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LEADERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND FOLLOWERS' OUTCOMES: AN EMOTIONAL CONTAGION PERSPECTIVE

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LEADERS' EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND FOLLOWERS'
OUTCOMES: AN EMOTIONAL CONTAGION PERSPECTIVE

Eman Helal Al Mansoori

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
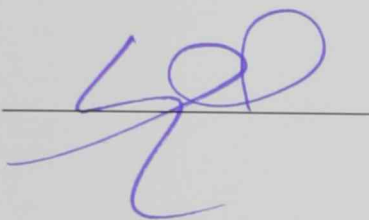of Doctorate of Business Administration

Under the Supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan

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Declaration of Original Work

I, Eman Helal Al Mansoori, the undersigned, a graduate student at the United Arab Emirates University (UAEU), and the author of this thesis entitled *"Leaders' Emotional Intelligence and Followers' Outcomes: An Emotional Contagion Perspective"* hereby, solemnly declare that this thesis is my own original research work that has been done and prepared by me under the supervision of Dr. Abdul Karim Khan, in the College of Business and Economics at UAEU. This work has not previously been presented or published, or formed the basis for the award of any academic degree, diploma or a similar title at this or any other university. Any materials borrowed from other sources (whether published or unpublished) and relied upon or included in my thesis have been properly cited and acknowledged in accordance with appropriate academic conventions. I further declare that there is no potential conflict of interest with respect to the research, data collection, authorship, presentation and/or publication of this thesis.

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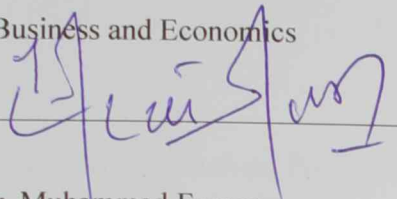
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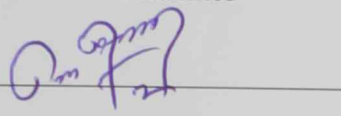
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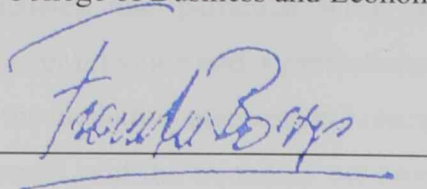
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Abstract

The purpose of the present study is to examine when and how leaders' emotional intelligence translates into particular work ou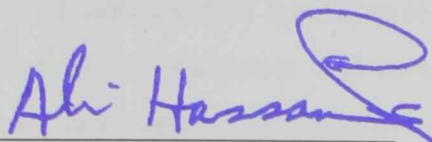tcomes for followers, namely job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment. Specifically, the study aims to identify the mediating mechanism between leaders' emotional intelligence and followers' outcomes, and the boundary conditions associated with this relationship. Accordingly, this study examines "emotional contagion" as a moderator variable that influences leader affect and follower affect in order to measure the participants' susceptibility to emotional contagion. Accordingly, if leaders can communicate positive affect to their followers, then the followers' positive affect should result in more positive attributions of leadership and better organizational outcomes. The findings of the current study suggest that emotional intelligence plays a significant role in leaders' success in the workplace: leaders' emotional intelligence and affect at work relate to their subordinates' work attitudes and behaviors. The study hypotheses are based on Affective Events Theory and emotional contagion theory, which provide in-depth understanding of the role of leaders' emotional intelligence in the Arab world, particularly in the UAE context. A quantitative methodology is used to test the hypotheses and to answer the research questions. The data are acquired from organizational leaders and their employees in various UAE government and public sector organizations. The study contributes to the literature on emotional intelligence and in the UAE context by testing the extent to which leaders' emotional intelligence engenders negative and positive affect in followers, which subsequently impacts on followers' work attitudes and behaviors.

Keywords: Emotional intelligence, follower behavior, job satisfaction, turnover intention, organizational commitment, positive and negative affect, emotional contagion, affective events theory.

Title and Abstract (in Arabic)

الذكاء العاطفي عند القادة ونتائجة لدى المرؤوسين: منظور العدوى العاطفية

الملخص

الغرض من هذا البحث هو دراسة متى وكيف ينعكس الذكاء العاطفي عند القادة ليصبح نتائج عمل محددة لدى المرؤوسين، أي الرضى الوظيفي، ومعدلات الدوران الوظيفي، والالتزام المؤسسي. وتهدف الدراسة بشكل خاص إلى تحديد الآلية التي تلعب دور الوسيط بين الذكاء العاطفي عند القادة والنتائج التي يحققها المرؤوسون، والشروط الحديَّة المرتبطة بهذه العلاقة. وبناء على ذلك، تبحث هذه الدراسة "العدوى العاطفية" كمتغيّر مُعدّل يؤثر في رغبة القائد ورغبة المرؤوس لقياس مدى قابلية المشاركين للتأثر بالعدوى العاطفية. وبناء على ذلك، إذا استطاع القادة إيصال أثر إيجابي لمرؤوسيهم، فإن الرغبة الإيجابية للمرؤوسين تُؤدي إلى نتائج مؤسسية أفضل.

وتشير نتائج هذه الدراسة إلى أن الذكاء العاطفي يلعب دوراً هاماً في نجاح القادة في مكان العمل: فلذكاء العاطفي للقادة وأثره يرتبط بمواقف وسلوكيات مرؤوسيهم في العمل. وتستند افتراضات الدراسة إلى "نظرية الأحداث المؤثرة" ونظرية العدوى العاطفية، اللتان تقدمان فهماً معمقاً لدور الذكاء العاطفي للقادة في العالم العربي، وخاصة في إطار دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة. وقد استُخدمت منهجية الكمية لاختبار الفرضيات وللإجابة على أسئلة البحث. وقد تم الحصول على البيانات من قادة المؤسسات وموظفيهم في العديد من المؤسسات الحكومية ومؤسسات القطاع الخاص في دولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة. وتُساهم الدراسة في الأدبيات التي تتناول الذكاء العاطفي وفي إطار الدولة الإمارات العربية المتحدة، وذلك عبر اختبار المدى الذي يؤدي فيه الذكاء العاطفي لدى القادة إلى مشاعر ورغبات إيجابية أو سلبية لدى المرؤوسين، مما يؤثر بالتالي على مواقف المرؤوسين وسلوكياتهم في العمل .

مفاهيم البحث الرئيسية: الذكاء العاطفي، سلوك المرؤوسين، الرضى الوظيفي، الدوران الوظيفي، الالتزام المؤسسي، الرغبات الإيجابية والسلبية، العدوى العاطفية.

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I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Dr. Abdul Karim Khan for his continuous support of my study and related research, for his patience, motivation, enthusiasm, and immense knowledge. His guidance helped me in all the time of research and writing of this thesis.

I would also like to thank my committee for their guidance, support, and insightful comments throughout the preparation of this dissertation. I am especially grateful to Prof. Mohammed Madi , Dr. Rihab Khalifa and Dr.Amain for invaluable inputs and for steering me in the right direction.

Last but not the least, my parents, sisters and friends deserve a special mention, for their unending encouragement and for standing by me throughout my doctoral journey.

Dedication

To my beloved husband and children, who always believed in me, sometimes more than I personally do, my extended family, my coach, and friends specially Dr. Yasmin AlMehairi for being the wind beneath my wings and strengthening my resolve in making my big academic dream a successful reality.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

AET	Affective Events Theory
BC-LLCI	Bias-Corrected Lower-Level Confidence Interval
BC-ULCI	Bias-Corrected Upper-Level Confidence Interval
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CLF	Common Latent Factor
CMB	Common Method Bias
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	Emotional Quotient
FEC	Follower Susceptibility to Emotional Contagion
FEI	Follower Emotional Intelligence
FJS	Follower Job Satisfaction
FNA	Follower Negative Affect
FOC	Follower Organizational Commitment
FPA	Follower Positive Affect
FTI	Follower Turnover Intention
LEI	Leader Emotional Intelligence
LNA	Leader Negative Affect
LPA	Leader Positive Affect
OEA	Emotion Appraisal of Others
PANAS	Positive and Negative Affect Scale
ROE	Regulation of Emotion
SEA	Self-Emotion Appraisal
UOE	Use of Emotion
WLEIS	Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

Chapter 1: Introduction

Each person possesses a positive energy and the real leader is the one who can provide the right environment for that energy. Your responsibility is to utilize the tacit knowledge of your teams and to strengthen positive interactions for all to engage in spreading happiness and positivity.

Sheikh Mohammed Bin Rashed (WAM, 2018)

The context for this study is the United Arab Emirates (UAE) workforce, which is poised for a growth in dynamism with the expansion of both the domestic and international frontiers of the financial systems in the oil and information technology industries. The UAE have been looking for various human resource initiatives to increase employee satisfaction in the workplace. One institution that has rolled out such an initiative is the UAE University, which established the first Happiness Research Institute in partnership with the National Program for Happiness and Positivity. In the context of happiness, leaders play an important role in promoting the happiness and positive emotional state of their followers. The emotional expressions of leaders influence the attitudes, cognitions, affective states and behaviors of followers (Koning & Van Kleef, 2015). This study is significant because it aims to explore the influence of a leader's emotional intelligence (EI) on followers' work, their work behaviors and their attitudes and to examine the underlying mechanisms between leader emotional intelligence levels and employee outcomes.

EI has long been recognized as an advantageous skill for numerous professionals, hence leaders and followers have been analyzed in this regard. The present study is a mediated moderation empirical study (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006; Preacher & Hayes, 2008), which examines when and how

leaders' EI translates into followers' work outcomes, such as job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment. The purpose of this study is therefore to identify the mediating mechanisms between leaders' EI and followers' outcomes, and the negative and positive affect conditions associated with this relationship. Therefore, the study specifically tests the extent to which leader EI stimulates negative and positive affect in followers, and how it subsequently impacts on followers' work attitudes and behaviors. Furthermore, this study investigates "emotional contagion" as a moderating variable, one of the means by which leader affect influences follower affect and outcomes, since the connection between these variables remains under-researched.

Various studies by EI researchers such as Austin, Saklofske, and Egan (2004) have suggested that emotions are influenced by a number of national variables. Because most of the research on EI has been carried out in the United States of America or some other Western environment, the present study will endeavor to augment academic knowledge by conducting its research in the UAE work environment. The EI studies that have been written with a focus on Western countries are important in eliciting the construct. However, since emotions and intelligence are classified as social constructs, the results of these studies cannot automatically be applied or generalized elsewhere in the world. Thus, there is too little empirical support for studies asking how leaders with EI influence their followers' work outcomes and offering unique and effective contributions for workforce sector bodies in the UAE. There is a significant gap in EI research in the UAE work environment, as there is still very limited understanding by cross-cultural researchers of how the nature and attitudes of the people of the Middle East influence their workplace behaviors. The

present study aims to bridge this gap by focusing on a non-Western organization in the UAE with predominantly non-Western employees.

1.1 Overview and Background of the Research Problem

The concept of EI was popularized by Goleman in 1995 in the course of a comparison with the more outmoded concept of intelligence quotient (IQ). The EI of organizational leaders has for a very long time attracted much scholarly interest with respect to follower performance outcomes, and this can be traced back to McClelland's (1973) study that compared the distinctive competencies of average employees with those of exceptional employees. Previous research has established that the professional and personal success of individuals can be determined by measuring their cognitive shrewdness (e.g., IQ), (Kumar & Singh, 2013). Other scholars have established that the capabilities and skills of EI are strategic influencing factors on the success of leaders (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011; Davis, 2011; Dodd & Brown, 2011).

According to Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2003), resourceful, charismatic and capable managers are in a position to motivate and lead employees, unlike ineffective managers, who have a tendency to create a stressful and insecure environment for their followers. Chhabra and Mohanty (2013) found that leaders of the latter kind suppress innovation and reduce productivity in their organizations. Njoroge and Yazdanifard (2014) and Singh (2013) indicated that the EI levels of managers determine their ability to recognize intrapersonal emotions and how they react toward their followers. This is because EI consists of a set of theoretically correlated psychological process that incorporate effective information processing (Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts, 2004). Mayer and Salovey (1997) added that these processes embrace the understanding of emotions, the adaptation of emotions in thought, the expression and

appraisal of emotions, and the management and regulation of emotions. However, as Nixon, Harrington, and Parker (2012) noted, further research is necessary for the purpose of comprehending the relationships among EI skills, performance, and leadership. In their own study, Nixon et al. (2012) applied standardized EI measures for the purposes of evaluating the self-reported skills and EI capabilities of managers. They found that the more effective leaders were those who were better equipped to understand and apply emotional information about the social relationships in a given organization, because they were in a position to identify and comprehend the emotional interactions within that organization (Al-Bahrani, 2017). Other scholars have examined and established the significance of leadership and its impacts on organizational performance, with similar findings. A limited number of studies have also explored employee discernment in relation to their managers, including EI and how it influences or even affects their performance, job satisfaction and overall motivation.

An understanding of EI and its impacts on personnel and on an organization as a whole is paramount, because it defines an individual, at least in part, as an emotional intellect (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). EI denotes the ability of emotions to augment thoughts and the capacity to comprehend and expound emotions (Mayer et al., 2002); its scientific importance lies, therefore, in its ability to monitor the emotions of individuals, to discriminate among them and to apply these emotions for the purposes of guiding the actions and thinking of individuals (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI has also been characterized as an aptitude for detecting gradations of emotional reactions, and for reading and understanding the social contexts of other people. Such knowledge can be used to influence others through emotional control and regulation (Melita Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2004). These definitions of EI

combine to offer a practicable modern definition of EI and help in ascertaining the information processing of emotions as an indispensable antecedent of the regulation of emotions (Zeidner et al., 2004).

Some studies on leadership effectiveness and EI have, according to Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), emphasized the transformational-transactional model (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001), and leadership effectiveness (from the standpoint of Bass and Avolio, 1994). The significance of these studies is evident from their clarification of the correlation between leadership and EI. However, irrespective of their significance, these studies suffer from a particular weakness: they fall short of examining the objective indices of leadership performance. In that regard, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) expressed their reservations that researchers could positively determine EI to be allied to genuine leadership instead of to perceived performance. Emmerling and Goleman (2003) noted that the scientific evidence for EI continues to suggest the existence of patterns of abilities and traits that are not fully accounted for by contemporary measures of personality and cognitive intelligence, despite the promise of the EI concept. Zeidner, Matthews, and Roberts (2004) explained the urgent need for rigorous taxonomic research to identify the pertinent EI measures that best evaluate these ideas and that govern and define the EI construct for the performance of specific jobs.

1.2 Problem Statement in the UAE Context and Purpose of the Study

A common challenge for leaders in modern organizations is how to achieve meaningful and successful emotional engagement with their followers in order to achieve better organizational results, such as better employee performance, minimal

employee turnover, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Law, Wong, and Song (2004) noted that this phenomenon has prompted many organizations to re-examine their present and modern leadership practices for the purposes of ensuring that their employees maintain their commitment and engagement in the workplace. This move might turn out to be complicated for contemporary leaders, because followers tend to display divergent behaviors, attitudes and values, and to expect rapid career advancement (Faloye, 2014; Harvey & Dasborough, 2015; Kilber, Barclay, & Ohmer, 2014; Lyons & Kuron, 2014; Waikar, Sweet, & Morgan, 2016).

Moreover, as Fredrickson (2003a) observed, the positive emotions that are articulated by leaders in organizations may also turn out to be contagious because of leaders' positions in the organizational power hierarchy. This argument was analyzed by Sŷ, Côté, and Saavedra (2005) in their recent study, where they established that a correlation existed between the moods of leaders and their workgroup members, the dimensions of group performance, and the affective tone of the group members. In this connection, Sooley (2016) claimed that the characteristics of managers and leaders can have a critical impact on followers' emotional contagion outcomes, and on employee and organizational performance (Buky Folami, Asare, Kwesiga, & Bline, 2014; Verma & Tiwary, 2014). The present study therefore seeks to establish whether the characteristics of the EI of leaders affect their followers' work outcomes from the perspective of emotional contagion. Since there is a gap in the experimental literature as regards the effects of leaders' EI on followers' emotional contagion outcomes, this study will strive to add the research knowledge that the EI literature requires to address these limitations, evaluating leaders' EI and followers' outcomes from the emotional contagion viewpoint.

Specifically, the purpose of this quantitative study is to examine when and how leader EI translates into follower work outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. The study aims to identify the mediating mechanism between leader EI and follower outcomes, and the boundary conditions associated with this relationship. The findings will contribute to the enhancement of EI theory, offer support to the body of literature on the impacts of leader EI on follower EI, and help to investigate EI in the UAE context. Furthermore, this study draws on the vision of the UAE's leadership and their commitment to making the UAE one of the happiest nations in the world. It is in line with the National Program for Happiness and Positivity, which encourages leaders to generate a positive culture within their organizations to create a workforce with the highest possible levels of happiness and well-being, and to fulfill the UAE's aim of being among the happiest counties globally (National Program for Happiness, 2019).

This study also tests the extent to which leader EI can engender negative and positive affect in followers, which will subsequently impact on follower work attitudes and behaviors. Accordingly, this study investigates "emotional contagion" as one of the means by which leader affect influences follower outcomes. Emotional contagion is a transfer of affect between persons that is thought to occur through unconscious and automatic mechanisms (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1992). Accordingly, if leaders can communicate positive affect to their followers, then the followers' positive affect should result in more positive attributions of leadership and better organizational outcomes.

1.3 Research Questions and Objectives

This study explores the role of a leader's EI on the work attitudes and behaviors of his/her followers. The mediatory role of positive and negative affect in the workplace will also be tested, since both are significantly mediated in the relationship between the EI of the leader and the job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work turnover intention of his/her followers. Given the lack of empirical studies evaluating the roles of EI from this perspective, this study will contribute to knowledge of leader EI as antecedent of a positive work affect in both the private and the public sectors. It will do so by means of a quantitative methodology.

This study also asks whether the EI levels of leaders influence follower job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment in the UAE public sector. It seeks to clarify the theory of EI and to add to the body of EI research by assessing whether a leader's levels of EI affect his/her followers, and by determining the effects of EI in the UAE private and public sectors. The study considers whether leaders with higher EI levels influence their followers' job satisfaction and turnover intention and, consequently, UAE public sector organizational commitment.

1.4 Research Questions

This study asks the following questions:

1. How is leader EI related to employee work outcomes?

2. In what conditions is the relationship between EI and employee work outcomes strengthened or weakened?

3. Do positive and negative affects mediate the relationship between EI and work outcomes?

1.5 Research Objectives

In view of the research questions set out above, the major objectives of this research are to highlight and subsequently fill the gap between theory and practice in terms of investigating leader EI and follower outcomes from the perspective of emotional contagion. Accordingly, this study adopts the following objectives:

1. to extend knowledge in the UAE context, through focusing on leader EI competencies and their function in creating a positive work environment;

2. to improve understanding of the impact of positive and negative affect at work and their relationship to follower work attitudes and behaviors;

3. to trace the antecedents of leader EI that lead to a positive work environment and outcomes.

1.6 Applicability and Significance

The significance of this study is that it will be used to assess the EI of both leaders and followers in the UAE workforce. The study will therefore highlight the value of EI in affecting organizations in a positive way, informing the work of, for example, the UAE University's Happiness Research Institute, in collaboration with the UAE National Program for Happiness and Positivity. The work of Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) indicates that this study will contribute to affective events theory (AET), specifically in terms of the behavior of the leader as an affective event. The study is also expected to contribute to knowledge of the UAE organizational context through measurement of the EI of UAE leaders and by establishing that the EI levels of leaders influence their followers' job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment within UAE organizations. It will clarify the perspective in the body of EI research that transfers the effects of leaders' EI levels to their

followers, and it will help to determine the effects of EI in subordinates' attitudes and behaviors within UAE public sector bodies. Organizations should take account of follower affect so that they are aware of its possible impacts on follower outcomes; in some cases, the transfer of leader affect to colleagues may have a detrimental impact on an organization and its followers.

A review of existing studies on EI (most of which are considered by scholars to be inadequate) suggests that leaders with high levels of EI create positive human behaviors and positive work attitudes. High levels of EI on the part of leaders are believed to allow followers to appreciate good work performance and work attitudes; leaders also have the capacity to expedite ideal performance levels in their followers by managing emotional levels so as to achieve more ingenuity, increased confidence and greater resilience on the part of followers. Most scholars have concentrated on the relationships between leader EI and the subsequent success of employees and organizations, thus neglecting other critical aspects of EI, such as follower work outcomes, and without taking account of emotional contagion (Grant, 2013; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008; Zysberg, 2012). Most of these studies were piloted using student sample populations in laboratory conditions and applying mixed methodology models whose reliability is unclear (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006). Instead of applying the more impartial measures necessary for reliable and valid findings, most of them employed self-report methods and processes. Hence, the present study sets out to fill these EI research study gaps, particularly by focusing on how the EI of organizational leaders affects the outcomes of their followers from the emotional contagion perspective. The study also focuses on employee perceptions of managers' EI in regard to employee job satisfaction, turnover intention and organization

commitment; again, these are issues that have not been adequately addressed by previous scholars in their EI research.

The present study also explores large areas where little or no EI research exists, thereby adding to the existing body of research knowledge (discussed in Chapter 2). The creation of successful organizations depends on how EI affects followers' behaviors and attitudes from the perspective of emotional contagion (Lopes, Salovey, Côté, Beers, & Petty, 2005). Accordingly, this study investigates how leader EI affects follower outcomes from an emotional contagion standpoint in the context of the UAE public workforce. It thus adds valuable knowledge to the growing body of EI research and assists in the refinement of EI theory and the understanding of emotional contagion in the UAE workplace. Assimilation of the theoretical and concrete implications of this study will help improve the EI research field by supplementing the small but important body of research on the role of emotional contagion and affect in compelling leadership. It will also add value to EI research by scrutinizing the role of follower predisposition to emotional contagion. The interactions between a leader and a follower may function as an effective event, impacting the behavior, attitude and affect of followers when a leader expresses a negative or a positive affect in front of them (Barsade, 2002).

It also necessary to advise leaders on the probable impact of their articulated affects, thus reassessing and reaffirming the positive effects of EI in the influence of leaders on followers, especially in the public sector. The findings of the present study will become part of the growing understanding of EI, which will increase the significance of the theory behind the effects of EI in the UAE workplace. Significantly, the study will draw its material from the UAE public sector to understand successful organizational parameters in terms of the Happiness Index, one of the UAE's National

Key Performance Indicators. Therefore, this study will contribute to the UAE organizational performance indicators and will demonstrate whether the development of EI competencies among leaders can predict positive outcomes in UAE organizations. It will clarify the significance of follower affect in relation to organizational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention, in addition to probing and observing the value of the affect conveyed by leaders on the outcomes of their followers.

This study will also ascertain whether leaders with higher EI levels influence the job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment of their employees in the UAE public sector. A number of studies have shown that organizational leaders who achieve an understanding of the role played by EI are subsequently able to have a beneficial impact on their followers' job engagement, strong working relationships and the emotional needs of their followers (Palmer & Gignac, 2012). It is important to put the UAE public services in a better position to develop effective training programs for integrating EI, and to provide them with leaders who have a better comprehension of EI and its effects on the behaviors and attitudes of followers (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, Tam, & Brauburger, 2002). If leader affect is likely to influence the efficacy of an organization through its impact on follower affect, it is vital for organizations to understand this influence and how they can harness it for their own purposes.

1.7 Thesis Plan (Summary by Chapter)

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 has introduced the study by identifying the key aspects of the context, describing the background and giving an overview of the research problem, stating the research questions, aims and objectives,

and explaining the applicability and significance of the research study. This chapter has also identified the relevant research variables: EI, follower outcomes, job satisfaction, turnover intention and organization commitment. These variables make it possible to provide an overview of the research, identifying fundamental concepts and theories, and expanding and developing the theories supporting them.

Chapter 2 reviews the literature with regard to leader EI and follower outcomes, providing definitions of key terms and deliverables. It explores the emotions of followers from the contagion perspective and assesses to what extent they impact follower job satisfaction, turnover intention and organization commitment.

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology of the study, explaining its research strategy, theoretical framework and research design. The chapter also provides details of the selection criteria for participants, the structure of the survey and the ethical aspects of the study.

Chapter 4 presents the results obtained from the survey, interviews and statistical data analysis. Chapter 5 provides detailed discussion of the results of the study. Chapter 6 sets out the theoretical and practical implications of the findings and reviews the limitations of the study in order to make recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Human behavior flows from three main sources – desire, emotion and knowledge.

Plato

This chapter will review the scholarly literature and locate the current research within the existing body of knowledge. Hence, the main purpose of this chapter is to present the literature on the dimensions of EI and emotional contagion and to build a theoretical framework. Thus, studies reviewed are classified into themes/constructs, beginning with the concept of EI, and continuing with its history and importance and its effects on work attitudes and behaviors, eventually constituting a conceptual framework for the present study.

2.1 Emotional Intelligence: Overview and Conceptualization

EI has been a subject of debate for many years. Academicians, philosophers and scientists have long grappled with the question of EI and its impact on human behavior. Bar-On, Browne, Kirkcaldy, and Thome (2000) noted that the concept of EI is based on the wider construct of social intelligence (SI) from the original definition of SI by psychologist Edward Thorndike in 1920 ("the ability to understand and manage men and women and boys and girls to act wisely in human relations. P 414"). As far back as the 1930s, Thorndike proposed three types of intelligence: (1) *practical or social intelligence*, the ability to manage people, understand others and act wisely in social contexts; (2) *visual or mechanical intelligence*, the ability to manipulate or understand concrete objects; and (3) *scholastic or abstract intelligence*, the ability to understand and manage ideas. Collectively, SI is defined as individuals' ways of understanding, interacting and dealing with other people. Austin et al. (2005) and Mayer et al. (2008) noted that no single scholar has been able to validate the SI

construct fully. Hence, it appears that SI remains undefined, a failure that may be attributed to the difficulty of operationalizing and objectively measuring SI.

Nevertheless, the controversial definition of EI by Goleman (1998), which was a stimulus for the theoretical foundation of studies of EI, cannot entirely be ruled out. Mayer and Salovey (1997) contended that EI should be defined as a heightening of mental abilities that incorporates reasoning about emotion, such as knowing what another person is feeling. This should involve substantial thinking instead of preferred ways of behaving. The same authors later amended their understanding of EI to include the ability to perceive, generate and access emotions so as to aid thoughts, to reflectively regulate emotions and to comprehend emotions and emotional knowledge in ways that promote intellectual and emotional growth. Their arguments seemed to correlate well with emotions and intelligence, because they seemed rational. Quite a number of scholars, however, believe that the concept of EI as a form of intelligence based on mental abilities is linked with the understanding and the management of emotions (Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2010). This is because most scholars appear to believe that EI should be distinguished from associated constructs, such as social skills, collections of good attributes and cognitively-oriented intelligences, which only tangentially involve emotions. It is therefore clear that EI is a more focused concept than SI and consists of a wider group of abilities, because it principally concerns emotional issues within social and personal interactions.

Wong and Law (2002) noted that various scholars perceive EI as a factor that has the ability to contribute positive behaviors, outcomes and attitudes. The existing signs of EI can be conceptualized as those of a personal trait (Schutte et al., 1998) or a personal ability (Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). However, Wong and Law's (2002) description of EI, based on the work of Bar-On et

al. (2000), analyzed EI as a non-cognitive intelligence delineated as an assortment of social, personal and emotional abilities and skills that influences the ability of an individual to efficiently cope with environmental pressures and demands. Carmeli (2003, p. 189) further broke down EI into a "matter of social intelligence encompassing the ability to examine individuals' feelings as well as the emotions and feelings of other people to distinguish among them and to apply this information to guide the actions and thinking of an individual. " This definition was refined by Mayer and Salovey (1997, p. 5), who described EI as "the social intelligence compartment that involves the capacity to observe one's own and others' emotions and feelings, to discriminate among them and to apply this information to guide one's actions and thinking." These authors were the earliest pioneers of EI in the 1990s, and their discoveries helped leaders to manage their emotions and assisted other researchers to debate further the concept of EI. The definition of EI by Mayer and Salovey (1997) was later adopted with modifications by Goleman (1995, p.30), who proposed that "Emotional Intelligence (EI) is defined at the ability to identify, assess, and control one's own emotions, the emotions of others, and that of groups."

These definitions of EI might sound different, but the general pattern is one of harmony rather than inconsistency (Ciarrochi, Chan, & Caputi, 2000). This is because all the descriptive ideas and principles within the EI archetype focus on how individuals use, understand, perceive and manage emotions in a bid to nurture and forecast personal effectiveness. The definition of leadership efficacy varies in many ways, although it is typically characterized as facilitating and influencing followers to have organizational commitment and increased job satisfaction. This is arguably accurate, because leaders with high levels of EI have the capacity to expedite the ideal performance levels in their followers, managing emotional levels so as to achieve more

ingenuity, confidence and resilience. These standards are adopted here because organization commitments and job satisfaction have been shown to be the significant aspects that add to organizational success and leader effectiveness (Fredrickson, 2003b; Zhou & George, 2003). Previous studies have established that follower job satisfaction, retention and organizational commitment (Ruestow, 2008) are greatly influenced by relationships between followers and their close supervisors. Carmeli (2003) and Wong and Law (2002) noted that leaders with high levels of EI create humane behaviors and positive work attitudes, allowing their followers to increase good job satisfaction, reduce turnover intention, improve organizational commitment and foster good work attitudes. Therefore, the paradigms of EI and emotional coping competency should be investigated in a more critical way alongside organizational commitment, together with other numerous organizational variables, as indicated by Humphreys, Brunsen, and Davis (2005).

There has also been a focus in the literature on specific effectiveness criteria in relation to how the EI of leaders affects their followers from the perspective of contagion. Othman and Abdullah (2012) investigated the correlation between leaders' levels of EI and their ability to nurture job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and to reduce turnover intention, in followers. Their findings also took into account organizational managers and leaders, employees, human resources managers, and educators who might be in a position to develop the EI skills of managers. This knowledge proved to be of value to organizations in a range of areas, such as organizational expansion, employee job satisfaction, employee motivation, reducing employee turnover and improving organizational success (de Geofroy & Evans, 2017; Lopes et al., 2005).

Goleman (1998) pointed out that EI is a *sine qua non* of leadership, emphasizing that even if individuals can access the best available training and the best ideas across the globe to obtain diagnostic minds, they will not necessarily become the best leaders: EI is also vital for effective leadership. The author noted that leaders with EI have an aptitude for understanding themselves and others, and for familiarizing themselves with their behaviors in given circumstances. The skills of EI are acknowledged to be of significance, especially in threshold circumstances (Cherniss, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, & Adler, 1998). According to Fredrickson (2003b), numerous research studies have indicated that organizations led by charismatic leaders with high EI tend to enjoy increased profits and productivity, better motivation and even increased cooperation. Therefore, leaders with high EI possess the demonstrable social and personal aptitudes and proficiencies that are crucial for influencing and motivating others as well as for leaning toward transformational leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002).

In general, EI is seen as a mood or feeling about something or someone. Both moods and feelings are recognized as aspects of emotions. Moods tend to last longer than feelings and are also less intense (see Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Smith (2009), however, defined emotions more precisely in terms of the organized response system that synchronizes experimental, psychological, cognitive and perceptual changes, among others, in the rational experiences of feelings and moods such as anger, surprise, happiness and sadness. This description interprets emotions as feelings or moods in response to both external and internal environmental adjustments. At the same time, various authors have considered a wide range of aspects of emotional constructs. For example, Prince et al. (2007) tackled the psychological foundations of emotions, explaining that emotions reflect the stored beliefs of an

individual regarding people, situations, objects and his/her subconscious evaluations based on his/her values. Additionally, Goleman (1995, p. 6) described emotion in more action-oriented terms as the "impulse to act, the instant plans for handling life that evaluation has instilled in us," while focusing on the underlying fight response to apparent environmental emergencies. In summary, EI is a person's ability to distinguish personal feelings and those of others and to manage emotions within themselves and in their relationships with others (Goleman, 1998).

2.2 Emotions in the Workplace

Although the workplace was previously regarded as an environment devoid of emotions (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988) where employees were expected to embrace a neutral performance stance, Brief and Weiss (2002) changed this narrative by explaining how emotions are now considered among the principal experiences in the workplace, even being studied as predictors of performance. Modern organizational leaders are faced with ever more complex leadership challenges while managing emotions in day-to-day social interactions between followers and leaders, in addition to their normal work routines. Rajah, Song, and Arvey (2011) and McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) indicated that emotions extensively dictate a large portion of an individual's daily social interactions, which determines how they interact with their superiors, colleagues and subordinates. The bonding of organizational employees is enabled by emotions. This is because the relations of employees are directed by emotions from divergent aspects such as the career vision options available in organizations, the conception of authority in the workplace dynamics, and personal performance (Ozcelik, Cenk Haytac, Kunin, & Seydaoglu, 2008).

Rajah, Song, and Arvey (2011) noted that work attitudes, work performance and other work-related relationships have attracted much attention in the past two decades. Employees have the opportunity to influence the affective states of significant organizational stakeholders, such as clients, and employers seem to instinctively acknowledge this fact. More jobs require specific emotional displays on the part of employees so as to influence the affective environment (or mood) for the purposes of improving customer satisfaction (Brown & Sulzer-Azaroff, 1994), customer retention (Tsai & Huang, 2002) and work improvement service quality (Pugh, 2001). Leaders and employees may nevertheless not fully comprehend the rate at which emotions spread among employees in the same working environment. Emotions can be contagious in the work environment (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), and if proper care is not taken, then employee work-related attitudes and organizational performance may suffer as a result of the spread of a toxic mood throughout the work group or organization (Rothbard & Wilk, 2011). The habitual attitude toward organizational behavior has always been the perceptive approach. Nonetheless, recent research studies have established that enhanced creativity, cognitive flexibility and productivity is achievable by organizations if emotions are correctly blended together with the organizational dynamics (Amabile et al., 2005; Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002; Isen &Simmonds, 1978).

Emotions develop either a positive or a negative mood in an individual and have the potential to enhance performance. A positive mood, for example, offers the desirable outcomes of increased job satisfaction, decreased absenteeism and decreased employee turnover. Once in a positive mental attitude, an employee might tend to avoid any stimuli that threaten the harmony of his/her positive mindset. Negative emotions have the potential to guide an employee toward a more cautious mindset,

encouraging him/her to be more analytical in dealing with cognitive information. A negative mindset can make an employee more systematic and realistic in approach. A careful and cautious approach to work eventually leads to effective results that help an employee overcome negativity to become positive about future results as well (Ashkanasy, Zerbe, & Härtel, 2016).

2.2.1 Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

In as much as EI research seems to be in its infancy, there is no doubt that EI has finally become a popular model in the workplace. Most organizations have experienced an improvement in their employees' turnover intention, job satisfaction, organizational commitment and other workplace relations thanks to the competencies introduced by EI concepts. The concept of *multiple intelligence* was first introduced by Gardner in 1975, while the term *emotional intelligence* was introduced by Payne in 1985 in a doctoral dissertation (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Additionally, Goleman helped to popularize the EI concept in 1995 in his comparison of EI with the more familiar IQ. Later on, Beasley also applied the term *emotional quotient* (EQ) in his 1987 article, following which Salovey and Mayer published their seminal article (Killian, 2012). In what seemed to be further support for EI from the 1950s, Maslow had previously acknowledged and described how EI could build emotional strength in people. Kunnanatt (2004) emphasized how EI acts as the summation of the mental capabilities responsible for an individual's understanding of themselves and other people. The same author noted that the objective of EI is to enable individuals to develop self-knowledge and to discover their inner self and being in regard to their emotional feelings, eventually providing them with guidance on how to succeed in their social journey. The effective components of intelligence for success in life were

also suggested by Wechsler (see Cherry, Fletcher, O'Sullivan, & Dornan, 2014). Thorndike described the concept of SI (Killian, 2012), in terms of the ability to get along with others and also considered that EI could be another significant aspect of the human element in terms of evaluating other forms of intelligence in contrast to IQ (Killian, 2012).

It is certainly true that EI plays an increasingly critical role in the leadership and management of organizations by emphasizing the effective communication between leaders and followers through allowances and adjustments for followers' abilities, skills and circumstances (Martinuzzi, 2014; Zenger & Folkman, 2002). The advocates of EI also offer the concept as an approach for enhancing person–organization fit, identifying and transforming leaders, creating more effective teams, increasing job satisfaction, stimulating creativity and reducing turnover (Huy, 1999). Nevertheless, there is inadequate empirical data to support these proclamations (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Lam & Kirby, 2002). Ritzema and Shaw (2012) and Chen et al. (2006) concluded that leaders are capable of attaining enthusiasm and trust for their delegated tasks if they have high EI. Organizational performance can also be influenced by the EI of leaders (Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Ideally, followers prefer a working atmosphere that offers the least possible stress (Kunnanatt, 2004). However, in a rather concerning development, the influence of leaders' EI on their followers has proved inconclusive, because the studies directly investigating these research phenomena to date seem to be inadequate. Followers, however, are likely to experience job satisfaction, reduce turnover intention and eventually enhance and improve overall organizational commitment if they feel that their leader supports and understands them.

The ability of organizations to identify and reduce EI issues in organizational management is vital for increasing profitability by minimizing turnover rates and increasing job performance and work satisfaction at the same time (Batool, 2013). This is because EI plays a significant role in the organizational work environment. It is therefore essential for organizations to identify and develop EI leaders (Mackinnon, Bacon, Cortellessa, & Cesta, 2013); employee turnover is costly for organizations, because training and recruitment are expensive and time-consuming (Law, Wong, Huang, & Li, 2008). If employees' EI skills are not properly checked, then the negative outcomes may include productivity losses within the organization (Al-Bahrani, 2017). In the workplace, individuals find it difficult to detach from personal emotions; they bring these emotions with them to work, which then affects their interactions in the working environment. Furthermore, employee motivation, performance and job satisfaction can be increased, and turnover rates reduced, by managers and leaders who treat employees as individuals (Ashkanasy et al., 2002; Malik & Shujja, 2013; Singh, 2013). EI is imperative for leaders and followers, because both play significant roles in the workplace by fostering essential social skills and by measuring the emotional ability of individual coworkers to succeed from a professional perspective (Dong & Howard, 2006). Gardner and Stough (2003) further supported these research findings with their argument that employees prefer leaders and managers who care for them as individuals and who consider their personal circumstances when changing organizational workplaces.

Kunnanatt (2004) characterized EI as the use of emotions for administrative purposes within social surroundings for personal effectiveness. Therefore, according to Pernick (2001), it is critical for organizations to invest in training their managers to make them more effective in offering personal care and development for their

employees. While EI has often been ignored in various fields such as engineering, law, nursing and medicine (Zeidner et al., 2004), it is nevertheless hyped as a panacea for modern business. This is because EI has proved to be a significant prognosticator of success and employee retention in corporate business (Zeidner et al., 2004). Afolabi, Ogunmwonyi, and Okediji (2009) construed EI as a mechanism for problem-solving, impulse control, reality testing, happiness and stress tolerance, and as a social responsibility enhancer that can facilitate an affirmative atmosphere within an organizational setting.

2.3 Theoretical Models of Emotional Intelligence

These definitions of EI have been crafted by various researchers so as to assist individuals and organizations in conceptualizing EI (McCleskey, 2014). Their theories have endeavored to explain and comprehend the abilities, traits and skills correlated with EI (Bar-On, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The literature identifies two classical models of EI: the ability model (ability EI) and the trait model (trait EI). Ability EI is "a cognitive ability concerning one's actual ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotions in the self and others" (Kong, Zhao, & You, 2012, p.55). As noted by Petrides and Furnham (2000), this method explains EI in terms of information processing ability, although ability EI can also be evaluated through maximum-performance assessments. Trait EI is "a constellation of emotion-related self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies" (Kong et al., 2012; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007, p.12). Trait EI is oriented within the cross-situational consistency of behaviors; accordingly it can be measured through self-report (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

EI is regarded as a personality construct by Petrides, Pita, and Kokkinaki (2007) and Bar-On (2004), while Mayer and Salovey (1993) described it as an intellect-based capability and Goleman (1995) characterized it as a leadership trait. Despite the fact that the meaning of EI has been researched and discussed by various scholars for more than two decades, researchers are yet to reach agreement as to the meaning of EI (Hunt & Fitzgerald, 2014; Spector, 2005).

Some researchers claim that the aim of EI research is to recognize and delineate a singular theoretical framework to be ascertained as the "correct" account of EI. Alternative methodologies would then be recognized as harboring various models and theories that function by expounding on additional aspects of multifaceted psychological constructs (Golman 2011). According to McCleskey (2014), EI is considered a legitimate and critical scientific construct that has been the subject of various scientific publications for more than 20 years, partly because of its strong association with leadership and organizational research (McCleskey, 2014; Washington, 2017). McCleskey (2014) and Hunt and Fitzgerald (2014) noted that the academic literature includes three conceptual models of EI and that these have achieved a degree of consensus: the Goleman model (Goleman, 1998), the Bar-On model (1997, 2006), and the Salovey–Mayer model (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These models and theories were established to hypothesize EI functions in the context of three major lines of thought, the mixed approach, the ability approach and the trait approach (i.e., the three methodologies proposed by Goleman, Bar-On, and Salovey and Mayer). These theoretical frameworks intellectualize EI from two standpoints: as a mixed intelligence consisting of personality characteristics and mental abilities such as well-being, adaptability and optimism, or as an arrangement of healthy intelligence involving only the mental abilities (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

The mixed model proposed by Daniel Goleman, which relates to performance by amalgamating the personalities and abilities of individuals, has assisted in implementing corresponding effects in the workplace. Salovey and Mayer are the only researchers to have established an up-to-date version of the ability model. In their model, they described EI as a practice of uncontaminated intelligence encompassing cognitive ability only. The model hypothesis of Reuven Bar-On established comparative personality magnitudes that underscored EI's ability aspect requirements with personality traits and their well-being applications. Drawing on the preceding research, the present study will use an EI ability test (from the Salovey–Mayer model) to provide exact data about work attitudes and behaviors. The conceptual and theoretical models of EI are described in detail in what follows.

2.3.1 Salovey–Mayer Ability Model

The term "emotional intelligence" was first devised by Peter Salovey and John Mayer in 1990 (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These two authors established that EI can be quantified by self-report approaches, such as observing the emotions of individuals and detecting the emotions of other people, and then using this information and these instruments for the purposes of self-guidance (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). Salovey and Mayer described EI in their model as a capacity for facilitating the thinking process through the ability to understand and manage emotions. Bar-On and Handley (2003) offered the Bar-On model as a way to measure EI through the administration of interviews, theoretical assessments and self-reports. Their model is also capable of meeting daily life challenges in an effective way, because it has been structured to approach EI in a variety of competencies that interrelate with both social and emotional skills (Bar-On, 1997, 2006).

The ability-based model was initially based on Gardner's interpretation of personal intelligence, before it was later theorized by Salovey and Mayer. Their model consists of five comprehensive expanses (Mayer & Salovey, 1997): self-motivation, handling relationships with others, knowing one's own emotions, recognizing the emotions of others and managing one's own emotions.

In the present study, the Salovey–Mayer model (Salovey & Mayer, 1990) has been adopted, and from this perspective EI is defined in terms of an ability-based model, referred to as the social intelligence model. Bratton, Dodd, and Brown (2011) noted that this model is empirically derived from a combination of emotions and intelligence. The Salovey–Mayer model presents EI as the ability to examine one's own feelings as well as the feelings of others, to identify the meaning of these feelings, and also to reason and solve problems related to these feelings (Mayer et al., 1999; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The ability model suggested by Mayer, Caruso, and Salovey comprises four major emotional abilities, known as "branches" (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2001; Mayer et al., 1999; Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Accordingly, the present study will adopt the Salovey and Mayer (1990) model of EI with its four dimensions, which are described as follows.

1. *Evaluation and expression of emotions in the self (self-emotion appraisal, SEA).* This dimension is related to the capability that individuals have to express their natural emotions and also to comprehend their deep emotions. Individuals with this ability will be able to acknowledge and sense their emotions sooner than other people can.

2. *The application of emotions to facilitate performance (use of emotions, UOE).* This dimension concerns the capacity of individuals to apply emotions in personal performance and productive activities.

3. *The recognition and evaluation of emotional intelligence in others (emotional appraisal of others, OEA).* This refers to the ability of people to recognize and comprehend the emotions of people in the same surroundings. People of high OEA ability are in a position to read other people's minds, because they are sensitive to the emotions and feelings of others around them.

4. *Regulation of emotion in the self (ROE).* This denotes the ability of individuals to regulate their emotions; it also allows them to recover quickly from psychological distress.
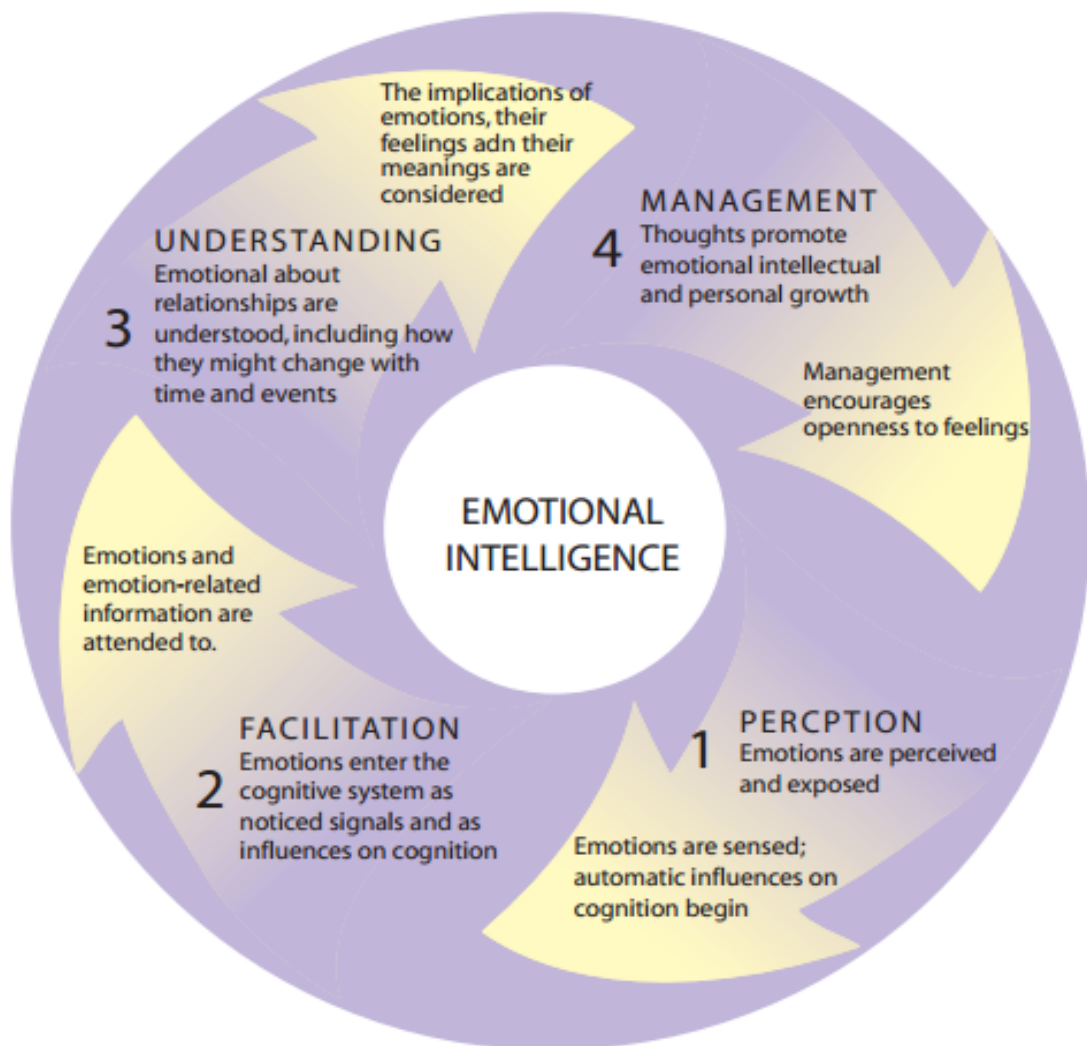
Figure 2.1: Salovey–Mayer emotional intelligence model

Reproduced from "The Effective Leaders: Understanding and Applying Emotional Intelligence," by Mayer et al. (2002). Reproduced with permission from Ivey Business Journal.

The four-branch structure of EI is illustrated in Figure 2.1; it can be seen as a hierarchical structure alongside emotional perception, with expression below and emotional management above (Mayer et al., 2001; Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999). It represents the lowest levels of the EI skills by means of which people express and observe emotions (through emotional reactions and facial expressions, together with other body language signs). The preceding level shows the "assimilation of basic emotional experiences into mental life, including weighing emotions against one another and against other sensations and thoughts, and allowing emotions to direct attention" (Mayer et al., 1999, p. 270). The third level includes reasoning about emotions. Mayer et al. (1999) commented that, in this model of EI, each of the emotions naturally progresses and moves according to its distinct specific and characteristic rules. Skills in EI resemble the capacity to comprehend the rules of EI and the know-how to make efficient tactical use of them. The fourth and highest level comprises the management of the individual's own emotions as well as the regulation of other people's emotions. This encompasses knowing how to calm oneself as well as other individuals, alleviating concern when necessary (Mayer et al., 1999).

Mayer and Salovey's (1997) ability-based measurement of EI is often considered the foundation of the modern development of EI (Cobb & Mayer, 2000; Maul, 2012; Seal & Andrews-Brown, 2010), and as specifically defining EI (Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009). Ability-based EI measures the perception that an individual has for interpreting emotions. However, Killian (2012) insists that ability-based EI is flawed because it is subjective in nature, and also that

its reliability issues might be a concern (Brannick et al., 2009). Likewise, Maul (2012) argued that there are limitations to ability-based EI because of its restricted indicators for determining levels of EI. Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) asserted that ability-based EI has been rigorously analyzed, even though some unsubstantiated claims have been made in the literature. It is therefore important to view the concept of EI holistically and to inspect the literature thoroughly in order to prevent misinformation.

2.3.2 Goleman's Model

A landmark book entitled *Emotional Intelligence* that helped to popularize EI was authored by Goleman in 1995. Goleman characterized EI as the capacity to keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to cope with one's moods, to delay gratification and control impulse, to hope and emphasize, to survive in the face of frustrations and to motivate oneself. Goleman's model consists of a mix of four delineated competencies that form a fundamental portion of effective leadership. The model is founded on the Salovey–Meyer model (1997). McCleskey (2014) noted that a considerable number of researchers backed Goleman's mixed model idea because it was consistent with their arguments that the leadership umbrella must encompass cognitive, social and emotional aptitudes. Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, and Weissberg (2006) expressed support for Goleman's mixed model, adding that it was anchored on a manifold of competencies that offer more accurate results and also that perceptive intelligence is associated with an 8% successful leadership rate.

An improved version of this EI model, consisting of four constructs that incorporated emotional competencies to help in leadership development practice, was later introduced by Goleman (2011, 2014). The four competencies of this model are as follows:

a) *Self-management.* This is the ability to adapt to changing circumstances by controlling one's impulses and emotions. Self-management encourages the adoption of skills that alter environmental working conditions, at the same time restricting compulsive action and controlling emotions (Goleman, 2014).

b) *Relationship management.* This is the ability of an individual to influence, inspire and manage conflicts while developing other people. It acts as the capacity to manage positive interpersonal relationships, motivate and inspire others, and even resolve conflicts.

c) *Self-awareness.* This is the ability of individuals to recognize their emotions and discover their subsequent impacts, at the same time applying their gut feelings to make decisions regarding their conditions. Thus, self-awareness stands for the personal process of emotion valuation, and it is also used for purposes of decision-making (Goleman, 2011).

d) *Social awareness and skills.* This is the capacity to comprehend, sense and respond to the emotions of other people in a social network context. It includes the skills of understanding the emotions of other people and taking into account their working environment (Goleman, 2011).

Goleman's model is widely accepted across the globe, despite criticism from researchers for the vagueness of its competencies and its inaccurate measurement tendencies (Locke, 2005). More criticism of Goleman's model emerged when a version of ability-based IE theory was documented by Wong and Law (2002) and Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004). These authors claimed that the competencies of initiatives, collaboration and teamwork and the orientation of the model did not produce a scientific approach and were also not associated with intelligence or emotions (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 2016). In defense of his model, Goleman

pointed to research on EI from other authors that supported the relevance of his preferred competencies to effective leadership. Goleman's model consists of a set of emotional competences within each paradigm of EI, and that accounts for the strong connection between successful leadership and his EI model competencies, despite criticism from other researchers and academics in the field (McCleskey, 2014). Goleman further claimed that emotional competencies must be developed to achieve outstanding performance, because they are capabilities that are acquired through learning and not innate talents as perceived by many research studies.

2.3.3 Bar-On's Mixed Model

Bar-On described the capabilities of EI by applying an "emotional quotient" (EQ) as an analogue to IQ (Bar-On, 1988). He described EI as "the collections of non-cognitive skills, competencies, and personalities that influence the capability of an individual to succeed in handling environmental pressures and demands" (1997, p.10).

Bar-On's model of EI includes aspects and intellectual abilities of personality, well-being and health, and it can also be viewed as a mixed and diversified intelligence (Bar-On, 2002). The variety of competencies and skills cited by Bar-On are intellectual in nature and thus capable of assisting individuals to cope with the demands of day-to-day life. His model includes the five EI scale markers listed below:

1. *Stress management* (e.g., impulse control, stress tolerance, and empathy)

2. *Interpersonal* (e.g., self-actualization, independence and emotional self-awareness)

3. *Adaptability* (e.g., reality testing, flexibility and problem-solving)

4. *Interpersonal* (e.g., interpersonal relationships, social responsibility and empathy)

5. *General mood* (e.g. happiness and optimism) (Bar-On, 2006).

Bar-On advised that an individual is capable of functioning effectively and of performing even better in an evolving environment if his/her EI skills are focused on, sharpened and developed in a way that takes account of their critical significance (Arghode, 2013; Kunnanatt, 2012). Conversely, a lack of success with emotional problems can signal an inadequacy in EI. According to Bar-On (2002), a person's general intelligence receives equal contributions from cognitive intelligence and EI, and it is the combination of these that determines the potential life success of an individual in the long run.

2.4 Emotions in Leader–Follower Interactions: A Theoretical Perspective

Leadership as a process of social influence is perceived by intellectuals and academicians as a development of social manipulation through which leaders affect the behaviors, feelings and perceptions of subordinates (e.g., Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst, 2002). Barsade and Gibson (2007) and Jordan and Troth (2011) have suggested that it is this course of events that is theoretically positioned within the paradigm of effectiveness in organizational and social psychology. It applies especially to the "new leadership paradigm" that affirms the emotional bond between followers and leaders. It may therefore be surmised that the emotions and emotional capacity of followers are significantly responsible for determining the attitudes, behaviors and emotions of their leaders (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011). AET is one of the key theoretical frameworks that can be used to determine certain instruments as sources of leaders' EI in the workplace.

It is advisable to develop an understanding of certain terms before delving deeper into AET. *Moods*, as defined by Davis and Humphrey (2014), are long-lasting emotional states that may be caused by people or events and are categorized as positive or negative. *Emotions* are intense experiences that prevail for a short period and are triggered by people, events or objects. Emotions are classified in terms of a list (fear, anger, happiness, sadness, joy, surprise etc.), and there is a list that describes more complex emotions; however, the list is not infinite in range. *Affect* comprises both emotions and moods, which are used interchangeably and synonymously (Ashkanasy, Humphrey, & Huy, 2017). The assumptions linked to the AET research already carried out are discussed below.

2.4.1 Affective Events Theory (AET)

AET is a formative proposition put forward by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) that addresses affective responses in the work environment as the collective outcome of positive and negative affects. These affective responses dictate people's attitudes and behavior in the workplace (Ashkanasy, 2002; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2002) and Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) welcomed AET as a widely understood and appreciated addition to accounts of the EI experiences of employees at work. As Ashkanasy and Daus (2002) stated:

> *In this model, the nature of the job and any requirements for emotional labor affect behavior and work attitudes, but most importantly, they result in work events – the daily hassles and uplifts that everyone at work experiences. These work events, in turn, result in positive and negative emotions experienced at work that influence both work attitudes (e.g., job satisfaction, commitment, and loyalty) and affect*

positive behavior such as spontaneously helping others or transient extra effort. Work attitudes have longer-term effects, such as a decision to quit, to engage systematically in anti- or pro-social behaviors, or to engage in productive work. Finally, experienced emotions are affected by personal dispositions such as emotional intelligence or trait affect – a general tendency to be in a positive or negative mood. (2002, p. 77)

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) noted that AET is concerned with the workplace occurrences that affect employees' feelings, how employees feel while working and what impact the feelings of employees have on organizational behaviors and attitudes. The AET model illustrates the effect of mood and emotion on job satisfaction and commitment, elaborating concepts in the form of simple premises. The theory states that affects are distinct entities and not identical to job satisfaction. Affect statuses include mood and emotions as well as cognition, and they form an integral part of the work experience. The relationship between affective states and job satisfaction is independent of the influence it has on turnover intention and organizational commitment. Affective states are not permanent and are subject to change and fluctuations. AET theory has altered the way organizations view affect (Weiss & Beal, 2005).

Some studies have found that the positive moods of leaders are directly related to their job satisfaction. Sy et al. (2005) found that the negative moods of leaders increased their followers' motivation. Affective events in the workplace can also be influenced by leaders through their routine work allocations and their demands on their followers, indirectly influencing the effective reactions of these followers. Robbins and Judge (2010) defined AET as "a model that suggests that workplace events cause

emotional reactions on the part of employees, which then influence workplace attitudes and behaviors" (p. 111). Affective event theory emphasizes that causality is the main factor that shapes attitudes and behavior in the workplace (Weiss & Brief, 2004). According to Weiss and Brief (2002), attitudes shaped by affect are more intense and identifiable than attitudes that are determined by cognition. Hersey (1932) devised a model that illustrates the unique roles of affect and cognition in the workplace, simultaneously shedding light on the interconnection between them. Hersey examined the reasons why employees experience varying intensities of affect, the difference in emotional responses exhibited and also the culmination point of emotion and cognition that dictates behavior. Weiss and Brief concurred with the findings:

> *AET makes the distinction between affect-driven and judgment-driven behaviors. Some behaviors are the immediate consequences of current affect states. These behaviors are not influenced by our overall evaluation of our jobs. Other behaviors are mediated by these judgments. AET discusses which types of work behaviors are likely to be affect-driven and which types are likely to be judgment-driven.*
> (2004, p. 160)

When viewed from the perspective of extant theory along with job satisfaction, AET reveals the dual application of cognition and affect. According to Elfenbein (2007), AET claims that job satisfaction is identified more closely with cognition; it can be defined as an attitude and does not rely on affect. Furthermore, the evaluation of one's job has both emotional and cognitive aspects. Therefore, evaluation of job satisfaction and other organizational constructs and attitudes will be more accurate if both cognitive and affective factors are considered (Elfenbein, 2007). Thus, feelings

and behavior are emotional and cognitive aspects, respectively, and must be recognized while assessing organizational areas, thus corroborating AET.

Elfenbein (2007) conducted an empirical study and presented a hypothesis that supported AET. The hypothesis stated that the attitude and behavior of an employee are targeted toward the stimulus that instigates the phenomena of AET and the behavior affiliated to it. According to the hypothesis, the construct of job satisfaction that comprises attitudes toward a job will act as a mediating factor between an employee's perception of organizational support and his/her performance. However, the construct of organizational commitment, comprising the individual's attitude toward the whole organization, will have no mediating role between organizational support and performance. The difference between attitudes and behaviors as addressed by social exchange theory has been identified as a weakness of that theory.

According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), affective events, whether negative or positive, are manifested by environmental conditions that may assist or hinder employee interests. These events results in affective states, which elicit emotions that shape attitude and behavior. AET is an intermediary between the workplace environment and affiliated attitudes and behaviors, and it holds the answers as to how the former impacts the latter (Ashkanasy et al., 2002. According to Ashkanasy, affective states are dictated by the frequency of stressful or encouraging situations; they are not influenced by the intensity of hassles or uplifts (Ashkanasy et al., 2002). Fisher (2002) emphasized that emotions in organizational settings and the incidents that stimulate them play a crucial role in the workplace environment and must be diligently focused on, even if they seem trivial. Antecedents to AET are job characteristics, positive affectivity dispositions, role conflict and negative dispositions (Fisher, 2002) and workplace conditions and events (Ashkanasy, 2005). Leadership

style, work group characteristics and organizational rewards and punishments may also induce affective states (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Affective events lead to affective states, which are potentially modified by individual dispositions A study by Weiss, Nicholas, and Daus (1999) explored affective events and observed that individual worker differences in affective state intensity explained levels of mood activation and variability of positive mood. AET may also have ramifications for withdrawal behavior, performance, judgment capability, creative problem-solving and performance (Ang, 2012; Brief & Weiss, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007; Fisher, 2002).

Researchers have emphasized the need to revise and enhance AET (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005). According to Weiss and Beal (2005), AET does not explain how incidents and objects stimulate emotions that further influence behavior and cognition. Weiss and Beal (2005) suggested that further research on the mediational role of AET is required. The research must take account of the micro-dynamics of an organization along with the overall macro-view of AET. AET must also be reviewed in the context of the workplace environment, and greater insight is needed to comprehend the affiliation between affect and performance. A revised version of AET is required that lays more focus on emotion management as compared to between-person methods. Beal, Weiss, Barros, and MacDermid (2005) encouraged management of affective states that are temporary rather than targeting more permanent attitudes, such as job satisfaction.

Ang (2012) suggested that further study of employee temperament and dispositions has the potential to vary affective events. Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2005) addressed the need for empirical research in order to develop a better model for affective response management that determines the factors and dispositions that

regulate workplace events. Researchers have also called for a theoretical model that would outline a methodology as to how individual, contextual, motivational and cognitive aspects regulate the outcome of workplace occurrences on affect and related behavior.

Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2005) noted that affective response involves two systems that are reliant on each other and that work efficiently by both producing and managing affective responses. They devised a model that integrates EI as a tool for managing affective responses (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005). EI involves developing an awareness of one's own emotions and emotions of others and using them to manage affective response, it relies on the process that produces a response to an affect that regulates emotions (Goleman, 1998; Mayer et al., 2008; Mayer & Solvey, 1997).

According to Ashkanasy (2004), EI is based on the cognitive strategy of emotion management. The underlying principle of EI is that employees with an ability to decipher various workplace contexts and respond responsibly will adapt more easily than those who respond impulsively because they lack the ability to study their emotions and the potential harm they may cause if let loose (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). The ability to perceive emotions and to tame them before expressing them results in positive attitudes and behavior (Ashton-James & Ashkanasy, 2005).

Therefore, EI assists in adapting appropriately to affective events, promotes a positive mindset and results in desirable outcomes in the work environment. It is an asset for an employee; however, he/she must have the inclination to utilize this ability (Rode, Mooney, Arthaud-Day, Near, Baldwin, Rubin, & Bommer, 2007). It is essential that organizations offer training on EI to employees so that it is recognized that affective responses do not address the main cause of conflict in contextual events and

may lead to undesirable results. Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2005) supported these findings by arguing that the behavioral outcome of an affective event in the workplace is arbitrated by social psychological processes, and that EI offers the ability to adapt responses so as to elicit desirable behavioral outcomes.

Erez and Isen (2002) conducted a two-part study to determine the effect of positive affect on motivation. The first study involved a sample of 97 undergraduate students, and the outcomes were left to chance; the findings confirmed that positive affect enhanced performance but did not establish a link between motivation and positive affect. The second study involved a sample of 230 undergraduate students; the outcomes were specified, and it was found that positive affect influenced both the performance and the motivation of an individual. Erez and Isen put forward the argument that interaction between positive affect and task conditions to influence motivation is established through the cognitive processes connected with motivation (2002).

Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, and Hirst (2002) engaged four large Australian R&D organizations and organized 54 teams to perform a longitudinal study examining team performance, climates and negative events in the workplace. The authors established that team leadership very strongly influenced the workplace environment in negative events. This study was supported by the findings of Gaddis, Connelly, and Mumford (2004), whose research involved 258 undergraduate students allocated to 87 groups. Teams leaders, referred to as confederates, were assigned to each group; they gave either personalized or task-focused feedback to their team members as the task progressed, while team members' perceptions and performance were monitored. It was found that leaders with negative affect during feedback impacted their teams in the form of low levels of performance and lower perceptions of leader effectiveness.

Conversely, a leader with positive affect was perceived as highly effective and was associated with higher performance from the team. Effective leaders should take into consideration their affect while addressing their followers, as their attitude greatly influences followers (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004).

Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) conducted a study with a sample of 203 French employees working in managerial posts. The aim was to explore the effectiveness of AET. They discovered an association between affective states and work attitudes as well as work events; they also predicted the mediating role of affective events. The AET model inspired Judge, Scott, and Ilies to develop their model based on the "dynamic nature of emotions at work attitudes, and workplace deviance" (2006, p. 126). In their study, 64 employees were asked to fill in a survey form regarding their affective state, degree of job satisfaction, interpersonal treatment received and incidents of deviant behavior in a work environment on a daily basis for a period of three weeks. The survey confirmed that affective events and individual differences played a role in deviant behaviors at the workplace (Judge et al., 2006).

Bono, Foldes, Vinson, and Muros (2007) devised a study to examine the emotional experiences of followers in the light of their leaders' behaviors. The participants were 57 healthcare workers in non-managerial roles who were asked to log their experiences about affect, job satisfaction and stress in a compact computer device four times a day for two weeks. The researchers also involved the organization in a survey about leadership behaviors exhibited by supervisors, which revealed that while participants frequently had positive affect experiences with clients and colleagues, such interactions were rare with supervisors. Bono et al. (2007) reported that survey participants who had leaders with transformational leadership traits experienced positive affect moments more frequently with their leaders as well as with

clients and peers. They experienced negative affect fewer times than participants who had non-transformational leaders. Furthermore, participants were not successful at self-regulating their emotions, leading to negative outcomes such as increased stress and low level of job satisfaction (Bono et al., 2007). George and Zhou (2007) researched the influence of positive and negative affect in the context of supervisor support. Their research was based on the assumption that supervisory support is an antecedent to employee creativity. Their survey sample comprised of 161 dyads of supervisors and employees in an oil company, and they found that affect, whether negative or positive, had an influence on creativity in the context of support (George & Zhou 2007).

Inspired by AET, Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, and Whitten (2011) put forward a model of the influence of positive affect and job satisfaction on the relationship between family life and work performance. Their research consisted of two studies: the first used a sample of 240 employees, and the second used 189 dyads of supervisors and employees. The model drawn from these two research studies elicited mixed support (Carlson, Kacmar, Zivnuska, Ferguson, & Whitten, 2011). To further confirm the findings of this study and establish its credibility, Thompson and Phua (2012) carried out a detailed investigation that encompassed both qualitative and quantitative methods (28 qualitative and 901 quantitative studies). Carlson et al. (2011) had devised a short measure of affective job satisfaction, which they called a "Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction," based on the work of Brayfield and Rothes (1951). Thompson and Phua described their model as "overtly affective, minimally cognitive, and optimally brief" (Thompson & Phua, 2012, p. 275). They encouraged further research to confirm the effectiveness of the index. Dong, Seo, and Bartol (2014) conducted a similar study to determine the influence of affect on the relationship

between developmental job experiences (DJEs), and on the potential for advancement or turnover in a sample of 214 newly appointed managers. It was found that EI played an important role in the affective process. Managers with low levels of EI exhibited turnover intention because of DJE (Dong, Seo, & Bartol, 2014).

AET is a widely accepted theory, and it has inspired researchers to carry out further studies and determine more ways in which affect can influence workplace environment. The theory is based on productive principles and intellectual research, and it will be of broader application if further research is conducted, especially on an empirical basis. The present study aims to support the theoretical aspects of AET by investigating how EI helps regulate affect in workplace events. Figure 2.2 illustrates the AET model and the present study's contribution to AET.

Work Environment

- Characteristics of the job.
- Job Demand
- Requirements for emotional Labor

Work Events

- Daily hassles
- Daily uplifts

Personal Dispositions

- Personality
- Mood

Emotional reactions

- Positive
- Negative

Job Satisfaction

Job performance
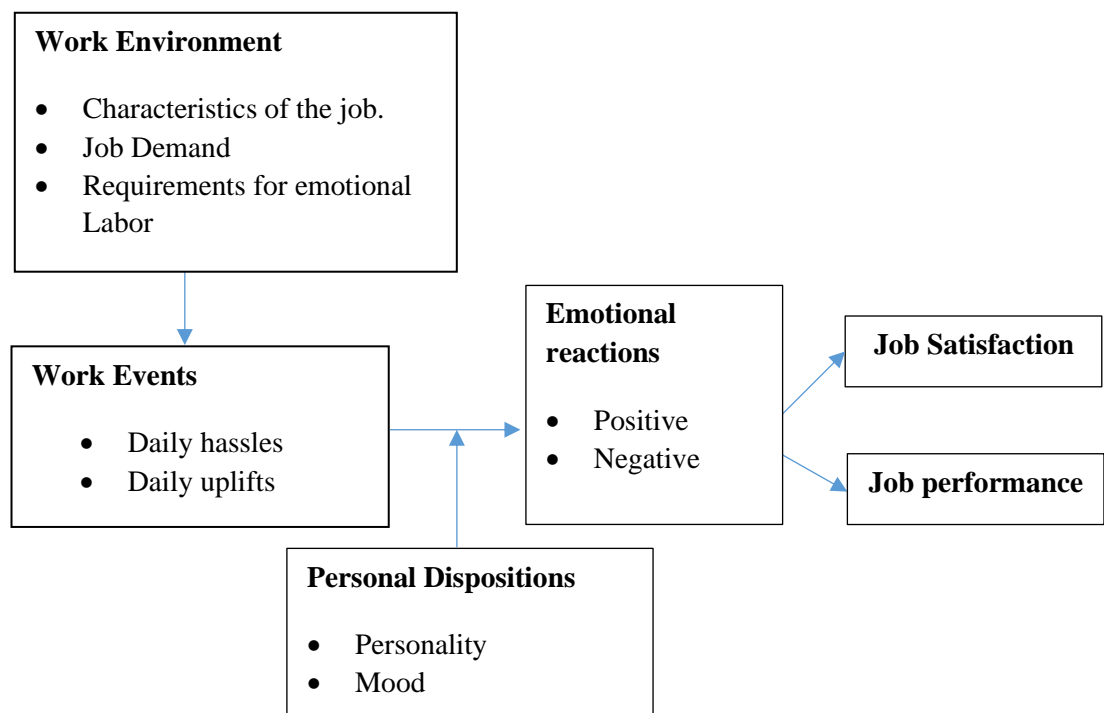
Figure 2.2: The affective events theory framework

From "Affective Events Theory: A Theoretical Discussion of the Structure, Causes and Consequences of Affective Experiences at Work," by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), in *Research in Organization Behavior: An Annual Series of Analytical Essays and Critical Reviews*, 18 (1996): 1–74.

2.5 Emotional Intelligence as a Leadership Quality

The ability to detect the nuances of emotional reactions, read and understand others in a social context, and to use this knowledge to influence others by displaying emotional control and regulation, is summed up as EI. The capacity to perceive emotions through EI was identified by Van Kleef, De Dreu, and Manstead (2010) as a predictor of leadership. Accordingly, the link between EI and leadership has received much attention in organizations in recent years (Dulewicz, Young, & Dulewicz, 2005). The significance of studying the role played by EI in successful leadership practices and applications has also intensified in the body of EI research. This scenario allows for the fundamental adoption of the idea that, people with high emotional intelligence capabilities are more likely to exhibit leadership success in the workplace than people with low emotional intelligence (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Leaders within organizations use their behaviors to communicate their perspectives and messages to their subordinates concerning their performance, coupled with other contextual occurrences. The leaders pass on messages to their followers that concern suitable emotional reactions to circumstances or events as they arise. These observations were made by Wu (2011), who found that the relationship between EI and leadership potential can be substantiated by analysis from the theoretical perspective and from the standpoint of leadership performance. Regarding the outcome of these phenomena, followers will eventually respond by crafting their own emotional interpretation of

each situation to assist them in their behavior and reactions. Therefore, Van Kleef et al. (2010) concluded that the general assumption of EI is that leaders with high EI are in a better position to facilitate the performance of their employees effectively than those with low EI.

The connection between leadership and EI was suggested by Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2003), who mentioned that individuals with high EI may appear likely to be effective leaders and also eligible to participate in leadership experiences. An emotionally intelligent leader has the interpersonal skills to listen and respond appropriately to his/her employees, besides having social awareness. This is because EI requires the honest assessment of individuals' talents and skills alongside their shortcomings and deficiencies (Wong & Law, 2002). Studies in the business sector have for some years looked into the contribution of EI to organizational management. One study, carried out by the executive search company Egon Zehnder International, analyzed 515 top managers and found that those who scored highly for EI had a greater chance of success than those who scored highly for experience or IQ (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Leaders with high EI displayed higher productivity than their counterparts with below average EI (Bradberry et al., 2003). Cavallo and Brienza (2002) studied 358 managers from the Johnson and Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group across the world. Their aim was to determine whether there was any disparity in leadership qualities between the best performers and the average performers. Their results indicated that the high performers possessed greater EI than the low performers.

EI has significant influence on the general appraisal of managers (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). The effect that a manager with high EI has on an organization is greater than the effect of one with low EI (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). Organizations

now realize how important EI is to their operational procedures; as a result of the unrelenting emphasis on employees' capacity building and adaptation to organizational adjustments, EI now appears indispensable (Goleman, 1998). A leader who is determined to steer a company or a business on a successful path finds it critical to deal adequately with emotions in achieving this objective. Successful leaders have demonstrated an undisputed capacity to deal with emotions and feelings (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Goleman (1998) focused on EI in the specific context of employee appraisals, investigating the effects of EI on employees and employers in the business and work domain. In the last few years, there have been calls to consider EI more fully in the context of company leaders and managers (Bradberry & Greaves, 2004; Emmerling & Cherniss, 2003; Goleman, 1998).

In the UAE context, many studies have investigated the effects of a leader's EI on their followers, but with mixed results. For example, Al-Ali, Garner, and Magadley (2012) explored the relationship between EI and job performance in police organizations in the UAE. They claimed that EI level and police job performance were significantly correlated. In addition, Whiteoak and Manning (2012) examined the relationship in a UAE government organization between employees' perceptions of managers' EI and organizational outcomes. They found that managers' EI was significantly related to higher job satisfaction and group task satisfaction.

This concludes the overview of EI competencies and their importance in the leadership practices of successful organizations. The following section considers in more detail the question of why and how leaders' articulated emotions are likely to affect those of their followers.

2.6 Hypothesis Development

2.6.1 Leader Emotional Intelligence and Leader Affect

For leaders to successfully discharge their responsibilities, a good understanding of their own personal emotions as well as those of their subjects is essential. Leaders should be able to acknowledge their own emotions while relating with those of others. Various leadership studies have analyzed EI as a success factor in leadership quality. These studies indicated that effective leadership behavior significantly relies on a leader's ability to read and translate social issues that occur in organizations (e.g., Connelly et al., 2000; Marshall-Mies et al., 2000). Pescosolido (2002) maintained that leaders are in a position to affect the behaviors and performance of their followers through management of their emotional states. According to Goleman (2001), emotionally intelligent leadership has emerged as the major factor in creating a work climate that fosters the interests of employees and motivates them to work to the best of their ability. Goleman (1998) further acknowledged that EI is a prerequisite for the precise measurement of the outcomes of effective behavior in the workplace. Wong and Law (2002) noted that EI had emerged as one of the foundational elements of leadership effectiveness and is an outstanding construct of social effectiveness. This claim was supported by Goleman (2001), who suggested that the relationship between the EI of leaders and how they perform in their organizations is mediated by the organizational work climate created by those same leaders. Leaders with higher EI are also more effective and have more cohesive work teams (Wong & Law, 2002). Goleman (2001) identified several aspects of EI as significant in the effective management of relationships, including self-motivation, emotional

management, empathy and self-awareness. For leaders to perform well and be able to measure the reactions of their teams, high levels of EI are paramount.

Research by Salovey and Mayer (1990) revealed that the ability to contain emotions can be of help to individuals in terms of nurturing positive affect, coping with stressful situations and avoiding being overwhelmed by negative affect. Van Kleef et al. (2010) added that people are normally motivated to avoid negative emotions and instead to seek gratifying feelings. The quality of emotional experience that helps people to interpret and identify the signs of self-regulatory action is gained directly from the emotional abilities summed up as *the perception and understanding of emotions*. It should also be clear that emotionally intelligent individuals may sometimes experience negative effect states that have destructive consequences as well as more favorable ones. People also tend to vary in their ability to alter and regulate the affective reactions of others as well as to manage (adjust, evaluate and monitor) changing moods (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The regulation of individuals' moods and emotions results in both negative and positive affective states. In this way, emotionally intelligent leaders can stimulate a positive affect in others that eventually results in a powerful social influence (charisma), which is also a paramount leadership component (Gooty et al., 2010). Research studies indicate that the capability to manage emotions fosters positive affect, helps to avoid being overpowered by negative affect, and enables effective dealing with stressful circumstances (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). According to Johnson (2009), it is human instinct to replace negative emotion with more gratifying positive affect. The way emotions are perceived and understood is a self-regulatory habit. It is a practice that is facilitated by emotional ability and can assist in identifying and interpreting signs that contribute to positive or negative affect.

It is important to recognize that an emotionally intelligent person is inclined to experience negative affect, which may be gauged to produce favorable results or unwanted damaging consequences. A leader cannot control and elicit the same emotional reaction. Emotional response and moods vary even when monitored, evaluated and closely adjusted (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotionally intelligent leaders have the skill of instigating positive affect in followers. This quality gives them a powerful influence over people: charisma. Charisma creates highly successful leaders and is considered a highly effective leadership trait (Gooty et al., 2010). The Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS) predicts scores for EI depending on positive or negative affect experiences. A positive correlation was discovered between positive affect scores and EI; conversely, a negative affect score on PANAS was observed to correlate with low EI (Wang, 2002). PANAS scores indicate that individuals with high EI identify, comprehend and manage emotions effectively. Individuals scoring low on EI are unable to identify and interpret their emotions, which may have adverse effects such as ambiguity, anxiety and failure to develop a coping mechanism.

According to these results, EI is affiliated with coping mechanisms. A person with high EI will adapt and maintain a positive affect state while controlling negative affect. This study can confirm that EI is inversely proportional to negative affective state: an individual with high EI will experience less negative emotional states. Trait EI is also related to adaptive coping strategies, and individuals with high EI are more likely to utilize such strategies to maintain positive affective states and to down-regulate negative emotions. Consequently, an increase in EI is correlated with a decrease in negative emotional reactivity (Gooty et al., 2010).

In light of the above, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H1a: There is a positive relationship between leader EI (LEI) and leader positive affect (LPA).

H1b: There is a negative relationship between LEI and leader negative affect (LNA).

H3: LPA mediates the relationship between LEI and follower positive affect (FPA).

H4: LNA mediates the relationship between LEI and follower negative affect (FNA).

2.6.2 Leader Affect and Follower Affect

Over two decades, intensive research has been carried out to investigate the effect of emotions in the work environment. Studies reveal that emotions have the potential to shape attitudes, relationships and performance in work environment (see Rajah et al., 2011). Everyday work dynamics indicate that emotions are relevant predictors of many job attitudes and behaviors (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Therefore, for a work environment to function efficiently, it is incumbent upon leaders to manage employee emotion along with managing work-related tasks. In the past, emotions were seen as having no relevance in the work environment (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988). Employees were expected to refrain from expressing emotions and to remain emotionally composed and neutral during work hours. In recent times, emotions have been understood as having great relevance in the workplace and are labeled as an indicator of work performance (Sutton & Rafaeli, 1988). Nevertheless, leaders have not yet comprehended the immense rate at which a sentiment of emotion can seep and spread through an employee network. Emotions, both positive and negative, are contagious. If left unmonitored, a negative sentiment can bring down the motivation of an entire workforce and have a detrimental impact on work performance and attitudes. However, experience and intuition has led employers to realize that if

employees' displays of emotions are managed appropriately, they can influence the emotions of main stakeholders, such as customers and clients. Thus, employers coach their employees to display a tailored and pre-decisive set of emotions that will have a positive effect on the overall affective work environment, enhance the quality of service (Pugh, 2001), improve customer satisfaction, and retain clientele (Tsai & Huang, 2002).

Research indicates a close affiliation between positive affect and work performance (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001). Individuals who experience positive affect are energetic, dynamic, resourceful and socially proactive. They hold optimistic views and manage stress efficiently. Employees who experience positive affect are extroverts, socially interactive, confident and bold, optimistic, warm, emotionally stable, and insightful about themselves (Smith, 1969); they possess vigor, energy and enthusiasm, and are socially involved and invested (Costa & McCrae, 1980). In contrast, individuals with negative affect tend to be anxious, hostile, impulsive and aggressive; they experience neurotic or psychosomatic symptoms (Costa & McCrae, 1980). An individual with negative affect is distressed in work and in personal aspects of life (Cropanzano & Wright, 2001).

Affectivity, in both its positive and negative aspects, deeply impacts job performance in long-term employees, employee turnover and commitment to work, as established by Weiss and Cropanzano (1996). Their research approaches affect as a state rather than as an inherent quality. As defined by Ashforth and Humphrey (1995), a state is a subjective feeling that adapts and alters and is not inherent or permanent (unlike a disposition). Affectivity dictates the overall emotional experiences of an employee; that is, a person with positive affectivity will mostly feel positive affect. However, it is not to be concluded that he/she will retain a positive affective state in

every context encountered. Similarly, an individual with negative affectivity may not necessarily experience negative affect in every context (George, 2000).

According to Watson and Tellegen (1985), negative affectivity is a tendency to experience subjective feelings of anxiety, stress, worry or nervousness along with negative emotionality. Negative affectivity includes a wide range of negative personality traits, such as low self-esteem, obsessive pessimistic thoughts, low confidence, insecurity, guilt, short temper and depression (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). Positive affect, as defined by Watson and Tellegen (1985), is an individual's enthusiastic involvement with the environment. Positive affect includes zest, positive energy, keenness, mental vigilance, willpower, resolve and joy. It represents an overall sentiment of well-being, competence, expertise and quality of interaction (Watson & Tellegen, 1985). It indicates how zestful, energetic and alert an individual feels. The range of emotions that can be classified as positive affect can be intense, specific and short-lived, at one end, or longer-lasting, more generalized and mild with unrecognizable causes (Frijda, 1986).

Individuals with high levels of positive affect experience optimistic emotions such as excitement, enthusiasm and confidence, whereas those with lower levels of positive affect experience positive emotions to a lesser degree. The more evident emotions in individuals with low positive affect are sadness and depression. Positive affectivity has become a vital element of any organization, as it is a dominant predictor of attitudes and behavior (Ciarrochi, Deane, & Anderson, 2002; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

Positive affectivity may be used to characterize trait positive affect, which concerns disposition, or it may be used to characterize state positive affect, which concerns positive affect at a particular time. As trait positive affect relies on state

positive effect to establish itself, the present study focuses on state positive in order to verify whether follower state affect is in alignment with a leader's affective displays.

Research has revealed that the positive affect of an individual has a noticeable influence on affective stimuli. Singer and Salovey (1988) network theory stated that affective states are congruent to the number of connections among emotional experiences. Thus, every affective state elicits information that is congruent to the mood experienced by an individual. Similarly, the information processed by an individual is influenced and congruent to his/her affective state (Gardner & Stough, 2002). Positive mood states, therefore, are thought to increase the accurate perception of positive stimuli and the tendency to make positive judgments and retrieve positive memories. Hence, EI contributes to positive attitudes and affect in the workplace, since both negative and positive affects in the work environment mediate between attitudes and behavior and the leader's EI competencies (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005).

In light of the above, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H2a: There is a positive relationship between LPA and FPA.

H2b: There is a positive relationship between LNA and FNA.

2.6.3 Emotional Intelligence, Affect and Follower Work Outcomes

A recent study by Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, and Dimou (2014) established a correlation between the moods of leaders and their work group members, the dimensions of group performance and the affective tone of the group members. Fredrickson (2003b) also explained that the positive emotions articulated by leaders in organizations may turn out to be contagious because of their position in the power hierarchy. Over the past few decades, studies have demonstrated the conjectured relations between leadership and EI (e.g., Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Gardner &

Stough, 2002; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006; Wong & Law, 2002), and these have generally supported the idea that EI is a legitimate interpreter of administrative or managerial performance. For instance, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) demonstrated that EI is optimistically connected to leadership efficiency. Sy et al. (2006) found that leader EI was positively linked with employee job satisfaction, which was higher when employees had low EI than when they had high EI. According to Wong and Law (2002), the EI of groups of followers influences job satisfaction and job performance, while the EI of leaders influences extra-role behavior and satisfaction.

2.6.3.1 Job Satisfaction

According to Locke (1969, p. 314), job satisfaction and dissatisfaction covers a "complex of emotional reactions to the job." If job satisfaction is a "feeling or [set of] affective responses to facets of the situation" then it can be said that job satisfaction is optimistically linked with the creation of EI. Additionally, job satisfaction is an alternative term for workers' comfort at work (Grandey, 2000). People with elevated EI, through the above example of theoretically related experience, enjoy continuous positive emotions, mental procedures and feelings that create higher levels of well-being and satisfaction. This is in contrast to persons who experience moods and feelings of anger, sadness, depression and disappointment, since the former can achieve higher levels of general fulfillment and satisfaction. For example, a study by Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) sought to identify the relative effects of the four dimensions of EI on affect at work and job satisfaction. They found that using and regulating emotion were significant predictors of positive affect at work.

Job satisfaction has been defined by various researchers in different ways. This is because it is an abstract idea that each author views from a different perspective. On one definition, job satisfaction is an amalgamation of environmental, psychological and physiological factors that leads to an honest acceptance by the employee that he/she is satisfied with his/her job (Lopes et al., 2006). According to Odom et al. (1990), job satisfaction is the positive or negative sentiments of an employee relative to his intrinsic, extrinsic and general perspective. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) defined job satisfaction as the pleasure an employee obtains from the job experience.

According to Judge and Kammeyer-Mueller (2012), job satisfaction is "an evaluative state that expresses contentment with and positive feelings about one's job" (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012, p. 343). The same authors mention two components of job satisfaction: affective and cognitive. The affective component comprises emotional state, whereas the cognitive component refers to the intellectual aspect (Fisher, 2000; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). According to Fisher (2000) researchers have always laid emphasis on the study of job satisfaction because it greatly influences outcomes at workplace.

Studies predict a proportional relationship between EI and job satisfaction. Employees with a higher level of EI enjoy a greater degree of job satisfaction. Evidence indicates that higher EI leads to job satisfaction, which in turn facilitates life satisfaction. A study conducted by Kafetsios & Loumakou (2007) supported the hypothesis of a positive link between EI and job satisfaction; an employee with EI was likely to be more satisfied with the responsibilities assigned to him/her in the workplace. Kambiz H (2013) concluded that employees with higher EI tended to report their work environment as conductive, conducive and attractive. Thus, EI intrinsically encourages an employee to focus and find positive factors in his work environment.

This results in job satisfaction, and in satisfaction with the organization and future career paths.

Evaluation of the numerous studies on the role of EI supports the hypothesis that EI and job satisfaction are strongly linked and directly proportional. This means that the higher the factor of EI in an individual, the higher the level of his/her job satisfaction (Donaldso-Feider & Bond, 2004). Evidence of this finding is also supported by other researchers. Feyerherm & Rice (2002) found that, individuals with high EI tend to be in a state of general well-being, experience pleasant moods and have a high level of job satisfaction compared to people with low EI. Further, EI has also been found to have an influence on career performance that is independent of the influence it has on job satisfaction (Donaldso-Feider & Bond, 2004).

Research has revealed that EI is an entity of crucial importance in various aspects of numerous jobs. Acquired job skills, prerequisite skills and talents, job opportunities and success in career paths are areas of a job that are strongly affiliated with EI. According to Donaldso-Feider and Bond, (2004), the nature of a job dictates the degree of EI it demands. Some jobs are task-oriented (that is, controlled by a protocol) and do not require a very high level of EI. Individuals with high EI would perform below expectations in such jobs. Conversely, certain jobs are relationship-oriented. They require building bridges, forming affiliations based on empathy, developing conducive communication and teamwork. Jobs of this nature require employees with a high level of EI. An example of a high-EI job is that of a teacher. Teachers require a significant degree of EI to form bonds with students to understand them better, assist their growth, shape their attitudes, enhance their knowledge and train their behaviors (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

EI is practiced and developed on a self-regulatory basis and enables employees to adapt and evolve with change, manage negative emotions and make sound decisions (Salminen, 2005). EI is also an indicator of the motivation and commitment of an employee, and it predicts organizational citizenship, job satisfaction and life satisfaction. It is essential to understand how various components of EI enhance job satisfaction. This will help an organization to utilize a motivated workforce to its maximum capacity (Feyerherm & Rice, 2002). Individuals with a high level of EI have the ability to meditate and reflect on how to produce an appropriate reaction, are proponents of groupwork, and possess effective conversational and communicative skills to delegate or perform tasks (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). The work environment built by emotionally intelligent employees is hospitable and conducive to efficient work. Empathy is a subtrait of emotionally intelligent individuals that plays a vital role in developing a pleasant work environment. Empathy allow employees to comprehend the values of those who are different, understand their needs and assist them to work toward their goals (Mayer & Salovey, 1993). Empathy enables employees to consider the viewpoints and opinions of colleagues and to reflect on their ideas, thus developing effective work relationships based on understanding the needs of others and utilizing their unique skills toward attaining organizational goals (Law et al., 2004). Empathy develops a harmonious work environment and enhances job satisfaction in an emotionally intelligent employee and among the people in his/her work environment. EI develops social skills, resulting in good relations with superiors, colleagues, subordinates and clients. The result is overall satisfaction and well-being (Carmeli, 2003).

EI assists employees who face challenges to realize that these are temporary hurdles that will help them improve their job skills and not to be deterred from their

goals. Emotionally intelligent individuals are motivated and optimistic, and they inspire others with their enthusiasm. They have the capability to look at the bigger picture of achieving their premeditated goals and dealing with trivial issues and inadequacies at work. They protect their high level of job satisfaction, high spirits and enthusiasm (Law et al., 2004). Substantial research indicates that EI develops individuals who become productive members of their communities at work as well as in other areas of life (Joseph & Newman, 2010).

Significant numbers of empirical studies predict that employees with high levels of EI will exhibit job satisfaction and achieve greater success at the professional and personal levels, thereby developing a sense of accomplishment and fulfillment. This has been observed in employees working at managerial level as well as in their subordinates (Carmeli, 2003; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). Emotionally intelligent employees realize the importance of building effective relationships in the work environment, as this develops a support system that helps them combat challenges and accomplish goals (Law et al., 2004). Carmeli (2003) concluded that "emotional intelligence augments positive work attitudes, altruistic behavior and work outcomes, and moderates the effect of work-family conflict on career commitment" (p. 788).

Joseph & Newman (2010) emphasized the strong connection between managers' EI and job satisfaction and claimed that leaders with higher levels of EI have a very productive effect on their followers. Emotionally intelligent managers develop an industrious environment that encourages employees to perform efficiently. The managers' optimistic approach and pleasant personality infuses through the whole workplace environment, and every individual is influenced by this positivity. Thus, leaders with high levels of EI account for greater levels of job satisfaction, lower stress

levels, and meaningful, lasting bonds among individuals that go beyond the work environment.

Research has offered convincing evidence that relationships at work are one of the main factors that influence job satisfaction (Carmeli, 2003; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004). Managers who are capable of developing meaningful relationships at work have more fulfilling careers and are more content than those who are unable to create such bonds (Ng et al., 2008). Conversely, a group of researchers challenged the idea that EI and job satisfaction are related. They contested the generally accepted view that high levels of EI lead to high levels of job satisfaction. Joseph and Newman (2010) determined that the relationship between EI and job satisfaction is an abstract concept. The connection between the two entities brings about inconsistent results and depends on the type of job task. Jobs that are considered high in emotional labor are evaluated positively for EI, whereas jobs that are low in emotional labor are evaluated negatively for performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010). However, the results are inconsistent, and it would be too simple to claim that EI is always in proportion with job satisfaction (Joseph & Newman, 2010).

In light of the above, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H6a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and follower job satisfaction (FJS).

H6b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FJS.

H9a: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FJS.

H10a: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FJS.

H11a: The relationship between LEI and FJS is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

H12a: The relationship between LEI and FJS is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

2.6.3.2 Turnover Intention

Organizations today face the challenge of turnover intention, a situation in which an employee aims to leave the organization or the organization intends to let go of the employee. It is evident that employees will not invest their full efforts when they have the intention of quitting the organization. Employees who intend to leave their job positions are very unlikely to dedicate their utmost efforts to the organization (Yun, Hwang, & Lynch, 2015). The causes of employee turnover may be either the employee's intention or a decision taken by the organization. Turnover intention drives actual turnover, and thus turnover can be either voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary turnover reflects negatively on an organization. It is a negative indicator of the success of an organization (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004). In a turnover situation, it is often employees who play an essential role in the organization who intend to leave, which may prove detrimental for the organization. This is because the employees who intend to leave are likely to be half-hearted in their work with low motivation, as their focus is on seeking a new job and they will leave if an attractive offer comes along. These employees may not even consider the loss the organization will face if they quit. Research has investigated the factors influencing turnover intention with a view to retaining key employees and enhancing positive affectivity in the work environment (Hom et al., 2012). The factors that can be identified as precursors of turnover intention are uncertainty arising from evolving technology, culture, interpersonal relationships, stress, working hours and conflict among individuals. As technology is advancing at a very high rate, employees feel that their job roles might be replaced by machines (Glebbeck & Bax, 2004). Wong and Law (2002), cited stress, cultural differences, relationships, personal differences and time as factors influencing turnover intention. An employee experiencing uncertainty and dissatisfaction will develop turnover

intention, which leads to actual turnover (Hom et al., 2012). However, turnover intention is lower in employees who are emotionally intelligent. An emotionally intelligent employee also plays an important role in controlling anxiety, stress, dissatisfaction and frustration among other employees. An emotionally intelligent approach develops a positive attitude such that positive affectivity prevails in the organization. According to Wong and Law (2002), positive emotions and an affirmative approach are precursors to enhancing employee commitment and limiting turnover intention. Employees with high EI maintain an optimistic approach and positive mindset, whereas employees who lack EI are inclined to experience sadness, disappointment, frustration and anger (Carmeli, 2003).

Carmeli (2003) identified emotion as the most important factor determining the conversion of turnover intention into actual turnover. Therefore, EI is a skill that enables employees to read and comprehend their negative emotions, and to steer clear of pessimistic responses such as depression or frustration. Wong and Law (2002) also explored how EI is related to turnover intention. For example, the ability of leaders to use antecedent and response-focused emotional regulation enhances the relationship between them and their followers, which in turn increases job satisfaction. Moreover, the existence of a positive emotional situation for employees will lead to positive affect for the organization. As a consequence, positive experience on the job and positive affective emotions increase employees' commitment to the organization, which makes them less likely to quit their jobs.

In light of the above, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H8a: There is a negative relationship between FPA and follower turnover intention (FTI).

H8b: There is a positive relationship between FNA and FTI.

H9c: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FTI.

H10c: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FTI.

H11c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

H12c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

2.6.3.3 Organizational Commitment

Scholars who have conducted EI research on organizational commitment have established a correlation between organizational commitments and behaviors and attitudes in the workplace (Kinlaw, 1989). This is one of the reasons why organizational commitment forms a vital part of organizational behavior studies. Moreover, employee commitment can successfully be built up by managers who are willing to assist their employees in aggregating their experiences, skills and knowledge; the primary tasks of leaders are to focus on their followers and to help create organizational commitment. Therefore, it is imperative for organizational leaders to work on the following four robust support elements for the purposes of enhancing organizational commitments: (1) employee competence that ensures success, (2) expression of appreciation to employees for their organizational contributions, (3) clarity of values and goals and (4) the degree of influence present in the employees.

Wong and Law (2002) noted that EI has a significant rapport with the outcomes of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. EI also plays a role and has impacts that are related to organizational commitment, as it is a pool of capacities, abilities and non-cognitive skills that strengthen the ability of an individual in terms of facing external pressures and requests (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). EI also includes the ability of an individual (1) to express his/her emotions in a productive manner, (2) to

comprehend his/her feelings and (3) to feel for and listen to others. EI plays an equally significant role across almost the entire domain, from effective employee performance to effective partnership, teamwork, vision and leadership traits (Goleman, 1995, 1998). Any given organization is capable of excelling in all the relevant areas if they have emotionally intelligent employees. Such organizations will eventually succeed in retaining employees who are efficient, committed, aligned with their business, motivated and productive (Petrides & Furnham, 2006).

Furthermore, resilient correlations between aspects of EI and organizational commitment have been established in a study by Nikolaou and Tsaousis (2002). The results of their study showed that the application of emotions in EI had some association with organizational commitments, regardless of the limited relationship between comprehension of emotions, organizational commitment and the control of emotions. Additionally, they observed that EI was a major factor in escalating organizational commitments. However, Wong and Law (2002) found that EI had no significant link with organizational commitment. Nawi and Redzuan (2011) supported this finding, claiming that there is no hard evidence for the relationship between organizational commitment and EI. Güleryüz et al. (2008) found that there was no important association between organizational commitment and EI, although job satisfaction was a facilitator between organizational commitment and EI.

In contrast, numerous studies have found a positive link between organizational commitment and EI (Güleryüz et al., 2008; Lordanoglou, 2008). These authors observed a positive correlation between organizational commitment and some levels of EI; Carmeli (2003) also found a positive connection between EI and affective commitment. His study further elaborated that there was a negative relationship between continued commitment and EI, and that the continued commitment of

individuals with high EI tended to wane over time. Employees with high EI had high levels of affective attachment and commitment to an organization, and there was a strong positive relationship between affective organizational commitment and EI. There was no significance in the affiliation between protracted commitment and EI; nevertheless, emotions help individuals to fulfill their commitments and loyalty to themselves, their groups and organizations if they are managed well (Zeidner et al., 2004).

Four EI domains were proposed by Goleman (1998): self-management, relationship management, social awareness and self-awareness. EI is one of the most critical predictors of an individual having a successful life in an organization, which ultimately results in organizational success (Al Kahtani, 2013). Organizational commitments include continuance, affective and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Continuance commitment is the need of individuals to continue working in their respective organizations, as compared to the reasons that might make them consider quitting the organization. Affective commitment recognizes the desire of individuals to continue working in their organizations, and this covers their contributions, identities and attitudes toward emotions. Normative commitment, which is influenced by social norms, covers the beliefs of workers in terms of their commitment to the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). The authors suggested that individuals who feel that they need to continue working in their organization have continuance commitment, those who continue working in their organization because they really want to have affective commitment, and those who feel that they should be working in their organization have normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational commitment denotes the beliefs of an employee concerning organizational values, goals and loyalty, and the desire to remain a member of the

organization (Huey Yiing & Zaman Bin Ahmad, 2009). Hence, leaders endeavor persistently to generate commitment on the part of employees, owing to the increase scale and speed of change in organizations; commitment translates into competitive advantage and improved work attitudes in terms of absenteeism, satisfaction, turnover intention and performance (Lok & Crawford, 2001). Organizational commitment is a significant variable that has an effect on the attitudes of employees and affects their degree of loyalty to organizations, because it is the relative strength of the identification of an individual involved in a specific organization.

Meyer and Allen (2004) described the components of organizational commitment as potentially having equally significant contrary repercussions for job behaviors. Continuance commitment may be greatly affected by perceptions of external considerations or "side effects" such as pension plans and retirement benefits (analogous to the "side bet" of calculative commitment theory; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Affective commitment may be strongly influenced by perceptions of organizational support and work experiences (Mowday, Steers, & Porter 1979), and also seems to be a function of the emotional strength of individuals involved with an organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) claimed that affective commitment is associated with a sturdy belief in and acceptance of organizational values and goals, which translates into strong aspirations on the part of employees to retain organizational membership and a disposition to making greater efforts on behalf of the organization. Normative commitment is anchored in obligations and social pressures toward the organization. Elements such as an individual's cultural and domestic socialization, which takes place before their entry into organization, may also influence their feelings toward an organization. Zeidner et al. (2004) suggested that individuals with a better developed sense of emotions are those who are more

successful in terms of communicating their ideas, objectives and goals in ways that encourage others. This is because EI is linked with job satisfaction and with a high capability for relieving pressures and solving problems (Carmeli, 2003; Kafetsios & Zampetakis, 2008). Organizational leaders who possess IE are capable of influencing relationships positively in the workplace, because EI encompasses social skills that are required for teamwork (Goleman, 1998). EI is also capable of revealing attitudes toward job pressures and of influencing the success of an individual at times of work-related pressure. It affects the personality instead of the cognitive intelligence, because a positive relationship exists between organization commitment and EI (Bar-On, 1997).

Consequently, EI has a moderating influence, and individuals possessing high levels of EI are in a position to enhance job security on the basis of their affective commitment. Job insecurity may lead to a decline in commitment and to high turnover intentions, both of which threaten the stability of an organization. Instead of adopting multiple perspectives to ascertain whether their feelings are reasonable and accurate, followers with high levels of the self-management components of EI are able to select the most significant information for any feelings of insecurity. Followers with high perceptions of EI can therefore be expected to evaluate the emotions they are feeling so as to ascertain the correctness of their emotional discernments. The control of preliminary emotional reactions in relation to job insecurities is much more difficult for followers with lower levels of ability to manage their emotions than for their colleagues who are better able to manage emotions.

Emotionally intelligent followers are also able to anticipate the likely multifaceted emotions that come to the fore from such scenarios, incorporating their own feelings of betrayal and loyalty and how uncertainty may result in anger and

frustration. Meyer and Salovey (1997) acknowledged that this situation might result in followers developing even further their affective commitment to the organization, generating more interest and passion for their work. In employees with a high capacity to manage emotions in their own personal interests, there may be an escalation of normative commitment to the organization and suppression of feelings of insecurity during the period of employment. Employees with low EI, however, may manifest lower levels of affective commitment compared to their colleagues with higher EI in response to job insecurity. EI will therefore moderate the outcomes of perception of job insecurity on affective commitment. In either case, the major challenge concerns the ability of the employee to wield emotional control.

In light of the above, the following hypotheses will be tested:

H7a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and FOC.

H7b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FOC.

H9b: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FOC.

H10b: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FOC.

H11b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

H12b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

2.6.4 Emotional Contagion

Emotional contagion and leadership is a phenomenon based on intangible factors that enable a leader to gain the admiration and respect of followers and to win their hearts and minds. The process of emotional contagion has always fascinated organizational scholars (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985). Emotional contagion refers to the transfer of emotions or moods from one individual to another. Emotional contagion plays a significant role in organizational behavior, because it can act as the

major descriptive mechanism of how collective emotions form via conscious and unconscious emotional social influence (Barsade, Coutifaris, & Pillemer, 2018). While everyone has the capability to receive and send emotions using emotional contagion, some people are more vulnerable to emotional contagion than others (Hatfield et al., 1992). Emotional contagion is the unconscious and automatic transmission of emotions between persons (Hatfield et al., 1992), and it is believed to result from people's tendency to synchronize and mimic the vocalizations, facial expressions, postures and movements of others. These signal the goal in practicing the emotion that is being mimicked (Hess & Fischer, 2014). Research indicates that leaders are the source of emotions in an emotional contagion and that the flow of emotions channels from leader to followers is more dominant than the flow from followers to leader. This is because leaders are the powerholders in the dynamics of an organization; they authorize use of resources and time and dictate interaction (Sy, Côté & Saavedra, 2005). Sy et al. (2005) discovered that a leader's positive mood seeps into the group of subordinates; they experience positive mood to a greater extent and intensity than negative mood. The emotions exhibited by leaders are perceived by followers in order to determine their sincerity (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002) and charisma (Groves, 2005), which are two important traits of a successful leader. Leaders with higher levels of EI are skilled at exhibiting appropriate emotions and transmitting them to followers, and this enables the leader to be portrayed as trustworthy and authentic, thereby enhancing job satisfaction among followers.

Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2002) indicated that follower perception of the authenticity of a leader boosts positive affect, which results in increased job satisfaction. According to Groves (2005), leaders who control and channel their emotions in order to elicit the desired affect from followers induce job satisfaction and

a positive affective contagion. George (2000) expressed dissatisfaction over the lack of research into the ways a leader's emotion and mood can impact their relevance and how they are perceived as leaders. The present study aims to bridge this gap by viewing leader emotions from the perspective of various theories: AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), the multi-level model of emotion and leadership (Ashkanasy, 2003; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011a, 2011b) and emotional contagion theory (Hatfield et al., 1992).

In the process of emotional contagion, individuals catch the emotional displays of others, thereby spreading a vibe among individuals who are in contact with each other in the workforce. Emotions may spread in a contagion through conscious effort or unconsciously (Morris & Keltner, 2000). Regardless of whether an emotion is transmitted intentionally or unintentionally among employees, it is an important discovery that vibes, moods and emotions spread through a workforce through vocal communication or by silent gestures (Barsade, 2002; Hatfield et al., 1994). Affective displays by leaders spread and prevail among a group with notable intensity. Thus, an emotional contagion instigated by a leader's emotional displays has the potential to impact workforce efficiency constructively or destructively, and it may either encourage or block high performance and progress (Johnson, 2008).

Research in social psychology has shown that disclosing an emotional incentive can influence an individual's facial expressions (e.g., Johnson, 2008) and that displaying a meticulous facial appearance can elicit a corresponding emotion in others (Gump & Kulik, 1997). Friedman and Riggio (1981) found that emotional contagion was experienced by two people who merely sat still and looked at each other for two minutes. Emotional contagion has recently been scrutinized in a management or leadership framework (Kafetsios, Athanasiadou, & Dimou, 2014; Sy et al., 2005; Thiel, Connelly, & Griffith, 2012). For instance, Sy et al. (2005) stage-managed

leaders' moods in directing the jobs done by their teams and discovered that a leader's temper influenced the moods of his/her subordinates and prejudiced the group's affective attitudes. Since leaders are extremely significant group members, emotional contagion from leaders to followers is inevitably strong (Connelly & Ruark, 2010). Studies have also suggested that people in lower-ranking jobs have an increased consciousness of their superiors' thoughts (Thiel, Connelly, & Griffith, 2012) and that concentrating on one's opinions makes emotional infection more probable (Hatfield et al., 1992). Nonetheless, empirical evidence of emotional contagion from leaders to followers (Cherulnik et al., 2001;Sy et al., 2005) may have been enhanced by the power of laboratory conditions and by a lack of peripheral pressure. In light of the above emotional contagion literature, the following section will explore followers' susceptibility to emotional contagion.

2.6.4.1 Followers' Characteristics: Susceptibility to Emotional Contagion

According to Hatfield et al. (1992), everyone has the capacity to receive and send emotions by means of emotional contagion. Some people are more vulnerable than others to emotional contagion. Vulnerable individuals pay attention to other people's emotional expressions and are able to understand those expressions. They feel that they are interrelated with or similar to other individuals, which inclines them to mimic postural, vocal and facial expressions. Because of these behaviors, susceptible individuals are more likely to catch other people's emotions. Doherty (1997, p. 149) observes that "Susceptibility is best considered the tendency to automatically mimic and synchronize with the expressions of others and, through afferent feedback from the facial and/or skeletal muscular activity, and to experience or 'catch' the others' emotions." Doherty goes on to argue that gender, genetics,

personality characteristics and early experiences contribute to dissimilarities between people in their vulnerability to emotional contagion. Susceptibility is the probability that an individual will grasp five fundamental emotions: sadness, love, happiness, anger and fear. Individuals who are more susceptible are more strongly inclined to support certain statements, e.g., "If someone I'm talking with begins to cry, I get teary-eyed," "Being with a happy person picks me up when I'm feeling down," "When someone smiles warmly at me, I smile back and feel warm inside" and "I get filled with sorrow when people talk about the death of their loved ones" Doherty (1997, p. 149). It is likely that emotional contagion between followers and leaders is felt by the followers who are more susceptible to emotional contagion.

In light of the above emotional contagion literature, the following hypotheses will be tested:

Hypothesis 5a: The positive relationship between LPA and FPA will be stronger when the follower's susceptibility to emotional contagion is high than when it is low.

Hypothesis 5b: The positive relationship between LNA and FNA will be stronger when the follower's susceptibility to emotional contagion is high than when it is low.

2.6.5 Research Model

Taking into consideration the findings in the literature and the hypotheses constructed here, the research model is summarized in Figure 2.3.
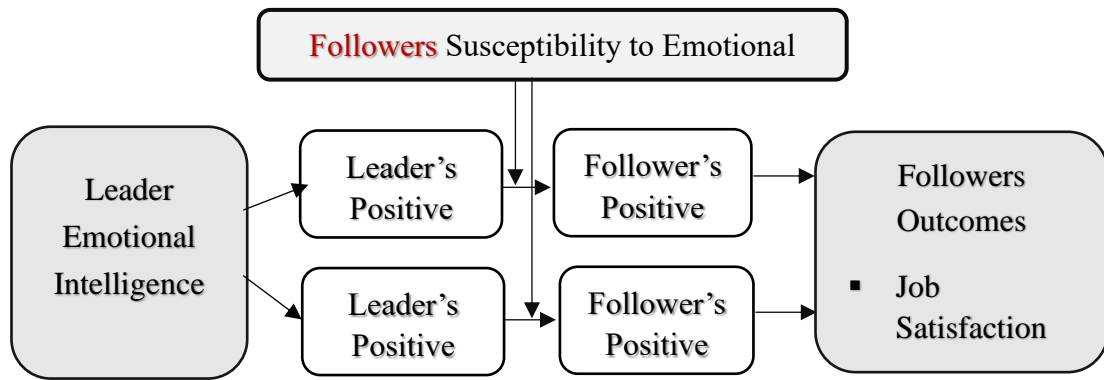
Figure 2.3: The research model

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the study design, field access, measurement scales used, data sources and field sources prior to the statistical analysis. Additionally, the research paradigm is demonstrated, showing the operationalization of the constructs and measurements. The data sources, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques are identified, along with the procedures conducted prior to analysis for the purposes of outlining the profile of the respondents.

3.2 Research Epistemology

The core objective of this study is to demonstrate the role of a leader's EI on his/her followers' work attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the mediatory role of positive and negative affect at work was tested as a significant mediator of the relationship between leader EI and follower job satisfaction, performance and turnover intention. It is very important in the data collection phase to have a detailed research approach. Accordingly, this study adopted a paradigm with a positivist tendency as its basic approach to the investigation of the relevant phenomena (Crossan, 2003). Crowther and Lancaster (2008) noted that most positivist studies adopt a deductive approach, whereas an inductive research approach is more inclined to the branch of philosophy called phenomenology. Since the knowledge regarding the research topic and questions has already been created, the current research will make use of instruments from the existing literature to measure the constructs and will take a positivist approach. Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Festinger (2005) and Sarantakos (2012) explained that a positive research model focuses on the measurements of variables/constructs, hypothesis testing and the analysis of the data within a causal

framework. Research paradigms also depend on what are known as "ontology" (what is the real truth) and "epistemology" (how the true reality is identified) (Neuman, 2003). The positivism paradigm is founded on the notion that there are laws that govern social phenomena; scholars have acknowledged that a quantitative approach forms part of accurate research regulation under all circumstances (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000). Positivism also requires research to target only observable facts, whereas phenomenology is more inclined to recreate human interests on a larger scale. Hence, in this study, the theoretical framework is drawn from concepts discussed in the literature review in Chapter 2, including AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), EI and emotional contagion.

A systematic research approach allows a researcher to collect data efficiently. The methodology in this research strategy is a quantitative one that takes numbers and measurements as its primary focus. According to Bryman & Cramer (2004), quantitative research looks for quantifiable data to collect and to analyze as research data. The methods included in this approach were surveys (Bryman, 2004; Cook & Reichardt, 1979; Deshpande, 1983). Moreover, quantitative research studies endeavor to deduce conclusions about the relationship of theories to research; experts have observed that they also incorporate a positive orientation together with an objective observation of reality (Bryman, 2004). In the present case, the intention is to obtain the perception of an "outsider" who is separate from the data (Deshpande, 1983).

Quantitative research usually begins by defining the propositions, postulates or hypotheses that will be either supported or not supported by empirical evidence from the study. This approach allows for social manifestation in the analytical numbers, which is why it is applied in a variety of social reality contexts. It facilitates the

collection of data in the form of numbers, which are then used as evidence for the purpose of data analysis (Neuman, 2003; Sarantakos, 2012).

According to Amo and Cousins (2007), research operationalization usually occurs moments after choosing the research framework. Sarantakos (2012) noted that research methodology is categorized as part of a research strategy that governs both the epistemology and the ontology of a research study. The process of quantifying the occurrence that is indirectly measured through its existence as indicated by other phenomena is known as operationalization. This process therefore involves the interpretation of equivocal perceptions, guaranteeing that they are quantifiable and plainly expounded through experimental evidence and investigations (Lukyanenko, Evermann, & Parsons, 2014). It is a process that commences with the development of hypotheses linked to the research topic and grounded in the relevant literature (in this case, derived from the appropriate research area in the context of the UAE). The mathematical quantification that is pertinent to the quantitative methodology is then applied. For the purposes of collecting quantitative data, Thiede, Anderson, and Therriault (2003) recommended that various individuals should be furnished with defined surveys with a predetermined set of questions. These quantitative data are then processed and translated into numerical form (statistical data and percentages), and through cross-sectional analysis this yields results that can be generalized to bigger populations (Given, 2008), as in the present study.

The study is cross-sectional in nature because of the limitations of the current literature on the research topic. A cross-sectional study is a type of observational study that works by analyzing data gathered from a representative sample or a population at a given time. A cross-sectional study also makes use of the available literature in the framework of the social sciences, using regression to resolve issues of magnitude and

the unpremeditated effects of either one or more independent variables on the dependent variable of interest at a specific time (Given, 2008). In terms of statistical methodology, the present study makes use of convenience sampling, consistent with the research methodology used (Birks, McKendree, & Watt, 2009; Brannick, Wahi, Arce, Johnson, Nazian, & Goldin, 2009; Deshpande & Joseph, 2009; Doherty, Conin, & Offiah, 2013; Nikolaou & Tsaousis, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002). The cross-sectional survey was established following the operationalization of the nine research model constructs that were used to test the hypotheses identified for the purposes of answering research questions.

3.3 Research Design and Rationale

The core objective of the study is to demonstrate the role of a leader's EI on his/her followers' work attitudes and behaviors so as to extend knowledge of leader EI competencies and the creation of a positive work environment in the UAE context. Since the data collection phase is critical, this study was planned in three stages. The first stage reviewed the literature in the organizational behavior field and how EI is considered as a vital competency in leadership. The researcher considered LEI as an independent variable, and the organizational outcomes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention were selected as dependent variables. Additionally, two mediator variables were selected: negative affect of leader and follower, and positive affect of leader and follower. As a moderator variable, emotional contagion was selected in order to measure the susceptibility to emotional contagion of participants in the present study. For the purposes of further clarity and illustration, the role of positive and negative affect at work was tested as a significant mediator of the relationship between leader EI and follower job satisfaction,

organizational commitment and work turnover intention to test the proposed model and hypotheses in the UAE context.

This study also endeavored to determine whether LEI levels influence follower job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the UAE public sector, clarifying the theory of EI by assessing whether LEI levels affect followers and determining the effects of EI in the UAE context. The study considered whether leaders with higher levels of EI influence their followers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention in relation to the UAE public sector. The second stage of this study identified accurate measurement tools for each variable, confirming their statistical validity and applicability in the context of UAE and relevant studies of EI. The third stage of the research was the primary data collection, which involved the distribution of an online survey (via SurveyMonkey) and a hard-copy survey for leaders and followers. The population was derived from various UAE government public and private sector departments, which provided convenient access to employees drawn from all government departments.

The researcher also introduced two surveys: one for leaders, which consisted of two measurement scales, and one for subordinates, which consisted of five measurement scales. Each survey asked the respondent to supply appropriate demographic information (see Appendix A). Coordinating with the HR offices was crucial for making contact with the sample of respondents after their consent to contribute to the study, and the secondary data were derived from the literature relevant to the study.

3.4 Research Procedures and Data Sources

A research study needs to evaluate ethical considerations in terms of values, social principles and individual results. Participant confidentiality must be respected. Accordingly, the researcher applied for ethical approval of the survey from the UAE University Ethical Committee. After approval was received, the survey was distributed to the government and private sectors in Abu Dhabi and Dubai, both in hard copy and in soft copy (using SurveyMonkey). At this point, the scope of the study was discussed with the participants, and their data confidentiality was guaranteed, enabling them to provide truthful answers to the survey questions. Therefore, this research study endeavored to guarantee and respect the rights of the research participants throughout the pre-research and post-research periods, as set out below (Cohen et al., 2000; Freed-Tailor, 1994; Neuman, 2000):

a) Participation in the research study by any individual should be voluntary.

b) All information offered by research participants must always be handled with the utmost confidentiality (i.e., there must be no release of information concerning any given subject under any circumstances).

c) The research aims should be communicated to the research subjects.

d) The subjects of the research study should provide their informed consent.

3.5 Measures/Instruments Used to Operationalize the Research Model

The following section describes the measurement tools used for each construct. The questionnaires were designed in such a way that they could accommodate the pre-existing valid and reliable instruments related to the context of this study. The participants were requested to rate the extent to which they agreed with the various

applicable statements on a five-point scale rating from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.1 Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale

In this study, the construct of LEI was evaluated using the Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS), which is a self-reporting measure of EI. A recent study conducted by LaPalme, Wang, Joseph, Saklofske, and Yan (2016) noted that "although the WLEIS is a self-report measure, it purports to measure EI as an ability" (p. 197).

Wong and Law developed WLEIS to contain 16 items on a five-point Likert scale clustered into four subscales, namely: (a) self-emotion appraisal (SEA), (b) emotion appraisal of others (OEA), (c) use of emotion (UOE), and (d) regulation of emotion (ROE) (Wong & Law, 2002). This construct has previously been endorsed and applied by various researchers. The WLEIS has also helped in predicting external variables such as job performance, organizational commitment and job satisfaction, because of its strong conjunction with previous EI measures, such as the empirically verified EQ-i and the Trait Meta-Mood. The complex nature of EI is supported by the subsections in the WLEIS (Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002). The acceptable reliability of each of the WLEIS subscales was concluded by Karim (2010), with values for Cronbach's alpha of 0.81 (SEA), 0.80 (OEA), 0.78 (UOE) and 0.79 (ROE). Additionally, composite factor reliability was conducted for each WLEIS subscale, yielding values of 0.82 (SEA), 0.81 (OEA), 0.80 (UOE) and 0.81 (ROE). The WLEIS scale has also been tested for construct validity in measuring EI (Karim, 2010; Law, Wong, & Song, 2004; Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002), as well as reliability compared to other EI measurements (Karim, 2010; Shi & Wang, 2007; Wong & Law,

2002). Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) stated that consistency with pre-existing EI measurement instruments is necessary in order for a new emotional tool to be valid. Moreover, Shi and Wang (2007) noted that WLEIS has been shown to overlap with other EI measures, besides being found to be a significant construct for the future research endeavors (Law et al., 2004).

The WLEIS scale has also been previously used for the general population (Karim, 2010) and university students (Libbrecht, Lievens, & Schollaert, 2010; Shi & Wang, 2007). Because it is a self-report survey, it is considered to be time-efficient. Although self-reported responses carry a risk of bias (Birks & Watt, 2007; Clarke, 2010; Libbrecht et al., 2010), the WLEIS scale is still considered time-efficient because it has been well researched. Self-reported measurements are considered to be expedient because they are easy and inexpensive to administer, despite some less advantageous characteristics (Libbrecht et al., 2010).

3.5.2 Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS)

The PANAS tool developed by Watson and Clark (1994) is used to measure the state affect for both leaders and subordinates in this study. The PANAS self-reporting questionnaire is a scale that is normally split into sections or mood scales; its 20 items measure traits of positive and negative affectivity (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), using a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. One scale measures the negative scale of an individual, while the other scale measures positive emotions. Each division consists of ten items that are rated on a scale of 1 to 5 according to the extent to which the respondent agrees that the statement applies to him/her.

The PANAS scale was therefore adopted as a research tool for this study and used to measure changes in the emotions and feelings of the respondents. Its psychometric scale helped to show the relationship between negative/positive emotions and personality characteristics and statistics. The emotions of the respondents were tested and determined at the moment when the research was carried out. However, sometimes it can prove difficult to assess the state of an individual's mind in an accurate manner, because the PANAS scale is focused on self-reporting; human beings are subjective and may overestimate or underestimate their own moods. Since the PANAS scale is one of the standardized methodologies for quantifying changes in mood, the researcher used a 20-item test as summarized in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Twenty-item test of negative and positive affect

Terms with negative affect	Terms with positive affect
1. Guilty	1. Determined
2. Upset	2. Strong
3. Hostile	3. Attentive
4. Jittery	4. Alert
5. Irritable	5. Interested
6. Nervous	6. Excited
7. Ashamed	7. Proud
8. Afraid	8. Active
9. Scared	9. Inspired
10. Distressed	10. Enthusiastic

3.5.3 Susceptibility to Emotional Contagion Scale

This questionnaire was adopted from the study of Doherty (1997). The original version consists of 15 Likert-style items that assess subordinates' susceptibility to emotional contagion, asking the participant to indicate the extent to which they agree with each statement using a four-point rating scale (1 = never, 4 = always). However, to take account of the very conservative nature of UAE culture, three items were deleted by the researcher: (13) When I look into the eyes of the one I love, my mind is filled with thoughts of romance; (14) I melt when the one I love holds me close; and (15) I sense my body responding when the one I love touches me. The 12 items retained were as follows. (1) If someone I'm talking to begins to cry, I get teary-eyed; (2) Being with a happy leader makes me have a sense of confidence when I have a feeling of inferiority complex; (3) When someone smiles warmly at me, I smile back and feel a sense of satisfaction; (4) I get filled with sorrow when people talk about the death of their loved ones; (5) I clench my jaws and my shoulders get tight when I see the angry faces on the news; (6) It irritates me to be around angry people; (7) Watching the fearful faces of victims on the news makes me try to imagine how they might be feeling; (8) I become tense when I overhear angry people quarrel; (9) Being around happy people fills my mind with happy thoughts; (10) I notice myself getting tense when I am around people who are stressed out; (11) I cry when I watch sad movies; and (12) Listening to the shrill screams of a terrified child in a dentist's waiting room makes me feel nervous. The results of the 12 items are summed, with total scores ranging from 12 (least susceptible to emotional contagion) to 48 (most susceptible to emotional contagion).

3.5.4 Job Satisfaction Scale

The job satisfaction construct was evaluated using six items based on the study of Brayfield and Rothe (1951), which used to measure the attitude of the employees on their job. Subordinates responded to the following statements: (1) I find real enjoyment in my job; (2) I like my job better than the average worker does; (3) I am seldom bored with my job; (4) I would not consider taking another job; (5) Most days I am enthusiastic about my job; and (6) I feel fairly well satisfied with my job. The subordinates responded using a five-point Likert scale running between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).

3.5.5 Turnover Intention Scale

The turnover intention construct was adapted from Colarelli's (1984) three-item scale: (1) I will not be working for this organization one year from now; (2) I frequently think of quitting my job; and (3) I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months. Participants had to respond using a five-point Likert scale running between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree). Recent studies have measured this construct using a single item (Kowske, Rasch, & Wiley, 2010) or two items (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979); however, from a statistical perspective, it is highly recommended to measure at least three items for any given construct.

3.5.6 Organizational Commitment Scale

The six-item affective commitment scale was applied by Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli (2001) to measure the construct of affective organization commitment. Their study, together with the initial measurements developed by Meyer,

Allen, & Allen (1997), has since been cited more than 1,500 times. Therefore, the present study endeavored to combine three major scales: the original commitment scale (Allen & Meyer, 1990), the nine-item scale of Dunham, Grube, and Castaneda (1994), and the 15-item scale of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979). The original commitment scale has been cited by researchers more than 10,000 times, but it is complicated and difficult to use across all the targeted groups, as it contains more than eight items, with four reversed questions. Therefore, this study adopted the scale that was developed by Meyer et al. (1997) by modifying the scale used by Rhoades et al. (2001), which was in turn adapted from the original commitment scales of Allen and Mayer (1990). It has a favorable length (only six items), the questions are direct and it has been widely used in the EI literature. It avoids reverse questions, and its sample item is "I feel personally attached to my work organization." Therefore, these measurements assisted in testing the efficacy, validity and reliability of the proposed research model for this research study as indicated in the references and sample demonstrations. The measurement instruments adapted and the constructs used are summarized in Table 3.2.

3.6 Summary of Instruments and Tools Used

A panel of leaders drawn from various organizational departments and a group of employees/followers were surveyed for the purposes of addressing plausible concerns regarding the combination of WLEIS and PANAS (Appendix A). The WLEIS and PANAS scales were eventually combined into one survey tool (Appendix A). The validity and functionality of the research instruments were subjected to testing in a process that saw both leaders and followers responding to questions concerning the face validity, consequential validity, content validity, item bias and construct

validity of the surveys, as well as appraisals of internal reliability. For the purposes of checking the reliability, discriminant validity and convergent validity of the scales, the study applied the composite reliability test. Previous studies have shown a positive outcome in terms of the validity and reliability of the measures applied here (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Button, Mathieu, & Zajac, 1996; Edmondson, 1999; Jerez-Gomez, Cespedes-Lorente, & Valle-Cabrera , 2005). Eventually, all the instruments were shown to be valid and reliable, as further discussed in detail in the data analysis section (Chapter 4). Table 3.2 sets out the constructs, dimensions and sources used in the present study.

Table 3.2: Model constructs and corresponding measurement instruments

Construct	Dimension	Source
Emotional intelligence will be measured for leaders		
Emotional intelligence	**The four ability dimensions described in the domain of EI:** (1) appraisal and expression of emotion in the self (2) appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (3) regulation of emotion in the self (4) use of emotion to facilitate performance.	The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) is a 16-item self-reporting measure of EI consistent with Mayer and Salovey's (1997) definition of EI.
Positive and negative dimensions will be measured for both followers and leaders		
Positive and negative affect	**Positive and Negative Affectivity Scale (PANAS):** The feelings of the respondent are the target indication of the 20-item scale, which is considered to affect negatively and positively.	Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988)
Followers' susceptibility to emotional contagion		
Susceptibility to emotional contagion	In this case, the three items that refer to the concept of love were omitted. The 12 remaining items seek to measure susceptibility to emotional contagion from anger, sadness and happiness. Sample items include "When I am sad, being with a happy person changes my feelings" and "I become tense when I encounter or hear angry quarreling." Responses were recorded on a scale from 1 (never) to 4 (always). The scale is considered to have a high level of consistency and is regarded as a design with one-dimensional properties. It also has good test and retest properties.	Doherty (1997)

Table 3.2: Model constructs and corresponding measurement instruments (Continued)

Construct	Dimension	Source
Followers' behaviors and attitude measurement		
Job satisfaction	Job satisfaction' was measured by six items adapted from Brayfield and Rothe (1951): 1. I find real enjoyment in my job 2. I like my job better than the average worker does 3. I am seldom bored with my job 4. I would not consider taking another job 5. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job 6. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job. The scale has good reliability with a value of Cronbach's alpha equal to .87.	Brayfield and Rothe (1951)
Turnover intention	The three items of the turnover intention scale were used to measure turnover intention among employees (sample item: "I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months"). We used the survey questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).	Colarelh (1984)
Affective commitment scale	The affective commitment scale has eight items: 1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. 2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it. 3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. 4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. 5. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. 6. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization. 7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. 8. I do not feel a "strong" sense of belonging to my organization.	Meyer and Allen (1997)

3.7 Control Variables

During the research process, research factors that have the potential to affect the experimental results should be controlled so as to achieve fair results. Control variables are sometimes referred to as "constant variables." Control variables are constant variables used to appraise the relationship between two other variables. Hence, these variables or items may be defined as the items that cause something else to vary predictably across related items; examples include the items in the present research designed for the purpose of measuring cause and effect. There are three kinds of variables in most research models: controlled, dependent and independent. Control variables do not change and thus permit the relationships between the other variables to be tested. An independent variable, on the other hand, is changed by the researcher in a bid to monitor the behaviors of the dependent variable(s) so as to achieve the outcome changes drawn from the independent variable(s) (Miah, 2016).

Eagly and Kite (1987) noted that research in the social sciences commonly uses gender and age as a control variable, and argued that gender role socialization theories are concerned with the norms and roles of acceptable behaviors that are not the same on either side of the gender divide. According to this theory, women consider themselves emotionally expressive and interpersonally connected, while men see themselves as independent and self-reliant. Furthermore, Nixon, Linkie, Coleman, and Fitch (2011) reported that the genders documented divergent levels of workplace victimization in line with their pre-arranged roles: women tended to claim that they were victims, but the perception of victimhood contravened men's views of themselves as independent and self-reliant. In line with these concerns, the present study adopted a range of control variables: education, gender, age and the total job experience of leaders and followers.

3.8 Sample Characteristics

The population for this study was drawn from leaders and employees working in the UAE public and private sectors. The survey attracted a total of 500 leaders and followers. Data were collected from the 95 leaders and 270 followers who returned their survey questionnaires. Among the leader-reported data, 74.19% of participants were men and 25.81% were women; in the follower-reported data, 50.70% were men and 49.30% were women.

It is of paramount significance to analyze the basic profiles and demographic features of participants prior to hypothesis testing. Among the leader participants, 25.81% were in the 25–34 age bracket, and 74.19% were 35 or older. Among the followers, 42.66% were aged 25–34, 43.36% were 35 or older, and 13.99% were in a younger age bracket (18–24). In terms of education, 8.6% of the leaders had a diploma, 25.81% had a higher diploma, 41.94% had a master's degree and 2.15% had a doctorate or diploma degree, while 21.5% had degrees of other forms. Among the followers, 30.42% had a diploma degree, 18.18% had a Higher diploma degree, 30.07% had a master's degree and 21.33% had other forms of qualification.

For work experience, 25.81% of leaders and 39.86% of followers had less than three years' work experience. The category of participants who had four to five years' work experience accounted for 16.13% of the leaders and 27.27% of the followers. Among those with seven to ten years' work experience were 21.51% of the leaders and 17.13% of the followers. Finally, 36.56% of the leaders and 15.73% of the followers had more than 10 years' work experience. Leaders and participants were drawn from different types of companies. Of the leaders, 48.39% worked in private companies, 29.03% in semi-private companies, 19.35% in local government and 3.23% in federal government. Of the followers, 46.15% worked in private companies,

39.51% in semi-private companies, 12.94% in local government and 1.40% in federal

government (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Respondent characteristics

Item	Description	Percentage (%)
Leader gender	Male	74.19
	Female	25.81
Follower gender	Male	50.70
	Female	49.30
Leader age	25–34 years	25.81
	35 years and older	74.19
Follower age	25–34 years	42.66
	35 years and older	43.36
	18–24 years	13.99
Leader education	Diploma degree	8.6
	Higher diploma degree	25.81
	Master's degree	41.94
	Doctorate/PhD	2.15
	Other degrees	21.51
Follower education	Diploma degree	30.42
	Higher diploma degree	18.18
	Master's degree	30.07
	Other degrees	21.33
Leader work experience	Less than 3 years	25.81
	4–6 years	16.13
	7–10 years	21.51
	More than 10 years	36.56
Follower work experience	Less than 3 years	39.86
	4–6 years	27.27
	7–10 years	17.13
	More than 10 years	15.73
Leader organization type	Private	48.39
	Semi-private	29.03
	Local government	19.35
	Federal government	3.23
Follower organization type	Private	46.15
	Semi-private	39.51
	Local government	12.94
	Federal government	1.40

3.8.1 Sample Population

The sample consisted of UAE leaders and employees working in both the public and private sectors and spread across the UAE. The research design required access to performance data at both the individual and unit levels. These samples were arrived at because of difficulties in gaining permission to gather complex sets of data and challenges in gaining access alongside the data collection requirement terms. However, the researcher succeeded in obtaining full permission to gather the required data in the government sectors within the sample, in addition samples from other private organization departments were also collected.

3.8.2 Sample Techniques

Although Cooper and Schindler (2001) dismissed simple random sampling as unrealistic, Campbell, Stanley, and Gage (1966), in their seminal work on research design, advised researchers to randomize their samples. Therefore, simple random sampling was applied to collect data from both government and private organizations across the UAE.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter has outlined the analysis of the research participants together with their demographics. It has also demonstrated that procedures were properly followed in procuring the necessary approval for conducting the survey through the UAE University ethical committee as well as through the employers. The methodology, description of the research, collaboration, instrumentation, and the collection of samples are also included in this chapter, along with the operationalization of the

research model constructs using the available literature and the various stages of the research design.

The reliability and validity of the measurement tools for EI and the organizational outcomes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention have also been addressed in this chapter. Both parametric and non-parametric tests were used to determine the consistency of the results, because the survey tools that were applied within the study were in the form of Likert scales. More participants from different UAE government departments and categories were acquired because the questions were anonymous, which also served to reduce common method bias (CMB) (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Chapter 4: Results and Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides details of the statistical procedures and techniques used for the data analysis of the current study. The analysis was conducted in four steps: (1) data screening, (2) confirmatory factor analysis, (3) descriptive statistics, and (4) hypothesis testing, using SPSS version 25 (IBM Corp, 2017) and AMOS version 23 (Arbuckle, 2014) software. In the data screening step, missing values, aberrant values, outlier values, normal distribution of data and CMB were analyzed using the relevant statistical procedures in SPSS and AMOS. In the confirmatory factor analysis, the factorial, convergent and discriminant validity of the employed measures was assessed through various measurement models tested in AMOS. In the descriptive statistics step, frequency analysis of the employed demographic variables was performed in SPSS. Finally, in the hypothesis testing, the hypothesized relationships among the variables were tested using the PROCESS macro for SPSS developed by Hayes (2012).

4.2 Data Screening

The process of data screening is essential to ensure that the collected data are appropriately analyzed and that the assumptions of the applied statistical technique(s) are met (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The following five steps tasks were performed at the data screening stage:

1. Missing value analysis
2. Aberrant value analysis
3. Multivariate outlier analysis
4. Normal distribution of data analysis
5. Common method bias analysis.

4.2.1 Missing Value Analysis

The presence of cases with missing values in a collected data set is one of the most commonly reported issues in quantitative data analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Prior research, i.e., Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) and Hair et al. (2010), has suggested different methods for treating missing values, such as removing cases with missing values, replacing them with the mean value and ignoring them if they are very few and non-random.

The data set of the current study consists of two data files: one for leader-reported data and another for follower-reported data. A careful case-wise analysis of all the cases in both data files revealed no missing values. Given that the data were collected in a leader–follower dyad form and only matching dyads were used in the data set, this was not surprising.

4.2.2 Aberrant Value Analysis

Aberrant values are values that fall outside the range of normal responses/values of the survey and probably result from data entry error (Hair et al., 2010). For example, in the current study, all items of the studied variables were measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. Thus, any value outside this range should be considered as an aberrant value. A careful inspection of the collected data set revealed two aberrant values: in cases 23 and 29, a value of 11 was entered for the gender variable in a follower-reported data file. Given that gender was coded as 1 for male and 2 for female, it is likely that 11 was mistakenly entered for the male gender. Thus, a correction was made by replacing 11 with 1 in these two cases.

4.2.3 Multivariate Outlier Analysis

Outliers are values that are odd or extreme in comparison to other values of a dataset. Given that outliers can distort the results of statistical analysis, for example by increasing error variance and bias estimates, they should be identified and adequately treated (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Outliers can be of two types: univariate outliers and multivariate outliers. Univariate outliers are odd or extreme values within one variable, whereas multivariate outliers are odd or extreme values between two or more variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

As the current study involved multivariate analysis, multivariate outliers were identified using the Mahalanobis distance measure method, which assesses the distance of each response from the center of distribution of other variables of a data set, and critical chi-square values. Using SPSS, the Mahalanobis distance scores were computed for the responses of all variables of the study, and then the cases with a chi-square probability value of less than .001 were identified as multivariate outliers (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Following this two-step approach, 22 cases out of 286 (Table 4.1) were identified as multivariate outliers in the follower-reported data file. These cases were removed, and the subsequent analyses were performed on the remaining 264 participants in the follower-reported data file. No multivariate outliers were identified in the leader-reported data file.

Table 4.1: Multivariate outliers (follower-reported data file)

No.	Cases	Mahalanobis d-squared	p
1	191.0	135.18	.0000
2	151.0	132.28	.0000
3	5.0	128.30	.0000
4	8.0	124.60	.0000
5	6.0	121.96	.0000
6	11.0	118.04	.0000
7	65.0	114.69	.0000
8	4.0	110.26	.0000
9	24.0	102.95	.0000
10	29.0	101.96	.0000
11	147.0	100.60	.0000
12	55.0	98.35	.0001
13	32.0	97.35	.0001
14	3.0	95.50	.0001
15	12.0	95.12	.0001
16	10.0	94.75	.0001
17	102.0	93.16	.0002
18	52.0	91.63	.0003
19	39.0	89.19	.0005
20	62.0	88.60	.0006
21	120.0	88.12	.0007
22	56.0	87.97	.0007

4.2.4 Normal Distribution of Data Analysis

Normal distribution of data is characterized by a "bell-shaped" curve defined by the mean and standard deviation of a data set. Previous research with multivariate data suggests that assessing and ensuring the normal distribution of data is one of the assumptions of most multivariate statistical techniques (Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, to assess whether the data set of the current study was close to the normal distribution, the statistical values of skewness and kurtosis were computed. The results of the normal distribution analysis reported in Table 4.2 indicate that the statistical values of skewness and kurtosis were well below the recommended cut-off point of 3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, both data files were considered suitable for further analysis.

Table 4.2: Normal distribution of data (follower and leader reported data file)

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Std. error	Statistic	Std. error
Follower				
E_PA1	-.845	.150	.064	.299
E_PA2	-.438	.150	-.519	.299
E_PA3	-.832	.150	-.030	.299
E_PA4	-.670	.150	-.392	.299
E_PA5	-1.043	.150	.404	.299
E_PA6	-.764	.150	.002	.299
E_PA7	-.800	.150	-.327	.299
E_PA8	-.892	.150	.076	.299
E_PA9	-.849	.150	.025	.299
E_PA10	-1.096	.150	.586	.299
E_NA1	.589	.150	-.795	.299
E_NA2	.521	.150	-.755	.299
E_NA3	1.545	.150	1.615	.299
E_NA4	.961	.150	-.170	.299
E_NA5	.854	.150	-.420	.299

Table 4.2: Normal distribution of data (follower and leader reported data file) (Continued)

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	**Std. error**	**Statistic**	**Std. error**
Follower				
E_NA6	.316	.150	-.969	.299
E_NA7	1.311	.150	.519	.299
E_NA8	.563	.150	-.692	.299
E_NA9	.460	.150	-.794	.299
E_NA10	1.215	.150	.593	.299
E_EC1	.145	.150	-1.472	.299
E_EC2	-1.633	.150	1.783	.299
E_EC3	-1.767	.150	1.875	.299
E_EC4	-1.103	.150	.007	.299
E_EC5	.344	.150	-1.357	.299
E_EC6	-.723	.150	-.887	.299
E_EC7	-1.146	.150	.224	.299
E_EC8	-.202	.150	-1.415	.299
E_EC9	-1.922	.150	1.632	.299
E_EC10	-.431	.150	-1.190	.299
E_EC11	-.153	.150	-1.532	.299
E_EC12	.088	.150	-1.501	.299
E_TOI1	.336	.150	-.748	.299
E_TOI2	.161	.150	-.977	.299
E_TOI3	.258	.150	-.992	.299
E_JS1	-.459	.150	-.263	.299
E_JS2	-.635	.150	.317	.299
E_JS3	-.011	.150	-1.117	.299
E_JS4	-.053	.150	-.511	.299
E_JS5	-.805	.150	.610	.299
E_JS6	-.784	.150	.945	.299
E_OC1	-.472	.150	-.341	.299
E_OC2	-.520	.150	-.427	.299
E_OC3	-.689	.150	.134	.299
E_OC4	-.349	.150	-.121	.299
E_OC5	-.916	.150	1.002	.299
E_OC6	-.669	.150	.174	.299
E_OC7	-.878	.150	.657	.299
E_OC8	-.826	.150	.506	.299
E_OC9	-.843	.150	.629	.299

Table 4.2: Normal distribution of data (follower and leader reported data file)
(Continued)

	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	**Std. error**	**Statistic**	**Std. error**
Leader				
L_EI1	-.782	.250	.995	.495
L_EI2	-.816	.250	.663	.495
L_EI3	-.558	.250	-.694	.495
L_EI4	-.910	.250	1.291	.495
L_EI5	-.399	.250	-.356	.495
L_EI6	-.475	.250	.039	.495
L_EI7	-.667	.250	-.419	.495
L_EI8	-.729	.250	.256	.495
L_EI9	-.800	.250	.080	.495
L_EI10	-.717	.250	.903	.495
L_EI11	-.741	.250	-.406	.495
L_EI12	-.806	.250	-.498	.495
L_EI13	-.144	.250	-.230	.495
L_EI14	-.350	.250	.336	.495
L_EI15	-.213	.250	-.759	.495
L_EI16	-.089	.250	-.486	.495
L_PA1	-.492	.250	-.466	.495
L_PA2	-.493	.250	.555	.495
L_PA3	-.561	.250	-.184	.495
L_PA4	-.880	.250	.372	.495
L_PA5	-.583	.250	-.610	.495
L_PA6	-.941	.250	.706	.495
L_PA7	-1.063	.250	.481	.495
L_PA8	-1.150	.250	1.166	.495
L_PA9	-1.231	.250	1.520	.495
L_PA10	-.744	.250	-.290	.495
L_NA1	.615	.250	-.707	.495
L_NA2	.696	.250	-.090	.495
L_NA3	.937	.250	.167	.495
L_NA4	.997	.250	.305	.495
L_NA5	1.337	.250	1.699	.495
L_NA6	.477	.250	-.709	.495
L_NA7	1.583	.250	1.863	.495
L_NA8	.661	.250	-.381	.495
L_NA9	.713	.250	-.229	.495
L_NA10	1.375	.250	1.215	.495

4.2.5 Common Method Bias Analysis

CMB is variance caused by the method employed for data collection rather than by what a study is measuring (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). Prior research suggests that analyzing for the potential presence of CMB is essential in quantitative data analysis, particularly for cross-sectional data collected using existing measures, because the presence of CMB can have serious implications for the validity of statistical findings (MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 2012). Thus, following the recommendations of Podsakoff et al. (2003) and Podsakoff et al. (2012), the following two pre-data collection strategies were used to minimize the CMB threat to the data collected for the current study.

First, respondents were reassured about their confidentiality by the attachment to each distributed questionnaire of a cover letter assuring them that their responses would not be disclosed and would be used only for the stated research purposes. Second, data were collected from two different sources, leaders and followers, which reduced the chances of CMB in the data set. Two statistical tests were conducted to analyze the potential presence of CMB in the data set: Harman's single factor test and the common latent factor test.

4.2.5.1 Harman's Single Factor Test

Harman's single factor test is one of the conventional statistical tests for detecting the presence of CMB in a data set; it examines the amount of variance explained by a single-factor solution. For example, if more than 50% of variance is explained by a single-factor solution, then it is an indication of the presence of CMB in a data set (Malhotra, Kim, & Patil, 2006). To conduct Harman's single factor test, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted in SPSS. The results, presented in

Table 4.3, indicate that only 20.56% and 27.84% of variances were explained by a single-factor solution in the follower- and leader-reported data files, respectively. Thus, Harman's single factor test found no evidence for the potential presence of CMB in the data set of the current study.

Table 4.3: Harman's single factor test (follower and leader reported data file)

	Total variance explained					
	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings		
Component	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
Follower						
1	10.282	20.563	20.563	10.282	20.563	20.563
2	4.553	9.106	29.669			
3	3.244	6.487	36.157			
4	2.494	4.987	41.144			
5	1.948	3.896	45.040			
6	1.607	3.215	48.254			
7	1.541	3.083	51.337			
8	1.438	2.876	54.213			
9	1.327	2.655	56.868			
10	1.277	2.555	59.423			
11	1.190	2.379	61.802			
12	1.074	2.147	63.949			
Leader						
1	10.024	27.845	27.845	10.024	27.845	27.845
2	5.938	16.495	44.341			
3	2.155	5.985	50.326			
4	1.873	5.203	55.529			
5	1.782	4.950	60.479			
6	1.450	4.028	64.507			
7	1.184	3.290	67.797			
8	1.004	2.790	70.587			

Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis.

4.2.5.2 Common Latent Factor Test

To further validate the findings of Harman's single factor test, which found no evidence for the presence of CMB in either data file, a common latent factor (CLF) test was conducted using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS 23.

Specifically, a CLF was connected to indicators of all the latent factors in the CFAs of both the leader- and follower-reported data files. After running CFAs with and without a CLF, the standardized regression estimates of the CFA without a CLF were subtracted from the standardized regression estimates of the CFA with a CLF. The results revealed that, for all the latent variables, the difference between the standardized estimates without a CLF and with a CLF was less than .05. These results confirmed the findings of Harman's single factor test, which found no evidence for the potential presence of CMB in either data file.

4.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After the data screening process was completed and it was confirmed that the data set was not affected by CMB, factor analysis was conducted to establish the measurement/factorial structure of the variables under study. There are two types of factor analysis: EFA and CFA. EFA is mostly used to explore the factor structure of a newly developed measure (for example, to determine whether there are any substructures within that measure). CFA is performed to confirm the factor structure previously established in EFA (Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Considering that the employed measures of the current study had been well established across a wide range of research contexts, including the research context of the current study, CFA was preferred to EFA.

In the course of the CFAs in the leader- and follower-reported data files for all the employed measures, reliability and validity analyses were also performed. Reliability is internal consistency among the items of a given instrument, and is calculated in terms of the composite reliability (CR) of the measure. Validity is the extent to which the items of an instrument measure the phenomenon that the

instrument is intended to measure (Hair et al., 2010; Harrington, 2009). The validity of a measure is calculated by assessing its convergent validity and discriminant validity. Convergent validity is the extent to which the items of a measure are intercorrelated and measure a similar concept; discriminant validity is the extent to which a measure is distinct and independent from other measures used in the study.

The CFA and reliability/validity analyses were conducted in two parts. The first focused on the three leader-reported variables: (1) LEI, (2) LPA and (3) LNA. The second part focused on the six follower-reported variables: (1) FPA, (2) FNA, (3) FEC, (4) FJS, (5) FOC and (5) FTI. Following the recommendations of Schreiber, Stage, King, Nora, and Barlow (2006) and Hair et al. (2010), the following fit indices and threshold values were used to assess the fitness of the various measurement models and reliability/validity of the retained measures/models (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: CFA fit indices and threshold values

Purpose	Name of Index	Threshold Value
CFA	Comparative fit index (CFI)	> .95 Excellent > .90 Good
	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	> .95 Excellent > .90 Good
	Normed chi-square (CMIN/df)	< 2 Excellent < 3 Good
	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	< .05 Excellent < .08 Good
Reliability	Composite reliability (CR)	> .90 Excellent > .80 Good > .70 Satisfactory
Convergent validity	Average variance extracted (AVE)	AVE > .50 & CR > .50
Discriminant validity	Maximum shared squared variance (MSV)	MSV < AVE

4.3.1 CFA of Leader-Reported Independent Variable

To confirm the measurement model of the leader-reported independent and dependent variables, CFA was conducted in two steps. In the first step, the CFA of the independent variable (i.e., LEI) was conducted. Considering that the original 16-item measure of LEI used in the current study has four subdimensions (each with a four-item subscale), a higher-order/second-order (Kline, 2011) one-factor model of CFA was conducted to establish the measurement model of LEI. The one-factor baseline higher-order Model 1 of LEI, consisting of four subdimensions, had a marginally poor fit to the data (Table 4.5). After carefully observing the modification indices, a

covariance was added between the LEI-5 and LEI-13 indicators, and the CFA was run again. The revised CFA provided a good fit to the data, and Model 2 was retained for further analysis (see the factor loadings of the retained model in Table 4.6 and Figure 4.1). An alternative model was also tested in which all items of the one-factor baseline Model 1 were loaded on to a single latent factor. However, the alternative model showed poor fit to the data, which further validated the retained Model 2.

Finally, a reliability/validity analysis of the retained Model 2 was conducted using the AMOS 23 plugin Master Validity Tool, developed by Gaskin and Lim (2016). Table 4.7 indicates that the employed variable (LEI) fulfills the criteria of reliability and convergent validity. Discriminant validity was not assessed, as only one measure/independent variable was used in the measurement model.

Table 4.5: Fit indices for leader-reported independent variable

Model	Description	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1	A one-factor baseline higher-order model of LEI consisting of four subdimensions	.09	.90	.91	1.69
Model 2	A one-factor revised higher-order model of LEI, after adding a covariance between LEI-5 and LEI-13 indicators	.08	.92	.93	1.56
Model 3	A one-factor alternative model in which all indicators of LEI were loaded onto a single latent factor	.18	.56	.62	3.87

Table 4.6: Factor loadings for leader-reported independent variables

Name of indicator	Indicator Label	Latent factor	Estimate
L_EI4	I always know whether or not I am happy	LEID1	0.744
L_EI3	I really understand what I feel	LEID1	0.792
L_EI2	I have good understanding of my own emotions	LEID1	0.728
L_EI1	I have a good sense of why I have certain feeling most of the time	LEID1	0.782
L_EI12	I would always encourage myself to try my best.	LEID3	0.762
L_EI11	I am a self-motivating person.	LEID3	0.729
L_EI10	I alwayes tell myself I am a competent person.	LEID3	0.608
L_EI9	I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	LEID3	0.786
L_EI8	I have good control of my own emotions.	LEID2	0.894
L_EI7	I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	LEID2	0.756
L_EI6	I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	LEID2	0.880
L_EI5	I am able to control my temper so that I can handel difficulties rationally.	LEID2	0.806
L_EI16	I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	LEID4	0.709
L_EI15	I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of other employees.	LEID4	0.719
L_EI14	I am a good observer of others' emotions.	LEID4	0.829
L_EI13	I always know my employees emotions.	LEID4	0.713

Table 4.7: Reliability/validity of leader-reported independent variable

Factor	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	LEI
LEI	0.843	0.581	0.000	0.931	0.762[†]

[†]Average factor loadings

Notes: LEI = Leader emotional intelligence, CR = Composite reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted, MSV = Maximum shared variance, MaxR(H) = Maximum reliability (H).
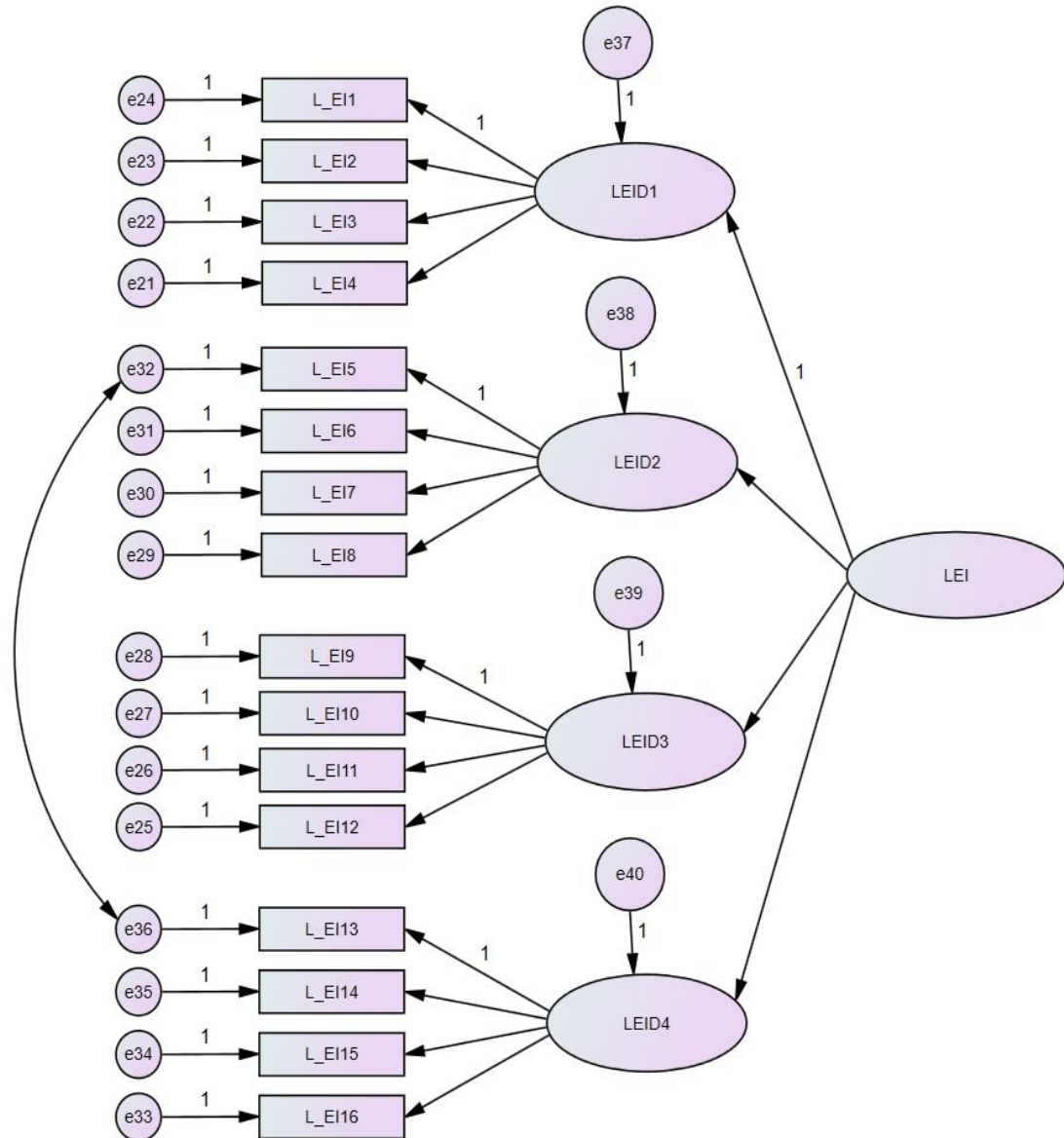
Figure 4.1: Factor loadings for leader-reported independent variables

4.3.2 CFA of Leader-Reported Dependent Variables

After establishing the factorial validity of the leader-reported independent variable, a two-factor baseline model was constructed for the leader-reported dependent variables (LPA and LNA). The two-factor baseline Model 1 had a marginally poor fit to the data. After carefully observing the factors loadings for all indicators, the two indicators of LPA factor (LPA6 and LPA7) were removed because of their factor loadings <.50, and the CFA was tested again. The revised CFA showed

a good fit to the data (Table 4.8), and Model 2 was retained for further analysis (see the factor loadings of the retained model in Table 4.9 and Figure 4.2).

An alternative model was tested in which all items of the two-factor baseline Model 1 were loaded onto a single factor. The alternative model showed poor fit to data, further validating the retained Model 2. Finally, a reliability/validity analysis of the retained Model 2 was conducted. Table 4.10 indicates that, except for the AVE of LPA, which is marginally less than the .50 cut-off value, all other reliability/validity criteria were fulfilled. Given the suggestion of Malhotra and Dash (2011) that AVE is often too strict and that reliability can be established through CR alone, the reported results can be taken as establishing the convergent and discriminant validity of the LPA and LNA measures.

Table 4.8: Fit indices for leader-reported dependent variables

Model	Description	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1	A two-factor baseline model consisting of the latent factors of LPA and LNA	.08	.86	.87	1.65
Model 2	A two-factor revised model consisting of the latent factors of LPA and LNA, after removing LPA6 and LPA7 (with factor loadings <.50)	.08	.90	.91	1.58
Model 3	A one-factor alternative model in which indicators of LPA and LNA were loaded onto a single latent factor	.16	.56	.62	3.5

Table 4.9: Factor loadings for leader-reported dependent variables

Name of	Indicator Label	Latent	Estimate
L_NA10	Disinterested	LNA	0.827
L_NA9	Upset	LNA	0.656
L_NA8	Guilty	LNA	0.737
L_NA7	Scared	LNA	0.754
L_NA6	Hostile	LNA	0.656
L_NA5	Irritable	LNA	0.781
L_NA4	Ashamed	LNA	0.795
L_NA3	Nervous	LNA	0.710
L_NA2	Jittery	LNA	0.723
L_NA1	Afraid	LNA	0.644
L_PA10	Active	LPA	0.707
L_PA8	Alert	LPA	0.615
L_PA5	Proud	LPA	0.723
L_PA4	Enthusiastic	LPA	0.777
L_PA3	Strong	LPA	0.624
L_PA2	Exited	LPA	0.708
L_PA1	Interested	LPA	0.656

Table 4.10: Reliability/validity of leader-reported dependent variables

Factor	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	LNA	LPA
LNA	0.919	0.534	0.002	0.925	0.731†	LNA
LPA	0.863	0.475	0.002	0.869	-0.041	0.689†

† Average factor loadings

Notes: LNA = Leader negative affect, LPA= Leader positive affect, CR = Composite reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted, MSV = Maximum shared variance, MaxR(H) = Maximum reliability (H).
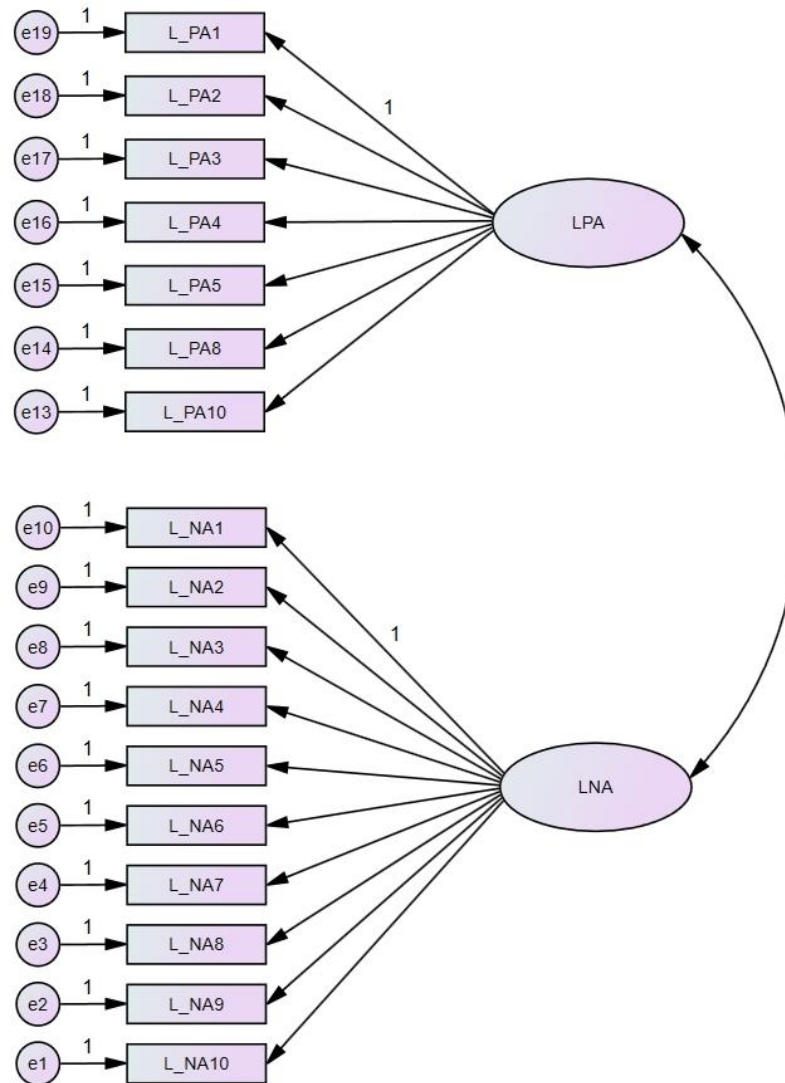
Figure 4.2: Factor loadings for leader-reported dependent variables

4.3.3 CFA of Follower-Reported Independent & Moderating Variables

After establishing the factorial validity of the leader-reported variables, the factorial validity of the follower-reported variables was established using CFA. For this purpose, two CFAs were conducted: one for the independent variables (FP and FNA) and the moderating variable (FEC), and one for the dependent variables (FJS, FOC and FTI).

The results of the CFA for the follower-reported independent and moderating variables revealed that a three-factor baseline Model 1 consisting of FPA, FNA and

FEC had a poor fit to the data (Table 4.11). After carefully observing the factor loadings of all the indicators and modifications indices, the indicators with factor loading <.50 were removed from the model, and a small number of few covariates were added, as suggested in the modification indices. The revised Model 2 showed a good fit to the data and was retained for further analysis (see the factor loadings of the retained Model 2 in Table 4.12 and Figure 4.3).

An alternative Model 3 was tested in which all items of the three-factor baseline Model 1 were loaded onto a single latent factor. The alternative model showed poor fit to data, further validating the retained Model 2. Finally, a reliability/validity analysis of Model 2 was conducted. Table 4.13 indicates that, except for the AVE of FPA and FNA, which were less than the .50 cut-off value, all other reliability/validity criteria were fulfilled. Given the suggestion of Malhotra and Dash (2011) that AVE is often too strict and that reliability can be established through CR alone, the reported results can be taken as establishing the convergent and discriminant validity of the FPA, FNA and FE measures.

Table 4.11: Fit indices for follower-reported independent and moderating variables

Model	Description	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1	A three-factor baseline model consisting of latent factors of FPA, FNA and FEC	.07	.72	.74	2.73
Model 2	A three-factor revised model, after removing indicators with factor loadings <.50 and adding covariates	.06	.91	.92	1.82
Model 3	A one-factor alternative model in which indicators of FPA, FNA and FEC were loaded onto a single latent factor	.12	.31	.35	5.01

Table 4.12: Factor loadings for follower-reported independent and moderating variables

Name of indicator	Indicator Label	Latent factor	Estimate
F_EC11	I cry when I watch sad movies.	FEC	0.595
F_EC10	I notice myself getting tense when I'm around people who are stressed out.	FEC	0.791
F_EC8	I become tense when overhearing an angry quarrel.	FEC	0.864
F_EC7	Watching the fearful faces of victims on the news makes me try to imagine how they might be feeling.	FEC	0.722
F_EC6	It irritates me to be around angey people.	FEC	0.768
F_EC5	I clench my jaws and my shoulders get tight when I see the angry faces on the news.	FEC	0.709
F_PA10	Interested	FPA	0.601
F_PA9	Exited	FPA	0.477
F_PA8	Strong	FPA	0.519
F_PA7	Enthusiastic	FPA	0.591
F_PA6	Proud	FPA	0.514
F_PA5	Alert	FPA	0.656
F_PA4	Inspired	FPA	0.653
F_PA3	Determined	FPA	0.644
F_PA2	Attentive	FPA	0.659
F_PA1	Active	FPA	0.712
F_NA10	Disinterested	FNA	0.771
F_NA9	Upset	FNA	0.574
F_NA8	Guilty	FNA	0.729
F_NA6	Scared	FNA	0.513
F_NA5	Hostile	FNA	0.566
F_NA4	Irritable	FNA	0.725
F_NA3	Ashamed	FNA	0.483
F_NA2	Nervous	FNA	0.569

Table 4.13: Reliability/validity of follower-reported independent and moderating variables

Factor	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	FEC	FPA	FNA
FEC	0.882	0.557	0.050	0.897	0.746†		
FPA	0.852	0.368	0.114	0.860	-0.105	0.607†	
FNA	0.833	0.390	0.114	0.853	0.225**	-0.338***	0.625†

†Average factor loadings

Notes: FNA = Follower negative affect, FPA= Follower positive affect, FEC = Follower susceptibility to emotional contagion, CR = Composite reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted, MSV = Maximum shared variance, MaxR(H) = Maximum reliability (H).
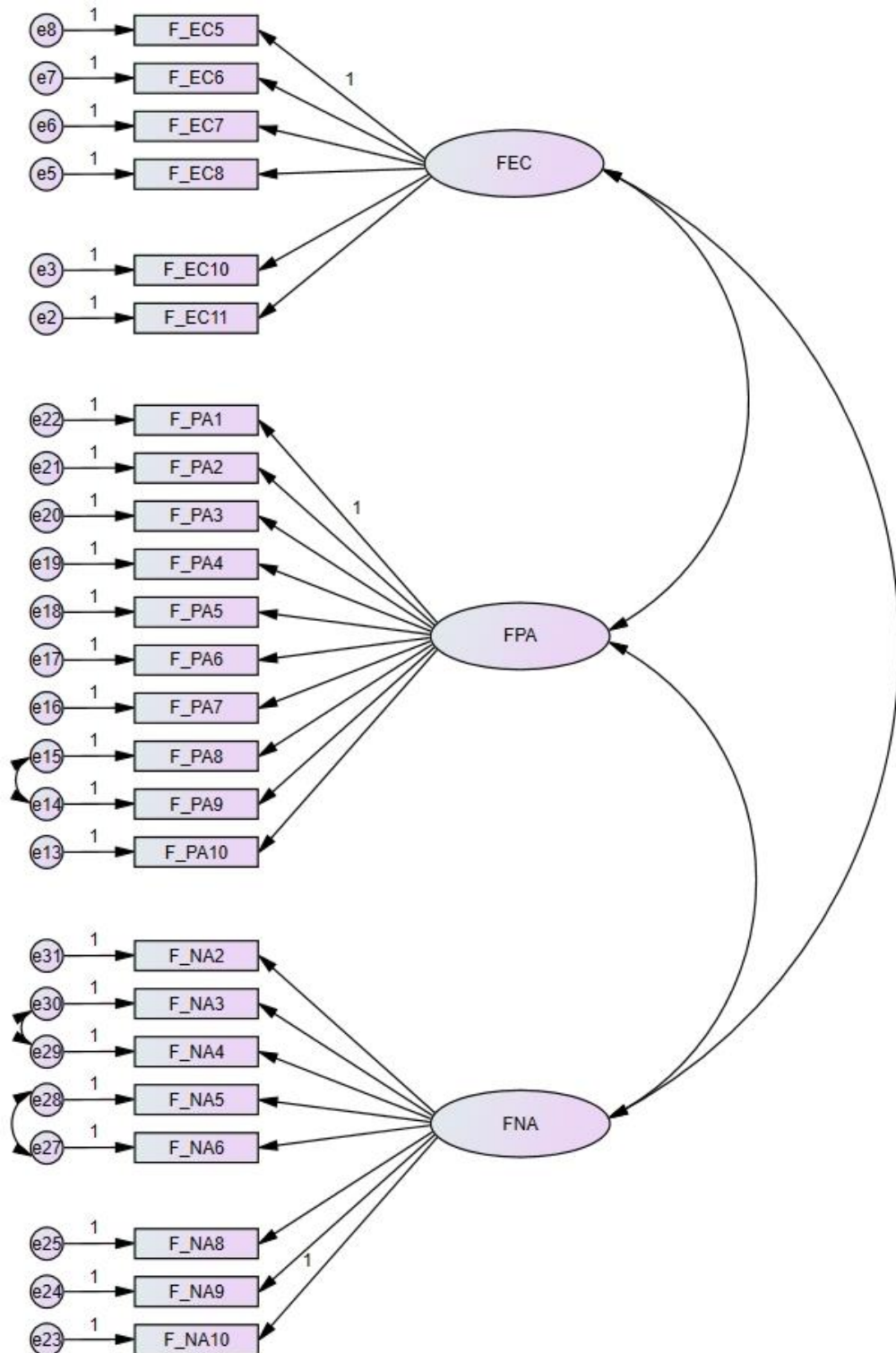
Figure 4.3: Factor loadings for follower-reported independent and moderating variables

4.3.4 CFA of Follower-Reported Dependent Variables

In the final part of the CFA, the factorial validity of the follower-reported dependent variables was assessed. First, a three-factor baseline model consisting of FJS, FOC and FTI was constructed. The results of the CFA showed that the baseline three-factor Model 1 had a poor fit to the data (Table 4.14). After careful observation of the factor loadings of all the indicators and the suggested modifications indices, the indicators with <.50 factor loading were removed, and a small number of covariates were added to the model. The revised Model 2 provided a good fit to the data and was retained for further analysis (see the factor loadings of the retained model in Table 4.15 and Figure 4.4).

An alternative model was tested in which all items of the three-factor baseline Model 1 were loaded onto a single latent factor. The alternative model showed poor fit to data, further validating the retained Model 2. Finally, a reliability/validity analysis of Model 2 was conducted. Table 4.16 indicates that, except for FJS, which had an AVE less than MSV and did not fulfill the criteria for discriminant validity, all measures fulfilled the criteria for convergent and discriminant validity of the FJS, FOC and FTI measures.

Table 4.14: Fit indices for follower-reported dependent variables

Model	Description	RMSEA	TLI	CFI	CMIN/df
Model 1	A three-factor baseline model consisting of latent factors of FJS, FOC and FTI	.12	.78	.81	4.73
Model 2	A three-factor revised model, after removing indicators with factor loadings <.50 and adding covariates	.07	.95	.96	2.38
Model 3	A one-factor alternative model in which indicators of FJS, FOC and FTI were loaded onto a single latent factor	.17	.72	.77	8.15

Table 4.15: Factor loadings for follower-reported dependent variables

Name of indicator	Indicator Label	Latent factor	Estimate
F_OC8	I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	FOC	0.753
F_OC7	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	FOC	0.868
F_OC6	I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	FOC	0.870
F_OC5	I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	FOC	0.818
F_OC3	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	FOC	0.583
F_JS6	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	FJS	0.711
F_JS5	Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	FJS	0.684
F_JS2	I like my job better than the average worker does.	FJS	0.676
F_JS1	I find real enjoyment in my job.	FJS	0.774
F_TOI3	If I have my own way, I will not be working for this organization one year from now.	FTI	0.764
F_TOI2	I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.	FTI	0.809
F_TOI1	I frequently think of quitting my job	FTI	0.843

Table 4.16: Reliability/validity for follower-reported dependent variables

Factor	CR	AVE	MSV	MaxR(H)	FOC	FJS	FTI
FOC	0.888	0.617	0.583	0.909	0.786 †		
FJS	0.804	0.507	0.583	0.809	0.764***	0.712 †	
FTI	0.847	0.649	0.474	0.852	-0.524***	-0.688***	0.806 †

†Average factor loadings

Notes: FOC = Follower organizational commitment, FJS = Follower job satisfaction, FTI = Follower turnover intention, CR = Composite reliability, AVE = Average variance extracted, MSV = Maximum shared variance, MaxR(H) = Maximum reliability (H).
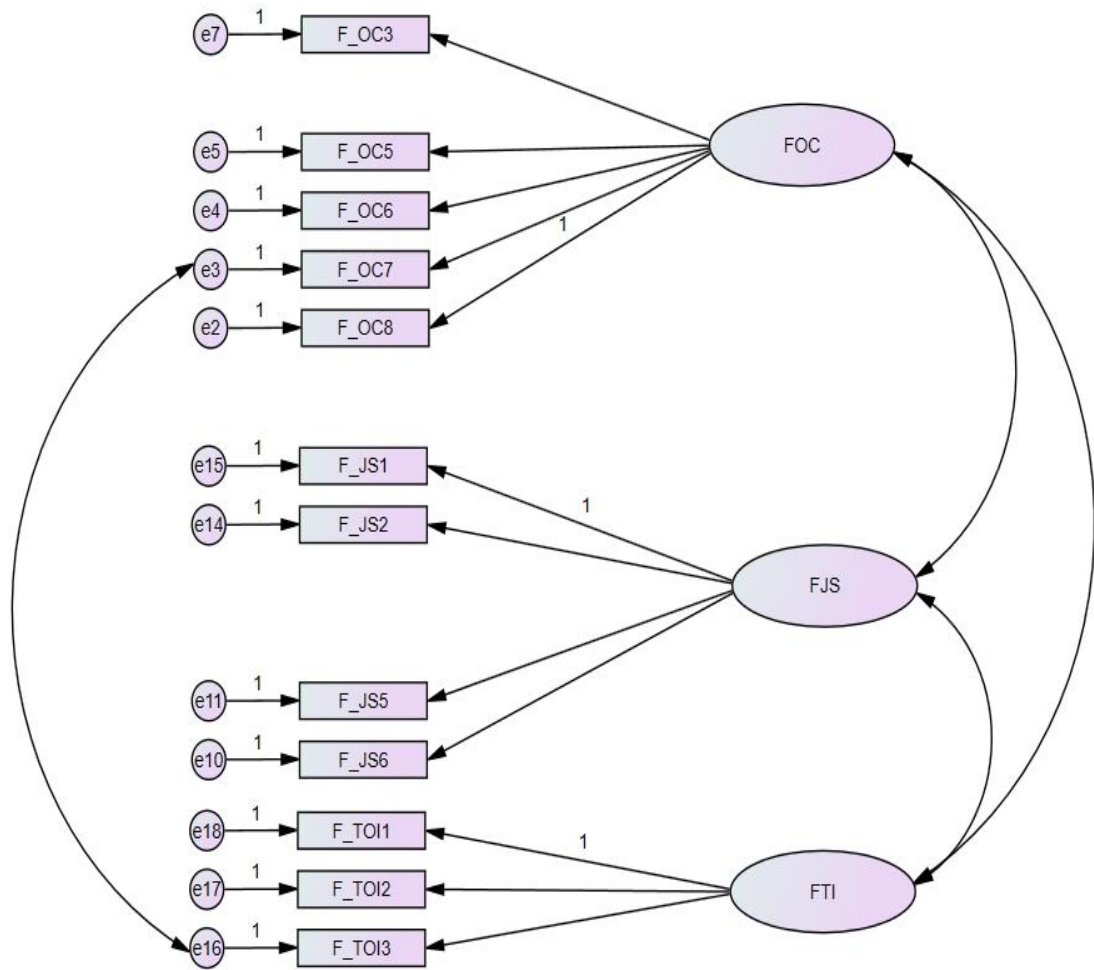
Figure 4.4: Factor loadings for follower-reported dependent variables

4.4 Descriptive Statistics

In the descriptive analysis, frequency analysis of the following demographic variables in both the leader- and follower-reported data files was conducted in SPSS:

1. Gender
2. Age
3. Education
4. Experience
5. Type of organization

4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics of Leader-Reported Data

Analysis of the descriptive statistics of the leader-reported demographic variables began with frequency analysis of the gender variable. Figure 4.5 shows that in the leader-reported data 74.19% of participants were men and 25.81% were women. This is somewhat comparable with the overall workforce statistics for the UAE, where leadership or managerial positions are mostly occupied by men.
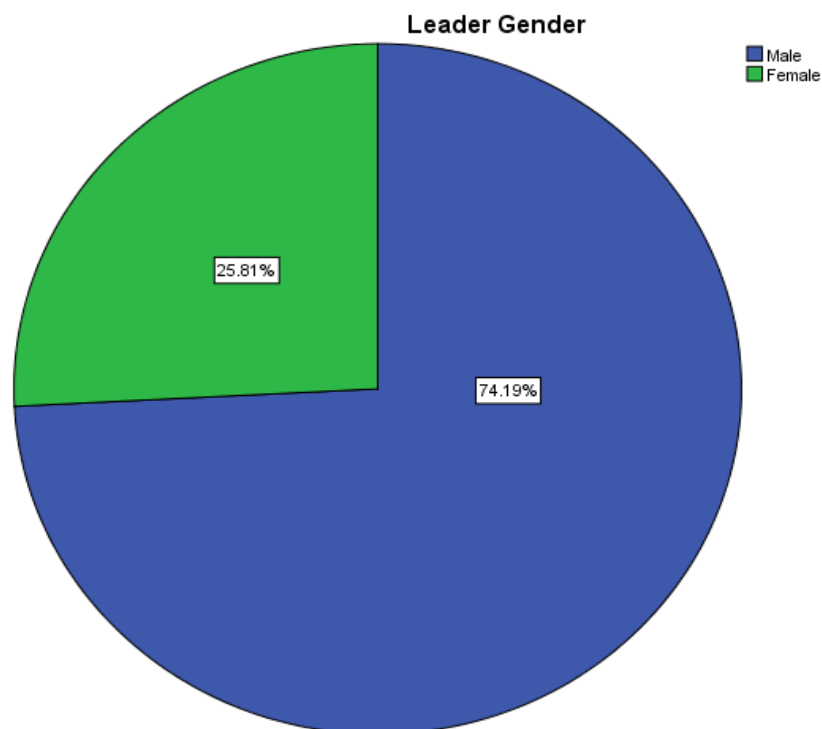
Figure 4.5: Leader gender

The second frequency analysis focused on the different age groups of the participants. Figure 4.6 shows that the majority (74.19%) of the respondents were in the age group of 35 years or older and only 25.81% were aged 25–34.

Leader Age

◼ 25-34 years
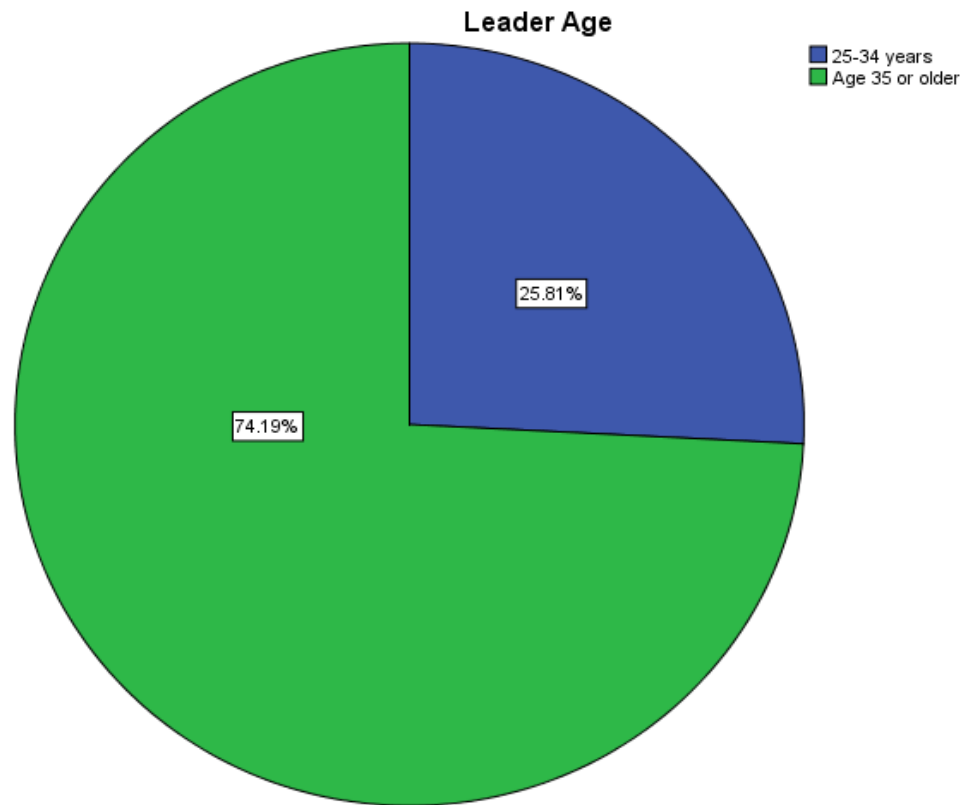◼ Age 35 or older

25.81%

74.19%

Figure 4.6: Leader age

The third frequency analysis focused on the educational level of the participants. Figure 4.7 shows that 8.6% of the participants had a diploma degree, 25.81% had a higher diploma degree, 41.94% had a master degree, 2.15% had a doctorate/Ph.D. degree and the remaining 21.51% of the participants had degrees of other types.
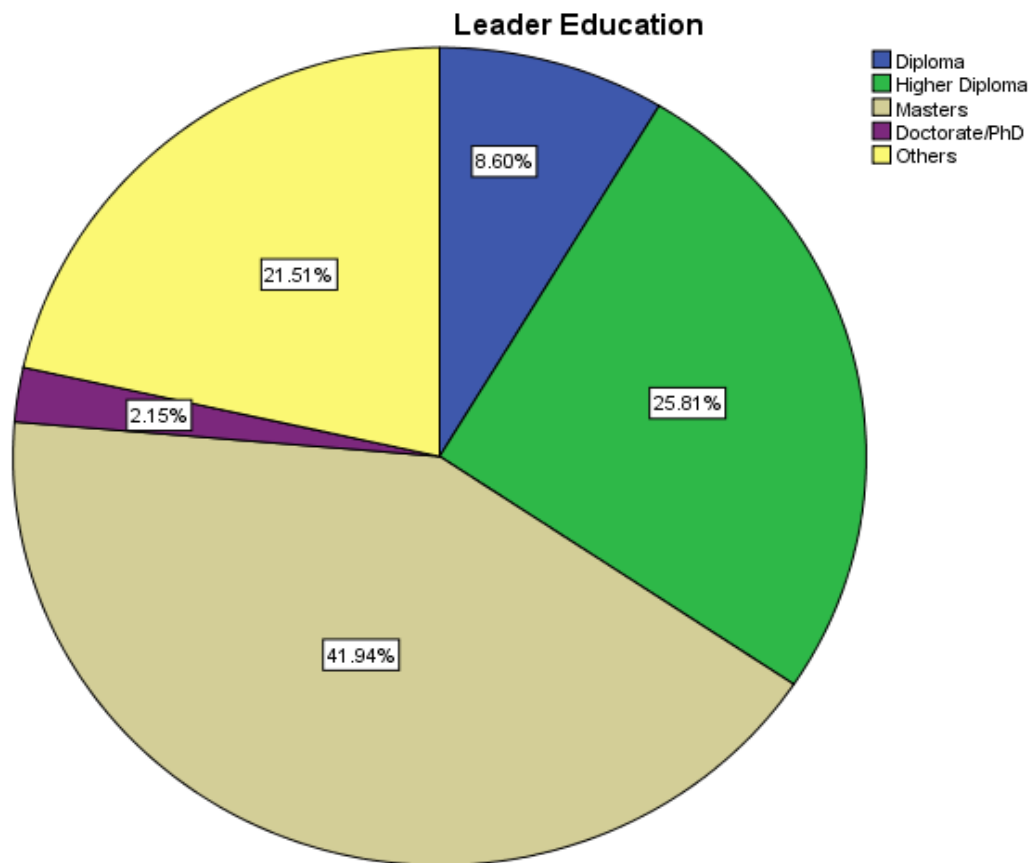
Figure 4.7: Leader education

The fourth frequency analysis focused on the experience level of the participants. Figure 4.8 shows that 25.81% of the participants had less than three years' work experience, 16.13% had four to six years, 21.51% had seven to 10 years and the remaining 36.56% had more than 10 years.
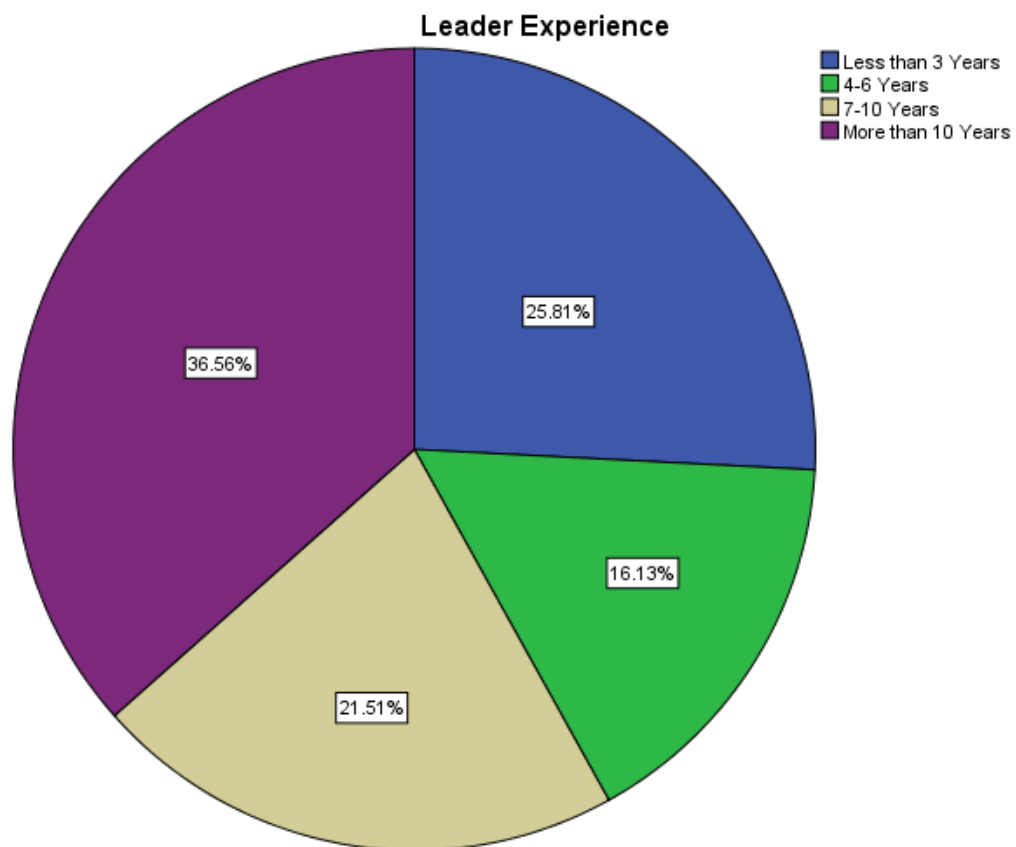
Figure 4.8: Leader experience

The final frequency analysis focused on the nature of the participants' organization. Figure 4.9 shows that most of the participants were from private and semi-private organizations (48.39% and 29.03%, respectively). The remaining participants were from local government and federal government organizations (19.35% and 3.23%, respectively).
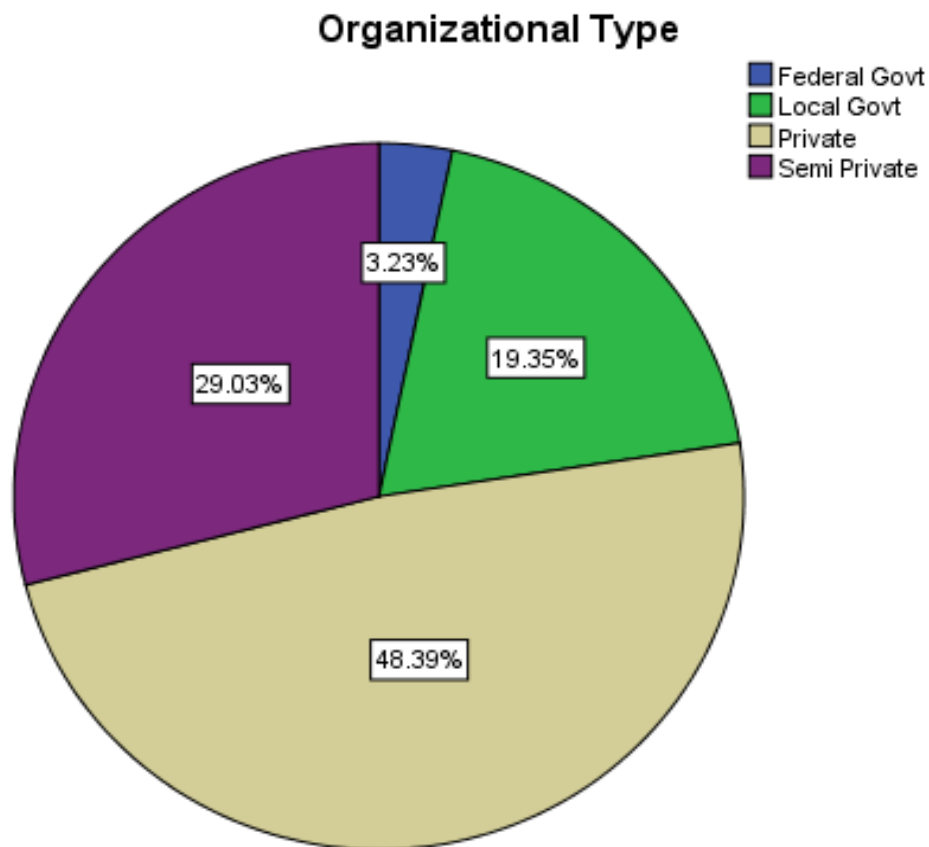
Organizational Type

Figure 4.9: Organization type

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Follower-Reported Data

Analysis of the descriptive statistics for the subordinate-/follower-reported demographic variables began with frequency analysis of the gender variable. Figure 4.10 shows that the percentages of male and female respondents were almost the same, with men accounting for 50.70% of the participants and women for the remaining 49.30%.
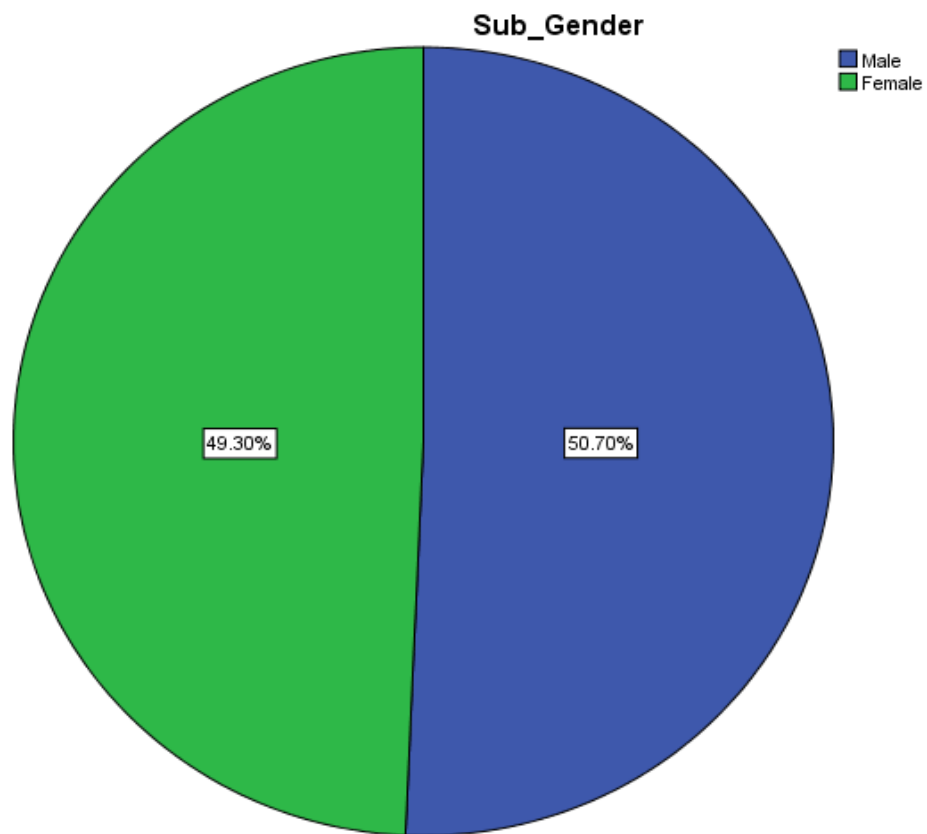
Figure 4.10: Follower gender

The second frequency analysis focused on the age groups of the participants. Figure 4.11 shows that 43.36% of the respondents were 35 years or older, 42.66% were aged 25 to 34 and the remaining 13.99% were aged 18–24 years.
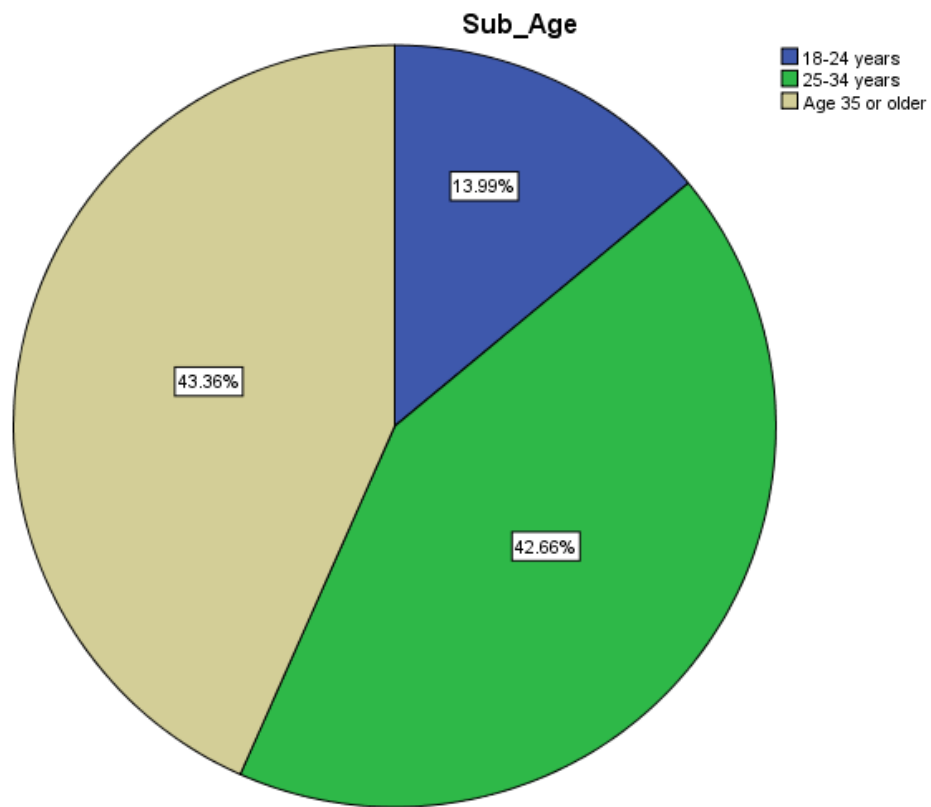
Figure 4.11: Follower age

The third frequency analysis focused on the educational level of the participants. Figure 4.12 shows that 30.42% of the participants had a diploma degree, 18.18% had a higher diploma degree, 30.07% had a master's degree and the remaining 21.33% had degrees of other types.
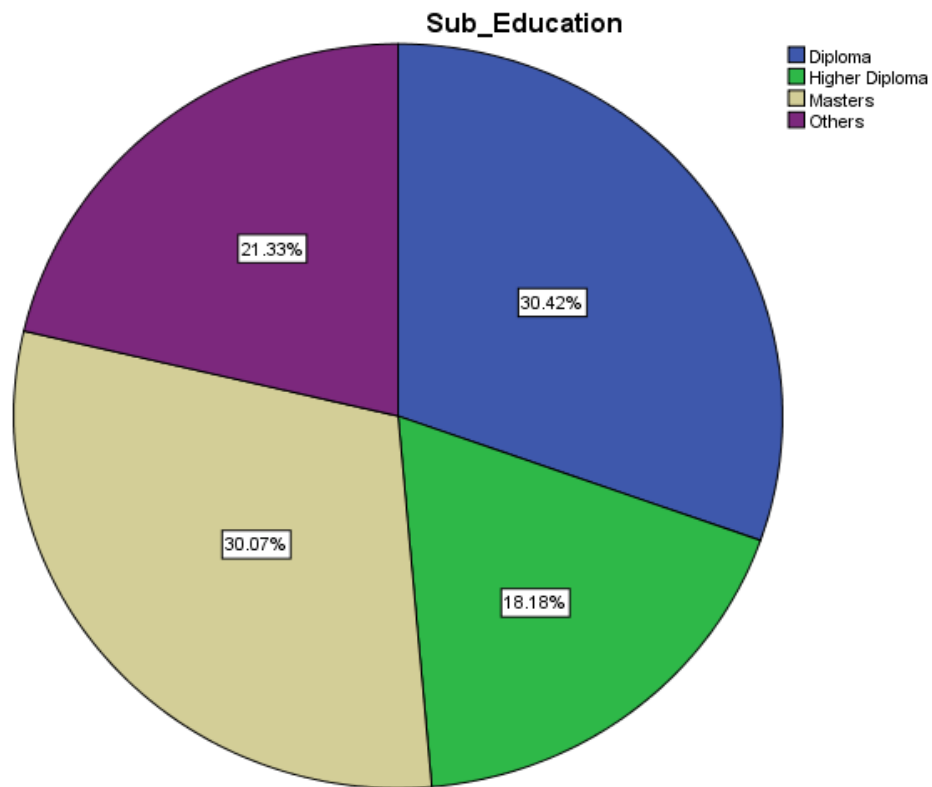
Figure 4.12: Follower education

The fourth frequency analysis focused on the experience level of the participants. Figure 4.13 shows that 39.86% of the participants had less than three years' work experience, 27.27% had four to six years, 17.13% had seven to 10 years and the remaining 15.73% had more than 10 years.
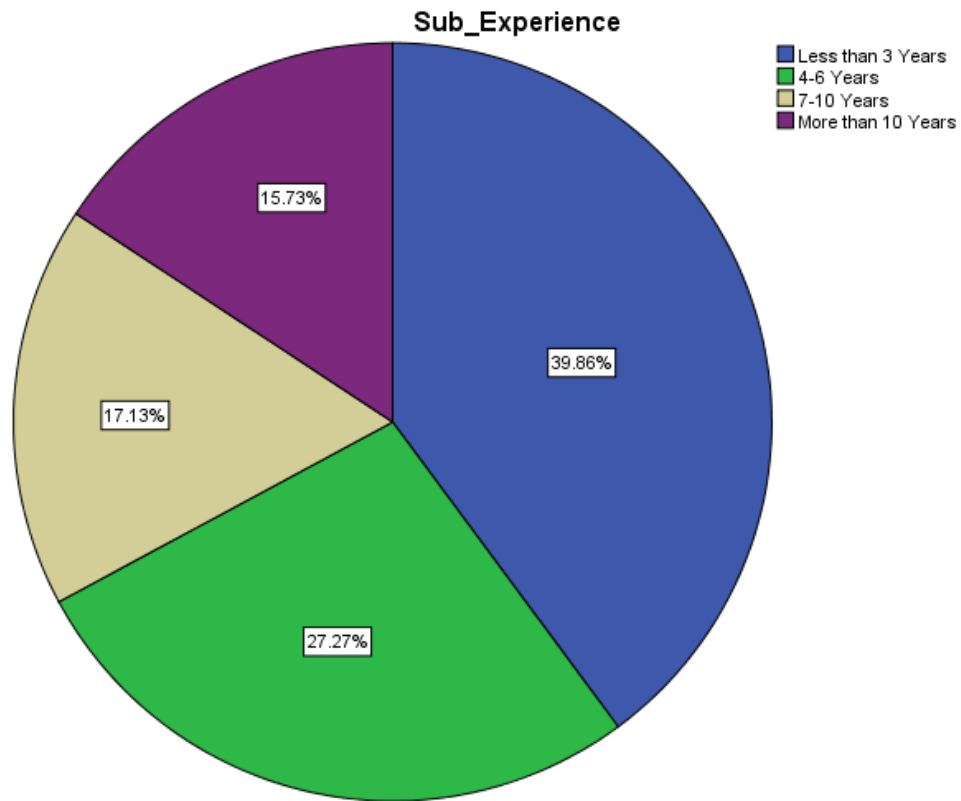
Figure 4.13: Follower experience

The final frequency analysis focused on the nature of the participants' organization. Figure 4.14 shows that most of the participants were from private and semi-private organizations (46.15% and 39.51%, respectively). The remaining participants were from local government and federal government organizations (12.94% and 1.40%, respectively).
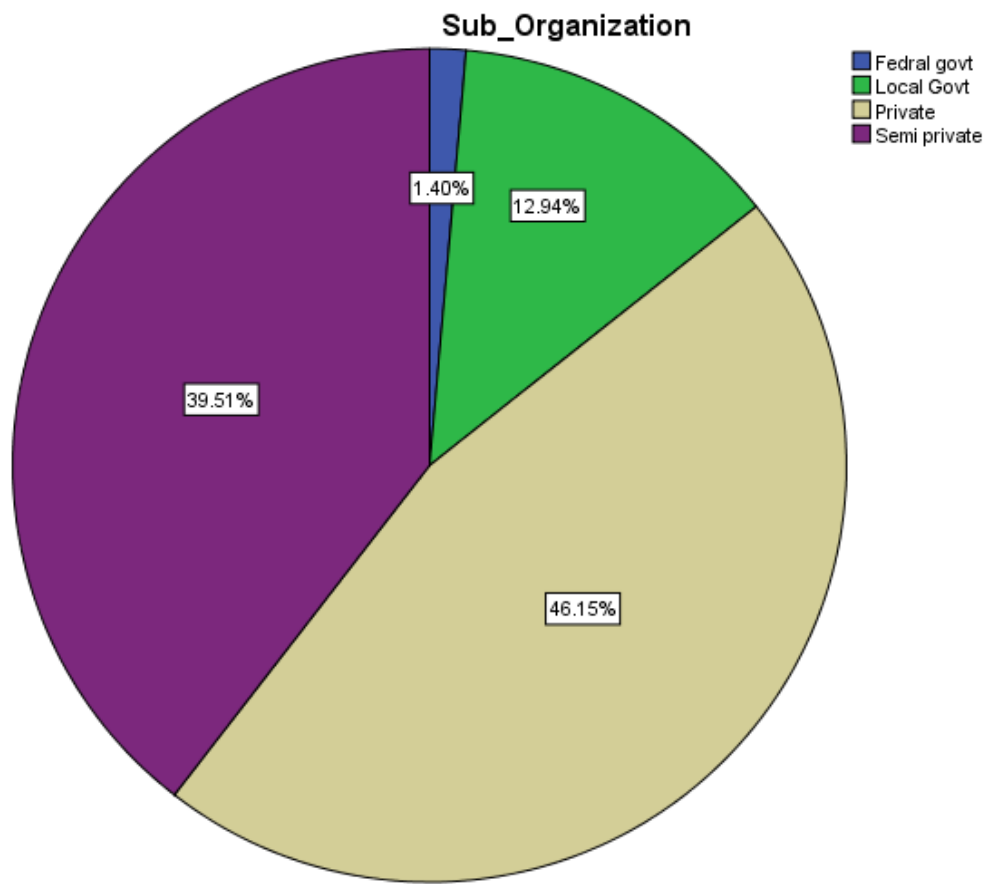
Figure 4.14: Follower organization

For the sample's overall descriptive statistics, see Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: Overall descriptive statistics

Item	Description	Leaders (n = 93) Frequency	%	Followers (n = 286)* Frequency	%
Gender	Male	69	74.2	145	50.7
	Female	24	25.8	141	49.3
Age	18–24	0	0	40	14
	25–34	24	25.8	122	42.7
	35+	69	74.2	124	43.4
Education	High school	0	0	0	0
	Diploma	8	8.6	87	30.4
	Higher diploma	24	25.8	52	18.2
	Master's degree	39	41.9	86	30.1
	Doctoral/Ph.D. degree	2	2.2	0	0
	Other degree	20	21.5	21.3	21.3
Experience	Less than 3 years	24	25.8	114	39.9
	4–6 years	15	16.1	78	27.3
	7–10 years	20	21.5	49	17.1
	More than 10 years	34	36.5	45	15.7
Organization	Federal government	3	3.2	6	1.4
	Semi-government	18	19.4	37	12.9
	Private	45	48.4	130	46.2
	Semi-private	27	29.0	113	39.5

* Follower-reported data file without removing multivariate outliers.

4.5 Hypothesis Testing

The data for the current study were multi-level, including follower-reported (level 1) data and leader-reported (level 2) data. Before the hypothesized relationships were tested, the data were examined to determine whether multi-level analysis or standard regression analysis would be appropriate. For this purpose, interclass

correlations (ICC1s) were analyzed for between-group and within-group agreement. The results indicated that ICC1s were very minimal (i.e., ranging from 0 to .06), and, therefore, the data were not suitable for multi-level analysis (Hox, 2002). Therefore, leader-reported and follower-reported data were combined, and the hypothesized relationships were tested using a single data file and multiple regression analysis in SPSS.

4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations

In the first step of hypothesis testing, descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among the main variables of the study were examined. Means, standard deviations and intercorrelations were first computed. In line with the hypothesized relationships, the majority of the main model variables (LEI, LPA, LNA, FPA, FNA, FEC, FJS, FOC and FTI) were found to be significantly correlated in the direction predicted (Table 4.18). Specifically, LEI was positively correlated with LPA and negatively correlated with LNA. LPA was negatively correlated with both FNA and FTI and positively correlated with FOC. LNA was positively correlated with both FNA and FTI. FPA was negatively correlated with both FNA and FTI and positively correlated with FJS and FOC. FNA was positively correlated with both FEC and FTI and negatively correlated with both FJS and FOC. FEC was positively correlated with FTI and negatively correlated with FJS. These results justified proceeding to the main hypothesis testing.

Table 4.18: Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. LEI	4.14	.45	*.84*								
2. LPA	4.34	.51	.67**	*.92*							
3. LNA	2.00	.66	-.35**	-.24**	*.86*						
4. FPA	3.99	.67	.07	.10	-.08	*.85*					
5. FNA	2.06	.74	.04	-.09	.29**	-.37**	*.83*				
6. FEC	3.39	.98	.05	.04	-.02	-.08	.17**	*.88*			
7. FJS	4.00	.67	-.01	.06	-.08	.55**	-.33**	-.16**	*.80*		
8. FOC	3.88	.77	.11	.14*	-.11	.45**	-.18**	-.04	.70**	*.89*	
9. FTI	2.56	.99	-.02	-.16**	.18**	-.40**	.40**	.21**	-.55**	-.46**	*.85*

n=264, *p < .05, **p < .01. Composite reliabilities are reported in a bold italic font along the diagonal.

Note: LEI = Leader emotional intelligence, LPA = Leader positive affect, LNA = Leader negative affect, FPA = Follower positive affect, FNA= Follower negative affect, FEC = Follower susceptibility to emotional contagion, FJS = Follower job satisfaction, FTI = Follower turnover intention, FOC = Follower organizational commitment, SD = Standard deviation.

4.5.2 Testing of Direct Hypotheses

The current study had a series of direct, indirect and moderation hypotheses. In the first step of the hypothesis testing, ten hypotheses about the direct relationship between the main model variables were tested in a multiple regression analysis in SPSS. The demographic variables of both the leader- and follower-reported data were entered in the regression models as control variables; however, the comparison of models with and without demographic control variables showed no significant differences. Thus, following the recommendations of Becker et al. (2016), the non-significant demographic control variables were not entered in the regression models when testing the hypotheses of the study.

H1a: There is a positive relationship between LEI and LPA.

H1b: There is a negative relationship between LEI and LNA.

H2a: There is a positive relationship between LPA and FPA.

H2b: There is a positive relationship between LNA and FNA.

H6a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and FJS.

H6b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FJS.

H7a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and FOC.

H7b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FOC.

H8a: There is a negative relationship between FPA and FTI.

H8b: There is a positive relationship between FNA and FTI.

Table 4.19 provides a summary of the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis for all these hypotheses. Except for two, all the hypothesized direct relationships were supported by the data. The results indicated that LEI had significant positive and negative relationships with LPA (.67***) and LNA (-.35***). Both H1a and H1b were, therefore, supported by these results. Furthermore, LNA had a significant positive relationship with FNA (.34***), but LPA had a non-significant positive relationship with FPA (.10 ^{NS}). These results, therefore, led to H2b being accepted and H2a being rejected.

The majority of the direct relationships between FPA, FNA and work attitudes were in the directions expected. For example, FPA had significant positive relationships with FJS (.50***) and FOC (.43***). FNA, on the other hand, had a significant negative relationship with FJS (-13*) but not with FOC (.00 ^{NS}). For FTI, both FPA and FNA had significant negative (-.30***) and positive (.24***) effects, respectively. Of the ten direct hypotheses, six (H1a, H1b, H2b, H6a, H6b, H7a, H7b, H8a and H8b) were supported, and only two hypotheses (H2a and H7b) were rejected.

Table 4.19: Results for direct hypotheses

Hypothesis	Independent variable		Dependent variable	Std. beta	Sig. (*p*)	Result
H1a	LEI	→	LPA	.67	.000	Supported
H1b	LEI	→	LNA	-.35	.000	Supported
H2a	LPA	→	FPA	.10	.232	**Rejected**
H2b	LNA	→	FNA	.34	.000	Supported
H6a	FPA	→	FJS	.50	.000	Supported
H6b	FNA	→	FJS	-.13	.029	Supported
H7a	FPA	→	FOC	.43	.000	Supported
H7b	FNA	→	FOC	.00	.964	**Rejected**
H8a	FPA	→	FTI	-.30	.000	Supported
H8b	FNA	→	FTI	.24	.000	Supported

Note: LEI = Leader emotional intelligence, LPA = Leader positive affect, LNA = Leader negative affect, FPA = Follower positive affect, FNA= Follower negative affect, FJS = Follower job satisfaction, FTI = Follower turnover intention, FOC = Follower organizational commitment.

4.5.3 Testing of Indirect Hypotheses

After testing the direct relationships, the indirect or mediation relationships were examined using the PROCESS macro for SPSS, developed by Hayes (2012), with 5,000 bootstrap resamples. The values of the bias-corrected (BC) lower-level confidence interval (LLCI) and upper-level confidence interval (ULCI) were used to determine whether the examined indirect effects were significant (i.e., with the values of BC-LLCI and BC-ULCI not containing zero) or not significant (i.e., with the values of BC-LLCI and BC-ULCI containing zero) (Hayes, 2018; Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

The following indirect hypotheses were tested using Models 4 and 6 of the PROCESS macro for SPSS:

H3: LPA mediates the relationship between LEI and FPA.

H4: LNA mediates the relationship between LEI and FNA.

H9: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and follower work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC and FTI).

    H9a: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FJS.

    H9b: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FOC.

    H9c: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FTI.

H10: FNA mediates the relationships between LNA and follower work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC and FTI).

    H10a: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FJS.

    H10b: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FOC.

    H10c: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FTI.

H11: The relationships between LEI and follower work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC and FTI) are serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

    H11a: The relationship between LEI and FJS is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

    H11b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

    H11c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.

H12: The relationships between LEI follower work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC & FTI) are serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

    H12a: The relationship between LEI and FJS is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

    H12b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

H12c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.

Hypothesis testing for the indirect relationships began with H3 and H4 of the mediation effects of LPA and LNA in the relationships between LEI and FPA, and LEI and FNA, respectively. The results (Table 4.20) indicated that the indirect effect of LNA in the direct relationship between LEI and FNA was significant (-.19), because the corresponding BC-LLCI and BC-ULCI values did not include a zero value. However, the mediation effect of LPA in the direct relationship between LEI and FPA was non-significant (.10 [NS]), because the corresponding BC-LLCI and BC-ULCI values included a zero value. These results, therefore, led to H4 being accepted and H3 being rejected.

Next, the mediation effects of FPA and FNA in the direct relationships between LPA and LNA and work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC and FTI) were tested. The results indicated that the mediation effects of FNA were significant in the direct relationships between LNA and FJS (-.04) and between LNA and FTI (.12). However, the mediation effect of FNA in the direct relationship between LNA and FOC was non-significant (.00 [NS]). The mediation effects of FPA were non-significant for all three direct relationships, i.e., between LPA and FJS (.01 [NS]), between LPA and FOC (.01 [NS]), and between LPA and FTI (-.01 [NS]). These results, therefore, led to H10a and H10c being accepted and H9a, H9b, H9c and H10b being rejected.

Finally, the serial mediation effects of LPA and FPA, and LNA and FNA in the direct relationships between LEI and follower work attitudes (i.e., FJS, FOC and FTI) were examined using the serial mediation Model 6 of the PROCESS macro. The results indicated that the serial mediation effects of LPA and FPA in the direct

relationships between LEI and follower work attitudes were non-significant for all three follower work attitudes, i.e., FJS (.01 [NS]), FOC (.01 [NS]) and FTI (-.01 [NS]). The serial mediation effects of LNA and FNA were significant for FJS (.02) and FTI (-.06) but not for FOC (.01 [NS]). These results, therefore, led to H12a and H12c being accepted and H11a, H11b, H11c and H12b being rejected.

Table 4.20: Results for indirect hypotheses

Hypothesis	Indirect effects	BC-LLCI	BC-ULCI	Result
H3: LEI→LPA→FPA	.10	-.06	.25	**Rejected**
H4: LEI→LNA→FNA	-.19	-.35	-.09	Supported
H9a: LPA→FPA→FJS	.01	-.09	.11	**Rejected**
H9b: LPA→FPA→FOC	.01	-.08	.11	**Rejected**
H9c: LPA→FPA→FTI	-.01	-.10	.08	**Rejected**
H10a: LNA→FNA→FJS	-.04	-.09	-.01	Supported
H10b: LNA→FNA→FOC	.00	-.05	.05	**Rejected**
H10c: LNA→FNA→FTI	.12	.06	.24	Supported
H11a: LEI→LPA→FPA→FJS	.01	-.07	.09	**Rejected**
H11b: LEI→LPA→FPA→FOC	.01	-.07	.09	**Rejected**
H11c: LEI→LPA→FPA→FTI	-.01	-.08	.07	**Rejected**
H12a: LEI→LNA→FNA→FJS	.02	.00	.06	Supported
H12b: LEI→LNA→FNA→FOC	.00	-.03	.02	**Rejected**
H12c: LEI→LNA→FNA→FTI	-.06	-.13	-.03	Supported

Note: LEI = Leader emotional intelligence, LPA = Leader positive affect, LNA = Leader negative affect, FPA = Follower positive affect, FNA= Follower negative affect, FJS = Follower job satisfaction, FTI = Follower turnover intention, FOC = Follower organizational commitment, BC-LLCI = Bias-corrected lower-level confidence interval, BC-ULCI = Bias-corrected upper-level confidence interval.

4.5.4 Testing of Moderation Hypotheses

Finally, the following two hypotheses of the moderation effects of FEC on the LPA–FPA and LNA–FNA direct relationships were tested using Model 1 of the PROCESS macro:

H5a: The positive relationship between LPA and FPA will be stronger when FEC is high than when it is low.

H5b: The positive relationship between LNA and FNA will be stronger when FEC is high than when it is low.

The results of the moderation analysis (Table 4.21) for H5a and H5b indicate that the interaction of LNA and FEC had a significant effect (.13*) on the direct relationship between LNA and FNA and that the interaction of LPA and FEC had a non-significant effect (.07 ^{NS}) on the direct relationship between LPA and FPA. These results, therefore, led to H5b being accepted and H5a being rejected.

Table 4.21: Results for moderation hypotheses

Hypothesis	Variables	Estimate	SE	Sig. (*p*)	Result
H5a: Moderation of FEC in LPA→FPA	LPA	.14	.11	.203	
	FEC	-.06	.04	.151	**Rejected**
	LPA × FEC	.07	.09	.452	
H5b: Moderation of FEC in LNA→FNA	LNA	.39	.07	.000	
	FEC	.12	.04	.006	Supported
	LNA × FEC	.13	.06	.048	

Note: LPA = Leader positive affect, LNA = Leader negative affect, FPA = Follower positive affect, FNA = Follower negative affect, FEC = Follower susceptibility to emotional contagion.

To examine whether the supported moderation effect of FEC on the direct relationship between LNA and FNA was in the expected direction, the significant interaction effect was plotted on a graph (Figure 4.15). The plotted effects confirmed that the direct relationship between LNA and FNA was stronger at the high level of FEC than at the low level of FEC. These results, therefore, further validated the acceptance of H5b.
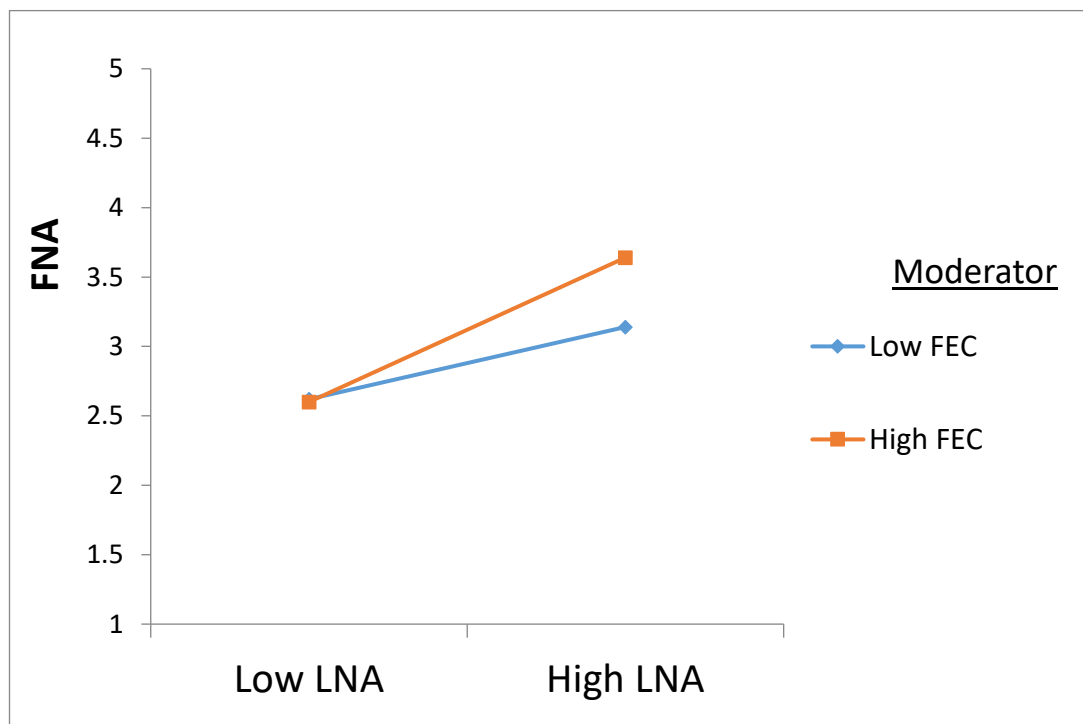

Figure 4.15: Significant moderation effect

4.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided details of the statistical procedures and techniques used in the analysis of the data in SPSS, the PROCESS macro for SPSS and AMOS software. The data were analyzed in four steps. In the first step, data screening was conducted by identifying and treating missing, aberrant and outlier values, ensuring the normality of the data and checking for the potential presence of CMB. In the second step, CFA was conducting by establishing the factorial structure and reliability/validity

of the retained measurement models. In the third step, the descriptive statistics of both leader- and follower- reported data were discussed. In the fourth and final step, hypothesis testing was conducted by examining the hypothesized direct, indirect and moderation relationships.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the research objectives and questions with an in-depth analysis of the results.

5.2 Discussion of the Results

The aim of the study was to demonstrate the role of a leader's EI on his/her followers' work attitudes and behaviors. The mediation role of leaders' and followers' positive and negative affect at work was tested and found to significantly mediate the relationship between LEI and follower job satisfaction, work turnover intention and organizational commitment, alongside emotional contagion as a mediator variable. Too few empirical studies have evaluated the role of EI from this perspective, and this study is the first in the UAE context. Accordingly, it contributes through quantitative research to knowledge of LEI as an antecedent of a positive work affect in the UAE public sector.

More specifically, the aim of the study was to answer the following research questions:

1. How is LEI related to employee work outcomes?

2. In what conditions is the relationship between EI and employee work outcomes strengthened or weakened?

3. Do positive and negative affects mediate the relationship between EI and work outcomes?

In order to answer these questions, 12 hypotheses and their subhypotheses were developed and tested. The subsections below set out the results for each question together with recommendations based on the findings.

5.3 Leaders' Emotional Intelligence and Affect

This section considers the results for the hypotheses that examine the relationship between LEI and positive and negative affect, and the relationship between leader state affect and follower state affect (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Leaders' emotional intelligence and affect

H1a: There is a positive relationship between LEI and LPA.	*Supported*
H1b: There is a negative relationship between LEI and LNA.	*Supported*
H2a: There is a positive relationship between LPA and FPA.	*Rejected*
H2b: There is a positive relationship between LNA and FNA.	*Supported*
H3: LPA mediates the relationship between LEI and FPA.	*Rejected*
H4: LNA mediates the relationship between LEI and FNA.	*Supported*
H5a: The positive relationship between LPA and FPA will be stronger when FEC is high than when it is low.	*Rejected*
H5b: The positive relationship between LNA and FNA will be stronger when FEC is high than when it is low.	*Supported*

The main objective of developing the first two direct hypotheses was to investigate the relationships between LEI, LPA and LNA. The findings showed a positive relation between LEI and LPA (H1a), and a negative correlation between LEI and LNA, thus supporting H1b, which is consistent with previous studies (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). As stated in the literature review (Chapter 2), EI runs contrariwise to the negative affective state. This implies that a leader with high levels of EI will experience fewer negative emotional states. The present findings were also in line with previous studies

that indicated that leaders with high levels of EI adopt coping strategies that assist them in conserving positive affect and in regulating negative emotions. These findings indicate that high levels of EI correlate with a reduction in negative affect reactivity in the UAE context.

The current study also investigated emotional contagion in the UAE context. Accordingly, LPA was hypothesized to associate positively with FPA (H2a). However, the data analysis results did not support this hypothesis, showing that there was no relationship between LPA and FPA. These findings contradict the literature and AET (as clarified in Chapter 2). The related literature characterizes a leader as taking the role of "emotional manager," responsible for creating a positive affect event for their subordinates (Pescosolido, 2002).

The findings of the present study corroborate the hypothesis that investigated a positive relationship between LNA and FNA (H2b). This result is supported by previous literature in the same field, which agrees that people's responses to a positive or negative stimulus are varied. Negative incidents usually elicit more intense and longer-lasting responses than positive or neutral stimuli in the areas of affect, behavior and cognition (for a review, see Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997; Rozin & Royzman, 2001). There are many plausible explanations for the non-findings, including context, cultural differences, the small sample size and social desirability bias in responses. Previous studies (including those based on AET) have associated LPA with FPA; this is the first study in the UAE context to examine this relationship more closely.

The current study tested the mediation effect hypothesis that examined the relationship between LNA, LEI and FNA. The analysis of data for the mediation investigated the impacts of the mediator on the relationship between independent

variables and dependent variables, leading to the rejection of the hypothesis that LPA mediates the relationship between LEI and FPA (H3). Hypothesis H4, however, which proposed that LNA mediates the relationship between LEI and FNA, was accepted. In reference to previous studies, the direct effect of EI was here found to be stronger for positive affect than for negative affect.

There are many possible explanations for the non-findings, mostly in respect to the research context. As the literature review showed, EI runs contrariwise to negative affective state. This implies that a leader with high levels of EI will experience less negative emotional states. The present findings are not in line with those of previous studies that indicated that leaders with high levels of EI adopt coping strategies that assist the conservation of positive affect and the regulation of negative emotions. Consequently, further research is required to establish the nature of the correlation between follower affect and leader EI, particularly in the context of the UAE. It also important to note that cultural diversity may lie behind the apparent contradictions between this study and previous research, given the UAE context here and the moderate degree of alignment in other respects. The administration of this study in an Arab cultural setting acknowledged as having a "culture of face" is another factor that may have added to the difficulty of obtaining accurate measurements of LEI. This is because the burden of the societal norms to be believed in and obeyed is likely to lead to respondents avoiding giving answers that are mostly unfavorable to others in Arab society (Whiteoak, Crawford, & Mapstone, 2006).

Another factor to bear in mind is that in the leader-reported data, 74.19% of respondents were men and only 25.81% were women. The demographic analysis indicates gender differences in the pattern of results. In a study of perceivers (not subordinates), Lewis (2000) investigated perceptions of male and female leaders'

displays of anger and sadness (as compared with a control condition). It was noted that anger was more effective than sadness in male leaders; in contrast, the affective displays of a female leader, were connected with minimal positive reactions (Karakuş, 2013). However, Lewis noted that male anger and sadness reactions were not as effective as the absence of affect displays. Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson (2006) also observed direct effects at comparable levels in female workers, as well as positive and negative affect, which wholly facilitated the effects of EI on the job satisfaction of male followers.

Since no studies have examined the affect state of leader and follower in the context of the UAE, the current study undertook to explore the moderation effect of emotional contagion on leader affect and follower affect by means of two hypotheses. The results indicated that the moderating effect of follower emotional contagion strengthened the relationship between LNA and FNA (H5a). In contrast, the results gave no support for the moderating role of follower emotional contagion between LPA and FPA (H5b). Leaders who avidly study and perceive emotional states create a positive emotional contagion to inspire exuberance and optimism, which enhances job satisfaction and positive affect in followers (Ilies, Curşeu, Dimotakis, & Spitzmuller, 2013).

Research on emotional contagion has found that experts consider leaders to be the source of contagion, with followers being influenced by leader affect. However, one of the early empirical studies, conducted in a classroom environment with the teacher as a leader and students as followers, suggested that a person of authority is more susceptible to emotional contagion than the people with less authority that they interact with (Hsee, Hatfield, Carlson, & Chemtob, 1990). In that case, the teacher was more influenced by the students' affect than vice versa. The researchers suggested that their

research methodology was a factor influencing this result, but it is interesting to have empirical evidence that a leader may grasp his/her followers' emotions. The finding that leaders are prone to mirroring their followers' emotions is of great significance and may help leaders to stay in alignment with the emotions of their team. A similar example is provided by studies of therapists who use emotional contagion to relate to their clients (Barsade, Coutifaris, & Pillemer, 2018). If a leader only dictates the mood of his group and stimulates emotional contagion without being influenced by the followers' affect, his/her leadership will not be effective. Evidence from recent studies supports the view that emotional contagion is an essential process that influences a number of factors in the work environment, including followers' affect, attitudes and behaviors, opinions of a leader's effectiveness and employee performance (both as a group and individually). It also helps to determine the tipping point between positive and negative emotional contagion. A wide range of mood and emotions can be contagious, and they may be either positive or negative. Previous research has, for instance, investigated general positive affect (Johnson, 2008; Sy et al., 2005; Bartlett, S. 2015 ; Tsai & Huang, 2002) and general negative affect (Dasborough et al., 2009; Johnson, 2009) in terms of contagion. The results of the present study are not wholly consistent with this literature. However, Johnson's (2008) study of leadership negative and positive affect focused on individual differences in terms of follower predisposition to contagion as a moderator of emotional contagion. and based on emotional contagion contingencies. This study also demonstrated that followers were most likely to score higher on susceptibility on the contagion measure, because leadership affect was more likely to influence the positive affect of followers (but not their negative affect). It is also important to note that positive affect is more contagious

than negative affect, irrespective of the fact that susceptibility moderates the effects of contagion (cf. Sy et al., 2005; Barsade, Coutifaris, & Pillemer, 2018).

In addition, affect at work has been related to followers, who are thought to be more susceptible to emotional contagion. Contrary to expectations, the present study did not establish any relationship in the moderator role of follower contagion, LPA and FPA. However, there are many possible reasons for these non-findings. According to various relevant studies on EI, demographic variables have an influence on emotional contagion. Harvey & Dasborough, (2015) emphasized that older followers (employees) were less susceptible to emotional contagion. In other studies, gender differences were found to have a varied influence on emotional contagion. For example, in a study of 290 male and 253 female students, Doherty et al. (1997) found that women were more susceptible to emotional contagion than men, based on each group's scores on a susceptibility to emotional contagion scale. The relevance of these observations to this research study are clear. Similarly, another explanation of our non-findings relates to the observation by Sonnby-Borgström et al. (2008) that women's verbally reported ratings of emotional contagion (as measured by the degree of pleasantness they felt) were more consistent with their facial responses to stimuli than those of men. Other scholars, however, have not found any gender differences in terms of susceptibility to emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994). Besides, negative emotional displays by leaders have also been found to enhance analytical performance, although this process was not mediated by emotional contagion among followers (Tiedens, 2001).

All in all, there are many ways to account for the non-findings. Gaddis et al. (2004) and Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) confirmed that most research studies on EI imply that displays of negative emotion are less effective than displays of positive

emotion, the reason being that positive emotion provides more positive feedback signals than negative emotion. This contradicts the current findings. Other researchers, including Van Kleef et al. (2004) and Tiedens (2001), have found that displays of negative emotion could turn out to be more effective than displays of positive emotion. According to these previous studies, negative affect can be effective, which may explain the findings in relation to hypothesis H2a. Although the conditions that influence the relative effectiveness of the display of negative and positive emotions are not clear, the evidence implies that both negative and positive emotional displays may in some instances contribute to leadership effectiveness. Sy et al. (2005) concluded that leaders experiencing negative affect turned out be more effective in terms of task performance persistence than leaders in a positive mood; the latter were effective in stimulating cooperation between themselves and their followers. These findings imply that the impacts of affective displays of leadership may depend on the requirements of the leadership task at hand, and this may clarify the unexpected results for hypotheses H2a, H3 and H4 in this study.

5.4 Emotional Intelligence, Affect, and Work Attitudes and Behaviors

5.4.1 EI, Job Satisfaction and Affect

Table 5.2: EI, job satisfaction and affect

H6a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and FJS.	*Supported*
H6b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FJS.	*Supported*
H9a: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FJS.	*Rejected*
H10a: FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FJS.	*Supported*
H11a: The relationship between LEI and FJS is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.	*Rejected*

The present study has examined the relationship between EI and follower outcomes in the UAE context (Table 5.2). The hypothesis examining the positive relationship between FPA and job satisfaction was accepted in the study (H6a). The hypothesis that there is a negative relationship between FNA and job satisfaction was also supported (H6b). The results for both hypotheses are in line with the findings of previous literature. To clarify, Odom et al. (1990), defined job satisfaction as the positive or negative sentiments of an employee relative to his intrinsic, extrinsic and general perspective. Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) indicated that FPA had a strong direct effect on job satisfaction, whereas there was a negative relationship between FNA and job satisfaction.

The next hypothesis was that FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and job satisfaction (H9a). The results showed that the relationship was not significant. In contrast, the hypothesis that regarded FNA as mediator in the relationship between LNA and job satisfaction was supported (H10a). These findings should be interpreted in terms of AET, as the results appear to conflict with that theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) regarding the role of positive and negative affect at work. For example, the present study does not support the hypothesis that negative affect is a mediator in the relationship between LNA and job satisfaction, and this is not in line with previous studies. However, both negative and positive affectivity in the workplace are suggested by George (2000) to be of paramount importance to variance in job satisfaction as projected by workplace events; AET suggests that both are capable of influencing the attitudes of employees toward their work in the workplace. The apparent contradiction may be due to cultural differences, because this study involved respondents from both the private and government sectors in the UAE.

These findings lead to the rejection of the hypothesis that the relationship between EI and job satisfaction is serially mediated by LPA and FPA (H11a). Nevertheless, the hypothesis that the relationship between LEI and follower job satisfaction is serially mediated by LNA and FNA was accepted (H12a). In this connection, a study by Kafetsios and Zampetakis (2008) showed some gender differences in the pattern of results. Male workers' positive and negative affect at work fully mediated EI effects on job satisfaction, whereas in female workers some direct effects were observed. The results of a subsequent regression analysis indicated that, when controlling for positive and negative affect at work, perceiving the emotions of others was uniquely associated with job satisfaction, a finding that may reflect female work-related gender role-characteristics (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Furthermore, a number of studies (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011; Johnson, 2009; Walter & Bruch, 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) have argued that affective responses at work are realized by reactions to "affective events" that result in job satisfaction.

5.4.2 EI, Turnover Intention and Affect

Table 5.3: EI, turnover intention and affect

H8a: There is a negative relationship between FPA and FTI.	*Supported*
H8b: There is a positive relationship between FNA and FTI.	*Supported*
H9c: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FTI.	*Rejected*
H10c: FNA mediates the relationship between LPA and FTI.	*Supported*
H11c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.	*Rejected*
H12c: The relationship between LEI and FTI is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.	*Supported*

The first two hypotheses examined the relationship between follower affect and turnover intention (Table 5.3). The application of structural equation modeling and structural regression analysis validated both hypotheses. Accordingly, in the UAE context, FPA decreases turnover intention, which can be explained by the finding in H8a. In addition, the positive relationship between FNA and FTI is significant for hypothesis H8b, and this finding is supported by many other studies, including Carmeli (2003) and Wong and Law (2002).

The findings did not support the hypothesis that FPA mediated the relationship between LPA and FTI (H9c). This contradicts other studies stating that, in the workplace, employees can influence one another by transferring positive or negative states, such as work engagement and burnout (e.g., Bakker, van Emmerik, & Euwema, 2006). Nevertheless, FNA has a strong influence in the UAE context, with the present results indicating that FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FTI (H10c). Clearly, hypothesis H9b will be rejected, as previous research has clarified the link between job satisfaction and turnover intention (H9c); it is generally believed that job satisfaction helps explain turnover intention. Furthermore, job dissatisfaction may result in the exclusion of the overall construct that is manifested as turnover intention and absenteeism (Clugston, 2000).

The serial mediation hypotheses were concerned with mechanisms underlying the effects of LPA/FPA (H11c) and LNA/FNA (H12c) in the direct relationships between LEI and FTI. Our research findings are strongly supported by previous related work in the same field (Carmeli, 2003); accordingly, hypothesis H11c was rejected and H12c was accepted. Besides enjoying positive relationships with their followers, emotionally intelligent leaders also have high-quality interpersonal skills. These outcomes imply that turnover intention will be lower when followers' perception of

the EI of their leaders is higher. George (2000) noted that this becomes possible when leaders identify the emotions of their employees and respond to them appropriately, even influencing these emotions in a constructive manner. Leaders with high EI are also in a position to reduce the turnover intentions of their followers by encouraging them to stay in the organization. Numerous studies have indicated that high-quality interpersonal relationships between followers and their leaders result in a range of positive outcomes for organizations (George, 2000). Individual turnover in organizations can also be reduced by leaders who control their emotions effectively, particularly in the challenging modern working environment (Clugston, 2000). High levels of EI might also be useful to leaders in terms of enabling them to monitor the feelings of workgroup members and to make the necessary final decisions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000).

In contrast, Goleman (1998) claimed that leaders with lower levels of EI are likely to fail to improve their EI, and therefore might find it difficult to handle their followers. Schaap and Coetzee (2005) noted that leaders in this category might fail even to notice that their emotions and actions could hurt or affect others. Leaders of this kind very often fail to recognize the situational forces that people react to, and they resort to blaming other people for their own ineffectiveness. Such behavior may result in followers attempting to quit the organization because they feel that their leaders do not empathize with them and lack the capacity to understand the issues that are important to them.

5.4.3 EI and Organizational Commitment Mediated by Leader and Follower State Affect

Table 5.4: EI and organizational commitment mediated by leader and follower state affect

H7a: There is a positive relationship between FPA and FOC.	***Supported***
H7b: There is a negative relationship between FNA and FOC.	***Rejected***
H9b: FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FOC.	***Rejected***
H10b: FNA mediates the relationship between LPA and FOC.	***Rejected***
H11b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LPA and FPA.	***Rejected***
H12b: The relationship between LEI and FOC is serially mediated by LNA and FNA.	***Rejected***

These findings support the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between FPA and FOC (H7a) (Table 5.4). This result is in line with the literature (de Geofroy & Evans, 2017; Lopes et al., 2005). The relationship between FNA and FOC was not significant (H7b). Since the present study measures affective organizational commitment, it refers to affective orientation to the group: the strength of individual identification with the group or organization, or, as (Carmeli, 2003) described it, an emotional bond between individual and organization. Accordingly, a positive or negative state cannot easily influence the organizational commitment of the follower. The present findings in the UAE context do not support the hypothesis that FPA mediates the relationship between LPA and FOC (H9b). Likewise, the hypothesis that FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FOC was rejected (H10b).

LPA and FPA were hypothesized to serially mediate the relationship between LEI and FOC (H11b). In addition, LNA and FNA were hypothesized to serially mediate the relationship between LEI and FOC (H12b). These findings contradict previous studies; Nawi and Redzuan (2011) found that EI was positively correlated to organizational commitment. Positive emotions (as opposed to negative emotions) are linked to positive behaviors such as creativity, coping with adversity, commitment, satisfaction, stress, motivation and performance (Erez & Isen, 2002). Emotionally intelligent individuals use dysfunctional emotions in adaptive ways to ease dissatisfaction. They have a strong emotional attachment to their organizations and are also committed to their careers (Carmeli, 2003). The present study also reveals that positive employees are more committed employees, suggesting that it benefits a business to take account of employee happiness (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Determination was found to be the only positive affective antecedent of organizational commitment across groups leading to an experience of interest, activity, inspiration or pride in their organization. Frequently, guilt increases the bond with an organization, and its presence increases the stickiness of employees to the organization. Chaotic emotions, such as fear and upset, negatively affect organizational commitment (Li, Ahlstrom, & Ashkanasy, 2010). Feelings of being envied by others can be associated with increased responsibility and obligation to them, as well as greater commitment to sharing one's expertise, knowledge and resources with them (Petrides & Furnham, 2006). Recruiting people with the ability to control their feelings and to recognize the feelings of others will increase employees' ability to adapt to the workplace and facilitate proper work relationships, which leads to improvements in efficiency, job performance and attitudes (Shooshtarian, Ameli, & Aminilari, 2013). The literature review indicates that if leaders are emotionally intelligent, they will be acute in picking

up on emotional cues from their subordinates and will respond in an appropriate manner. They will be able to create a favorable emotional climate within the organization, fostering positive attitudes. Lastly, they will be better equipped to explore an array of emotions in themselves as well as in their subordinates and regulate them so as to elicit positive workplace outcomes.

However, Wong and Law (2002) demonstrated that EI does not have a significant link with organizational commitment. Nawi and Redzuan (2011) supported this observation, claiming that there was no hard evidence for the relationship between organizational commitment and EI. Güleryüz et al. (2008) established that there is no vital association between organizational commitment and EI, but they found that job satisfaction was a facilitator between organizational commitment and EI. Numerous studies have indicated a positive link between organizational commitment and EI (Güleryüz et al., 2008; Lordanoglou, 2008). Boivin (2013) studied the role of LEI on FOC in a nursing context and uncovered no significant correlation between LEI and the length of time leaders had been in the healthcare field. The findings also did not support any significant relationship between LEI and FOC. Hence, although the present findings add to the knowledge base for EI and leadership, it would be interesting to replicate this study using different tools for both EI and organizational commitment.

In an AET context, Fisher (2000) studied a sample of 124 employees selected from 65 different organizations. Detailed observation of positive and negative affect reactions in the workplace enabled a focus on the antecedents and consequences of affective events. The participants were asked to maintain a diary about their affective experiences for two weeks, and the data contained 50 recordings per participant. Fisher discovered that positive affective reactions were a consequence of positive affect and

that they predicted employee commitment and helpful attitude; negative affect and role conflicts, however, determined negative affective reactions. These results help to explain the findings of the present study for hypothesis H10b, which asserts that FNA mediates the relationship between LNA and FOC.

5.5 Chapter Summary

To conclude, improving organizational behaviors and attitude would represent an investment for UAE culture, organizations and individuals. Leaders and HR professionals need to recognize the importance of EI and affect, and how these variables can mediate the relationship between other outcomes, namely job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention.

The results indicate that followers in UAE culture are more affected by negative affect than by positive affect, and that there is greater susceptibility to emotional contagion for negative affect than for positive affect. These findings emphasize the importance of training leaders in EI skills, as such skills enable leaders to manage their own negative emotions by understanding themselves and their followers. EI also helps leaders to control their emotions and stay positive. All in all, EI should adopted as an organizational learning practice and implemented by HR professionals in order to enhance organizational behaviors and attitudes.

Chapter 6: Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This Chapter presents a brief summary of the findings, the limitations of the present study and corresponding suggestions for future research, the theoretical and practical contributions, and recommendations for UAE organizations seeking to enhance workforce behavior and attitudes.

6.2 Theoretical Implications

The present study makes significant contributions in terms of both theory and practice. First, from the theoretical perspective, the research model is underpinned by the ability model of EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), Emotional Contagion Theory (Hatfield et al., 1992), and AET (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996). It thereby gives practical insight into the application of these three theories in the proposed model. Previous research has been limited, and no study has been found that discusses the mediating role of leaders and followers in the context of negative and positive affect, and the relationship between EI and organizational outcomes. Additionally, many scholars believe emotional intelligence should be examined in non-western cultures because most of the previous research was conducted in the west (Whiteoak, Crawford, & Mapstone, 2006). Our study is one of the first conducted in the UAE multicultural context, where many of our findings align with previous studies addressing the cross-cultural emotional intelligence concerns of the scholars. Our findings also point to the value in studying the effects of EI on workplace culture in a non-Western context.

This study has therefore bridged a gap in the extant literature of EI and emotional contagion. As indicated by Bono et al. (2007), a leader possesses the potential to impact the attitudes and behaviors of followers. Nevertheless, few

researchers have explored the influence of LEI on followers in regards to their behaviors and attitudes.

Firstly, the key theoretical implication of this study is that, based on our findings, there exists a positive relationship between LEI and LPA, and a negative correlation between LEI and LNA. This is consistent with previous studies (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Gooty et al., 2010; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Surprisingly, the current study found no relationship between LPA and FPA; however, researchers have considered leaders as a source of contagion and as influencing their followers in these respects. The model used in the present study suggests that the workforce in the UAE culture is more influenced by negative affect than by positive affect. Therefore, this study adds to the growing literature on the work of Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Contagion.

For example, the present study does not support the hypothesis that negative affect is a mediator in the relationship between LPA and job satisfaction, and this is not in line with previous studies. However, both negative and positive affectivity in the workplace are suggested by George (2000) to be of paramount importance to variance in job satisfaction as projected by workplace events; Affective Event Theory suggests that both are capable of influencing the attitudes of employees toward in the workplace.

Thirdly, this study not only contributes to AET literature but also to Emotional Contagion literature (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The related literature characterizes a leader as taking the role of "emotional manager," responsible for creating a positive affect environment for their subordinates (Pescosolido, 2002). This was not found to be the case in our study of the UAE multicultural context. According to Emotional

Contagion Theory, researchers found that followers respond differently to the negative and positive emotions.

Fourthly, the most important theoretical implication is the pragmatic association between leader EI and follower outcomes, namely job satisfaction, turnover intention, and organizational commitment. Therefore, it is evident that the study makes a significant contribution to the EI literature, given the limited number of pragmatic examinations of LEI and follower outcomes to date. Very few (if any) studies have investigated these variables among leaders and followers in the UAE multicultural context. As the findings of the present study are based on a sample collected in the UAE, we have added to the current literature by showing the potential cultural relativism of the EI construct. The sourcing of the data from a range of sectors (public, private, government, and semi-government) in the UAE also yields specific implications for this context. This is important considering the large variance in demographics between each sector, which is not as significant in western workplace cultures.

As mentioned previously, EI is not only about being aware of one's own emotions and the emotions of others. It is also about being able to effectively use these emotions in functional ways (George, 2000). Individuals with high levels of EI are able to channel their emotions in such a manner that would lead to the generation of important decisions, flexible planning, and tend to have heightened perceptions of how future events are likely to fall into place (Forges et al., 1990; Kavanagh & Bower, 1985). Thus, in an organization that promotes long-term planning and future orientation, the EI abilities of managers is predicted to be higher. In turn, these managers would also be in a position to instill a collective sense of the need to set goals and work hard to achieve them.

Finally, this study is the first to be conducted in the Arab cultural context, and the findings that are not in line with those of previous studies may indicate cross-cultural limitations in research on EI and affect. EI needs to be investigated in non-Western work cultures, as previous research has ignored UAE work culture strategies, such as monetary motivation, organization control, power distance, and strategies affiliated with a commitment-based work culture (Abdelkarim and Ibrahim, 2001). In other words, this study has value in that it sheds light on the contrast between Western and non-Western work cultures when it comes to EI and affect, and it could serve as a starting point for future research in this area.

To summarize the theoretical implications, this study adds value to the growing body of research on the role of emotional contagion and affect between leaders and their followers. It explores the subject of emotional contagion from a new perspective by studying followers' susceptibility to emotional contagion as a moderator. It also adds to work on AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), especially with its focus on leader behavior as an affective event. The negative or positive emotional expression of a leader in front of his/her followers acts as an affective event that can influence followers' behavior, affect and attitudes (Harvey & Dasborough,2015).

6.3 Managerial Implications

The current study has several practical implications. The findings indicate that UAE corporate culture can benefit immensely by moving away from a "traditional" compliance-based management system which creates a power distance between leaders and followers, and moving toward empathizing and appreciating employees on an emotional level. The traditional work culture of complete compliance with management may create dissatisfaction among followers, whereas concern for their

emotional needs will enhance satisfaction, aid retention, improve performance and produce favorable work outcomes (Al-Ali, 2008).

Further, negative affect is contagious in the UAE multicultural setting, whereas positive affect is not found to be of influence. This is an important distinction between organizations in UAE and those with more western cultural influence. This means that Cultural Assessment & Restructure is crucial. The present study shows how EI matters to leaders: emotionally intelligent leaders have great influence on their followers' behavior, including their intention to quit and their perception of the daily practices of the organization. As emphasized by Cherniss & Goleman (2001), leaders with EI are capable of retaining their employees. Accordingly, there is a need to focus on EI as one possible deterrent of turnover intention and as such to re-engineer training and development programs to take into account how LEI can be used in retention strategies for minimizing employee turnover. This study highlights the role of LEI in building a favorable organizational culture that reduces turnover intention, at the minimum in the UAE context. It also complements existing knowledge of the influence of organizational culture on turnover intention. Accordingly, understanding and modifying the culture within the organization should be the top priority of any EI initiative, as it is imperative for the culture of an organization to support any such initiative in order to be effective.

In terms of leadership, developing leaders who possess high levels of EI will be able to reduce their negative affect and maintain positive affect, which is a significant factor in retaining its most critical workforce. When this approach is properly implemented, the organization will be able to make substantial savings in hiring, orientation, and retraining costs, in addition to the time and effort put in by recruitment executives. Moreover, emotionally intelligent leaders are capable of

fostering a positive organizational culture among employees by reducing the negative contagions that lead to a toxic work environment. This will lead to higher productivity and greater numbers of innovative ideas, ultimately improving the overall performance of the organization. The findings of this study indicate that leader affect is a very important variable in the creation of a happy and positive work environment across the government sector in the UAE.

The present research also offers UAE leaders an opportunity to develop their EI capabilities and to enhance satisfaction in their workforce.

Using these findings, an organization can develop its leaders' EI so they can effectively coach followers during periods of hardship and low performance to reduce negative affect. In doing so, leaders will maintain positive affect and control emotional contagions which negatively impact work environments. Without this shift in organizational culture, followers will continue to experience low job satisfaction, high turnover intention, and a lack of organizational commitment due to the negative contagions from their leaders. Therefore, it is critical is to assess the current culture within the organization and make the necessary changes that could reduce the negative affect of leaders. As this study has found, the factor that most influenced follower outcomes was leader negative affect. Organizations in the unique UAE multicultural context should attempt to increase leader EI with the aim to reduce LNA, rather than focusing on LPA, which has no bearing on FPA.

Additionally, organizations in UAE should work toward distributing power, empowering their members, and creating more autonomous teams. In such environments, followers do not feel alienated from those in decision-making positions; in fact they will believe they can contribute positively towards the advancement of the organization and have input when it comes to making decisions. Once organizations

have attained the culture suitable to endorse the EI capabilities of their people, they can then move to developing and maintaining the EI abilities of their employees by recruiting emotionally intelligent individuals and providing EI training for their leaders and followers.

From a Human Resources perspective, the use of EI tests in recruitment and selection to assess a candidate's suitability has gained significant momentum in many organizations all over the world in recent years (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001). This increase in the use of EI assessments indicates that organizations are now recognizing the power of an emotionally intelligent workforce that can withstand adversity and produce effective leaders. This also indicates that there is a growing belief that emotions play a vital role in organizational behavior, something that is currently lacking in the UAE multicultural context. By ensuring that the workforce within an organization is emotionally intelligent, we ensure that these strong emotional abilities will influence an individual's ability to form worthwhile social relationships, communicate effectively, manage stress, and use emotions to make decisions, thereby affecting employee outcomes (Lopes, Cote, & Salovey, 2006).

Moreover, organizations in UAE should also assess and develop follower Emotional Intelligence as it will assist them in understanding, recognizing, and controlling their emotions in the workplace which can further reduce their susceptibility to emotional contagions. This should be a core component of employee onboarding to establish the importance of EI within the organization. If employees are educated early in their careers about emotional contagions and their effects, they will be more likely to see the benefits of applying the concepts as they advance within their organization or sector.

As a first step toward this, Human Resources departments should implement an effective training program that includes experiential methods and the development of personal insight. This type of training program first taps into their emotional reactions to certain situations to determine the causes of their emotional outbursts. After acquiring some understanding of their emotional reactions and causes, the participants are then taught fundamental EI skills of recognition, regulation, and expression of emotions that could help them in various social situations.

The long-term vision for the application of this research is to establish a Center for Emotional Intelligence under UAEU and in collaboration with the Yale Center for Emotional Intelligence in the United States. Such a center would further cement the legitimacy of Emotional Intelligence as a valid construct with real-world implications on the workforce of the UAE.

Initially, a conference of EI experts should be held in UAE, led by the founding director of the YCEI, Marc Brackett, Ph.D. Dr. Brackett's grant-funded research focuses on, among other topics, the role of emotions and emotional intelligence in educational settings and on workplace performance and climate.

This conference would provide the government sector with an opportunity to learn more about how to implement EI research in education and in employee trainings, and would lay the foundation for a collaborative relationship with YCEI to develop pilot programs in Abu Dhabi. Based on the success of these pilot programs, the government can consider creating the Emotional Intelligence Center to serve governmental agencies across all seven emirates.

This center would address one of the key aspects of a successful transformation of organizational culture: teaching individuals the core concepts of EI at an early age, before their personalities and habits have been fully developed. To achieve this, the

center would have at its core programs for middle and high school students to assess, develop, and improve their EI skills. This way, they will be more equipped to apply these skills when entering the workforce.

The center would also include university courses and supplemental trainings for recent graduates to prepare them for the job search and interviewing process. Building upon this, the center would make available to organizations further assessment and training tools to aid in recruitment and onboarding of new employees, as well as to re-train current employees as needed. Additionally, policy makers should institute in each organization a training center for creative leadership skills, drawing upon the resources of the EIC.

This research has considered both leader and follower affect and their influence on job satisfaction, organizational commitment and turnover intention. Although the primary focus has been on the impact of leader affect on followers, this study has also dealt with the influence of leaders' emotional expressions on followers' affect and how this is connected to employee affect, attitude and behavior. The findings highlight the importance of educating leaders about the potential impact of their expressed affect on employee work outcomes. Negative affect in one employee can spread through the entire workforce by means of emotional contagion, causing a domino effect (Barsade, 2002).

Finally, this study recognizes the cultural barriers to the understanding and acceptance of EI as a factor in workplace behaviors in non-Western, and specifically UAE-based, organizations. To address these barriers, proactive measures must be taken to introduce these concepts earlier in a leader's career development. Human Resources staff must use innovative methods to help change attitudes and beliefs toward the expression of emotion in the workplace, especially in sectors employing a

high percentage of UAE citizens. While these changes must be implemented gradually and over a longer period of time than in western settings where the concept is more familiar, this study indicates that there is potential for UAE organizations to benefit from such applications of EI research in the workplace.

6.4 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study has investigated the role of LEI on follower work attitudes and behaviors and has presented numerous insights for UAE leaders. Leaders from different companies were asked to rate their levels of EI based on four elements: use of emotions, self-emotion appraisal, regulation of emotions and emotion appraisal of others. However, it is typical for issues with self-rating to arise during any process of self-appraisal by participants; it is common for individuals to overrate or even underrate themselves, with only a few rating themselves accurately. This may be partly because most individuals find it difficult to rate themselves. Accordingly, self-reporting is a major limitation of the present study, as is the case for other studies in the field (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

In the present case, unintentional rating bias may have been introduced by individuals when completing the survey, because any instruments that rely on self-reporting may lead to erroneous results. Participants may also have been concerned that the results of the survey would have a negative impact on their employment, despite the researcher's assurances that their privacy would be respected and protected. For this reason, it is likely that respondents were guarded in their survey responses. In order to obtain a more accurate interpretation of leader EI, future studies should apply a study design that uses both peer-rating and self-reporting versions of the survey instruments. This would also mitigate the CMB that arises from the use of self-

appraisal measures by participants, although the present study used a number of tools to counteract CMB (such as the cover letter clarifying the purpose of the study, and the detailed advance clarification of each section of the survey).

The absence of real-life leader–follower connections may also be a limitation of the present study. The best way to test the hypothesized influence of specific leader affective displays would be through controlled experiment. The leaders rated themselves as having high EI and the followers rated themselves as having low turnover intention, high job satisfaction and even higher organizational commitment. The leader EI self-appraisals were used because of time, cost and administrative concerns. However, a multi-rater test of the primary EI of leaders and follower job outcomes would have generated richer data. Nevertheless, the results generated from this study contribute to the current understanding of how the EI of organizational leaders can impact positively in the workplace.

A further limitation of the current study is that it measures LEI as a single facet. It is strongly recommended that future studies test the four different facets of EI separately (namely use of emotions, self-emotion appraisal, regulation of emotions and emotion appraisal of others) to explore how each of the four is associated with organizational behaviors and attitudes. For example, future research could expand the study of EI at work by treating each facet as an independent variable.

A further limitation of the current study is the use of a survey methodology to measure work affectivity. Future researchers are strongly advised to use measures of online affect, such as event sampling method or observational methods. Further research in line with AET could identify work events that prompt positive or negative emotions in the workplace and for which EI acts as moderator. There is also significant potential to study EI in the UAE government sector specifically, and to examine the

degree to which EI proportions and affect interact with each other to influence work attitudes and shape work behaviors. Future research on the phenomenon of emotional contagion could usefully focus on whether positive contagion is more powerful than negative contagion.

In terms of real-world applications, leaders in the UAE have the opportunity to approve and implement strategic programs derived from the findings of this study for the improvement of organizational performance. Since substantial changes are being driven by the changing demographics in the UAE workforce, there is a definite competitive advantage to UAE organizations in understanding and dealing with the influence of leaders on follower job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment. In a country where 81% of workers are expatriates and only 19% are native (Fanack, 2016), organizational leaders face the challenge of reassessing their leadership practices so as to guarantee a dedicated and actively involved workforce (Barling, Slater, & Kevin Kelloway, 2000).

This study also recommends that future research should integrate qualitative, longitudinal and mixed methodologies into the main quantitative design so as to generate even more information. The obvious significance of EI as a skill for organizational leaders warrants this methodological complexity. For instance, it would be useful to pilot interviews for purposes of gathering richer data, particularly to ascertain the EI behaviors employed by various leaders. New and inventive concepts for crafting leadership development initiatives could be achieved by focusing on the distinctive habits of emotionally intelligent leaders.

The findings of the present study could be built on by further investigation of whether leader EI is connected to other functioning areas of followers among the UAE workforce. Future researchers should therefore consider studying other antecedents of

EI and follower outcomes in addition to those discussed in the present study (for instance, the relationship between EI and happiness or work–life balance). Furthermore, based on the current literature, it would be of value for future research to explore the relationship between susceptibility to emotional contagion and leader gender difference for both negative and positive affect in the UAE context. Similarly, separate investigation of the role of UAE national leaders on follower positive and negative affect would be of value.

The present study presents opportunities for future researchers, as it deals with a subject that has not previously been researched in the UAE; therefore, there is significant scope for innovation, growth and improvement. Research conducted so far on EI has focused on the influence of an employee's EI on his/her personal performance. The present study has expanded the arena of influence of EI to examine the influence of the EI of an individual on the behavior of others, that is, how a leader's EI impacts his/her followers' attitudes and behaviors. A leader's EI has the potential to influence followers in many ways, and it is essential to pursue continuous research in this field so that high-value implications of the phenomenon can be discovered.

It is also recommended that the research in the present study be repeated using bigger samples and in different work environments. The results of this study will be further confirmed if future studies with larger samples produce similar positive results in favor of organizational commitment. There is also potential to explore further ways in which LEI may influence followers, and future research should focus on antecedents of EI and follower outcomes that have not been discussed in the present study.

6.5 Conclusion

This study has explored the influence of leader EI on job satisfaction, turnover intention and organizational commitment of followers in UAE-based organizations. It has approached the phenomenon of EI from a new perspective and put forward promising results. The study has presented evidence that confirms a directly proportional relationship between EI on the part of leaders and certain behaviors and attitudes on the part of followers. It has produced quantitative results that highlight the importance of developing strong and supportive relationships between leaders and followers.

As the literature review (Chapter 2) has shown, EI runs contrariwise to negative affective state. This implies that a leader with high levels of EI will experience less negative emotional states. The present findings are in line with previous studies indicating that leaders with high levels of EI adopt coping strategies that assist the conservation of positive affect and regulate negative emotions. Consequently, these findings demonstrate that high levels of EI correlate with a reduction in negative affect reactivity.

Much work remains to be done on the relationship between leader EI and follower affect and behavior. Therefore, it is essential for further research to reveal more ways in which LEI influences follower behavior and work outcomes. The present study found no affiliation between LPA and FPA, which was unexpected. However, the study corroborated previous research findings that job satisfaction deeply influences organizational commitment and decreases turnover intention.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the literature and to organizational settings in three main areas. First, it enables researchers, leaders and human resource practitioners to better understand the role of leader EI in the work behaviors and

attitudes of employees, as mediated by negative and positive affect and moderated by emotional contagion. Second, given the lack of pragmatic examinations of leader EI and follower outcomes to date, it is clear that this study fills a gap in the literature, and that it does so in a specific context, the UAE, which has so far been neglected. Finally, this study reveals the pragmatic association between leader EI and follower job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organization commitment.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Investigation Results

<u>EMPLOYEE SURVEY</u>

Dear Respondent:

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled Leader's Emotional Intelligence and Followers' Outcomes: An Emotional Contagion Perspective**.** I am currently enrolled in the Doctorate Program at the United Arab Emirates' University, and I am in the process of writing my doctorate dissertation.

This survey has already been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the UAE University. The researcher also wishes to assure the respondents that their privacy will be treated as a matter of importance and that none of their collected personal information shall be revealed or shared with the third party. The researcher will ensure the anonymity of all the entire information collected in this exercise. It is also significant to note that your participation in this exercise will exclusively be voluntary and also that will have the right of second opinion by withdrawing your consent or even discontinue with your participation at any given time if you desire.

Enclosed with this letter a brief questionnaire. Please take few minutes to answer each question as completely and accurately as possible. Your responses will be processed with full confidentially and only group data will be made available. No one other than the researcher will know your individual answers to this questionnaire.

If you have any questions regarding the survey or would like a copy of the survey results, please contact me on: emanhalmansoori@gmail.com. Your participation will be highly valued.

Kindly note that participation is voluntary, accordingly you may withdraw at any time from the study, if you have decided to be part of the study please ensure that you respond to each of the following questions.

Thanks for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors

Sincerely,
Eman Helal Al Mansoori
DBA student- UAE University

The positive and negative affects PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then list the number from the scale below next to each word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment *OR* indicate the extent you have felt this way over the past week.

Items	Very little (1)	A little (2)	Moderately (3)	Quite a bit (4)	Extremely (5)
1. Interested	O	O	O	O	O
2. Disinterested	O	O	O	O	O
3. Exited	O	O	O	O	O
4. Upset	O	O	O	O	O
5. Strong	O	O	O	O	O
6. Guilty	O	O	O	O	O
7. Scared	O	O	O	O	O
8. Hostile	O	O	O	O	O
9. Enthusiastic	O	O	O	O	O
10. Proud	O	O	O	O	O
11. Irritable	O	O	O	O	O
12. Alert	O	O	O	O	O
13. Ashamed	O	O	O	O	O
14. Inspired	O	O	O	O	O
15. Nervous	O	O	O	O	O
16. Determined	O	O	O	O	O
17. Attentive	O	O	O	O	O
18. Jittery	O	O	O	O	O
19. Active	O	O	O	O	O
20. Afraid	O	O	O	O	O

Section 2: The Emotional Contagion Scale (EC)

This is a scale that measures a variety of feelings and behaviors in various situations. There are no right or wrong answers, so try very hard to be completely honest in your answers. Results are *completely confidential*. Read each question and indicate the answers which best applies to you. Please answer each question very carefully. Thank you.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer.			
Never true for me	Rarely true for me	Often true for me	Always true for me
Never (N)	Rarely (R)	Often (O)	Always (A)
1	2	3	4

Items	Never (N)	Rarely (R)	Often (O)	Always (A)
1. If someone I'm talking begins to cry, I get teary-eyed.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2. Being with a happy leader makes me have a sense of confidence when I have a feling of inferioruty complex.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
3. When someone smiles warmly at me, I smile back and feel a sense of satisfaction.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4. I get filled with sorrow when people talk about the death of their loved ones.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5. I clench my jaws and my shoulders get tight when I see the angry faces on the news.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
6. It irritates me to be around angey people.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
7. Watching the fearful faces of victims on the news makes me try to imagine how they might be feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
8. I become tense when overhearing an angry quarrel.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
9. Being around happy people fills my mind with happy thoughts.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10. I notice myself getting tense when I'm around people who are stressed out.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
11. I cry when I watch sad movies.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
12. Listening to the shrill screams of a terrified child in a dentist's waiting room makes me feel nervous.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

Section 3: Turnover intention

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer.

Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5

	1 (SD)	2 (D)	3 (N)	4 (A)	5 (SA)
1. **I frequently think of quitting my job**	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. **I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.**	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. **If I have my own way, I will not be working for this organization one year from now.**	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Job Satisfaction

Please rate the following items in view of your current job	1 (SD)	2 (D)	3 (N)	4 (A)	5 (SA)
1. I find real enjoyment in my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I like my job better than the average worker does.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I am seldom bored with my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I would not consider taking another job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. Most days I am enthusiastic about my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I feel fairly well satisfied with my job.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Section 4: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Listed below are comments about how people may feel about their organizations. Using the seven-point scale provided, please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each comment.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer.

Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5

Item	1 SD	2 D	3 N	4 A	5 SA
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. (R)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I feel like 'part of the family' at my organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Section 5

Demographic Information				
Please put (√) in the box next to the best answer to each question below:				
Participant Name				
Gender	☐ Female	☐ Male		
Age	☐ 18 to 24 years	☐ 25 to 34 years		
	☐ Age 35 or older			
What is your Educational Background	☐ Diploma /(includes equivalency)	☐ Higher Diploma		
	☐ Ph.D./Doctorate	☐ Master's degree		
	☐ High school graduate	☐ Other degree		
Participant Job Title				
Participant Direct Manager information	Name	–––––––––––––– –––––––––––––– –––––––––––––– –––––––––––––– –––––––––––––– ––––––––––	Job Title	–––––––––––––––––––––––––––– –––––––––––––––––––––––––––– –––––––––––––––––––––––––––– ––––––––––––––––––
Work Experience at current organization	☐ More than 10 Years	☐7-10 Years		
	☐4-6 Years	☐ Less than 3 Years		
Name of Organization	--- --------------			
Organization Industry	☐ Services	☐ Telecom	☐ Manufacturing	
	☐ Banking & Finance	☐ Oil & Gas	☐ Construction	
	☐ Trade	☐ Others		
Type of Organization	☐Private	☐ Semi Private	☐ Local Gov	☐Federal Gov

Leader Survey

Dear Respondent:

I invite you to participate in a research study entitled (Leader's Emotional Intelligence and Followers' Outcomes: An Emotional Contagion Perspective**.** I am currently enrolled in the Doctorate Program at the United Arab Emirates' University, and I am in the process of writing my doctorate dissertation.
This survey has already been approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the UAE University. The researcher also wishes to assure the respondents that their privacy will be treated as a matter of importance and that none of their collected personal information shall be revealed or shared with the third party. The researcher will ensure the anonymity of all the entire information collected in this exercise. It is also significant to note that your participation in this exercise will exclusively be voluntary and also that will have the right of second opinion by withdrawing your consent or even discontinue with your participation at any given time if you desire.

Enclosed with this letter a brief questionnaire. Please take few minutes to answer each question as completely and accurately as possible. Your responses will be processed with full confidentially and only group data will be made available. No one other than the researcher will know your individual answers to this questionnaire.

If you have any questions regarding the survey or would like a copy of the survey results, please contact me on: emanhalmansoori@gmail.com. Your participation will be highly valued.

Kindly note that participation is voluntary, accordingly you may withdraw at any time from the study, if you have decided to be part of the study please ensure that you respond to each of the following questions.

Thanks for taking the time to assist me in my educational endeavors

Sincerely,
Eman Helal Al Mansoori
DBA student- UAE University

Section 1

Listed below are **Measurement for Emotional Intelligence**. Using the seven point scale provided, please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with each statement.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, please circle the suitable number for your answer.				
Strongly Disagree (SD)	Disagree (D)	Neutral (N)	Agree (A)	Strongly Agree (SA)
1	2	3	4	5

Items	1 (SD)	2 (D)	3 (N)	4 (A)	5 (SA)
1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feeling most of the time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I really understand what I feel.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I am able to control my temper so that I can handel difficulties rationally.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I have good control of my own emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I alwayes tell myself I am a competent person.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I am a self-motivating person.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I always know my employees emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I am a good observer of others' emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of other employees.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Section 2

The positive and negative affects PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now, that is, at the present moment OR indicate the extent you have felt this way over the past week.

Items	Very little (1)	A little (2)	Moderately (3)	Quite a bit (4)	Extremely (5)
1. Interested	○	○	○	○	○
2. Disinterested	○	○	○	○	○
3. Exited	○	○	○	○	○
4. Upset	○	○	○	○	○
5. Strong	○	○	○	○	○
6. Guilty	○	○	○	○	○
7. Scared	○	○	○	○	○
8. Hostile	○	○	○	○	○
9. Enthusiastic	○	○	○	○	○
10. Proud	○	○	○	○	○
11. Irritable	○	○	○	○	○
12. Alert	○	○	○	○	○
13. Ashamed	○	○	○	○	○
14. Inspired	○	○	○	○	○
15. Nervous	○	○	○	○	○
16. Determined	○	○	○	○	○
17. Attentive	○	○	○	○	○
18. Jittery	○	○	○	○	○
19. Active	○	○	○	○	○
20. Afraid	○	○	○	○	○

Section 3: Demographic Information

Please put (√) in the box next to the best answer to each question below:

Participant Name			
Gender	☐ Female	☐ Male	
Age	☐ 18 to 24 years	☐ 25 to 34 years	
	☐ Age 35 or older		
What is your Educational Background	☐ Diploma /(includes equivalency)	☐ Higher Diploma	
	☐ Ph.D./Doctorate	☐ Master's degree	
	☐ High school graduate	☐ Other degree	
Participant Job Title			
Work Experience at current organization	☐ More than 10 Years	☐ 7-10 Years	
	☐ 4-6 Years	☐ Less than 3 Years	
Name of Organization	--		
Organization Industry	☐ Services	☐ Telecom	☐ Manufacturing
	☐ Banking & Finance	☐ Oil & Gas	☐ Construction
	☐ Trade	☐ Others	
Type of Organization	☐Private	☐Semi Private	☐ Local Gov / ☐ Federal Gov

Appendix B: Approval Letter for the Research

جامعة الإمارات العربية المتحدة
United Arab Emirates University

DBA | UAEU College of Business and Economics

23/10/2018

To Whom it May Concern

Dear Sir/Madam

This is a letter of support for Ms. Eman Ali Al Mansoori, UAE ID# 201490140, who is enrolled in the Doctorate of Business Administration program at UAE University. Ms. Eman is currently conducting research as part of her degree requirements, to be able to graduate in the near future.

The title of her dissertation is: **Leaders' Emotional Intelligence and Followers' Outcomes: An emotional contagion perspective**. Her research advisor is Dr. Abdul Karim Khan, from the College of Business and Economics, at UAEU.

To aid her with her research, collecting data from your organization is vital. Your support in helping her gain access to the data she needs will enable her to complete the research project in a timely manner. Dr. Abdul Karim Khan (her advisor), or myself would be happy to answer any queries or concerns you may have regarding her research. My contact email is Amany Elanshasy <Aelanshasy@uaeu.ac.ae> and my phone number is 03 713 5267.

I can assure you that Ms. Eman Ali Al Mansoori will adhere to the code of conduct that is stipulated by UAEU policies since she has to obtain ethical clearance to conduct her research. Issues of confidentially, privacy and safety of the information will be observed. I anticipate that the findings of her study will also be beneficial for your organization.

I thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Kind regards,

Amany El Anshasy, PhD
DBA Program Coordinator, UAEU

Appendix C: The Research Model