LEADERSHIP AND ORGANIZATIONALCOMMITMENT IN TEACHER TRAINING UNIVERSITIES IN IRAN: THE MODERATING ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

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THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND ADMINISTRATION UNIVERSITY OF MALAYA KUALA LUMPUR

2016

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UNIVERSITI MALAYA
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ABSTRACT

In this highly competitive and globalized world, organizations often reach for effective leaders to bring changes and move the organization to a better future. There is a widely accepted belief amongst both academics and practitioners that effective leaders can be one of the primary causes of the success in organizations through enhancing several important factors that directly and indirectly determine the organizations' prosperity in this ever changing environment. One of the significant outcomes of effective leadership is followers' organizational commitment. Having committed employees can subsequently lead to efficiency and productivity in organizations. Different leadership styles have been proposed and examined to positively influence subordinates' organizational commitment. In efforts to maximize leadership effectiveness, scholars believe that moving from transactional-transformational to spiritual leadership continuum can lead to the enhancement of organizational commitment. Further, research points to the significant role emotional intelligence plays in the effectiveness of leadership, which needs additional insights in particular from non-western contexts.

To respond to the limited attention directed to the empirical investigation of the above notions, this research set out to address this gap in the current body of leadership literature. Specifically, three leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and spiritual) were focused on this research to examine their influence on employee organizational commitment. In addition, leaders' emotional intelligence as a moderator of leadership-commitment link was investigated. The proposed relationships were examined in a relatively understudied context, Iran, while focusing on one of the higher education sectors, Teacher Training Universities responsible to train and educate personnel to be recruited as teachers in schools. Collecting data from both employees and leaders of this specific higher education sector, the hypotheses advanced in this research were examined. Results indicate that the three leadership styles including

transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership were positively related to employee organizational commitment. As proposed, spiritual leadership style, through spiritual well-being, found to have the highest impact on employee organizational commitment. Further, leaders' emotional intelligence was found to moderate the leadership-commitment link. Leaders with higher emotional intelligence were found to more positively influence organizational commitment among their employees. In other word, the higher the leaders' emotional intelligence, the stronger the leadership-commitment link.

ABSTRAK

Dalam dunia yang sangat kompetitif dan global, organisasi sering mencari pemimpin yang berkesan untuk membawa perubahan dan menggerakkan organisasi untuk masa depan yang lebih baik. Terdapat konsep yang telah diterima secara meluas di kalangan ahli akademik dan pengamal bahawa pemimpin yang berkesan boleh menjadi salah satu punca utama kejayaan dalam organisasi melalui peningkatan beberapa faktor penting yang secara langsung dan secara tidak langsung menentukan kemakmuran organisasi dalam persekitaran yang sentiasa berubah. Salah satu hasil kepimpinan yang berkesan adalah merupakan komitmen organisasi pengikut. Mempunyai pekerja yang komited boleh membawa kepada kecekapan dan produktiviti dalam organisasi.   Gaya kepimpinan yang berbeza telah dicadangkan dan diperiksa untuk mempengaruhi secara positif komitmen pekrja di organisasi. Dalam usaha untuk memaksimumkan keberkesanan kepimpinan, ilmuan percaya bahawa perubahan dari transaksi-transformasi kepada kontinum kepimpinan rohani boleh membawa kepada peningkatan komitmen organisasi. Di samping itu, kajian menunjukkan peranan penting yang dimainkan oleh kecerdasan emosi dalam keberkesanan kepimpinan, yang mana memerlukan pandangan tambahan khususnya dari konteks bukan-barat.

Kajian ini dijalankan untuk memberikan respon kepada perhatian yang terhad ditujukan kepada siasatan empiris pada tanggapan di atas. Ianya juga adalah untuk menangani jurang ini dalam karya semasa berkaitan kepimpinan. Secara khusus, tiga gaya kepimpinan (transaksi, transformasi, dan rohani) telah dijadikan tumpuan kepada kajian ini untuk mengkaji pengaruh mereka ke atas komitmen pekerja terhadap organisasi. Di samping itu, turut dikaji ialah kaitan di antara kecerdasan emosi pemimpin sebagai *moderator* terhadap komitmen kepimpinan. Hubungan yang dicadangkan telah diperiksa dalam konteks yang agak kurang dikaji di Iran. Tumpuan adalah kepada salah

satu sektor pendidikan tinggi, iaitu Universiti Latihan Guru yang bertanggungjawab untuk melatih dan mendidik kakitangan yang akan diambil sebagai guru di sekolah. Hipotesis untuk kajian ini dikaji setelah data dikumpul daripada kedua-dua pekerja dan pemimpin sektor pengajian tinggi khusus. Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa tiga gaya kepimpinan termasuk kepimpinan transaksi, transformasi, dan rohani adalah berkaitan secara positif kepada komitmen pekerja. Seperti yang dicadangkan, gaya kepimpinan spiritual, melalui kesejahteraan rohani didapati mempunyai impak tinggi terhadap komitmen pekerja. Di samping itu, kecerdasan emosi pemimpin didapati mempunyai kaitan sebagai *moderator* kepada komitmen kepimpinan. Pemimpin yang mempunyai kecerdasan emosi yang lebih tinggi didapati mempengaruhi secara lebih positif komitmen organisasi di kalangan pekerja mereka. Dengan kata lain, semakin tinggi kecerdasan emosi pemimpin, semakin kuat pautan komitmen kepimpinan.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am using this opportunity to express my gratitude to everyone who supported me throughout the course of this PhD program. I am greatly thankful to Dr Raja Noriza Raja Ariffin for her guidance, supervision and advice. I would like to thank my wife for her unconditional supports throughout my life and toward achieving this degree. In particular her patience and understanding during the last few years is greatly appreciated. Last but not least, I am thankful to my children (Hossein, Negar, and Setareh).

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

EI: Emotional Intelligence

EQ: Emotional Quotient

IQ: Intelligence Quotient

OC: Organizational Commitment

FRLT: Full Range Leadership Theory

TTU: Teacher Training Universities

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction to the Research

This chapter provides an overview of the research by presenting the research background, problem statement, research questions and objectives of the study. Further, the chapter delineates the significance of the research and the contribution the study makes by addressing the gaps in the existing knowledge. Finally, the organization of the remainder of the thesis is outlined.

1.2 Background

After about a century of research, studies, and empirical examinations on the different theories of leadership, this stream of research is still continuing to explore and extend new knowledge, as there are still many unknowns about leadership and its role in organizational settings and how it contributes to the efficiency of the organizations. In spite of its continuing growth, one specific fact has been grounded and that is: leadership is a critical factor to success in today's competitive environment, and it has been empirically shown that effective leadership helps evolving organizations. Specifically, leadership is now viewed as one of the ways to influence efficiency and effectiveness in organizations (Yukl, 2008). In this highly competitive and globalized world, organizations often reach for effective leaders to bring changes and move the organization to a better future. Studies have substantiated that leadership is able to influence productivity and efficiency in organizations (Gooding & Wagner III, 1985).

There is a widely accepted belief amongst both academics and practitioners that effective leaders can be one of the primary causes of the success in organizations through enhancing several important factors that directly and indirectly determine the organizations' prosperity in this ever changing environment. Thus, leadership is now

believed to be a fundamental aspect of organizations' competitive advantage and a crucially contributing factor to organizational accomplishment. Specifically, leadership has become an inseparable part of educational organizations. To prosper, educational settings needs to incorporate effective leadership into their systems. Results from different studies targeting educational institutions indicate that leadership is necessary for their success and findings suggest that effective leadership leads educational organizations towards success and greatest accomplishments (Starratt, 1991; Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003).

Literature suggests that effective leadership can lead to the improvement of a wide range of behaviours among employees in organizations including their level of commitment (Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005; Yucel, McMillan & Richard, 2014). Leadership is linked to employee organizational commitment in many studies investigating the variety of organizations, and evidence from different contexts indicates the positive relationship between leadership and the level of employee commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Organizational commitment is not a new concept in management literature. According to the initial conceptualization, organizational commitment is defined as how strongly an employee identified him or herself by his/her organization (Buchanan, 1974; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1979). This is measured by employees' pride expression and how much they would care about their respective organizations.

Organizational commitment is now viewed as a crucial element in the prosperity of organization and can lead to the betterment of organizations' status quo (Benkhoff, 1997). Scholars argue that committed employees are essential to the organizational success, and research has demonstrated that the increase in employee organizational commitment can lead to the increase of other significant factors in organizational success such as employee satisfaction (Aydin, Sarier & Uysal, 2013), and decrease in

employee destructive and negative behaviours towards organizations including their turnover intention or their propensity to leave their jobs (Weng & McElroy, 2012). Commitment in educational organization similarly gains profound importance. Having committed employees in educational institutions have been shown to lead to greater success and productivity (Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Rowan, 1990). Thus, understanding how to improve the level of employee organizational commitment is of great importance.

Leadership-commitment link has been established in variety of organizational settings including educational institutions and research indicates to the positive influence of effective leadership on employee organizational commitment; however, there are different styles of leadership that have been conceptualized and operationalized in the leadership literature all with their unique characteristics. While earlier speculations accord the positive leadership-commitment link, further studies were conducted that scrutinized the link and divide leadership into different styles each with their specific attributes, qualities, and features. One of the widely studied leadership theories is Full Range Leadership Theory (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003) that includes two of the commonly recognized leadership styles known as transactional and transformational. Earlier investigations revealed that both transactional and transformational leadership styles influence employee commitment positively, the former in the form of transaction mechanism through reward and punishment system (contingent reward and management by exception), and the latter in the form of the transformation of employees towards the betterment of organization mechanism through influence (attributed and behavioural idealized influence), motivation (inspirational motivation), stimulation (intellectual stimulation), and consideration (individualized consideration).

While transformational leadership has been shown to influence the level of employee commitment higher than that of transactional leadership (Emery & Barker, 2007; Nguni, Sleegers & Denessen, 2006), the role transactional leadership plays through establishing the transaction mechanism with employees and ultimately influencing their level of commitment cannot be denied. In fact there is a wide array of research advocating the positive influence of transactional leadership on organizational commitment (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). It is evident from empirical investigations that transactional leadership is necessary to influence employee behaviours; however, leaders who want to have a higher influence on their employees need to incorporate transformational leadership and transform their employees (Howell & Avolio, 1993). There are documented evidence indicating the role transactional and transformational leadership play in influencing organizational commitment in educational institutions (Leithwood & Poplin, 1992). There is an extensive stream of research inquiring the leadership-commitment link in educational organizations and findings suggest that both transactional and transformational leaders can lead to greater employee commitment in educational settings (Ross & Gray, 2006).

As mentioned, leadership is an ongoing and evolving investigation and new insights are provided on how to improve the theoretical and practical understandings of leadership. One of the more recent attempts is the conceptualization and operationalization of transcendental leadership or what is commonly referred to as the spiritual leadership or the spiritual dimension of leadership (Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy, 2003). Scholars advocating this style of leadership contend that attaining spirituality is necessary in order to reach the optimum level of effectiveness of leadership in organizations (Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy, 2002). Spiritual leadership involves executing efforts toward promoting a sense of hope and faith in organization, identifying and communicating visions, and rewarding through selfless passion and love towards

subordinates. In the spiritual leadership environment the sense of being understood and appreciated, meaning of life, and making differences are promoted. Conclusively, this efforts toward establishing spirituality in organizations can lead to the advancement of employee outcomes such as their level of commitment to their organizations (Fry, 2003).

Investigating the spiritual leadership style and realizing its role in organization is gaining academics' attentions and research has started to provide empirical evidences. For instance, spiritual leadership has been shown to influence employee organizational commitment and citizenship behaviour (Chen & Yang, 2012; Chen, Yang & Li, 2012). Scholars appear to agree on the influential role of spiritual leadership, demonstrated by the sense of hope/faith, vision, and altruistic love, on organizational commitment through promoting a sense of spiritual well-being among employees, demonstrated by the sense meaning/calling and membership. Further, studies have provided empirical evidence that spiritual well-being mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment (Fry, 2005). Given the relatively novel nature of spiritual leadership, it is not surprising to find very limited research in educational institutions that address the phenomenon of spirituality and how it influences commitment. Further investigations of spiritual leadership targeting this specific organizations can enrich the current literature and provide valuable insights.

There can be other factors in the leadership practices that affect how well the leadership capabilities translate to better enhancement of employee outcomes such as organizational commitment. For example, leaders' level of emotional intelligence (EI) can contribute to building effective relationship with their subordinates and helps increasing the influence of their leadership on crucial outcomes such as commitment (Cavazotte, Moreno & Hickmann, 2012). While, the traditional concept of intelligence quotient (IQ) is believed to be important for individuals, what is now viewed as a necessary trait for leaders is their level of emotional quotient (EQ), or what is also

sometimes referred to as emotional intelligence (EI), and how this helps improving the leader-employee relationship. Salovey and Mayer (1990) first conceptualized emotional intelligence (EI) and its measuring quotient (emotional quotient or EQ). They established the term "emotional intelligence"(EI) and appropriately conjectured and theorized the framework that explained its respective skills and competencies, which are related to the precise assessment and expression of one's and others' emotions, the influential instruction of emotions in oneself and others, and apply the senses to inspire, motivate, plan, and accomplish in lives (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2006). The theory of EI concentrates on the degree to which emotions form the cognitive abilities of people, and the degree to which emotions are managed cognitively (George, 2000).

However, this term with its current meaning entered into leadership theory perhaps in the late 1990s by the study of Goleman (1998) in which the author argue that while intelligence and technical skills are important for all leaders, emotional intelligence is the sine qua non and essential part of leadership. This view claims that regardless of the leadership style all successful leaders must possess some degrees of emotional intelligence in order to make proper decisions and create effective relationship with their employees. Emotional intelligence in this sense is generally the state of possessing skills and abilities to control the emotions and social relationships in difficult situations and under different circumstances (Goleman, 1998). The extant literature on leadership and emotional intelligence suggest that EI is an important characteristic of leaders. The higher level of EI among leaders is also viewed to enhance leaders' effectiveness and increase their influence in organizations (Carmeli, 2003). With regards to educational institutions, studies have demonstrated that the presence of EI in leaders' behaviour has significant impact on followers and their subsequent behaviours (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman & Weissberg, 2006). Findings appear to suggest that leaders' higher level of EI provide them with better leadership qualities and helps them to achieve better

efficiency (Parrish, 2015). Figure 1.1 presents the proposed research framework in this study.
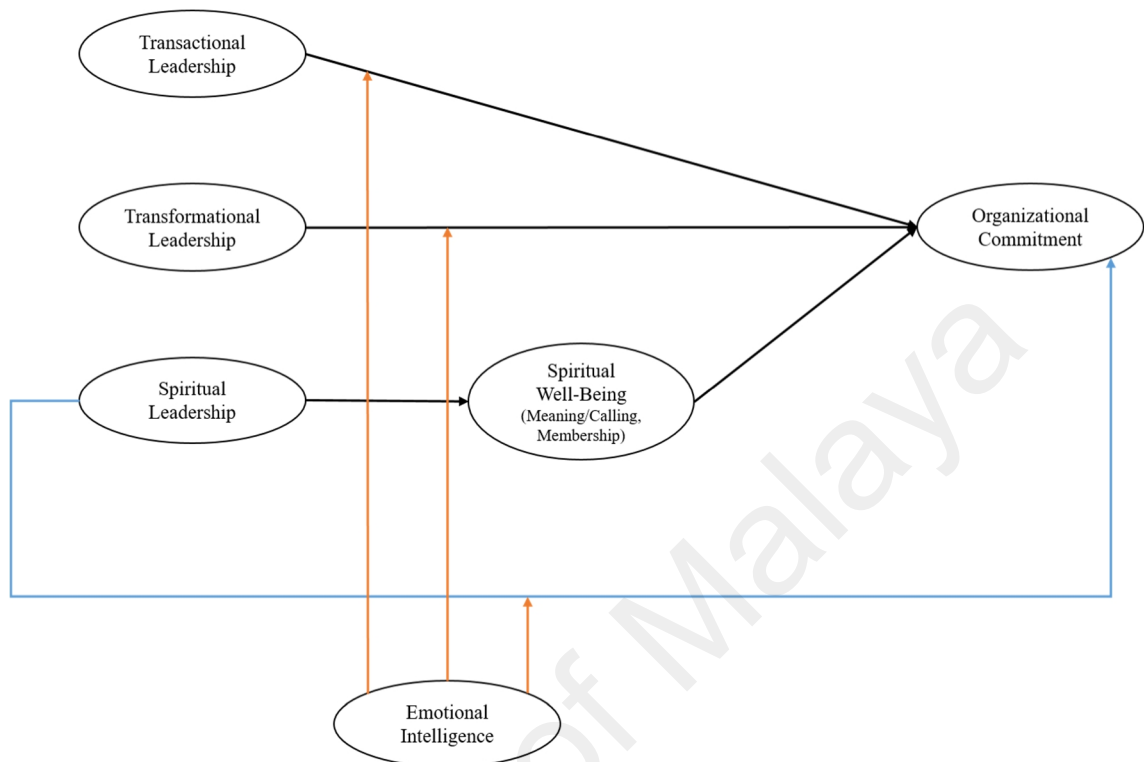
Figure 0.1: Research Framework

1.3 Problem Statement

Today's competitive and ever changing nature of organizations necessitates the integration of effective leadership in order to survive and grow (Fullan, 2011). The need for maintaining a competitive advantage and leading organizations to success has led to the quest for incorporating highly effective leaders to organizational systems. On the other hand, research suggests that employee organizational commitment is a critical factor in organizational success (Wombacher & Felfe, 2016). Many researchers believe that highly committed employees lead to higher productivity and attaining competitive advantage (Huselid, 1995). Similarly in educational settings, research indicates that the

presence of high organizational commitment among employees signals long-term prosperity and strategic advantage (Naderi Anari, 2012).

Research points to the positive relationship between effective leadership and organizational commitment. Different leadership styles and models have been theorized and proposed while majority of them have been related to outcomes such as commitment. Specifically, transactional and transformational leadership have been linked to organizational commitment, while, more recently, spiritual leadership has also been associated to higher level of commitment among employees. Although research indicate the positive relationship of these three styles of leadership with organizational commitment, some scholars argue that as leaders move from transactional and transformational leadership to spiritual leadership, their effectiveness and consequently their influence on outcomes such as employee organizational commitment should increase (Sanders et al., 2002, 2003).

The influence of the three transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership on organizational commitment have been separately examined; however, limited research is available that investigates all three styles in one study. In fact, limited attention is also available on this issue when targeting educational institutions. Further, the notion that leaders' effectiveness increases as they move from transactional and transformational to spiritual has not been empirically tested, to the best of researcher's knowledge. Further, as a relatively new style compared with transactional and transformational leadership, spiritual leadership lacks adequate literature and investigations. Specifically, spiritual leadership has been theorized to influence organizational commitment through a mediating role of spiritual well-being including meaning/calling and membership. Further research is required to examine this mediating mechanism and shed more lights on the influence of spiritual leadership on commitment in particular in educational settings.

In addition, emotional intelligence (EI) has also been shown to influence leadership quality in a variety of organizations including educational institutions. Researchers have argued that EI is a necessary trait for leaders and is essential in today's organization with complex nature and characteristics (George, 2000). However, limited attention has been directed toward examining the role EI plays in the leadership-commitment link. The need for leaders to embrace higher emotional quotient is yet to be investigated in the leadership-commitment relationship. Specifically, the difference in leadership-commitment link with leaders having high level of EI needs further examination. In other word, how leaders' level of EI moderates the relationship between the above three mentioned leadership styles and organizational commitment should be analysed.

Moreover, the majority of research into leadership-commitment association has taken place in western context leaving non-western cultures such as Middle Eastern understudied in particular in their educational institutions. Further, while both transactional and transformational leadership styles have been shown to influence commitment in the limited number of research conducted in the Middle Eastern culture, the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment has not been investigated in this specific context especially in educational institutions. To address these issues, this study targets one of the important sectors in educational settings in Iran known as Teacher Training University (TTU). This university has approximately 100 branches in Iran with unified structure and governing mechanism. They are responsible to educate interested individuals for teaching purposes in schools and higher education. The current research documented internally in this institution points to low level of employee commitment compared with other educational institutions in Iran. The research shows that there is a low level of commitment during past years in employees' behaviours and attitudes

According to the laws and regulations, Ministry of Education has the right to design and issue policies for universities such as Teacher Training Universities (Constitutions, 1979). These policies will be announced to universities as statement to execute. The dean of each university is responsible for proper communication of executing these regulations; therefore, employees in these universities are responsible to execute the policies enacted by the Ministry of Education that are communicated by the deans in each university (Najafi, 2000).

In other words, policies for universities and educational institutes are designed based on a big picture instead of each university's atmosphere and environments. Differences among universities based on their own needs and requirements are an obvious fact. While Higher Education Ministry designs the policies, employees' needs may be neglected in these policies. Crafting and executing policies must meet the needs and requirements of employees in these centres. In terms of Teacher Training Universities, employees' reaction towards these policies, acceptance or rejection of polices is important.

Since these universities train and educate teachers to be employed by the Ministry of Education in order to teach in educational institutes around the country, any inefficiency and ineffectiveness among employees of these universities may have negative consequences. One result of the inefficiency and ineffectiveness can be seen in the behaviour of these teachers with their students. While the teachers are trained in those universities with low level of commitment among universities' employees to their goals, the effect of this idea can be observed in their behaviour influencing their students who are the future generation of the country.

The more leaders of organization craft their policies based on their organizations' environment and employees' needs, the more they can expect their employees to be

committed to their organization and try their best to improve the performance. It can be inferred that leadership behaviours could be effective and influential in improving and enhancing organizational commitment among the employees of the respective organizations (Agarwal, DeCarlo & Vyas, 1999; Berson & Avolio, 2004; Davenport, 2010; Shagholi et al., 2010; Steyrer, Schiffinger & Lang, 2008).

By reviewing the existing problems in Teacher Training University as a critical body of higher education system in Iran, this dissertation plans to investigate and examine the relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment, while taking emotional intelligence (EI) of leaders as a moderator that could be effective in this leader-follower relationship. Therefore, in this study leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and spiritual), organizational commitment of employees, and leaders' emotional intelligence (moderator role between leadership style and organizational commitment) in Teacher Training Universities of Iran will be investigated.

Given this background and stating the existing problems in both the extant literature on leadership-commitment as well as the ones observed in the TTU, research questions are formulated and research objectives can be then advanced. Next section provides the relevant discussions on research questions.

1.4 Research Questions

To streamline the process of research and smooth the flow of information this study pursues a set of questions and is aimed to answer them convincingly. These questions show the structure of this research and skeleton the body of conceptual and empirical findings and their interrelationships. Based on the discussions so far, the main question in this study queries the association between leadership style and organizational commitments while the moderating role of emotional intelligence will be explored on this relationship. Despite the numerous number of research investigating the effect of

leadership on organizational commitment, there is limited research available that incorporates three exclusively different leadership styles namely transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership in one theoretical framework to examine their influence on employee organizational commitment.

This is aimed to fill the existing gap on the literature to empirically find answer to the queries of leadership effectiveness when leaders move from transactional and transformational to spiritual style as well as enriching the respective literature in non-western contexts namely Iran as a Middle Eastern country. More specifically, this study addresses the problem observed in both literature and those found in TTU to investigate if transactional, transformational and spiritual leadership are positively related to organizational commitment, and to test the improving effectiveness of leaders when they move toward spirituality in organizations. Therefore, the first question of this research is advanced as follows:

RQ1: Is leadership related to employee organizational commitment in TTU?

On the other hand, it is important to study the role leaders' EI plays in the leadership-commitment link particularly in an understudied context as Iran. There is a consensus among scholars in the current body of literature that EI is an important quality for leaders (Goleman, 1998), and it yet to be investigated in a variety of contexts to provide some grounding evidence of its influence on the leadership-commitment relationship. Further, there is limited research investigating the EI role in the leadership-commitment link in non-western context especially in educational institutions in Iran. This is why the next question is advanced to address the moderating effect of EI in the leadership-commitment link. Therefore, the second question is advanced as follows:

RQ2: Does leaders' emotional intelligence moderate the relationship between leadership and employee organizational commitment in TTU?

1.5 Research Objectives

To address the research questions identified above, the objectives of this research are to:

- To examine the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment.

- To examine the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment.

- To examine the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment.

- To examine the moderating role of emotional intelligence in the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment.

1.6 Significance of the Research

While there has been an extensive attention in the literature to study leadership and its influence in organizational settings, there are still areas and contexts needing of further investigations including cross-cultural examination and application of leadership theories in understudied contexts such as educational institutions in a Middle Eastern culture. Further, there are a number of notions in the current body of leadership literature that lacks empirical validation one of which is the belief among some scholars that moving from transaction and transformation to spirituality among leaders can enhance their effectiveness especially on those employee outcomes such as employee commitment to their organizations. In addition, the notion of spirituality as a leadership quality is relatively new compared with other two leadership styles examined in this research, so much further work is required to enrich the respective literature and examine the theoretical foundation proposed in earlier studies for the spiritual leadership. In particular, examining the mediating mechanism as theorized in spiritual leadership in which spiritual leadership positively influences outcomes such as employee organizational commitment through promoting the sense of spiritual well-

being among employees is justified as limited research is currently available especially on educational institutions in a non-western culture such as Iran. Further, EI is not an old concept in the leadership literature and further queries can help elevating the relevant understandings of how EI assists in increasing leaders' effectiveness. In fact, limited research is available particularly in non-western educational institutions on how EI helps leaders to achieve greater effectiveness and efficiency.

Against the existing gaps outlined above, this study is perhaps amongst the first attempts to comprehensively include the transactional-transformational-spiritual paradigm and examine their influence on organizational commitment, while leaders' emotional intelligence is taken as a moderating factor between leadership and organizational commitment. Moreover, this research is one of the very first endeavours to link the three leadership styles to employee commitment in an educational establishment with a rich history of providing higher education in Iran, as a Middle Eastern country. This research is vividly felt in this specific context in Iran since there are also indications of commitment concerns. So, this study has another significance, since the targeted institution in this research (TTU) can be benefited by the findings. Thus, both the theme of the research and its practical focus are novel and this can create an original and significant research.

1.7 Contribution of the Study

The study crafts a new integrated model that comprehensively shows the relationships between organizational commitments in the face of three different leadership styles (transactional, transformational, and spiritual) in order to map the leader-employees commitments. This model lacks adequate attention in the current body of management and leadership literature and until recently only a few aspects and dimensions have been explored and explained and an intensive study is still needed to generate a sweeping view of this field. Further, by including spirituality in the research model, this study also

contributes to theory by examining the complex nature of spirituality in the presence of other two leadership styles in an understudied context. The model in this study provides researchers and managers with a comprehensive perspective into this domain and enables them to analyse leadership and organizational commitment interplay. This study, then, brings the role of leaders' emotional intelligence as a moderator in the relationship between leaders and employees. This research is set to find solutions for the existing problem in Iranian higher education systems, especially for the one being investigated in this dissertation. And finally, this research is among the first attempts that investigates the issues of leadership and organizational commitment, while leaders' emotional intelligence is taken as a moderator in Iranian educational context.

This research also contributes practically to create an applicable view of commitment-leadership for managers of the targeted population in order to equip them with a new set of workable knowledge for making more effective decisions and setting policies more efficiently. To provide managers in similar context and settings with a novel analytical power for coming to grip with employee's absenteeism, turnover and other similar problems from a more effective perspective

Besides managerial implications, this research brings about a new practical view into the field of Iranian leadership style in higher educational system and the mechanism of Iranian leadership in the face of organizational commitment in higher educational institutions. This practical analysis not only improves the knowledge base of Iranian leaders and managers but also provides other managers in similar context with a workable set of insights into the field of leadership and organizational commitment and equips them with an applicable tool for choosing leaders and making more effective decisions.

The arrangement of the chapters in this dissertation is discussed in the next section after

the definitions for the key constructs are provided in the Table 1.1 as follows:

Table 0.1: Definitions of Key Terms

Key Construct	Definition
Transactional Leadership	"… an exchange process based on the fulfilment of contractual obligations and is typically represented as setting objectives and monitoring and controlling outcomes" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Transformational Leadership	"… raise follower awareness for transcendent collective interests, and help followers achieve extraordinary goals" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Spiritual Leadership	"… comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviours that are necessary to intrinsically motivate one's self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership". (Fry, 2003, p. 695)
Organizational Commitment	"Commitment is the relative strength how an individual identifies him/herself with an organization and how much he/she involves in an organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226)
Emotional Intelligence	"The subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 186)
Contingent Reward	"refers to leader behaviours focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with material or psychological rewards contingent on the fulfilment of contractual obligations" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Management by Exception	"refers to the active vigilance of a leader whose goal is to ensure that standards are met" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	"is the socialized charisma of the leader, whether the leaders is perceived as being confident and powerful, and whether the leader is viewed as focusing on higher-order ideals and ethics" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Idealized Influence (Behaviour)	"refers to charismatic actions of the leader that are centred on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Inspirational Motivation	"refers to the ways leaders energize their followers by viewing the future with optimism, stressing ambitious goals, projecting an idealized vision, and communicating to followers that the vision is achievable" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)

Intellectual Stimulation	"refers to leader actions that appeal to followers' sense of logic and analysis by challenging followers to think creatively and find solutions to difficult problems" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Individualized Consideration	"refers to leader behaviour that contributes to follower satisfaction by advising, supporting, and paying attention to the individual needs of followers, and thus allowing them to develop and self-actualize" (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265)
Hope/Faith	"A desire with expectation of fulfilment. Faith adds certainty to hope. It is a firm belief in something for which there is no proof" (Fry, 2003, p. 713)
Vision	"… vision serves three important functions by clarifying the general direction of change, simplifying hundreds or thousands of more detailed decisions, and helping to quickly and efficiently coordinate the actions of many different people" (Fry, 2003, p. 711)
Altruistic Love	"… a sense of wholeness, harmony, and well-being produced through care, concern, and appreciation for both self and others" (Fry, 2003, p. 712)
Meaning/Calling	"Refers to how people can derive meaning and purpose in life through service to others" (Fry, 2003)
Membership	"Refers to sense of being appreciated and understood" (Fry, 2003)

1.8 Arrangement of Chapters

This doctoral dissertation has been planned in six chapters.

In Chapter One, the research problem is explained by exploring research domain. The research problems are then stated and subsequently the research questions and research objectives are discussed. Finally, research design is demonstrated and the organization of the research study is described.

Chapter Two is the literature review on the body of literature in different types of leadership styles including transactional, transformational, and spiritual styles, organizational commitment, and emotional intelligence.

Chapter Three discusses the literature of Iranian higher education systems, and in particular Teacher Training Universities. Providing background to this universities and

investigating the related discussions regarding this population of study will be elaborated further.

Chapter Four discusses the research methodology of this thesis. After the literature review this chapter begins with a conceptual framework that integrates all the theoretical findings derived from literature review. From this framework the research hypotheses are defined. The measurement instruments, sampling, and data collection are discussed.

Chapter Five details the analysis and interpretation of data. This chapter also contains the "discussion and inference building." In this chapter, empirical findings are discussed.

Chapter Six is the conclusion of the study in which the major points of research are explained and the limitations are expressed. Some scopes for future researches are also proposed.

1.9   Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined an overview of the research, and started the introduction to and background of the research. Research problem and the knowledge gap were discussed. Research questions and research objectives were elaborated. Originality and the potential contributions of the research were also discussed. The chapter concludes by clarifying the arrangement of the research. The next chapter outlines the literature review and discusses the relative concepts included in this research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction to the Literature

This chapter as the literature review part of this dissertation provides discussions on theoretical frameworks that underpins this research. Specifically, the existing background and theories on leadership are reviewed and the relevant theories including Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) and Spiritual Leadership Theory (SLT) are explained. The literature on key constructs including organizational commitment (dependent variable), transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership (independent variables), and emotional intelligence (moderating variable) are reviewed and then the hypotheses regarding the proposed relationships are presented. The chapter concludes with the delineation of a conceptual model.

2.2 Leadership: Definitions and theories

There has been about a century of investigation in studying leaders and leadership to differentiate "leaders" from "non-leaders". Different theories, definitions, and classifications have been developed and improved through these years, (Bass, 1985, 1990a, 1990b; Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Fiedler, 1967; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hersey & Blanchard, 1974; Yukl, 1998)

There has not been any clear and unambiguous understanding and consensus among scholars in this field (Jago, 1982). Unlike hard science in which well-established laws may role the events, soft science such as leadership and organizational behaviour remains an imprecise and inexact exploration into the causes and consequences of complex human interactions. Stogdill (1974) noted that "there are as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (P. 7). This further clarifies that how wide the leadership discipline is. Jago (1982) defined

leadership as both a process and a property, in which using non-coercive actions influence and direct the performance of the members of the organized group; and property of the leadership is those traits and characteristics of successful leaders. Thus, leadership is influencing followers to put their effort to achieve organizational goals in which the degree of followers' successfulness depends on how they are influenced by their superiors. In order to influence the followers, their permission is required indeed and there has to be common understanding and agreement, to some extent, of the mission, goals, and purposes of the organizations. Achieving such purposes and goals depends partially on the relationship between leaders and followers in the organization (Jago, 1982).

Leadership is considered a dynamic procedure in which followers become leaders or vice versa during times (Hollander, 1961), and it does not involve force, intimidation, coercion, or any frightening behaviours and actions; and it might not necessarily be inferred titles such as supervisors, managers, or superiors (Gibb, 1969; Jacobs, 1971) Leadership is defined as "the ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals" (Robbins & Judge, 2009, p. 419). Yukl (1998) also defined leadership as one uses his/her power in order to influence, direct and align followers' activities towards achieving the objectives of an organization. Scholars also believe that organizations need strong management and strong leadership to be effective

Burns (1978) examined leadership in many different ways as in the eyes of a historian, a psychologist, a sociologist, and a political scientist. He explained many different kinds of leadership as reform, intellectual, revolutionary, and heroic, and discussed the respective instances. He eventually defined and branded two types of leadership for the first time as transactional and transformational, which Bass (1985) improved them later.

Researchers believe that good management is no longer sufficient in time of crisis, as he believed, it was necessary. This is well-illustrated by the letter Cyret, a university president, wrote to other university presidents and express that

> *"Managers mobilize only the non-human resources, whereas leaders mobilize the human resources. Leaders are needed to stimulate and motivate the human resources within the organization to concentrate on total organizational goals rather than on individual or sub-group goals" (Corson, 1980, p. 633).*

The most important thing a leader could do for the people is to give them back their future (Gardner, 1990). Gardner (1990) believes that leadership of an organization requires four tasks as clarifying and defining, implementing or problem-solving, mobilizing, and integrating. Leaders by being clarifiers and definers help their employees, workers, and subordinates to recognize what tasks and requirements have to be done, what they need to change, and what priorities must overcome. An implementer or problem solver leader can sketch and conceptualize the organizational system and its sub-systems (such as planning, budgeting, purchasing, etc.).

A mobilizer leader is articulate, convincing, and persuasive, as what Burns (1978) expressed as transformational leadership that inspires individuals to higher level of motivation and mortality. Finally, an integrator leader is the one who "can see beyond the end of his/her nose" and understands what the whole society or the whole organization needs, and not his/her respective department's needs.

Based on the above discussions on leadership definitions, it can be inferred that while scholars have put forward different definitions for the leadership concept; there is one common feature in all of them and that is how leaders can be as effective as possible in their organizations in order to enhance organizational performances. Leadership has been defined as "process and property" (Jago, 1982), "ability to influence others to

achieve goals" (Robbins & Judge, 2009), "reciprocal process of mobilizing by both leaders and followers in order to realize goals" (J. M. Burns, 1978; Corson, 1980), and "implementing, problem solving, clarifying, mobilizing, and integrating".

All these definitions discussed how a leader could be successful in his/her path to enhance and improve organizational performance by creating such a climate of goal-orientation among followers and subordinates to enthusiastically pursue the established objectives and values of an organization. All above-said discussions of leadership proves the importance of leadership for the betterment of organizations and justifies the significance of studying leadership. After defining what leadership is, the respective theories around leadership discipline are reviewed briefly here.

2.2.1 Great Man Theory

Different theories regarding leadership have been established and practiced. One of the first theories developed around leadership discipline is the "Great Man" theories. "Great Man" or "Great Person" theory assume that leaders are born, not made and the capacity of leadership is inherent (Robbins & Judge, 2009). This theory often depicts a leader as a hero where he leads. The term "Great Man" was applied since at the time of the theory establishment and development, males were solely responsible for leading and even all scholars studying this discipline were males. The idea of "Great Man" holds that a great man would rise when the time needs.

2.2.2 Trait Theory

Some leaders are described based on their characteristics and traits such as Napoleon, Thatcher, etc. Trait theories of leadership differentiate leaders from non-leaders by concentrating on individual characteristics and qualities. People such as Nelson Mandela and Steve Jobs are recognized and known as leaders that are described in terms such as courageous, enthusiastic and motivational, and charismatic (Robbins &

Judge, 2009). This theory assumes that people are born with inherited traits, and those who have appropriate combination of traits can make a good leader. The trait theory of leadership is, then, more focused on the traits successful and effective leaders show.

2.2.3 Behavioural Theory

This theory of leadership assumes that "leadership can be made, rather than are born". Behavioural theory of leadership, instead of looking for inherent traits or abilities, is seeking at what leaders do. Unlike trait theory, which assumes that "leaders are born rather than made", the behavioural theory assumes that leaders could be made and taught leadership patterns for those who want to be effective leaders. Trait theories of leadership concerns for choosing the "right" people for leadership; whereas, behavioural theories concerns for "critical behavioural determinants" of leadership.

2.2.4 Contingency Theory

It is difficult to predict leadership success based on few traits or preferred behaviours. Robbins and Judge (2009) believe that based on leadership style and effectiveness relationship, it can be argued that under specific condition, an appropriate style would be considered to be taken by leaders. Contingency theories assumes that the leaders' ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors, such as preferred style of leadership, followers' behaviours and capabilities, and many different situational factors (Fiedler, 1967).

2.2.5 Situational Leadership Theory

This theory asserts that a range of situational factors define leaders' actions. Situational leadership theory (SLT) has been developed by Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard (1974). Hersey and Blanchard (1974) believe that choosing the appropriate leadership style would result in successful leadership. This theory resembles "leader-follower" relationship to "a parent and a child" relationship. Situational leadership theory

recognizes the significance of followers and builds on the logic that leaders can compensate for ability and motivational limitations in their followers (Robbins & Judge, 2009).

2.2.6 *Leader-Member Exchange Theory*

Dansereau, et al. (1975) and Graen and Cashman (1975) are those who developed and improved Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). This theory was first known as "Vertical Dyad Linkage" (VDL) theory of leadership. The "Vertical Dyad Linkage" (DVL) was developed based on the notion that leaders do not adopt one steady style of leadership towards all employees in the organizations (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). According to this theory, leaders might behave completely in different ways towards different subordinates and members of their respective organizations and might even discriminate between their followers (Dansereau et al., 1975; Dansereau et al., 1995; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen, Dansereau & Minami, 1972; Graen & Scandura, 1987). VDL's important assumption is that leaders must establish a unit of trusted associates in order to help them in managing the work unit, since there exists time and resource restrictions (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Associates and assistants of this kind would receive support and special attention in their careers (Le Blanc, 1994). This working environment may result in "out-group" units, which comprise of followers with shallow contact; or "in-group" units, which comprise of employees who are valuable and are in severe communication and cooperation with leaders (Breukelen, Schyns & Le Blanc, 2006)

VDL "in-group-out-group" approach was renamed the "Leader-Member Exchange" (LMX) theory in the early 1980s and developed into two distinguished approaches (Breukelen et al., 2006).

2.2.7 Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT)

This leadership theory is rooted in transactional-transformational leadership that was introduced and established by Burns (1974) and further improved and expanded by Bass (1985). Bass (1985) argued that existing theories of leadership primarily focused on transactional behaviour in which leaders rewarded or sanctioned their subordinates' behaviour, which was limited to induce basic exchange with subordinates (followers). He believed that a paradigm shift was required to find out how leaders would be able to influence their followers to have the sense of self-interest transcend for the greater good of their organizations, which would lead to ideal performance level among these followers (Antonakis et al., 2003). By integrating this notion of leadership known as transformational leadership to the transactional leadership, he established the original theory of transactional-transformational leadership theory that included four transformational and two transactional leadership factors. This theory was later developed to nine factor dimensions and is known as Full Range Leadership Theory (FRLT) now.

It could be argued that this theory of leadership is complete and sufficient in order to explain most of the behaviours and activities leadership might present, since researchers believed that this theory of leadership provided a full toolkit of competencies for a leader to control his relationships with his/her subordinates/followers (Antonakis et al., 2003). This theory of leadership includes three typologies of leadership behaviour as "Transformational", "Transactional", and "Passive-Avoidant" leadership. This leadership comprises of nine different leadership factors in which five factors were classified under transformational, two under transactional, and the remaining two under passive-avoidant leadership.

The five factors underlying transformational leadership are: idealized influence

(attributed), idealized influence (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. The two factors underlying transactional leadership are: contingent reward leadership and management-by-exception (active). Finally, the two factors underlying passive-avoidant leadership are: management-by-exception (passive) leaders and laissez-faire leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003). Figure 2.1 shows the Full Range Leadership Theory and how it is divided into three different leadership styles.
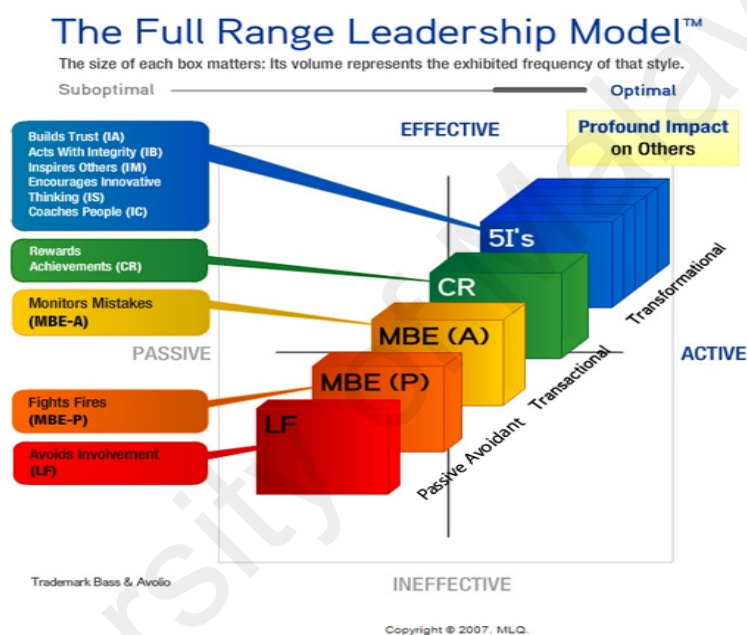
Figure 0.2: Full Range Leadership Theory (Conners, 2003)

The FRLT has been used as a theoretical underpinning in studies investigating the role of leaders in enhancing the organizational performance (Dvir, Eden, Avolio & Shamir, 2002), and findings revealed that transactional and transformational leadership is significant in improving the leaders' effectiveness. Further, this specific theoretical foundation has also been utilized in research where leadership-commitment is the subject of inquiry (Avolio, Zhu, Koh & Bhatia, 2004). Results from previous studies indicate that FRLT can act as an appropriate theory to explain leadership style and employee organizational commitment. In fact, research suggests that the link is positive

and significant. While, this theory has provided an appropriate underpinning for leadership-commitment research and its application is justified given its wide spread examination in different contexts, its applicability should also be examined in a non-western culture and in an understudied context such as educational institutions.

2.2.8   Spiritual Leadership Theory

Scholars believe that society and the organizations, in order to survive in this ever changing environment that calls for new demands and requirements, need to embrace the notion of spirituality (Sanders et al., 2003). Sanders et al. (2003) believe that despite the fact that organizations have been trying to cope with this changing environment by adopting strategies such as learning organization and empowerment, they have not fully addressed the growing spiritual demands and requirements of our changing society. They explicitly suggested the spirituality as an important component of leadership.

Fry (2003) also believes the century we are living in has called for a leadership theory and practice that is comprehensive and can integrate the four fundamental arenas (body, mind, heart, and spirit) that define the essence of human existence. He also urges that organizations should transform from traditional to learning ones. Researchers argue that previous leadership theories have neglected the spiritual component of leadership. To this end, Fry (2003) has defined spiritual leadership as:

> *"comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviours that are necessary*
> *to intrinsically motivate one's self and others so that they have a sense*
> *of spiritual survival through calling and membership" (p. 695).*

This definition involves creating vision for members of the organizations to experience calling and meaning in life. It also establishes social and organizational cultures

through altruistic love. Leaders in this sense care and concern about themselves as well as their followers. This in turn produces a sense of membership and being appreciated.

The motivation indicated in spiritual leadership conceptualization involves external or internal forces to a particular person to provoke enthusiasm, eagerness and perseverance to engage in a specific course of action. Fry (2003) has distinguished intrinsic from extrinsic motivation. The intrinsic motivation is what individuals regard as enjoyment and engage the activities that seem interesting and fun to them, which in turn can endorse growth and satisfy their higher order needs. The extrinsic motivations are those external factors that motivate individuals' behaviours such as pay increase, promotion and so forth. Figure 2.2 shows the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.
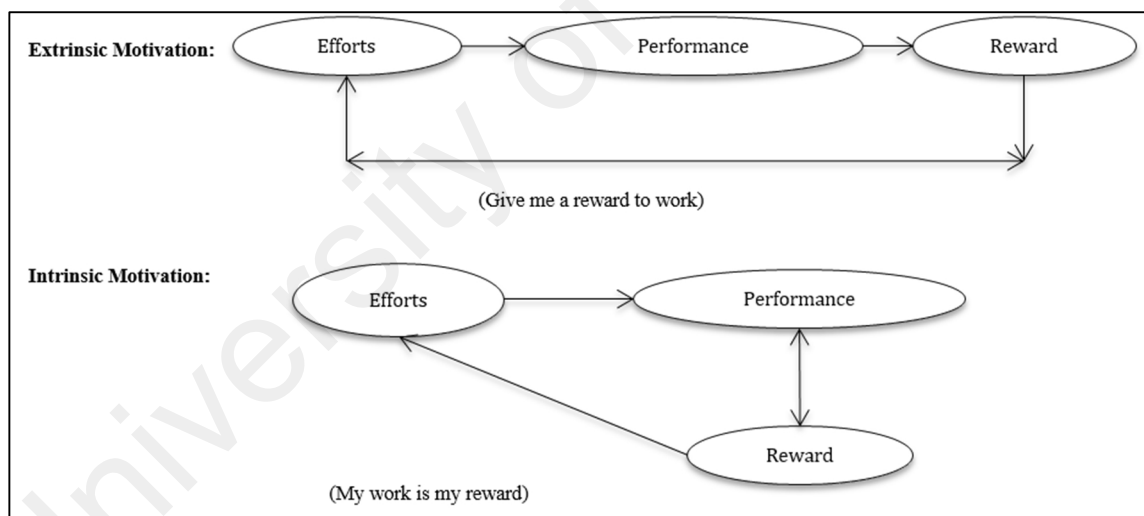
Figure 0.3: Extrinsic versus intrinsic motivation taken from Fry (2003)

Scholars argue that spiritual leadership forms the backbone of the spiritual organization (Fairholm, 1997; Fry, 2003; Judge, 1999; Sanders et al., 2002, 2003). Studies have started to empirically examine spiritual leadership (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000; Fry, Hannah, Noel & Walumbwa, 2011; Fry, Vitucci & Cedillo, 2005), and findings suggest that spirituality in the workplace is effective and can influence a variety of employee

outcomes such as their commitment to organization (Giacalone & Jurkiewicz, 2003). It has also been argued that those organizations that would not be able to make the necessary changes to integrate spirituality might not be able to be successful in the 21st century (Fry, 2003). Scholars believe that the presence of spirituality in the workplace can lead to the promotion of productivity inspiration (Fry, 2003). Fry and Slocum (2008) discussed that workplace spirituality benefits both personal and organizational outcomes; in the former in terms of increased positive human health and psychologically well-being, and in the latter in terms of employee commitment, productivity, and reduced absenteeism and turnover.

Fry (2003) and Fry et al., (2005) have defined and examined three constructs for spiritual leadership based on their definition. The first one is "vision", which "refers to a picture of the future with some implicit or explicit commentary on why people should strive to create that future" (Kotter, 1996, p. 68). Vision should be inclusive of organization's journey description, why it is followed by people in an organization, bring meaning to work, energize people, and enhance commitment (Fry, 2003). The second construct is "altruistic love" in which Fry (2003) believed that love is the one thing capable of conquering fear, anger, sense of failure, and pride. Altruistic love in spiritual leadership is defined as "a sense of wholeness, harmony, and well-being produced through care, concern, and appreciation for both self and others" (Fry, 2003; p. 712). The last construct is hope/faith. Faith adds assurance and confidence to hope, which is a desire with anticipation of realization and achievement. Faith needs determination, endurance, and readiness to "do what it takes" to the best. Faith is an unanimously human way of making sense of one's existence, and not a religious matter necessarily (Fowler, 1981). Hope/faith in the vision of the organization would bring positive expectation and desire for the future. Therefore, this intrinsic motivation cycle comprising of vision (performance), altruistic love (reward), and hope/faith (effort)

would result in spiritual survival, namely calling (make a difference, and bring meaning to life), and membership (to be understood and appreciated by the organization or society); which enhance the organizational outcomes such as the commitment.

Spiritual leadership theory suggests a complex nature of leadership effectiveness in organizations. According to its conceptualization and operationalization, spiritual leadership influence employee commitment through a mediating mechanism known as spiritual well-being, which include senses of calling/meaning and membership among subordinates in organizations (Fry, 2003; Fry et al., 2005). In other words, there is causal mechanism in which spiritual leadership, demonstrated by vision, hope/faith, and altruistic love, influences spiritual well-being that includes calling/meaning and membership, which influence organizational commitment.

Scholars believe that spiritual leadership brings spiritual well-being among employees. Spiritual well-being includes meaning/calling and membership. Meaning/calling refers to how people can derive meaning and purpose in life through service to others. People seek for social meaning or values alongside competence and mastery in their work (Pfeffer, 2003). It is the challenge of leaders in organizations to fuel the sense of calling among their followers and subordinates (Fry et al. 2011). On the other hand, membership refers to sense of being appreciated and understood (Fry, 2003). The following Figure presents the causal explanation of spiritual leadership theory in organizational research.
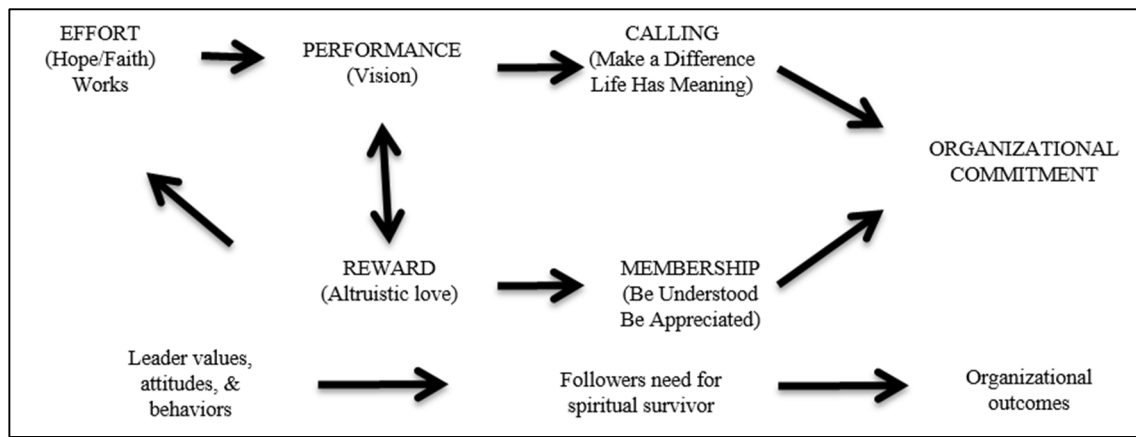
Figure 0.4: Causal model of spiritual leadership adopted from Fry (2003)

Scholars have also distinguished spirituality from religion. Religion is mostly concerned with theological beliefs people might have, while spirituality is mainly focused on the qualities of human spirit (Fry, 2003; Fry & Slocum, 2008).

Spiritual leadership theory has been the theoretical underpinning for studying spiritual leadership in a growing body of research in organizations. Research suggests the appropriateness of this theory to explicate the complex nature of spirituality in organizations and how leaders can become effective following spiritual leadership style and influence employee outcomes including commitment (Chen & Li, 2013). In fact, employee organizational commitment has been the subject of the majority of queries into spiritual leadership effectiveness in organizations (Chen et al., 2012), and findings obtained suggest the significant and positive relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment through the mediating effect of spiritual well-being. While, spiritual leadership is gaining academics' attentions, it needs to be investigated in other non-western contexts to examine its applicability and suitability to address leadership effectiveness. Thus, applying spiritual leadership theory to examine the influence of spiritual leadership on organizational commitment through spiritual well-being is justified in an educational institution in Iran, given the theory has been used and refined in other contexts.

Next sections provides discussions on the study constructs including organizational commitment (dependent variable), transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership (independent variables), spiritual well-being (mediating variable), and emotional intelligence (moderating variable). The respective hypotheses to address the research questions and research objectives are also proposed to be examined.

2.3 Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment is one the products of effective leadership and is a dependent variable in this research. It has been a subject of many empirical and theoretical investigations and studies in organizations for decades (Balfour & Barton, 1996; Cheng, Jiang & Riley, 2003; Cohen, 2007; Gupta, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Mowday et al., 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; O'Reilly, Chatman, Steers & Mowday, 1994; Porter, Crampon & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974). Studies have been trying to understand organizational commitment mechanism by understanding how it is built among employees and what its consequences can be (Bamberger, Kluger & Suchard, 1999; Joiner & Bakalis, 2006; Lok, Wang, Westwood & Crawford, 2007; Muthuveloo & Che Rose, 2005; Stallworth, 2004; Steers, 1977; Williams & Hazer, 1986). Before opening the discussions on organizational commitment, it is worth providing some discussions on commitment conceptualization and definitions as discussed in the following section.

2.3.1 Commitment Conceptualization

The concept of commitment has been reviewed for many years. Becker (1960) believed that commitment as a concept was used in a wide range, but this concept had not received formal analysis sufficiently. Becker (1960) by reviewing the concept of commitment sociology, argued that commitment was applied in the behaviour analysis of both organizations and individuals by sociologists. Sociologists used this concept in

many other ways such as an illustrative concept to designate different form of actions traits of specific sorts of groups or people, accounted for particular kinds of behaviour individuals or groups might express. Side-bet theory could be the theoretical root of organizational commitment. The main assumption in this theory is that if somebody stays in the same profession or career, that person has been following the party line for sometimes. That particular person by remaining in the same career might be engaged in a variety of activities in the course of his/her career.

Although there have been some criticisms towards Becker's side bet theory (Cohen & Lowenberg, 1990), there is strong support for using this theory when conceptualizing and operationalizing organizational commitment. Thus, side-bet theory is regarded as the basic theory of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1984, 1991, 1997; Wallace, 1997) and it has been validated. After discussing the theory underlying commitment and how commitment is important in one's propositions and decisions, the next section provides definitions, relevant literature and discusses studies on organizational commitment.

2.3.2 *Organizational Commitment Definition*

Webster's dictionary defines commitment as to adhering emotionally and intellectually to religious, social, or political theories, actions, or practices, which obliged one to do something continuously. Kanter (1968) argued that organizational commitment happens when employees willingly and enthusiastically allocate loyalty and energy to their respective organizations. Attitudinal approach of commitment is developed due to some arrangement of personal traits, work experiences, and perceptions towards the respective organization. This combination and arrangement then lead to positive feeling towards an organization and turn into commitment (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982).

Buchanan (1974) conducted one of the earliest studies on organizational commitment. He described that commitment is a bond between the individuals (the employees) and the organizations (the employers). Porter et al. (1974) defined organizational commitment as strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Based on this point of view, the committed person believes in organization and accepts the goals and values of the respective organization willingly. Further, strong desires expressed by a person apply high amount of endeavour on behalf of the organization; and finally, a person with this belief and strong willingness to put effort stays in the organization.

Mowday et al. (1982) also illustrated commitment with three aspects expressed by a person including strong belief in organization and its values and goals, willingness to put his/her efforts for an organization, and, strong willingness to remain as a member in his/her respective organization. Organizational commitment has been defined by a number of scholar subsequently, and Table 2.1 (next page) presents the relevant definitions of organizational commitment in organizational research.

Evidence from both conceptual and empirical research points to the positive relationships between effective leadership and employee commitment. Specifically in organizational contexts, the role of leaders in enhancing employee commitment is emphasized. Leaders are primarily responsible to improve the status quo of their organizations, which can be achieved through many ways one of which is enhancing their subordinates and employees commitment to their work (Agarwal et al., 1999; Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Lo, Ramayah, Min & Songan, 2010; Yucel et al., 2014).

Table 0.2: A brief Overview of commitment definition

Source	Definition
Becker (1960)	"When a person makes a side bet he/ she comes in to being committed. This person makes irrelevant interests with consistent stripes of actions".
Grusky (1966)	"Commitment is the nature of the association of the one who is a member to the system as a whole"
Kanter (1968)	"Commitment is how the social actors willingly assign their loyalty and energy to the social systems. The self-expressive attachment of personality systems to social relations".
Brown (1969)	"Commitment embraces the notion of membership to some extent, reveals the individuals' existing position, has particular analytical capabilities, provides predictions regarding clear features of performance, and suggests the different importance of motivational aspects".
Hall, et al. (1970)	"Commitment is the process in which the goals of both the individuals and the organizations become integrated and inter-related increasingly".
Sheldon (1971)	"Commitment is a direction or approach toward the organization that the identity of the person is linked to the organization".
Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972)	"Commitment is a structural event that happens due to individual-organizational alterations and transactions in the side bets or regular investments".
Buchanan (1974)	"Commitment is an adherent affective attachment to those values and goals of the organization, to the roles one might have in this relation and attachment, to the sake of own to the organization".
Salancik (1977)	"Commitment is a state of being in which one's actions bind him/her and makes to believe to sustain the activities and involvement through these particular actions".
Weiner and Gechman (1977)	"Socially accepted behaviours that go beyond the formal or normative anticipation related to the object of commitment are regarded as commitment behaviours"
Marsh and Mannari (1977)	"Regardless of the level of position or satisfaction, committed employees regard it morally to remain in the organization".
Mowday, et al. (1982)	"Commitment is the relative strength how an individual identifies him/herself with an organization and how much he/she involves in an organization".
Wiener (1982)	"Commitment is the entirety-internalized force to follow a certain action that would satisfy organizational interests and goals".

Adapted from: Mowday, Porter & Streers (1982) and Meyer, & Allen (1997)

Leaders who are able to attain employee commitment, are better able to manage and allocate resources as low commitment from employee can have detrimental impact in organizations (Top, Tarcan, Tekingündüz & Hikmet, 2013). Thus, it is important to apply influential leadership styles that lead to the overall improvement of employee commitment in organizations. The following discussions provide explanations on the

relationships between the three leadership styles including transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership and organizational commitment and advance the respective hypotheses for each leadership style.

2.4 Transactional Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Bass (1985), based on Burns (1978), defined two exclusively different styles of leadership as *"transactional"* and *"transformational"* leadership and suggested that transactional leadership was the basis for developing to transformational leadership. Other scholars also agree that transactional and transformational leaders are exclusive and different kinds of leadership (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Researchers further discuss that any exchange that occurs between leaders and followers and influences one another reciprocally, and both receive something in return is represented by transactional leadership (Yukl, 1981). Kuhnert and Lewis (1987) put it differently and defined that both leaders and followers receive something in this process of exchange. In this exchange procedure between leaders and subordinates the influence of leaders on followers is due to the fact that when followers do what their leaders have asked them to do, it is in their best interest. If a transactional leader is seeking to be effective, then the followers' expectations must be fulfilled, which makes effective transactional leadership to be contingent and conditional on the abilities of leaders to meet those expectations of followers (Kellerman, 1984; Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). Whittington et al. (2009) defined transactional leadership as:

> *"Transactional leadership occurs when a leader exchanges something of economic, political, or psychological value with a follower. These exchanges are based on the leader identifying performance requirements and clarifying the conditions under which rewards are available for meeting these requirements. The goal is to enter into a mutually beneficial exchange, but not necessarily to develop an enduring relationship. Although a leadership act transpires, it is not one that binds the leader and followers together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose" (p. 1861).*

They did not agree with others that transformational leadership always augments transactional leadership, and they believed that it was important to revisit transactional leadership since it is an important dimension of leadership (J. M. Burns, 1978), and it is regarded to be a foundation for transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Wofford, Goodwin & Whittington, 1998).

Bass (1990b) defined transactional leadership as a kind of leadership that is "based on the transactions between managers and employees" (p. 20). This leadership interferes in the group's performance when standards are not met or processes to accomplish the required tasks are not being followed (Bass, 1990b). Bass believed that many managers consistently say "if it ain't broken, don't fix it". This implies that transactional leaders interfere with their followers' performance only when they feel that something is wrong or there is derailment in employee performance. They sit until something happens and then they go for it. Transactional leaders are there when they are required to be, they do not act proactively, and instead they react to the situations. If something goes wrong and out of its normal procedure, then these leaders intervene. While ineffective and counterproductive in the long term, transactional leaders apply disciplinary threats that bring performance by a group to its desired and standard way (Bass, 1990b).

Scholars believe that a transactional leader is more effective in the environment of stability and predictability and both followers and leaders interact based on the exchange that takes place between them. Bass (1990b) categorized four characteristics for transactional leadership as "contingent reward", "management by exception (active)", "management by exception (passive)", and "laissez-faire". These four characteristics were later divided into two groups based on the further conception and development of Full Range Leadership Theory (FLRT) (Antonakis & House, 2002; Antonakis et al., 2003; Avoilo & Bass, 1991). Two factors as contingent reward and

management by exception (active) are classified under transactional leadership and the other two under passive-avoidant leadership. Contingent reward behaviours refer to those behaviours of leaders that emphasize on clarifying what roles and tasks are required to be fulfilled and provides rewards in material or psychological form for their followers contingent on the requirements fulfilment (Antonakis et al., 2003). Management by exception (active) is defined as "the active vigilance of a leader whose goal in to ensure that standards are met" (Antonakis et al., 2003; p. 265).

Bass (1985, 1990b) believed that transactional leadership style is a distinct style and completely different from other styles. It has its own characteristics and may or may not be appropriate for a given leader depending on the work nature. He discussed that this leadership style tends to be effective in a stable and routine environment of workplace.

A transactional leader applies reward or disciplinary power system to enhance the spirit of goal achievement among employees in return for their performance (Bass, 1985; Washington, 2007). This style of leadership is considered to be appropriate depending on the situation for organizational setting like Teacher Training Universities in Iran, since some of the employees in this system are required to accomplish required tasks in a routine basis. The tasks that might require extra efforts and working hours, which can be achieved through leaders promising rewards and bonuses in return for employees' extra activities and commitment.

Leaders who actively ensure the standards are met and emphasize to clarify tasks and roles to be fulfilled in return for rewards in material or psychological forms have been shown to be influential in driving employee commitment in different types of organizations (Emery & Barker, 2007; D. I. Jung & Avolio, 2000; Top et al., 2013). Studies indicate that when leaders set standards and reward employees based on their

commitment to fulfil the assigned tasks as specified in transactional leadership, employee commitment is positively influenced (Deichmann & Stam, 2015; Nguni et al., 2006; Rodgers, Sauer & Proell, 2013). Based on the above discussions and findings point to the positive influence of transactional leadership on organizational commitment, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: Transactional leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.

2.5 Transformational Leadership and Organizational Commitment

Bass (1985) classified another style of leadership based on Burns (1978), known as "transformational leadership" style. While complement each other, transactional and transformational leadership style are distinct and have different characteristics and might be practiced in different kind of situations in organizations. Bass (1990b) indicate transformational leadership is considered a senior leadership performance. It occurs when a leader enhances and widens the employees' interests, creates necessary understanding of what the purposes and the missions of the organization are among employees, and generates acceptance of those purposes and missions. Transformational leaders encourage employees to look beyond their individual interests for the good of the group. Bass (1990b) believed that transformational leaders can accomplish the above be being charismatic or by appealing to rational encouragement.

Transformational leaders as a charismatic character inspire and motivate employees to possess the idea of ability to achieve great things if they put more efforts. Bass believed that being considered as charisma by employees is important for a transformational leader to succeed, since this charismatic leader holds the influence and power, and employees desire to be recognized by this leader. Transformational leaders are "individually considerate". They are mentors to those employees who need help to

improve, and they know the differences among their employees. They also stimulate their employees intellectually and show them "new ways of looking at old problems to be solved and emphasize a rational solution. Transformational leaders have five dimensions including idealized influence (attributed), idealized behaviour (behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Antonakis et al., 2003, p. 265):

Robbins and Judge (2009) defined a transformational leader as the one who "inspires followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the organization and is capable of having profound and extraordinary effect on the followers. Scholars assert that the concept of transformational leadership has changes the understanding of leadership and improved leadership effects on organizations (McGuire & Hutchings, 2007).

The idea that the dimensions comprising transformational leadership affect critical organizational attitudes and outcomes is now well established in the leadership literature (Avolio, 1999). The associations between transformational leadership and organizational outcomes such as task and financial performance have been substantiated in both laboratory (Howell & Frost, 1989; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996) and field studies (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996). The importance of transformational leadership has also been demonstrated in non-business settings. For example, principals' use of transformational leadership is indirectly related to student performance (Koh, Steers & Terborg, 1995). Athletic performance among student athletes is indirectly associated with coaches' transformational leadership (Charbonneau, Barling & Kelloway, 2001). Researchers believe that transformational leaders are capable of increasing confidence among their employees, elevating interests in group, and moving the followers' interest from personal existence to acknowledging the existence of the group (Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994).

Research indicates that transformational leader's active involvement in changing followers' values encourage followers to accept group goals and work together toward a common goal and shared vision (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990) Further, studies have substantiated that transformational leadership positively effects the attitudes of employees across different cultures (Jung, Yammarino & Lee, 2009). While transactional leaders focus on economic exchange, the transformational leaders are more concerned about social exchange and visualize long-term objectives and they are proactive rather than reactive (Rajagopalan, 2009). Studies in different organizations have shown that there is a direct relationship between transformational leadership and employee commitment toward their respective organizations (Hill, Seo, Kang & Taylor, 2012). Extant literature points to the positive influence of leaders' transformational leadership with their subordinate's commitment (Gillet & Vandenberghe, 2014; Yucel et al., 2014). Similar research has been conducted in educational organizations and results suggest that transformational leadership positively influences employee organizational commitment (Dumay & Galand, 2012; Khasawneh, Omari & Abu-Tineh, 2012). Specifically, results have revealed that employee organizational commitment is greatly influenced by leaders' transformational leadership in context similar to the one studied in this research. Based on the above discussions and research that indicates the positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee organizational commitment, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 2: Transformational leadership is positively related to organizational commitment.

2.6 Spiritual Leadership and Organizational Commitment

The nature of changing environment of the century we are living in (surrounded by phenomenon such as the Internet) has called for spirituality (Fry et al., 2005; Sanders et

al., 2003), which cannot be ignored (Judge, 1999). Sanders, et al. (2003) have argued that the traditional models for leadership might not be able to cope with the challenges and dilemmas that are evident in organizations. On the other hand, it has been discussed that spiritual values and practices allow leaders to achieve organizational goals such as decreasing turnover among employees (Reave, 2005). Society and the organizations, in order to survive in this ever changing environment that calls for new demands and requirements, need to embrace the notion of spirituality (Sanders et al., 2003). Sanders, et al. (2003) believe that despite the fact that organizations have been trying to cope with this changing environment by adopting strategies such as learning organization and empowerment, but they have not fully addressed the growing spiritual demands and requirements of our changing society. They explicitly suggested that the spirituality is as an important component of leadership.

Spiritual characteristics of effective leaders have been discussed (Fairholm, 1997, 1998; Reave, 2005) since spirituality is regarded as an important dimension for organization in this century. Fry (2003) is probably among the first scholars who believed that more comprehensive leadership theory and practice are to be integrated that incorporate spirituality and leadership. He argued that spiritual leadership and organizational outcomes are positively related. It could be argued that what Fry, et al. (2005) have proposed for their theory of spiritual leadership is based on motivation aspects of leadership that is similar to those of other styles of leadership (e.g. transformational and charismatic) that have been proposed by different scholars (Bass, 1985, 1990b; J. M. Burns, 1978). This theory of leadership included other dimensions such as value-based component.

Fry et al (2005) defined spiritual leadership as "leadership comprises the value, attitude, and behaviours that one must adopt to intrinsically motivating one's self and others so that both have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership-that is, they

experience meaning in their lives, have a sense of making a difference, and fell understood and appreciated" (p. 835) Fry (2005) defined three factors for spiritual leadership including vision, hope/faith, and altruistic love. This intrinsic motivation cycle leads to spiritual survival as calling (make a difference, and bring meaning to life) and membership (to be understood and appreciated). These in turn enhance the organizational outcome such as commitment. The followers' responses to the spiritual components are meaning/calling and membership. Pfeffer (2003) argued that this social meaning is what people might seek alongside of their competency and mastery in their work.

Spiritual leadership is positively related to spiritual well-being since the members of the group commonly share and develop one vision that prototype the importance of altruistic love to one another and make members feel that their work are special and meaningful and in turn would result to "do what it takes" for the organization to follow that shared vision. This would produce a sense of calling (life has meaning) and when leaders and their followers participate in this development and reach reciprocal attention and concern, those followers would feel that they are being understood and appreciated, which in turn result in a sense of membership (Fry, Matherly & Ouimet, 2010). Results from different contexts also point to the impact of spiritual leadership on spiritual well-being (Chen et al., 2012). Based on the above discussions, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3a: Spiritual leadership is positively related to meaning/calling

Hypothesis 3b: Spiritual leadership is positively related to membership

Spiritual leadership by bringing spiritual well-being to the organizations would make employees to be committed to what they are required to achieve and help them to build faith in what they do (Fry et al., 2005). It has been argued that when leaders care, listen,

and appreciate the contribution of their subordinates, this would lead to effective and successful leadership and employees feel better about their organizations and more likely to stay and continue to contribute (Reave, 2005). Based on the above discussion and what Fry, et al. (2005) proposed, the followings are hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3c: Meaning/Calling is positively related to organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3d: Membership is positively related to organizational commitment.

Scholars also believe that when leaders show attention to their followers and employees, this would create a sense of emotional attachment among those employees and make them stay in their organizations willingly (J. E. Champoux, 2000; Mayfield, 2002). Attention of this kind would lead to employees' psychological contract as meaning/calling and consequently improve the level of commitment, since employees with a positive sense of calling and membership will become more attached, loyal, and committed (Sturges, Conway, Guest & Liefooghe, 2005; Sturges, Guest, Conway & Davey, 2002).

Scholars have suggested that relationships with subordinates are the most prevalent interpersonal factor that differentiates successful from unsuccessful leaders (Deal, Sessa & Taylor, 1996). Listening to what employees would like to share, provide such an environment for them to express their ideas freely, and recognize and appreciate what they contribute to the organizations are powerful effect on their motivation and performance (Reave, 2005). On the other hand these perceptions would likely to make employees feel better about their respective organizations, and they would be more likely to stay and continue to contribute to their organizations (Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2002). It has been argued that the relationship between leader recognition practices and employees perception of organizational support is significant, which in turn lead to employee organizational commitment (Reave, 2005; Wayne et al., 2002)

Spiritual leaders produce spiritual well-being among their employees when they are concerned regarding their employees and engage in this mutual process, listen to their ideas, and recognize and appreciate employees' contributions. This in turn result in enhanced organizational commitment since employees who experience calling and membership would spend extra efforts in what they do and become more committed (Fry, 2003; Fry & Slocum, 2008; Fry et al., 2005).

Based on the above discussion, the following mediation hypotheses in order to find out the importance of the role meaning/calling and membership play in the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment are advanced:

Hypothesis 3e: Meaning/calling mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 3f: Membership mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment.

2.7 Emotional Intelligence

The next and the last variable in this study is emotional intelligence, which is examined as a moderator variable in the framework of this research. EI has its root in the concept of ''social intelligence'' and was first identified by Thorndike (1920). Thorndike (1920) (as cited in Wong & Law, (2002), p. 245) defined social intelligence as ''the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations''. Salovey and Mayer (1990) are among the earliest scholars to propose the concept of ''emotional intelligence'' to represent the ability of people to deal with their emotions. They defined it as ''the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action'' (p. 186). Emotional

intelligence is the ability to perceive emotions, access and generate emotions to assist thought, understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and reflectively regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000).

EI is also defined as ''an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures'' (Bar-On, 1997, p. 14). Schutte et al. (1998) argued that Goleman's (1995) view of the adaptive nature of EI was nicely understood by this notion that cognitive intelligence may help individuals gain admission to educational settings, but that EI will determine how successful they were within these settings. To further emphasize on emotional intelligence, Hawkey (2006) pointed out that:

> *"Emotionality lies at the intersection of the person and society, for all persons are jointed to their societies through the self-feelings and emotions they feel and experience on a daily basis. This is the reason the study of emotionality must occupy a central place in all the human disciplines, for to be human is to be emotional" (P. 139).*

It was the first half of the 20th century that Intelligence Quotient (IQ) elaboration became popular to measure the intelligence. Following Wechsler's (1958) notion, Mandell and Pherwani's (2003) study showed that people connected IQ scores to person potential ability for a successful life. In the early studies Lord, De-Vader, and Alliger (1986) showed that intelligence contributed to the leadership field. To this end scholars have suggested that research moved from IQ as the only component of intelligence to the emotional and social intelligence (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). Salovey and Mayer (1990) described emotional intelligence as the capability to control individual's own and others' feelings and emotions, to distinguish between them and to apply this sequence to direct one's own thoughts and achievement. Bar-On (1997) believes that

emotional intelligence is a better predictor of a successful life. Intelligence in leadership studies was explored by Goleman (1995, 1998); besides, some researchers believed that emotional intelligence affected leadership styles and workplace success (Cooper & Sawaf, (1997); Feldman, (1999); Weisinger, (1998).

Reviewing the literature reveals that over the past years the issue of emotional intelligence as an imperative element of administration has captured a remarkable amount of attention from scholars in particularly leadership and management disciplines. In numerous studies emotional intelligence has been considered a factor of leadership effectiveness (Antonakis, 2003, 2004; Antonakis, Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2009). Antonakis et al. (2009) offered two key questions; the first one is: To advance, does leadership as a science need "emotional intelligence" (EI)? And the second one is: To succeed do leaders need EI? They examined the role of emotion in leadership and how it affects followers. Salovey and Mayer (1990) originally conceptualized emotional intelligence; however, Goleman (1995) made intelligence popular outside academia. Historically, understanding the nature of intelligence and emotion has been difficult. Definitions of intelligence vary and include behaviours associated with information processing, experiential learning, and environmental adaptation, thought and reasoning patterns. Emotions are complex reaction patterns involving behavioural and physiological elements to personally significant events (Barrett & Salovey, 2002). Intelligence and emotions have been investigated as components of mental operations and as physiological and behavioural response patterns within environments.

After gaining attention in academia, studies have started to examine the applicability of EI within organizational contexts especially its influence on leadership effectiveness (George, 2000; Kerr et al., 2006). Research has also examined the role of emotional intelligence in leadership effectiveness in higher education (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003; Boyatzis, Stubbs & Taylor, 2002). Findings indicate that the higher level of

leaders' emotional intelligence impacts their effectiveness in organizations (Cavazotte et al., 2012; Melita Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003; Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Scholars also believe that leaders who possess higher level of emotional perception are able to motivate higher employee outcomes (Vidyarthi, Anand & Liden, 2014). Further, recent investigations have revealed that employee outcomes can be the function of the interrelated influence of leaders' emotional intelligence and their leadership style (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). Scholars believe that followers response to leaders is significant when leaders have higher level of EI (Smollan & Parry, 2011). In addition, findings have shown that leaders displaying higher level of emotional intelligence are more able to drive employee commitment (Bhalerao & Kumar, 2016).

Specifically, research attests the link of leadership with emotional intelligence on employee commitment in higher education sectors (Nordin, 2011). Studies have also demonstrated that the both transactional and transformational leaders with higher comprehension of emotions are able to enhance employee commitment (Harms & Crede, 2010; Sivanathan & Cynthia Fekken, 2002). Scholars also believe that there is a link between developmental character of spiritual leadership and emotional intelligence of leaders (Fry & Wigglesworth, 2013). The influence of emotional intelligence on the relationship between leadership and employee commitment needs further attention especially in higher education context to understand the mechanism of how leaders with higher emotional intelligence are able to impact employee commitment compared with those leaders with lower level of EI. Based on the above discussions, therefore, it is hypothesized that leaders' emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between leadership and employee commitment and the following hypotheses are advanced:

Hypothesis 4a: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment, in which the relationship is stronger for leaders with higher EI.

Hypothesis 4b: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment, in which the relationship is stronger for leaders with higher EI.

Hypothesis 4c: Emotional intelligence moderates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment, in which the relationship is stronger for leaders with higher EI.

According to the above discussions on the leadership, commitment, and emotional intelligence and the advancement of study hypotheses, hypothetical framework is delineated in Figure 2.4 (next page):
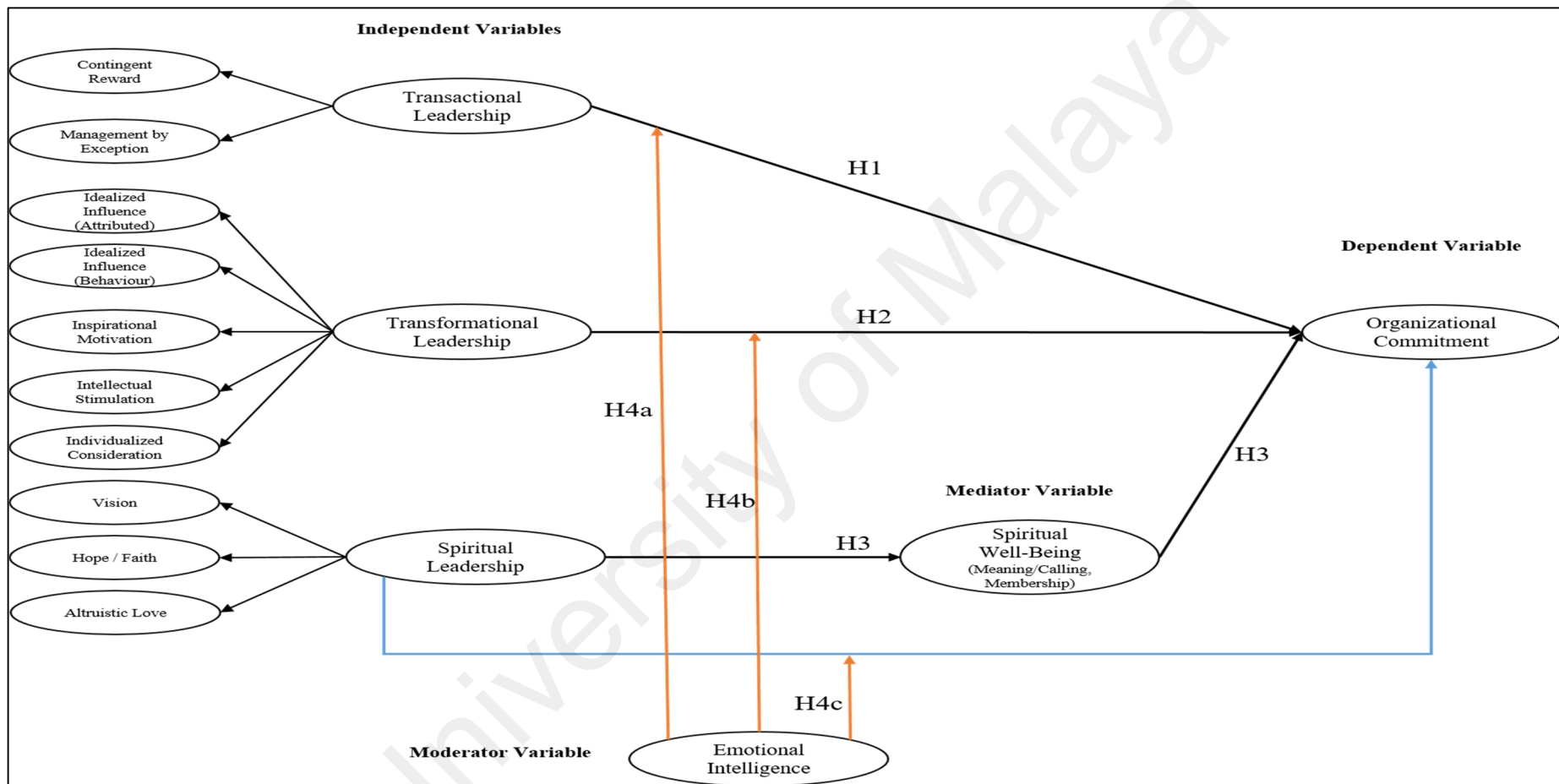
Figure 0.5: Research Hypothetical Framework

2.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter started by discussing the introduction to the literature. The leadership and respective theories of leadership were discussed. In particular the transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership were described. The organizational commitment and emotional intelligence concept were also discussed. This chapter concludes by discussing the integrative view of the literature.

CHAPTER 3: IRANIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

3.1 Education system in Iran

It is not possible to elaborate on the relationship among leaders and employees in Iranian higher educational system without looking back on the history of education in Iran. This part will provide useful and crucial information in order to give a wider view toward education case in Iran.

The Ministry of Higher Education in Iran provided access to the historical official documents and manuscripts about education in Iran. Based on the sources in these official manuscripts, all information is collected during the years by government's representatives. The aim of these representatives were collecting and elaborating the education system in Iran and offering new methods to improving systems. The basis of educational system in Iran through governmental official papers is presented briefly in this chapter.

3.2 Higher Education System in Iran

Higher education in Iran can be traced back to the third century, to Gandishapour University, which was regarded to be the greatest scientific centre for centuries. Under the Sassanid rule, in ancient Iran, education was exclusive the right of the nobility, the royal family, and the clergy. After the advent of Islam, education was no longer the monopoly of the rich; thus, equal educational opportunities for all were highly emphasized. Consequently, some institutes of higher education were established which were called "Madrasa" (school). However, clear information is not available about the structure and administration of these institutes. Higher education institutions varied in type and size, including mosques, libraries, schools, tutorials, house of dervishes, and the like. Rab'a Rashidi University and Nezamieh were among the most famous

academic centers at the time. Rab'a Rashidi was founded in Tabriz by Rashid al- Din Fazl-Allah, the prime minister of Qazan Khan in the eighth century after Islam, with courses and programs, administrative structure, academic exchanges, annual reports, libraries and tutorials assimilated into mainstream current universities.

Centuries later, under the Safavid dynasty, due to increased national solidarity and security, advanced programs were developed. After the decline of the Safavid, national stability and security were threatened again and, consequently, advanced programs could no longer continue. Following the Renaissance and scientific and industrial advancement in the West, modern higher education began in Iran. Amir-Kabir, then Prime Minister, founded Dar al-Fonoun (technical school), in the mid-19th century and sent students to study abroad. He invited foreign lecturers to teach at various technical colleges in Tehran, Tabriz and Oroumieh.

In 1910, the Ministry of Education, Endowments and Fine Arts was established, including several offices for general education, endowments, and research, evaluation and accounting. Subsequently, the Supreme Council for Education in 1921, the Supreme Council for Culture in 1941, Central Council for Universities in 1965, and Central Council for General Education in 1969 were established. The University of Tehran and other universities were established about one century after Dar al-Fonoun. Beginning in 1934, the chancellor of the University of Tehran was appointed by the prime minister at the time for 8 years. The organizational structure of Tehran University was used as a model by other higher education institutions.

In 1942, more autonomy was given to the University of Tehran. Thus, the University Council had the right to appoint the Chancellor and the Deans of Faculties. Universities were given academic, administrative, and financial autonomy. They were required to follow the courses and educational programs approved by the Central Council for Universities. In 1953, Mashad University, Isfahan University, and TU were established.

In 1967, following the so-called "Administrative-Educational Revolution", the responsibility of administering universities were given to boards of trustees, which substituted university councils. Since then, the board of trustees has appointed Chancellors. At the same time, Parliament approved an act for the establishment of the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education (MCHE).

With the establishment of MCHE, all institutions of higher education, public and private, followed the same administrative structure, including board of trustees, Chancellor, the executive board, the administrative board, university council, faculty councils, and departments. Specific councils with particular missions were also organized for higher education policy making. They include: Central Council for Education, the Council for Higher Education Expansion, Council for Medical Studies, Council for Scientific Research, and Central Council of Universities and Higher Education Institutes.

3.3 Higher Education Development after the Islamic Revolution in Iran

After the triumph of the Islamic Revolution, the higher education system underwent essential changes in Iran. Firstly, by the approval of the Revolution Council, two ministries of Science and Higher Education, and Culture and Arts, were merged into a newly established Ministry of Culture and Higher Education. It was hoped that the merger as such could save funds and reduce bureaucracy in order to make essential policies and act decisively to achieve the goals of the Islamic Revolution in the area of culture and higher education. In a decisive action, in March 1979, all boards of trustees were dissolved and the responsibility for administering all universities and higher education institutes was given to a temporary three-member committee that administered all higher education and research institutes for more than ten years. In 1980, in order to make essential educational reforms and to develop an educational system suitable for an Islamic revolutionary society, the Supreme Council for Cultural Revolution (SCCR), was formed by the order of the late Imam Khomeini. Since then,

the SCCR has played a key role in higher education policy making. Universities were closed for three years, resuming their activities in 1983 with newly revised programs and courses. At that period, universities and academics were highly involved in developing a new curriculum as well as publishing up-to-date textbooks in order to meet the needs of the society. At the same time, Jehad Daneshgahi was also established by the SCCR for the dissemination of Islamic culture in universities. Later, Jehad Daneshgahi was separated from universities and has continued its activities as an independent organization. The Academic Publication Center is among other institutes established by the SCCR in order to publish academic textbooks.

In 1985, medical education was delegated to the Ministry of Health, Treatment, and Medical Education (MHTME), and all duties and responsibilities of the MSRT in the area of medical education were transferred to the new ministry for the purpose of efficient use of facilities and hospitals under the MHTME.

In 1988, boards of trustees were organized again at each university by the approval of the SCCR, to administer institutes of higher education. In 1990, the SCCR approved the establishment of the Bureau of Representatives of the Leader of the Islamic Revolution at universities in order to strengthen relationships between students, Islamic scholars and theological schools. This bureau is under the supervision of the Leader of the Islamic Revolution.

Very recently, in order to integrate and co-ordinate science and technology strategies, policies and functions, the Ministry of Culture and Higher Education has been revised into the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (MSRT), to best meet the requirements of the third millennium.

In the last two decades, since all universities and higher education institutes were centered in the capital cities of provinces, geographical expansion of higher education throughout the provinces of the country has been given remarkable attention. Therefore,

76 universities increased universities numbers in different states. Currently, there is no province without a higher education institution. Most of the universities have been founded or developed mainly after the Islamic Revolution. Before the Islamic Revolution, post-graduate studies, particularly at the doctoral level, were offered only in a limited number of disciplines such as Persian Language and Literature, Theology and a few pure sciences. Since the revolution this level of education has been developed and expanded in most disciplines.

3.4 Teacher Training Universities

In the following pages, the history of this university during the years of its activities in Iranian educational system will be explored. When "Darol Fonoon" was established in 1850, and other schools such as Moshiriye, Roshdiye, Adib, Sadat, Islam, Aghdasiye, Elmiye, Kamaliye, Morovvat, Soltani, Sharaf, Danesh and etc. were developed, it was necessary to train some teachers who were familiar with the newest methods of teaching.

The first measure to take was to approve a law by the national parliament in teacher training in 1911. This law included the primary principles of children's teaching and training. The law allowed sending 30 individuals to continue their education abroad. Of these 30 people, half were to study teaching, 8 to study military sciences, and 7 to study engineering. At the same time, there were some classes held in Darolfonoon to train teachers and their curriculum beside sciences, literature, and included "teaching principles" for the first time in order to acquaint teachers with the fundamental principles of children's teaching.

The other important measure was the approval of the law by the national parliament in 1918 to establish "Central Teaching House" (Darol Moalemin) for the purpose of training and accommodating elementary and high school teachers in 1918. Since then, male and female teacher training centres became legal. Central Teaching House was a

public school and it was free and the Ministry of Education whose dean was selected by the Minister managed it. This House was responsible to provide teachers for elementary and high schools so that it was divided into two sections; elementary (to provide teachers for four years of elementary school) and higher education (to provide teachers for the 5th and 6th years of elementary schools and high schools). Elementary school was three years (two years theoretical and one year practical), and higher education lasted four years (three years theoretical and one year practical). The candidates had to have the certificate of their six years of elementary school and they had to be between 17 and 21 and higher education candidates had to be between 18 and 22 years old.

The graduates were granted a "teaching certificate" for their job in either elementary or high school and they were supposed to work at the Education Ministry for 10 years. The first teacher-training center called "Central Teaching House" (DarolMoalemin) was chaired by Abol Hassan Forooghi and the vice was Ismael Mera't. Since there was a tendency for female teachers, a teacher training centre for women, named "Female Teachers' House" (Darol Moalemat) was founded by Ms. Neshat AlSaltane-the daughter of Safi Ali Shah.

In order to develop high schools and provide more teachers, the "Central Teaching House" changed to "Higher Teaching House" (DarolMoalemin Ali) in 1928 and the high school teacher-training curriculum was established, and the plan of this Higher Teaching House was approved by Higher Education Ministry in 1308. This House included two sections; science and literature. The literature composed of philosophy, literature, history and geography, and science section covered the fields of physics, chemistry, nature and mathematics. The academic duration of this course was three years and high school certificate holders of literature and science could study science or literature in this House. As the memo stated, teaching educational lessons started in

October in 1932 in the Higher Teaching House, and students in this center had to study educational courses along with their own studies.

3.5 Teacher Training Universities: After Iran revolution (1979)

There were important decisions made immediately after the victory of the Islamic revolution regarding changes in the system of education and teacher training. It was in 1980 that the new memo of teacher training centres was drafted and Rajaee who was the education and Training minister in the absence of the Education and Training Higher counsel confirmed it. This memo indicated that all old teacher training centres such as pre-universities, education counselling, and kindergarten training centres, village and tribal teacher training centres were closed down. It meant that these centres didn't absorb any new applicants and their current applicants continued their studies.

The courses offered at teacher training centres included:

1. Elementary school education,
2. Mathematics,
3. Natural science,
4. Humanities, religion and Arabic,
5. Foreign language,
6. Physical training,
7. Technical school,
8. Arts,
9. Special students

The graduates were awarded an Association's degree. The first entrance exam for these centres happened in 1980 and there were around 7000 applicants admitted to these 10 courses and they started their studies in these centres.

Due to some problems at the beginning of the revolution, student admission was stopped in 1981 and it was at the same time that teacher training office made

tremendous changes in planning and administering these centres. The new form of these canters accepted 19204 students in 42 centres in 1981 through an entrance exam. This period is known as "the period of Bahonar and Rajaee". These canters were opened in January 1981 with the order of Imam Khomeini and students0020started their education. The new form increased the course to 12 ones which included 1-elemnatry school education, 2-Farsi literature, 3-Social sciences, 4-Mathematics, 5-Natural sciences, 6-English language, 7-Traning and educating affairs, 8-Religon and Arabic, 9-Arts, 10-Physical training, 11-Technical training, and 12-Special students (in four parts; blind, deaf, retarded and incompatible).

The new form increased the duration from two to three years in that the first year covered theoretical studies in the learning centre, the second year included practical teaching (full time on contract) in the school of their area, and the third year was to study in their teacher training centre, but due to some administrative problems, and the need of Education and Training ministry to these teachers, the third year practice didn't happen so that these two semesters were held in two summers and after that training in these teacher training canters lasted for only two years.

The Education and Training Higher counsel in September approved the memo of teacher training canters in 1983. The purpose of this memo was to provide and train teachers needed for the Education and Training ministry for the grades of pre-elementary schools, elementary schools and junior high schools. These centers were boarding and they happened in two years and diploma holders if aged 17-22 and passing the entrance exam could be admitted to these canters. The graduates were awarded an Association's degree.

The entrance exam of teaching training canters was mixed with the countrywide higher education entrance exams in 1990 and the regulations of Science ministry planning counsel were implemented. Association degree had 72 credits which included 15 credits

in general studies, 19 in training, and the rest related to their specific course. Science ministry planning counsel from 1993 to 1997 gradually approved the curricula of different courses. The new titles for teaching training canters include 1-elemntary school education and training, 2-Farsi literature learning, 3-training affairs, 4-physical training and sports, 5-religoin and Arabic language teaching, 6-technical teaching, 7-English language studies, 8-Social studies, 9-naturalk science studies, 10-mathematics, 11-Arts, 12-special students teaching. Since the approval of the teaching training canters by the university development counsel starting gradually in 1371, it speeded up in 1999 and 2000 and it was until 2002 that the university development counsel confirmed all teacher-training canters.

Since the need to elementary and junior high school was increasing, two and four year teaching training canters were developing annually and the climax of this increase was in the academic year of 1993-94 in which 555 teaching training centre were in practice with almost one hundred thousand students teachers.

Since then, due to the decrease in the number of students and changes in employment policy, the admission process decreased as well and it was in 1995 that teaching training canters did not accept any other applicants. These canters were shut down practically in 137 after finishing the education of student teachers and the number of applicant acceptance lowered to 5000 individuals annually.

The Research, technology and Science ministry approved the new memo for the teacher training canters in March in 2001 and the education and Training ministry was announced in July in 2003. Based on this memo, the purposes of teaching training canters were as providing and training forces needed for the Ministry of Education, and paving the path for teachers' continuing education and it was their responsibility to hold some short-term classes for teachers. There are currently 114 teacher training

universities across the country in which many different courses are taught to those who become teachers in Iranian schools.

When reviewing the studies covered leadership, commitment, and emotional intelligence discipline in Iran, one might infers that not much has been said and discussed so far. Allemeh and Davoodi (2011) studied transformational leadership in social security organizations in Tehran. They aimed to "determine the amount of transformational leadership characteristics in managers, and the relationship between transformational leadership characteristics with leader effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort of employees". They concluded, "the leadership of managers in these organizations in Tehran is compatible with transformational leadership style, and the direct and meaningful relationship exists among characteristics of transformational leadership style and organizational results".

Shahtalebi, Yarmohammadian, and Ajami (2011), by studying "women's success factors from leadership in higher education", showed that "women in higher education could promote leadership and management skills and stabilize their positions as a successful manager. Shagholi, Zabihi, Atefi, & Moayedi (2011) studied the consequences of organizational commitment in education. They conducted their research in the state of Mashhad that is one of the biggest states in Iran. They tried to determine the extent of organizational commitment among "school teachers" as their primary objective. They suggested that the extent of organizational commitment should be applied in order to develop "healthy culture in schools to achieve educational goals". Other such as Karimi (2008), Dehghan (2004), and Hashemi (2004) studied commitment in whether teacher training universities or higher education among lecturers, employees, or teachers. None of the studies, which conducted in Iran, has investigated the model that proposed in this thesis.

This thesis is going to investigate the relationship between leadership styles (as transactional, transformational, and spiritual) and organizational commitment, while examining the moderating role of leaders' emotional intelligence in this relationship. Based on the current problem, which revealed earlier, this study is going to suggest ideas and solutions in order to solve the existing problem in teacher training universities in Iran. No study so far has incorporated and examined all leadership, commitment, and emotional intelligence in one model, which makes this study to be among the first to unveil these relationships.

3.6 Chapter Summary

This chapter mostly discussed the education system and in particular the higher education systems in Iran. The development of the higher education after the 1979 revolution was described. The chapter concludes by offering the history, background, and evolution of Teacher Training Universities in Ian and after the Islamic revolution.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter starts by describing the research design and measurements development. The measurement and questionnaire development processes are outlined. The measurement purification and data analysis procedure are also described. The chapter concludes with a discussion of ethical and confidentiality issues for the proposed research.

4.2 Research Design

Research design is the fundamental framework that specifies data collection procedures (Creswell, 2013), and the steps in gathering information required to solve the problems identified through research (Hair, Lukas, Miller & Bush, 2012). Hair et al. (2012) categorized research design into exploratory, descriptive, and causal approaches. This research use descriptive approach to improve the extent and strength of the research. Causal research will not be used in this study, as the researcher only aims to describe the relationships between variables, and not examine the extent to which one variable is causally associated with others. In the following sections the descriptive research design will be discussed.

4.3 Descriptive Research Design

The descriptive research design aims to describe a phenomenon at a certain point through the measurement of behaviours, opinions, and attitudes (McNabb, 2004). It assists researchers in measuring how and to what extent the proposed variables in a study are related (Aaker, Kumar, Leon & Day, 2013). The descriptive research design is often used when there is prior knowledge of the proposed variables. Descriptive research is used here as this study aims to determine the extent to which the variables

are related and to examine the hypotheses identified in the literature (Malhotra, 2009). Hair et al. (2012) categorized descriptive research design into cross-sectional and longitudinal. This study uses cross-sectional design. Cross-sectional research provides a picture of a phenomenon or collects the required data at a certain point in time, whereas longitudinal research involves obtaining information at different points in time to observe any changes in variables over a specified time period. Cross-sectional descriptive design will be used as the proposed research aims to test the relationships between variables for only a fixed period of time. According to Malhotra (2009), descriptive research is also cost-effective and widely used.

4.4 Research Approach

As mentioned, this research is using a quantitative approach. Adopting a quantitative approach enables a researcher to generalize what is learned and understood to a larger population (Malhotra, 2009). The following sections explain in detail the quantitative approach that will be applied in this study.

4.5 Quantitative Research

The purpose of adopting a quantitative approach parallel to a qualitative approach is the ability of a quantitative approach to generalize what is learned and understood to a larger population. A quantitative study tends to use numbers and statistical measurements of a phenomenon and extracts particular paradigms to seek general descriptions or to test causal relationships (King, Keohane & Verba, 1994). There are two major approaches to conduct quantitative research: 1) asking questions about the variables, and 2) observing the variables. The proposed research adapts the first approach that is known as survey technique, which is defined as "… a structured questionnaire given to a sample of a population and designed to elicit specific information from respondents" (Malhotra, 2009; p. 213). Survey technique is the most appropriate method to conduct descriptive research. Thus, applying survey technique by

using self-administered questionnaire is warranted given the descriptive and quantitative nature of the proposed research.

4.5.1 Self-Administered Questionnaire

The procedure of collecting the necessary data to conduct the quantitative analysis will involve questionnaire data. The quantitative approach in this research aims to understand the perception of leadership, commitment and emotional intelligence and to provide more generalizable findings. Thus, to achieve this goal, questionnaires are considered appropriate tools for this study. This study designs a structured questionnaire to elicit the specific information from participants (Malhotra, 2009). This study, then, uses a self-administered questionnaire since the purpose of the study is known to the researcher and will be further clarified for the potential respondents (Malhotra, 2009).

4.5.2 Data Collection Procedure

The structured questionnaire was distributed in-person to the employees in Teacher Training Universities in the capital city of Iran, Tehran, and those cities near the capital (e.g. Karaj, Qazvin) following the convenient sampling technique, since the online procedure was not considered appropriate for this population and the email address for many employees were unknown. It is more accurate and reliable responses can be achieved. As opposed to telephone and mail surveys that are time consuming, expensive, and associated with a lower response rate (van Hamersveld, 2007), employing in-person questionnaire distribution can extensively reduce time and cost, and increase the response rate. Thus, this research applies in-person data collection technique to collect the data.

4.5.3   Unit of Analysis

Unit of analysis is an important factor in a research sample where data is being collected. Thus, it is essential to identify unit of analysis prior to data collection, and to avoid succeeding errors during data gathering, particularly in the early stages of the study (Zikmund & Babin, 2009). Unit of analysis refers to the "thing" that is being studied and denotes an entity (Yurdusev, 1993). The elements under study include employees and leaders in Teacher Training Universities in Iran. This study applies the key informant technique.

4.5.4   Sampling Design

Sampling design involves elaborating the procedure by which the required samples are attained (Malhotra, 2009). Sampling frame, sampling technique, and sampling size are among the components included in sampling design (Aaker et al., 2013).

4.5.4.1 Sampling Frame

This section determines the sampling frame that represents the elements of the target population from which the sample is chosen (Parasuraman et al., 2006). In this study, sampling frame includes Teacher Training Universities in Iran. Upon establishing the sampling frame, samples of key informants such as employees and leaders are selected, because this study investigates the relationships between leadership, commitment, and leaders' emotional intelligence. The next sections will discuss the sampling method used in this study.

4.5.4.2 Sampling Technique

The main sampling methods are categorized into probability and non-probability techniques. In this research, probability sampling method is used to select the

respondents through simple random sampling. The probability sampling assumes that every element has a known and non-zero probability of being selected, which eliminates the bias in non-probability sampling (Zikmund & Babin, 2009). Probability sampling is used in this study due to the inherent objectivity in its procedure (Parasuraman et al., 2006). Therefore, the researcher does not have any influence in determining any specific population as part of the sample.

4.5.4.3 Sampling Size

The total number of employees in Teacher Training Universities are estimated around 2000. This background helps specify the target population. Determining an appropriate and adequate sample size is a crucial task in quantitative research. Appropriate sample size can lead to the production of more information with greater stability. It also provides the basis for error estimation (Hair et al., 2012). This research follows the principle suggested by Hair et al. (2012) in which one includes 10 times as many samples as the number of variables. This is also referred to as the 1:10 ratio. The proposed study includes 17 variables, and thus suggests the least sample size of 170.

Number of variables=17*10

Expected sample size=170

However, Hair et al. (2012) suggest including a sample size of at least 200 when there are only a small number of variables available in a study. Further based on what Bartlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001) suggested, to determine the drawn sample size required to produce the minimum sample size based on research in similar filed, the number of sample size was calculated to be approximately 400. As expecting 100% response rate in quantitative research method is unlikely, 400 sample size was chosen to compensate for the response rate as well as incomplete and inconsistent participation, so as reach the above minimum sample (170) require to test the hypotheses. Therefore, 400 questionnaires were distributed among employees of the selected TTU and their

respective leaders. The next section discusses the measures used in the research to assess each construct.

4.6 Instruments and Measurements

In this section, relevant discussions are provided to determine the appropriate measure for each construct that described in the previous chapter. The measurements discussed here are borrowed from prior literature on brand equity and will be modified and extended for the purpose of the current research context.

4.6.1 Dependent Variables

This research includes organizational commitment as the dependent variable, which is proposed to be influenced by the three leadership styles: transactional, transformational, and spiritual, which influences commitment through spiritual well-being (meaning/calling and membership) as proposed.

4.6.1.1 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire:

This study uses organizational commitment questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, et al. (1979). They developed 15-item questionnaire that measures organizational commitment. They administered the questionnaire to 2563 employees working in a wide variety of jobs in nine different work organizations when developing the items. The reliability of this questionnaire tested to be high (0.82 to 0.93), and it was administered in jobs ranging from public employees to psychiatric technicians when developed. This questionnaire has been widely used to gauge organizational commitment of employees in different studies and settings.

4.6.2 Independent Variable

This study includes three independent variables including transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership, which also includes two mediating variables as meaning/calling, and membership.

4.6.2.1 Transactional and Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

In order to examine the transactional and transformational leadership styles, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Known as MLQ), designed and developed by Bass and Avolio (1990) and distributed by "Mind Garden Inc.", is used to measure transactional and transformational leadership characteristics. The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. Summing the items and dividing it by the number of items that make up the scale can derive the score.

The license to reproduce the MLQ was purchased from "Mind Garden Inc.", which is responsible to sell and distribute the MLQ in order to be utilized in this study. Transactional leadership includes two constructs as contingent rewards (CR) and management by exception active (MBEA); and transformational leadership includes 5 constructs as idealized influence attributed (IA), idealized influence behaviour (IB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). Each one of the above constructs in both the transactional and the transformational leadership has 4 questions. They are average scores for the item meaning that 4 questions are added together and divided by four to make up the score for one construct. There is a wide stream of research that has used MLQ to gauge transactional and transformational leadership style when examining their influence on organizational commitment and/or when emotional intelligence is incorporated into the research framework (e.g. Geijsel, Sleegers, Leithwood & Jantzi, 2003; Lee, 2005). All

these studies have shown appropriate and acceptable reliability and validity for MLQ to be used in organizational and social science research.

4.6.2.2 Spiritual Leadership Questionnaire

Spiritual leadership is relatively a new style of leadership. Based on what was discussed earlier in literature review regarding this leadership style, the instrument that is used to measure this concept is what Fry (2005) developed. Thus, the 26-item questionnaire is used in this study. This instrument has been tested to have high reliability. The instrument was also applied by other scholars to measure spiritual leadership. Spiritual leadership, based on Fry (2005), is categorized to have three dimensions as "vision", "hope/faith", and "altruistic love", all of which were discussed in the literature review.

The first 5 items belong to vision component, the second 5 items belong to hope/faith component, and the last 7 items belong to altruistic love component of spiritual leadership. The second section, spiritual well-being, includes two constructs as meaning/calling (4 items), and membership (5 items) that, as Fry et al. (2005, 2011) discussed and empirically supported, both mediate the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational outcomes such as organizational commitment. Spiritual Leadership Questionnaire (SLQ) has also been used in a vast array of research investigating the role of spiritual leadership in enhancing the organizational commitment in both organizational and social science contexts, while it has proved to be a reliable and valid measurement instrument to gauge spiritual leadership (e.g. Chen & Li, 2013; Chen et al., 2012; Markow & Klenke, 2005).

4.6.3   Moderating Variable

One of the instruments that has been used since the conception of Emotional Intelligence is "Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (SEIS)", developed by Schutte, et al. (1998) based on the original model proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). They

identified four-factor solution for the 33 items as: "perception of emotions", "managing emotions in the self", "social skills or managing others' emotions", and "utilizing emotions". Table 4.1 shows how items in SEIS are categorized based on the four-factor solution (Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar, 2001).

Table 0.3: Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale

SEIS factors	Items included
Perception of emotions	5*, 9,15,18,19,22,25,29,32,33*
Managing own emotions	2,3,10,12,14,21,23,28*, 31
Managing others' emotion	1,4,11,13,16,24,26,30
Utilization of emotions	6,7,8,17,20,27

*Items marked with asterisk are to be reverse coded"

Schutte, et al. (1998) found the internal consistency of the instrument they developed, as measured by Cronbach α, to be 0.90. Other studies have used this instrument found high reliability such as Saklofske, Austin, Galloway, & Davidson (2007) to be 0.90, Newcombe & Ashkanasy (2002) to be 0.88.

4.7 Questionnaire Development

As mentioned, a self-administered questionnaire is used in this study to empirically test the constructs within the conceptual framework. This section covers the discussions relevant to the questionnaire format, structure, and scaling used.

4.7.1 Questionnaire Format and Structure

The procedure for designing a questionnaire should be scientific – that is, based on established rules of objectivity, logic, and systematic method (Hair et al., 2012). The questionnaire includes several components such as words, questions, and format that should be integrated into a recognizable and hierarchical system. The questionnaire design should allow for clear communication and scheme a set of questions into a

systematic instrument. The measurement instruments are based on structured questions, which are close-ended questions requiring participants to choose a response from a predetermined set of scales (Hair et al., 2012). The questionnaire starts with the screening questions, followed by items enquiring about the constructs included in this study. The final section asks respondents for general demographic information.

4.7.2 Scaling

There are different types of scales (such as nominal, ordinal, ratio, and interval) when administering the questionnaire (Aaker et al., 2013). Interval scales are used in this research due to their ability to arrange the objects in a specified order. Their ability to measure the distance between the differences in response ratings is another advantage of using interval scales (Burns & Bush, 2006). Likert Scale format is used in this study. The five-point Likert scale is designed with 1 designating strongly disagree and 5 designating strongly agree. The Likert Scale is appropriate in management and organizational research as participants can respond to attitudinal questions to different extents.

4.7.3 Pretesting

A pilot study is conducted on a small sample to encourage participants to provide their comments regarding the questionnaire format, layout, structure, and coherence (Malhotra, 2009). The preliminary analysis allowed the researcher to identify if the timing of the survey is appropriate (in order to increase the chance of participation), and to find out if the scales capture accurate responses. In this study the questionnaire were pre-tested amongst 30 respondents as suggested by Malhotra (2009).

4.8 Measurement Purification Procedure

The following sections provide discussions on how the measurements adopted from prior literature are refined and purified. More specifically, the procedures to perform

reliability and validity analysis of the measurements are outlined in detail to determine their consistency and accuracy in what they claim to measure. Reliability and validity analysis help minimise systematic and random errors, which can significantly affect measurement scales (Hair et al., 2012; Malhotra, 2009).

4.8.1 Reliability

Testing measurement scales for reliability is one of the key tasks prior to analysing the data to examine the proposed relationships. Various processes have been developed to assess the reliability of instruments, among which are test-retest and internal consistency (Hair & Anderson, 2010). Test-retest reliability aims to administer a measure on a selected sample and then repeat the procedure at some specific interval (Wu & Little, 2011). Internal consistency reliability, on the other hand, assesses the extent to which different items probing the same construct would produce similar results. As this research adopts measurements developed in prior literature, applying the internal consistency approach is deemed to be the more appropriate approach. Moreover, the context of this study does not allow for the application of other types of reliability tests such as test-retest, since it is deemed to be time consuming and costly to collect data at different points in time. Additionally, when several items are summated to form a total score for a construct, internal consistency reliability is used to assess the reliability of a scale (Hair et al., 2012)

Split-half and coefficient alpha reliability are two measures of internal consistency (Hair et al., 2012). Split-half reliability involves randomly dividing the items into halves and then correlating the resulting halves against one another. High correlations indicate acceptable reliability status (Hair et al., 2012). However, the way the groups are split in split-half reliability may affect the correlation between the halves. To overcome this problem, coefficient alpha is recommended when there are several items measuring a construct (Malhotra, 2009). Since this study will use multi-item scales, coefficient alpha

(or what is often referred to as Cronbach's Alpha) should be appropriate (Hair et al., 2012). A value less than 0.7 would indicate poor or unsatisfactory reliability (Hair et al., 2012; Nunnally, 1978). Testing data for reliability is necessary, but a reliable scale is not necessarily valid. Therefore, separate validity analysis must be performed on the constructs being measured.

4.8.2 Validity

According to Malhotra (2009), validity is defined as "the extent to which differences in observed scale scores reflect true differences in what is being measured, rather than systematic or random error" (p. 316). No measurement error indicates perfect validity. Validity can be assessed through different processes, such as content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity (Malhotra, 2009).

4.8.2.1 Content/Face Validity

Content or face validity refers to the subjective but systematic assessment of how well a scale measures the variable or construct of interest (Hair et al., 2012; Malhotra, 2009). According to D. Cooper and Schindler (2010), content validity can be achieved by using a panel of experts' judgments of how well the instrument reflects the variables and constructs that intends to measure. The experts used in this research include academics, and practitioners with extensive experience. Using variables from prior research also enhance the content validity (Churchill, Brown & Suter, 2009). However, the content validity alone is not an adequate assessment to establish scale validity, and more formal validity assessments such as criterion and construct validity must be supplemented (Hair et al., 2012; Malhotra, 2009).

4.8.2.2 Criterion Validity

Criterion validity identifies the ability of a scale to perform as expected given other variables considered relevant to the construct (Malhotra, 2009). The related meaningful

variables are called criterion variables (Hair et al., 2012). Criterion validity is useful when a researcher intends to assess the usefulness of the scale as a predictor of some other variables (Churchill, 1991). Criterion validity is established when the correlation between the measure and criterion is high (i.e., a high correlation indicates good validity). This research applies the same criterion to determine the criterion validity.

4.8.2.3 Construct Validity

Construct validity measures the extent to which the constructs are hypothetically related to one another based on the theories in the study (Malhotra, 2009). It addresses the question of what the construct is really measuring (Malhotra, 2009; Churchill, 1991). Construct validity can be achieved by checking for both convergent and discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2012).

- **Convergent Validity**

Convergent validity refers to the degree to which the scale correlates positively with other measures of the same construct (Malhotra, 2009). To assess convergent validity in this study, correlations among different inter-item scales that measure the same construct will be examined using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and SEM. Convergent validity is established if there is a significant correlation. Factor analysis should also be conducted to measure the concept's dimensions and to identify the representing items for each dimension. Thus, CFA is used in this study to assess convergent validity. Values equal to or greater than 0.5 for the standard factor loadings will indicate sufficient convergent validity (Hair et al., 2012).

- **Discriminant Validity**

Discriminant validity is the degree to which the measures are not correlated with other constructs from which they are supposed to differ (Malhotra, 2009; Hair et al., 2012).

When independent variables are not highly correlated, discriminant validity is achieved. CFA is used in this study to examine discriminant validity through the examination of the correlation matrix and the inter-construct correlation of the measurement items. To establish discriminant validity, standardized loading estimates equal to or greater than 0.5 should be achieved, and where possible 0.7 or higher (Hair & Anderson, 2010). In addition, Variance Extracted (VE) of 0.5 or higher indicates convergent validity, and VE estimates for two factors should be greater than the square of the correlation between the two factors to indicate discriminant validity (Claes Fornell & David F. Larcker, 1981). Lastly, reliability of 0.7 or above should be achieved to warrant convergent and internal consistency (Hair & Anderson, 2010).

4.8.3 *Factor Analysis*

Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique aimed at summarizing the information contained in a large number of variables into a smaller number of factors. Aaker et al. (2013) indicate that factor analysis is used by researchers for two principal reasons: First, to identify the underlying constructs in the data acquired; and second, to reduce the number of variables to more manageable factors. This research applies factor analysis since multi-item scales are used to measure the constructs. More specifically, it identifies and confirms the underlying constructs and determines whether the items in a scale load strongly. Thus, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is conducted.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is a powerful statistical method for identifying the underlying constructs in a study and determining if the variables load strongly on a given construct. It determines how much variance in the original factor can be explained by the representing factor (Aaker et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2012). This study adopts EFA to analyse and confirm whether the variables explain the variance in a construct and if they should be reduced to a smaller number of variables. A statistical package for social science (SPSS) is used to perform EFA in this research. Components matrix, factor

loadings, and eigenvalues are among the outputs in EFA for the purpose of the proposed study. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) will also be performed in the proposed study to establish the judgement of the structural relationships and assess uni-dimensionality and construct validity. It assesses whether the data support the hypothesized factors. Analysis of moment structure (AMOS) software is used in this research to conduct CFA.

4.8.4 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

The next stage of data analysis involves multivariate analysis applying Structural Equation Modelling (SEM). SEM is one of the most commonly used multivariate analysis techniques seeking to explain the relationships among multiple variables and provide a series of equations (Hair, 2010). Regression analysis is used to identify the existence and the strength of the relationship (Malhotra, 2009). Multiple regression analysis involves developing equations in which the dependant variable predicts the independent variable(s) (Coakes, 2012). It also explains the strength of the relationships between predictor variable(s) and outcome variable(s) (Hair & Anderson, 2010). Multiple Regression is used in this research analysis using SEM. Prior to conducting regression analysis, multicollinearity, normality, and linearity are tested to refute any violation. Adjusted R^2 is assessed to determine the percentage of variance in outcome variables explained by independent variable (Hair & Anderson, 2010). Moreover, the p-value is examined to indicate the overall significance of the proposed framework. The goodness of fit indices (GFI, AGFI, NFI, CFI, SRMR, and RAMSEA) are also determined to establish the fitness of the proposed model based on the criteria explained in Table 4.2.

Table 0.4: Indices for Measuring Goodness-of-Fit

Criteria	Acceptable Fit
Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI)	>0.90
Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI)	>0.90
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	>0.95
Non Normed Fit Index (NNFI)	>0.90
Probability of Chi Square (x^2)	p>0.05
Normed Chi-Square (x^2/df)	Between 1 and 2
Composite Reliability	>0.70
Variance Extracted	>0.50
t-test for Convergent Validity	t >1.96
Root Mean Square Error for Approximation (RMSEA)	*<0.08*
Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR)	*<0.08*

Source: Adopted from Hair et al. (2010)

4.8.5 Response Error

Response error refers to the respondents' tendency to answer a question in a special and distinctive systematic way that might mislead their true thoughts (Hair, et al., 2012). Ambiguous and confusing questions can lead to respondents providing incorrect answers. To avoid this error in the study at hand, the questionnaire is pre-tested through the pilot study to ensure that the questions are understandable and consistent.

4.9 Data Analysis Procedure

Data analysis includes reducing the gathered data into a manageable size, developing summaries, looking for patterns, and lastly applying statistical techniques. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010), data analysis includes three main objectives: getting a feel for the data, testing the goodness of the data, and finally testing the proposed hypotheses in a study. Subsequently, data analysis in the study at hand involves editing, coding and processing of responses, and choosing the suitable strategy in analysing the data. Both SPSS version 19 and AMOS version 19 will be used in data analysis of this study. Prior to testing the hypotheses, skewness, linearity, and outliers will be checked. In the next sections the data analysis strategy in this study is discussed.

4.9.1 Questionnaire Checking

The questionnaires should be checked for completeness and quality of responses in the early stages of questionnaire checking (Malhotra, 2009). The researcher disregarded any questionnaire with incomplete part(s), or anytime the questionnaire is answered by someone who is not included in the sampling frame. Responses with insignificant variance (e.g., check only three on a five-point Likert Scale) were also excluded. In addition, questionnaires with missing page(s) were not accepted (Malhotra, 2009).

4.9.2 Editing Data

Editing data ensures meeting some minimum quality standards and involves inspecting the returned questionnaires and doing corrections where necessary (Churchill et al., 2009). There are two stages in data editing, namely filed and central-office edit. Filed edit refers to a preliminary edit done by survey field supervisors, whereas central-office or eyeball editing refers to thorough physical inspection of each questionnaire and correcting any mistakes, which is done after receiving the questionnaires. This study conducts only eyeball editing since field editing is not possible given the use of a self-administered questionnaire.

4.9.3 Data Coding

The next step is coding the responses and transforming the raw data into symbols, which includes identifying, classifying, and assigning numeric or character symbols to data (Churchill et al., 2009). Data can be pre-coded or post-coded. This study used pre-coding before data entry as closed questions are used and their codes are simple to establish (Churchill et al., 2009). Missing data codes were also used in this study using standard codes (Malhotra, 2009). Missing data can result from a respondent refusing to answer one question or have left out the question by mistake (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009).

4.9.4 Data Cleaning, Entering, and Processing

Data should be examined to ensure that they have been correctly entered. This involves extensive assessment of the responses to establish consistency, and dealing with missing responses (Malhotra, 2009). Consistency checking ensures that the data do not lie out of range. Missing responses are an unknown value that should be properly dealt with. One way is to fill the value with neutral values by calculating the mean value of all variables, or through casewise or pairwise deletion (Malhotra, 2009). Controlling for missing responses and discarding them is part of casewise deletion, whereas pairwise deletion involves using responses with complete information (Malhotra, 2009). Hair et al. (2012) suggest using pairwise deletion when the amount of missing data is less than 10 percent and sample size is 250 or higher. To achieve this, the SPSS are used to identify extreme values and missing and inconsistent data. Errors are likely to occur when entering the data in to a data file to avoid which double entry of data are used. Double entry of data involves the entering data separately by two different individuals into two different data files (Churchill et al., 2009).

4.9.5 Proposed Analysis

In the final step of the research design, the proper statistical techniques that are used in this study are discussed. Research problems, objectives, and characteristics of data should be considered when choosing an analysis strategy (Malhotra, 2009). SPSS 19 and AMOS 19 are used in this research to conduct the following analyses:

- Descriptive and inferential analysis
- Testing the regression and moderation analysis through AMOS (SEM)

4.9.5.1 Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis involves transforming the collected data from numerical forms into meaningful information that is easy to understand (Sekaran & Bougie, 2010).

Furthermore, descriptive analysis is used to provide summaries and descriptions of the central characteristics of measurement items (Mendenhall, Beaver & Beaver, 2013). The description includes identifying sample demographics, means, variance, standard deviation, and frequencies in this research (Parasuraman, Grewal & Krishnan, 2006).

4.9.5.2 AMOS

Maximum Likelihood model in AMOS is used to test the hypothesized relationship in this research. It is one of the software to conduct Structural Equation Modelling in social science. It has the ability to run multiple regression tests concurrently. SEM analysis using AMOS includes the regression weights, t-values, *p*-values, and R-Square.

4.10   Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the methodology of the research. The development of the research framework was discussed as well as the instrumentation and the measurements. Sampling method and data collection procedure were explained. This chapter concludes by developing the hypotheses of the research.

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and explains the data analysis and hypotheses testing. In the first part, the descriptive statistics is presented based on the demographic background of both employees and their leaders. Following table (Table 5.1) presents the demographic background on both employees and their leaders.

Table 0.5 Participants' Profile

Employees			Leaders		
Variable	Frequency	% of total	Variable	Frequency	% of total
Gender			*Gender*		
Male	188	66.7	Male	41	72.0
Female	94	33.3	Female	16	28.0
Age			*Age*		
20-30	17	6.0	20-30	3	5.0
31-40	68	24.1	31-40	14	25.0
41-50	109	38.7	41-50	21	36.8
51-60	64	22.7	51-60	15	26.2
> 60	24	8.5	> 60	4	7.0
Education			*Education*		
Vocational College	28	9.9	Master	21	36.8
Bachelor	194	68.8	PhD	36	63.2
Master	49	17.4	*Experience*		
PhD	11	3.9	1-10 years	11	19.3
Experience			11-20 years	18	31.6
1-10 years	29	10.3	21-30 years	20	35.1
11-20 years	159	56.4	> 30 years	8	14.0
21-30 years	78	27.7			
> 30 years	16	5.7			

Of the 400 questionnaire distributed among employees from the selected TTU, 282 usable responses from these employees were included in the analysis and hypotheses testing. Of the 20 TTU visited, 80 leaders (Presidents and their deputies in each TTU) were requested to take part in the survey and respond to the 33-item Emotional Intelligence questionnaire, of which 57 usable responses were included. If no response

were received from leaders from a given TTU, the response from employees were disregarded and vice-versa.

In the next part, the reliability and validity analyses are discussed and the results are elaborated. In the reliability part, the Cronbach's Alpha that has been used to clarify the accuracy of the instruments used to measure the variables included in this study is discussed and the results are presented. In the validity part, which is used to show the appropriateness of the instrument to measure the variables, both Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using SPSS v.18, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using AMOS v.18 in Structural Equation Modelling are discussed and the results are presented. In the last part, the hypotheses developed for this study are tested using AMOS v.18 in SEM and the results are discussed later.

5.2 Reliability and Validity

5.2.1 Back Translation

The instruments utilized in this study are the 24-item questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1990) to measure transactional and transformational leadership, the 26-item questionnaire developed by Fry et al. (2005) to measure spiritual leadership and spiritual well-being, the 15-item questionnaire developed by Mowday et al. (1979) to measure organizational commitment, and a 33-item questionnaire developed by Schutte at al. (1998) to measure emotional intelligence. The back translation procedure suggested by Mullen (1995) in order to maximize translation equivalence was applied in this study. Those items included in these four sets of questionnaires were translated into Farsi (the language spoken in Iran) by a professor in organizational behaviour and an English language professor. Then, a language expert translated the Farsi version back to English. Two PhD students in English language were requested to compare the

two English versions of the questionnaires to establish the agreement. They found that there was more than 70 per cent similarity between the two English versions.

5.2.2 Reliability Analysis

In order to execute the reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha was performed and results are shown in the Table 5.2. All reliabilities are in satisfactory level.

Table 0.6 Reliability Analysis

Variables and constructs	Number of items	N	α
Transactional Leadership	2	282	.71
Transformational Leadership	5	282	.91
Spiritual Leadership	17	282	.94
Meaning/Calling	4	282	.92
Membership	5	282	.95
Organizational Commitment	15	282	.96
Emotional Intelligence	33	282	.94

5.3 Validity Analysis

Validity analysis in this dissertation consists of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), which is performed using SPSS, and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), which is performed using AMOS.

The following sections, therefore, go through the validity analysis for all the constructs included in this study.

5.3.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Factor analysis is a technique that is mainly suitable for exploring the patterns of complex, multidimensional relationships encountered by researchers. Factor analysis can be utilized to examine the underlying patterns or relationships for a large number of variables, and determine whether the information can be condensed or summarized into a smaller set of factors or components. An important tool in interpreting factors is factor rotation. The term rotation means exactly what it implies. Specifically, the reference

axes of the factors are turned about the origin until some other position has been reached. The un-rotated factor solutions extract factors in the order of their importance. The first factor tends to be a general factor, with almost every variable loading significantly, and it accounts for the largest amount of variance.

The second and subsequent factors are then based on the residual amounts of variance. The ultimate effect of rotating the factor matrix is to redistribute the variance from earlier factors to later ones to achieve a simpler, theoretically more meaningful factor pattern. The simplest case of rotation is an orthogonal rotation in which the axes are maintained at 90°. In order to determine whether the partial correlation of the variables is small, the Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) test to measure sampling adequacy and the Bartlett's χ^2 test of Sphericity were used before starting the factor analysis. "Principal Component Analysis" method, developed by (Hotelling, 1935), was chosen and the condition for selecting factors was based on the principle proposed by Kaiser (1960): ''An Eigen value larger than one, and an absolute value of factor loading greater than 0.5''.

5.3.2   Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

CFA is a special case of the structural equation model (SEM), also known as the covariance structure (McDonald, 1978). SEM consists of two components: a measurement model linking a set of observed variables to a usually smaller set of latent variables and a structural model linking the latent variables through a series of recursive and non-recursive relationships. With CFA it is possible to place substantively meaningful constraints on the factor model, such as setting the effect of one latent variable to equal zero on a subset of the observed variables. The advantage of CFA is that it allows for testing hypotheses about a particular factor structure.

5.3.3 EFA and CFA on Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership ratings were obtained by using 8 items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) (Bass and Avolio, 1995). There are two scales as contingent reward and management by exception (active) measuring transactional leadership behaviour. Previous empirical investigations on transactional and transformational leadership have demonstrated that the dimensions in these two leadership behaviours are highly correlated and that these dimensions reflect a "higher-order" construct (Avolio, Bass, Jung, 1999, Walumba), which is also supported by the theoretical development (Avolio, et al. 1999; Bass, 1998).

Since EFA is not considered appropriate with two items for a construct, the CFA was performed on transactional leadership. Second-order CFA was conducted to determine the convergence of these two items into one single scale as transactional. One of the criteria to establish overall model fit for the proposed model is chi-square, but scholars have discussed that the overall model could be easily rejected if the number of samples is large (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Marsh, Balla & McDonald, 1988; Marsh & Hocevar, 1985). Therefore, this study attends to both the magnitude of chi-square and other fit indices.

The results showed satisfactory model fit for second-order transactional leadership (χ^2= 14.467; *df*= 6.438; χ^2/df= 2.247; RMR= .037; GFI= .98; AGFI= .93; NFI= .99; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .041). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All>.81). These results indicate that transactional leadership and its respective constructs are valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.4 EFA and CFA on Transformational Leadership

Following the discussion regarding the possibility of higher-order construct for transactional and transformation leadership based on previous research (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999), the Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted to find out if this fact can be supported for the data collected from the targeted population for this study. Before EFA was performed, the results for KMO (.891) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) showed that the partial correlation of the variables is small in transformational leadership. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted. The Eigenvalue (3.678, explaining 73.5% of the variance) suggested one component extraction for transformational leadership, which indicates and supports that all of the scales for this construct could be combined into one single scale for further analysis. The following table presents the items' loading on transformational leadership. All loadings were strong.

Table 0.7: Item Loadings for Transformational Leadership

	Component
	1
Individual Consideration (IC)	.868
Intellectual Stimulation (IS)	.861
Individual Influence (Attributed) (IA)	.857
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	.852
Individual Influence (Behaviour) (IB)	.850

Second-order CFA was conducted to determine the convergence of these five items into one single scale as transformational leadership. The results showed satisfactory model fit for second-order transformational leadership (χ^2= 11.384; *df*= 5.044; χ^2/*df*= 2.277; RMR= .029; GFI= .98; AGFI= .95; NFI= .99; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .067). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All>.81). These results indicate that transformational leadership and its respective

constructs are valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.5   EFA and CFA on Spiritual Leadership

Following the discussion for performing EFA, the results for KMO (0.91) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) showed that the partial correlation of the variables is small in spiritual leadership. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted. The Eigenvalues (8.664, which explained 50.9% of the variance; 3.688, which explained 21.7% of the variance; and 1.868, which explained 11% of the variance) suggested three components solution for spiritual leadership.

Table 0.8: Item Loadings for Spiritual Leadership

	Component			Loadings
	1	2	3	
V1	.854			.654
V2	.843			.643
V3	.847			.687
V4	.823			.691
V5	.779			.716
H/F1		.871		.621
H/F2		.861		.660
H/F3		.878		.644
H/F4		.878		.651
H/F5		.894		.667
A/L1			.909	.771
A/L2			.896	.777
A/L3			.908	.777
A/L4			.909	.795
A/L5			.921	.781
A/L6			.912	.784
A/L7			.915	.774

These three components explained almost 84% of the variance. This result (three components extraction for spiritual leadership) is consistent with previous research and with the theoretical development of spiritual leadership (Fry et al., 2011; Fry et al., 2005) in which three constructs for spiritual leadership was proposed (as discussed in the literature review chapter) as vision, hope/faith, and altruistic love. The following table

presents the results for rotated component matrix and factor loadings for spiritual leadership.

Following the results obtained for EFA, the CFA by using AMOS was conducted. The second order factor analysis for spiritual leadership showed that this second order fit the data well and could be used for further analysis. This is consistent with the previous research and theoretical development (Chen et al., 2012). The results showed satisfactory model fit (χ^2/df= 188.834/116= 1.628; RMR= .039; GFI= .93; AGFI= .91; NFI= .97; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .047). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All > .83). These results indicate that spiritual leadership and its respective constructs are valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.6 EFA and CFA on Meaning/Calling (Spiritual well-being)

Following the same procedure explained in the previous section for executing and EFA analysis, the results for KMO (.860) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) were obtained. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted.

Table 0.9: Item Loadings for Meaning/Calling

	Component
	1
M/C1	.859
M/C2	.880
M/C3	.893
M/C4	.837

The Eigenvalue (3.257, explaining 81.4% of the variance) suggested one component extraction for meaning/calling, which indicates and supports that all of the items for this construct could be combined into one single scale for further analysis. The following

table presents the items' loading on meaning/calling. All loadings, as shown, were strong.

Following the satisfactory results obtained in EFA, the CFA by using AMOS was conducted. The results showed satisfactory model fit (χ^2/df= .391/2= .195; RMR= .004; GFI= .99; AGFI= .99; NFI= 1.000; CFI= 1.000; RMSEA= .000). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All>.83). These results indicate that meaning/calling construct is valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.7   EFA and CFA on Membership (Spiritual well-being)

Following the same procedure explained in the previous sections for executing an EFA analysis, the results for KMO (.915) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) were obtained. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted.

Table 0.10: Item Loadings for Membership

	Component
	1
MEM1	.901
MEM2	.883
MEM3	.872
MEM4	.893
MEM5	.895

The Eigenvalue (4.16, explaining 83.2% of the variance) suggested one component extraction for membership, which indicates and supports that all of the items for this construct could be combined into one single scale for further analysis. The above table presents the items' loading on membership. All loadings, as shown, were strong.

Following the satisfactory results obtained in EFA, the CFA by using AMOS was conducted. The results showed satisfactory model fit (χ^2/df= 5.000/5= 1.000; RMR= .010; GFI= .99; AGFI= .98; NFI= .99; CFI= 1.000; RMSEA= .000). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All>.87). These results indicate that membership construct is valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.8 EFA and CFA on Organizational Commitment

Following the same procedure explained in the previous section for executing and EFA analysis, the results for KMO (.977) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) were obtained. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted. The Eigenvalue (9.729, explaining 64.86% of the variance) suggested one component extraction for organizational commitment, which indicates and supports that all of the items for this construct could be combined into one single scale for further analysis. The following table presents the items' loading on organizational commitment. All loadings, as shown, were strong.

Table 0.11: Item Loadings for Organizational Commitment

	Component 1		Component 1		Component 1
OC1	.798	OC6	.788	OC11	.782
OC2	.800	OC7	.829	OC12	.742
OC3	.802	OC8	.796	OC13	.750
OC4	.822	OC9	.800	OC14	.790
OC5	.866	OC10	.750	OC15	.721

Following the satisfactory results obtained in EFA, the CFA by using AMOS was conducted. The results showed satisfactory model fit (χ^2/df= 114.435/90= 1.271; RMR= .032; GFI= .95; AGFI= .93; NFI= .97; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .031). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong

(All>.71). These results indicate that organizational commitment construct is valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.9   EFA and CFA on Emotional Intelligence

Following the same procedure explained in the previous section for executing and EFA analysis, the results for KMO (.90) and Bartlett's χ^2 test (0.000) were obtained. Following the satisfactory results of KMO and Bartlett's χ^2 test, the EFA by using Principal Component Analysis (Hotteling, 1935) with Varimax rotation method was conducted. The Eigenvalues (20.714, 4.455, 2.582, and 1.774, which could explain 89.5% of the variance) suggested four components extraction for emotional intelligence. These four components are "perception of emotions" (respective items in the measurement instrument were 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), "managing own emotions" (respective items in the measurement instrument were 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), "managing others' emotions" (respective items in the measurement instrument were 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30), and "utilization of emotions" (respective items in the measurement instrument were 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27). The following table presents the items' loading on emotional intelligence. All loadings, as shown, were strong.

Table 0.12: Item Loadings for Emotional Intelligence

Variable	Loading	Variable	Loading	Variable	Loading	Variable	Loading
EI1	.750	EI10	.580	EI19	.738	EI28	.831
EI2	.763	EI11	.914	EI20	.856	EI29	.780
EI3	.851	EI12	.818	EI21	.959	EI30	854
EI4	.863	EI13	.594	EI22	.740	EI31	.925
EI5	.845	EI14	.765	EI23	.889	EI32	.935
EI6	.908	EI15	.637	EI24	.912	EI33	.664
EI7	.925	EI16	.651	EI25	.752		
EI8	.610	EI17	.733	EI26	.539		
EI9	.554	EI18	.817	EI27	.891		

Following the results obtained for EFA, the CFA by using AMOS was conducted. The second order factor analysis for emotional intelligence showed that this second order fit

the data well and could be used for further analysis. The results showed satisfactory model fit (χ^2/df= 326.75.834/214= 1.526; RMR= .034; GFI= .92; AGFI= .86; NFI= .95; CFI= .97; RMSEA= .063). All of the values for critical ratio (CR) were above 1.96, and all factor loadings were also strong (All>.71). These results indicate that emotional intelligence and its respective constructs are valid and can be further used for hypothesis testing.

5.3.10 Convergent and Discriminant Validity

As shown in table 5.8 all variables in this study reached satisfactory level in both convergent and discriminant validity. For establishing convergent validity average variance extracted (AVE) should exceed .50 (C. Fornell & D. F. Larcker, 1981). With regard to discriminant validity, the maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV) should both be less than average variance extracted (AVE) in order to establish the discriminant validity (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010).

Table 0.13: Convergent and Discriminant Validity Results

Variables	AVE	MSV	ASV
Transactional Leadership	.55	.32	.12
Transformational Leadership	.67	.55	.20
Spiritual Leadership	.50	.16	.07
Meaning/Calling	.75	.20	.13
Membership	.79	.33	.16
Organizational commitment	.62	.55	.26
Emotional intelligence	.82	.18	.08

5.4 Hypotheses Testing

Demographic variables such as age, gender, educational level, and years of experience with the current organization, have been shown to be potential predictors of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990), and leadership

outcomes (Walumbwa, Wu, & Ojode, 2004). All of the above mentioned variables were measured and regarded as control variables in this study.

Table 5.10 displays the means, standard deviations, and the correlation of the variables in this study. Almost all correlations reached a significant level either at $p \leq .01$ or $p \leq .05$.

Table 0.14: Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlation

Constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Transactional Leadership	1						
2. Transformational Leadership	.30**	1					
3. Spiritual Leadership	.17**	.12*	1				
4. Meaning/Calling	.19**	.35**	.35**	1			
5. Membership	.23**	.41**	.35**	.41**	1		
6. Organizational Commitment	.45**	.70**	.19**	.42**	.55**	1	
7. Emotional Intelligence	.27**	.35**	.085	.13*	.21**	.33**	1
Mean	3.33	3.53	4.06	3.98	4.01	3.53	4.52
Standard Deviation	.78	1.10	.86	1.08	1.06	.95	.60

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

5.4.1 Testing Hypothesis One

Hypothesis one proposed, "There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using ML (maximum likelihood model) in AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. The results presented in Table 5.11 demonstrated the significant relationship between transactional leadership behaviour and employees' organizational commitment. Based on the result obtained for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2), which is .34; transactional leadership could explain 34% of the variation in organizational commitment along with the coefficient value of .57, significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 0.15: Result of Hypothesis One

	Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment	
Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01 n.s.	-.04 n.s.
Age	-.02 n.s.	.10 n.s.
Educational Level	.03 n.s.	.04 n.s.
Experience	.15 n.s.	.01 n.s.
Independent Variables		
Transactional Leadership		.57***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.34
CR (TSA ⇒ OC)		6.784

Note: N= 282; n.s. = non-significant; *** significant at $p < 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this relationship is significant. Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 227.883/178= 1.280; RMR= .030; GFI= .93; AGFI= .91; NFI= .94; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .032).

All these findings support the first hypothesis of this study and it could be concluded that: "*There is a significant relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment*".

5.4.2 Testing Hypothesis Two

Hypothesis one proposed, "There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. The results presented in Table 5.12 demonstrated the significant relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and employees' organizational commitment. Based on the result obtained for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2), which is .55; transformational leadership could explain 55% of the variation in organizational commitment along with the coefficient value of .57, significant at $p < 0.001$.

Table 0.16: Results of Hypothesis Two

	Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment	
Variables	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	.01[n.s.]
Age	-.02[n.s.]	.03[n.s.]
Educational Level	.03[n.s.]	.01[n.s.]
Experience	.15[n.s.]	.08[n.s.]
Independent Variables		
Transformational Leadership		.73***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.55
CR (TSF$\Rightarrow$OC)		11.371

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p < 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this relationship is significant. Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 268.301/241= 1.113; RMR= .032; GFI= .93; AGFI= .91; NFI= .94; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .020).

All these findings support the second hypothesis of this study and it could be concluded that: "*There is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment*".

5.4.3 Testing Hypothesis Three

Hypothesis three is divided into six sub-hypotheses in which the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment was proposed to go through spiritual well-being (meaning/calling and membership).

Hypothesis 3a proposed, "There is a significant relationship between spiritual leadership and meaning/calling". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table.

Table 0.17: Results of Hypothesis Three (3a)

Variables	Dependent variable: Meaning/Calling	
	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01 [n.s.]	.01 [n.s.]
Age	-.10 [n.s.]	-.10 [n.s.]
Educational Level	.06 [n.s.]	.06 [n.s.]
Experience	-.01 [n.s.]	-.01 [n.s.]
Independent Variables		
Spiritual Leadership		.39***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.17
CR (SL$\Rightarrow$M/C)		4.99

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p < 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

The results presented in Table 5.13 demonstrated the significant relationship between spiritual leadership behaviour and employees' spiritual well-being as meaning/calling. Based on the result obtained for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2), which is .17; spiritual leadership could explain 17% of the variation in employees' spiritual well-being as meaning/calling along with the coefficient value of .39, significant at $p < 0.001$. The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this relationship is significant. Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 314.013/261= 1.203; RMR= .063; GFI= .92; AGFI= .90; NFI= .95; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .027).

All these findings support hypothesis 3a of this study and it could be concluded that: "*There is a significant relationship between spiritual leadership and meaning/calling*".

Hypothesis 3b proposed, "There is a significant relationship between spiritual leadership and membership". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. The results presented in Table 5.14 demonstrated the significant relationship between spiritual leadership behaviour and employees' spiritual well-being as membership. Based on the result obtained for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2), which

is .18; spiritual leadership could explain 17% of the variation in employees' spiritual

well-being as membership along with the coefficient value of .39, significant at $p<0.001$.

Table 0.18: Results of Hypothesis Three (3b)

Variables	Dependent variable: Membership	
	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	-.03[n.s.]
Age	-.11[n.s.]	-.11[n.s.]
Educational Level	-.02[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]
Experience	.24*	.23*
Independent Variables		
Spiritual Leadership		.39***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.18
CR (SL$\Rightarrow$MEM)		5.131

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p< 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this

relationship is significant. Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this

hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 374.702/285= 1.315;

RMR= .059; GFI= .91; AGFI= .89; NFI= .95; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .033).

All these findings support hypothesis 3b of this study and it could be concluded that:

"*There is a significant relationship between spiritual leadership and membership*".

Hypothesis 3c proposed, "There is a significant relationship between meaning/calling

and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS

18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the

following table. The results presented in Table 5.15 demonstrated the significant

relationship between employees' spiritual well-being as meaning/calling behaviour and

employees' organizational commitment. Based on the result obtained for Squared

Multiple Correlation (R^2), which is .23; meaning/calling could explain 23% of the

variation in organizational commitment along with the coefficient value of .46,

significant at $p<0.001$.

Table 0.19: Results of Hypothesis Three (3c)

| Variables | Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment | |
	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]
Age	-.02[n.s.]	.03[n.s.]
Educational Level	.03[n.s.]	.00[n.s.]
Experience	.15[n.s.]	.16[n.s.]
Independent Variables		
Meaning/Calling		.46***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.23
CR (M/C$\Rightarrow$OC)		7.319

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p< 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this relationship is significant. Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 259.753/219= 1.186; RMR= .033; GFI= .93; AGFI= .91; NFI= .94; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .026).

All these findings support hypothesis 3c of this study and it could be concluded that: "*There is a significant relationship between meaning/calling and organizational commitment*".

Hypothesis 3d proposed, "There is a significant relationship between membership and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. The results presented in Table 5.16 demonstrated the significant relationship between employees' spiritual well-being as membership behaviour and employees' organizational commitment. Based on the result obtained for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2), which is .34; meaning/calling could explain 34% of the variation in organizational commitment along with the coefficient value of .57, significant at $p<0.001$. The value for the CR (Critical Ratio) obtained was more than 1.96 indicating that this relationship is significant.

Table 0.20: Results of Hypothesis Three (3d)

| Variables | Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment | |
	Model 1	Model 2
Control Variables		
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]
Age	-.02[n.s.]	.04[n.s.]
Educational Level	.03[n.s.]	.04[n.s.]
Experience	.15[n.s.]	.02[n.s.]
Independent Variables		
Membership		.57***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.34
CR (MEM$\Rightarrow$OC)		9.390

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p <$ 0.001; CR= Critical Ratio

Another criterion to attend is the model fit indices as for this hypothesis these indices were in or above satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 273.576/241= 1.135; RMR= .032; GFI= .93; AGFI= .91; NFI= .95; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .022).

All these findings support hypothesis 3d of this study and it could be concluded that: "*There is a significant relationship between membership and organizational commitment*".

Hypothesis 3e proposed, "Meaning/calling would mediate the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. As the results indicate in Table 5.17, after the mediation variable (meaning/calling) added to the model, the path between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment became insignificant and the value for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) improved greatly from .07 to .24; and the value for CR from spiritual leadership to organizational commitment after the mediator variable was added became insignificant (below 1.96). The value improvement for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) and the insignificant value for CR from spiritual leadership to organizational commitment after the mediator variable was added indicate that meaning/calling mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment

since the spiritual leadership alone was not able to explain much of a variation in organizational commitment.

Table 0.21: Results of Hypothesis Three (3e)

Variables	Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Control Variables			
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]
Age	-.02[n.s.]	-.02[n.s.]	.02[n.s.]
Educational Level	.03[n.s.]	.04[n.s.]	.01[n.s.]
Experience	.15[n.s.]	.15[n.s.]	.15[n.s.]
Independent Variables			
Spiritual Leadership		.21**	.04[n.s.]
Meaning/Calling			.44***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.07	.24
CR		$(SL \Rightarrow OC)$	$(M/C \Rightarrow OC)$
		2.832	6.444

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at $p < 0.001$; CR= Critical Ratio

Model fit indices for the mediation model was also found to be in satisfactory level (χ^2/df= 830.624/724= 1.147; RMR= .064; GFI= .90; AGFI= .88; NFI= .93; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .023).

All these findings support hypothesis 3e of this study and it could be concluded that: "*Meaning/Calling mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment*".

Hypothesis 3f proposed, "Membership would mediate the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment". Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS 18.0 was developed to examine this hypothesis and the results are shown in the following table. As the results indicate in Table 5.18, after the mediation variable (membership) added to the model, the path between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment became insignificant and the value for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) improved greatly from .07 to .33; and the value for CR from spiritual leadership to organizational commitment after the mediator variable was added became insignificant (below 1.96).

Table 0.22: Results of Hypothesis Three (3f)

Variables	Dependent variable: Organizational Commitment		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
Control Variables			
Gender	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]	-.01[n.s.]
Age	-.02[n.s.]	-.02[n.s.]	.04[n.s.]
Educational Level	.03[n.s.]	.04[n.s.]	.05[n.s.]
Experience	.15[n.s.]	.15[n.s.]	.03[n.s.]
Independent Variables			
Spiritual Leadership		.21**	-.02[n.s.]
Membership			.57***
Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)	.02	.07	.33
CR		$(SL \Rightarrow OC)$	$(MEM \Rightarrow OC)$
		2.832	8.690

Note: N= 282; n.s.= non-significant; *** significant at *p*< 0.001; CR= Critical Ratio

The value improvement for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) and the insignificant value for CR from spiritual leadership to organizational commitment after the mediator variable was added indicate that membership mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment since the spiritual leadership alone was not able to explain much of a variation in organizational commitment. Model fit indices for the mediation model was also found to be in satisfactory level (χ^2/*df*= 899.492/763= 1.179; RMR= .062; GFI= .89; AGFI= .88; NFI= .94; CFI= .99; RMSEA= .025).

All these findings support hypothesis 3f of this study and it could be concluded that: "*Membership mediates the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment*".

In the next stage of testing hypotheses 1 to 3, all three leadership styles including transactional leadership, transformational leadership, and spiritual leadership through spiritual well-being were tested concurrently and simultaneously to examine their influence on organizational commitment in AMOS. As shown in Figure 5.1 all three leadership styles found to positively influence organizational commitment with spiritual leadership through the mediating role of spiritual well-being.
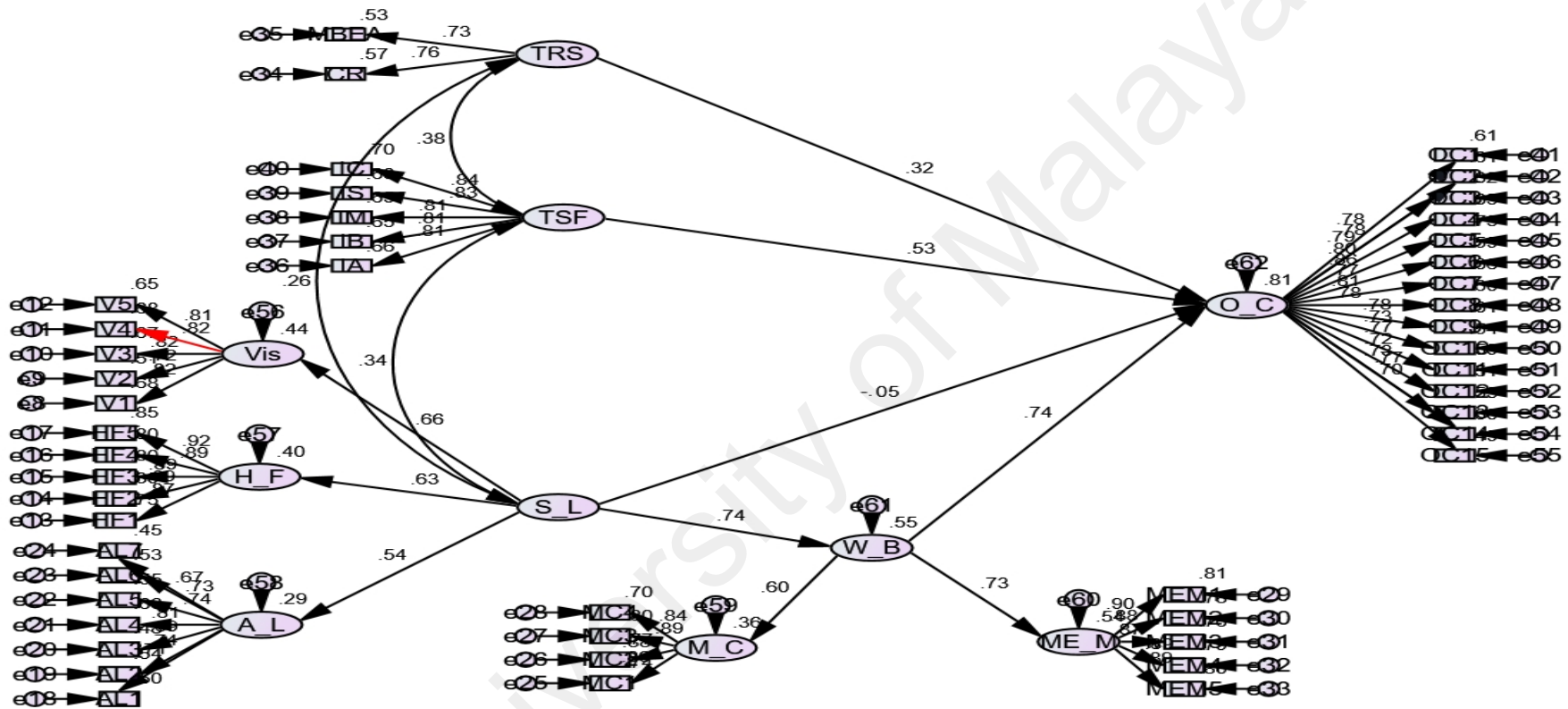
Figure 0.6: SEM results for testing the influence of three leadership styles on organizational commitment concurrently

Model fit: χ^2/df = 1337.556 / 1067= 1.254; RMR= .034; GFI= .85; IFI= .97; TLI: .97 CFI= .97; RMSEA= .030

Further, transactional leadership found to have the lowest impact ($\beta = .32$) on organizational commitment whereas the influence of transformational leadership ($\beta = .53$) was stronger. In addition, spiritual leadership through spiritual well-being revealed to have the strongest influence ($\beta = .74$) on organizational commitment. The above results confirmed the argument of this research that leadership influence on employee organizational commitment increases as leaders move from transactional to transformational and then spiritual leadership. The findings indicate that spiritual leadership has the highest impact on organizational commitment through spiritual well-being, as expected. Further, all three leadership styles explain 81% of variation in employee organizational commitment.

5.4.4 Testing Hypothesis Four

Hypothesis four is divided into three sub-hypotheses in which it has been proposed that the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment is moderated by emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis 4a proposed, "Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment". This hypothesis was tested by creating an interaction terms. To correct for possible multicollinearity, each of the two-predictor variables was cantered by standardizing them (Carte & Russell, 2003; Joseph E Champoux & Peters, 1987). Multiplying the two cantered predictor variables then, formed the interaction term. These variables were then included in an analysis using AMOS as shown in the following Figure.

Figure 0.7: SEM Results for Hypothesis 4a

Figure 5.3 shows the strength of the moderating variable in the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment. As shown when the emotional intelligence (the moderating variable) was added into the model the positive slope is evident. This indicates that transactional leadership has a stronger effect on organizational commitment when leaders' emotional intelligence is higher.

Figure 0.8: Moderation Result for Hypothesis 4a

Using all the findings elaborated above, it could be concluded, *"Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between transactional leadership and organizational commitment in which this relationship would be stronger if the leaders' emotional intelligence is higher"*, supporting hypothesis 4a.

Hypothesis 4b proposed, "Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment". This hypothesis was tested following the same procedure in the previous hypothesis by creating an interaction terms. To correct for possible multicollinearity, each of the two-predictor variables was centred by standardizing them (Carte and Russell, 2003; Champoux and Peters, 1987). Multiplying the two centred predictor variables then, formed the interaction term. These variables were then included in an analysis using AMOS as shown in Figure 5.4.

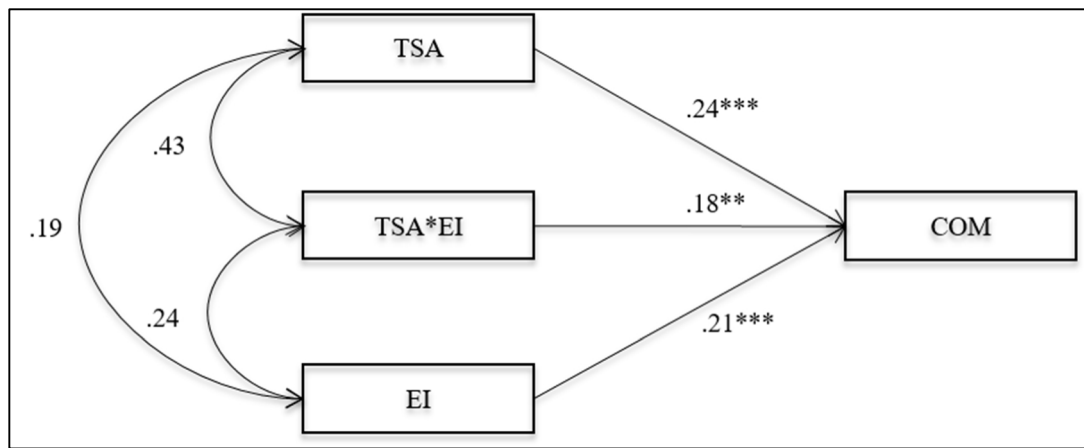**Figure 0.9:** SEM Results of Hypothesis 4b

Figure 5.5 shows the strength of the moderating variable in the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment. As shown when the emotional intelligence (the moderating variable) was added into the model the positive

slope is evident. This indicates that transformational leadership has a stronger effect on organizational commitment when leaders' emotional intelligence is higher.
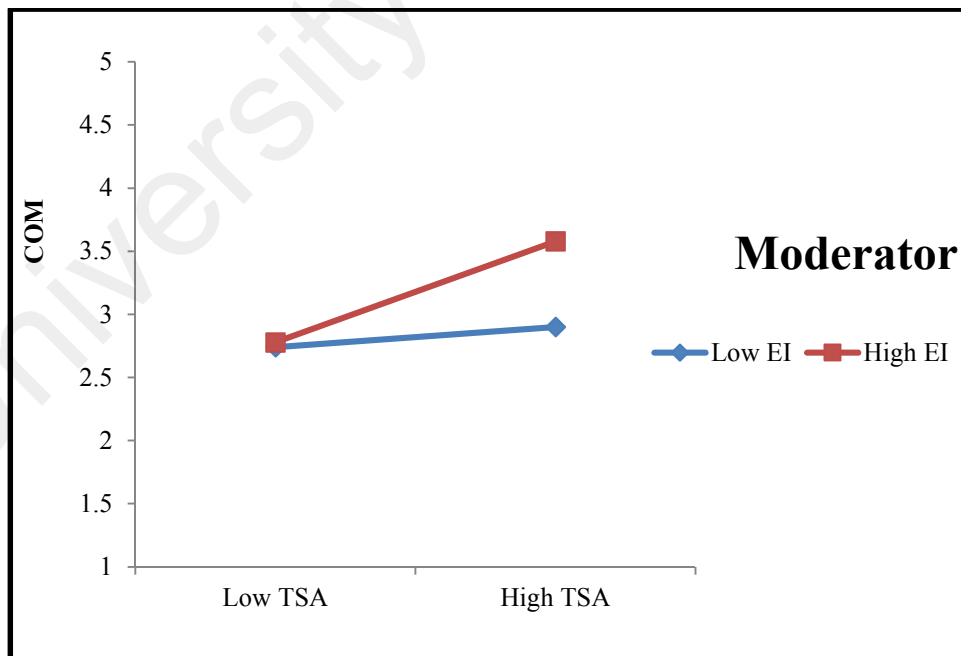

Figure 0.10: Moderation Result for Hypothesis 4b

Using all the findings elaborated above, it could be concluded, *"Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organizational commitment in which this relationship would be stronger if the leaders' emotional intelligence is higher"*, supporting hypothesis 4b.

Hypothesis 4c proposed, "Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment". This hypothesis was tested following the same procedure in the previous hypothesis by creating an interaction terms. To correct for possible multicollinearity, each of the two-predictor variables was centred by standardizing them (Carte and Russell, 2003; Champoux and Peters, 1987). Multiplying the two centred predictor variables then, formed the interaction term. These variables were then included in an analysis using AMOS as shown in Figure 5.6.
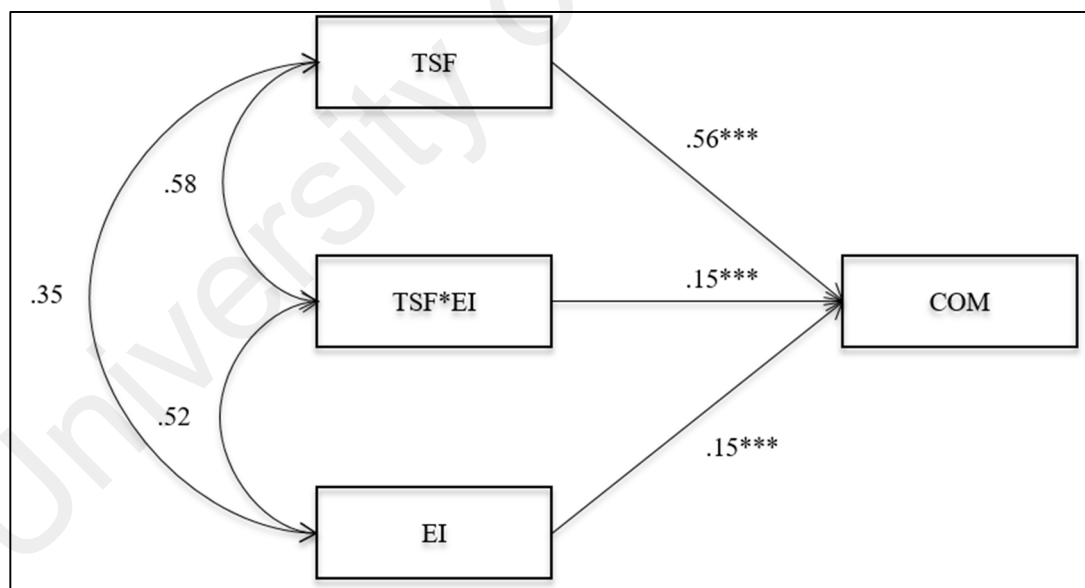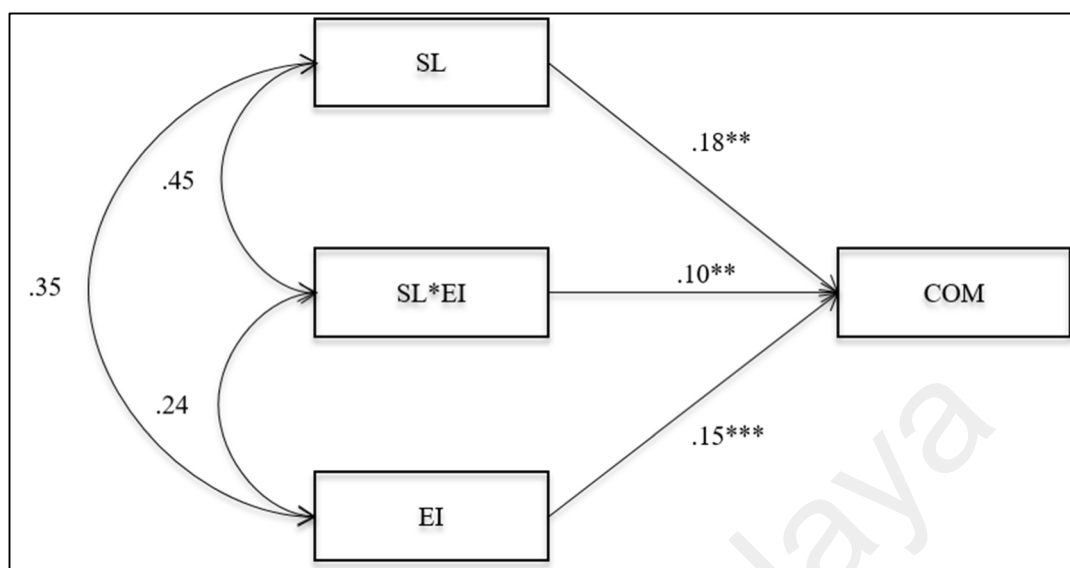
Figure 0.11: SEM Result of Hypothesis 4c

Figure 5.7 shows the strength of the moderating variable in the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment. As shown when the emotional intelligence (the moderating variable) was added into the model the positive slope is evident. This indicates that spiritual leadership has a stronger effect on organizational commitment when leaders' emotional intelligence is higher.
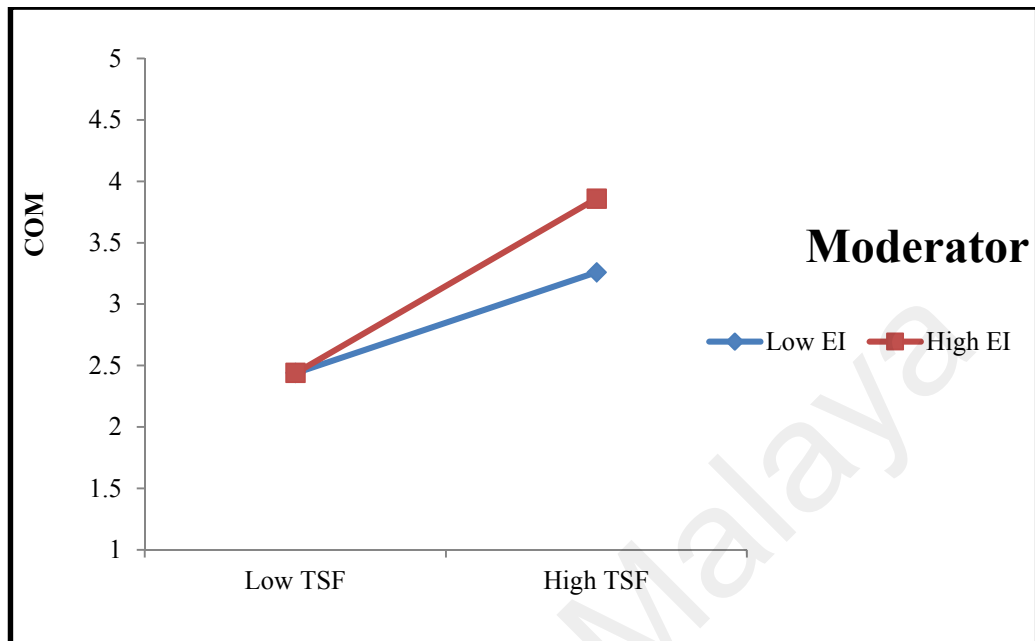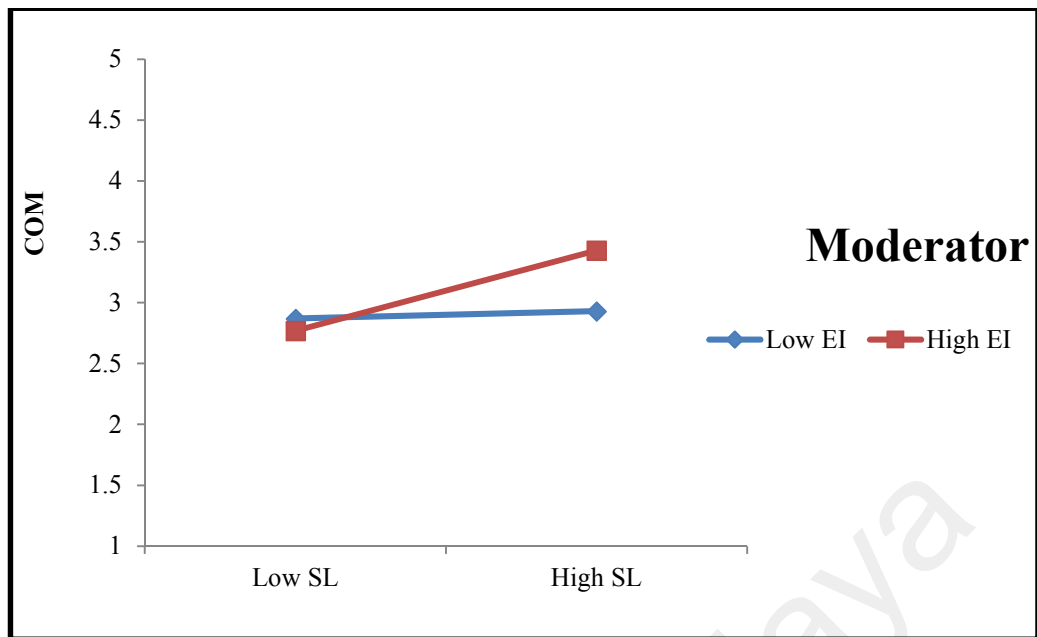
Figure 0.12: Moderation result for Hypothesis 4c

Using all the findings elaborated above, it could be concluded, *"Emotional intelligence would moderate the relationship between spiritual leadership and organizational commitment in which this relationship would be stronger if the leaders' emotional intelligence is higher"*, supporting hypothesis 4c.

5.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the results of the research. The reliability and validity analyses were discussed. EFA and CFA procedures were explained in detail and the results were discussed. At the end, the hypotheses were tested and the results were explained.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of key findings as well as theoretical and managerial implications. The limitations and suggestions for future research is also presented in this chapter.

6.2 Summary of Key Findings

This study set out to address the role leadership could play to enhance employees' organizational commitment and how this particular relationship could be moderated by leaders' emotional intelligence. This study focused on higher education institutions in Iran by choosing Teacher Training University (TTU) as a targeted population. After the problem statement and research gaps were discussed, a set of research questions and alternatively research objectives were formulated. The main questions in this research enquired the leadership influence on employee organizational commitment and if these relationships are moderated by leaders' emotional intelligence.

Based on the previous literature in the area of leadership and organizational behaviour, one could logically infer that leaders and their respective attitudes and behaviours they express are very significant in developing and improving different organizational outcome among employees. Respective literature in leadership and organizational behaviour has shown this fact by providing many insights and investigations that have established the causal relationship between leadership and organizational outcomes while the former has been shown to be a very effective driver of different outcomes in organizations and institutions of different kind.

By reviewing the literature in leadership and bringing the most important leadership theory into the discussion, Full Rang Leadership Theory (FRLT) was found to be one of the dominant leadership theories. This leadership theory is rooted in what Burns (1976) developed as transactional and transformational leadership and was further improved and elaborated by Bass (1985). Transactional and transformational leadership have been the subject of many investigations and their significant relationships with different organizational outcomes have been found and established. While these leadership behaviours have attracted many attentions, their examinations have been limited to the areas other than the Middle East region and countries such as Iran. This gap in leadership studies formed the first contribution of this study in a way that these leadership behaviours were investigated to find out if the previous results in other cultures could be replicated and if they could enhance organizational outcomes among employees such as commitment.

On the other hand, Sanders et al. (2003) by investigating the transactional and transformational leadership and bringing the third leadership style (spirituality) into the picture of their study suggested that when a leader developed along the transactional-transformational-spirituality hierarchy continuum his/her effectiveness would become more developed. They argued that this third type of leadership is about bringing spirituality "out of the closet" and placing it where it belongs while integrating and developing it into the existing practice of leadership. Fry (2003) is the one who conceptualized and developed spiritual leadership, since he argued that the current theories and practices of leadership might not be sufficiently able to cope with the very possible challenges in the century we are living in, which is full of uncertainties. He believed that spirituality is the solution to the world we are living in now and that it is what organizations need to embrace in order to accomplish what they desire. Fry and his colleagues later developed this leadership further and examined it in the Military

settings in the United States. While there is still a lack in studying this leadership in other contexts (e.g., outside military and in non-western countries), the proposition was made by other scholars that this could be the integrating part of other leadership styles and making organizations more able to enhance their effectiveness needed to be examined and investigated. This formed another contribution of this study to attend to.

Further, the notion of emotional intelligence (EI) is one of the recent phenomena that has attracted researchers' attention instead of IQ and has been argued to be more important than IQ. While there are different arguments regarding the role EI could play in enhancing organizational behaviour, all agree that its existence is necessary. Leadership and EI have also been investigated and different ideas and results have been suggested, while some argued that there might not exit a direct relationship between leadership behaviours such as transformational and emotional intelligence when empirically investigated. Referencing what Goleman (1995) has argued regarding the necessity of emotional intelligence for leaders by mentioning "emotional intelligence is the sine qua none of leaders" it was argued that emotional intelligence could play an important role in the leader-follower relationship. Therefore, this study proposed that emotional intelligence could moderate the relationship between leadership and organizational commitment in that when leaders' emotional intelligence is higher these relationships would become stronger.

Based on the research questions and objectives, a set of hypotheses were proposed and examined using data from employees and their leaders in TTU in Iran. Table 6.1 presents the summary of hypotheses developed in this research.

Table 0.23: Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Proposed relationship	Conclusion
H1	Transactional Leadership → Commitment	Supported
H2	Transformational Leadership → Commitment	Supported
H3a	Spiritual Leadership → Meaning/Calling	Supported
H3b	Spiritual Leadership → Membership	Supported
H3c	Meaning/Calling → Commitment	Supported
H3d	Membership → Commitment	Supported
H3e	Spiritual Leadership → Meaning/Calling → Commitment	Supported
H3f	Spiritual Leadership → Membership → Commitment	Supported
H4a	EI moderates Transactional Leadership → Commitment	Supported
H4b	EI moderates Transformational Leadership→ Commitment	Supported
H4c	EI moderates Spiritual Leadership → Commitment	Supported

6.2 Discussions

This study set out to investigate the relationship between three different leadership styles and employee organizational commitment in the leader-follower paradigm. By focusing on transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership styles, this study found that the relationship between these styles and employee organizational commitment was positive and significant. This is consistent with what previous studies have suggested regarding these three styles of leadership and how they could be effective in enhancing different organizational outcomes such as commitment.

On the other hand, studies of this kind have never been investigated in the Iranian context in particular and are scarce in the Middle East region in general. This study showed that the relationship between leadership and organizational outcomes especially commitment was significant in these contexts as Reave (2005) argued regarding the applicability of spiritual leadership model in other contexts than only the western society. Therefore, this study contributed to the body of knowledge by bringing these theories out of western countries and applying them in a non-western context. This study not only established the validity and reliability of these leadership models in different cultures but also empirically examined the models proposed for them and

showed that the relationship between these leadership styles and organizational outcomes was positive and significant in these contexts.

On the other hand, emotional intelligence and its relationship with leadership have been investigated, but no consensus exists among scholars on the precise role that it played in this paradigm. This study, while attending to this issue to investigate the potential role played by emotional intelligence in the leader-follower model, proposed that based on the different discussions that emotional intelligence is the necessary trait for leaders and it could not be separated from them, it would moderate the relationship between the three leadership styles and employee organizational commitment in the way that the relationship would be stronger if the leaders' emotional intelligence was higher. This is supported by what Goleman (1995), as one of the pioneer scholars in examining emotional intelligence, argued: emotional intelligence in the sine qua non of leadership.

This study showed that the reliability and validity criterion for the variables included in this study were satisfactory and that they could be included for examination in this study and future studies. Construct validity included Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), and Convergent and Discriminant validity. In these criterions for establishing the construct validity, this study showed that all the variables and their respective instruments were valid and reliable to measure them in Iranian context.

6.3 Theoretical and Managerial Implications

This study established the significant relationships of transactional, transformational, and spiritual leadership with employees' organizational commitment. Sanders et al. (2003) argued, "As leaders develop along transactional-transformational-spiritual hierarchy continuum, their effectiveness will become more developed"; while this study investigated all these three approaches of leadership, it empirically established this

proposition. The empirical analysis conducted and discussed in the previous chapter showed this fact. By developing Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) using AMOS, the results for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) for the first hypotheses proposed for this study are as follow:

Table 0.24: Squared Multiple Correlation for Each Leadership Style

Hypothesis	Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2)
Transactional-Commitment	34%
Transformational-Commitment	55%
Spiritual-Commitment (Through spiritual well-being)	57%

As it is shown in the above table, the proposition made by other scholars regarding the hierarchy continuum of leadership when it moves along transactional-transformational-spiritual would be empirically supported then. The values for Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) obtained showed the variance explained in organizational commitment by each of the leadership styles, and these values demonstrated that leaders' effectiveness would become developed if they moved along this hierarchy continuum from transactional to spiritual. In addition, when three leadership styles examined concurrently, transactional leadership found to have the weakest influence on organizational commitment, whereas spiritual leadership was demonstrated to have the higher impact than transformational leadership on organizational commitment.

Another important implication from this study is that while this study addressed the leader-employee relationship, it also addressed the role that the spiritual leadership plays in enhancing organizational commitment through the mediating effects of spiritual well-being, meaning/calling and membership. This newly emerged leadership theory has only been empirically investigated in military contexts in a western society. As Fry et al. (2011) mentioned, spiritual leadership theory is an emerging concept to be validated through several fronts. This study empirically validated the theory Fry et al.

(2005) developed and established the cross-cultural validation of the theory and the measurement instruments for a governmental organization in Iran consistent with what Reave (2005) discussed that spiritual leadership theory can go beyond the limitation of a particular situation or culture. She mentioned, "In examining spiritual values and practices, there is the potential for a theory of effective leadership that can truly serve a world moving toward globalization, a theory that applies cross-culturally" (p. 664).

This study empirically supported all the hypotheses proposed and found significant relationship between leadership and organizational commitment. In the case of spiritual leadership, as it was expected, the leader-follower relationship was mediated through spiritual well-being as meaning/calling and membership. The findings of the present study demonstrate that all three constructs of the spiritual leadership are positively related to followers' spiritual well-being by encouraging the sense of meaning/calling and membership among them. Employees experience greater psychological well-being when they perceive they are supported by their respective organization realizing that life has meaning, that they are given the sense of making difference, and that they are understood and appreciated in their working environment, which would result in better organizational outcomes such as commitment (Fry et al., 2005; Reave, 2005; Wayne et al., 2002).

This study did not rule out the significant role played by transactional or transformational leadership style, but it argued that while these two styles are necessary for effective leadership, they could be incorporated to spiritual leadership in order for leaders' effectiveness in organizations to become more developed.

Studies of this kind, which empirically examine the relationships between leadership and organizational outcomes such as employees' commitment, are scarce in Iranian organizations and there has been inadequate attention to this area of investigation. One

of the major and important contributions of this study was to substantiate that leadership and organizational outcomes are in positive and significant relationships when they are examined in Iran like any other country in which these relationships have been investigated. No thorough and sufficient investigation of this kind has been found that address the issues studied here by focusing on a governmental organization in Iran. This study contributes significantly to the current body of leadership literature by comprehensively examining these issues in Iran; therefore, it is a great step to launch and continue investigating leadership-outcome relationships in Iran in the future and in different organizations. The findings of this research are great indicators for those leaders and managers working in Iranian organizations that there exists positive and significant relationships between the way they choose to lead and the way their followers and employees respond, and leaders would be able to enhance the outcomes of their organizations knowing this fact.

The transactional-transformational-spiritual hierarchy could serve as a great guide for leaders. When they might establish transactional-oriented relationship with their followers, which could be effective in the early stages, they need to move along to become transformational leaders, which transform the employees and stir them to look beyond their own interests for the good of the group. In order to become more influential on their followers they need to embrace the notion of spirituality in their behaviour, which would create the sense of meaning (life has meaning) and membership (being understood and appreciated) among their subordinates through which different organizational outcomes such as commitment would be greatly enhanced as this study empirically established this phenomena. Based on the different experiences the author of this dissertation has had in different organizations similar to the one investigated in this study, it is argued that the findings of this research is representative of relatively a larger number than those included in this investigation.

Since similar human resource activities and procedures exist in some other organizations and institutions in Iran. The results of this study are argued to be replicated in those organizations to make the generalizability of this study larger.

6.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study could only focus on one organizational outcome as commitment and other possible outcomes of effective leadership such as job satisfaction and turnover intention could not be included in this study. This is a fruitful avenue for future studies by incorporating these kinds of outcome to expand the current model. Future studies could include other outcome variables or possible mediating variables such as self-efficacy and self-esteem for instance that has been recently examined in the context of spiritual leadership (Chen et al., 2012).

Future studies could examine the spiritual leadership theory in different settings and compare the results to validate the applicability of this type of leadership in different settings especially in different kinds of organizations. More cross-cultural application of the model examined in this study can further enrich the current literature on effective leadership. Another potential area of future investigation is to focus on employees' response to leadership based on their gender to find out if there would be different reactions. Furthermore, respondents can be classified based on their demographic characteristics such as income, tenure, and age in order to determine if different responses could be observed towards different types of leadership.

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the conclusion of the research. The relative discussions were offered, and the theoretical and managerial implications were deliberated. This chapter concludes by discussing the limitations and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 7: APPENDICES

7.1 Questionnaire

7.1.1 Transactional and Transformational Questionnaire

Transactional and Transformational leadership questionnaire was purchased from Mind Garden, which does not allow reprint of reproduction of the instrument. The following is the letter authorizing the researcher to use the instrument.

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

Robert Most
Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

7.1.2 Spiritual Leadership Questionnaire

Table 7.1 and Table 7.2 show the original and the translated version of the spiritual leadership questionnaire respectively.

Table 0.25: Spiritual Leadership Questionnaire (English Version)

No	Items
1	I understand and am committed to my organization's vision
2	My workgroup has a vision statement that brings out the best in me
3	My organization's vision inspires my best performance
4	I have faith in my organization's vision for its employees
5	My organization's vision is clear and compelling to me
6	I have faith in my organization and I am willing to "do whatever it takes" to insure that it accomplishes its mission
7	I persevere and exert extra effort to help my organization succeed because I have faith in what it stands for
8	I always do my best in my work because I have faith in my organization and its leaders
9	I set challenging goals for my work because I have faith in my organization and want us to succeed
10	I demonstrate my faith in my organization and its mission by doing everything I can to help us succeed
11	My organization really cares about its people
12	My organization is kind and considerate toward its workers, and when they are suffering, wants to do something about it
13	The leaders in my organization "walk the walk" as well as "talk the talk"
14	My organization is trustworthy and loyal to its employees
15	My organization does not punish honest mistakes
16	The leaders in my organization are honest and without false pride
17	The leaders in my organization have the courage to stand up for their people
18	The work I do is very important to me
19	My job activities are personally meaningful to me
20	The work I do is meaningful to me
21	The work I do makes a difference in people's lives
22	I feel my organization understands my concerns
23	I feel my organization appreciates me, and my work
24	I feel highly regarded by my leadership
25	I feel I am valued as a person in my job
26	I feel my organization demonstrates respect for me, and my work

Table 0.26: Spiritual Leadership Questionnaire (Farsi Version)

نسخه فارسی پرسشنامه رهبری معنوی	
من چشم انداز سازمانم را درک می‌کنم و به آن متعهد هستم	1
گروهی که من با آنها کار می‌کنم چشم اندازی دارد که بهترین عملکرد را در من به ارمغان میاورد	2
چشم انداز سازمان من الهام بخش بهترین عملکرد من است	3
من به چشم‌انداز سازمانم برای کارکنان خود ایمان دارم	4
چشم انداز سازمان من روشن و قانع کننده است	5
من به سازمانم ایمان دارم و حاضرم هر کاری برای دستیابی به اهداف سازمان انجام بدهم	6
من استقامت و تلاش اضافه برای کمک به تعالی سازمانم انجام میدهم زیرا برای هدفی که ایستاده است ایمان دارم	7
من همیشه سعی می‌کنم بهترین عملکرد را در سازمان داشته باشم زیرا من به سازمان و رهبرانش ایمان دارم	8
من اهداف چالش برانگیز را انتخاب می‌کنم زیرا به سازمان‌ام ایمان دارم و خواستار موفقیتمان هستم	9
من ایمان خود به سازمان و رسالتش را با انجام هر کاری برای کمک به موفقیتش نشان میدهم	10
سازمانی که من در آن کار می‌کنم از کارکنان خود به نحو احسنت نگهداری می‌کند	11
سازمانی که من در آن کار می‌کنم نسبت به کارکنانش با ملاحظه است، و وقتی آنها در مشقت هستند به آنها کمک می‌کند	12
رهبران در سازمانی که من کار می‌کنم به وعده‌های خود جامع عمل میپوشانند	13
سازمانی که من کار می‌کنم قابل اعتماد و به کارکنان خود وفادار است	14
سازمانی که من کار می‌کنم اشتباهت سهوی را تنبیه نمی‌کند	15
رهبران درسازمانی که من کار می‌کنم صادقانه و بدون غرور کاذب هستند	16
رهبران در سازمانی که من کار می‌کنم شجاعت ایستادن برای کارکنان خود را دارند	17
کاری که من در سازمانم انجام میدهم برایم مهم است	18
فعالیتهایی که من در سازمان انجام میدهم شخصاً برای من قابل اهمیت هستند	19
کاری که من در سازمانم انجام میدهم برای من قابل اهمیت هستند	20
کاری که من در سازمان انجام میدهم قابلیت انجام تغییر در زندگی افراد را دارد	21
من احساس می‌کنم سازمانی که من در آن کار می‌کنم دلواپسی های من را درک می‌کند	22
من احساس می‌کنم سازمانی که من در آن کار می‌کنم	23
از من و کاری که انجام میدهم قدردانی می‌کند	24
من احساس می‌کنم به عنوان یک فرد در کاری که انجام میدهم ارزشمند هستم	25
من احساس می‌کنم سازمان به من و کار من احترام قائل میشود	26

7.1.3 Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Table 7.3 and Table 7.4 show the original and the translated version of the organizational commitment questionnaire respectively.

Table 0.27: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (English Version)

No	Items
1	I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful
2	I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for
3	I feel very little loyalty to this organization (R)
4	I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization
5	I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar
6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization
7	I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work was similar (R)
8	This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance
9	It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization (R)
10	I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined
11	There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely (R)
12	Often. I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees (R)
13	I really care about the fate of this organization
14	For me this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work
15	Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part (R)

Table 0.28: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Farsi Version)

نسخه فارسی پرسشنامه تعهد سازمانی	
من مایلم برای موفقیت این سازمان خیلی بیش از آنچه که معمولا از من انتظار می رود، تلاش کنم	1
من سازمان محل کار خود را به دوستانم به عنوان بهترین سازمان معرفی می کنم	2
من نسبت به سازمان محل کار خود، احساس وفاداری کمی دارم	3
برای ادامه کار در این سازمان، هر نوع وظیفه ای را که به من محول شود، می پذیرم	4
ارزش های من و ارزش های سازمان محل کارم خیلی به هم شبیه هستند	5
من افتخار می کنم که به دیگران بگویم که عضوی از این سازمان هستم	6
من می توانم در سازمان دیگری نیز به همین خوبی کار کنم. به شرط آن که کارش مشابه همین کارم باشد	7
من موفقیت شغلی خود را واقعا مرهون و الهام گرفته از این سازمان می دانم	8
ترک این سازمان تغییر خیلی کمی در اوضاع کنونی من ایجاد می کند	9
من بی نهایت خوشحالم که از بین سازمانهای دیگر، این سازمان را برای کارکردن انتخاب نموده ام	10
ماندن دائمی در این سازمان ، چیز زیادی عاید من نمی کند	11
من غالبا با خط مشی های سازمان در مورد امور مهم کارکنانموافق نیستم	12
من واقعا نسبت به سرنوشت این سازمان حساس هستم	13
نسبت به کار کردن در این سازمان حساس هستم	14
تصمیم به کارکردن در این سازمان برای من اشتباه محض بوده است	15

7.1.4 Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire

Table 7.5 and Table 7.6 show the original and the translated version of the emotional

intelligence questionnaire respectively.

Table 0.29: Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (English Version)

No	Items
1	I know when to speak about my personal problems to others
2	When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them
3	I expect that I will do well on most things I try
4	Other people find it easy to confide in me
5	I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people (R)
6	Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important
7	When my mood changes, I see new possibilities
8	Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living
9	I am aware of my emotions as I experience them
10	I expect good things to happen
11	I like to share my emotions with others
12	When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last
13	I arrange events others enjoy
14	I seek out activities that make me happy
15	I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others
16	I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others
17	When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me
18	By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing
19	I know why my emotions change
20	When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas
21	I have control over my emotions
22	I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them
23	I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on
24	I compliment others when they have done something well
25	I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send
26	When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself
27	When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas
28	When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail (R)
29	I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them
30	I help other people feel better when they are down
31	I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles
32	I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice
33	It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do (R)

Table 0.30: Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (Farsi Version)

	نسخه فارسی پرسشنامه هوش هیجانی
1	با مشاهدة حالات چهرة دیگران، عواطف و هیجانات آنها را تشخیص میدهم.
2	وقتي دیگران در مورد اتفاقات مهم زندگیشان با من صحبت مي كنند، اغلب احساس میكنم این رویدادها براي خود من هم اتفاق افتاده است.
3	تنها با نگاه كردن به دیگران، میتوانم هیجانات و عواطف آنها را درك كنم
4	برایم خیلي مشکل است كه احساسات دیگران و نحوة ابراز آن را درك كنم.
5	با گوش دادن به تن صداي افراد، میتوانم احساسات وعواطف افراد را تشخیص دهم.
6	درك پیام هاي غیركلامي افراد برایم مشكل است
7	تشخیص و درك مناسبي از پیامهاي غیركلامي (مانند حالات چهره) افراد دارم
8	عواطف و احساسات خود را به خوبي میشناسم و آنها را تجربه كردهام
9	در مورد تغییراتي كه در عواطف و هیجاناتم ایجاد میشود، آگاهي لازم را دارم
10	به آساني میتوانم عواطف و هیجاناتي را كه تجربه كردهام، شناسایي ودرك كنم.
11	از پیامهاي غیركلامي (حالات صورت و بدن) كه براي دیگران میفرستم آگاهي كافي دارم.
12	وقتي با موانع و مشکلات جدیدي مواجه میشوم، زمانهایي را به خاطر میآورم كه مشکلاتي مشابه با این مواجه بوده ام و آنها را حل كردهام.
13	بر عواطف و هیجاناتم كنترل لازم را دارم.
14	به دنبال فعالیتهایي هستم كه باعث شادي و خوشحالیام میشوند.
15	برخي حوادث مهم زندگي باعث هدایت من به ارزیابي مجدد این موضوع میشود كه كدامیك مهم اند و كدامیك مهم نیستند
16	از طریق تصویرسازي نتایج مثبت وظایفي كه بر عهده دارم، خودم را برمیانگیزانم.
17	در مورد اینکه چه زماني باید مشکلات شخصیام را با دیگران مطرح و مشاوره بگیرم، آگاهي لازم دارم
18	دوست دارم عواطفم را با دیگران به اشتراك بگذارم.
19	علاقه مندم محیطي را ایجاد كنم كه دیگران از آن لذت ببرند
20	وقتي دیگران غمگین و ناراحتاند، با آنها همدردي میكنم كه احساسات بهتري داشته باشند
21	دیگران به آساني به من اعتماد میكنند و مسائل و مشکلات خود را با من در میان میگذارند
22	وقتي دیگران كار خوبي انجام میدهند، آنها را تشویق و ستایش میكنم.
23	وقتي خلقوخوي من عوض میشود، رفتارهاي جدیدي از خودم مشاهده میكنم.
24	وقتي احساسات و هیجانات مثبتي را تجربه میكنم، میدانم چطور آنها را ادامه دهم و پایدار كنم.
25	وقتي خلقوخوي من مثبت و شاداب است، حل مشکلات برایم آسان خواهد بود.
26	وقتي خلقوخوي من مثبت و شاداب است، قادرم ایدههاي جدیدي را مطرح كنم.
27	وقتي تغییراتي را در عواطفم احساس میكنم، گرایش به طرح ایدههاي جدید دارم
28	در هنگام مواجهه با مشکلات، از خلقوخوي ورفتارمثبت براي حل آن كمك میگیرم
29	تصور میكنم رفتار و شیوه برخورد من اثر مثبتي بر دیگران دارد.
30	عواطف و هیجانات یكي از چیزهایي است كه به زندگي من ارزش زیستن میدهد
31	وقتي با چالشهایي روبهرو میشوم، به این دلیل كه معتقدم در حل آن شکست خواهم خورد، آن را رها میكنم.
32	انتظار دارم در بیشتر فعالیتهایي كه براي آن تلاش میكنم موفق شوم
33	انتظار دارم رویدادهاي خوشایندي برایم اتفاق بیفتد.

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