TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP: AN INVESTIGATION OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND SELF-EFFICACY AS SITUATIONAL MODERATORS IN THE HEALTHCARE INDUSTRY

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I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Jeff Sanders entitled "Transformational Leadership: An Investigation of Emotional Intelligence and Self-efficacy as Si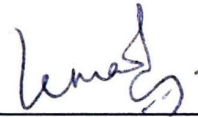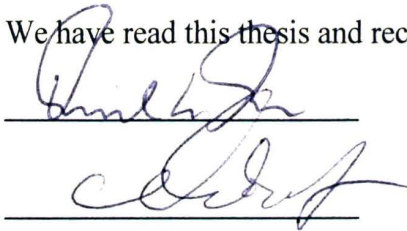tuational Moderators in the Healthcare Industry." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Industrial/Organizational Psychology.
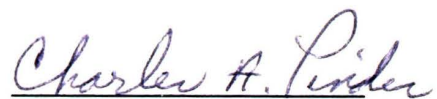
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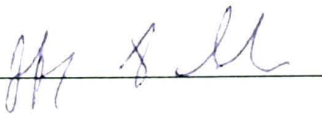
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Transformational Leadership: An Investigation of Emotional Intelligence and Self-

efficacy as Situational Moderators in the Healthcare Industry

A Thesis Presented for the

Master of Arts Degree

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Jacque Sanders, for all her love and patience during this stressful process. I would also like to dedicate this thesis to my two children, Gavin and Emma Sanders, for reminding me everyday about the importance of this project and earning an advanced degree. Finally, I would like to dedicate this thesis to my father, Alan Sanders, my mother, DeAnna Graves, and my stepfather, David Graves, for their support and unwavering confidence in all my academic endeavors.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The study of transformational leadership has spanned over two decades. During this time, numerous studies have found that the followers of transformational leaders are more committed to their organizations (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Bommer, 1996), exert extra work-related effort (Judge& Bono, 2000; Hetland & Sandal, 2003), display more organizational citizenship behaviors (Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995), and are more satisfied with and committed to their jobs (Bass, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988). Similar findings have been found in various countries, industries, and organizational levels. Because of the consistent results spanning a broad assortment of samples, many scholars view transformational leadership as a universal theory that produces positive outcomes in most organizational situations. However, as the research on transformational leadership continues to grow, it's important that situational variables—those variables that identify facets of the situation (e.g., subordinate traits, skills, and behaviors) that "moderate" the relationship between leader attributes and leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2003)—continue to be investigated to determine their impact on organizational outcome variables. To date, very few situational moderators have been explored within the transformational leadership domain.

Two possible moderators for subordinate satisfaction with transformational leadership may be emotional intelligence and self-efficacy. The purpose of the present study was to investigate whether different levels of subordinate emotional intelligence and/or self-efficacy moderated satisfaction with a supervisor who displayed a transformational leadership style. Additionally, the present study hoped to replicated past

findings that found transformational leaders to be more effective by their subordinates than transactional leaders. Participants for the current study included clerical, clinical, and managerial subordinates from a healthcare organization. Ratings of supervisor satisfaction and effectiveness were the dependent variables, emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were the moderating variables, and transformational and transactional leadership were the independent variables. To analyze the relationships among these variables, a Pearson product-moment correlation and a hierarchical multiple regression analysis were performed.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Transformational Leadership

Bass (1985, 2000; Bass et al., 2003) distinguishes between transactional and transformational leadership. Transactional leaders provide their subordinates with clear, well-structured directions as to the tasks they are responsible for completing (Bass, 1985). Those subordinates who execute their work requirements at a satisfactory level are rewarded with pay increases, recognition, and advancement, while those subordinates who do not are penalized or disciplined (Bass, 1990). This type of give and take relationship is an exchange process of subordinate reward for subordinate effort and performance (Pillai, Schriesheim, & Williams, 1999).

Transformational leaders on the other hand, inspire subordinates to transcend their own self-interests and "buy into" the long-term goals of the organization (Bass, 1990). Specifically, Bass (1985; 1999; Bass et al., 2003) proposed four components of transformational leadership that define the construct: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Leaders with high, *individualized influence* arouse a sense of trust, admiration, and respect from their subordinates. Subordinates relate to their leader and tend to emulate them. Leaders who *inspirationally motivate* their subordinates give them a vision of the future that allows for clearly communicated expectations of what the followers must do to meet the goals of this future vision. *Intellectual stimulation* involves creating an environment of innovation and creativeness. Subordinates are made aware of work related problems and are then encouraged to solve those problems in new and innovative ways. Finally, by

providing support and encouragement to subordinates, leaders with high, *individualized consideration* behaviors, increase the likelihood that subordinates will actively support their vision. Leaders with these behaviors allow for subordinates to achieve greater potentials and perform more effectively.

In various organizational settings, supervisors who exhibit transformational leadership styles have been found to be more satisfying and effective by their peers and subordinates (Bass, 1990). For example, in a study involving a major U.S. delivery company, Hater and Bass (1988) found that transformational leadership characteristics were highly correlated with both subordinate satisfaction with leaders ($r = .88$, $n = 362$) and ratings of leader effectiveness ($r = .82$, $n = 362$). Moreover, within organizations, similar results have been found in other countries and among diverse levels of employees. To illustrate, Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) found that teachers in Singapore were more satisfied with principals who displayed transformational leadership qualities. In a more recent study involving 100 subordinate, mid-level Norwegian leaders from three public service institutions and two private production organizations, Hetland and Sandal (2003) found strong correlations between transformational leadership and both satisfaction with leadership ($r = .76$) and perceived effectiveness of leadership ($r = .79$). Therefore, with the strong relationship between both subordinates' satisfaction and effectiveness ratings of transformational leaders, this study hopes to replicate past findings in a healthcare setting and hypothesizes that:

H1a: Subordinates who perceive their supervisors as having transformational leadership styles will be more satisfied with their supervisor than subordinates who perceive their supervisors as having transactional leadership styles.

H1b: Subordinates who perceive their supervisors as having transformational leadership styles will rate their supervisors as more effective than subordinates who perceive their supervisors as having transactional leadership styles.

Situational Moderators of Transformational Leadership

As defined by Yukl (2003), a situational moderator is a variable that defines the boundaries for the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (it interacts with the independent variable in its relationship with the dependent variable). To date, a limited amount of research has been conducted on the situational moderators of transformational leadership. Howell and Avolio (1993) researched "support for innovation" as a moderator for performance and transformational leadership styles. Their results indicated that the more innovative subordinates were, the higher their performance level was if they had a leader who displayed transformational leadership qualities. Using the Substitutes for Leadership Model, Podsakoff et al. (1996) investigated general satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust, role clarity, role conflict, performance, altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue, and sportsmanship as moderators of transformational leadership styles. Their results indicated that "substitutes for leadership" variables did not act as moderators of transformational leadership styles. Namely, the "substitutes for leadership" variables failed to moderate satisfaction with transformational leadership. However, in another study, Wofford, Whittington, and Goodwin (2001) found significant evidence that subordinate growth need strength and

subordinate need for autonomy moderated subordinates' satisfaction with supervisors who were transformational leaders. In particular, those subordinates with high growth need strength rated transformational leadership styles as more effective and were more satisfied with their leaders than those subordinates with low growth need strength. However, Wofford et al. (2001) have indicated a need to study additional moderators of transformational leadership. Two such measures might be emotional intelligence and self-efficacy.

Emotional Intelligence

Because of its importance to the workplace, employee emotional intelligence has received a significant amount of recent attention. While some authors, using anecdotal evidence, have written at length about emotional intelligence (Gardner, 1999; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Tucker, 2000; Weisinger, 1998), other scholars (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2001; Schutte et al., 2002) have conducted extensive empirical research on the construct. Not surprisingly then, a wide range of definitions and dimensions of emotional intelligence have been proposed. For the purposes of this study, emotional intelligence is defined as "the ability to monitor one's own and other's feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189). Integrating the research conducted by Mayer, Salovey, and their colleagues (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), emotional intelligence is conceptualized as consisting of four branches: perceiving emotions, use/facilitation of emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions.

Individuals who are good at *perceiving emotions* are aware of (and have the ability to express) their own emotions and the emotions of those around them (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). As Zhou and George (2003) mention, "Some people are perfectly aware of how they feel and can express the emotions and feelings they experience, whereas others are either not aware or have difficulty accurately expressing their emotions and feelings" (p. 553). Individuals with the ability to distinguish between their own emotions and the emotions of those around them are able to *use/facilitate* their emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). As Salovey and Mayer (1990) indicate, individuals with high emotional intelligence are able to utilize their abilities to focus their attention on important issues and choose among competing and related options. *Understanding emotions* is characterized by the ability to understand the various stages and degrees of one's own emotions and an awareness of the transition from different levels of emotional states. Finally, Mayer and Salovey define the fourth dimension, *managing emotions*, as an individual's ability to regulate or control their emotions in various situations. As Jordan, Ashkanasy, and Hartel (2002) point out, individuals with the ability to manage their own emotions are able to disconnect from an emotion that isn't particularly useful in a given situation and connect to an emotion that may benefit a given situation. Whereas individuals with a high ability to regulate their emotions are able to control feelings in stressful situations, individuals with low regulating abilities are not.

Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership

A question of interest for this study is do the differing levels of subordinate emotional intelligence moderate the satisfaction they have with their supervisors who display transformational leadership characteristics? Given that the research into the areas

of emotional intelligence and moderators of transformational leadership is sparse,

possible links between the two constructs is limited. Keeping in mind that subordinates

from all levels of organizations, from various countries, and various industries have been

found to be satisfied with transformational leaders, subordinates both high and low in

emotional intelligence would be expected to have some level of satisfaction with a

transformational leadership style. However, as Bono and Judge (2003) point out,

"transformational and charismatic leadership theories have been framed to recognize the

affective and emotional needs and responses of followers" (p. 554)—indicating that such

relationships should be more satisfying for subordinates who are in touch with their

emotions and the emotions of those around them.

Another possible link between the two constructs is the fact that leaders who

display individualized consideration take the time to interact and learn more about their

subordinates' needs, concerns, and personal lives. An emotionally intelligent subordinate

(being able to distinguish that such communication patterns were of a more personal

nature) should have an added sense of satisfaction with a leader who takes a genuine

interest in their life. That is, between an emotionally intelligent subordinate and a

transformational leader, such a relationship would seem to elicit a more affectionately

communicative bond—leading to a satisfactory connection.

Also, in a study of job control as a moderator of emotional intelligence, Abraham

(2000) established that emotionally intelligent employees prefer more control in their job

decisions. Specifically, Abraham notes that "it is not sufficient to hire emotionally

intelligent employees, for them to thrive the environment must offer autonomy in

decision making" (p. 181). This connects nicely to a finding by Wofford, Whittington,

and Goodwin (2001) that need for autonomy predicts satisfaction with transformational leadership in that emotionally intelligent employees need and are more satisfied with more autonomy in their job. Conversely, subordinates with low emotional intelligence desire a more directive leadership style where goals and rewards are clear. This type of relationship would suggest that subordinates who are not emotionally intelligent would prefer transactional leaders rather than transformational leaders. Therefore, this study hypothesizes that:

H2:   emotional intelligence will moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and satisfaction such that the magnitude of the correlation between transformational leadership and the subordinate's satisfaction with their supervisor will be a function of the subordinate's emotional intelligence level.

Self-efficacy

Born from Social Cognition Theory, the concept of self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). More specifically, self-efficacy is the effort that an individual puts into a task that comes from previous mental processes (in which they weighed, evaluated, and integrated information), beliefs in their capabilities to mobilize the necessary motivation to complete a task, and the ability to complete their goals even in the face of difficult and situational demands (Bandura, 1986; Gist, 1987; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Self-efficacy is made up of three dimensions: magnitude, strength, and generality (Gist, 1987). Magnitude is the level of task difficulty a person believes he or she can attain (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). Strength refers to the degree of conviction that an

individual has in their belief that they can accomplish a given task (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). Simply put, strength is how strong the individual's judgment is about their magnitude (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Individuals with strong convictions about their magnitude would be expected to complete a task even under adverse conditions, while individuals with weak convictions about their magnitude would be expected to quit or fail on a task (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

Finally, generality is the extent to which a given level of self-efficacy is applied to different situations and tasks (Appelbaum & Hare, 1996). As Bandura (1986) describes, "people may judge themselves efficacious only in certain domains of functioning or across a wide range of activities and situations (p. 396). In particular, generality of efficacy beliefs refer to individual's estimations, based on past experiences, that they can mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action to successfully perform tasks in a variety of achievement situations (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). For the purposes of this study, self-efficacy will be conceptualized within an occupational domain, in that the focus will be on the efficacy levels of employees within their current occupation. This approach is positioned as more general than task-specific approaches to self-efficacy research and more specific than over-arching global approaches to self-efficacy research.

Because it can predict performance in a wide variety of tasks, from complex to simple, narrow to broad in scope, and in differing time frames (Wood, Atkins & Tabernero, 2000), the construct of self-efficacy has immediate and powerful ramifications for work and industry. For example, individuals with high levels of self-efficacy have been found to perform better on analytical skill development tasks (Earley

& Lituchy, 1991) and complex decision-making activities (Wood, Bandura, & Baily, 1990). Even more profound, for more difficult tasks or goals, workers with higher self-efficacy would be expected to try harder, while workers with low self-efficacy would be expected to put forth less effort or give up all together.

Self-efficacy and Transformational Leadership

Because transformational leaders have been found to be satisfying in numerous organizational environments (i.e. different countries, different industries, and among different hierarchical employee levels within organizations), a significant correlation between supervisor satisfaction and transformational leadership style would be expected, regardless of the level of subordinate self-efficacy. However, there seem to be more convincing arguments as to why highly efficacious subordinates would be more satisfied with transformational leaders than subordinates with low self-efficacy.

Transformational leaders inspire subordinates to challenge the way they have accomplished tasks in the past and to set their goals higher—to believe in the long-term vision of their organization (Bass, 1990; Bass, 1999). In most all cases, it would be expected that subordinates with generally high levels of self-efficacy would embrace these challenges and be intrinsically motivated to achieve higher goals than they had in the past. Because of their high efficacy levels, retreat from or intimidation by this vision would not be expected. Additionally, because transformational leaders are intellectually stimulating—have the ability and willingness to show individuals new ways of looking at old problems (Bass, 1990)—highly efficacious individuals would be expected to embrace such a vision and strive to complete a variety of projects by using new solutions. At the

very least, efficacious subordinates would be more stimulated by a strong leadership vision than subordinates with low efficacy.

Perhaps even more profound than the reasons for highly efficacious subordinates being more satisfied with transformational leaders, are the arguments as to why subordinates low in efficacy would be dissatisfied with transformational leaders. While it is probable that a significant proportion of subordinates with low self-efficacy would also embrace a future vision and achieve higher set goals by transformational leaders, because of their lower levels of magnitude (belief that they can actually attain these harder goals) and strength (strength of their magnitude) a greater majority of subordinates would lack the inspiration, motivation, and confidence to succeed. Bandura (1994) characterizes subordinates low in efficacy as having:

> low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties (p. 72).

The end result would be failure to achieve their loftier goals. Ultimately, the out-product of this type of failure sequence would be a general dissatisfaction with their supervisor.

In this same vein of reasoning, because individuals with low self-efficacy levels doubt their abilities to complete the tasks that make up their job, they prefer to complete tasks in a repetitive fashion—to maintain the status quo. A leader who attempted to inspire and challenge them to question the status quo may be seen as a threat to their survival within the organization. Again, the out-product of this type of friction between a

subordinate trying to maintain the status quo and a leader trying to inspire and motivate would be an unsatisfying relationship.

Finally, there doesn't seem to be strong evidence that transformational leaders are able to *increase* their subordinates' levels of self-efficacy. In a study of charismatic leadership (commonly characterized as the individualized influence dimension of transformational leadership), Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996) found that a strong future vision and vision implementation did increase subordinate self-efficacy. However, the effect sizes were too small to make any definite conclusions about the relationship. In another study involving the military, Shamir et al. (1998) found a negative relationship between leader charisma and subordinate self-efficacy. These studies indicate that transformational leaders may have only a minimal impact, if any at all, at raising their subordinate's levels of self-efficacy. While the inability to raise the efficacy levels of subordinates who are already highly efficacious would not seem to be profound, it may cause serious problems for low-efficacious subordinates. Subordinates with low self-efficacy would constantly be questioning their abilities and ultimately, failing tasks or goals as they became particularly difficult. If transformational leaders were not able to eventually raise their efficacy levels, a vicious cycle of failure in the face of high expectations would occur, causing an unsatisfying relationship for subordinate and leader. Given the preceding arguments, this study hypothesizes that:

H3:   self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between transformational leadership

and satisfaction such that the magnitude of the correlation between

transformational leadership and the subordinate's satisfaction with their

supervisor will be a function of the subordinate's self-efficacy level.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Participants

A total of 210 survey packets were distributed with 83 being returned for a return rate of 40%. Of the returned packets, five could not be used because of missing data. Participants for the study included 78 subordinate employees working in the healthcare industry. With two independent variables (emotional intelligence and self-efficacy), Harris (1985) notes that a minimum of 52 participants are needed to make significant predictions, indicating that the sample size of this study was sufficient. All the participants worked for a regionally owned healthcare facility with six individual sites located in the southern part of the United States. Among the participants, 92% were female and 8% were male with an overall mean age of 40 years. On average, all the participants had worked 3.58 years (42.9 months) for the supervisor they rated.

Measures

Transformational Leadership. Perceived transformational leadership was measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) 5X—short version (Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ 5X is a paper and pencil questionnaire that consists of 45 questions on a forced scale format with possible responses ranging from 0—not at all to 4—frequently, if not always. Scores provided by this instrument include four dimensions of transformational leadership: individualized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and a total score for transformational leadership. Additionally, the MLQ 5X provides scores for two dimensions of transactional leadership (management-by-exception and laissez-faire) and

a score for contingent reward. The MLQ 5X, which has been revised to address concerns from earlier versions, is the most widely used instrument to measure transformational leadership. Recent evidence has supported the convergent and discriminant validity of the MLQ 5X (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999). Additionally, with a sample of 3,786 participants, Avolio et al. (1999) confirmed a six-factor structure of the instrument. For the present study, the MLQ 5X had an internal consistency of alpha = .70. (see appendix A for sample questions from the MLQ 5X)

Emotional Intelligence. The emotional intelligence of subordinates was determined using the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS). The SEIS is a self-report, forced-item likert scale, with possible responses ranging from 1—strongly disagree to 5—strongly agree. The SEIS was constructed using the conceptualization of emotional intelligence by Salovey and Mayor (1990) who coined the term "emotional intelligence" and who continue to research the construct. Validity for the instrument comes from initial correlations found between the SEIS and measures of clarity of feelings and attention to feelings (Schutte et al., 1998). More recently, the SEIS correlated to measures of self-monitoring in social situations and empathetic perspective taking (Schutte et al., 2001). It should be noted that SEIS does not correlate highly with any of the big five factors—indicating that the SEIS is measuring a separate construct other than personality. Additionally, Schutte et al. (1998) reported an internal consistency of .87 to .90 and a test-retest reliability of .78. For the present study, the SEIS had an internal consistency of alpha = .79. (see appendix B for sample questions from the SEIS)

Self-efficacy. To determine the self-efficacy of subordinates, nineteen items from the Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF) were used (Schyns & Collani, 2002). The OCCSEFF is a paper and pencil, forced-item likert scale, with possible responses ranging from 1—completely true to 6—not at all true. To establish a generalized self-efficacy scale that would be applicable to a broad range of employees, Schyns and Collani (2002) took ten items from the General Self-efficacy Subscale, seven items from the Generalized Self-efficacy Scale, two items from the Hope Scale, and one item from the Heuristic Competence Scale. The items were then reformulated to address the occupational domain. Originally consisting of 20 items, after removing the second item in the scale, Schyns and Collani (2002) reported a Cronbach alpha score of .92. Additionally, the test-retest reliability of the OCCSEFF was found to be $r = .86$ for the complete scale and $r = .89$ after removing the second item. The construct validity of this scale was established by correlating it to other measures. The OCCSEFF was found to have a moderately strong correlation ($r = .67$) to the Work-related Self-efficacy Scale (Speier & Frese, 1997) and a moderately strong correlation ($r = .57$) to the General Self-efficacy scale (Sherer et al., 1982). Additionally, divergent validity was established as the results indicated the OCCSEFF to have a moderately strong negative correlation to the NEO-PI: Neuroticism subscale ($r = -.51$). For the present study, the OCCSEFF had an internal consistency of alpha = .95. (see appendix C for sample questions from the OCCSEFF)

Satisfaction with Supervisor. To determine how satisfied participants were with their supervisor, the Satisfaction with My Supervisor Scale (SWMSS) was used (Scarpello & Vandenburg, 1987). The SWMSS consists of 18 questions on a forced scale

format ranging from 1—strongly disagree to 5—strongly agree. From the original construction of the scale, Scapello and Vandenberg (1987) reported high convergent validity with another valid scale, with component validity ranging from .38 to .92. In a follow up study, Vandenburg and Scapello (1991) found the scale to have an internal consistency of .95 and a reliability coefficient of .78. For the present study, the SWMSS had an internal consistency of alpha = .79. (see appendix D for sample questions from the SWMSS)

Leader Effectiveness. A leader effectiveness scale was developed to determine how effective each subordinate felt his/her supervisor was. The leader effectiveness scale consists of four questions on a likert format ranging from 1—extremely effective to 5— not effective. Sample questions include: "How effective is your supervisor at meeting your job-related needs" and "Overall, how would you rate your supervisor's effectiveness." For the present study, the developed leader effectiveness scale had an internal consistency of alpha = .64. (see appendix E for additional sample questions from the Leader Effectiveness scale)

Finally, a demographic questionnaire was used to determine the age, gender, and the number of years each participant had worked for their rated supervisor.

Procedure

Subordinates received one packet containing the MLQ 5X to assess their perceptions of their immediate supervisor's leadership styles, the SEIS to assess their own emotional intelligence, the OCCSEFF to measure their self-efficacy, the SWMSS to measure their satisfaction with their immediate supervisor, a leader effectiveness questionnaire, and a general demographic questionnaire to determine their age, gender,

and the number of years worked under their rated supervisor. The packet included a cover sheet explaining the basic purpose of the study, how long on average it would take to fill out each instrument (approximately 25 minutes), what to do with the instruments and packet after completion, and the risks and benefits of participating in the study. Additionally, the cover sheet informed each participant that their participation in the study was voluntary, that they could stop at anytime, and that strict measures would be taken to ensure confidentiality. Reading, detaching, and placing the consent sheet inside the packet, established informed consent.

Meetings were arranged at each of the six locations of the healthcare organization to disperse survey packets. During these meetings, a brief introduction by the primary investigator and an explanation of the study ensued. At that time, steps were taken to reduce the effects of single-source bias (e.g. taking measures of the independent and dependent variables from the same participant). Social desirability, a common form of contamination from a single source, was reduced by informing participants that the study was anonymous and that they were not required to sign their name anywhere on any of the surveys or informed consent sheets. Second, it was explained to participants that there were no "right or wrong" answers and to be as "honest as possible" when filling-out the surveys. Combined, these steps helped reduce the contamination effects of single-source bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). Packets were then distributed to participating employees at each of the six sites. Upon completion of the instruments, participants were instructed to place the scales back into the packet, seal the packet, and mail the packet to the labeled address.

Analysis

Data collected for this study were interval, as all the scales were in a likert format ranging from 0 to 4 for the MLQ-5X, 1 to 5 for the SEIS, 1 to 6 for the OCCSEFF, 1 to 5 for the SWMSS, and 1 to 5 for the leader effectiveness scale. Upon completion, all measures were scored to arrive at a total score for each scale. After scoring, all raw data were inserted into a data processing program called SPSS 8.0. Data output from SPSS 8.0 included all descriptive statistics (e.g., measures of central tendency and standard deviations).

To test hypothesis 1a and 1b (that subordinates who perceived their supervisors as having transformational leadership styles would be more satisfied with [hypothesis 1a] and rate those supervisors as more effective [hypothesis 1b]), a Pearson product-moment correlation was performed. This involved correlating the total score and each of the four dimensions of the MLQ 5X with the total scores of both the SWMSS and the leader effectiveness scale.

To test hypotheses 2 and 3 (that subordinate emotional intelligence [hypothesis 2] and self-efficacy [hypothesis 3] would act as a moderator between transformational leadership and satisfaction with supervisor), a hierarchical regression analysis was performed (Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 1999). According to Wofford et al. (1999), the first step in this process is entering the data main effects terms for the moderating variable (emotional intelligence) and the independent variable (perceived transformational leadership) as a block. The second step is to enter the interaction terms as a block and look for a change in R^2 from step two over and above that of step one. Wofford et al. (1999) then point out that the statistical significance of the beta for each

interaction term is inspected to see if the interaction accounts for significant variance in the dependent variable (satisfaction with supervisor) above and beyond the variance of the main effects blocks. This process was also conducted in a separate analysis for the other moderating variable, self-efficacy. Following these two steps allows the primary investigator to determine if emotional intelligence and self-efficacy moderates subordinates' satisfaction for supervisors with transformational leadership styles.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

To replicate past findings that subordinates would be more satisfied with a supervisor who displayed transformational leadership styles, a Pearson r correlation was conducted. Subordinate ratings of satisfaction with supervisor had a strong positive correlation of ($r = .81$, $p < .01$) with a transformational leadership style. Calculating a coefficient of determination ($r^2 = .66$, $p < .01$) indicates that 66% of the variance in satisfaction with supervisor can be predicted by the supervisor's transformational leadership style. The individual dimensions were all strongly correlated to satisfaction with a range from ($r = .67$, $p < .01$) for intellectual stimulation to ($r = .74$, $p < .01$) for both individualized influence and individualized consideration. Subordinates satisfaction with supervisor and transactional leadership had an insignificant negative correlation of ($r = -.17$).

Additionally, a strong positive correlation of ($r = .69$, $p < .01$) was found between subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness and a transformational leadership style. Calculating a coefficient of determination ($r^2 = .48$, $p < .01$) indicates that 48% of the variance in ratings of supervisor effectiveness can be predicted by the supervisor's transformational leadership style. The individual dimensions were all strongly correlated to ratings of effectiveness with a range from ($r = .54$, $p < .01$) for intellectual stimulation to ($r = .68$, $p < .01$) for individualized influence. Conversely, an insignificant negative correlation ($r = -.14$) between subordinate ratings of leader effectiveness and a transactional leadership style were found. The means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables are listed in Table 1.

Means, Standard deviations, and Correlations among Study Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Transformational Leader Dimension																	
1. Transform (total)	10.87	2.72	**.70**														
2. IS	2.52	.81	.86**	--													
3. II	2.79	.71	.89**	.63**	--												
4. IM	3.00	.69	.86**	.61**	.77**	--											
5. IC	2.56	.87	.92**	.75**	.77**	.69**	--										
Transactional Leader Dimension																	
6. Transaction (total)	5.05	1.03	.03	-.04	.10	-.02	.06	--									
7. ME	1.68	.66	-.31**	-.29*	-.22	-.35**	-.24*	.68**	--								
8. LF	.63	.66	-.64**	-.54**	-.60**	-.56**	.45**	.45**	.31**	--							
9. CR	2.75	.82	.81**	.63**	.80**	.72**	.72**	.34**	-.22	-.49**	--						
Criterion Variables																	
10. SWS	70.15	13.96	.81**	.67**	.74**	.71**	.74**	-.17	-.46**	-.65**	.69**	**.79**					
11. LE	15.64	2.92	.69**	.54**	.68**	.62**	.63**	-.14	-.33**	-.62**	.60**	.79**	**.64**				
Moderator Variables																	
12. EI	127.51	9.09	.21	.18	.16	.30**	.12	-.16	-.20	-.11	.06	.23*	.20	**.79**			
13. SE	90.50	10.77	.25*	.13	.27*	.29*	.20	.05	-.10	.09	.20	.19	.29*	.52**	**.95**		
Demographics																	
14. Age	39.78	10.66	.22	.13	.31**	.18	.16	-.11	-.14	-.17	.14	.18	.14	.07	-.04	--	
15. MWS	42.87	46.17	.09	.05	.25*	.05	.08	-.01	-.08	-.14	.05	.13	.03	.08	.07	.43**	--

Note: Transform (total)—total score for transformational leadership, IS—intellectual stimulation, II—individualized influence, IM—inspirational motivation, IC—individualized consideration, Transaction (total)—total score for transactional leadership, ME—management-by-exception, LF—laissez-faire, CR—contingent reward, SWS—satisfaction with supervisor, LE—leadership effectiveness, EI—emotional intelligence, SE—self-efficacy, MWS—months working for supervisor, M—mean, SD—standard deviation. Bold items indicate alpha coefficients for transformational leadership dimension, satisfaction with supervisor, leader effectiveness, emotional intelligence, and self-efficacy.
N = 78, * p < .05, two-tailed, ** p < .01, two-tailed

To conduct an analysis with moderating variables, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed. The first step in this process is entering the data main effects terms for the moderating variable (emotional intelligence in analysis one and self-efficacy in analysis two) and the independent variable (perceived transformational leadership) as a block. When transformational leadership and emotional intelligence were entered, it resulted in ($\Delta R^2 = .660, p < .01$). The second step involved entering the interaction term of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence as a block and looking for a change in ΔR^2 from step two over and above that of step one. This interaction resulted in $\Delta R^2 = .012, p > .05$, which was not a significant change from transformational leadership entered by itself in step 1. A summary of the hierarchical regression analysis for emotional intelligence can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2

Hierarchical Analysis of Satisfaction for Transformational Leadership and Emotional Intelligence

Variables	Criterion		
	Satisfaction with Leadership		
Step 1	Beta	ΔR^2	t
Transformational leadership	.798	.660	11.59*
Emotional Intelligence	.061		.89
Step 2			
Transformational leadership x Emotional intelligence	-1.91	.672	-1.66

Note: *Transformational leadership entered by itself = p < .01. Transformational leadership x emotional intelligence was not significant. n = 78.

When the ratings of both the independent and dependent variables of a study are taken from a single participant, common source bias may exist (Avolio, Yammarino & Bass, 1991). In particular, previous studies have suggested that participants attempt to maintain a consistency in their responses, called consistency motif and/or answer questions in a socially desirable way (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Podsakoff, 2003). As previously noted, steps were taken before the study to reduce these bias effects. However, in taking a conservative approach to ensure that bias did not occur in the present study, Harman's one-factor test was used (a diagnostic post hoc test used to determine if bias occurred). Following the steps provided by Podsakoff and Organ (1986), the first step involves entering all the variables into a factor analysis and examining the unrotated factor solution. If only one factor emerges or one factor accounts for the majority of the variance, then common method variance is present. For this study's purposes, the six major variables were entered: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, emotional intelligence, self-efficacy, satisfaction with supervisor, and effectiveness of supervisor. From this analysis, three factors emerged with eigenvalues over 1.0. These results indicate that although a small amount of same-source bias may have been present, its impact on the correlations between transformational leadership and both satisfaction with supervisor and ratings of leader effectiveness was minimal if existent at all.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

Because of the consistent results spanning a broad assortment of samples, many scholars view transformational leadership as a universal theory that produces positive outcomes in most organizational situations. However, it's important that situational variables continue to be investigated to evaluate their impact on organizational outcome variables and determine if situations exist when transformational leaders are not seen as satisfying.

One goal of this study was to replicate previous research that transformational leaders are seen as more satisfying and effective than transactional leaders. Not surprisingly, hypothesis 1a was supported, as subordinates were more satisfied with their supervisors the more transformational their supervisors were. Additionally, those subordinates who were less satisfied with their supervisors found them to have more of a transactional leadership style. Hypothesis 1b was also supported in that the more transformational supervisors were the higher their scores were on leader effectiveness. Just the opposite was found for transactional leaders, as they received lower effectiveness scores. These results replicate numerous studies that have found transformational leaders to be more satisfying and effective than transactional leaders (Bass, 1990; Hater & Bass, 1988; Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995) and add to the research literature in that this study contained participants from a healthcare setting.

Another goal of this study was to investigate whether subordinate emotional intelligence and self-efficacy levels moderated satisfaction ratings for transformational leadership. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported as it was found that the level of

subordinates' emotional intelligence and self-efficacy did not moderate their satisfaction for a transformational leadership style. One explanation was the strong correlation between satisfaction with supervisor and transformational leadership ($r = .81$, $p < .01$). Regardless of their levels of emotional intelligence or efficaciousness, subordinates were satisfied as long as their supervisor displayed transformational leadership characteristics. Specifically, the existence of high emotional intelligence or self-efficacy did not explain any more of the variance in the relationship between satisfaction with supervisor and transformational leadership.

Implications

The present study was not able to locate any other published studies that investigated subordinate satisfaction with and ratings of effectiveness for transformational leaders in a healthcare setting. Therefore, these results reveal an additional organizational domain in which transformational leadership is applicable. Given the strength of the relationships between satisfaction/ratings of effectiveness and transformational leadership, healthcare settings would be advised to train their organizational leaders to supervise in a more transformational style rather than a transactional style.

The results of this study are also compelling for transformational leadership research in that many scholars have thought it to be a universal theory—applicable to nearly any situation. Indeed, with few exceptions (i.e., support for innovation, subordinate growth need strength, and subordinate need for autonomy), transformational leadership, in nearly all situations, has been found to be more satisfying and effective by subordinates. The results of this study are no different as the differing levels of

emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of subordinates did not make a difference on their satisfaction levels of transformational leaders.[1]

In their study, Wofford et al. (1999) indicate a need to "take transformational leadership out of the domain of universal theories and to begin both theoretically and empirically to treat it within a situational framework" (p. 209). However, the results of this study provide evidence that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy of subordinates would not fit into a situational framework.

Limitations

There are limitations of the present study. First, because the sample consisted only of healthcare workers who were mostly female (92%), a limitation of this study is that the results may not generalize to males in other industries. However, given that the healthcare industry in the United States is large and ever expanding, the results of this study are externally valid to a large sector of organizations that function in and make-up the US economy.

Second, because the participants of this study rated the perceived leadership style of their supervisors and the outcome variables of satisfaction and effectiveness, issues of common source bias may exist. However, steps before the surveys were distributed to participants were taken to alleviate these concerns (e.g., anonymity, explaining that there

[1] To confirm that emotional intelligence and self-efficacy were not moderating factors an additional satisfaction scale was used. The scale consisted of two items and was embedded in the MLQ 5X. This scale was not originally used because an instrument with more items and presumably more reliability was desired. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis was computed again using the two-item satisfaction scale to determine if any effects occurred. The results of this analysis indicated no significant changes in R^2. This lends further credibility to the finding that neither emotional intelligence nor self-efficacy had a moderating effect between satisfaction with supervisor and transformational leadership.

were no "right or wrong answers," and telling participants to be as "honest as possible" when filling out the surveys). Additionally, Harman's single-factor test was computed and revealed three distinct factors, indicating that the collected data were distinct and minimizes the chances of common variance bias. Finally, previous research has shown that the effects of this type of bias are not as serious of a problem when researching transformational leadership (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990). Taking all this information into account, it is unlikely that issues of common source bias had any impact on this study.

Future Research

Future research would be advised to pursue additional personality and motivational variables within the Industrial/Organizational Psychology domain to investigate their moderating relationship with transformational leadership. Another rich area of research might include evaluating variables at the organizational level. For example, when levels of organizational justice are varied, how do subordinates view transformational leadership? A third line of research may include researching additional outcome and moderating variables within healthcare settings.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Sample Questions from the

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire—Rater Form (5X-Short)

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts

2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate

3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious

4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards

5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise

6. Talks about heir most important values and beliefs

7. Is absent when needed

8. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems

9. Talks optimistically about the future

10. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her

11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets

12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action

13. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished

14. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose

15. Spends time teaching and coaching

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. 1995. MLQ multifactor leadership questionnaire. Redwood

City, CA: Mind Garden.

Appendix B

Sample Questions from the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems with others.

2. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.

3. Other people find it easy to confide in me.

4. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.

5. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.

6. Emotions are on of the things that make my like worth living.

7. I am aware of my emotions as I express them.

8. I expect good things to happen.

9. I like to share my emotions with others.

10. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.

11. I arrange events others enjoy.

12. I seek out activities that make me happy.

13. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.

14. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.

15. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.

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Appendix C

Sample Questions from the Occupational Self-efficacy Scale (OCCSEFF)

1. When I make plans concerning my occupational future, I can make them work.

2. When I set goals for myself in my job I rarely achieve them.

3. When unexpected problems occur in my work, I don't handle them very well.

4. I avoid trying to learn new things in my job when they look too difficult for me.

5. When something doesn't work in my job immediately, I just try harder.

6. I feel insecure about my professional abilities.

7. As far as my job is concerned I am a rather self-reliant person.

8. When something doesn't work well in my job, I give up easily.

9. I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in my job.

10. I can always manage to solve difficult problems that come up in my job.

11. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations in my job.

12. If I am in trouble at my work, I can usually think of something to do.

13. When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions.

14. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events in my job.

15. No matter what comes my way in my job, I'm usually able to handle it.

Schyns, B., & Collani, G. (2002). A new occupational self-efficacy scale and its relation to personality constructs and organizational variables. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 11*(2), 219-241.

Appendix D

Sample Questions from the Satisfaction with My Supervisor Scale (SWMSS)

1. The way my supervisor listens when I have something important to say

2. The way my supervisor sets clear work goals

3. The way my supervisor treats me when I make a mistake

4. My supervisor's fairness in appraising my job performance

5. The way my supervisor is consistent in his/her behavior toward subordinates

6. The way my supervisor helps me to get the job done

7. The way my supervisor gives me credit for my ideas

8. The way my supervisor gives me clear instructions

9. The way my supervisor informs me about work changes ahead of time

10. The way my supervisor follows through to get problems solved

11. The way my supervisor understands the problems I might run into doing the job

12. The way my supervisor shows concern for my career progress

13. My supervisor's backing me up with other management

14. The frequency with which I get a pat on the back for doing a good job

15. The technical competence of my supervisor

Scarpello, V., & Vandenburg, R. J. (1987). The satisfaction with my supervisor scale: Its

utility for research and practical applications. *Journal of Management, 13,* 447-

466.

Appendix E

Leader Effectiveness Questions

1. How effective is your supervisor at meeting your job-related needs.

2. How effective is your work group.

3. Meeting work deadlines.

4. Overall, how would you rate your supervisor's effectiveness.

VITA

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