

# EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENT LEADER; A SUBORDINATE'S PERSPECTIVE

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Master Thesis Exposé

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## **ABSTRACT**

**Title:** Emotionally intelligent leaders; a subordinate's perspective.

**Purpose:** The importance of emotional intelligence in the context of leadership is already widely recognized from researchers; a successful leader should comprehend follower emotions and use this information to influence them. As for this, it is important to ensure that EI is perceived from the people surrounding the latter. However, current theories and measurement seem to neglect the presence of relevant others perceptions (subordinates and supervisors) in the assessment of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness. In addition, measurement methods seem to assess emotional intelligence in static time frame, whereas emotions tend to evolve in conjunction with the relationship from which they emerged and subsequently, to the persons they are tied to. Thus, the aim of this study is to explore subordinates perceptions on emotional intelligent abilities of their leaders by submitting a diary research in a relatively long-term perspective, in which subordinates' perceptions are allowed to evolve and change according to the daily working environment.

**Background:** the term "Emotional intelligence" was coined for the first time from Mayer and Salovey in 1997. The topic was further explained from Daniel Goleman (2000) according to its in correlation to leadership and several authors (Coope and Sawaf's, Bar-On, 1997) contributed to develop new emotional intelligent theories. Despite its early bird, there is still an ongoing debate on the definition of emotional intelligence.

**Method:** A diary study will be conducted on teams of two leadership positions. The study will be submitted from two to three weeks and supported by follow-up interviews every 4 or 5 days. The diary study allow for an explicit focus on the daily interaction between the leader and the follower, and how the daily fluctuations of a leader's behaviour impact the follower (Breevaart et al. 2014; Gevers and Demerouti, 2013).

**Implications for practitioners:** This study contributes to improve the existing emotional intelligent test and their further development. Researcher may find interesting to design new assessment methods taking into consideration variables such as teamwork, long-term evaluation and colleague's perceptions. In addition, the results of this study may help business companies to identify the factors considered more relevant for an emotional intelligent leader to be effective for its colleagues, and thus applying this into training and recruitment programs.

**Originality/value:** leadership effectiveness and its relation to emotional intelligence has already been analysed from previous research. Little literature focuses on colleague's

perceptions and uniquely by applying self-report, measurement tests or 360° test in static conditions. Therefore, this study aims at understanding subordinate's perceptions in a continuous time-frame, and whether this may be coherent with what tests are currently assessing.

**Keywords:** emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, subordinate's perceptions, perceived leadership effectiveness, subordinate's rating.

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## **Summary of abbreviations**

EI = Emotional intelligence

AET = Affective events theory

MSCEIT = Mayer Salovey Caruso emotional intelligent test

MEIS = Multi-factor emotional intelligent scale

STEM = Situational test of emotional management

STEU = Situational test of emotional understanding

TEIQue = Trait emotional intelligent questionnaire

SREIT = Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test

ECI = Emotional competence inventory

EQ-i = Bar-On emotional quotient inventory

# CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background

Emotional intelligence is still an under researched topic (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001) and is still in the early stages regarding theory development and testing. However, it is becoming more popular in the fields of business, education, leadership and management.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) created for the first time the term “emotional intelligence” which refers to the ability to manage, understand and develop emotions. The topic was also expanded from Goleman (1995) to understand different traits of emotional intelligence and its close relationship with leadership; self-awareness, self-esteem, social awareness and relationship management. Previous literature affirms that there is a big difference between regular and exceptional leaders; their level of EI (Clapp & Town, 2015). In fact, self-awareness – a component of leadership - is explaining the ability to manage one’s own and others’ emotion - a key aspect of EI. Boyatzis et al. (2011) have argued that leaders, those who lead and influence others, should have EI competencies such as confidence, emotional expression and influence.

Emotional intelligence was highly correlated to good performance towards collaborative teams. Snarey and Vaillant (1985) reported that, from a study research of 450 boys, intelligent quotient was little related to how well the boys performed at work as adults. Work performance was more closely influenced by the abilities of the boys to handle frustration, control emotions and get along with each other. More recently, Jordan *et al.* (2002) concluded that, from a research on team-working, emotionally intelligent individuals were able to form cohesive and effective work teams more quickly than less emotionally intelligent colleagues.

Emotional intelligence is also a good moderator of aggressive behaviours and workplace stress (Slaski and Cartwright 2003). Slaski and Cartwright (2003, 2004) reported that highly emotionally intelligent individuals can cope with stressful situations, maintaining better physical and psychological health than less emotionally intelligent managers.

Furthermore, Jordan and Troth (2002) found that respondents with higher level of EI were more able to engage in collaborative conflict resolution. In contrast, lower EI levels were associated with less effective abilities to handle conflicts in working situations. To conclude, the ability to use emotions can explain why and how individuals respond to a certain environment and increase their resilience in stressful situations (George, 2000).

This first introduction, intent to expose the need that working realities are facing; recruit leading position personnel which is able to deal with emotions. To recruit personnel with high level of EI, usually different typology of tests are used (MSCEIT, Bar's on, STEU, STEM) and implied in the selection or training procedures. An increasing number of companies is starting to measure EI on leadership positions because of the increasing evidence that the exclusive focus on results and performance will not create efficiency on others' working attitudes. Everyone has its own aim in mind, and it is hard to motivate people with proper's aim, it is rather important to understand the feelings of others and their perceptions of objectives. Emotional intelligence is undoubtedly becoming a necessary ability, or trait, of all the matters regarding the circumferential scope of leadership; team collaboration, stress handling, conflict resolution and change management. Anyway, measurement tests and EI theories seem to neglect the importance of relevant others perceptions (subordinates or supervisors) in the assessment procedure, which is a relevant component of both leadership and EI. In fact leaders who are capable of controlling their own emotions, understand the emotional state of others and have the ability to adapt leadership style according to the circumstances, are able to meet followers' expectations (Barling et al., 2000). By doing that, they are more likely to serve as role models for their followers and they can easily increase the level of trust among subordinates.

## **1.2 Problem statement and research question**

As stated above, there is increasing evidence of the important role EI plays in different dimensions of the workplace (George, 2000). Despite that, inconsistency on the theories and methods applied to measure EI and their comparability is still an on-going problem. In particular, there is a need to understand whether the different measurement methods are reliable, in the sense of being able to provide results that could be equally perceived from agents of the organizational environment (subordinates and supervisors), where EI is applied (Conte, 2005). Theory lacks in explaining the extent to which individuals who display high EI abilities and behaviours have a positive influence on those around them, and whether the positive influence is perceived in the same way from subordinates and superiors. It follows that, the results given from the tests are not necessarily evaluating the ability of a leader to manage its own and others' emotions in a practical context, rather they focus on assessing a basic knowledge of emotions and its pure management. In many areas such as leadership, team working, stress management and conflict resolution,

subordinates perception is totally relevant to understand effectiveness of emotional intelligence applied to leadership. Thus, the initial purpose of this research is to analyse the existing measurement tools of EI applied to leadership and to explain the reasons of their inadequacy, as they might not evaluate the effectiveness of EI and leadership considering follower perceptions through a collaborative work environment. The secondary and primary aim of this study will focus on exploring the perceptions of subordinates on the topic through a diary study, to research whether there could be a relationship with existing theories or even, the foundations for new theories. The overall aim can be expressed by the following research questions;

To what extent is subordinate perception present in the measurement test of EI?

How can subordinate perception enhance the effectiveness of EI applied to Leadership?

Which dimensions of EI can be further explored by considering subordinate perceptions?

### **1.3 Significance of the Study**

This study will provide significant implications for both business companies and researchers on the topic of emotional intelligence.

In fact, from current investigations of Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) EI should only be assessed with pure tests of objective performance rather than using self-report measures. Recently, multi-rater assessments of EI models were developed to circumvent the limitations of self-report measures (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). These limitations refer to the fact that there could be inaccuracy of respondent's self-knowledge or the willingness to present a socially desirable self to fake good. In fact, Lavenson and Rued, Paulhaus *et al.* (1992, 1998), observed that perceived emotional intelligence is not necessarily a good indicator of performance as measured by self-report assessments tests. Thus, this study contributes to the integration of the theories of this academic field, which lack on research regarding relevant others agreement on the efficiency of emotional intelligence on leadership realities.

From the company point of view, the results will play a supportive role in defining what is important to keep in mind when evaluating a leadership position. This can also be used to improve training, recruitment and selection program in companies. Furthermore, it will be helpful to understand how the perceptions of the colleagues are relevant in the evaluation of this process.

The innovative component of the research regards not only the new aspects analysed, but also the process implemented, which may be very unique in this field. Indeed, diary researches have not been implemented in this discipline so far.



## **CHAPTER 2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW**

The structure of the following pages will focus on explaining the major, widely-used measures and theories of EI, their applicability and divergence. The initial aim is to introduce the theories and diverse construct of EI (ability EI, trait EI, mixed models), followed by a summary of different measures of EI and their respective facets. This part is of relevant importance as it carefully analyses all components that are taken into consideration from each theory based test, to evaluate EI and its efficacy. This analysis represents the starting point of the research, as it leads to the evaluation of possible gaps of the theories and existing measurements methods and their inefficacy in considering subordinates perceptions.

### **2.1 Emotional intelligence Theories**

The definition of Emotional Intelligence has its theoretical roots in a true form of intelligence, connecting cognitive and emotional abilities (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, 1990). From this starting point, it would seem to follow that EI is capable of objective measurement and therefore be distinct from personality. Originally, Mayer and Salovey (1990) defined it as a social and personal intelligence; “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 actions”. Salovey and Mayer categorised EI as a set of mental abilities which relate to;

1. The ability to appraise and express emotions in self and others.
2. The ability to regulate emotions in self and others.
3. The ability to use emotions in adaptive ways.

Isen *et al.* and Russel (1999) have agreed to the view of Mayer and Salovey, in which EI is defined as a mixture of mental processing and emotional information, integrated with cognitive information. Also according to Daus and Ashkanasy (2005), Mayer and Salovey have provided satisfactory evidence of the management of emotions as possibly being a form of intelligence.

However, other several models and theories have been gradually developed.

Daniel Goleman (1995) was the first one developing an alternative model of EI (see table below) which is consistent with the idea that EI is placed at the intersection of emotional and cognitive processing. He defines EI as consisting of “abilities such as being able to

motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations, to control impulses and delay gratification, to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think, empathise and hope.”

Further refinement of the model was carried out from Goleman (2002), where the definition was extended to a wider range of personality traits and behavioural competencies. Because of considering EI more similar to a personal trait than an ability, Goleman’s EI model is regarded as a “mixed model”, whereas Mayer and Salovey’s is regarded as an “ability model”. This concept will be further analysed later in the chapter.

According to Goleman (2002), EI is made up of four elements; self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Self-awareness is referred as the ability of a leader to assess his/her own behaviour and ability to analyze situations before decision-making process. Social awareness is defined as having the ability to understand and recognize the emotions of others, while relationship management relates to a leader’s style of communication, rapport building and relationship building.

**Table 1. The four elements of emotional intelligence (D. Goleman, 2001)**

Category	Competency	Description
Self-awareness	Personal	Understanding feelings and using it for making decisions.
Self-management	Personal	The ability to regulate emotions and having restraint.
Social Awareness	Social	The ability to recognize the emotions of others.
Relationship Management	Social	The ability to influence the emotions of others.

*Source;* (Casad, 2012)

Bar-On (1999, 2000), developed a comparable “mixed model”, in which EI is defined as a non-cognitive ability sub-categorised in five broad categories;

1. Intrapersonal Emotion Skills (self-actualization and independence)
2. Interpersonal Emotion Skills (empathy and social responsibility)
3. Adaptability (reality testing and problem solving)
4. Stress Management (stress tolerance and impulse control)
5. General mood (optimism and happiness)

Both Goleman’s and Bar-On’s models are giving higher attention to personality traits rather than cognitive abilities as a form of intelligence. For this reason, these two models were previously criticised from Sternberg (2001) because of differing very slightly from personality traits of a “good person”. However, also Mayer and Salovey’s model has been frequently criticised because of its illogical tendency to identify normal behaviours as abilities of intelligence.

Another model to be illustrated concerns Executive EQ and Dulewicz and Higgs’(1999), which conceptualizes EI in terms of a set of traits and competencies, developed from Coope and Sawaf’s in 1997. For them, EI is composed from the interaction of seven elements and personal characteristics; self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence, decisiveness, conscientiousness and integrity. These seven dimensions are organized into three factors; drivers, constrainers and enablers (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000).

**Table 2. Summary table of Emotional Intelligence theories**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Theory</b>	<b>Categories of EI</b>
D. Goleman Performance Model (1995, 2002)	EI is a cluster of skills and competencies, which are focused on four main capabilities.	The four capabilities <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Self-awareness</li> <li>2. Self-management</li> <li>3. Social awareness</li> <li>4. Relationship management</li> </ol>
Bar-On’s EI Competencies Model (1997)	EI is a system of interconnected behaviour that arises from emotional and social competencies.	The model consists of five scales; <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Self-perception</li> <li>2. Self-expression</li> <li>3. Interpersonal</li> <li>4. Decision-making</li> <li>5. Stress management</li> </ol>
Mayer, Salovey and Caruso’s Ability Model (1990)	Information from the perceived understanding of emotions and managing of emotions is used to	Abilities and skills of EI can be divided in four areas – the ability to; <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Perceive emotions</li> </ol>

	facilitate thinking and guide our decision making.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>2. Use emotions to facilitate thought</li> <li>3. Understand emotions</li> <li>4. Manage emotions</li> </ol>
Executive EQ of Dulewicz and Higgs (1999)	EI is a set of traits and competencies based on the interaction of seven elements and personal characteristics.	<p>The seven elements are;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Self-awareness</li> <li>2. Emotional resilience</li> <li>3. Motivation</li> <li>4. Interpersonal sensitivity</li> <li>5. Influence</li> <li>6. Decisiveness</li> <li>7. Conscientiousness and integrity</li> </ol> <p>They are organized in three factors;</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Drivers</li> <li>2. Constrainers</li> <li>3. Enablers</li> </ol>

*Source: own elaboration*

The models presented above will be important to further analyse the disparate methods of assessing EI. Every theory illustrated, considers emotional intelligence in a different way and measurements of EI theories have been developed according to the means authors classified it. Thus, explaining the methods of classification is a key aspect because EI type will be best defined by method of measurement.

## **2.2 Methods of classifying EI**

There is a first distinction that has to be clarified in order to proceed with the illustration of EI and its classifications; *ability EI* and *trait EI*. This distinction was originally proposed by Furnham (2000) and it was principally based on the typology of test applied to measure EI; maximal performance test (ability EI) or self-report questionnaire (trait EI) (Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Pérez et al., 2005). Another important method of classification refers to what Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) call the three “streams” of EI. Stream 1 includes all the ability measures that are based on Mayer and Salovey’s model; stream 2 includes only

self-report measures based on Salovey and Mayer's model, stream 3 includes all the models which are not included in the Salovey and Mayer's model. This last one is also referred to as "mixed model" because it usually includes a mixture of personality and behavioural items; in particular, it refers to a combination of social skills and competencies which overlaps with personality traits (O'Boyle et al., 2011).

According to Petrides and Furnham's (2000) the distinction trait vs. ability is sufficiently categorising the various existing EI tests. In relation to this, it would be sufficient to classify stream 2 (self-report) and stream 3 (self-report mixed) under "trait" measures. However, in the current study, we will differentiate the terms in mixed EI (stream 3), trait EI (stream 2) and ability EI (stream 1) in order to adopt a language that is most representative of the existing literature regarding EI.

The question of whether EI is ability (Salovey & Grewal, 2005) or rather an emotional personality trait (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007) or again a mixture of the two, is an ongoing debate in the field of EI. As outlined previously, these different viewpoints have consequences for the measurement of EI and thus, decision regarding which measure to use should be based on which form of EI is relevant to a particular research project.

In the current study, no decision regarding the adoption or exclusions of a theory, and therefore a measurement method, will be carried out, because the aim of this research is exactly the one of examining and illustrating them.

### **2.2.1 Ability EI model**

Ability models identify EI under the category of intelligence, in which emotions and thoughts interact in meaningful and adaptive ways. In this case, EI is considered more as a spatial intelligence, except that it operates in emotional context. According to this method of classification, Ability models tests EI constructs related to the individual's *theoretical* understanding of emotions.

In the following pages, we will refer to "ability" based measures as tests containing ability-type items and questions that require participants to solve emotion-related problems, where answers are not necessarily correct or incorrect. The term will not only include ability-type items based directly on Mayer and Salovey's model.

These typologies of tests are considered a good indicator of the individual's ability to understand how emotions work. However, there are conflicting opinion regarding their effectiveness in predicting typical behaviour as well as trait based measures (O'Connor et al., 2017).

Ability EI is mostly measured from Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (see table 3, below), that is one of the more cited (1.500 academic studies) and supported by research. The main problem of this measurement test regards the very recent development of a new version (MSCEIT V.2), for which there are only few peer reviewed articles. Furthermore, the test was criticised to inadequately determine standards for experts and consensus scores (Matthews et al., 2002). Secondary problems scrutinize the correlation between MEIS (previous version of MSCEIT) and MSCEIT; it has not been examined yet. Thus, research conducted on MEIS cannot be used to support MSCEIT.

Two more recent related tests are becoming increasingly widespread in the application (original paper was cited 250 times). They were developed from MacCann and Roberts (2008); the Situational Test of Emotional Management (STEM) and the Situational Test of Emotional Understanding (STEU). The two tests complete each other; the STEM tends to measure emotional regulation in oneself, while STEU measures the knowledge of emotions. According to O'Connor et al. (2019), there is already a strong psychometric support for these tests.

### **2.2.2 Trait EI model**

The term “trait EI” will define trait based measures employing self-report items to measure EI. This term includes all the test that have not been classified as “mixed” or “stream 3” by other authors. Trait EI measures have tendency to assess typical behaviour rather than maximal performance, as well as predicting actual behaviour in a range of different circumstances (Petrides and Furnham, 2000).

Trait EI is basically measured with the Trait emotional intelligent questionnaire (TEIQue) (table 4), a scientific measurement instrument. This test was specifically designed to create a measure for the trait EI theory; it is not considered as an alternative questionnaire to evaluate “emotional intelligence” (Perides et al., 2001). The validity of this test is increasing; however, critiques regarding the similarity of some TEIQue facets with emotionality and sociability factors are an ongoing debate (Andrei, Siegling, Aloe, Baldaro & Petrides, 2015).

Another test with good internal consistency and test-retest reliability is the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) (Table 4). It measures trait EI according to self-reports of emotional skills and Salovey and Mayer’s model (1990). Although it has good reliability, the test was criticised for both its one-dimensional structure and the psychometric properties (Petrides and Furnham, 2000).

### **2.2.3 Mixed EI model**

Mixed models consider emotional intelligence as the resulting conglomerate of traits, dispositions, skills, competencies and abilities, even though the model involves neither emotion nor intelligence.

In previous research, as well as in this one, the term “mixed EI” was majorly used to refer to the following types of measurement; self-report and 360 degree form of assessment. These measurements tools were keen on assessing the prediction and improvement of performance in the workplace.

What differentiate “mixed EI” from “Ability EI” and “Trait EI” is their focus on emotional “competencies” which can theoretically be developed in individuals to enhance their professional success (Goleman, 1995). Furthermore, previous literature validate them as good predictors of multiple emotion-related outcomes including job satisfaction, organizational commitment (Miao et al., 2017) and job performance (O’Boyle et al., 2011). As it is possible to see from the table 5, Bar-On’s Emotional Quotient Inventory is one of the most widespread measurements of Mixed EI. Several studies of this test (Dawda and Hart 2000; Newsome et al. 2000) have reported that Bar-On’s is highly connected to established personality measures. Therefore, some authors (Davies et al. 1998; Mayer et al. 2000; Newsome et al. 2000) doubt about its validity and consider it as more similar to an assessment of social competence than pure EI. In Particular, Newsome et al. (2000) concluded that Bar-On’s is completely inadequate as a tool for selection. Only few studies have been examining the predictive validity of this test, which seems very similar to others cognitive ability test such as Big five.

An alternative measurement of mixed EI is the Emotional competence inventory (ECI) (table 5), a self-report and other report measures designed to assess emotional competencies identified by Goleman (1998) and Boyatzis (1996). ECI was analyzed from a study by Byrne, Dominick, Smither Reilly (2007) in order to understand whether its construct could be similar to the Big Five personality dimensions. They concluded that; firstly, there is no overlap between ECI self-ratings and personality and secondly, correlations examining convergent validity were significant but quite small in magnitude. However, this significant relationship disappeared after controlling personality and age of respondents.

**Table 3. Ability model approach of EI**

Name	Author	Items analysed	Critique
<b>Multifactor emotional intelligence scale (MEIS)</b>	Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000).	402 items with four subscales; 1. Perception 2. Assimilation 3. Understanding 4. Managing emotions It is assessed by using; - Target scoring - Consensus scoring - Expert scoring	Low reliability. Consensus scoring is in direct contrast with traditional measures of intelligence.
<b>Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligent test (MSCEIT V.2)</b>	Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2002).	Update of the MEIS with only 141 items. It provides a total EI score and four branch scores; 1. Perception of emotion 2. Integration and assimilation of emotion 3. Knowledge about emotions 4. Management of emotions	Few studies applying this method are published. Absence of scientific standards to determine the accuracy of consensus and expert scores.
<b>The situational test of emotion management (STEM) The situational test of</b>	MacCann and Roberts (2008).	STEM is based on 44 items: Anger (18 items); sadness (14 items) and fear (12 items). STEU is based on 42 items: 14 context-reduced, 14 with a personal-life context and 14 with a workplace context.	Further validation of the measures is needed. Higher reliability for STEM against STEU.



<b>emotional understanding (STEU)</b>			
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Source: own elaboration.

**Table 4. Trait model approach of EI**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Author</b>	<b>Items analysed</b>	<b>Critique</b>
<b>Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue). Long form and short form.</b>	Petrides and Furnahm (2001).	It consists of 153 self-report statements. It has four main factors; <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Well-being (trait optimism, trait happiness and self-esteem)</li> <li>2. Sociability (Emotional management, assertiveness and relationship)</li> <li>3. Emotionality (trait empathy, emotional perception, emotion expression and relationship)</li> <li>4. Self-control (emotion regulation, impulsiveness and stress management)</li> </ol>	TEIQue has been used in few studies. It has been criticised because of identifying part of the construct in personality and unrelated to cognitive abilities (e.g., Andrei et al., 2014; F. J. Ferguson & Austin, 2010; Mikolajczak, Luminet, et al., 2007).
<b>Self-report Emotional intelligence Test (SREIT)</b>	Schutte et al. (1998)	It is based on self-report statements and composed of four factors; <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Optimism/mood regulation</li> <li>2. Appraisal of emotions</li> <li>3. Social skills</li> <li>4. Utilization of emotions</li> </ol>	The model has been criticised for confusing ability and trait forms of EI.

Source: own elaboration.

**Table 5. Mixed Model approach of EI**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Autors</b>	<b>Items analysed</b>	<b>Critique</b>
<b>Emotional Competence inventory (ECI)</b>	Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000; Sala 2002.	Assess 110 items and 20 competencies under four clusters; 1. Self-awareness 2. Social awareness 3. Self-management 4. Social skills	Few peer-reviewed assessments of the validity and reliability have been published. Overlap with four of the Big Five dimensions.
<b>Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i)</b>	Bar-On, 1997.	133 items self-report measure, which assesses five composite scales; 1. Intrapersonal 2. Interpersonal 3. Adaptability 4. General mood 5. Stress management	It lacks discriminant validity evidence. The theory behind is vague.

*Source: own elaboration.*

Note that the measurement methods reviewed in the table were selected based on the number of citations, their validation and dissemination. Although other measures exist, they were not considered because of poor empirical evidence or fewer researches.

### **2.3 The problem of the existing measurement tools**

**Table 6. EI constructs and main differences**

<b>EI construct</b>	<b>Definition of EI</b>	<b>Basis for measurement</b>	<b>Typology of test</b>	<b>Critique</b>
<b>Ability EI</b>	Individual's theoretical understanding of emotions and their functioning.	EI measures are based on Maximal performance.	Test utilizes Question/items comparable to those found in IQ tests and all the ability-type	Tests do not tend to predict typical behaviour. Tests tend to have relatively poor

			items. They require respondents to solve emotion-related problems.	psychometric properties in terms of reliability and validity. Researchers critique that ability EI is nothing more than intelligence.
<b>Trait EI</b>	EI is a typical behaviour in emotional relevant situations (e.g., when an individual is confronted with stress or an upset friend).	EI measures are based on ongoing, typical behaviour that is possibly leading to positive outcomes.	They require participants to self-report on various statements. They tend to provide a good prediction of actual behaviours in a range of situation.	Results may overlap with personality. Respondents are not always good judges of their emotions-related abilities. There is possibility of Social desirability bias.
<b>Mixed models</b>	EI is a combination of traits, social skills and competencies that overlap with other personality traits.	EI measures are based on a broader set of emotion-related and social-related dispositions and competencies.	Self-report or 360 degree forms of assessment (self-report combined with multiple peer reports from supervisors, colleagues and	Not easy to implement if not in the context of workplace, where competencies can be trained.

			subordinates) (e.g., Bar-On)	
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*Source: own elaboration.*

As it is possible to see from the table, there are many differences that have to be taken into account in applying the diverse constructs of EI.

By using trait EI measures and self-report tools, there is a risk of social desirability bias, because respondents may answer questions in a strategic, socially desirable way. This happens especially when the results will be reviewed from a person of high importance for respondents (P. J. O'Connor, A. Hill, M. Kaya, and B. Martin, 2019). Another risk of this measurement concerns the fact that respondents may not be the best judges of their emotion-related abilities (Brackett et al., 2006; Sheldon et al., 2014; Boyatzis, 2018). There is a little question regarding the utility of self-report measures of EI and their predictive validity (O'Boyle et al., 2011; Miao et al., 2017).

On the other hand, ability based measures cannot be subjected to social desirability bias, because respondents are asked to solve emotion-based problems, usually more engaging than just matching agreements with statement as trait measures do. However, many theorist and researcher suggest that ability EI is nothing more than intelligence. This claim is supported by high correlations between ability EI and IQ, although some have provided evidence to the contrary (e.g., MacCann et al., 2014). In addition, ability EI measures do not tend to predict outcomes that they theoretically should predict (e.g., O'Boyle et al., 2011; Miao et al., 2017) because of poor psychometric properties. To sum up, there is a lack of discriminant validity; (1) EI measures have failed to converge on a common construct, (2) self-report EI measures appear to assess existing personality characteristics and emotional knowledge rather than emotional competencies.

Although the different forms of EI (trait, ability, mixed) are different in many aspects, they also show commonalities. In particular, the facets of the three constructs have conceptual overlaps relating to (1) perceiving emotions (in self and others), (2) regulating emotions in self, (3) regulating emotions in others and (4) strategically utilizing emotions. These commonalities are largely due to the early and influential work of Mayer and Salovey.

From these commonalities, it is clear that the three main constructs of EI agree on one aspect; EI is applied not only towards one self, but also in relation to others. As a consequence, EI should also be measured on others in relation to the self. Unfortunately, none of the test shown above is doing that, with the exception of some 360° tests applied in

mixed models. Furthermore, there is little research and literature referring to the possibility to evaluate EI under these conditions (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008).

Tests measuring EI neglect the consideration of the interpersonal context; a collective, collaborative, team-work environment. As previously mentioned, the interpersonal context is highly relevant both to measure EI and leadership. In the study of Yang, Huang and Wu (2001), teamwork was positive connected to project performance. Teamwork is one of the competencies included in the model of Goleman, Boyatzis, and Mckee (2013), consequently the effectiveness of leadership EI should be assessed during teamwork experiences. In addition, traits of emotional intelligence such as self-awareness and relationship management exhibit significant influence on project performance. How could relationship management, therefore EI, be assessed if not in a context of social relations? And how can self-awareness be assessed without any external agreement? Self-report to assess self-awareness could sound as a paradox.

Bordy (2004) has criticised the predictive validity of MSCEIT and other ability tests of EI on the basis that they assess knowledge of emotions. Having knowledge of emotions does not necessarily means that the individual has the ability to behave in accordance to its knowledge of emotions in a real-time situation. To conclude, it has been assessed that perceived (self-assessed) intelligence is not necessary a good indicator of performance as measured by objective cognitive tests (Levenson and Ruef 1992; Paulhus *et al.* 1998)

Therefore, the current research will investigate whether the tools commonly used to evaluate EI are providing results that can be matched with the perceptions of subordinates - subjects populating the collaborative and working environment of the test-taker. In this way, it should be possible to re-define whether these test's results are shared from the leader's subordinates and are effective in measuring what they should.

## **2.4 Propositions**

The research method aims to gather perceptions of leadership subordinates on its effectiveness and emotional intelligence through a diary research, so that subordinates can report their perspective in a real-time situation during the daily working activity. Before explaining the research method, it is necessary to deeply analyse the missing content of the current measurements methods. The concepts explained thereby will be part of the focus of this study and/or they may probably emerge naturally from the diary/interviews. These concepts will not be tested as hypothesis; rather they will be the starting point of observation for this exploratory study.

As previously stated, it is necessary to have others in the process of assessment. In addition, others' emotions (in this study, the team) can affect individual emotional intelligence (in this study, the leader); this concept will be introduced by the definition of team emotional climate. It is of complementary importance to explain the problem at the basis of self-awareness, self-management, self-perception and all the concepts of the self that in the current moment are majorly assessed by self-report tests. In detail, the need of a self-other agreement will be further explained.

These definitions are conducting to the propositions of this study.

#### **2.4.1 Team emotional climate**

The relevance and centrality of emotion to group life becomes evident when considering that many humans' emotions grow out of social interactions (Barsade and Gibson, 1998; Kemper, 1978). Team emotional climate is the perceptions of emotions and emotional exchanges that typify a workgroup and such perceptions are considered to have important consequences for group members (Liu & Liu, 2013). The effective events theory (AET) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996) illustrates that different experiences, events or circumstances can significantly impact emotional attitudes and reactions in the group work. It follows that every emotion, mood, feeling and emotional intelligence interact together to contribute to the creation of group's effective processes. More in detail, group's effective processes might be implicit or explicit; (1) implicit process refer to emotional contagion, behavioural entertainment and all those behaviour having the effect of transferring individual-level emotions to the group emotional state, (2) explicit process refer to the socially induced effects such as emotional experience in group members through effective influence (Liu & Liu, 2013).

According to House (1996), the effectiveness perspective of leadership depends on the situation, but the majority of studies till now have always disregarded for the context factor. Both individual-level emotions and team emotional climate are influenced from the context surrounding the latter. This includes, organizational and ethical norms, past and present group history and physical environment. To conclude, we can define group emotional climate as the combination of the previous variables, which in the end represent the group context and its circle of emotions.

The connection between emotional climate and team member attitudes is again explained from the effective events theory (AET) (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996). Low team cooperation and collaborations will be an effect of negative emotional climate, while a positive emotional climate will increase positive attitudes in the team group, increasing

happiness and job satisfaction. Team member job satisfaction, will then lead to higher individual-group work effectiveness (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996).

After team members have worked together for a relatively long period of time, they begin to develop relationship with one another and build trust in one another. Time on team processes might be an important component for the group emotional intelligence, but it may be examined in correlation with a leadership position as they may affect norms that are developed from the team they lead (Koman and Wolff, 2007).

#### **2.4.2 Team leader emotional intelligence and team emotional climate**

The connection between leader emotional intelligence and team member effectiveness depends on the situation. According to the contingency perspective of leadership theory (House, 1996) the leadership process needs to be evaluated taking into consideration both leader character and context character. Contingency factors are considered as environmental factors; task structure, formal power system and work teams. These factors are affecting leadership effectiveness and subordinate's perception of several needs (Liu & Liu, 2013).

The "substitute for leadership" theory of Kerr and Jernier (1978), specifically addresses the importance of situational factors as nearly substitute of the leadership effective behaviours, and therefore having important effect on subordinates. Leader emotional intelligence might influence team members and their effectiveness because subordinate will have different needs depending on the level of emotional intelligence of the leader.

To conclude, both team emotional climate and team context could tone down the relationship between emotionally intelligent leader and team member effectiveness. In practice, when emotional intelligent leadership is absent, team emotional climate could act as a substitute for it. Vice versa, when team positive emotional climate is lacking, a good team leader could influence the team and promote a positive environment.

#### **2.4.3 Self-awareness**

Self-awareness is one of the most important features in analysing both emotional intelligence and leadership. In fact, self-awareness is one of the traits that leadership and emotional intelligence theories have in common; hence, it is of constitutional interest to denote this term before analysing the latter case.

From the recent literature about this topic, self-awareness should be evaluated by self-other agreements; by comparing one individual's rating of his/her behaviour to ratings of that individual given by others (Moshavi, Brown, & Dodd, 2003). Self-other agreements were

previously used as tools to assess leadership effectiveness, but never in correlation to emotional intelligence.

Self-aware subjects are able to better understand and absorb feelings of others into their attitudes and manage this information to influence others. Leader awareness of subordinates' perceptions has important consequences because subordinates make decisions, such as whether to follow a leader, based on their perceptions of the leader (Ashford, 1989). It is evident that, self-other agreement on leader self-awareness have big impact in understanding leadership effectiveness from a subordinates' perspective.

Previous research confirmed the importance of self-other agreement in the evaluation of leadership self-awareness (Moshavi et al., 2003). In particular, in a study conducted by Moshavi, Brown and Dodd the relationship between self-other agreement and self-awareness in leadership was analysed. They discovered that self-underestimation of leaders was positively connected with performance outcomes, and thus positive effects experienced from subordinates of the under-estimator. In addition, when self-awareness of an individual was positive, this didn't consequently mean that self-other agreement was also showing positive results. In fact, while self-awareness may lead to the most positive individual outcome, underestimation may lead to the most positive outcomes for relevant others (Sosik, 2001; Sosik and Megerian, 1999). In the same study, transformational leadership was previously evaluated by understanding the extent to which subordinates and supervisors are in agreement on how the transformational leadership will affect subordinates satisfaction with supervision (Sosik and Megerian, 1999). Additionally, subordinates of under-estimators reported greater trust in managers than subordinates of over-estimators (Sosik, 2001). Under-estimators are often perceived as being motivated by a concern of others than for themselves, and they may be viewed by subordinates as more altruistic than leaders who are in-agreement or overestimating their capabilities (Sosik, 2001). The altruistic behaviour is usually predetermining job satisfaction, which is itself affected by leadership behaviours and the concerns that leaders express to their followers (Bass, 1990).

In other words, perceptions of followers regarding their leaders are intrinsically connected to the performance that as a consequence, results from the team. Subsequently, when team performance is good this implicate that team member have good perceptions of their leader effectiveness. However, as illustrated before, team performance can also be a consequence of a positive team emotional climate, which is in fact substituting leadership effectiveness.



In any case, research till now has neglected the evaluation of team performance to assess EI leadership effectiveness. This is why team performance and subordinates' ratings will compound a central focus of the study.

This study is further supported by poverty of research carefully concerning the temporal order of self-awareness, leadership effectiveness, subordinates agreement and performance. Does self-follower agreement on leadership attitude precede performance or is it simultaneous to leadership behaviour? (Moshavi et al., 2003). Further exploration of this work will seek to investigate on what contributes to leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence over a relatively long period of time; this to understand how self-awareness of the leader relates and evolves to relevant others.

From this, the final research questions;

To what extent is subordinate perception present in the measurement test of EI?

How can subordinate perception enhance the effectiveness of EI applied to Leadership?

Which dimensions of EI can be further explored by considering subordinate perceptions?

Consequently, the propositions of this study;

P.1 How is an emotional intelligent leader perceived from his/her followers?

P.2 To what extent leadership emotional intelligence contributes to team effective performance?

P.3 What is the effect of EI leadership on team emotional climate? Can emotional climate influence leader emotional intelligence?

P.4 How is leader self-awareness related to subordinate's perceptions of its level of EI and leadership effectiveness?

The propositions of this study might change according to the results obtained from the research. As the study has an exploratory purpose, the results may lead to different outcomes and theory development.

## **2.5 Literature review**

The table below summarizes the main articles which contributed to the development of the theoretical framework, introduction and propositions. The papers are divided by topics; leadership and emotional intelligence, theories and measurement methods, subordinates' perceptions of supervisors and team emotional climate and follower-supervisor relationship.

This table is only a brief recapitulation of the literature review, a more complete version can be found in the excel file attached with the master thesis exposé. The excel file illustrates in detail the main contribution that each paper provided to the current study.

**Table 7. Table of the literature review**

<b>Topic</b>	<b>Title</b>	<b>Author (year), Journal</b>	<b>Contribution</b>
<b>Leadership and emotional intelligence</b>	Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence; an exploratory study	(J. Barling, F. Slater, E.K. Kellowey, 2000) <i>Leadership &amp; development organization Journal</i>	Individuals high in EI are capable of effective leadership. There are three main factors of EI that are common in transformational leadership; idealized influence, inspirational motivation and individualized consideration.
	Human relations emotional intelligence	(J. M. George, 2000) <i>Human relations</i>	In this paper, it is proposed that emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership in organizations. Then it is proposed how emotional intelligence contributes to effective leadership by focusing on five essential elements of leader effectiveness.
	Combinative aspects of leadership style and emotional	(Peer review, 2014) <i>Leadership &amp; Organization</i>	It connects different leadership styles with emotional intelligence

	intelligence	<i>Development Journal, Emerald insight</i>	competencies.
	Emotional intelligence and its relationship to workplace performance outcomes of leadership effectiveness	(D. Rosete and J. Ciarrochi, 2004) <i>Leadership &amp; organization development journal</i>	This study seeks to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI), personality, cognitive intelligence and leadership effectiveness.
<b>Theories and measurements methods</b>	MSCEIT - Mayer-Salovey - Caruso Emotional Intelligence test	(J. D. Mayer, P. Salovey, D. R. Caruso adapted from Mike Gosling, 2010) <i>Multi-health Systems Inc.</i>	Provide detailed description of the Mayer and Salovey's ability EI approach. Describe the related emotional intelligence tests; MSCEIT and MEIS.
	The measurement of emotional intelligence; a critical review of the literature and recommendations for researchers and practitioners	(P. J. O'Connor, A. Hill, M. Kaya, B. Martin, 2019) <i>Frontiers in psychology</i>	Describes the different classifications of EI; Trait EI, Ability EI, mixed model EI. Describes the most used measurement tests for every categorisation of EI.

	A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures	(J. M. Conte, 2005) <i>Journal of organizational behaviour</i>	Critiques the existing measurement methods of EI; they fail to converge to a common construct; therefore it is difficult to compare them. The paper points out that some measurement methods may assess personality traits rather than EI.
	The Incremental Validity of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue): A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis	(F. Andrei, A. Siegling, A. Aloe et al., 2016) <i>Journal of Personality Assessment</i>	This paper investigates a criticism against the conceptualization of emotional intelligence as a personality trait as it may overlaps considerably with personality dimensions and, therefore, has weak utility. A systematic review and meta-analysis were conducted to synthesize the literature examining the incremental validity of the 2 adult self-report forms of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue).
<b>Subordinates</b>	Perceptions and emotional	(Herman H. M. Tse, Ashlea C. Troth,	This study investigates correlation between

<b>perceptions of supervisors</b>	experiences in differential supervisor-subordinates relationship	2011) <i>Leadership &amp; Development organization journal</i>	positive or negative subordinates' perceptions on their LMX (Leader-member exchange) relationship.
	Leader behaviours and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support	(T. M. Amabile, E. A. Schatzel, G. B. Moneta, S. J. Kramer, 2004) <i>The Leadership Quarterly</i>	This exploratory study investigated leader behaviours related to perceived leader support, encompassing both Instrumental and socio-emotional support. Leader support was positively related to the peer-rated creativity of subordinates working on creative projects in seven different companies.
	Impact of Leader's Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Behaviour on Perceived Leadership Effectiveness: A Multiple Source View	(Deepika Dabke, 2016) <i>Business perspective and Research, SAGE Publications</i>	This paper gives evidence of a strong positive association between the leader's EI and subordinate's leadership effectiveness perception by using multiple source tools.
<b>Team emotional</b>	Effects of team leader emotional	(X. Y. Liu, J. Liu, 2012)	This paper defines team emotional climate and

<b>climate and follower-supervisor relationship</b>	intelligence and team emotional climate on team member job satisfaction	<i>Nakai Business Review International, Emerald insights</i>	its role in the leader-follower relationship as an important moderator. It considerate team emotional climate also in relation to member job satisfaction.
	A Multilevel Analysis of Relationships Between Leaders' and Subordinates' Emotional Intelligence and Emotional Outcomes	(K. Kafetsios, J. B. Nezelek, A. Vassiou, 2011) <i>Journal of applied social psychology, Wiley Periodicals</i>	This study introduces the correlation between Leader EI and both subordinate emotional states and job satisfaction. Leaders with higher self awareness of their EI were producing lower job satisfaction.
	Follower emotional intelligence; A Mediator between Transformational leadership and follower outcomes	(Personnel review, 2017) <i>Emerald publishing</i>	This paper underlines the importance of emotional intelligence for the followers to have a realistic understanding about themselves and their capabilities. This can be instrumental to understand their growth, development and worthwhile accomplishment in their job. The research proves that Follower EI fully mediates between

			transformational leadership and job stress.
	Emotional intelligence competencies in the team and team leader. A multi-level examination of the impact of emotional intelligence on team performance	(E. S. Koman, S. B. Wolff, 2008) <i>Journal of Management Development</i>	This paper's findings increase understanding of the role of emotion in supervisor-subordinate relationships and how this is reflected in relationships of differential quality. The findings also suggest ways to enhance the quality of leader member exchanges and ultimately improve employee experiences.

## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter represent the methodology adopted to gain more understanding on the research of the topic. In this, the explanation of the research design and sampling type is illustrated. The last part of the chapter will discuss the analysis method used to make adequate use of collected data.

### 3.2 Qualitative research approach

Leadership and Emotional intelligence were analysed from many fields of literature, but none of the previous studies analysed the topic by taking into consideration subordinate perceptions of leadership and emotional intelligence. This study aims at covering this gap. Additionally, previous studies were mainly conducted by using quantitative research approach as well as the use of diverse tests, listed in the theoretical framework, to measure emotional intelligence. For this reason, this study was conducted through qualitative research and avoiding using any of the different typology of tests to pre-assess EI. This

qualitative study will enhance the understanding of emotional intelligence applied to leadership from a subordinate point of view. As to obtain a much deeper knowledge of the topic, both a diary and semi-structured interviews will be conducted to address the following research question;

To what extent is subordinate perception present in the measurement test of EI?

How can subordinate perception enhance the effectiveness of EI applied to Leadership?

Which dimensions of EI can be further explored by considering subordinate perceptions?

Most of the issues concerning the field of emotions and leadership are a matter of confidentiality and sensitivity which can be more efficiently approached with the submission of a diary and consequently by follow-up and in depth-interviews. The term “diary” is used here to explain the process by which individuals are commissioned by the investigator to maintain such record over some specified period of time according to a set of instructions. The employment of diary materials, when coupled with a series of interviews based on the diary, is also similar to the “life history” method ( Zimmerman, Lawrence Wieder, 1977). Diary narratives allow the researcher to get a deeper perspective of the writer on the topic, rather than drawing generalizations from the study. The most important topics emerging from the diary are directly addressed from the interviews, which become a tool for triangulation. In addition, interviews have the function to address those topics not directly emerged from the diary narratives.

The process is the one of firstly analysing diaries and then, building interviews according to what emerged and what did not emerge from it.

### **3.3 Research design**

**Diary format.** The research aims at understanding how subordinate perceptions contributes to defining the effectiveness of EI applied to leadership. As for this, the diary research method will be applied. The rationale of the diary approach involves more fully, exploiting the subject as both observer and informant. By requesting that subjects keep a chronologically organized diary or log of daily activities, individuals will be asked to report every day their emotions and feelings, their observation of the leader and other relevant observations (Zimmerman, Lawrence Wieder, 1977). Some daily input questions will be sent every day to individuals firstly to remind them where to focus in their narratives and secondly just to increase their commitment. Examples are “how are you today?”, “was there something important happening? How are you feeling about it?”, “how was the interaction with your boss? How did you perceive him?”.



The diary research will be conducted for two weeks, but reporters will be writing on their diaries for 9 days, because of two weekends and one day of holiday (1<sup>st</sup> of November). Diarists will be writing narratives each day before leaving the place of work or in the morning before starting to work.

As according to Zimmermann and Lawrence Wieder (1997), the form of the elicitation must be fitted to the requirements of the field setting and the characteristics of informants. Indeed, the diary design will be conducted in three different manner because of the need of adaptation to the circumstances and respondents' needs.

In the first case, the researcher will be privately sending "input" questions to reporter which in turn will be providing narrative through email and, in one case, through vocal messages. In the second case, anonymity needs to be privileged because of previous relationship between researcher and reporters, therefore individuals will be writing their notes on an anonymous Google document shared with the researcher. In this way, the researcher can read reporter's notes without damaging anonymity and privacy. In the third case there will be an intermediary between reporter and researcher; reporters' notes will be provided from the intermediary on a Word document. In this case, as notes of reporters may be very brief and direct, the second week of research, reporters will be asked to complete a file excel with specific annotations (see appendix). Thus, the diaries employed in the research are (1) planned before the execution of the diary, (2) prepared according to a set of instructions, (3) limited to a span of five working-days and (4) employed as a basis of an interview with the diarist (Zimmerman, Lawrence Wieder, 1977).

**Interviews format.** In the course of field of the research, one typically employs some type of interviews, structured or unstructured, to elicit information going beyond what can be obtained from the interviews (Zimmerman, Lawrence Wieder, 1977). Interviews will be conducted in two separate time; one interview after the first week of diary and a second interview after the second week of the diary. By doing that, it is possible to develop interviews according to topics emerging from diary narratives and other topics not directly addressed. Indeed, the diarists is subjected to interviews based on the diary in which he or she is asked not only to expand the reportage, but also questioned on the less directly observable features of the events recorded.

In order to render the transcript perceptions as comprehensive, naturalistic, and unobtrusive as possible there will be no introducing definition of Emotional Intelligence. It will be necessary to clearly inform participants that the aim of the diary is not to collect judgements about leadership effectiveness, rather to gather free descriptions of any salient

events occurring in the participants' workdays, with a regard on leader behaviour and emotions. Furthermore, the purpose of this study - analyse Emotionally Intelligent Leaders effectiveness from a subordinate's point of view - will not be explicitly mentioned to avoid bias.

A relevant level of anonymity will be maintained in order to avoid participants to omit important facts that could provide crucial information for the research. To do this, it is needed to explicitly state that the information obtained from the diary will not be shown to the leader or any other actor possibly affecting the research outcomes.

The diary interview converts the diary - a source of data in its own right - into a question-generating and, hence, data-generating device (Zimmerman, Lawrence Wieder, 1977). The researcher will develop an interview guide, grouping major topics of research projects and matching them with diary narratives. This will help to maximise the themes coverage of the project as a whole. The questions will be designed to be as open-ended as possible to enable participants to express themselves without boundaries. Confidentiality is key to ensure the interviewees will discuss their experiences freely. Unfortunately, for some of them the previous relationship with the interviewer may influence some answers. However, this will be directly addressed in the limitations of the study.

The interview's location will be decided upon request of the interviewees, which enhanced the opportunity for them to be comfortable. In most cases, individuals may prefer to conduct interviews in their office or in working environment, and this could help the researcher to have a deeper insight of the working context surrounding individuals.

Fourteen diaries will be conducted; ten diaries and interviews will be conducted in Italian, the remaining four will be conducted in English. Each interview could last from 12 to 40 minutes. Data confidentiality will be guaranteed through a signed consent form. Each interview will be tape recorded, transcribed and summarized within a few days following the interviews. For what concerns the possibly not recorded interviews, information will be typed down during the interview and reviewed directly after.

Before starting each interview, respondents will be asked to talk about their role in their company and explain how they feel in that moment. This helps to obtain higher familiarity and freedom of answers. Depending on the participant's reactions, some unanticipated questions may be raised during the interviews and some others may be reformulated to obtain a higher clarity of explanation (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2009). Questions that will be possibly used could be "Why did you do that?", "Why that emotion was important for you in that moment?", "How do you think it can contribute to better working

relationship?” etc. If and when possible, questions regarding past or previous experiences might be also used, in order to make a comparison with the current situation. Questions addressing confrontational perspective may also be useful when respondents feel shy or need to be encouraged to dig deeper into a topic (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2009).

The first interview will focus more on detailed topics addressing the research gap as well as some topics emerging from the diaries, while the second interview will focus on more general questions regarding happenings and events which characterised the two weeks of the diary. To finish the interview, respondents will be asked whether they wished to add something particular and their general opinion on the two weeks passed by.

### **3.4 Participants**

The concept of saturation, occurring at the point when data gathered is no longer producing new themes, can be a way to determine the sample size (Guest, Bunce, & Johnson, 2006). The original aim of this study is to select two company realities inside which to select one person on a leadership position and at least five subordinates under this position. In this case it could have been possible to obtain a comparison. In the end, three realities will be analysed and respectively three leadership positions with five subordinates for each of them in two cases, four subordinates in one case. Subordinates will be selected from their leaders to participate voluntarily in the project.

As the present research is not related to any specific industry, participants are selected from organizations across a range of industries. The participants choice was mainly done through telephone calls, emails and previous contacts obtained from past working experiences of the researcher. The targeted area will be mainly in Italy – two companies – and one in China. The decision of conducting the study in Italy was supported by the avoidance of language bias and inability of expression, which can be particularly high when dealing with emotions and leader’s observation – individuals may face high problems in expressing their emotions in another language. In addition, by doing it in the same geographical area, it will be possible to conduct interviews in the field – in the office where they work - and face-to-face.

As stated above, the first group of participants consists of five subordinates of a research department of medium/small automotive company. The leader of this group is the head of the research department in which around 25 employees are working, while the company overall accounts for around 4.000 employees. The second group consists of five subordinates working in a small company of HR consulting and development. In this case, the leader is identified as the head of the software department as well as general director of

the company. The third reality consists of four subordinates employed in a tax advisor company from China. The company is a multinational with different offices in Asia and Italy, with around 100 employees. In this last case, the leader is the CEO of the company as well as the founder of the company which accounts for around 20 employees in the office in China – where the project is conducted.

Most of the sample selected has more than ten years of work experience in the field. Half of the sample is advanced in age (35 – 40), while the other half is younger (24- 30). Six of the respondents are female and the remaining is represented by males.

To conclude, teams were selected based on this criteria;

- The number of team member has to be between 5 and 10.
- The team members have worked together for at least more than one month; this to ensure that the team has already established working relationship in past experiences.
- A formal leader is recognized from the team members.
- Team member interaction was frequent; interaction with each other for at least one part of the day.

### **3.3.1 Reliability**

Reliability will be maintained by accurate interpretation of the diary's transcriptions. All the information will be double-checked with respondents to confirm the interpretations concluded from the researcher. If possible, the transcriptions will be checked from an external subject and compared with the researcher's perspective to confirm the theory emerged (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2009).

### **3.3.2 Internal validity**

The internal validity will be supported by the triangulation executed with both the diary and the follow-up interview. The diary phase will be an important moment to check for the possible distortions of data, doubts or any other inconsistency that may occur. By checking data accurately, it will be possible to develop a more specific follow-up interview and narrowing down the questions to specifically address the problem.

Internal validity has to be consistent with the research question and problem statement. This doesn't exclude the fact that a completely new theory could emerge from the study, which in practice doesn't have that much to do with the original research question, but rather improves the topic in a completely different direction (Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill, 2009).

### **3.3.3 External validity**

External validity will be maintained by assuring that the results are sufficiently relevant and capable of being transmitted to other similar settings. It is important to analyse the topic until outcomes can be generalised to another similar reality – a team with a recognised leader from a different business sector.

### **3.4 Limitations of the study**

Transparency would be of fundamental importance; during the diary phase this problem may not occur as the respondents will not be answering directly the researcher, but it could be an issue of the follow-up interviews. In addition, as the process will last three weeks, respondents may be influenced from the fact of beginning to know the researcher. In the process, it could be possible that initial answers from respondents may be too short and incomplete (lack of confidence to the interviewer). Vice versa, some respondents may gain too much confidence after three weeks, and therefore go into the substance of matters unrelated to the research.

The researcher must not have membership-status to allow an objective interpretation of the data and to avoid fear in respondents to give comments that may compromise their working relationship with the leader or any other member of the team.

The team-leadership relationship should not be analysed from the researcher, to prevent negative or positive influence on the interpretation of the results.

Having an in-situ logging diary would probably give better results than participants writing information at the end of the day. Some events may be perceived differently after a certain amount of hours and some others may be forgotten.

The time frame of the research could constitute a restriction for the research. It is likely that two or three weeks will not be enough time to understand the evolution of emotional intelligence on leadership and subordinates perspective. Additional time may be needed to better understand follower-supervisor mechanisms as well as the emotions surrounding the latter, which is usually a process developing over time.

This research is only addressing a subordinate perception, while perceptions of supervisors and colleagues may also be relevant. The inability to do that (due to time issues) may influence the results of the research.

Another last limitation will probably regard the language; interviews and diary transcripts may be conducted in Italian or English language. The translation may constitute a problem when not representative of the native speaker description.

### **Data analysis**

The data analysis will be conducted with the software Maxqda. The information obtained both from the diary and the interviews will be inserted into the software. Then, relevant content will be analysed and coded in order to provide a basis for theoretical development.

### 3.5 PLAN OF WORK

**Table 8. Plan of work**

<b>DATES</b>	<b>OBJECTIVES</b>	
<b>31.09.2019</b>	Exposè hand-in	
<b>31.09 – 15.10</b>	1. Contacting companies, selecting the sample 2. Diary and survey design 3. Refinement of literature review when needed	
<b>15.10 – 31.10</b>	1. Complete methodology design 2. Complete sample selection	
	Diary submission	
	31.10 – 06.11	1. Diary study submission; first phase 2. First follow-up interview (06.11)
	06.11 – 13.11	1. Diary submission; second phase 2. Second follow-up interview (17.11)
	13.11 – 20.11	1. Diary submission; third phase 2. Final follow-up interview (to define)
<b>20. 11 – 9.12</b>	1. Data elaboration and refinement 2. Data Analysis	
<b>9.12 – 31.12</b>	Propositions development, theory refinement and conclusion	

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