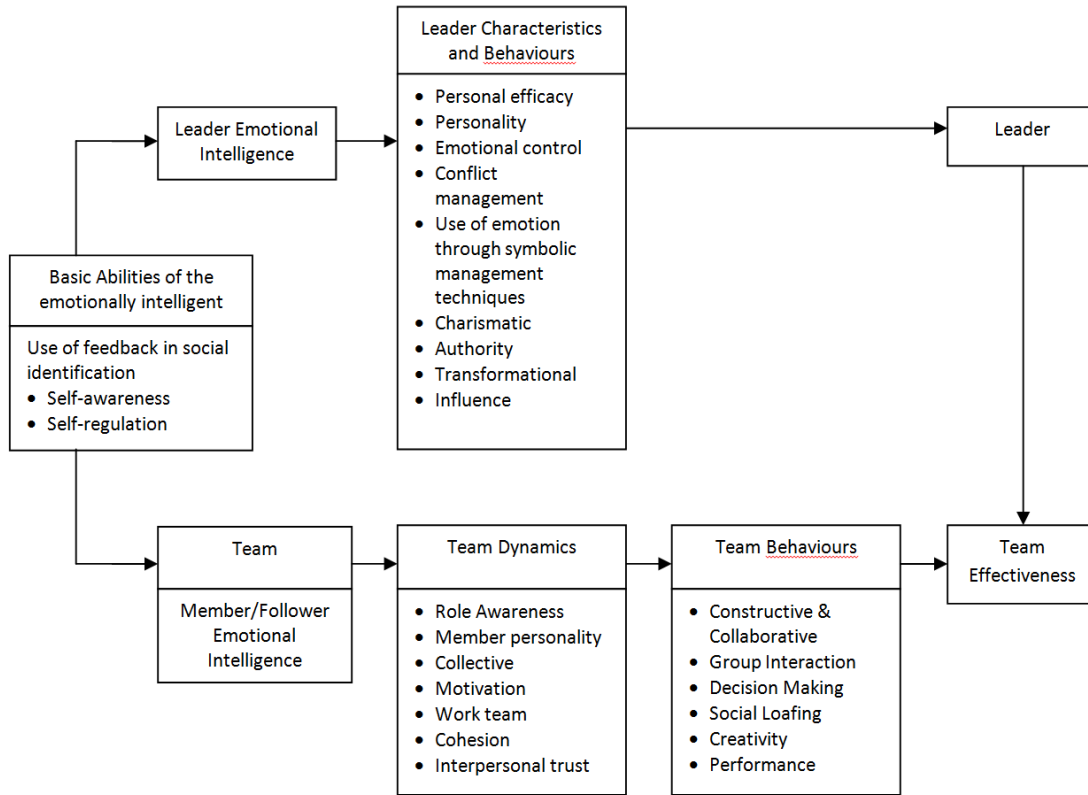


Figure 2.8. Model of emotional intelligence and leader-team effectiveness (adapted from Prati et al., 2003).

Emotionally intelligent people maintain an awareness of the way they behave (Prati et al., 2003), while self-regulation of emotion entails that individuals understand social expectations of their actions and exercise discretion in the manifestation of emotions (Prati et al., 2003). Social expectations of an organisation are prescribed in the form of interactional roles and norms. Emotional intelligence is a critical component of leadership effectiveness as leaders deal with teams (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Leaders motivate members of a team to work together towards a goal. Leaders further serve a transformational influence as they challenge members to work towards increasing team effectiveness and performance, facilitate team member interaction dynamics, build interpersonal trust and inspire teams to implement and articulate the vision (Prati et al., 2003).

Four aspects of emotional intelligence provide leaders with the ability to motivate and transform team members (George, 2000) namely:

- the ability to accurately appraise others' emotions;
- thorough knowledge of emotions;
- the use of emotion whereby emotionally intelligent leaders recognise that emotions are useful in influencing of the behaviour and cognition of others; and
- the management of emotions.

Emotionally intelligent and highly effective leaders are more motivated to face situations with confidence (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Goleman (1998) and Lewis (2000) found that a lack of emotional control amongst leaders relates to leader ineffectiveness. Through the constructive resolution of conflicts and the establishment of co-operative and trusting relationships, leaders contribute to the collective motivation of the team (George, 2000).

Leaders with high emotional intelligence adhere to the norms established by the organisation and influence team members to adapt to these norms. Emotional intelligence is also associated with idealised influence, individualised focus and inspirational motivation which are three attributes of transformational leadership (Barling, Slater & Kelloway, 2000).

The transformational leader's charisma, motivational influence, intellectual stimulation and individualised attention to team members create an atmosphere of empowerment (Prati et al., 2003). It has been argued that an approachable leader who encourages intragroup trust and mutual influence of all members fosters feelings of empowerment in members of the team (Koberg, Boss, Senjem & Goodman, 1999). Koberg et al. (1999) further report that empowerment of members of the team can be linked to increased job satisfaction, decreased intent to quit and overall increased team effectiveness and performance amongst others. Emotionally intelligent leaders can accurately assess the emotions of others and constructively influence those emotions so that members of the team will embrace change (George, 2000).

Team composition has an effect on the team's social structure through the development and institutionalising of member roles and organisational support systems (Guzzo, 1996). Emotional intelligence is important in managing personal feelings along with moods and emotions of others (George, 2000). Emotionally intelligent leaders and team members form strong relationships and a solid support system (Prati et al., 2003). The ability to manage emotions is conducive to team cohesion (Barrick, Stewart & Neubert, 1998). Empathy is another important characteristic

needed for team cohesion (Prati et al., 2003). Empathy can be defined as the sensitivity of an individual to the feelings and concerns of the others (Abraham, 1999; George, 2000).

Butler (1999) defines trust as the willingness of individuals to expose themselves or become vulnerable to others. Trust within a team is established as social norms. Trust is thought to be mutually developed and negotiated through experience and a high degree of emotional intelligence is required in order to represent trustworthiness and accountability as a member of a team (Jones & George, 1998). Trust among emotionally intelligent team members and leaders allows members the freedom to propose unconventional ideas and introduce conflicting opinions without fear and with an optimism for innovation (Butler, 1999). Emotional intelligence aids reaching effective consensus in team decisions where people are comfortable in voicing opposing opinions as they know other members of the team will hear the opinions with sincere consideration (Amason, 1996).

Increased self-awareness will cause individuals to more diligently monitor their personal actions as well as those of other team members (Erez & Somech, 1996). Abraham (1999) proposes that emotional intelligence is directly related to performance. Emotionally intelligent leaders have a transformational influence on a team, act as a motivator towards collective action and facilitate supportive relationships among individuals (Prati et al., 2003). Through adhering to team standards, charismatically encouraging team identity and pride and empowering team members, the leader is able to create a sense of urgency regarding self-improvement and the enhancement of team processes.

In a study conducted by Pesuric and Byham (1996), supervisors in a manufacturing plant received training in emotional competencies such as to listen more attentively and help employees to resolve problems themselves. Time lost due to accidents decreased by fifty percent, formal grievances reduced and productivity increased. Goleman (2004) found that while the qualities traditionally associated with leadership such as intelligence, toughness, determination and vision are required for success, they are insufficient. Truly effective leaders are also distinguished by a high degree of emotional intelligence which includes self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills.

Martins and Coetzee (2007) found that senior directors are perceived to be competent when they demonstrate self-motivation and self-esteem which is made visible in their willingness to

take on challenges, their levels of commitment throughout and their unwavering focus on the vision and goals of the company. Development areas that were identified were their ability to interpret people's emotions correctly, openness to criticism, identifying underlying emotional causes of conflict and building consensus on common ground (Martins & Coetzee, 2007).

The emotional intelligence of an individual dictates interpersonal relationships (Klausner, 1997). Carefully managed emotions drive loyalty, trust and commitment as well as increased productivity, innovation and accomplishment (Cooper, 1997).

2.2.5 Implications for retention

Not having the right people in place to lead and confront business challenges can have a significant impact on an organisation (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Even after the economic crisis and massive restructuring, talent remains an important and critical agenda item (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Research conducted by McKinsey (cited in Beechler & Woodward, 2009) concluded that smart, sophisticated business people who are technologically literate, globally smart and operationally alert will be the most important resource over the next twenty years.

Withdrawal is a process where one thinks about quitting and consists of behaviours such as absenteeism and actual resignation (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2000). Research reveals that emotionally intelligent individuals are experts at putting themselves in positive affective states. Even though they may experience negative affection states at times, these do not have significant destructive consequences (Babalola, 2007). Emotionally intelligent individuals are likely to see the positive side of things and use their emotions in a positive way to find solutions (Grandey, 2009). When individuals see themselves as part of a solution they feel a high level of identification and are less likely to develop withdrawal intentions (Akinjide, 2009). Bar-On and Parker (2000) argue that those with high emotional intelligence will be prone to stay and deal with hard situations in adaptive ways.

Across all jobs and organisations emotional intelligence matters in staff turnover (Fatt & Howe, 2003). A large study conducted on the U.S Air Force found that people with a high emotional intelligence perform better and exceed in what is expected of them (Colfax, Rivera & Perez, 2010). When employees with a high emotional intelligence were recruited, retention rates of the specific organisation increased by ninety two percent. Emotionally intelligent leaders seem to be

able to inspire a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation within and amongst employees (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). Collins (2001) found that managers with higher emotion management skills had subordinates who display higher levels of organisational commitment.

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) questioned the influence that a boss has over his or her employees. Enquiries regarding the skills required to prevent employees from leaving or resigning were also made. The most effective managers have the ability to sense how employees feel about a situation and to intervene when employees are dissatisfied or discouraged. Cherniss and Goleman (2001) state that effective managers are able to manage their own emotions, and as a result employees trust them and feel good about working with them. In short, one can say that managers whose employees stay are those that manage with emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001), among others, argue that emotional intelligence influences an organisation in a number of areas such as recruitment, retention, development of talent, teamwork and employee commitment, morale and health. Martin (2001) defines performance management as a management intervention to motivate employees to achieve maximum productivity. Employees are different and experience different personal circumstances. Each should therefore be treated differently. Emotional intelligence plays a vital role here.

Dunn (2001) believes that effective employee retention is dependent upon emotional intelligence. Valuable employees will not be retained if the general culture in an office lacks emotional intelligence. Job content also plays an important role in retention however, all jobs involve interpersonal relationships in which the role of the organisation is critical.

2.3 RETENTION FACTORS

The concept of retention factors is defined and discussed in more detail in this section.

2.3.1 Conceptualisation

Retention can be described as initiatives taken by employers to keep employees from leaving organisations (Cascio, 2003). This can be done through performance rewards, building

harmonious working relations between managers and employees, as well as the maintenance of a healthy, safe work environment.

One of the greatest concerns for any organisation, especially high growth organisations, is the retention of employees (Peterson, 2005). Döckel (2003) identified six critical factors that must be considered in the retention of employees. Retention factors can be seen as factors that encourage organisational commitment and thus increase the retention of employees (Döckel, 2003).

Maximising motivation, team engagement, attendance and retention is vital in today's highly competitive environment (Clayton, 2006). The retention of key productive employees is a large challenge, both locally and internationally, with major direct and indirect cost implications (Tanton, 2007). Beechler and Woodward (2009) view talent as the sum of a person's abilities, intrinsic gifts, knowledge, skills, intelligence, experience, judgment, character, attitude and drive. Another large indicator of talent according to Beechler and Woodward (2009), is a person's ability to learn and grow. Ulrich (2006) took a more holistic view in terms of the definition of talent and concluded that it encompassed competence, commitment and contribution. In his definition each term can be defined as followed:

- *Competence*

Competent individuals are those who have the skills, values and knowledge required for today and the future. Competence also refers to a person's ability to utilise these skills to complete tasks (the head).

- *Commitment*

Committed individuals work hard and invest time to complete required tasks. Commitment also refers to a person being present and physically working (the hands and feet).

- *Contribution*

Contribution is concerned with what employees do at work and finding meaning and purpose in the work. Contributions also refer to being a part of the environment (the heart).

2.3.2 Theory

Döckel's (2003) framework of retention factors is of relevance to the present study as it has been researched in the South African context. Each of these factors will briefly be discussed.

2.3.2.1 Compensation

Money seems to be the primary incentive used to lure professionals (Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006). Reward systems are also frequently used by employers to retain staff (Farris, 2000). Higginbotham (1997) found a strong correlation between good and fair salaries and the intention to stay, which indicates that compensation is a competitive measure but not the primary factor in retention. Employees' feelings towards the process of increases are more important than the actual level of pay (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). One-time recognition awards are not effective in preventing turnover (Farris, 2000).

Elaborate benefit packages with indirect financial rewards such as time off, benefit processes and benefit levels are popular (Döckel, 2003). Time off for employees not working normal office hours is more important than any other indirect benefit in predicting retention (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). Environmental and personal benefits such as luxury automobiles, playrooms, quiet rooms to improve team work and reduce stress and on-site gyms for employees are also important (DeYoung, 2000).

Hoyt and Gerdloff (1999) raise an important point by stating that compensation offers an opportunity for autonomy, security, improved self-worth and recognition. According to the "side bet theory", employees make investments or side bets that reduces the attractiveness of other employment opportunities (Döckel, 2003).

2.3.2.2 Job characteristics

Professionals who view their tasks as challenging with learning and development opportunities are less likely to leave an organisation (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron, 1996). According to Mottaz (1988), specific job characteristics like variety and autonomy are determinants of organisational commitment.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) define job autonomy as the degree to which a job provides independence, substantial freedom and discretion to schedule work and determine the processes used in carrying it out. High job autonomy will assist employees in viewing their work outcomes in terms of their own efforts, decisions and initiatives instead of instructions received from a manager (Marx, 1996).

Organisational commitment is influenced by the degree of independence and freedom experienced in a job as well as by the participation in planning and organising thereof (Bailyn & Lynch, 1983). The degree to which a job requires the use of different skills and talents also impacts on commitment and retention (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

2.3.2.3 Training and development opportunities

Training is essential for the survival of scarce skill workers (Cataldo, Assen & D'Alessandro, 2000). Cataldo et al. (2000) further state that employees stay at companies that promote career opportunities and where new skills learned through training can be applied.

Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that employee training provides opportunities for advancement, which can lead employees to believe that they are valued by the organisation. This, in turn, builds stronger affective commitment to the organisation. Chang (1999) supports this view and states that company-provided training might affect employees' psychological state as it can be viewed as a concern by the company to improve employees' skills and ability which will make them more attached to the company. The expense of training and the appreciation for the skill acquired may also encourage a sense of obligation or normative commitment in the employee (McElroy, 2001).

2.3.2.4 Supervisor support

Supervisor support can be defined as supervisory behaviours that sustain employees' innovation (Döckel, 2003). Feedback from supervisors and co-workers is considered to be important (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that if employees can test new skills, exercise discretion and receive regular performance feedback, intrinsic motivation will increase. Recognition from a supervisor relates to affective commitment (Paré, Tremblay & Lalonde, 2001).

2.3.2.5 *Career opportunities*

Career opportunities are closely related to retention (Kochanski & Lendford, 2001). Employers encourage self-reliance (Schein, 1978) in an era where careers are reconceptualised towards a set of experiences and skills accumulated through changing roles (Applegate & Elam, 1992; Zabusky & Barley, 1996). According to Bird (1994), this approach paved the way for careers without boundaries in which individuals move within and between organisations.

Managerial roles are generally the most attractive roles as they carry the highest compensation, prestige and are considered to have real influence (Petroni, 2000). Embarking on a technical career entails the accumulation of more skills while remaining involved in technical work (Petroni, 2000). Allen and Katz (1992) state that some employees prefer the opportunity to engage in challenging and exciting activities and projects, irrespective of a promotion.

Another important factor to consider is an employee's career orientation (Schein, 1987). Career orientation can be defined as a person's career aspiration, which provides a focus or direction for the employee's efforts and discerns a path that will enable the employee to achieve career goals and aspirations (Döckel, 2003).

Schein (1985, p.28) defines career orientation or career anchor as "that set of self-perceptions pertaining to your motives and needs, talents and skills, personal values that you would not give up if you were forced to make a choice". This enables an organisation to find a match between organisational and individual needs and to restructure jobs accordingly. The information is also useful for employees looking to make career changes and for employers to plan the careers of their employees (Aryee, 1992). Igbaria and Greenhaus (1991) found that compatible career orientations and job settings result in higher levels of job satisfaction and strong commitment to employers with low intentions to leave.

2.3.2.6 *Work/life policies*

According to Cooper and Burke (2002), work/life policies to include flexible work scheduling, family leave policies and childcare assistance. Many employees regard work/life initiatives as meaningful, and more important than new positions (Dubie, 2000).

2.3.3 Factors influencing the retention of employees

Numerous research studies have been conducted on the topic of “why people leave” their companies (Peterson, 2005). Many human resources executives believe that the top three reasons why employees leave organisations are poor supervision, lack of opportunities and inadequate remuneration (Peterson, 2005). Tanton (2007) clearly states that one of the primary motivations for employees to leave an organisation is for better compensation.

Talent management in the form of personal development opportunities and opportunities for employees to utilize their skills are important, especially when an employee is considering resigning (Tanton, 2007). Perceptions of job inflexibility, a feeling of being overworked, excessive workloads, concerns regarding management’s ability to take the organisation to the next level, lack of challenging work and not enough recognition all contributes to job dissatisfaction (Tanton, 2007).

Job satisfaction is affected by the leadership style of managers and job stress, which are significant contributors to voluntary employee turnover (Tanton, 2007). Table 2.4 below indicates previous research that shows factors correlating with satisfaction and commitment, which have an impact on retention (Jenkins, 2009).

Table 2.4.

Factors correlating with workplace satisfaction and organisational commitment (adapted from Jenkins, 2009, p.24).

Factors	Source Citations
Pay and benefits	Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Doig & Beck, 2005; Forbes & Domm, 2004; Magee, 2005.
Growth and development opportunities	Beck, 2002; Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Egan, Yang, & Barlett, 2004; Forbes & Domm, 2004; Kanfer & Asckerman, 2004.
Relevance or meaning of job	Brown & Yoshioka, 2003; Doig & Beck, 2005; Forbes & Domm, 2004; Wilson, 2003.
Supervision	Beck, 2002; Gould-Williams, 2004; Ito & Brotheridge, 2005; Poon, 2004.
Feelings towards co-workers	Doig & Beck, 2002; Morrison, 2004; Sousa-Ooza & Henneberger, 2004.
Job security	Beck, 2002; Doig & Beck, 2005; Sousa-Poza & Hennegerger, 2004.

Pekala (2001) identified nine basic factors that play a role in retention. The importance of these nine factors will vary depending on where one is in terms of one's career. The various stages of careers must therefore be taken into account when finalising a retention strategy. These nine factors are:

- Compensation;
- Training opportunities;
- Career paths;
- The company's vision;
- Empowerment;
- Supervisory style;
- Corporate culture;
- Social ties; and
- Work/life balance.

McNee, Morello, Zidar and Smith (1998) indicate the biggest retention factors as:

- Training and development opportunities;
- Supervisor behaviour/support and feedback;
- Career opportunities;
- Skill variety;
- Quality of life or work/life policies;
- Job autonomy;
- Job challenge; and
- Base salary.

Martins and Coetzee (2007) postulate that human resource strategies and management practices must further the organisation's performance while at the same time satisfying the quality of work/life and extrinsic, intrinsic and relational motivation-related needs of people. The results from a study conducted by Döckel (2003) indicate the following:

- Compensation had a strong correlation to organisational commitment which also supported Higginbotham's (1997) study that a fair salary is positively related with a person's intention to stay.
- The majority of the participants (25-29 years of age) could easily resign due to their high skill set demand in the market.
- Supervisor support was important with a direct effect on affective commitment as it made employees feel important. These results supported a study done by Paré, Tremblay and Lalonde (2001) which indicate that employees are sensitive to recognition.
- Participants felt emotionally attracted to the organisation due to the work/life benefits available to them.
- People wanted to know that they are cared about in order for them to commit to an organisation. This is supported by Cooper and Burke (2002).

Ketter (2008) conducted a survey with 862 employees in China. Twenty five percent of the employees surveyed had been in three or more jobs in their careers and twenty percent indicated that they expected to leave their positions within the next year. Within the same study, two hundred and fifteen human resources professionals were surveyed of which thirty eight

percent stated that turnover had increased and that they did not expect employees to stay within one company for more than two years (Ketter, 2008). During this survey high-level leaders indicated that they were the most likely to leave their organisations within the next year and that leaders felt less loyalty to their employers. This study further indicates that leaders were less likely to feel they had a good manager, great leadership or a fun place in which to work (Ketter, 2008).

Ketter (2008) identifies that retention drivers are directly linked to leadership. It was determined that employees are more likely to stay in organisations if they have a good boss who recognises individual contributions. US organisations struggled to employ, train and retain talented employees and the suggestion was made to employers to give talented employees what they wanted as they generated effective business profits (Bodden, Glucksman & Lasku, 2000). The study further indicates that money is what employees want mostly. Afolabi (2005) conducted a study in Nigeria which indicates that if the organisational climate in a commercial bank is favourable, job satisfaction of employees would increase. Employees with a significant locus of control enjoy better job satisfaction than those without it (Afolabi, 2005; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2004).

In a South African study completed by Martins and von der Ohe (2002) two aspects of retention were considered, namely factors considered by employees in choosing the best organisation to work for and the role of trust in a corporate relationship where employers are expected to attract, retain and motivate employees. Both of these factors play an important role in employees' intentions to leave. Another South African study reveals that intrinsic variables remain very important to employees, but also that this in no way implies that extrinsic variables are not influential in employees' decisions to leave organisations (Birt, Wallis & Winternitz, 2004). Brit et al. (2004) further indicate that five important variables impact on talent retention, namely:

- Challenging and meaningful work;
- Advancement opportunities;
- Manager integrity and quality;
- Empowerment and responsibility; and
- New opportunities or challenges.

Career opportunities emerged as the most significant predictor of retention in comparison to any other types of rewards in a survey conducted by Kochanski and Lenford (2001). Grover and Crooker (1995) tested and confirmed that employees who had access to work/life policies show significantly greater organisational commitment and lower intentions to leave their employer. Other factors influencing retention are the following:

2.3.3.1 Employee commitment

Employee commitment is vital in shaping desired employee behaviours and attitudes by forging psychological links between the goals of the organisation and the employee (Walton, 1985). The focus must be on developing committed employees who can be trusted to perform their tasks at their own discretion and in line with the organisational goals (Döckel, 2003). Management strategies focusing on commitment produce high levels of employee affective commitment and organisational performance as it empowers employees to take greater responsibility and participate in the decision making (Tsui, Pearce, Porter & Hite, 1995). Arthur (1994) postulates that through the use of commitment strategies, performance increases and turnover decreases. Storey (1992) states that employers should try to treat employees as valued assets who can act as a source of competitive advantage through their trust, commitment, adaptability and high-quality skills and knowledge which, in turn, should increase the competitiveness of the organisation.

2.3.3.2 Career embeddedness and career mobility

Mobility is defined in terms of job change that is indicated by any substantial changes in work responsibilities, hierarchical levels or titles within an organisation (Feldman & Ng, 2007). Organisational change refers to any change in the current organisation and occupational change as a major change in career paths (Feldman & Ng, 2007). Embeddedness is defined as “the totality of forces that keep people in their current employment situations” (Feldman & Ng, 2007, p.352). This is also referred to as organisational commitment.

The following psychological and organisational factors influence employees’ career mobility and embeddedness (Feldman & Ng, 2007):

2.3.3.3 *Structural labour market forces*

Economic conditions result in organisations either expanding (vertically and/or horizontally) or downsizing, which can result in more opportunities for promotions and transfers or make employees risk-averse and cause them to stay in their jobs. The social and legal environments have a large impact on the organisations' economic conditions (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.4 *Occupational labour market forces*

Occupational labour market forces would include gender, wage levels, labour intensity, industry growth, degree of change in occupational responsibilities, human capital investments, rigidity and permeability of occupational mobility structures (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.5 *Organisational policies and procedures*

Organisational policies and procedures include organisational staffing and compensation policies, benefits and intra-organisational networks (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.6 *Work group-level factors*

Social ties at work can increase embeddedness due to affective commitment (emotional attachment) or increase inter-organisational mobility if employees use these ties to secure employment in other organisations. Social support and group cohesiveness also play an important role in mobility and embeddedness. Employees who are demographically different are less likely to identify with their co-workers and more likely to have weak emotional attachments to these co-workers. Accommodating employees' needs increases commitment because it increases the perception of person-group fit and that the employer cares for its employees. The use of external labour can lead to dysfunctional conflict between permanent and part-time workers or contractors (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.7 *Personal life factors*

Mobility is determined by factors in individuals' personal lives as opposed to their work lives. Two very important considerations are the amount and predictability of time demands and support in resolving work-life conflict (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.8 *Personality and personal style differences*

The following factors impact on retention namely attachment styles, personality traits, locus of control and career interests (Feldman & Ng, 2007).

2.3.3.9 *Knowledge economy*

The knowledge economy can be defined as “production and services based on knowledge-intensive activities that contribute to an accelerated pace of technical and scientific advance, as well as rapid obsolescence” (Powell & Snellman, 2004, p.199). This has resulted in significant changes in the workplace and the nature of career development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2009). The major paradigm change is the move from reliance on production to greater reliance on intellectual capabilities and the change from life-long employment to employability (Powell & Snellman, 2004). If employers are able to make sense of how the knowledge economy is influencing individuals' career behaviour, then they will be better equipped to take action in order to retain skilled employees through retention programmes (Powell & Snellman, 2004).

There are also factors outside of the role that impacts on employees. Managing turnover is a challenge, especially when attempting to retain qualified employees (Döckel, 2003). The following have been identified as some of the reasons for this challenge:

- Job mobility is increasing (Despres & Hilltrop, 1996);
- The demand for skilled labour exceeds the supply (Despres & Hilltrop, 1996); and
- Individuals are in control of managing their own careers (Hall & Moss, 1998).

Beechler and Woodward (2009) concluded that there are many factors that impact on talent, namely:

- Global demographic and economic trends;
- Increasing mobility;
- Transformational changes; and
- Diversity.

Table 2.5.

Factors influencing retention (adapted from Beechler & Woodward, 2009).

Global demographic and economic trends	Increasing mobility	Transformational changes to business environments, skills and cultures	Diversity
Increased longevity of individuals. Declining birth rates. Older people remaining in the workforce longer. Globalisation. Increasing economic integration across nations. Rapid advances in technology.	Global labour competition. Fewer immigration and emigration barriers. Brain drain (as high-skilled employees emigrate)	Move from product-based to knowledge-based economies. Increase in service sector jobs. Shift in investment in intangible and human assets. Employees with higher cognitive ability are required. Move from relational to transactional work.	Culture. Ethnic. Generational (different generations working together). Gender (increase in the number of females employed in traditionally male-dominated jobs). Working modes (part-time, telecommuting, contractors). Work life cycles (a move from linear - education, work, retirement; to more cyclical life plans – periods of work, education and recreation).

2.3.4 Implications for leader effectiveness

Leader-member exchange has a positive relationship with job satisfaction (Murphy & Ensher, 1999) and organisational commitment and a negative relationship with turnover (Gerstner & Day, 1997). A study conducted by Scaduto, Lindsay and Chiaburu (2008) support the hypothesis that leader-member exchange is positively related to training transfer, training maintenance and training generalisation. Van der Klink, Gielen and Nauta (2001) proposed that supervisor support is positively related to training transfer.

Leadership style is dependent on the experience of the employee that is being dealt with and can be defined as directive and supportive behaviour. Directive behaviour defines the job of the employee, while supportive behaviour is when a leader is comfortable with an employee to know the amount of help, direction, encouragement and listening is needed (Anonymous, 2009).

Delegation plays a pivotal role in retention and is one of the easiest ways to provide an employee with a sense of achievement (Anonymous, 2009). Researchers (Anonymous 2009, p.18) identified nine leadership tips to improve employee retention. These include:

- Spend time with “A” players;
- Help employees achieve a work/life balance;
- Communicate and provide frequent feedback;
- Ask employees for feedback on management style – listen and implement suggestions;
- Compensate employees fairly;
- Offer competitive benefits;
- Help employees grow professionally;
- Recognize deserving employees as often as possible; and
- Have passion for what you do.

Managers play a vital role in the on-boarding process and need to dedicate time and energy to ensuring that new appointees clearly understand performance expectations and receive the resources they need to succeed (Abarado, 2010). Larsson and Vinberg, (2010) state that a positive influence on subordinates' health occurs when leaders:

- are considerate towards reporting staff;
- initiate structure when required to do so, especially in stressful situations;
- allow autonomy in the work environment;
- inspire employees to see a higher meaning in their work; and
- provide intellectual stimulation.

Common elements of successful leadership among successful employers have been identified by Larsson and Vinberg (2010) as:

- Maintaining a holistic perspective and giving employees the opportunity to see their contributions to the business;
- Communicating a clear and commonly understood vision. Leaders should create an infrastructure within which information can be understood and used. Regular meetings between employees and leaders are vital in maintaining this infrastructure;
- Openness in information exchange;
- Cross-functional discussions and dialogues where leaders actively listen to worker ideas;
- Employees are given authority and responsibility. Each employee has a specific task, an area of responsibility and sufficient authority to make decisions in order to accomplish objectives;
- A trust relationship between leaders and employees;
- Employees are able to learn from mistakes and are not managed by fear;
- Leaders consider employee health as important; and
- Leaders are visible and have formal and informal dialogues with employees.

2.3.5 Implications for retention

Cruz (2006) completed a study in South Africa that identified a significant difference between what young, talented black employees wanted from their employer and what was offered. The study indicated that there are push or pull factors that influenced the employees' decisions to leave an organisation (Cruz, 2006).

Culture clashes, hostility at work and lack of recognition are push factors while being an entrepreneur, personal growth or new challenges are examples of pull factors. Booysen (2007) also conducted a study focusing specifically on retention of talented black managers in South Africa and the study supports the findings of Cruz (2006). Booysen (2007) concluded that as quickly as South African organisations were hiring black managers, they were losing them. The various reasons for the voluntary departure of black managers include:

- A dominant white male culture;
- Slow progress in achieving employment equity at managerial levels;
- Inconsistencies in progress between departments;
- Top management was not committed to employment equity; and

- Black employees felt that they were recruited for "window dressing" as they were not given meaningful decision-making authority.

A study by Strang (2005) revealed that transformational leadership lead to more positive perceptions of leader effectiveness among team members.

Abbasi and Hollman (2000) state that the smartest and most talented employees are the most mobile and are therefore more likely to leave an organisation. Transformational leadership is an important factor in mitigating voluntary turnover intentions (Bass, 1998), and transformational leadership relates to voluntary turnover intentions among employees (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001). Bycio, Hackett and Allen (1995) state that greater degrees of transformational leadership are linked with reductions in intentions to leave.

A study conducted by Angermeier, Dunford and Boss (2009) found that a participative management style reduce voluntary turnover intentions. Tse and Lam (2008) state that transformational leadership behaviour encourages an emotional attachment to the leader among followers, which can foster high levels of trust. Griffith (2004) suggests that the relationship between turnover and the leader can be best described through satisfaction with the work environment which is inclusive of the leader. High-quality relationships and satisfaction with a leader will make leaving difficult as it would entail psychological loss (Mossholder, Settoon & Henagan, 2005).

The quality of relationships between subordinates and supervisors are positively related to increased job performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro & Cogliser, 1999), contextual performance (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), motivation (Tierney, Farmer, & Graen, 1999), job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005) and organisational commitment (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki & McNamara, 2005; Schriesheim et al., 1999). Research concluded that the supervisor-subordinate relationship is one of the most important relationships an employee has (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), and potentially one of the most important predictors of workplace outcomes (Manzoni & Barsoux, 2002).

According to Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992), male and female employees report similar levels of work-family conflict. Females are however more likely to leave if they are not

accommodated by flexible working schedules (Shapiro, Ingols & Blake-Beard, 2007). Goldsmith (2007) indicates that social support might be more important in reducing strain in male than female employees. Tromp, van Rheede and Blomme (2010) found a direct relationship between organisational support and turnover of males and females.

Males and females rank the importance of job characteristics similarly (Tomkiewicz, Frankel, Sagan & Wang, 2011). In short, males and females have similar job expectations. Many studies were conducted regarding gender pay gaps. Males earn significantly more than females (Khoreva, 2011). Newton (2006) provided evidence that there is a clear association between age and the amount of training offered to and received by workers. Employees over the age of 55 are less likely than other workers to participate in training. Older employees are also less likely to take up any opportunities for training that were made available.

Employees must be offered more than a pay check (Pekala, 2001). Employers will have to design good jobs and attract high performers with a vision that they will embrace. Companies try to keep valuable employees with cutting-edge knowledge and skills while competitors use aggressive recruitment methods to poach these employees (Murphy & Ensher, 1999). Due to the lack of competent employees, employers must be creative in retaining their valuable employees (Döckel, 2003).

Rogers (2001) states that loyal, engaged employees tend to generate higher business performance outcomes. This is visible through increased sales, improved productivity, profitability and enhanced employee retention. Frank, Finnegan and Taylor (2004) define retention as the effort by management to keep desirable workers to meet the business objectives.

2.4 INTEGRATION

Many authors (Gardner, 1999; Goleman et al., 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1995) acknowledge that there must be a shift from old-school management to true leadership. These authors describe traditional management as promoting methodical, detached, micro-managing supervisors who have control over every step of an employee's career and who separate emotion from the workplace. These authors describe successful leadership as leaders who are aware and have an understanding of their own and other's emotions and use this understanding to effectively

inspire, motivate and connect with and challenge others. In the qualitative study completed by Kouzes and Posner (1995), leaders described their proudest moments in terms of feelings, emotions and challenges.

Leadership is in part about managing emotions (Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009). It has been proven through many studies that EI is tied to successful leadership and it follows that skills of emotionally intelligent people like conflict management, flexibility, persuasion and social reasoning are becoming increasingly important (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003).

According to Antonakis et al. (2009), good leadership depends on intelligence. If leaders have the right personality characteristics and are able to use these individual differences to mobilise their followers, leadership will flourish. Being sensitive towards others and acting on and managing their emotions in an appropriate way depends on their IQ, but being overly sensitive to the emotional states of others or not acting appropriately depends on personality (Antonakis et al., 2009).

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) state that EI competencies are crucial for directors of organisations in that it plays a role in motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, intuitiveness, conscientiousness and integrity and are relevant for a director's role in shaping a company's vision, mission and values. Emotional intelligence has displayed associations with the MBTI preferences of feeling and intuiting (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). A study conducted by Diamantopoulou (2001) examined a sample of bank employees and determined that a relationship exists between certain personality types and emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence of certain personality types is higher (Diamantopoulou, 2001).

Table 2.6.

Integration of personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
Conceptualisation (definitions)	Myers and Briggs' (Myers, 1980) theory of personality types differentiates between sixteen personality types. Psychological type refers to a personality pattern that involves certain psychological processes that determine an individual's orientation to life (Jung, 1921, 1971, 1990). People differ according to the various combinations of the processes that constitute their types (Jung, 1971).	Emotional intelligence can assist individuals in negotiating their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulating their emotional experiences (Coetzee et al., 2006). Emotional competence implies a positive inner state of being and an ability to competently, creatively and confidently adapt in an unstructured, unsure and changing socio-cultural environment (Wolmarans, 2002).	Retention can be described as initiatives taken by employers through the use of factors that influence the retention of employees and can be considered in the design of interventions to keep employees from leaving organisations (Cascio, 2003; Döckel, 2003).
Core constructs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ 16 Personality types (Myers, 1987) ENTJ, ISFP, ESTJ, INFP, INTP, ESFJ, ISTP, ENFJ, ESTP, INFJ, ESFP, INTJ, ISTJ, ENFP, ISFJ, ENTP 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Emotional literacy ✓ Self-esteem ✓ Self-management ✓ Self-motivation ✓ Change resilience ✓ Interpersonal relations ✓ Integration of head and heart 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Compensation ✓ Training and development ✓ Supervisor support ✓ Job characteristics ✓ Career opportunity ✓ Work/life policy
Core variables influencing construct	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Occupational context (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). ✓ Extraverts are more prevalent in leadership roles (Kets de Vries, 2001; Sieff & Carstens, 2006). ✓ NF types are challenged by tasks requiring focus (Sieff & Carstens, 2006). ✓ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Leadership type will influence EQ as certain types are more sensitive towards employees' feelings and emotions, with a positive relationship between transformational leadership and EQ (Wang & Huang, 2009). ✓ Transformational leaders understand how employees feel and increase their desire to remain a member of the team. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Age ✓ Race ✓ HR practices ✓ Leader style

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Gender – men lean towards thinking-type preferences and women towards feeling-type preferences (Myers & Myers, 1980). Socially acceptable behaviours for boys and girls influence the development of personality types (Myers & Kirby, 1994). ✓ Race – indigenous black people tend to have a preference for the feeling type (De Beer, 1997). ✓ Cultural values and expectations (Myers & Kirby, 1994). ✓ Environmental influences (Roberts, 2009). ✓ Individual factors like life choices, an accident, and marriage to a spouse with a specific personality type and job (Myers & Kirby, 1994). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Race - women are more emotionally intelligent than men (Ciarrochi, Chan & Caputi, 2000). Females report higher levels of emotional self-awareness and social responsibility (Stein, Papadogiannis, Yip & Sitarenios, 2008). ✓ Age - emotional intelligence continues to develop over time (Cook, 2006). People's competencies increase as they grow older (Goleman, 1998). Bar-On (2000) found that individuals in their late forties and early fifties scored the highest in terms of emotional intelligence. ✓ Senior roles require high emotional intelligence as these skills become increasingly important as people climb the corporate ladder (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003). ✓ Personality types - emotional intelligence competencies have been shown to relate to selected personality measures (Reed, 2006). Emotional intelligence has shown associations with the Myers Briggs-Type Indicator measures of Intuiting and Feeling (Chereniss & Goleman, 2001). 	
Implications for leader effectiveness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Personality predicts leader effectiveness and leader emergence (Judge, et al., 2002a). ✓ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ High emotional intelligence leads to improved decisions (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). ✓ 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Leader-member exchange is positively related to training transfer, training maintenance and training generalisation (Scaduto, Lindsay and Chiaburu, 2008).

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Supervisor personality relates to subordinate attitudes (Smith & Canger, 2004). ✓ Personality predicts leadership style (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). ✓ The more discretion a leader has, the more their leadership style will reflect their personalities (Kaiser & Hogan, 2007). ✓ Transformational leadership had a greater impact on organisational culture than transactional leadership (Block, 2003). ✓ Executives with extraverted, intuitive and perceiving preferences favour transformational leadership (Hautala, 2005). ✓ It is difficult for E-T managers to recognize the process of decision-making, which involves the information- and recognition-seeking and inclusion and support needs of others (Meyers, et al., 1998). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Leaders with higher emotional intelligence have more committed employees (Collins, 2001). ✓ High emotional intelligence creates more effective leaders and is a predictor of success (Hicks & Dess, 2008). ✓ One's ability to manage emotions contributes positively to the quality of social interactions (Lopes, Brackett, Nezlek, Schutz, Sellin & Salovey, 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Cote & Beers, 2004). ✓ Emotions are vital for activating the energy required for ethical values such as resilience, integrity and trust (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). ✓ Emotional intelligence includes the ability to motivate oneself and others, which is seen as a vital part of successful leadership (Goleman, 2001). ✓ Managers with high emotional intelligence produce positive work attitudes and altruistic behaviours in their subordinates (Carmeli, 2003). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Supervisor support is positively related to training transfer (Van der Klink, Gielen and Nauta, 2001). ✓ Delegation can play a significant role in retention and is one of the easiest ways to provide an employee with a sense of achievement (Anonymous, 2009). ✓ Anonymous (2009) identified nine aspects of leadership that must be improved to retain talent include: ✓ Spend time with your best employees. ✓ Help employees achieve a work/life balance. ✓ Communicate and frequently provide feedback. ✓ Ask employees for feedback on management style – listen and implement suggestions. ✓ Compensate employees fairly. ✓ Offer competitive benefits. ✓ Help employees grow professionally. ✓ Give recognition. ✓ Show passion for what you do. ✓ Common elements of successful leadership were identified by Larsson and Vinberg (2010) as: ✓ Maintaining a holistic perspective and giving employees an opportunity to see their contributions. ✓ Communicating a clear and commonly understood vision.

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Employees display higher job satisfaction and performance when managers have a higher emotional intelligence (Wong & Law, 2002). ✓ Managers with high emotional intelligence can facilitate the performance of their employees by managing employees' emotions that foster more creativity, resilience and confidence that enables them to act (Zhou & George, 2003). ✓ Managers, who can regulate their own emotions, read others' emotions, communicate effectively and resolve conflict in a positive way, display emotional intelligence and facilitate high performance in their organisations (Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo & Hoffman, 2003). ✓ High emotional intelligence in managers reduces anxiety in subordinates (Shipper et al., 2003). ✓ Emotionally intelligent people maintain an awareness of the way they behave (Prati, et al., 2003). ✓ Emotionally intelligent leaders with a great deal of personal efficacy are more motivated to face situations with confidence (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Regular meetings between employees and leaders. ✓ Openness in information exchange; ✓ Cross-functional discussions and dialogues where leaders actively listen to worker ideas; ✓ Employees are given authority and responsibility. Each employee has a specific task and area of responsibility, and sufficient authority to make decisions in order to accomplish objectives; ✓ A trust relationship between leaders and employees. ✓ Employees are able to learn from mistakes and are not managed by fear. ✓ Leaders considered employee health as important. ✓ Leaders are visible and have formal and informal dialogues with employees.

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Emotionally intelligent leaders exert a transformational influence over a team and serves as a motivator toward collective action and the facilitation of supportive relationships among individuals (Prati, et al., 2003). 	
Implications for talent retention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Leader behaviours directly influence attitudes and behaviours of individual employees (Peterson, Smith, Martorana & Owens, 2003). ✓ Immediate supervisor is the most stressful aspect of an employee's job (Hogan, Raskin & Fazzini, 1990). ✓ Strengths and weaknesses of each of the 16 personality types will influence retention. ✓ Leaders play a role in the retention of key employees (Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 1999; Harris & Brannick, 1999). ✓ Transformational leadership is related to positive perceptions of leader effectiveness among team members (Strang, 2005). ✓ Transformational leadership is seen as an important factor in mitigating voluntary turnover intentions (Bass, 1998). ✓ Greater degrees of transformational leadership are linked with reductions in intention to leave (Allen, 1995). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Emotionally intelligent individuals are experts at putting themselves in positive affective states. Even though they may experience negative affection states at times, these do not have significant, destructive consequences (Babalola, 2007). ✓ Those with high emotional intelligence will be prone to deal with difficult situations in adaptive ways (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). ✓ Across all jobs and organisations emotional intelligence matters in staff turnover (Fatt & Howe, 2003). ✓ Most effective managers have the ability to sense how employees feel about a situation and to intervene when employees are dissatisfied or discouraged (Cherniss and Goleman, 2001). ✓ Managers whose employees stay are those that manage emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). ✓ Good employee retention depends on emotional intelligence (Dunn, 2001). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ War for talent due to the increase in demand and decline in supply (Fishman, 1998). ✓ Talented employees can be described as "the vehicle that moves the organisation to where it wants to be" (Lockwood, 2006). ✓ Losing talented employees will result in a loss of investment (Frank et al., 2004; Walker, 2001). ✓ Pay, satisfaction around pay and attitude towards benefits are directly linked to absenteeism, turnover intentions and job performance (Carraher, Parnell, Carraher, Carraher & Sullivan; 2006b; Gaiduk, Gaiduk & Fields, 2009; Labatmediene, Endriulaitiene & Gustainiene, 2007). ✓ High pay levels may retain a qualified workforce (Williams and Dreher, 1992). ✓ The most important reasons for voluntary turnover are higher wages and career opportunities (Champion, 1991). ✓ Base salary, merit pay and year-end bonus are the most important compensation components in retaining and motivating employees (Chiu, Luk & Tang, 2002).

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Participative management style reduces voluntary turnover intentions (Angermeier, Dunford & Boss, 2009). ✓ Transformational leaders can foster high levels of trust (Tse & Lam, 2008). ✓ High-quality relationships and satisfaction with a leader will make leaving difficult (Mossholder et al., 2005). 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Initiatives for improving employee retention include good communication, generous contributions to benefits and a focus on training and career development (Gberevbie, 2010). ✓ Strong support for continuing professional development fosters employee loyalty (Strothmann & Ohler, 2011). ✓ Leadership, culture, autonomy and discretion are the strongest variables associated with intentions to stay (Weiss, 1999). ✓ Cordial relationships with managers and colleagues are related to intention to leave (Strothmann & Ohler, 2011). ✓ Lack of career progression, perceived lack of autonomy or decision-making, burnout, low salary and low levels of job satisfaction would affect intention to stay (Flinkman, Laine, Leino-Kilpi, Hasselhorn & Salanterä, 2008; Hart, 2005). ✓ Strong and good subordinate-supervisor relationships decrease turnover intentions (Gerstner & Day, 1997). ✓ A direct relationship exists between organisational support and turnover intention (Jawahar and Hemmasi, 2006). ✓ Mentoring, continuing education, participation in professional organisations and opportunity for advancement facilitates retention (Level and Blair, 2006).

	Personality type (Myers, 1987)	Emotional intelligence (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001)	Retention factors (Döckel, 2003)
			✓ Conflict between family and work responsibilities is a risk factor regarding intention to leave (Flinkman et al., 2008).

2.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The theoretical framework presented in the previous section suggests that the constructs of leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors are conceptually related. However the relationship between the three variables needs to be empirically investigated. The objectives of the study were to explore (1) whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perception of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) the relationship between leaders' personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors and to determine; and (3) whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding these three variables within the South African organisational context.

The literature review informed the hypotheses for the quantitative study, which are as follows:

- H01: Staff and leaders do not differ significantly regarding their perception of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors.
- H1: Staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perception of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors.
- H02: There is no significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.
- H2: There is a significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.
- H03: Individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units do not differ significantly in terms of retention factors.
- H3: Individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly in terms of retention factors.

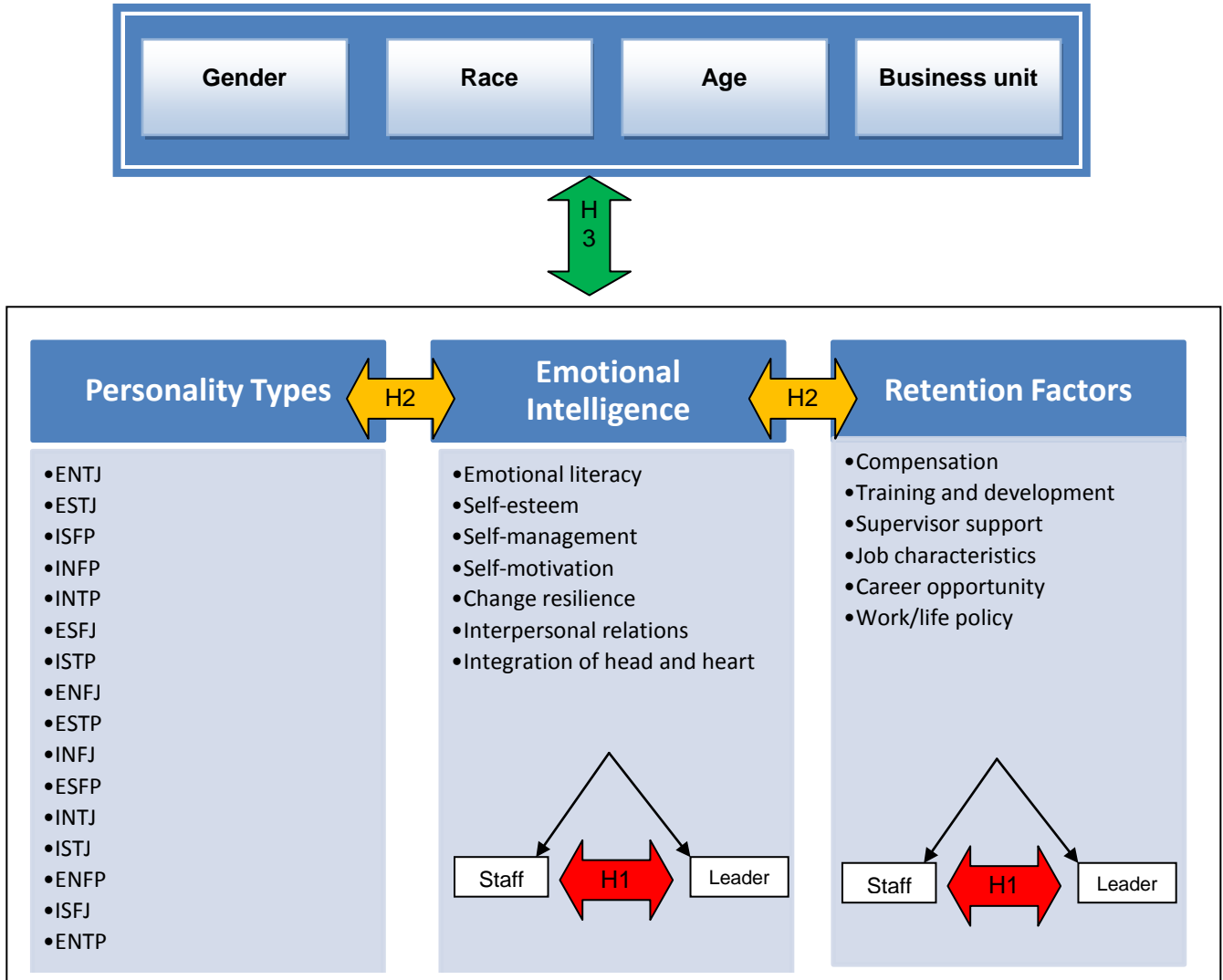


Figure 2.9. Probable relationship between personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 2 conceptualised the concepts of personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors by means of a comparative examination of the existing literature and research on these concepts. An integrated model was presented to explain the theoretical linkage between these concepts.

The specific aims of the literature review were achieved in this chapter. Firstly the theoretical linkage between the variables (personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors)

were critically analysed and explained. Secondly the implications of the theoretical relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors were identified and discussed. Chapter 3 presents the empirical study in the form of a research article.

CHAPTER 3 RESEARCH ARTICLE

The influence of leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence on retention factors

ABSTRACT

Orientation: Retention is becoming increasingly important in today's world of work, especially in the asset management industry.

Research purpose: The objectives of the study were: (1) to determine whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) to explore the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors; and (3) to assess whether people from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly in terms of the retention factors.

Motivation for study: Retention is critical to maintaining an organisation's competitive edge and is an indicator of organisational success. Voluntary turnover causes a talent gap in organisations and often results in employees moving to competing firms, thereby sharing their skills and knowledge with competitors.

Research design, approach, or method: A quantitative research approach was used for this study. Descriptive, correlational and inferential statistical analyses were performed. A cross-sectional survey was used on a purposive sample of 160 participants employed within the asset management industry.

Main findings: The ESTJ profile was the dominant MBTI personality type in the study which suggests that the leaders are highly task-focused and favour creating logical order and structure in the organisation. Leaders and staff differed significantly only in terms of their perceptions of the ECP self-motivation variable (current behaviour).

In terms of the importance of behaviour, a gap analysis indicated that emotional literacy and self-management to be of less importance to staff members compared to what leaders thought.

Extraversion-introversion presented a significant correlation with self-rated emotional competence. A positive correlation existed between supervisor support and the thinking-feeling personality type. All the retention factors, except work/life balance, related significantly to the emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff). Work/life balance only correlated with the self-motivation behavioural competency. The personality preference of sensing-intuitive related significantly to change resilience.

Extraverted personality preference types appeared to rate themselves higher on their self-esteem competencies. There were significant differences between leaders and staff members in terms of their retention scores on job characteristics and work/life balance. The male participants scored significantly lower than the females on the work/life balance. African and White respondents differed significantly in terms of the retention factors and age groups differed significantly in terms of job characteristics.

Practical implications: Individuals and organisations need to acknowledge individuals' needs in terms of what will make them leave or stay in an organisation.

Contribution: The findings contributed to the existing retention literature regarding the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

Keywords: Personality, personality types, personality preferences, emotional intelligence, emotional competence, retention factors, retention practices and leadership.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

3.1.1 Key focus of the study

Talent is becoming increasingly important to the success of organisations (Hiltrop, 1999). Fishman (1998) states that the demand for talent will increase and the supply will decline with the consequence being a war for talent. Talent can be described as “the vehicle that moves the organisation to where it wants to be” (Lockwood, 2006, p.2).

It is therefore becoming increasingly important that companies retain skilled and talented employees in order to maintain their competitive advantage (Walker, 2001). Losing such employees will result in financial losses as new employees will have to be hired and trained (Walker, 2001). Another risk is that employees take their skills and know-how with them, which translates into a potential risk of losing confidential information to competitors (Frank et al., 2004; Walker, 2001).

Research has suggested numerous reasons why employees consider leaving their employers, such as inadequate pay and benefits, lack of career opportunities, training and development, poor communication and subordinate-supervisor relationships, a negative perception of leadership and culture, an unsatisfactory work environment, a lack of autonomy and decision-making authority and conflict between family and work responsibilities (Carragher, Parnell, Carragher, Carragher & Sullivan, 2006b; Flinkman, Laine, Leino-Kilpi, Hasselhorn & Salanterä, 2008; Gaiduk, Gaiduk & Fields, 2009; Gberville, 2010; Strothmann & Ohler, 2011).

The war for talent in the asset management sector remains a global concern (Anonymous, 2010). Ellis (cited in Anonymous, 2010) states that retention packages are critical for the retention of investment professionals.

3.1.2 Background to the study

Not having the right people in place to lead and confront business challenges can have a significant impact and serious implications for organisations (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Retaining core employees while keeping staff turnover to a set target is a key strategic issue for

organisations (Martins & Coetzee, 2007). Retaining talent is regarded as being important in order to achieve business results (Frank, 2006).

Retention is viewed as critical in maintaining an organisation's competitive edge and serves as an indicator of success (Bogdanowicz & Bailey, 2002). Voluntary turnover causes a talent gap in organisations and often results in employees moving to competing firms and sharing their skills and knowledge with competitors (Stovel & Bontis, 2002). The question then arises whether leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence relate to retention factors.

The present study aims to explore the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence, and retention factors. The study intends to make new contributions to organisational retention practices.

Voluntary organisational turnover is often dysfunctional and can be detrimental to the success of organisations (Mobley, 1982). Leaders may have an impact on the effectiveness of groups and also impact group members' attitudes and feelings (Smith & Canger, 2004). It may be more enjoyable and satisfying to work for an approachable and sympathetic leader than a person who leads by fear and intimidation. There is a link between job satisfaction, attitudes and turnover (Smith & Canger, 2004) and several authors have noted the critical role that leaders play in the retention of key employees (Harris & Brannick, 1999; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 1999).

Research revealed that emotionally intelligent individuals are experts at putting themselves in positive affective states. Even though emotionally intelligent individuals may experience negative affection states at times, these do not have significant destructive consequences (Babalola, 2007). Emotionally intelligent leaders are likely to see the positive side of things and use their emotions in a positive ways to find solutions (Grandey, 2009). Bar-On and Parker (2000) argue that those with high emotional intelligence will deal with difficult situations in adaptive ways.

Across all jobs and organisations, emotional intelligence matters in staff turnover (Fatt & Howe, 2003). Emotionally intelligent leaders seem to be able to inspire a sense of enthusiasm, trust and co-operation within and amongst employees (Stuart & Pauquet, 2001). Collins (2001) found that managers who had higher emotion management skills had subordinates who showed higher levels of organisational commitment. Most effective managers have the ability to sense

how employees feel about a situation and to intervene when employees are dissatisfied or discouraged (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Cherniss and Goleman (2001) further state that effective managers are able to manage their own emotions and as a result, employees trust them and feel good about working with them. In short, it can be stated that managers whose employees stay are those that manage with emotional intelligence (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Among others, Cherniss and Goleman (2001) argue that emotional intelligence influences an organisation in a number of areas such as recruitment, retention, development of talent, teamwork, employee commitment, morale and health.

Dunn (2001) believes that effective employee retention depends on emotional intelligence. One cannot retain good employees if the general culture in the office exhibits low emotional intelligence. The job content is important but every job has to do with the interpersonal relationships within the organisation, which has an impact on employees' satisfaction (Dunn, 2001).

3.1.3 Trends from the research literature

3.1.3.1 Personality types

The theory of relevance to this study is Myers and Briggs's (Myers, 1987) personality type theory, which is based on Jung's (1921, 1959, 1971, 1990) theory of psychological type. Jung (1921) developed a personality theory where he postulate psychological type as a major construct by which personality could be understood. Jung's (1990) theory of personality types provide a framework for understanding personality differences regarding cognitive and perceptual styles, motives and values.

Psychological type refers to a personality pattern which involves certain psychological processes that determine an individual's orientation to life (Jung, 1921, 1971, 1990). People differ according to the various combinations of their processes that constitute their types (Jung, 1971). Jung's (1990) theory suggests two attitudinal orientations namely introversion (I) and extraversion (E), as well as four psychological functions namely sensation (S) or intuition (N) and thinking (T) or feeling (F).

Personality development is viewed as a dynamic process that takes place throughout life and, according to Jung (1969), personality develops through a series of stages. The stages of life can be grouped into four general stages namely childhood, youth, middle life and old age (Jung, 1969).

Each personality may be divided into one of the various personality types according to two constructs, namely attitudes and functions (Jung, 1990). An attitude is a predisposition to act or react in a characteristic direction, whereas a function is how one observes one's world and assigns meaning to each experience (Jung, 1990).

The two basic attitudes are extraversion and introversion. The two attitudes do not present a dichotomy, as every personality has both introvert and extravert characteristics, with one of the two being dominant and conscious and the other subordinate and unconscious (Jung, 1921, 1971, 1990). The subordinate attitude will compensate for the dominant attitude and vice versa. Jung's (1990) theory of personality types is concerned with the conscious use of functions, perception and judgement (decision-making). Apart from the dominant attitude, people have specific ways of assigning meaning to experiences. Jung (1990) distinguishes four conscious mental functions, namely two perception functions (sensing and intuition) and judgment functions (thinking and feeling).

When the individual's dominant attitude and function are combined the basic personality type may be determined (Jung, 1990). Thus, personality types are patterns in the way people prefer to perceive things and make judgements (Jung, 1990).

Myers (1987) argued that a personality theory must portray and explain people as they are. Myers (1980) extended Jung's (1990) theory of personality types to include a degree of balance between the functions of perception and judgement and the attitudes of extraversion and introversion. The judging-perception dichotomy was added to Jung's model (Myers et al., 1998). The Myers and Briggs' (Myers, 1987) theory of personality types differentiates between sixteen personality types. The Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1987) personality type theory is concerned with four bipolar preferences to determine the relative preference of one over the other. The four scales correspond to the four dimensions of personality type theory, shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.

The four preferences are scored to arrive at a person's personality type (Lawrence, 1993, p.50).

Does the person's interest flow mainly to	
E	The outer world of actions, objects and persons
	EXTRAVERSION
	The inner world of concepts and ideas
	INTROVERSION

Does the person prefer to perceive	
S	The immediate, real, practical facts of experience and life?
	SENSING
	The possibilities, relationships and meanings of experiences?
	INTUITION

Does the person prefer to make judgments or decisions	
T	Objectively, impersonally, considering cause of events and where decisions may lead?
	THINKING
	Subjectively and personally, weighing values of choices and how they matter to others?
	FEELING

Does the person prefer mostly to live	
J	In a decisive, planned and orderly way, aiming to regulate and control events?
	JUDGING
	In a spontaneous, flexible way, aiming to understand life and adapt to it?
	PERCEIVING

The first letter designates an individual's preferred attitude or orientation of energy in the form of an E, indicating extraversion, or I, indicating introversion (Quenk, 1993). The second letter identifies how a person gathers information, which is either S, indicating sensing, or N, indicating intuition. The third letter represents a person's preferred judging function in the form of a T, indicating thinking, or F, indicating feeling (Quenk, 1993). The judging or perceiving attitude towards the outer world is represented by the fourth letter in the form of a J, indicating a judging attitude, or a P, indicating a perceiving attitude (Quenk, 1993).

Table 3.2.

Description of each of the sixteen personality types (Lawrence, 1993, p.55).

ENTJ	ISFP
Intuitive, innovative <i>organiser</i> ; analytical, systematic, confident; pushes to get action on new ideas and challenges.	Observant, loyal <i>helper</i> ; reflective, realistic, empathic, patient with details, gentle and retiring, shuns disagreements; enjoys the moment.
ESTJ	INFP
Fact-minded, practical <i>organiser</i> ; assertive, analytical, systematic, pushes to get things done and works smoothly and efficiently.	Imaginative, independent <i>helper</i> ; reflective, inquisitive, empathic, loyal to ideas, more interested in possibilities than practicalities.
INTP	ESFJ
Inquisitive <i>analyser</i> ; reflective, independent, curious: more interested in organizing ideas than situations or people.	Practical <i>harmoniser</i> and works-with-people; sociable, orderly, opinionated; conscientious; realistic and well tuned-in to the here and now.
ISTP	ENFJ
Practical <i>analyser</i> ; values exactness: more interested in organizing data than situations or people; reflective, a cool and curious observer of life.	Imaginative <i>harmoniser</i> and worker-with-people; sociable, expressive, orderly, opinionated, conscientious; curious about new ideas and possibilities.
ESTP	INFJ
Realistic <i>adapter</i> in the world of material things; good natured, tolerant, easy going; orientated towards practical, first-hand experience: highly observant of details of things.	People-oriented <i>innovator</i> of ideas; serious, quietly forceful and persevering; concerned with the common good and with helping others to develop.
ESFP	INTJ
Realistic <i>adapter</i> in human relationships; friendly and easy with people, highly observant of their feelings and needs, orientated towards practical first-hand experience.	Logical, critical, decisive <i>innovator</i> of serious intent, highly independent, concerned with organisation; determined and often stubborn.
ISTJ	ENFP
<i>Analytical manager of facts and details</i> ; dependable, decisive, painstaking and systematic; concerned with systems and organisation; stable and conservative.	Warmly enthusiastic <i>planner of change</i> ; imaginative, individualistic; pursues inspiration with impulsive energy; seeks to understand and inspire others.

ISFJ	ENTP
<p><i>Sympathetic manager of facts and details,</i> concerned with people's welfare; dependable, painstaking and systematic; stable and conservative.</p>	<p><i>Inventive, analytical planner of change;</i> enthusiastic and independent; pursues inspiration with impulsive energy; seeks to understand and inspire others.</p>

3.1.3.2 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) can be defined as the capacity to recognise a person's own emotions as well as those of others (Hicks & Dess, 2008). According to Macaleer and Shannon (2002), emotional intelligence is generally accepted to be a combination of emotional and interpersonal competencies that influence behaviour, thinking and interaction with other people. Emotional intelligence reflects how knowledge is applied and reflected throughout life (Macaleer & Shannon, 2002). Wolmarans and Martin's (2001) model of emotional competence is relevant to the present study.

Emotional intelligence assists individuals in negotiating their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulating their emotional experiences (Coetzee et al., 2006). According to Wolmarans (cited in Coetzee et al., 2006), emotional competence implies a positive inner state of being and an ability to competently, creatively and confidently adapt in an unstructured, unsure and changing socio-cultural environment. Wolmarans and Martins (2001), categorise emotional intelligence into seven clusters of emotional competencies. These clusters are labelled as:

- emotional literacy;
- self-esteem/self-regard;
- self-management;
- self-motivation;
- change resilience;
- inter-personal relations; and
- integration of the head and heart.

These seven dimensions will briefly be discussed below:

a) Emotional literacy

Emotional literacy refers to understanding the flow of an individual's own and others' emotions – what caused it and how to react to the particular emotion within the specific context (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). To put it differently, it is an awareness of the ebb and flow of one's own and other's emotions with an understanding of what causes the emotions, combined with the skill to interact in an appropriate emotional manner at the right time, with the right person and within the boundaries of the context (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Emotional literacy is demonstrated by an ability to acknowledge and apologise for hurt caused and to express sincere regret in order to mend damaged relationships.

b) Self-esteem or self-regard

Self-esteem refers to “an honest, objective and realistic assessment of, and respect for, one's own worth as an equal human being” (Palmer, et al., 2006, p.10). It is about accepting one's own strengths and weaknesses and the ability to laugh at oneself without feeling inferior (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Self-esteem includes unconditional, non-defensive acceptance of one's talents, values, shortcomings and skills. Self-esteem is evident when one has the courage to act in accordance with personal values in the face of opposition (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

c) Self-management

Self-management is the ability to handle stress and stressful situations without over-reacting, and finding a balance between mind, body and soul in order to handle emotions optimally (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). This is visible in the ability to remain calm in the face of conflict and provocation, thereby minimising defensiveness and restoring rationality in the aggravated party (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

d) Self-motivation

Self-motivation is about setting one's own challenging goals and extending individual capabilities in an effort to achieve them while staying focused and optimistic, regardless of hardship or setbacks. Self-motivation is also explained as unceasingly striving towards one's own goals (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Self-motivation entails taking responsibility for one's successes and failures, and to "hang in there" when others have given up (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

e) Change resilience

Change resilience is characterised by being flexible and open to new things and to change when needed. Those with high change resilience are able to cope with and thrive in times of difficulty, and remain excited and driven by future prospects (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Change resilience is demonstrated by an ability to cope with ambiguity, to thrive amidst chaos and to be re-energised by beautiful scenes encountered along the way (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). An advanced level of change resilience is demonstrated by the above-mentioned factors, as well as displaying anticipation of the unknown (Palmer et al., 2006).

f) Interpersonal relations

Interpersonal relations are characterised by an intuitive understanding of, and a deep level of caring and compassion for, people. This suggests that one needs to have a real concern for the well-being, growth and development of others. It further suggests that one takes pleasure in, and recognise their success. Interpersonal relations involve motivating others by setting high expectations and getting them to commit to a cause. This competency also includes the ability to be a team leader as well as a team contributor in order to achieve set goals. A high level of interpersonal relations is demonstrated through the ability to connect with others on an emotional level and by being able to build trust and loyalty in order to sustain long-term relationships (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

g) Integration of head and heart

The integration of the head and the heart is one's ability to use both left and right sides of one's brain in decision-making and problem-solving. Those who are able to integrate feelings and facts create win-win solutions that serve both the goals and relationship concerned (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). This integration is demonstrated by the ability to turn adversity into opportunity and making inventive, intuitive and implementable breakthroughs in a crisis situation (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

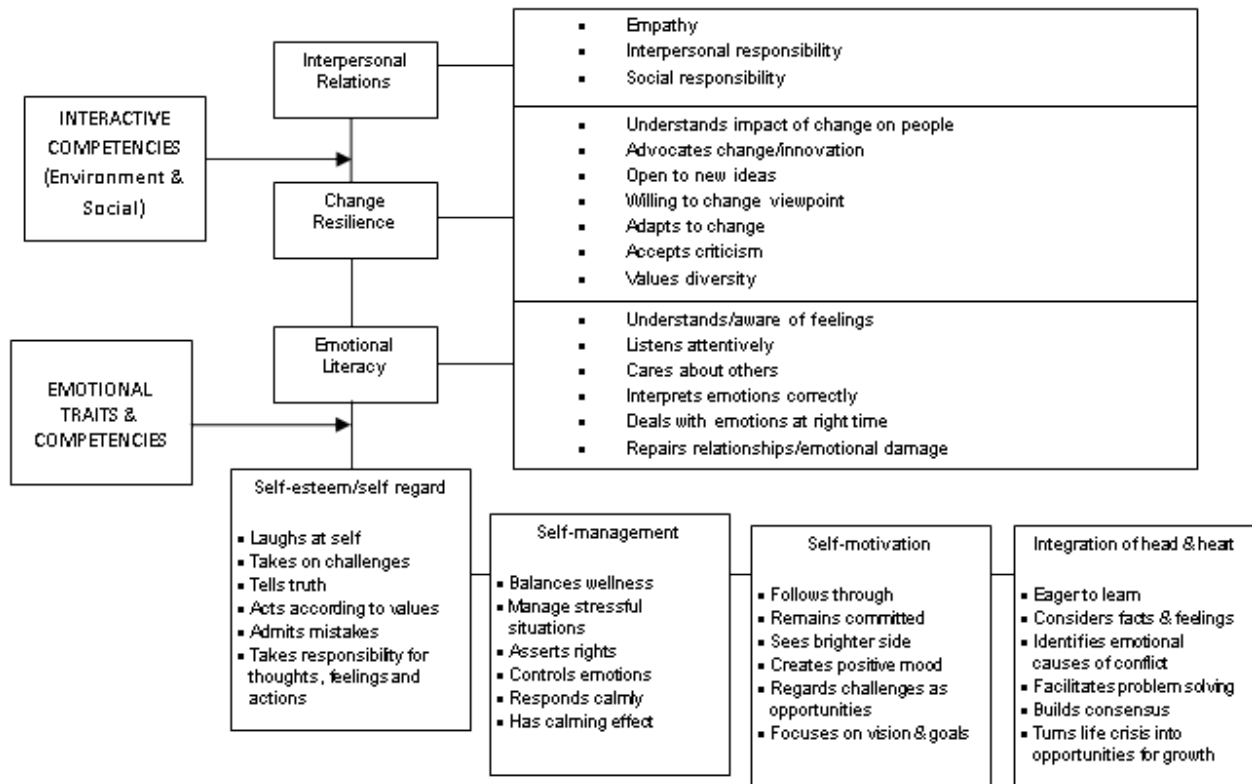


Figure 3.1. The major elements of emotional competence (based on Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

Emotional intelligence is a critical component of leadership effectiveness as leaders deal with teams (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Emotionally intelligent leaders with a great deal of personal efficacy are more motivated to face situations with confidence (Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Goleman (1998) and Lewis (2000) found that a lack of emotional control amongst leaders relates to leader ineffectiveness. An increased self-awareness will cause individuals to more diligently monitor their actions as well as the actions of other team members (Erez &

Somech, 1996). Abraham (1999) suggests that emotional intelligence is directly related to performance.

The emotional intelligence of an individual dictates interpersonal relationships (Klausner, 1997). Carefully managed emotions can drive loyalty, trust and commitment as well as increased productivity, innovation and accomplishment (Cooper, 1997).

3.1.3.3 *Retention factors*

Retention can be described as initiatives taken by employers to keep employees from leaving organisations (Cascio, 2003). This is done through rewards for performing jobs effectively, building harmonious working relations between managers and employees and maintaining a healthy, safe work environment. One of the greatest concerns for any organisation, especially high-growth organisations, is the retention of employees (Peterson, 2005). Döckel (2003) identified six critical factors that must be considered in the retention of employees namely compensation, job characteristics, training and development opportunities, supervisor support, career opportunities and work/life policies. Retention factors are factors that encourage organisational commitment and thus increase the retention of employees (Döckel, 2003).

Maximising motivation, team engagement, attendance and retention of staff are vital in today's highly competitive environment (Clayton, 2006). The retention of key productive employees is a significant challenge, both locally and internationally, and has major cost implications, both directly and indirectly (Tanton, 2007). Döckel's (2003) framework of retention factors is of relevance to the present study as it has been researched in the South African context. Each of these factors will briefly be discussed.

a) Compensation

Money seems to be the primary incentive used to lure professionals (Döckel, Basson & Coetzee, 2006). Reward systems are also frequently used by employers to retain staff (Farris, 2000). Higginbotham (1997) states that there is a strong correlation between good and fair salaries and the intention to stay in a specific organisation, which indicates that compensation is a competitive measure but not the primary factor in retention. Hoyt and Gerdloff (1999) raise the

point that compensation offers an opportunity for autonomy, security, improved self-worth and recognition.

b) Job characteristics

Professionals that view their tasks as challenging with learning and development opportunities are less likely to leave an organisation (Amabile, Conti, Coon, Lazenby & Herron, 1996). Mottaz (1988) states that specific job characteristics like variety and autonomy are determinants of organisational commitment. Hackman and Oldham (1980) define job autonomy as the degree to which a job provides independence, substantial freedom and discretion for one to schedule work and determine the processes to carry it out. Organisational commitment is influenced by the degree of independence and freedom experienced in a job, as well as participation in planning and organising thereof (Bailyn & Lynch, 1983). The degree to which a job requires the use of a number of different skills and talents also impacts on commitment and retention (Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

c) Training and development opportunities

Training is essential for the survival of scarce skilled workers (Cataldo, Assen & D'Alessandro, 2000). Cataldo et al. (2000) further state that employees stay with companies that promote career opportunities, and where new skills learned through training can be applied. Meyer and Allen (1997) argue that employee training provides an opportunity for advancement, which can be perceived as the organisation valuing the employee which in turn builds stronger affective commitment.

d) Supervisor support

Supervisor support can be defined as supervisory behaviours that sustain employees' innovation (Döckel, 2003). Feedback from supervisors and co-workers are considered important (Kochanski & Ledford, 2001). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that where employees can test new skills, exercise discretion and receive regular performance feedback, intrinsic motivation will increase. Recognition from a supervisor relates to affective commitment (Paré, Tremblay & Lalonde, 2001).

e) Career opportunities

Career opportunities are closely related to retention (Kochanski & Lendford, 2001). Managerial roles are generally the most attractive roles as they are considered to carry the highest compensation, prestige and influence (Petroni, 2000). Taking a technical career route entails the accumulation of more skills while remaining involved in technical work (Petroni, 2000). Allen and Katz (1992) state that some employees prefer the opportunity to engage in challenging and exciting activities and projects, irrespective of promotional possibilities.

f) Work/life policies

According to Cooper and Burke (2002), work/life policies should include flexible work schedules, family leave policies and childcare assistance. Many employees value work/life initiatives as meaningful and more important than new positions (Dubie, 2000).

3.1.3.4 Integration: Personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors

Research indicated that successful leadership consists of leaders who are self-aware and have an understanding of their own and others' emotions and who use this understanding to effectively inspire, motivate, connect with and challenge others (Gardner, 1999; Goleman et al., 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 1995). In the qualitative study completed by Kouzes and Posner (1995), leaders' described their proudest moments in terms of feelings, emotions and challenges.

Leadership is, in part, about managing emotions (Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009). It has been proven through many studies that emotional intelligence is tied to successful leadership and it follows that the skills of emotionally intelligent people, like conflict management, flexibility, persuasion and social reasoning are becoming increasingly important (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). According to Antonakis et al. (2009), good leadership depends on intelligence and whether or not leaders have the right personality characteristics. Being sensitive towards others and acting on and managing one's emotions in an appropriate way depends on IQ. Being overly sensitive to the emotional states of others or not acting appropriately depends on personality (Antonakis et al., 2009). Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) state that emotional intelligence competencies are crucial for directors of organisations in that these

competencies play a role in motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, intuitiveness, conscientiousness and integrity. Emotional intelligence competencies are relevant to a director's role in shaping a company's vision, mission and values (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003).

Emotional intelligence revealed associations with the personality type (Myers, 1987) preferences of feeling and intuiting (Chreniss & Goleman, 2001). A study conducted by Diamantopoulou (2001) examined a sample of bank employees and determined that a relationship exists between certain personality types and emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence of certain personality types was higher. Ketter (2008) identified that retention drivers are directly linked to leadership. It was determined that employees are more likely to stay in organisations if they have a good boss who recognises individual contributions.

3.1.4 Research objectives

The theoretical framework presented in the previous section suggests that the constructs of leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors are conceptually related. However, the relationship between the three variables needs to be empirically investigated. The objectives of the study were to explore (1) whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perception of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) the relationship between leaders' personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors and to determine; and (3) whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding these three variables within the South African organisational context.

H01: Staff and leaders do not differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors.

H1: Staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors.

H02: There is no significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

H2: There is a significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

H03: Individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units do not differ significantly in terms of retention factors.

H3: Individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly in terms of retention factors.

3.1.5 The potential value-add of the study

This study extends the research on leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Understanding the relationships between these variables could provide valuable insights in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology in terms of organisational retention practices. The following sections describe the research design, the findings and conclusions, as well as implications for practice and future research.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.2.1 Research approach

A survey design using primary data was used to fulfil the research objectives. The primary data design allowed the researcher to control the data collection conditions (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). The study was completed using quantitative data collection and analysis procedures, which are discussed separately in the sections below.

3.2.2 Research method

This section clarifies the research method followed in terms of the research participants, measuring instruments, research procedure and statistical analyses in this study.

3.2.2.1 Participants

A non-probability purposive sample of 160 adults who were employed full-time in an organisation within the asset management industry was used. Non-probability sampling does not involve random selection (Trochim, 2006). With non-probability samples, one may or may

not represent the population well, and it will often be difficult to ascertain how well this has been done (Trochim, 2006). Non-probability sampling methods can be divided into two broad types namely accidental or purposive. The sample was purposive in nature because the researcher approached the sampling problem with a specific plan in mind. The sample's profile is described according to the biographical variables of gender, race and age groups and business units. These variables were included based on the literature review.

Leader versus staff member is an important variable in the study as the study aims to determine how the personality characteristics and emotional intelligence of leaders affect staff's satisfaction with retention factors. The sample was further broken down into leaders and staff. Thirty-six percent (36%) of the sample consisted of leaders and 64% consisted of staff. In terms of racial composition, the sample consisted of 23% Africans, 15% Coloureds, 11% Indians and 51% White participants.

The leaders' sample was comprised of 29% females and 71% males. The staff sample was comprised of 65% females and 35% males. The participants were predominantly in their early career life stages, with 80% of the sample aged between 25 and 45 years of age, 9% of the sample was 25 years and younger, 10% was aged between 46 and 55 years and 2% of the sample was 55 years and older.

The largest group of people in the sample was situated in the Retail business unit, representing 60% of the sample. The Investments business unit represented 39% of the sample, while the rest of the sample was made up of the Institutional business unit (16%), Shared Services business unit (32%), and the Multi-manager business unit, which represented 11% of the sample.

Table 3.3.

Biographical characteristics of the study population.

Item	Category	Frequency	%
Gender (n=160)	Male	77	48
	Female	83	52
Race (n=157)	African	36	23
	Coloured	23	15
	Indian	18	11
	White	80	51
Age (n=158)	Younger than 25	14	9
	25-35 years	72	46
	36-45 years	53	33
	46-55 years	16	10
	56 years and older	3	2
Business Unit (n=158)	Investments	39	25
	Retail	60	38
	Institutional	16	10
	Shared Services	32	20
	Multi-Manager	11	7

3.2.2.2 *Measuring instruments*

The Meyers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers, 1998) was used to measure personality types. The 360° Emotional Competency Profiler (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001) was used to determine emotional intelligence and the Retention Factors Scale (RFS) (Döckel, 2003) was used to measure the retention factors. Participants were also asked to provide biographical information regarding their gender, race and age groups and business units. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were computed for the MBTI, ECP and RFS to establish internal reliability consistency of the measuring instruments and their sub-scales.

a) Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Form M (MBTI)

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was used to measure personality preferences (Myers, 1987). The MBTI, Form M, is a self-reporting instrument and consists of three parts. The individual has to respond to 93 items in total. Part I contains 26 items, part II contains 47 and part III contains 20 items (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2003). Items are arranged in a forced-choice format where for each item, participants must select one of two responses. Based on their selections, individuals are placed into one of sixteen personality types (Myers et al.,

2003). While there are different views on many aspects of the validity of the MBTI, there is general agreement on its high levels of face validity (Myers et al., 2003, p.160).

In presenting reliability results in the MBTI manual, Myers et al. (2003) examined the internal consistency reliability of the Form M scales (continuous scores based on logical split-half correlations and coefficient alpha), none of which are below 0.8 for the MBTI Form M scales. Test-retest reliabilities are shown to be high and also show consistency over time. The Cronbach's Alpha of the four personality types is presented in Table 3.4 below. Each of the types has a reliability value above 0.75 and can be considered reliable scales.

Table 3.4.

Cronbach's Alpha values for the four subscales of the MBTI.

Subscales	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Extraversion–Introversion (E–I)	21	0.76
Sensing–Intuition (S–N)	25	0.85
Thinking–Feeling (T–F)	24	0.78
Judging–Perceiving (J–P)	22	0.85

b) 360° Emotional Competency Profiler (ECP)

The 360° Emotional Competency Profiler (ECP) consists of seven subscales and forty six items (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001). Two four-point Likert scales were used in this questionnaire to measure levels of current emotional competence as well as the importance of these behaviours to the person. High scores on the current emotional competence behaviour scale depict that the person already exhibits the behaviour. A high score on the importance of behaviour scale indicates that the behaviour is important to the person being assessed, but does not indicate that the behaviour is being demonstrated.

Table 3.5.

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for the seven sub-scales of the ECP (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

Dimension	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha
Emotional literacy	6	0.86
Self-esteem	6	0.87
Self-management	6	0.85
Self-motivation	6	0.91
Change resilience	7	0.93
Interpersonal relations	9	0.95
Head/heart	6	0.90

The ECP has proven content validity. A construct definition of each emotional competence behavioural cluster was developed and tested (Coetzee, Martins, Basson & Muller, 2006). Acceptable levels of internal consistency were identified through an item analysis. The overall reliability of this instrument was reported to be 0.98 (Coetzee et al., 2006).

For the present study, the Cronbach's Alpha values of the dimensions of the ECP are presented in Table 3.6. All the values are above 0.75, with the exception of emotional literacy. The internal reliability value of 0.71 for emotional literacy is however still considered adequately high and indicates acceptable reliability.

Table 3.6.

Cronbach Alpha values for dimensions of the ECP.

Dimensions	Current Behaviour		Importance
	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha
Emotional literacy	6	0.81	0.71
Self-esteem	6	0.80	0.78
Self-management	6	0.82	0.76
Self-motivation	6	0.79	0.77
Change resilience	7	0.81	0.80
Interpersonal relationships	9	0.90	0.90
Integration of head and heart	6	0.83	0.81

c) Retention Factors Scale (RFS)

The Retention Factors Scale (RFS) consists of 35 items measured on a five-point Likert scale (Döckel et al., 2006), ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The questionnaire was developed by using items that originated from questionnaires that measured compensation, job characteristics, training and development opportunities, supervisor support, career opportunities and work/life policies.

- Compensation: Thirteen items regarding compensation factors were selected from the Pay Satisfaction Questionnaire with high internal consistency reliabilities for the four scales (Döckel et al., 2006).
- Job characteristics: The Job Diagnostic Survey was used and a meta-analysis reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient in the range of 0.20 to 0.94 (Döckel et al., 2006).
- Training and development opportunities: Six items from a scale developed by Rogg, Schmidt, Shull and Schmitt (2001) were used which reported a Cronbach Alpha coefficient ranging from 0.77 to 0.87.
- Supervisor support: Ramus and Steger (2000) developed a scale and six of these items were selected. A Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.68 was reported on the scale.
- Career opportunities: Landau and Hammer's (Döckel et al., 2006) measurement scale on perceived ease of movement and perceived organisational policy of filling vacancies from within was selected. Four items were used.
- Work/life policies: Four items from Paré's (Döckel et al., 2006) work/life policies scale were selected, which had a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of 0.87.

Research by Döckel (2003) confirmed that the scales and sub-scales have acceptable or high internal reliability values (above 0.70). In the present study, Table 3.7 shows Cronbach Alpha values of ≥ 0.70 , indicating high reliability.

Table 3.7.
Cronbach's Alpha values for dimensions of the RFS.

Scales and sub-scales	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Organisational commitment	18	0.84
Compensation	13	0.91
Job characteristics	4	0.71
Training and development opportunities	6	0.84
Supervisor support	6	0.91
Career opportunities	6	0.73
Work/life policies (balance)	4	0.88
Intention to stay	3	0.88
Total	60	0.94

3.2.2.3 *Research procedure*

Ethical clearance to conduct the study as well as permission for employees to participate in the research study was obtained from the CEO of the asset management company. Participation was voluntary. Employees were sent communication via email explaining the purpose of the research, confidentiality and anonymity, benefits of the study, as well as the voluntary nature of participation together with the link to complete the questionnaires online.

3.2.2.4 *Data analysis*

The data were analysed using quantitative analyses. Responses to each of the items of the three questionnaires were captured in an electronic spread sheet format. All data were analysed using a statistical software package (SPSS Inc., 2006). There were three stages to this process namely:

a) Stage 1

Descriptive statistics using Cronbach's Alphas, means and standard deviations was used on the ECP and RFS continuous data. Dichotomous data, frequencies and cross tabulations were used for the MBTI analysis.

b) Stage 2

Correlational statistics was used to determine the relationship between the variables. Pearson product-moment correlations were further used for the ECP and RFS variables. In order to counter the probability of a type I error, it was decided to set the significance value at a 95% confidence interval level ($p \leq 0.05$). For the purposes of this study, r values larger than 0.30 (medium effect) (Cohen, 1992) were regarded as practically significant.

c) Stage 3

Inferential statistics was used to look at the relationship between the variables in more depth. ANOVA tables were used for multiple mean comparisons and regressions to determine the proportion of variance that is explained by the independent variables on the dependent variable. The t-test was used to analyse gender differences. Since a number of independent variables had to be considered, the value of the adjusted R^2 was used to interpret the regression results. R^2 values larger than 0.13 (medium effect) (Cohen, 1992) were regarded as practically significant.

3.3 RESULTS

3.3.1 Descriptive statistics

The basic descriptive information for each of the scales and dimensions are provided in this section. Basic descriptive information includes means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum responses.

3.3.1.1 Descriptive information for MBTI

The statistics in this section provide a profile of the sample according to MBTI personality preferences. As shown in figure 3.2, the personality preferences were represented as follows: E (62%), S (60%), T (78%) and J (67%).

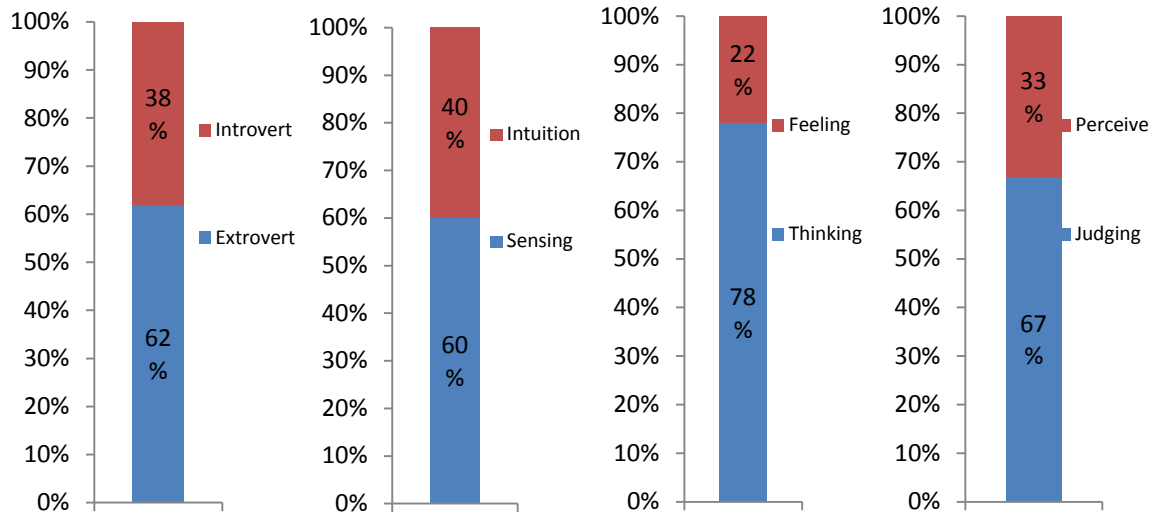


Figure 3.2. Percentage leaders in each of the MBTI types.

Table 3.8 below presents the different combinations of personality type preferences and the number of leaders with each personality type preference. In line with the high percentages for extraverts, sensing, thinking and judging, the largest combination of the above was also for ESTJ (25% of participants).

The extraverted types had either an intuition or sensing personality type preference (47% sensing versus 53% intuition as a percentage of all extraverts), but it appeared that the introverts most often had sensing as the corresponding personality type preference (26% of total or 71% of all introverts). The introverted types were also more likely to be thinking (76% of all Introverts) and judging (71%).

Table 3.8.

Different combinations of leaders' personality types (n =57).

Personality type	Frequency	Per cent
ENFP	4	7%
ENTJ	6	11%
ENTP	7	12%
ESFJ	3	5%
ESFP	1	2%
ESTJ	14	25%
ESTP	1	2%
INFJ	2	4%
INTJ	3	5%
INTP	1	2%
ISFJ	3	5%
ISTJ	7	12%
ISTP	5	9%

3.3.1.2 *Descriptive information for ECP*

The emotional competence of managers was rated by staff and the managers themselves. Staff did not rate their own emotional competence. The item required staff to rate the current behaviour of managers, and then indicate how important each aspect is to them. The scores of managers and staff are shown together in Tables 3.9 and 3.10. These results were for both samples in total and did not reflect a particular manager and his/her corresponding staff member's rating.

Table 3.9.

Descriptive information of the ECP: current behaviour.

Current behaviour	Leaders' self-rating		Staff rating of leaders	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional literacy	3.18	0.34	3.19	0.52
Self-esteem	3.43	0.33	3.38	0.53
Self-management	2.97	0.40	3.14	0.58
Self-motivation	3.28	0.35	3.34	0.50
Change resilience	3.23	0.34	3.27	0.49
Interpersonal relationships	3.31	0.40	3.34	0.55
Integration of head and heart	3.16	0.38	3.20	0.53

The mean scores on the importance of dimensions are presented in Table 3.10. A t-test for differences between the mean scores showed that there were not many significant differences between what is important to leaders and staff. It is only with regards to self-motivation that staff's perceptions of their leaders' EI had a significantly higher mean score ($M=3.28$; $SD=0.35$) ($p \leq 0.05$) than the leaders' own perceptions of their EI. It might be that the nature of management requires leaders to be more self-motivated.

Table 3.10.

Descriptive information of the ECP: importance.

Current behaviour	Leaders		Staff		T-test	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	P-value
Emotional literacy	3.40	0.37	3.43	0.45	-0.40	0.69
Self-esteem	3.45	0.34	3.49	0.42	-0.55	0.58
Self-management	3.38	0.36	3.44	0.44	-0.87	0.39
Self-motivation	3.39	0.35	3.53	0.41	-2.17	0.03*
Change resilience	3.39	0.33	3.43	0.41	-0.66	0.51
Interpersonal relationships	3.48	0.36	3.55	0.44	-1.07	0.29
Integration of head and heart	3.30	0.38	3.41	0.43	-1.71	0.09

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

The difference between the current behaviour of managers and the importance of the behaviour to staff is known as a gap analysis. The “gap” between how leaders’ behaviour is perceived and how important the behaviour is to staff indicated which areas leaders need to focus on most. For example, if certain behaviour is low but its importance is also low, less focus needs to be given to this area. It might be that behaviour is not particularly low on a certain dimension, but importance is very high, which indicates that more attention needs to be given to this area.

For this reason, the difference between behaviour and its importance is calculated by means of the following formula: behaviour score - importance. If the behaviour has lower importance, a negative value will be calculated. If the behaviour has a high importance, a positive value will result. Table 3.11 indicates that on average there was a negative gap between importance and behaviour, with the largest of these being for self-management (-0.30) and emotional literacy (-0.24). The maximum scores column indicates that there were some staff members who felt that their leaders’ behaviour is over-emphasised, and therefore not all managers were rated below the importance level.

Table 3.11.

Descriptive information on the gap between current behaviour and importance of behaviour (ECP).

ECP	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Emotional literacy	101	-2.00	1.17	-0.24	0.49
Self-esteem	101	-1.67	1.00	-0.11	0.48
Self-management	101	-2.00	0.67	-0.30	0.52
Self-motivation	101	-2.00	0.83	-0.19	0.43
Change resilience	101	-1.57	0.71	-0.17	0.41
Interpersonal relationships	101	-2.67	1.00	-0.21	0.46
Integration of head and heart	101	-1.83	0.67	-0.21	0.44

3.3.1.3 *Descriptive information for RFS*

The descriptive information for the retention factors is presented in Table 3.12 below. Career opportunity obtained the lowest mean score ($M = 2.95$; $SD = 0.63$), while supervisor support ($M = 3.72$; $SD = 0.83$) and intention to stay ($M = 3.72$; $SD = 1.00$) were rated the highest. A comparison of the ratings of staff and leaders is provided in the inferential statistics section.

Table 3.12.

Descriptive information of the RFS.

RFS	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organisational commitment	158	1.76	4.82	3.25	0.60
Compensation	158	1.15	5.00	3.10	0.71
Training and development opportunities	158	1.00	5.00	3.30	0.74
Supervisor support	158	1.17	5.00	3.72	0.83
Career opportunities	158	1.00	4.67	2.95	0.63
Work/life policies (balance)	158	1.00	5.00	3.19	0.93
Intention to stay	158	1.00	5.00	3.72	1.00
Total retention	158	2.08	4.55	3.30	0.48

3.3.2 Exploratory statistics

3.3.2.1 *Correlations between leaders' MBTI personality type and leaders' RFS scores*

The correlation statistics aimed to determine the relationship between the personality type of a respondent and their satisfaction scores on the RFS. The correlation command in SPSS syntax produced the appropriate statistics between a dichotomous variable (such as the MBTI) and a scale variable. Table 3.13 illustrates that no significant relationships exist between the RFS variables and the MBTI personality types.

Table 3.13.

Correlations between MBTI personality type preferences and RFS of leaders (n = 57).

RFS		EI	SN	TF	JP
Organisational Commitment	Correlation	-0.15	-0.01	-0.14	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.27	0.96	0.31	0.72
Compensation	Correlation	0.11	-0.09	-0.04	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.44	0.49	0.75	0.73
Job characteristics	Correlation	0.11	-0.06	0.08	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.40	0.64	0.56	0.96
Training and development opportunities	Correlation	0.05	-0.18	-0.02	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.70	0.17	0.90	0.94
Supervisor support	Correlation	0.00	-0.07	-0.07	-0.03
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.99	0.61	0.59	0.84
Career opportunities	Correlation	-0.08	-0.09	0.02	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.58	0.49	0.90	0.90
Work/life policies (balance)	Correlation	0.04	-0.04	-0.01	-0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.76	0.80	0.97	0.60
Intention to stay	Correlation	-0.07	-0.14	-0.18	-0.18
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.62	0.29	0.18	0.18
Total retention	Correlation	-0.02	-0.11	-0.09	-0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90	0.41	0.50	0.69

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

3.3.2.2 Correlation between leaders' personality types (MBTI) and leaders' emotional competence (ECP)

Leaders also rated their own emotional competence. This section examined the relationship between the personality of the leader and their self-rated emotional competence. Table 3.14 shows that extraversion-introversion and sensing-intuition are the only personality type preferences that showed a significant correlation with self-rated emotional competence.

Managers who are extraverted types were more likely to score themselves higher on self-motivation ($r \geq 0.30$; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect) and interpersonal relationships ($r \geq 0.30$; $p \leq 0.05$; medium practical effect) than those who are introverted types. Leaders who showed a preference towards the intuitive (N) personality type preference were more likely to score themselves higher on change resilience ($r \geq 0.30$; $p \leq 0.02$; medium practical effect).

Table 3.14.

Correlation between MBTI personality type preferences and ECP as rated by leaders themselves (Leaders) (n = 58).

ECP		EI	SN	TF	JP
Emotional literacy	Correlation	-0.13	0.17	0.11	-0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.32	0.22	0.44	0.96
Self-esteem	Correlation	-0.13	0.01	-0.03	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.35	0.97	0.85	0.95
Self-management	Correlation	0.01	-0.04	-0.18	-0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.97	0.79	0.19	0.35
Self-motivation	Correlation	-0.37**	0.08	-0.12	-0.02
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	0.53	0.36	0.86
Change resilience	Correlation	-0.25	0.32 ⁺	-0.16	-0.04
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.07	0.02	0.24	0.77
Interpersonal relationships	Correlation	-0.39**	0.20	0.07	-0.07
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.15	0.63	0.63
Integration of head and Heart	Correlation	-0.22	0.17	-0.01	0.05
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.11	0.22	0.93	0.69

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

3.3.2.2 Correlation between leaders' MBTI personality type preferences and their ECP emotional competence (as rated by staff)

The MBTI personality preferences, as rated by leaders, were compared with their emotional competence, as rated by staff members. Table 3.15 below indicates that there are no significant correlations between these constructs.

Table 3.15.

Correlation between MBTI personality type preferences and ECP as rated by staff (n = 97).

ECP		EI	SN	TF	JP
Emotional literacy	Correlation	-0.07	-0.12	0.09	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.24	0.41	0.59
Self-esteem	Correlation	-0.01	-0.08	0.07	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.90	0.42	0.51	0.26
Self-management	Correlation	0.03	-0.11	-0.08	0.08
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.77	0.27	0.46	0.43
Self-motivation	Correlation	0.10	-0.09	0.06	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.32	0.38	0.56	0.56
Change resilience	Correlation	0.12	-0.06	0.03	0.15
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.30	0.56	0.76	0.13
Interpersonal relationships	Correlation	0.04	-0.06	0.06	0.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.67	0.54	0.55	0.25
Integration of head and heart	Correlation	0.00	-0.03	0.06	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.99	0.81	0.59	0.55

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

3.3.2.3 *Correlation between leaders' MBTI personality type preferences and the RFS, as rated by staff*

A correlation between the personality type preferences of leaders and the satisfaction scores of staff members on the various retention factors indicated that only two significant relationships existed. Table 3.16 shows that the RFS supervisor support variable correlated significantly and positively with the MBTI TF preferences ($r = 0.20$; $p \leq 0.05$; small practical effect). The RFS job characteristics variable significantly and positively correlated with the MBTI JP preferences ($r = 0.24$; $p \leq 0.02$; small practical effect).

Table 3.16.

Correlation between MBTI personality type preferences and RFS (Staff).

RFS		EI	SN	TF	JP
Organisational commitment	Correlation	0.02	0.02	0.10	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.88	0.85	0.34	0.07
Compensation	Correlation	0.07	-0.12	0.06	0.14
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.50	0.24	0.59	0.18
Job characteristics	Correlation	-0.03	-0.05	0.11	0.24 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.75	0.65	0.29	0.02
Training and development opportunities	Correlation	-0.06	0.02	0.12	0.19
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.57	0.87	0.24	0.07
Supervisor support	Correlation	-0.03	-0.08	0.20 [*]	0.10
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.74	0.46	0.05	0.33
Career opportunities	Correlation	0.07	-0.08	0.17	0.01
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.52	0.44	0.11	0.92
Work/life policies (balance)	Correlation	0.02	0.02	0.13	-0.13
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.83	0.84	0.22	0.20
Intention to stay	Correlation	0.01	-0.00	0.06	0.09
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.93	0.98	0.57	0.38
Total retention	Correlation	0.02	-0.05	0.16	0.17
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.83	0.61	0.13	0.10

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

3.3.2.4 Correlation between leaders' emotional competence (as rated by staff) and the RFS (staff)

Leaders' emotional competence and satisfaction with retention factors were rated from the point of view of the same person, i.e. the staff member, and are therefore more likely to relate to one another. Table 3.17 depicts that the RFS organisational commitment variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.46$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-esteem ($r = 0.28$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), self-management ($r = 0.36$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.37$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), change resilience ($r = 0.32$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.35$; medium effect $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.31$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$).

The RFS compensation variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.40$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.24$; small effect; p

≤ 0.02), change resilience ($r = 0.27$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.36$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.28$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$). The RFS job characteristics variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.23$; small effect; $p \leq 0.02$), self-esteem ($r = 0.38$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.20$; small effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.29$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), change resilience ($r = 0.32$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.29$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$).

Table 3.17 also illustrates that the RFS training and development opportunities variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.29$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), self-esteem ($r = 0.21$; small effect; $p \leq 0.04$), self-management ($r = 0.29$; small effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.24$; small effect; $p \leq 0.02$), change resilience ($r = 0.21$; small effect; $p \leq 0.04$) and interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.28$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$).

The RFS supervisor support variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.56$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-esteem ($r = 0.53$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.44$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.48$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), change resilience ($r = 0.55$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.68$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.55$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$). The RFS career opportunities variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.45$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-esteem ($r = 0.30$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.26$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), self-motivation ($r = 0.36$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), change resilience ($r = 0.27$; small effect; $p \leq 0.01$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.34$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.34$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$).

The analysis further indicated the RFS intention to stay variable correlated significantly and positively with the ECP variables of emotional literacy ($r = 0.51$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-esteem ($r = 0.32$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.46$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.42$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), change resilience ($r = 0.41$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.44$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.36$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$).

Overall, total retention as measured in the RFS correlated significantly and positively with all the ECP variables - emotional literacy ($r = 0.58$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-esteem ($r = 0.39$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-management ($r = 0.44$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), self-motivation ($r = 0.45$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), change resilience ($r = 0.43$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$), interpersonal relationships ($r = 0.52$; large effect; $p \leq 0.05$) and integration of head and heart ($r = 0.42$; medium effect; $p \leq 0.05$). Only work/life balance did not correlate with all the ECP variables. Work/life balance only correlated with self-motivation ($r = 0.22$; small effect; $p \leq 0.03$).

Table 3.17.

Correlation between leaders' emotional competence: current behaviour (as rated by staff) and RFS variables (staff).

RFS		ECP						
		Emotional Literacy	Self-esteem	Self-management	Self-motivation	Change resilience	Interpersonal relationships	Integration of head and heart
Organisational commitment	Correlation	0.46 ^{***}	0.28 ^{**}	0.36 ^{**}	0.37 ^{**}	0.32 ^{**}	0.35 ^{**}	0.31 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Compensation	Correlation	0.40 ^{**}	0.16	0.24 [*]	0.19	0.27 ^{**}	0.36 ^{**}	0.28 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.13	0.02	0.07	0.01	0.00	0.01
Job characteristics	Correlation	0.23 [*]	0.38 ^{**}	0.20 [*]	0.29 ^{**}	0.32 ^{**}	0.29 ^{**}	0.20
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.02	0.00	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.05
Training and development opportunities	Correlation	0.29 ^{**}	0.21 [*]	0.29 ^{**}	0.24 [*]	0.21 [*]	0.28 ^{**}	0.16
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	0.04	0.00	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.12
Supervisor support	Correlation	0.56 ^{***}	0.53 ^{***}	0.44 ^{**}	0.48 ^{**}	0.55 ^{***}	0.68 ^{***}	0.55 ^{***}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Career opportunities	Correlation	0.45 ^{**}	0.30 ^{**}	0.26 [*]	0.36 ^{**}	0.27 ^{**}	0.34 ^{**}	0.34 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00
Work/life policies (balance)	Correlation	0.19	0.11	0.18	0.22 [*]	0.06	0.13	0.06
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.06	0.27	0.08	0.03	0.59	0.22	0.57
Intention to stay	Correlation	0.51 ^{***}	0.32 ^{**}	0.46 ^{**}	0.42 ^{**}	0.41 ^{**}	0.44 ^{**}	0.36 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Total retention	Correlation	0.58 ^{***}	0.39 ^{**}	0.44 ^{**}	0.45 ^{**}	0.43 ^{**}	0.52 ^{**}	0.42 ^{**}
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) +++ $r \geq 0.50$ (large practical effect size) ++ $r \geq 0.30 \leq 0.49$ (medium practical effect size) + $r \leq 0.29$ (small practical effect size).

Figure 3.3 below indicates results of the core relationships between personality type preferences (MBTI), emotional competencies (ECP) and retention factors (RFS).

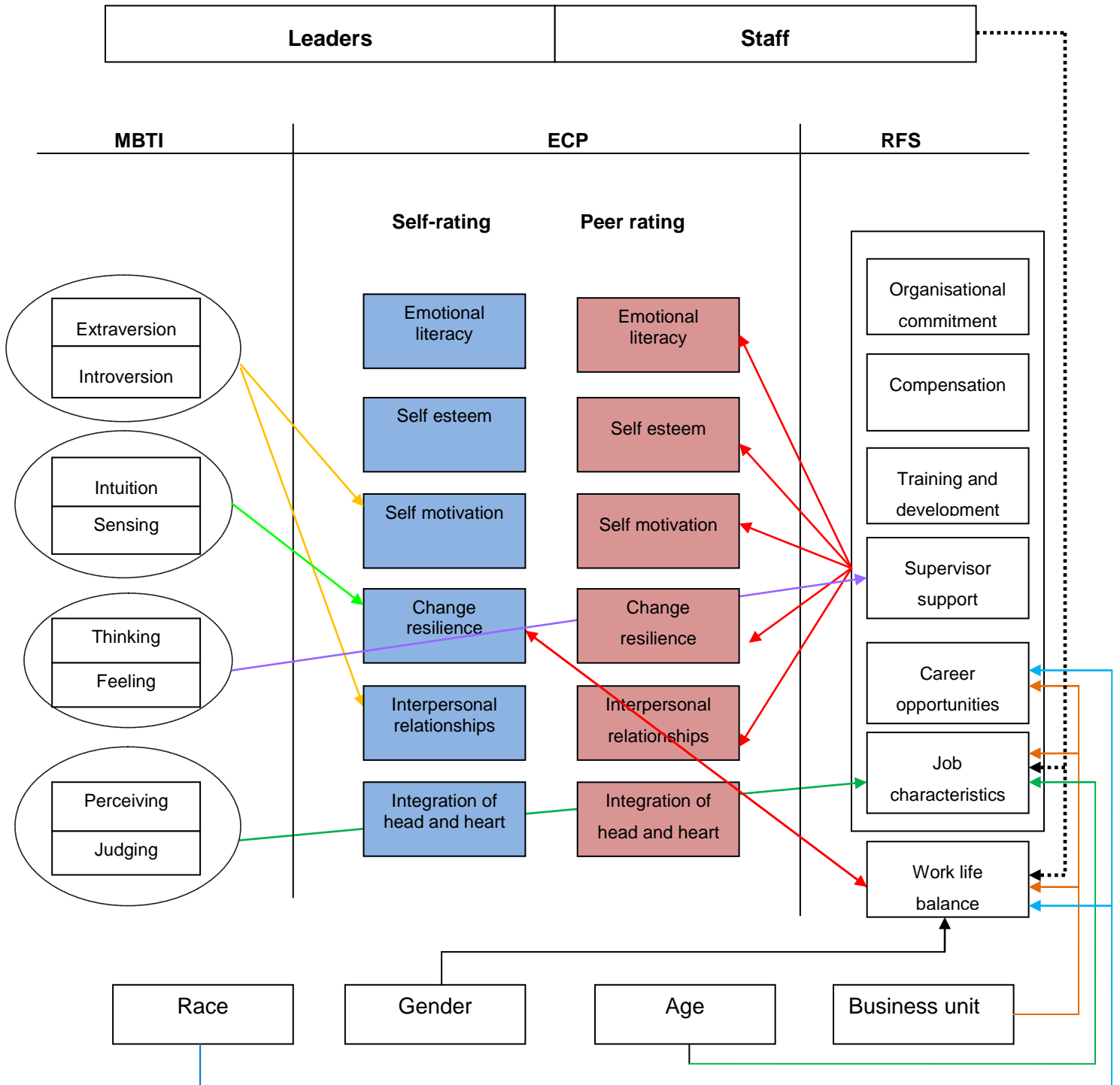


Figure 3.3. Summary: Relationship between the personality type preferences (MBTI), emotional competencies (ECP) and retention factors (RFS).

3.3.3 Multiple regression analyses

3.3.3.1 Regression analysis with RFS organisational commitment as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

When entering the emotional competencies into a stepwise regression model as a predictor of RFS organisational commitment, a single significant model was extracted (Table 3.18). The predictor in this model was emotional literacy. This variable explains 20% (medium effect) of the variance in the dependent variable (organisational commitment).

Table 3.18.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS organisational commitment as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
	(constant)	1.42	0.36								3.96
Emotional Literacy	0.56	0.11	0.46	5.04	0.00	25.38 (1.94)	0.20	0.46	0.00	1.00	1.00

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.2 Regression analysis with RFS compensation as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

The theoretical relationship between the compensation satisfaction of a staff member and the emotional competencies of their leader is more tenuous and this is reflected in the fact that the model from the stepwise regression only predicted 15% (medium effect) of the variance in compensation (Table 3.19). Emotional literacy associated significantly with the compensation variable.

Table 3.19.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS compensation as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.32	0.42		3.15		17.79	0.15	0.40 ^a	0.02		
Emotional literacy	0.55	0.13	0.40	4.22	0.00	*** (1.94)	++		0.00	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: Compensation

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.3 Regression analysis with RFS job characteristics as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

A stepwise regression model between the satisfaction of staff with job characteristics and their rating of their managers' scores was performed and a single model explains 14% (medium effect) of variance in the dependent variable (Table 3.20). The emotional competence that best predicted satisfaction with job characteristics is the self-esteem of leaders.

Table 3.20.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP (self-esteem) as independent variables and RFS job characteristics as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.07	0.46		4.55		15.78	0.14	0.38	0.00	1.00	1.00
Self-esteem	0.53	0.13	0.38	3.97	0.00	*** (1.94)	++		0.00		

Dependent Variable: Job Characteristics

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$

(medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.0$

3.3.3.4 Regression analysis with RFS training and development as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

Training and development indicated a very weak relationship with the emotional competencies of leaders. The model extracted by the stepwise regression only predicted 7% (small effect) of variance in the satisfaction with training and development (Table 3.21). Training and development is often a policy issue at company level.

Table 3.21.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP (self-management) as independent variables and RFS training and development as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.11	0.41		5.14		8.49	0.07	0.29	0.00		
Self-Management	0.37	0.13	0.29	2.91	0.00	*** (1.94) +			0.04	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: Training and development

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.5 Regression analysis with RFS supervisor support as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

Supervisor support is one of the retention factors that had the strongest theoretical association with the emotional competencies of managers. The model extracted by the stepwise regression analysis confirms this stronger association as it explains 45% (large effect) of variance in satisfaction with supervisor support (Table 3.22). Interpersonal relationships strongly predicted satisfaction with supervisor support.

Table 3.22.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS supervisor support as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)	0.51	0.38								1.34
Interpersonal relationship	0.99	0.11	0.68	8.87	0.00	*** (1.94)	+++		0.00	1.00	1.00

Dependent Variable: Supervisor Support

*** $p \leq 0.001$ ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.6 Regression analysis with RFS career development as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

Career development was also used in a regression analysis as the dependent variable with emotional competencies of leaders as the independent variables. Although the model of prediction was not as strong as with supervisor support, it was higher than satisfaction with compensation, job characteristics and training and development. The emotional literacy variable predicted 19% (medium effect) of variance in career development (Table 3.23).

Table 3.23

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS career development as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.26	0.36		3.46		23.20	0.19	0.45	0.00		
Emotional literacy	0.54	0.11	0.45	4.82	0.00	*** (1.94)	++		0.00	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: Career

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.7 Regression analysis with RFS work/life policies as the dependent variable and ECP emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

Work/life policies presented weak correlations with emotional competencies and therefore the prediction model was expected to be poor. Self-motivation of leaders only predicted 4% (small effect) of variance in the satisfaction of staff members with their work/life balance (Table 3.24).

Table 3.24.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS work/life policies as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	2.12	0.60		3.56		4.68	0.04	0.22 ^a	0.00		
Self-motivation	0.38	0.18	0.22	2.16	0.03	*** (1.94)	+		0.03	1.00	1.00

a. Dependent Variable: Work/life policies

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.3.8 Regression analysis with intention to stay as the dependent variable and emotional competencies of leaders (as rated by staff) as the independent variables

Intention to stay and organisational commitment are in essence closely linked with one another and the same variable, emotional literacy, was considered the best predictor of both (25%; large effect). Emotional literacy explains 25% of the variance in the intention to stay variable (Table 3.25).

Table 3.25.

Coefficient results from the regression analysis with ECP emotional competencies as independent variables and RFS intention to stay as dependent variable.

Coefficients

Variable	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	p	F (df)	Adjusted R Square	R	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta							Tolerance	VIF
	(Constant)	0.28	0.60								0.46
Emotional Literacy	1.07	0.19	0.51	5.70	0.00	*** (1.94)	++		0.00	1.00	1.00

Dependent Variable: Stay

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed) + $R^2 \leq 0.12$ (small); ++ $R^2 \geq 0.13 \leq 0.25$ (medium); +++ $R \geq 0.26$ (large)

3.3.4 Inferential statistics: tests for significant mean differences

3.3.4.1 Comparison of demographical groups according to RFS scores

a) *Leader versus staff member*

The differences between the mean scores of leaders on the ECP have already been investigated to some extent and reported in the previous section. The differences between leaders and staff in the RFS variables were then also examined by means of the independent sample t-test. Table 3.26 illustrates that the leaders obtained significantly higher mean scores than the staff members on RFS job characteristics ($p \leq 0.00$; $d = 0.64$). The staff members obtained significantly higher mean scores than the leaders on work/life policies ($p \leq 0.00$; $d = 0.64$; moderate).

Table 3.26.

Comparison of leaders' and staff's satisfaction with retention factors (RFS): t-test for independent means.

RFS		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-value	P-value	Cohen d for significant values only
Organisational Commitment	Leader	57	3.32	0.55	1.12	0.27	
	Staff	101	3.21	0.62			
Compensation	Leader	57	3.18	0.70	1.03	0.31	
	Staff	101	3.06	0.71			
Job characteristic	Leader	57	4.24	0.46	3.96	0.00	0.64
	Staff	101	3.86	0.76			
Training and development opportunities	Leader	57	3.28	0.73	-0.19	0.85	
	Staff	101	3.31	0.75			
Supervisor support	Leader	57	3.58	0.84	-1.54	0.12	
	Staff	101	3.80	0.82			
Career opportunities	Leader	57	2.84	0.63	-1.60	0.11	
	Staff	101	3.01	0.63			
Work/life policies (balance)	Leader	57	2.80	0.89	-4.16	0.00	0.67
	Staff	101	3.41	0.88			
Intention to stay	Leader	57	3.74	0.86	0.26	0.80	
	Staff	101	3.70	1.08			
Total retention	Leader	57	3.30	0.45	0.01	0.99	
	Staff	101	3.30	0.50			

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

b) *Gender*

The RFS mean scores of males and females were examined in a similar manner. Table 3.27 indicates that the females obtained significantly higher mean scores than the males on work/life policies ($p \leq 0.02$; $d = 0.37$; small).

Table 3.27.

Comparison of male and female RFS mean scores: *t*-test for independent means.

RFS	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-values	P-value	Cohen d for significant values only
Organisational commitment	Male	76	3.19	0.62	-1.16	0.25	
	Female	82	3.30	0.57			
Compensation	Male	76	3.08	0.72	-0.36	0.72	
	Female	82	3.12	0.69			
Job characteristic	Male	76	4.06	0.70	1.12	0.26	
	Female	82	3.94	0.68			
Training and development opportunities	Male	76	3.28	0.69	-0.24	0.81	
	Female	82	3.31	0.79			
Supervisor support	Male	76	3.68	0.82	-0.58	0.56	
	Female	82	3.76	0.84			
Career opportunities	Male	76	2.90	0.622	-0.94	0.35	
	Female	82	2.99	0.643			
Work/life policies (balance)	Male	76	3.01	0.86	-2.30	0.02	0.37
	Female	82	3.35	0.96			
Intention to stay	Male	76	3.72	0.99	0.10	0.92	
	Female	82	3.71	1.020			
Total retention	Male	76	3.26	0.48	-1.05	0.29	
	Female	82	3.34	0.48			

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

c) Race

Race groups were found to be equally likely to be leaders or staff members. The differences between the race groups regarding retention factors were examined by means of an ANOVA test. Table 3.28 shows that African employees obtained significantly higher mean scores than the Indian, Coloured and White participants on career opportunities ($p \leq 0.05$; $d = 0.66$, moderate). African employees further obtained significantly higher mean scores than the other racial groups (Indian, Coloured and White) on work/life policies ($p \leq 0.05$; $d = 0.73$; moderate). On both of these aspects, White employees scored significantly lower than the other racial groups.

Table 3.28.

Comparison of the RFS mean scores of race groups: ANOVA

RFS	Race	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	P-value	Partial Eta Squared	Cohen d for significant values only
Organisational Commitment	African	36	3.48	0.60	2.50	0.06	0.05	
	Indian	18	3.18	0.63				
	Coloured	23	3.29	0.70				
	White	78	3.16	0.54				
Compensation	African	36	3.06	0.67	1.78	0.15	0.03	
	Indian	18	2.85	0.82				
	Coloured	23	2.98	0.87				
	White	78	3.22	0.63				
Job characteristics	African	36	3.88	0.86	1.71	0.17	0.03	
	Indian	18	4.17	0.39				
	Coloured	23	3.79	0.59				
	White	78	4.07	0.68				
Training and development opportunities	African	36	3.53	0.68	1.83	0.14	0.04	
	Indian	18	3.31	1.06				
	Coloured	23	3.35	0.66				
	White	78	3.18	0.69				
Supervisor support	African	36	3.94	0.87	1.28	0.28	0.03	
	Indian	18	3.67	0.80				
	Coloured	23	3.70	0.99				
	White	78	3.62	0.76				
	Indian	18	3.22	0.53				
	Coloured	23	3.27	0.56				

Career opportunities	African	36	3.21	0.56	2.94	0.04	0.06	0.66
	Indian	18	2.91	0.64				
	Coloured	23	2.93	0.63				
	White	78	2.83	0.64				
Work/life policies (balance)	African	36	3.53	0.78	3.06	0.03	0.06	0.73
	Indian	18	3.26	1.17				
	Coloured	23	3.23	1.01				
	White	78	2.98	0.87				
Intention to stay	African	36	3.89	0.83	1.16	0.33	0.02	
	Indian	18	3.57	1.17				
	Coloured	23	3.42	1.11				
	White	78	3.75	1.01				
Total retention	African	36	3.46	0.47	1.63	0.19	0.03	
	Indian	18	3.22	0.53				
	Coloured	23	3.27	0.56				
	White	78	3.26	0.44				

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

d) Age

The differences between the age groups were examined by means of an ANOVA test and the results are presented in Table 3.29. For the purpose of this analysis, the age group (55+) was combined with the 46-55 group as there were too few respondents in this group to allow reliable analysis. Table 3.29 shows that the < 25 years age group obtained significantly higher mean scores than the other age groups (25-35, 36-45 and 46+) on job characteristics ($p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.63$; moderate).

Table 3.29.

Comparison of the RFS mean scores of age groups: ANOVA.

RFS	Age	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F-value	P-value	Partial Eta Squared	Cohen d for significant values only
Organisational commitment	< 25 years	14	3.03	0.46	1.73	0.16	0.03	
	25-35 years	72	3.34	0.61				
	36-45 years	53	3.16	0.61				
	46+ years	17	3.36	0.55				
Compensation	< 25 years	14	2.87	0.62	1.21	0.32	0.02	
	25-35 years	72	3.05	0.73				
	36-45 years	53	3.23	0.67				
	46+ years	17	3.12	0.77				
Job characteristic	< 25 years	14	3.64	1.11	4.25	0.01	0.08	0.63
	25-35 years	72	3.86	0.60				
	36-45 years	53	4.20	0.63				
	46+ years	17	4.18	0.63				
Training and development opportunities	< 25 years	14	3.44	0.76	0.23	0.88	0.00	
	25-35 years	72	3.26	0.75				
	36-45 years	53	3.30	0.75				
	46+ years	17	3.31	0.73				
Supervisor support	< 25 years	14	3.73	0.94	0.14	0.93	0.00	
	25-35 years	72	3.75	0.86				
	36-45 years	53	3.67	0.79				
	46+ years	17	3.65	0.77				
Career opportunities	< 25 years	14	3.17	0.65	1.76	0.16	0.03	
	25-35 years	72	3.01	0.58				
	36-45 years	53	2.82	0.66				
	46+ years	17	2.84	0.71				

Work/life policies	< 25 years	14	3.46	0.98	2.33	0.08	0.04	
	25-35 years	72	3.32	0.86				
	36-45 years	53	2.93	0.99				
	46+ years	17	3.12	0.89				
Intention to stay	< 25 years	14	3.57	0.77	0.83	0.48	0.02	
	25-35 years	72	3.73	1.06				
	36-45 years	53	3.62	1.05				
	46+ years	17	4.04	0.75				
Total retention	< 25 years	14	3.22	0.42	0.27	0.85	0.01	
	25-35 years	72	3.32	0.49				
	36-45 years	53	3.28	0.50				
	46+ years	17	3.35	0.46				

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

e) Business unit

The differences between business units were also examined by means of an ANOVA test. Table 3.30 shows that the Investments business unit obtained significantly higher mean scores than the other business units (Retail, Institutional, Shared services, and Multi manager) on job characteristics ($p \leq 0.05$; $d = 0.55$; small). The Institutional business unit further obtained significantly higher mean scores than other business units on work/life policies ($p \leq 0.01$; $d = 0.78$; moderate).

Table 3.30.

Comparison of the RFS mean scores of business units: ANOVA.

RFS	Business Unit	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	P-value	F-value	Partial Eta Squared	Cohen d for significant values only
Organisational commitment	Investments	39	3.12	0.57	1.47	0.21	0.04	
	Retail	59	3.35	0.62				
	Institutional	16	3.19	0.63				
	Shared services	31	3.19	0.53				
	Multi-manager	11	3.50	0.69				
Compensation	Investments	39	3.12	0.74	0.32	0.87	0.01	
	Retail	59	3.07	0.73				
	Institutional	16	3.00	0.64				
	Shared services	31	3.21	0.63				
	Multi-manager	11	3.06	0.89				
Job characteristics	Investments	39	4.21	0.66	2.43	0.05	0.06	0.55
	Retail	59	3.80	0.79				
	Institutional	16	3.91	0.53				
	Shared services	31	4.06	0.46				
	Multi-manager	11	4.16	0.81				
Training and development opportunities	Investments	39	3.31	0.77	0.75	0.56	0.02	
	Retail	59	3.40	0.73				
	Institutional	16	3.23	0.54				
	Shared services	31	3.12	0.81				
	Multi-manager	11	3.29	0.77				
Supervisor support	Investments	39	3.68	0.83	0.22	0.93	0.01	
	Retail	59	3.73	0.94				
	Institutional	16	3.58	0.81				
	Shared services	31	3.81	0.67				
	Multi-manager	11	3.65	0.68				

Career opportunities	Investments	39	2.90	0.65	1.30	0.27	0.03	
	Retail	59	3.05	0.64				
	Institutional	16	3.03	0.50				
	Shared services	31	2.75	0.65				
	Multi-manager	11	2.89	0.64				
Work/life policies (balance)	Investments	39	2.94	0.93	3.72	0.01		
	Retail	59	3.32	0.86			0.09	0.78
	Institutional	16	3.63	0.74				
	Shared services	31	2.83	0.99				
	Multi-manager	11	3.57	0.89				
Intention to stay	Investments	39	3.69	1.02	0.97	0.43	0.03	
	Retail	59	3.78	1.02				
	Institutional	16	3.69	0.78				
	Shared services	31	3.47	1.14				
	Multi-manager	11	4.12	0.64				
Total retention	Investments	39	3.26	0.50	0.44	0.78	0.01	
	Retail	59	3.35	0.52				
	Institutional	16	3.27	0.42				
	Shared services	31	3.24	0.45				
	Multi-manager	11	3.40	0.41				

*** $p \leq 0.001$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; * $p \leq 0.05$ (two-tailed)

3.3.5 Decisions about research hypotheses

The objectives of the study were: (1) to determine whether staff and leaders differ significantly in terms of their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) to investigate the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors and; (3) to determine whether demographical groups differ significantly in terms of the retention factor variables.

The results provide support for the H1 hypothesis (staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors), which is accepted. The H2 hypothesis (there is a significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors) is accepted and the H3 hypothesis (individuals from

different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly in terms of retention factors), is accepted.

3.4 DISCUSSION

In this section the statistical analyses will be discussed in more detail.

3.4.1 Staff and leaders' perception of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors

The RSF variables (organisational commitment, compensation, training and development, supervisor support, career opportunities and job opportunities) related positively and significantly to the staff rating of the ECP variables of emotional literacy, self-esteem, self-motivation, change resilience and interpersonal relationships. This suggests that the staff participants considered emotional competencies important from a retention perspective.

The significant positive relationship observed between the retention factors and the staff's perceptions of their leaders' emotional competence (current behaviour) suggests that the leaders' emotional intelligence significantly influenced their satisfaction with these retention factors. Leaders indicated higher levels of satisfaction than staff with the retention factor job characteristics, which suggest that the group of leaders who participated in the study seem to consider their jobs to be more complex and that they require high level skills in order to perform these jobs.

The emotional competence of leaders was rated through self-assessments and by staff. Self-motivation (current behaviour) was the only dimension that was perceived significantly differently by the staff and leader participants. Leaders had a significantly higher score than what the staff members rated them. It might be that the nature of management roles requires an individual to be more self-motivated. Emotional literacy and self-management were indicated to be of less importance to staff members when compared to what leaders thought. This suggests that the leaders placed more emphasis on emotional literacy and self-management compared to staff.

3.4.2 Relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

The dominant profile of the sample of participants was ESTJ. Research by De Beer (1997) in South Africa confirmed the EJ, ET, IJ and IS as the most common personality types amongst Black and White South Africans. Coetzee et al. (2006) conducted a study that found the EJ, ET, IJ and IS types predominant in the sample of leaders. In the current study, the dominant ESTJ profile and in particular the high mean scores on thinking (T) and judging (J) personality types, suggested that the group of leaders who participated in this study are highly task-focused, and that they favour creating logical order and structure in the organisation. The leaders seem to be fact-minded and practical organisers who are assertive, analytical and systematic. The ESTJ personality type has an innate urgency to complete tasks (Coetzee, 2005).

Efficiency, high standards and competence are valued by thinking-judging types. The thinking-judging types are objective and “hard-headed” and tend to spend less attention and energy on people-related behaviours, which are needed to effectively manage and lead people (Myers et al., 2003). Extraversion-sensing types are active, realistic doers. This combination is the most practical of all the types (Coetzee, 2005).

The results of the current study displayed a positive relationship between the MBTI personality preferences extraversion (E) and introversion (I), with the ECP leader self-ratings of self-motivation and interpersonal relationships. The positive relationship implies that the leaders who were extraverts were more likely to score themselves higher on self-motivation and interpersonal relationships than those who were introverts. The MBTI personality preferences of thinking (T) and feeling (F) related positively with the RFS variable of supervisor support. This suggests that participants' satisfaction with supervisor support was significantly influenced by the TF preference. The positive correlation suggests that the more likely a manager is to utilise the feeling preference, the higher the staff's satisfaction with their supervisor's level of support.

Leary, Reilly and William Brown (2009) conducted a study to assess the strength of the relationship between emotional intelligence and personality types. They found that the most powerful associations were between the extraversion/introversion dimension and the Bar-On's Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQI) and its components. Leary et al. (2004) further found that the positive and significant results for the extraversion and feeling types were consistent with

the view that emotional intelligence is related to the ability to accurately perceive and manage relationships.

Numerous studies have been conducted on the overrepresentation of South African leaders who prefer the thinking-judging type on the MBTI (Coetzee et al., 2006; Coetzee, Fouché, Rothmann & Theron, 2000; Du Toit, Coetzee & Visser, 2005). A study conducted by Coetzee et al. (2006) showed introverted (I) types to be more emotionally competent than the extraverted (E) types, possibly due to their introspective and quiet nature. The introverts (I) seemed more in control of their emotions and therefore more emotionally competent, while extraverted (E) types appeared to have higher levels of confidence.

The RFS variable of job characteristics correlated with the judging-perceiving MBTI personality preferences. This suggests that the more a leader is perceiving (P) instead of judging (J), the higher the satisfaction with job characteristics. An individual with a perceiving preference acts in a spontaneous, flexible manner and aims to understand life and adapt to it (Lawrence, 1993). Leaders who are flexible and adapt to their jobs might be more satisfied than those trying to control events.

In the current study, the sensing-intuitive personality type preference related positively with the leaders' self-ratings of the ECP variable of change resilience, which suggests that self-rated emotional competencies are significantly influenced by the sensing-intuitive MBTI personality type. This suggests that leaders who are intuitive (N) are more likely to score themselves higher on change resilience than those who prefer the sensing (S) type.

Richmond, Rollin and Brown (2004) conducted a study in which they found that emotional intelligence competencies, specifically relationship-building, are more important to the success of a leader than typical leadership competencies such as financial planning and market orientation. A study conducted by Coetzee et al. (2006) suggests that the apparent lack between the MBTI personality preferences and the ECP could be attributed to the use of preferred dominant functions and emotional competencies, as well as the balanced use of all four mental functions (Myers et al., 1998; Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

The psychometric limitations of the MBTI might have contributed to the lack of a strong and comprehensive relationship between the MBTI and the ECP (Higgs, 2001). Comparing the

result obtained through ipsative and normative instruments could have further influenced the outcome of the results (Coetzee et al., 2006). Apart from change resilience, self-esteem and interpersonal relationships, there was no significant relationship between the MBTI personality preferences as rated by leaders and the ECP variables.

3.4.3 Demographical groups and retention factors

Staff members, especially females in the Institutional business unit, seemed to consider a work/life balance very important. This suggests that these participants seem to prefer work schedules that do not conflict with their personal lives. Mooney (2010) states that women feel challenged to balance work life and home life. Marcinkus, Whelan-Berry and Gordon (2007) conducted a study in 2007 that concluded that women receive more personal social support than work-based social support. Work-based social support and personal social support was positively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Work/life balance may mediate the relationship between social support and work outcomes (Marcinkus, Whelan-Berry & Gordon, 2007).

The African participants considered career opportunities and work/life balance important. In a study conducted by Bontis, Richards and Serenko (2011), the results indicated that autonomy and challenging work contribute to employee satisfaction. The age groups younger than 25 years seemed to consider job characteristics an important aspect of retention. The quality of the jobs of this age group can be compared along three dimensions, namely opportunities for learning or to use skills, social interaction and using initiative and autonomy (Greenberger, Steinberg & Ruggiero, 1982).

Skills use seems to be critical in teenage employment (Mortimer, Pimentel, Ryu, Nash & Lee, 1996). Youth as young as 13 years of age do complex work (Entwisle, Alexander, Steffel & Ross, 1999). Teen work seems to be largely routine work as most youth jobs occur in the lower level (Garson, 1988). Young workers are less satisfied with their jobs in general when compared to older workers (Krahn & Lowe, 1988). It was found that young workers in poor quality employment (few opportunities for use of skills or learning) are more cynical and less motivated to ensure that they do good work (Stern, Stone, Hopkins & McMillon, 1990). The Investment business unit considered job characteristics to be important, which suggest that participants in

this business unit want to perform jobs of a complex nature that require them to use their initiative and specialist skills.

3.5 CONCLUSIONS

Based on the results obtained in this study, it is concluded that the findings presented useful insights into the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors, which may contribute to organisational retention practices in the South African context. The conclusions are discussed in more detail in chapter 4.

3.6 LIMITATIONS

A comprehensive overview of all of the limitations identified will be provided in Chapter 4. The results of the study were obtained from a small sample of participants in the asset management industry, which limits the generalisability of the findings. A non-probability purposive sample was used, which further reduced the sample size and minimised the generalisability of the findings.

3.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations will be elaborated on in more detail in Chapter 4. The findings of the study confirm the existence of significant differences between the various demographical groups regarding the retention factors. The information provides a useful framework for retention practices within the South African multi-cultural context. It is recommended that future researchers replicate this study to include a more balanced representation of the different biographical groups.

There is a need for more research concerning leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors, specifically within the multi-cultural South African context. Further studies may help to ascertain what can be implemented to more effectively retain employees.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter concludes the dissertation. In the first section of the chapter, conclusions are drawn. A discussion of the limitations of the current study follows and the final section of the chapter contains recommendations for retention practices in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

4.1 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE DEFINED OBJECTIVES

The focus of this section is the formulation of research conclusions regarding the literature review and the empirical study.

4.1.1 Conclusions regarding the literature review

The general aims of this research were: (1) to determine whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors; (2) to explore the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors; and (3) to determine whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding the retention factor variables. The general aim was achieved by addressing and achieving the specific aims of the research. In the sub-sections below, conclusions are drawn about each of the specific aims.

4.1.1.1 The first aim: to conceptualise personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors from a theoretical perspective.

This aim was achieved in chapter 2. The following conclusions were drawn regarding the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors:

a) Conclusions about personality types

Myers (1987) states that a personality theory must portray and explain people as they are. Jung (1990) developed a personality theory that suggests two attitudinal orientations, namely introversion (I) and extraversion (E), as well as four psychological functions, namely sensing (S)

or intuitive (N), and thinking (T) or feeling (F). Myers and Briggs (Myers, 1987) included two additional orientations that relate to the way people approach their outer world in terms of judgment or perception, labelled as judging (J) and perceiving (P) (Myers, 1987). When these orientations and functions are combined, there are sixteen different personality types (Myers, 1987).

The core variables influencing personality types are occupational context (Martins & Coetzee, 2007), attitudinal orientations (Kets de Vries, 2001; Sieff & Carstens, 2006), gender (Myers & Myers, 1980), race (De Beer, 1997), cultural values and expectations (Myers & Kirby, 1994), environmental influences (Roberts, 2009) and individual factors (Myers & Kirby, 1994).

It is clear from the literature study that personality predicts leader effectiveness (Judge et al., 2002a) and relates to subordinate attitudes (Smith & Canger, 2004). Personality predicts leadership style (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). Leader behaviours directly influence attitudes and behaviours of employees (Peterson et al., 2003) and ultimately relate to employee retention, as high quality relationships and satisfaction with a leader will make it difficult to leave the organisation (Mossholder et al., 2005).

b) Conclusions about emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence assists individuals in negotiating their way through interpersonal exchanges and regulates their emotional experiences (Coetzee et al., 2006). Emotional competence implies a positive inner state of being and an ability to competently, creatively and confidently adapt in an unstructured, unsure and changing socio-cultural environment (Wolmarans & Martins, 2001).

Wolmarans and Martins (2001) categorise emotional intelligence into seven clusters of emotional competencies labelled as emotional literacy, self-esteem/self-regard, self-management, self-motivation, change resilience, inter-personal relations and integration of the head and heart.

c) Conclusions regarding talent retention factors

Retention can be described as initiatives taken by employers through the use of factors that influence the retention of employees and can be considered in the design of interventions to keep employees from leaving organisations (Cascio, 2003; Döckel, 2003). The retention of key productive employees is a significant challenge, both locally and internationally, with major cost implications for the organisation, both directly and indirectly (Tanton, 2007). Retention factors can be seen as factors that encourage organisational commitment and thus increase the retention of employees (Döckel, 2003). Döckel (2003) identified six critical factors that must be considered in the retention of employees. These six factors are compensation, training and development, supervisor support, job characteristics, career opportunity and work/life policy.

d) Conclusions about the theoretical relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors

According to the literature, it can be concluded that there is a theoretical relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Leaders' personality types and emotional intelligence appear to have an influence on retention factors.

4.1.1.2 The second aim: to theoretically determine (based on a review of the literature) the role of gender, race and age groups and business units on personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

This second aim was realised in chapter 2. The literature indicates that various biographical variables (gender, race and age groups and business units) influence personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

4.1.1.3 The third aim: to conceptualise the implications of the theoretical relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors for retention practices in the South African organisational context.

This aim was achieved in chapter 2 (the literature review), which provided an overview of personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

4.1.2 Conclusions regarding the empirical study

The empirical study was designed to answer three research questions. The research aims of the empirical study were as follows:

- 1) To investigate whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors;
- 2) To investigate the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors as manifested within a sample of respondents within the South African asset management industry.
- 3) To investigate whether groups from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding the retention factor variables.
- 4) To formulate recommendations for the practice of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and further research, based on the findings of this study.

Based on the results, the H1 hypothesis (staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors) is accepted. The H2 hypothesis (which states that there is a significant relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors) is accepted and the H3 hypothesis (which states that individuals from different gender, race and age group and business units differ significantly in terms of retention factors), is accepted.

4.1.2.1 The first empirical aim: To investigate whether staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors.

The first empirical aim involved an empirical investigation of whether staff and leaders differed in terms of their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors within the asset management industry. Four specific conclusions were reached in terms of this research aim. These conclusions are discussed below.

- a) Conclusion 1: Leaders have higher levels of satisfaction than staff with the retention factor job characteristics.

The group of leader participants seemed to consider their jobs to be complex and to require high level skills to complete these jobs. They perceived themselves to be using a greater sense of initiative and feel that they are given independence and freedom in doing their jobs.

- b) Conclusion 2: Retention factors significantly relate to leaders' emotional intelligence according to staff ratings.

Emotional competencies (emotional literacy, self-esteem, self-motivation, self-management, change resilience, interpersonal relationships and integration of head and heart) of leaders as rated by staff related significantly to the retention factor variables of organisational commitment, compensation, job characteristics, training and development, supervisor support, career opportunities and intention to stay. This suggests that emotional intelligence among leaders is critical for the retention of employees. Work/life balance is significantly influenced by leaders' self-motivation.

- c) Conclusion 3: Leaders perceive themselves to be highly self-motivated and regard self-motivation as important.

The group of leader participants seemed to consider self-motivation as an important part of their jobs. They seemed to think that leaders need a greater sense of self-motivation than staff in order to be successful in their roles.

- d) Conclusion 4: Staff members consider emotional literacy and self-management of less importance than leaders.

The staff participants consider the ECP variables of emotional literacy and self-management of less importance, while leaders place more emphasis on these variables.

4.1.2.2 The second empirical aim: To investigate the relationship dynamics between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors in the South African asset management industry.

The second empirical aim involved an empirical investigation of the relationship dynamics between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors in a sample of respondents employed in the South African asset management industry. Four specific conclusions were reached in terms of this research aim. These conclusions are discussed below.

- a) Conclusion 1: The personality preference of extraversion and introversion are significantly related to leaders' self-ratings of self-motivation and interpersonal relations.

Leaders' self-rated emotional competencies seemed to be significantly influenced by the extraversion–introversion MBTI personality types, which suggests that managers who are extraverts are more likely to rate themselves higher on self-motivation and interpersonal relationships than those who are introverts.

- b) Conclusion 2: The thinking-feeling personality types are significantly related to the retention factor of supervisor support.

Supervisor support was significantly influenced by the thinking-feeling personality type preferences. The positive correlation suggests that the more likely a manager is to be the feeling type, the higher the staff's satisfaction with their supervisor support will be.

- c) Conclusion 3: The personality preference of judging-perceiving are significantly related to the RFS variable of job characteristic.

Satisfaction with job characteristics was significantly influenced by the judging-perceiving MBTI personality type. The correlation suggests that the more a leader is perceiving instead of judging, the higher their satisfaction with the retention factor job characteristics will be.

- d) Conclusion 4: The personality preference of sensing and intuition are significantly related to the self-ratings of change resilience.

The leaders' self-rated emotional competencies were significantly influenced by the sensing-intuitive MBTI personality type which suggests that leaders who are intuitive are more likely to score themselves higher on change resilience than those who prefer the sensing type.

4.1.2.3 The third empirical aim: To investigate whether individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly with regards to retention factors.

The third empirical aim involved an empirical investigation of the relationship dynamics between gender, race and age groups and business units with regards to retention factors in a sample of respondents employed in the South African asset management industry. Four specific conclusions were reached in terms of this research aim. These conclusions are discussed below.

- a) Conclusion 1: Staff members, especially females and individuals in the Institutional business unit, indicate higher levels of satisfaction than leaders, male employees and individuals in other business units with the retention factor work/life policies.

Staff members, especially females in the Institutional business unit, seemed to consider a work/life balance to be very important and this was evidenced by this study as they scored higher on the work/life balance variable when compared to the leaders, male employees and other business units. It appears that females prefer work schedules that do not conflict with, or have a negative effect on their personal lives. Females also play various different roles (mother, employee and wife), which can contribute to their reasoning that a work/life balance is important.

- b) Conclusion 2: African employees seem to be significantly more satisfied with the retention factors than Indian, Coloured and White employees and obtained significantly higher mean scores than Indian, Coloured and White employees regarding career opportunities and work/life policies.

The African participants seemed to consider career opportunities more important than any other racial group in the study. Promotions and internal opportunities seemed to be important to the African participants, and should these needs be fulfilled, the employee might remain in the employment of the organisation. Work/life policies seemed to be more important to African employees than the other participants.

- c) Conclusion 3: The age group of younger than 25 years seem to be significantly more satisfied with the retention factor job characteristics than their older counterparts.

Younger participants seemed to consider job characteristics as more important than other age groups. They are usually at the start of their career and it may therefore be important to them to do work in line with their qualifications.

- d) Conclusion 4: The Investments business unit seem to be significantly more satisfied with their job characteristics than other business units.

The Investment business unit is the heart of an asset management organisation. This department consists of Research Analysts, Portfolio Managers, Dealers and Economists. The type of work individuals perform in this department is considered very important to the individuals. They want to do work that is complex in nature and that requires initiative and autonomy.

4.1.3 Conclusions regarding the central hypothesis

Based on the findings of the present study, the central hypothesis is herewith accepted. The central hypothesis of the study stated that staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions on leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors. Evidence was provided for the existence of a relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and

retention factors, and the different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly regarding the retention factors.

4.1.4 Conclusions regarding the contribution of this study to the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology

Both the findings from the literature review and the empirical results have contributed definite new knowledge to the fields of both Industrial and Organisational Psychology and in particular to organisational retention practices.

The literature review provided considerable insight into personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. In particular, the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors provided valuable new knowledge that may be used to develop organisational retention practices within the asset management industry.

The literature review provided considerable insight into the various different personality types and emotional intelligence, which in turn related to whether employees would stay within an organisation or leave their employment. In particular, the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors provided valuable new knowledge, which may be used to inform organisational retention practices.

The conclusions drawn from the literature review indicate that practitioners should understand the models, theories and principles underlying personality types and emotional intelligence when working within the field of organisational retention practices. Demographical differences are also important to keep in mind, especially within a multi-cultural organisational context.

The results of the empirical study provide new insights regarding the relationship between leaders' personality type, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Therefore, organisations should focus on employing leaders with various different personality types and with high emotional intelligence levels, which could contribute to the retention of employees. Development sessions must be held with leaders in order to highlight their strengths and weaknesses. Recommendations around development plans must be made in order to assist them in dealing with their weaknesses and optimising their strengths in order to contribute to the retention of employees.

4.2 LIMITATIONS

The limitations of the literature study and empirical investigation are outlined below.

4.2.1 Limitations of the literature review

The literature review was limited by the lack of previous research regarding the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors, especially within the South African context. The study and concepts were approached only from specific paradigms and theories. It was therefore difficult to support and integrate findings from different researchers.

Theoretical models do not clarify the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors and therefore Industrial and Organisational Psychologists lack knowledge about the theoretical relationship between these three variables. The relationship dynamics between personality types and emotional intelligence of leaders, retention factors, and the implications of the relationship for organisational retention practices are not fully known.

4.2.2 Limitations of the empirical study

The findings of the empirical study have limited generalisability and practical applicability. These limitations are a result of the research design, which included the use of a non-probability sample that was small in size. A larger sample within the asset management sector and across different industries may produce a broader distribution of scores. The sample mainly consisted of White employees with a small representation from other racial groups, specifically Coloured and Indian employees.

The sample also mainly consisted of individuals from the Investments and Retail business units aged between 25 and 45, which is considered a limitation. Another limitation regarding the sample was that it was split between leaders and staff members, which limited the size of the sample, as there were only 160 participants in total for both groups. Future research should thus focus on expanding this study to include a more balanced representation of the different demographical groups in a variety of organisations and across various sectors.

There was limited representation of the leaders across all 16 MBTI personality types, which can be seen as a limitation of the study. Specific measures were used to assess the variables, and it is recommended that different inventories are used to investigate the relationship between the variables. The study was conducted during a period of change in the business, which could also have influenced the results.

4.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations for Industrial and Organisational Psychology and further research in the field, based on the findings, conclusions and limitations of this study, are outlined in the sections below.

4.3.1 Recommendations regarding retention practices

- 1) Industrial psychologists should use the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Emotional Competency Profiler (ECP) in leadership development to create an awareness of individual strengths and weaknesses.
- 2) Organisations should attempt to employ leaders across the sixteen different personality types, which will ensure representation of different strengths and weaknesses throughout the organisation. These leaders can contribute individually to retention practises.
- 3) Organisations should consider focusing on providing employees with creative solutions around work/life policies, especially females and African employees, as these groups consider this retention factor (work/life policies) as important. The reason females place importance on this factor could be due to the multiple roles that females are required to play which include wife, mother and employee, as well as various other roles.
- 4) Organisations should develop the following MBTI personality preferences in leaders who lack these as part of leadership development, which will influence the retention of employees:

- Feeling personality type leaders, as staff members relate better to this personality type preference and consider leaders with the feeling type to be more supportive and approachable in the working environment;
 - Perceiving personality type leaders, as leaders' satisfaction regarding job characteristics is influenced by this preference.
 - Intuitive personality type leaders, as this personality type preference relate to change resilience.
- 5) More mobility opportunities should be created for African employees as they consider this an important retention factor. Internal promotions and growth opportunities are therefore critical aspects of the retention of African employees. Career paths should be developed to ensure that African employees have a clear development plan, which in turn will discourage them from seeking opportunities elsewhere.
- 6) Young employees enjoy roles that require complex and high-level skills. They consider an opportunity to work independently and to use their initiative as important. As employees under the age of 25 are usually employed in entry-level roles, additional projects or a wider scope of work are important to retain them. Should the company require individuals to work on a project, these individuals (under 25 years of age) should be involved in the project. This will provide them with exposure to other parts of the organisation while at the same time retaining them as their sense of responsibility and exposure to different work scenarios increase.
- 7) Investment Professionals (Research Analysts, Portfolio Managers, Traders and Economists) consider the type of work they do to be very important. These individuals must be challenged, and the nature of their roles must contain a level of complexity that will keep them challenged. Job characteristics retain these professionals.
- 8) Organisations should include emotional intelligence in their leadership development programmes as it was found that the emotional competencies of leaders are significantly related to employees' satisfaction with retention factors.

4.3.2 Recommendations for further research

The study provided some insight regarding the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. Recommendations for further research in the field of Industrial and Organisational Psychology are outlined below.

In order to enhance external validity, future research efforts should focus on obtaining a larger representative sample, across various occupational groups and sectors. It is recommended that future researchers replicate this study as it was limited by the small sample of leaders who participated and the fact that the sample was restricted to a single company. Future research should focus on expanding this study by broadening the sample to include a more balanced representation of individuals from different leader and staff categories and demographical variables (gender, race and age groups and business units).

The results were further limited by the choice of sampling methodology. Different inventories can be used to investigate the relationship between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors.

There is a need for more research concerning personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors, specifically within the South African context. Further studies would be useful in organisational retention practices. The results of these studies could assist organisational psychologists in providing guidance to organisations in implementing retention practices that will lead to a decrease in turnover.

4.4 INTEGRATION OF THE RESEARCH

This study investigated the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors. The results suggest that a relationship does, indeed, exist between these variables and that this relationship may inform organisational retention practices.

Talent is becoming increasingly important in organisational success (Hiltrop, 1999). Fishman (1998) states that the demand for talent will increase and the supply will decline, with the consequence being a war for talent. It is therefore becoming increasingly important for companies to retain skilled and talented employees in order to maintain their competitive

advantage. Losing such employees will result in a loss of investment as new employees will have to be hired and trained.

In conclusion, the findings of the study revealed a relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors and contribute valuable new insights that might be used to inform employee retention practices in the asset management industry. The knowledge gained regarding the relationship between personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors may also have practical implications for retention practices. It is believed that this research will inform organisational practices aimed at enhancing retention practices in the asset management industry.

Hypotheses accepted based on the findings of the research

H1: Staff and leaders differ significantly regarding their perceptions of leaders' emotional intelligence and retention factors



Leaders have higher levels of satisfaction than staff with the retention factor job characteristics.

Retention factors significantly relate to leaders' emotional intelligence according to staff ratings.

Leaders perceive themselves to be highly self-motivated and regard self-motivation as important.

Staff members consider emotional literacy and self-management of less importance than leaders.

H2: A significant relationship exists between leaders' personality types, emotional intelligence and retention factors



The personality preference of extraversion and introversion significantly relate to leaders' self-ratings of self-motivation and interpersonal relations.

The thinking-feeling personality types are significantly related to the retention factor of supervisor support.

The personality preference of judging-perceiving are significantly related to the RFS variable of job characteristic.

The personality preference of sensing and intuition are significantly related to the self-ratings of change resilience.

H3: Individuals from different gender, race and age groups and business units differ significantly in terms of retention factors.



Staff members, especially females and individuals in the Institutional business unit, indicate higher levels of satisfaction with the retention factor work/life policies.

African employees seem to be significantly more satisfied with the retention factors career opportunities and work/life policies.

The age group of younger than 25 years seem to be significantly more satisfied with the retention factor job characteristics.

The Investments business unit seem to be significantly more satisfied with their job characteristics than other *business units*.

- Industrial psychologists should use the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Emotional Competency Profiler (ECP) in leadership development to create an awareness of individual strengths and weaknesses.
- Organisations should attempt to employ leaders across the sixteen different personality types.
- Organisations should consider focusing on providing employees with creative solutions around work-life policies, especially females and African employees, as these groups consider this retention factor as important.
- Organisations should develop the following MBTI personality preferences in leaders who lack these as part of leadership development, which will influence the retention of employees:
 - Feeling personality type leaders, as staff members relate better to this type and consider leaders with the feeling type to be more supportive and approachable in the working environment;
 - Perceiving personality type leaders, as leaders' satisfaction regarding job characteristics is influenced by this preference.
 - Intuitive personality type leaders, as they relate to change resilience.
- More mobility opportunities should be created for African employees as they consider this an important retention factor.
- Young employees enjoy roles that require complex and high-level skills. They consider an opportunity to work independently and to use their initiative as important. As employees under the age of 25 are usually employed in entry-level roles, additional projects or a wider scope of work are important to retain them. Should the company require individuals to work on a project, these individuals (under 25 years of age) should be involved in the project.
- Investment Professionals (Research Analysts, Portfolio Managers, Traders and Economists) consider the type of work they do to be very important. These individuals must be challenged, and the nature of their roles must contain a level of complexity that will keep them challenged.
- Organisations should include emotional intelligence in their leadership development programmes, as it was found that the emotional competencies of leaders are significantly related to employees' satisfaction with retention factors.

Figure 4.1. Overview and summary of core conclusions and recommendations for employee retention practices

4.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the conclusions of both the theoretical and the empirical studies. Possible limitations of the study were also discussed, together with recommendations for future research. This research study is herewith concluded.

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