Leading in the 21st century: The effect of emotional intelligence on leadership competence

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Abstract:
The aim of the study. The importance of emotional intelligence in the 21st century has grown considerably, when it comes to the world of work, and has created an emergence of research literature around the topic in the past decades. Especially, when talking about leadership, there is an increasing emphasis on emotional, communication and interpersonal skills that are needed for leaders to navigate in the ever-changing work environment and to tackle different, multidimensional challenges. The current world situation and changes in it has also placed new demands on both employees and managers as well as probably permanently altered the way we do work and have understood it previously. Today, leadership ability is often studied through competences, as they provide an easily understandable and measurable approach to a demanding and complex subject. The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which emotional intelligence and its different scales are associated with leadership competences and differentiate the most relevant applications these findings have in real life. The impact of gender and job level was also examined.
Methods. The data consisted of 482 individuals who took part in competence assessments, as part of recruitment processes, conducted by a private talent management consultancy between 2020 and 2023. Their emotional intelligence was assessed by the EIP3 questionnaire, which measures the overall emotional intelligence and additionally, the 16 subscales of emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the respondents also completed the PAPI3+ questionnaire, which was used to assess their ability in three different leadership competences: 'Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging', and 'Resilience'. The relationship between emotional intelligence, gender and job level, and the three leadership competences was examined using regression models.
Results. The results of the study showed a statistically significant association between emotional intelligence and leadership competence. When looking at each of the three leadership competences, statistically significant associations were found across a number of different emotional intelligence subscales, indicating that emotional intelligence is indeed an important key factor underlying leadership ability.
Conclusions. The findings in this study highlights emotional intelligence as a crucial factor when predicting leadership performance and competence. Future research efforts should focus on understanding this connection in more depth and studying the effect of emotional intelligence on other leadership competences as well.

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Tiivistelmä:
Tutkimuksen tarkoitus. Tunneälykkyyden merkitys työelämässä on kasvanut huomattavasti viimeisten vuosikymmenten aikana ja tutkimuskirjallisuus liittyen tunneälykkyyteen ja työntekoon on kasvanut tuona aikana huomattavasti. Erityisesti johtajuudesta puhuttaessa korostuvat yhä enemmän tunneäly-, viestintä- ja ihmissuhdetaidot, joita johtajat tarvitsevat navigoidakseen jatkuvasti muuttuvassa työympäristössä ja selvitäkseen erilaisista, moniulotteisista haasteista, joita kohtaavat arjessaan. Tämänhetkinen maailmantilanne ja siinä tapahtuneet muutokset ovat myös asettaneet uusia vaatimuksia sekä työntekijöille että johtajille ja luultavasti muuttaneet pysyvästi sitä, miten työn ymmärrämme ja miten sitä teemme. Nykyään johtamiskykyä tutkitaan usein kompetenssien avulla, koska ne tarjoavat helposti ymmärrettävän ja mitattavissa olevan lähestymistavan vaativaan ja monimutkaiseen aiheeseen. Tämän tutkimuksen tarkoituksena oli tutkia, missä määrin tunneälykkyys ja sen eri skaalat ovat yhteydessä johtamiskompetensseihin, ja samalla tunnistaa tulosten pohjalta tärkeimmät implikaatiot käytännön näkökulmasta. Myös sukupuolen ja työtason vaikutusta tarkasteltiin.
Metodit. Tutkimusaineisto koostui 482 henkilöstä, jotka osallistuivat osana työnhakuprosessejaan yksityisen konsulttiyrityksen suorittamiin kyvykkyyden arviointeihin vuosina 2020–2023. Heidän tunneälykkyyttään arvioitiin EIP3-kyselyn avulla, joka mittasi tunneälykkyyttä sekä kokonaisuutena, että sen 16 eri alaskaalan pohjalta. Lisäksi vastaajat täyttivät PAPI3+-kyselyn, jonka avulla arvioitiin heidän kyvykkyyttään kolmessa eri johtamiskompetenssissa. Tunneälykkyyden, sukupuolen ja työtehtävien tason sekä kolmen johtamisosaamisen välistä suhdetta tutkittiin regressiomallien avulla.
Tulokset. Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittivat, että tunneälykkyyden ja johtamiskompetenssien välillä oli tilastollisesti merkitsevä yhteys. Kun tarkasteltiin kutakin tutkimukseen valittua kolmea johtamiskompetenssia, havaittiin tilastollisesti merkittäviä yhteyksiä useisiin tunneälykkyyden eri skaaloihin, mikä osoittaa, että tunneälykkyys on todellakin tärkeä avaintekijä johtamiskyvyn taustalla.
Johtopäätökset. Tämän tutkimukset tulokset indikoivat tunteisiin liittyvien tietojen ja taitojen olevan keskeinen osa johtamiskäyttäytymistä sekä johtamiseen tarvittavia kompetensseja. Tulevaisuudessa tulisi tätä yhteyttä tutkia vielä tutkia ja ymmärtää syvemmin, sekä tarkastella tunneälyn vaikutusta myös muihin johtamiskompetensseihin.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction

Leadership has always been a key point of interest in organizations and is currently one of the most extensively studied areas of human behavior (Fries, Kammerlander & Leitterstorf, 2021). Good and effective leadership has been previously studied through different measures of cognitive intelligence, but an increasing amount of literature has found a significant connection between EI and leadership (Goleman, 2021, McCleskey, 2014). This is particularly emphasized in today's work environment and culture, with a lot of e.g., economic and environmental challenges happening around us (Horner, 1997; Marquardt, 2000; Marquez, 2015) along with changes in work after the global Covid-19 pandemic (Hartwell & Devinney, 2021; Hughes, Boothroyd & Pennington, 2023; Kirchner, Ipsen & Hansen, 2021) and with younger generations starting their careers (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). This present study aims to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership competences and discuss how EI's dimensions might affect the different competences associated with good leadership capability. The purpose is to also study how these relationships are seen in people of different gender and on different job levels.

1.1 Emotional intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) was first presented in the early 1970's when it was more seen as a part of intelligence rather than its own concept (McCleskey, 2014). Not until the early 1990's was it described more in detail by Peter Salovey and J.D. "Jack" Mayer when they presented a framework to EI in two articles published in 1990 and 1993 and were, at the same time, the first to give a name to the concept. Albeit published nearly 30 years ago their framework is still considered one of the most relevant in the study of EI, explaining it as "a type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, pp. 180). They have since clarified and updated their 1990 and 1993 articles in a series of many research articles circling around the topic and are considered the pioneers in the EI ability model framework (Salovey & Mayer, 1993). Their model is constructed of four linked abilities of emotional intelligence: perceiving emotions, facilitating thought using emotions, understanding emotions and managing emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This marked the beginning for the 20 years of research on EI and was later extended to additional theories and frameworks underlying it, most importantly the trait and mixed

models - which will be introduced in more detail in the following chapters - and spread across many different research fields (McCleskey, 2014).

In addition to Mayer and Salovey, Daniel Goleman and Richard E. Boyatzis, and Reuven Bar-On have greatly impacted the research on EI having presented two different mixed model approaches to EI that cover both its emotional and social competences (ETCs) (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995). Goleman, in his work, stood as a pioneer linking emotional intelligence and its dimensions together with different leadership competences and started a wave of research related to this topic with his 1995 bestseller "Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ". In his book and in later related publications he presented, together with Boyatzis, a framework of EI where it is divided into four separate emotional and social competences: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. In their research EI was also seen as something greatly connected to effective performance in the workplace and leadership (Boyatzis, 2006, 2009; Boyatzis, Goleman & Rhee, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002). Bar-On, although also understanding EI through its emotional and social competences, separated it into five different competences: interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, stress management, adaptability and general mood (Bar-On, 1997, 2006). Later he also went on to expand his research to studying the connection between his EI framework and performance in the workplace (Bar-On, 2006).

The third major category of EI was first introduced by K. V. Petrides and is known as the trait model of EI (Petrides, Pita & Kokkinaki, 2007). It is a more recent addition to the vast amount of EI theories and frameworks being introduced in 2007 and contradicts the previous research literature on the subject presenting EI as a trait rather than an ability or a set of skills and competences (Petrides, 2010; Petrides et al., 2007). In addition to these three major EI models and theories, the ability, trait and mixed models, there is a continuously growing literature of contradicting theories and those adding to the existing frameworks (Cherniss, 2010).

Even though the research literature on EI has grown quite big during recent years and it is a very popular topic especially on its connection to work performance and wellbeing the research is still quite lacking (McCleskey, 2014). So far there isn't much consensus amongst the literature on the definition of EI and whether it should be seen as an ability, a trait, or something in between (Cherniss, 2010; Locke, 2005). Cherniss (2010) identified this as one

of the three main issues regarding EI and addressed some of the other debate in the field circling around the topic. Partly related to the challenges in defining EI, the second issue is about the conflicting views regarding to its existing measures and the validity of them. The third issue that has generated concern and stems from the challenges defining EI, is the significance that EI has in its connection to work performance and leadership, for example (Cherniss, 2010). Despite of the criticism EI has a strong foothold in the field of psychology, especially because of the continuously growing research literature in work and organizational psychology (McCleskey, 2014). Depending on the approach and framework it offers a set of abilities, skills, behaviors or attitudes affecting many individual factors related to e.g., work performance, leadership and wellbeing, that can be improved and thus serves as a platform for personal development (Mills, 2009; Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2017; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver & Story, 2011).

1.1.1 Measuring EI

Measuring emotional intelligence can be challenging as it involves a complex set of skills and behaviors, and usually the chosen measure reflects the specific theory or framework EI is viewed in (McCleskey, 2014). One of the most common ways to measure emotional intelligence is through self-report questionnaires which typically require individuals to report their own emotional abilities and behaviors (Bar-On, 1997; Boyatzis et al., 2000; Pérez, Petrides & Furnham, 2005; Schutte et al., 1998). The reason why emotional intelligence is in most cases measured with self-reporting questionnaires is because they serve as a great tool to use to capture the complexity of EI although they are, at the same time, vulnerable for certain biases, like the social desirability bias, that affects how the reporter perceives their own emotional intelligence (Conte, 2005; Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts, 2007). Some other measuring tools include performance-based tests, usually derived from the ability models of EI, in which individuals complete a set of tasks that require emotional awareness and management skills, for example (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002). In addition to the previously mentioned, multi-rater assessments are also widely used measuring tools where feedback on one's emotional intelligence is gathered from multiple sources including supervisors, peers and subordinates and is used to map a comprehensive picture of an individual's emotional intelligence (Sala, 2003). Nevertheless, these latter two measures are not without limitations either, as performance-based tests might not fully capture the complexity of EI and multi-rater tests can be affected by rating biases, may not be feasible in

all situations and are quite hard to execute in practical settings, especially if many people are to be assessed at the same time (Conte, 2005).

1.1.2 Emotional Intelligence Profile (EIP)

This study dives deeper into the theoretical framework of EI, the Emotional Intelligence Profile (EIP) created in 1998 by Jo Maddocks and Tim Sparrow which concentrates on the different attitudes underlying emotional intelligence. Attitudes have been considerably overlooked in the previous literature and studies on EI regardless that it has been widely referenced in relation to the existing EI frameworks (Maddocks, 2018). For example, some scholars, like Cherniss and Boyatzis (2013) describe various underlying elements of EI e.g., "unconscious dispositions" and "values and philosophical foundations", linking the construct of EI to the attitudes underlying it. At the same time, knowledge, skills and attitudes are seen as a somewhat intertwined mechanism working behind EI (Maddocks, 2018; Seal & Andrews-Brown, 2010; Vesely-Maillefer, Udayar & Fiori, 2018), indicating that the mechanism behind EI and how it works isn't very unambiguous.

For example, in recent years there has been a lot of conversation around the term "emotional intelligence" or "EI" and what it actually means. Some theorists have presented a new approach understanding EI rather as the cognitive and emotional processes aligned with the ability model and introduced "emotional efficacies" or "EE" (or emotional self-efficacies, "ESE"'s in some contexts) describing the emotion-related behaviors and traits as in the mixed models of EI (Maddocks, 2023). The way EI and EE are understood in the literature differs a lot with some considering EE as an outcome of EI (Cherniss, 2010; Drigas & Papoutsi, 2018; Mikolajczak, 2009) some see EE as something that precedes EI (Seal & Andrews-Brown, 2010) while some see these two working together, in parallel (Vesely-Maillefer et al., 2018). In the EIP model used in this study as a measurement of EI, emotional intelligence can be understood as an attitude-based dual-processing framework differentiating inputs (attitudes) and outputs (behavior or EE) of emotional intelligence, EI (the ability) (Maddocks, 2018, 2023). In Appendix 1, the dual-processing model of EI is presented which explains the connection between the input-output processes and concepts of EI and EE, within the attitudinal EI model (Maddocks, 2018).

As mentioned before, one of the most vastly recognized challenges around EI is related to how it is defined. This is mainly because of the complexity and abstract nature of the concept which has affected the many different theoretical frameworks explaining it (Cherniss, 2010; Locke, 2005; McCleskey, 2014). While the different frameworks, that mainly divided EI into the previously covered ability, trait and mixed models, have a lot of supporting academic research and a set of strengths associated with them, some difficulties have also been found especially regarding the context and framework where EI is reviewed within (Maddocks, 2018; McCleskey, 2014). The EIP framework, that is used as a base theory for EI in this study, aims to tackle these difficulties.

Previously, there hasn't been that much evidence connecting ability-based EI with job performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010) and the theoretical framework behind mixed models is seen as insufficient in some parts (Neubauer & Freudenthaler, 2005). At the same time, these models lack ethical principles (Segon & Booth, 2015) and oversee the unconscious and automated processes of EI and the inputs and outputs associated with it (Cherniss, 2010; Joseph, Jin, Newman & O'Boyle, 2015; Mikolajczak, 2009). The EIP model fills in these holes and presents a coherent, clear model of emotional intelligence as a process starting from its inputs, automated and unconscious processes while explaining the conscious processes that induce the outputs and behaviors (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall & Zhang, 2007; Fiori, 2009; Kraus, 1995; Maddocks, 2018; Ybarra, Kross & Sanchez-Burks, 2014). Understanding these processes behind the framework and the fact that EI, in fact, can change over time, also serve as a good platform for developing individual EI that has been missing in the ability and mixed models of EI (Maddocks, 2018). It fills in the missing link between measured personality and competences and helps us understand better the 'how' factor: what can be identified as the key points for an individual to develop or even change their behavior for further development within EI and additionally, work-related performance (Maddocks, 2018; Maddocks & Hughes, 2017).

The reason why understanding the link between attitudes and emotional intelligence is so important, lies in the fact that it could further explain even the existing theoretical frameworks and theories of EI and solve some of the problems stated in the chapters above (Maddocks, 2018). The evidence indeed shows the connection in how attitudes shape the abilities connected to EI in addition to its behavioral dimensions and specific outcomes (Kraus, 1995; Ybarra et al., 2014), linked partly by the more conscious processes of thought

and feeling (Paoletti & Ben-Soussan, 2021). The EIP model is additionally supported with findings in neuroscientific and neuropsychological research. In previous literature and studies on attitudes, it has been found that they influence some cognitive and emotional processes (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), including the perception, facilitation, understanding and management of emotions. This is supported by the evidence gained through neuroscientific research, where it has been found that when attitudes are stimulated, a chain reaction starts in the human brain, activating parts within the limbic system and amygdala responsible for emotions (Phelps, 2006; Zald, 2003). This activation, in turn, is connected to emotion regulation and emotional responses through various brain networks (Peikoff, 1991), facilitating thought and behavior (Bargh, Chaiken, Govender & Pratto, 1992; Baumeister et al., 2007). When studying an individual's competences, behavior, emotions, attitudes and other factors related to these, there is commonly still a large gap between science and business reality (Zeidner, Roberts & Matthews, 2008). Understanding the whole process as how small factors like attitudes and feelings, affect human consciousness and further the behaviors and outcomes presented, helps us understand the specific neuropsychological processes behind work performance and business outcomes (Goleman, 2011; Tarasuik, Ciorciari & Stough, 2009).

Overall, the attitude-model of EI (EIP) thus expands on the existing theories on EI, answers to some of the challenges within the literature and is supported by robust evidence from the psychological and neuroscientific research fields. The EIP model is a six-part framework that includes both personal and interpersonal forms of EI and is additionally divided into three different levels: behavior, feeling and attitude (Maddocks, 2018). Furthermore, the model presents 16 different scales to measure an individual's overall EI. Both the 16 scales and their definitions as well as the how the scales are organized within the six-part framework of the EIP model can be found in Appendix 2.

As mentioned, the EIP model was initially created to fill in the gaps in other commonly used EI theories and frameworks and its origin is in personal development (Maddocks, 2018). At the same time, as the literature around EI has been constantly growing and there has been a surge of new research around the topic in the past decade, the EIP model has been under thorough revision as well (Maddocks, 2018). There is a growing amount of evidence on EI's (as measured with EIP) effect on e.g., workplace performance, job satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, showing its usefulness especially in regard of assessing and individual's EI in a

workplace context (Joseph et al., 2015; McCleskey, 2014; Miao et al., 2017; O'Boyle et al, 2011). Hence, the current version of the EIP model, EIP3, is fit to both assess emotional intelligence as well as function as a development tool for further development on one's emotional intelligence, especially the attitudes underlying EI (Maddocks & Hughes, 2017).

1.2 Leadership

Regardless of the field of study, leadership can in most contexts be divided roughly into two categories: 'management' and 'leadership' (Algahtani, 2014; Kotterman, 2006; Toor & Ofori, 2008). The word 'management' is used to describe leadership as managing things, e.g., the whole organization or a set of entities to achieve a certain goal – planning, building and directing organizational processes and systems to achieving set goals and targets. 'Leadership', on the other hand, is used to describe leading people through directing and aligning, as well as motivating and inspiring them towards change (Algahtani, 2014; Kotterman, 2006; Toor & Ofori, 2008). Putting these two together, good and effective leaders need to be able to inspire, motivate and empower their team members to meet the set goals on an individual and organizational level (Palmer, Walls, Burgess & Stough, 2001; Yukl, 2012).

Leadership is a very vast concept that has been studied and explained through different perspectives and factors related to a vast number of theoretical frameworks in research starting as early as the 1930s (Day & Antonakis, 2013; Yukl, 2013). In history, terms like 'control', 'hierarchy', 'focus on profit' and 'top-down approach' were most often used in research literature on leadership when it was most often associated with military and in political contexts (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades & Drasgow, 2000; Dess & Picken, 2000). In the beginning of the 1900s when most of the research begun leadership was influenced greatly by the turbulent political and economic climate of the time, which explained the need for strong, authoritative and decisive leaders (Bass & Bass, 2009). However, this view of leadership started to change and shift towards the middle of the 20th century with new theories emerging and proposing a new way to view the concept of leadership (Dess & Picken, 2000). The importance of situational, behavioral, and social factors were increasingly emphasized and the newer perspectives laid the groundwork for the more collaborative, team-oriented approach to leadership that is prevalent today (Horner, 1997; Marques, 2015). As the work itself has changed in the span of a hundred years, it is understandable for the qualities needed amongst leaders to change too, with the focus being on i.e., transparency, empathy and

emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2021; Miao, Humphrey & Qian, 2018; Walter, Humphrey & Cole, 2012). This is a big change and trend that has been affected not only by the world changing around us but also in the newer studies on leadership, which have laid the groundwork for new leadership theories and frameworks (Dess & Picken, 2000; Bass & Bass, 2009).

Alongside various leadership theories emerged the need for a set of qualities that could differentiate good leaders from the rest (Boyatzis, 1982; Sparrow, 1997). The so-called 'competence movement' and the psychology-based exploration of leadership is considered to have started with David McClelland's (1973) paper "Testing the Competence Rather Than Intelligence". Richard Boyatzis' "The Competent Manager" (1982) and Spencer and Spencer's "Competence at Work" (2008) have further shaped the understanding of competences, defining them as underlying characteristics linked to effective performance at work. Generally, leadership competences, which account for the specific personal traits, behaviors, skills, values and knowledge of an individual, have been used to identify those who have potential and are good fit for managerial roles (Jokinen, 2005; Sydänmaanlakka, 2003). Themes circling around emotions and emotional intelligence are also frequently touched upon (Al-Zu'bi, 2015; Cavallo & Brienza, 2002) and according to some studies, is seen as one competence behind good and effective leadership performance (Dulewicz, Young & Dulewicz, 2005; Macaleer & Shannon, 2002). It is emphasized that competence is manifested through practical actions and is the result of a learning process, rather than an inherent personality trait, which leaves room for further improvement and development (Marrelli, Tondora & Hoge, 2005) which, in turn, can affect work performance (De Vos, De Hauw & Van der Heijden, 2011). The comprehensive understanding of different leadership competences and relevant theories, as well as competence-based development and their link to performance and personality traits provides insight into how competences are cultivated and utilized in various organizational contexts, as well as within leadership (Boyatzis, 2006; Jena & Sahoo, 2014; Rohana & Abdullah, 2017). Overall, the research literature suggests that leadership competences and their emergence in individuals are a good predictor of leadership performance and effectiveness. Additionally, the fact that competences can indeed be developed through, e. g. work-based, work-connected and work-bound learning, gives a good platform for new programs and models for leadership development (Dehnbostel & Schröder, 2017; Marrelli et al., 2005). It also leaves us the question of the possible underlying factors behind leadership factors and how they can potentially be utilized in leadership development.

In some studies, the core of good leadership can be understood through analytic or job-related competence, interpersonal competence and emotional or personal competence (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003). Most often leadership frameworks and studies on leadership competences recognize similar attributes and qualities needed for effective leadership and good outcomes; generally, inspiring, motivating and engaging employees, coaching and developing, empowering people to deliver, fostering collaboration, trust and respect, being open, authentic and ethical as well as showing empathy and compassion, are themes that come up most in the research literature (Bolden et al., 2003; Giles, 2016; Hughes, Pennington, Boothroyd & Goldsack, 2023; Jokinen, 2005). However, it is good to understand that the research literature is extremely vast and although there are important and repeated similarities seen between different competence frameworks, the research is not limited to just one theory or framework that would cover everything there is to be understood about leadership competences (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Giles, 2016; Jokinen, 2005). Additionally, there are some differences on the key leadership competences recognized based on the leadership style studies (Bolden & Gosling, 2006; Giles, 2016; Jokinen, 2005).

In this study, the key leadership competences are understood through a private company's leadership framework, which is based on extensive international research focused especially on the future of leadership in the current world situation (Hughes et al., 2023). Additionally, this research is based on themes of leadership in the light of organisational performance and employee experience, with data gathered on the employee's, organisation's and leader's views on great leadership along with scientific data gathered from previous, relevant research literature (Hughes et al., 2023). Based on this research and previous literature, a framework on the key competences needed for good and effective leadership was created. The framework consists of six central dimensions with four leadership competences under each - adding up to twenty-four competences in total, as introduced in Appendix 3 (Hughes et al., 2023).

1.2.1 Measuring leadership

Leadership measurement techniques and assessments have been around for many decades extending to the beginning of first leadership theories (Madanchian, Hussein, Noordin & Taherdoost, 2017). However, the everchanging understanding of what leadership really is and the fundamental changes in how we see it has greatly affected the way we measure it as well (Arnold et al., 2000). Overall, measuring leadership is difficult because it involves assessing

a complex and multi-dimensional set of skills, traits, and behaviors (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). This growing complexity and demands of leadership have, however, put an even greater focus on the different measures and assessment methods as well as the data-driven insights and tools related to it (Madanchian et al., 2017). The number of different theories and frameworks linked to leadership in its vast literature has also contributed as a factor in the troubles faced in measuring it (Hogan & Hogan, 2001). These might be some of the reasons why there is yet to be an established method for measuring leadership and as good, effective measures of leadership can greatly affect future managerial performance and organizational outcomes, the need for these measures is highlighted (Madanchian et al., 2017). Self-assessments, 360-degree feedbacks, behavioral interviews, assessment centres, performance metrics, and psychometric tests are amongst the most usual leadership assessment methods (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1998; Herd, Alagaraja & Cumberland, 2016; Houghton & Neck, 2002; Kanji, 2008; McClelland, 1998). As it has been found that leadership competences and leadership performance along with the whole organization's performance are connected, there seems to be an even greater need for competence-based measurements (Shet, Patil & Chandawarkar, 2019).

1.3 Emotional intelligence & leadership: a review of the literature

As previously mentioned, emotional intelligence rose into fame with Goleman's (1995) publication on emotional intelligence. Later, he went on to expand his research to study the link between EI and workplace performance, especially leadership (Goleman, 1998). At the same time, the study of leadership started to change at the beginning of the 21st century with the focus shifting more towards the interpersonal and emotional skills needed in relation to good leadership performance (Horner, 1997; Marques, 2015; Riggio, 2010). This caused an emergence of the academic research studying the correlational effects between EI and leadership (McCleskey, 2014) and various scholars have since seen leadership as an "emotion laden process" (George, 2000). Further research evidence has indicated that EI does in fact help us understand leadership and its effectiveness as well as the behaviors related to it – the impact of emotional intelligence on the different forms of leadership and its processes has indeed been much discussed and validated in the research literature (McCleskey, 2014; Walter, Cole & Humphrey, 2011).

Studies have found that the emotions of leaders influence the emotions experienced by their team members and further influence subordinates' perceptions of their managers' leadership effectiveness (Eberly & Fong, 2013). The self-awareness of leaders is also a component of EI that has repeatedly been associated with good leadership performance (Bratton, Dodd & Brown, 2010; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Singh, 2007). Additionally, the perception and use of emotions have been found to have an impact on leadership performance and effectiveness (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2005) as well as the factor of managing one's own emotions (Palmer et al., 2001; Yammarino, Spangler & Bass, 1993). However, the vast amount of contradictory research findings in the literature raises a lot of questions and highlights the need for further research.

Work life and leadership have evolved significantly over the past decade, driven by changes in technology, globalization, and shifting attitudes towards work (Horner, 1997; Marquardt, 2000; Marques, 2015). Organizations have recognized the importance of emotional intelligence in achieving business success and building positive workplace cultures in the ever-changing nature of work (Goleman, 2021). Even in the past few years, the world of work has seen a range of complex challenges facing organizations, including economic uncertainty, political instability, and environmental concerns (Behie, et al., 2023; Hartwell & Devinney, 2021; Woo & Kang, 2020). Furthermore, Covid-19 has also shaped the way we understand work and left its permanent mark in how we do it by different hybrid models and increasing flexibility at work, for example (Hartwell & Devinney, 2021; Hughes et al., 2023; Kirchner et al., 2021). Organizations have also become increasingly global, highlighting diversity and inclusion at the workplace, which also places a greater need for EI at the workplace (Hanscom, 2022; Shalabi & Shalabi, 2023). Goleman (2021) argues that emotionally intelligent leaders are able to navigate these challenges and respond to them in a constructive and proactive way.

As the world, organizations and work itself is constantly changing, similar shift is happening in the working population as well. Younger generations of employees are placing greater emphasis on work-life balance, personal fulfilment, and purpose-driven work (Bencsik, Horváth-Csikós & Juhász, 2016). They are also bringing a different set of values with them both affecting managerial needs and bringing change to organizational cultures (Hansen & Leuty, 2012). Emotionally intelligent leaders are better equipped to connect with these employees and understand their needs and motivations (Goleman, 2021). With younger

generations of employees and a constantly growing number of challenges in the world, there has been a bigger emphasis on employee well-being in the workplace over the past decade. Organizations are recognizing the importance of supporting employee mental and physical health and the workplace cultures are shifting towards more collaborative models where leaders are expected to work more collaboratively with their employees and to build stronger relationships with their teams (Dulin, 2008; Penney, 2011; Valenti, 2019). EI helps leaders create supportive and positive cultures that prioritize employee well-being and to build good relationships and foster collaboration at the workplace, resulting in greater team effectiveness and business success (Altındağ & Kösedağı, 2015; Desti & Shanthi, 2015; Downey, Roberts & Stough, 2011; Goleman, 2021). All in all, work life and leadership have evolved significantly over the past decades, and more is expected from leaders to successfully navigate through these challenges posed by the current world situation (Horner, 1997; Marques, 2015). Organizations are looking to embrace new technologies and workplace practices to support these changes and emotional intelligence serves as a useful tool for leaders to do just that (Goleman, 2021; Saha et al., 2023). Looking at the previous, relevant research literature, a few leadership competences needed to answer these challenges in the current world of work, can be differentiated, and are discussed more in-depth in the paragraphs below.

The so-called ‘managerial coaching’ and further, the coaching and mentoring skills of leaders as well as the ability to develop employees has become increasingly popular in organizations (Digirolamo & Tkach, 2019; Goleman, 2000). In a nutshell, a high competence in coaching and developing others can be understood as the ability to help others develop and advance towards specific career, work and professional goals in contexts of e. g., performance management, organizational effectiveness, career transition or dealing with conflict within the workplace (Starr, 2021). Good coaching skills can e. g., enhance the goal attainment, overall well-being and culture at work (Grant, 2003). Additionally, it is an important skill in change management, enabling behavioral changes and adaptability in teams (Grant & Hartley, 2013) especially in midst of the great changes in work models and culture, and when organizations are facing immense economic instability (Behie, et al., 2023; Hartwell & Devinney, 2021). In the literature, emotional intelligence and emotional skills are often seen as key determinants of a leader's ability to coach and develop their subordinates (Grant, 2007; Grant & Hartley, 2013).

Due to globalization and the need to navigate through change and in a competitive environment, organizations have shifted their focus increasingly towards the employees and their skill sets (Veshne & Munshi, 2020). As mentioned above, employee development and performance management, as well as overall talent management, through coaching and developing are more valuable now than ever before (Digirolamo & Tkach, 2019; Grant & Hartley, 2013) but at the same time employee engagement and motivation, along with retaining talent in organizations has increased in importance (Batista-Taran, Shuck, Gutierrez & Baralt, 2013). Employee engagement and motivation can be understood as leadership behaviors that e. g., facilitate, strengthen and inspire employees for better work engagement (Schaufeli, 2021). It has been researched that the growth of employee engagement and motivation can at its best result in both better organizational outcomes (e.g., increases in commitment to the organization and in productivity) and even personal benefits to the employees (e.g., increased job satisfaction and well-being at work) (Serrano & Reichard, 2011). These findings support that the ability of leaders to engage and motivate their employees is one of the key competences needed for good and effective leadership. The research literature also suggests there to be a connection between EI and successfully engaging (Veshne & Munshi, 2020) as well motivating employees (Njoroge & Yazdanifard, 2014).

In addition to competence in coaching and developing employees, as well as engaging and motivating others, surviving in today's work and its changing and complex nature requires resilience - the ability to withstand, adapt to and recover from difficulties, challenges and setbacks (Herrman et al., 2011). Thus, high resilience gives leaders the ability to survive and respond well to challenges rather than break under stress (Ledesma, 2014). Resilient leaders can not only enhance resilience within teams but also create resilient organizations (Southwick, Martini, Charney & Southwick, 2017). This in turn, increases organizational outcomes through e.g., empowered teams (Southwick, 2014), utilizing core employee strengths (Weick & Sutcliffe, 2011), stronger collaboration (Rodríguez-Sánchez & Vera Perea, 2015), interdependence and seamless communication (Hackman, 2002) – all towards better organizational outcomes and performance (Southwick et al., 2017). The connection between resilience and EI has been extensively studied, and there seems to be a significant connection between the two (Armstrong, Galligan & Critchley, 2011; Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler & Mayer, 1999) – also in a work context (Magnano, Craparo & Paolillo, 2016). Although the importance of resilience to leadership and the connection between EI and

resilience seem to have a strong foothold in previous research literature, there is still a gap on how all these three are connected to each other.

The effects of gender on leadership ability and effectiveness have been shown to be relatively contradictory in previous research findings (Hasan & Othman, 2013). There are still more male leaders as opposed to female leaders, but the gender differences in leadership have been decreasing over time (Badura, Grijalva, Newman, Yan & Jeon, 2018). However, women continue to face barriers in becoming leaders (Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson, 2013). Some differences have been found in e. g., how employees perceive leadership and the leadership styles used between male and female leaders (Herrera, Duncan, Green & Skaggs, 2012) as well as minor differences in managerial outcomes (Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson, 2013). On the other hand, some research finding indicate that the differences between male and female leaders are immensely small, especially when discussing leadership perceived by employees and managerial efficiency (Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson, 2013). However, in previous research there has been significant differences between genders in emotional intelligence (Bindu & Thomas, 2006; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003) but in some studies no significant interaction between gender and emotional intelligence have been found when predicting leadership (Bindu & Thomas, 2006).

It is also important to understand the differences managers and non-managers have in the emergence of different leadership competences as it has important implications on how we understand the competences and the information it gives us in regard of developing these competences (Yamazaki, Toyama & Putranto, 2018). It can also help us understand the behaviors, traits, and skills that are highlighted in people in managerial and non-managerial positions and whether there are specific traits or competences in leaders higher in hierarchy (Furnham & Crump, 2015). There have been studies that have found specific personality traits associated with different levels of leadership (Furnham & Crump, 2015) and research findings that indicate leaders having higher emotional intelligence than non-leaders (Siegling, Nielsen & Petrides, 2014). Thus, it seems that different competences, traits and skills might be more important in advancing to leadership positions and that difference in emotional intelligence can be seen when comparing people in different job levels. The effect of job levels on the interaction of EI and leadership competences also add to the discussion on practical applications for measuring and developing leadership.

1.4 The present study, research questions and hypotheses

There is a fair amount of literature around the connection between EI and leadership as discussed more in-depth in the previous chapters. However, little research has been done on EI's, and specifically its sub-dimensions, connection to leadership competences. This study aims to close that gap in the literature and discuss the ways emotional might affect the emergence of specific leadership competences, and further organizational outcomes and performance. The possible practical implications of these results and how the evidence can be further used in leadership development is also discussed.

Based on the literature, I am going to dive deeper into the leadership competences of 'Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' and 'Resilience' in this study, and the link these competences have with emotional intelligence. I'm also going to take into account and control the effect of the gender and job level of the respondent when studying this connection. The more specific research questions are stated below:

1. Does EI predict the respondent's skills in 'Coaching and developing', when controlling for gender and job level, and which scales specifically are associated with the competence?

2. Does EI predict the respondent's skills in 'Motivating and engaging', when controlling for gender and job level, and which scales specifically are associated with the competence?

3. Does EI predict the respondent's skills in 'Resilience', when controlling for gender and job level, and which scales specifically are associated with the competence?

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

The data in this study (n = 482) was collected in Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom from a sample of people who participated in competence assessments commissioned by different clients from a private organization specializing in talent management. All client organizations have given their permission to use the assessment data anonymously for research purposes. 44.6 % of all participants were female and 55.4 % were male. There was also one participant who did not wish to indicate their gender and as an outlier, they were

removed from the data. At the time of the conducted assessment, 52.1 % of the participants worked in managerial positions and 47.9 % in non-managerial positions. All data was collected between the years 2020 and 2023 and is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The job levels of the respondents in this study, divided by gender.

	Female (%)	**Male (%)**	**Total (%)**
Managers	**95 (19.7)**	**156 (32.4)**	**251 (52.1)**
Executive directors	*8 (1.7)*	*25 (5.2)*	*33 (6.8)*
2nd level manager or above	*29 (6.0)*	*54 (11.2)*	*83 (17.2)*
1st level manager	*43 (8.9)*	*63 (13.1)*	*106 (22.0)*
Other managers	*15 (3.1)*	*14 (2.9)*	*29 (6.0)*
Non-managers	**120 (24.9)**	**111 (23.0)**	**231 (47.9)**
Non-managers	*92 (19.1)*	*80 (16.6)*	*172 (35.7)*
Project managers	*28 (5.8)*	*31 (6.4)*	*59 (12.2)*
Total	**215 (44.6)**	**267 (55.4)**	**482 (100.0)**

2.2 Methods

The measures used in this study were the Emotional Intelligence Profile (EIP3) and the Personality and Preference Inventory (PAPI 3+). In addition to these, the gender of the participant as well as their leadership level were used as the background variables in the study.

2.2.1 Emotional Intelligence Profile (EIP3)

In this study, emotional intelligence is measured by using the Emotional Intelligence Profile, EIP3, created and developed by Maddocks and Sparrow (1998) and discussed in greater detail in previous chapters. As mentioned, this framework and a further breakdown of emotional intelligence and its 16 different scales, in accordance to the model, is presented in Appendix 1. The EIP3 questionnaire is administered as an online self-assessment survey and consists of 136 questions measuring the 16 scales of emotional intelligence. The aim is to answer the statements in the questionnaire according to one's own attitudes, beliefs, feelings and behavior in the work context (Maddocks, Hughes & Noble, 2022). The statements are presented on a 5-point Likert scale with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (e.g., "I can detect even the smallest changes in how I feel") (Maddocks

et al., 2022). For each scale, the result is presented on a scale of 1-10 against a selected norm group (Standard Ten Scale, STEN) (Maddocks et al., 2022). The results in the EIP questionnaire are assessed so that a score of 5 and 6 indicate an average score on the scale measures. Thus, scores lower that five are considered to be below average and scores higher than six would be above average (Maddocks et al., 2022).

The EIP3 questionnaire has undergone extensive psychometric testing and has good internal consistency (Cronbach's $\alpha = .8$, median for all scales) (Maddocks et al., 2022). The test-retest reliability measured between two weeks (median reliability of scales .86) and between 4-6 months (median reliability of scales .76) were also good, indicating good temporal stability (Maddocks et al, 2022). In addition, the validity of the EIP3 questionnaire was examined in relation to previous versions of the questionnaire with the median correlation of scales being .71 (Maddocks et al, 2022). Additionally, the EIP3 measure's item-scale correlations were on a good level, with the scale median being .56 (Maddocks et al., 2022). EIP3's construct validity was studied with its correlation to other another commonly used and well-researched measure of EI; the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) (Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009; Maddocks et al., 2022). The median correlation between the AES total EI score and the scales in the EIP3 measure was .50 which indicates that the construct validity of the EIP3 measure is good (Maddocks et al., 2022). The criterion validity of the EIP3 tool was researched by identifying and researching how specific scales related to different areas of job performance: job performance scores, job performance through the Big Five personality traits, job performance through competence potential scores and job performance through defensive habit scores (Maddocks et al., 2022). Overall, the results in these analyses indicated that the criterion validity of the measure was also on a good level (Maddocks et al., 2022).

2.2.2 The Personality and Preference Inventory (PAPI 3+)

The Personality and Preference Inventory (P.A.P.I.) is a widely used assessment tool for measuring work personality. It is currently available in 30 languages and employed by over 1000 organizations worldwide (Groenewald, Raja & Adeline, 2022). Its most recent version, the P.A.P.I. 3+, measures 26 work-related personality traits broken down into seven different factors and are grouped into 12 different needs (motivations) scales and 14 different trait (behaviors) scales (Groenewald et al., 2022). The structure of the P.A.P.I. 3+ factors, scales and facets can be found in more detail in Appendix 4. The P.A.P.I. questionnaire originated

in the late 1950s when it was developed by Professor Max Kostick, who drew on Henry Murray's (1938) theories of psychological needs and his model of an interactionist approach to personality (Lewis & Andersson, 1996). Over the years, the P.A.P.I. the tool has been further refined and the most recent version, P.A.P.I. 3+, was developed between 2018 and 2021 as a result of an international research and development collaboration (Groenewald et al., 2022). The redesign focused on relevance, validity, and cross-cultural reliability, incorporating user feedback and the latest research (Groenewald et al., 2022). The P.A.P.I. 3+ has also served as the basis for the creation of the competence and leadership competence framework used in this study, making it well suited to explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership competences (Groenewald et al., 2022). The baseline is, that based on an individual's scores on different P.A.P.I 3+ scales, it is possible to derive information on the leadership competences highlighted or on the contrary, not highlighted, in their leadership behavior and style. In this study, three leadership competences were studied on their association with EI. In Table 2 below, the leadership competences and the PAPI3+ scales used to measure these competences are presented.

Table 2. The leadership competences along with the corresponding P.A.P.I 3+ scales used as measurement.

LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK DIMENSIONS	LEADERSHIP COMPETENCES	P.A.P.I 3+ SCALES USED AS MEASUREMENT
Empowering approach	Coaching and developing	Inspirational motivator (M) Need to relate closely to individuals (O) Leadership role (L)
Inspiring purpose	Motivating and engaging	Inspirational motivator (M) Work focus (G) Leadership role (L)
Steady presence	Resilience	Resilience (U) Core composure (Y) Optimism (J)

The P.A.P.I. 3+ self-assessment questionnaire is a web-based self-assessment questionnaire consisting of 162 questions in total. The statements are answered on a 7-point Likert scale,

and the participant's responses are scored between 1 and 10 on each of the 26 scales. The response options for each statement range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) (e.g., "I want everything to be in order"). A score between four and seven indicates an average result on the scale measures. Thus, a score that is lower than four can be read as being below average, and a score that is above seven indicates an above average result (Groenewald et al., 2022). As mentioned, the P.A.P.I 3+ questionnaire has been widely used in different work contexts internationally and its reliability and validity have thus also been extensively studied in all of its language versions (Groenewald et al., 2022). Its internal consistency is good (Cronbach's α ranging from .66 to .92 depending on the scale) with only two scales having alpha coefficients under the desired value .70. The median of the Mosier composite reliability was .84 for all P.A.P.I 3+ competences, providing further evidence for the reliability of the measure (Groenewald et al., 2022). The test-retest reliability of the measure was good, with the median correlation for all scales being .86 and .82 for the facets, indicating good reliability even over time (Groenewald et al., 2022). The construct validity of P.A.P.I 3+ was studied with the most well-researched and well-established Big Five measure, the Revised NEW Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R) (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Groenewald et al., 2022). Most of the correlations between these measures and their scales and facets were statistically significant, indicating good construct validity (Groenewald et al., 2022). The criterion validity of P.A.P.I 3+ was also studied with researching the relationship of the measure with actual performance at work using a 360-assessment tool. Most of the correlations between the P.A.P.I 3+ tool and the 360 self and reviewer rating were on a moderate or strong level, indicating sufficient criterion validity of the measure (Groenewald et al., 2022).

2.3 Statistical analysis

Statistical processing of the data was performed using the R programming language, R-studio version 4.2.2 (2022-10-31). Outlier observations and those with missing values were removed from the data, leaving data of 482 respondents of the original 708 for analysis.

To examine the three leadership competences, 'Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' and 'Resilience', three sum variables were created from data of the P.A.P.I. 3+ scales. The P.A.P.I 3+ scales used to create each sum variable to further study the leadership competences, can be found in Table 2. The same was done for the 16 scales of emotional

intelligence to create one sum variable to describe EI as a whole. All scales and their descriptions can be found in Appendix 2. Dummy variables were created for both background variables, the gender and job level of the respondents (‘Manager’ or ‘Non-manager’), to examine how these variables affect the association between EI and the three leadership competences. The data was further examined to see if the assumptions of a linear model were met. First, the linearity of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables were studied. Based on the graphs obtained, it appeared that the relationships between the parameters were overall linear. The variance of the residuals also seemed constant, and the variance of the variables was constant, indicating good homoscedasticity. The normality of errors was examined by creating plots for each model, and all residuals seemed to be normally distributed. Examining the data using Cook's method, it was found that there were no significant outliers in the data, and, in addition, there did not appear to be excessive multicollinearity between the predictors.

After checking that all the assumptions of linear models were met, the data was further analyzed with several different methods of statistical analysis to answer the research questions. First, descriptive statistics were drawn from the data to understand the general patterns and to create a comprehensive overview of the data. As the objective of this study was to study the degree of the association between EI and leadership, the total EI’s effect on the three leadership competences, ‘Coaching and developing’, ‘Motivating and engaging’ and ‘Resilience’, was studied with a multivariate multiple regression analysis (Figure 1). Next, three separate regression analyses were used to determine which EI scales were the best predictors for each of the three leadership competences studied. The effect of the control variables ‘Gender’ and ‘Job level’ ware also examined in these regression analyses and a model of the analyses can be found in Figure 2. Lastly, the effect sizes of the predictors were examined using the eta square ($\eta 2$). Effect size was estimated according to Cohen (2013), with .01 indicating a small effect, .06 a medium effect and .14 a large effect.

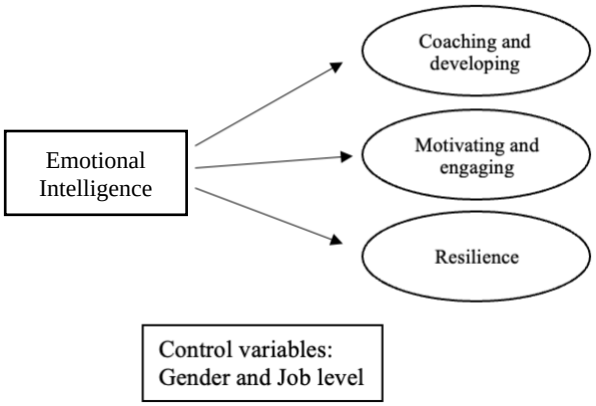

Figure 1. Multivariate multiple regression model (Model 1, 2 & 3) on the association between overall EI and the three leadership competences ('Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' & 'Resilience'), when controlling for gender and job level.

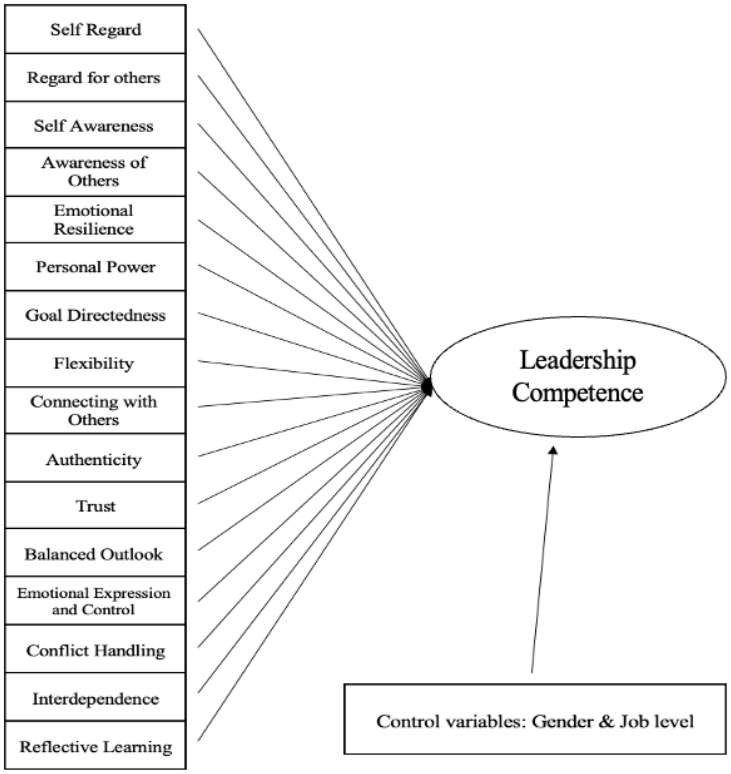

Figure 2. Linear regression model (Model 4, 5 & 6) on the association between each EI scale and leadership competence ('Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' & 'Resilience'), when controlling for gender and job level.

3. Results

3.1 Descriptives of the study sample

Looking at the descriptives table (Table 3) of all data used in this study, one can detect some trends in regard to the EI scales and the scores the respondents received in this study. As mentioned, a score of 5 and 6 are considered to be on an average level based on the EIP questionnaire. As the mean values of all EI scales varied between 5.20 to 6.91, all respondents in this study seemed to have an average level of emotional intelligence, looking at these results. However, there was some clear differences in the average scores, when looking at the EI scales. Out of all EI scales, the respondents got higher scores on 'Self regard' (M = 6.91, SD = 1.40), 'Trust' (M = 6.75, SD = 1.54) and 'Regard for others' (M = 6.61, SD = 1.67). On the other hand, the respondents got lowest sores on 'Reflective learning' (M = 5.20, SD = 1.62), 'Awareness of others' (M = 5.68, SD = 1.67) and 'Flexibility' (M = 5.86, SD = 1.39), out of all EI scales on average.

Looking at the three leadership competences examined in this study, a result between 12 and 18 would indicate average skills in each competence. As seen in the descriptives table (Table 3), and the mean values (15.50-17.85) the respondents got on each competence, the overall leadership skills in this sample group and as measured with these three competences is on an average level. Further, out of the leadership competences, the respondents got lower scores on 'Motivating and engaging' (M = 15.50, SD = 3.87), compared to the other two competences, 'Coaching and developing' (M = 17.85, SD = 3.57) and 'Resilience' (M = 17.71, SD = 3.81).

Table 3. Descriptives of the study data; the subscales of emotional intelligence and the three leadership competences.

	N	Range	Mean	Sd	Median	Min	Max
Emotional intelligence							
Self Regard	482	9	6.91	1.40	7	1	10
Regard for others	482	8	6.61	1.68	7	2	10
Self awareness	482	9	6.08	1.49	6	1	10
Awareness of others	482	9	5.68	1.67	6	1	10
Emotional resilience	482	9	6.47	1.49	6	1	10
Personal power	482	9	6.32	1.60	6	1	10
Goal directedness	482	9	6.50	1.58	6	1	10
Flexibility	482	8	5.86	1.39	6	2	10
Connecting with others	482	9	6.22	1.61	6	1	10
Authenticity	482	9	6.14	1.52	6	1	10

Trust	482	9	6.75	1.54	7	1	10
Balanced outlook	482	9	6.02	1.62	6	1	10
Emotional expression and control	482	9	6.62	1.40	7	1	10
Conflict handling	482	9	6.09	1.59	6	1	10
Interdependence	482	9	6.19	1.49	6	1	10
Reflective learning	482	9	5.20	1.62	5	1	10
Total EI	482	127	99.66	15.56	99	33	160
Leadership competences							
Coaching and developing	482	21	17.85	3.57	18	6	27
Motivating and engaging	482	23	15.50	3.87	18	4	27
Resilience	482	23	17.71	3.81	18	5	28

3.2 Total EI predicting leadership

Models 1, 2 and 3 all proved to be statistically significant based on the multivariate multiple regression analysis (Table 4). Model 1 explained the ‘Coaching and developing’ competence in a statistically significant way ($F(3,478) = 87.84$, $p < .001$), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.35. This finding suggests that EI accounts for approximately 35% of the variance in the ‘Coaching and developing’ competence among the sampled individuals. In Model 1, the total EI ($t(478 = 14.08$, $SE = 0.01$, $p < .001$) and job level ($t(478) = 6.34$, $SE = 0.27$, $p < .001$) of the respondents were statistically significantly associated with the ‘Coaching and developing’ competence. The regression coefficient for total EI was 0.12, which indicates that for each additional point one gets in regard to their competence in ‘Coaching and developing’, there is an average increase of 0.12 in total EI as measured with the EIP questionnaire. Additionally, the competence for ‘Coaching and developing’ sems to be higher for those who work in a managerial position. The Eta square of the total EI had a large effect size ($\eta 2 = .29$) on ‘Coaching and developing’ and for job level the Eta square indicated a moderate effect size ($\eta 2 = .08$).

Model 2 explained the ‘Motivating and engaging’ competence statistically significantly ($F(3,478) = 130.50$, $p < .001$), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.45. This finding suggests that EI accounts for approximately 45% of the variance in the ‘Motivating and engaging’ competence among the sampled individuals. The total EI ($t(478) = 17.15$, $SE = 0.01$, $p < .001$) and job level of the respondents ($t(478) = 8.25$, $SE = 0.27$, $p < .001$) were statistically significantly associated with the ‘Motivating and engaging’ competence in Model 2. The regression coefficient for total EI in this model is 0.15, indicating that those with higher total EI also have higher competence in ‘Motivating and engaging’. Based on the model, this same

effect seems to happen in regard to job level, with those in managerial positions having higher competence in 'Motivating and engaging'. Additionally, total EI had a large effect size (η2 = .38) and job level a moderate effect (η2 = .12) size in the analysis, based on the Eta square measured.

Model 3 explained the 'Resilience´ competence statistically significantly (F(3,478) = 96.68, p < .001), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.37. This finding suggests that EI accounts for approximately 37% of the variance in the 'Resilience' competence among the sampled individuals. The total EI (t(478) = 16.06, SE = 0.01, p < .001) and gender (t(478) = -5.65, SE = 0.28, p < .001) of the respondents were statistically significantly associated with coaching and development competence in Model 3. With total EI's regression coefficient being 0.14, this result affirms that higher total EI score further indicates higher competence in 'Resilience'. Additionally, with gender's regression coefficient being -0.23, it seems that men are more likely to get higher scores in their competence in 'Resilience'. However job level had no statistical significance in this model (t(478) = -0.74, SE = 0.28, p = .46, η2 = .00). The effect size of total EI in this model was large (η2 = .35) and that of the gender was moderate (η2 = .06), according to the Eta square measured.

Table 4. Multivariate multiple regression analysis table of Models 1, 2 and 3 on the association between total EI and all three leadership competences ('Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' and 'Resilience'), controlled by job level and gender of the respondent.

Dependent variable: 'Coaching and developing'	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	5.18	0.86	6.02	**< .001** ***	
Total EI	0.12	0.01	14.08	**< .001** ***	.29
Job level	1.74	0.27	6.34	**< .001** ***	.08
Gender	-0.23	0.27	-0.88	.38	.00

Signif. Codes: 0 '*' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'**

Residual standard error: 2.88 on 478 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.36, Adjusted R-squared: 0.35
F-statistic: 87.84 on 3 and 478 DF, p-value <.001

Dependent variable: 'Motivating and engaging'	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	1.76	0.86	2.03	**.04** *	
Total EI	0.15	0.01	17.15	**< .001** ***	.38
Job level	2.20	0.27	8.25	**< .001** ***	.12

Gender	0.23	0.27	0.88	.38	.00

Signif. Codes: 0 '*' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'**

Residual standard error: 2.88 on 478 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.45, Adjusted R-squared: 0.45
F-statistic: 130.5 on 3 and 478 DF, p-value <.001

Dependent variable: 'Resilience'	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	4.31	0.90	4.77	**< .001** ***	
Total EI	0.14	0.01	16.06	**< .001** ***	.35
Job level	-0.21	0.28	-0.74	.46	.00
Gender	-1.58	0.28	-5.65	**< .001** ***	.06

Signif. Codes: 0 '*' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'**

Residual standard error: 3.02 on 478 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.38, Adjusted R-squared: 0.37
F-statistic: 96.68 on 3 and 478 DF, p-value <.001

3.3 EI and 'Coaching and developing'

Model 4 explained the 'Coaching and developing´ competence statistically significantly ($F(18,463) = 24.45$, $p < .001$), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.47. This finding suggests that the 16 EI scales account for approximately 47% of the variance in the 'Coaching and developing' competence among the sampled individuals. There were several scales of EI that were statistically connected to this leadership competence when controlling for gender and job level. Out of all EI scales, 'Connecting with others' was the most statistically significantly associated with 'Coaching and developing' ($t(463) = 8.48$, $SE = 0.10$, $p < .001$) and it had a moderate effect size as well, as measured by Eta square ($\eta2 = .13$). Additionally, 'Flexibility' ($t(463) = 3.09$, $SE = 0.11$, $p = .002$, $\eta2 = .02$), 'Reflective learning' ($t(463) = 3.17$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .002$, $\eta2 = .02$), 'Regard for others' ($t(463) = -3.00$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .003$, $\eta2 = .02$), 'Awareness of others' ($t(463) = 2.34$, $SE = 0.11$, $p = .019$, $\eta2 = .01$), 'Personal power' ($t(463) = 2.03$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .04$, $\eta2 = .01$) and 'Conflict handling' ($t(463) = 1.78$, $SE = 0.11$, $p = .08$, $\eta2 = .1$) were all statistically significantly associated with 'Coaching and developing'. These results indicate that higher scores in 'Connecting with others' ($\beta = 0.83$), 'Flexibility' ($\beta = 0.34$), 'Reflective learning' ($\beta = 0.29$), 'Awareness of others' ($\beta = 0.25$), 'Personal power' ($\beta = 0.20$) and 'Conflict handling' ($\beta = 0..19$) indicate higher competence in

'Coaching and developing', However, the regression coefficient of 'Regard for others' (β = -0.30) indicates that those with lower scores on this scale have actually higher competence for 'Coaching and developing'. All of the effect sizes (Eta squared) of these EI scales were small (η2 < .06). Job level (t(463) = 5.73, SE = 0.25, β = 1.43, p < .001) and gender (t(463) = -1.69, SE = 0.25, β = 0.-0.42, p = .09) also had statistical significance in this model, with the effect size of the job level being moderate (η2 = .07), and gender having a small effect size (η2 = .01) to 'Coaching and developing'. Thus, those that work in a managerial position and those that are men seem to have higher results when measuring the 'Coaching and developing' competence.

Table 5. Regression analysis table (Model 4) on the association between EI scales and the leadership competence 'Coaching and developing', controlled by job level and gender of the respondent.

Dependent variable: 'Coaching and developing'	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	6.05	0.87	6.96	**< .001** ***	
Self Regard	-0.03	0.12	-0.26	.79	.00
Regard for Others	-0.30	0.10	-3.00	**.003** **	.02
Self Awareness	-0.14	0.11	-1.31	.19	.00
Awareness of Others	0.25	0.11	2.34	**.019** *	.01
Emotional Resilience	0.05	0.12	0.41	.69	.00
Personal Power	0.20	0.10	2.03	**.04** *	.01
Goal Directedness	0.09	0.10	0.90	.37	.00
Flexibility	0.34	0.11	3.09	**.002** **	.02
Connecting with Others	0.83	0.10	8.48	**< .001** ***	.13
Authenticity	0.06	0.10	0.56	.58	.00
Trust	-0.08	0.09	-0.85	.40	.00
Balanced Outlook	-0.02	0.10	-0.20	.84	.00
Emotion Expression and Control	0.05	0.14	0.40	.69	.00
Conflict Handling	0.19	0.11	1.78	**.08 .**	.01
Interdependence	0.14	0.11	1.27	.20	.00
Reflective Learning	0.29	0.09	3.17	**.002** **	.02
Job level	1.43	0.25	5.73	**< .001** ***	.07
Gender	-0.42	0.25	-1.69	**.09 .**	.01

Signif. Codes: 0 '*' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'**

Residual standard error: 2.60 on 463 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.49, Adjusted R-squared: 0.47
F-statistic: 24.45 on 18 and 463 DF, p-value <.001

3.4 EI and 'Motivating and engaging'

Model 5 explained the association between the EI scales and the leadership competence 'Motivating and engaging' and it was overall statistically significant ($F(18,463) = 30.10$, $p < .001$), with an adjusted R^2 of 0.52. This finding suggests that the 16 EI scales account for approximately 52% of the variance in the 'Motivating and engaging' competence among the sampled individuals. 'Goal directedness' ($t(463) = 3.54$, SE = 0.11, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .03$), Flexibility ($t(463) = 5.24$, SE = 0.11, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .06$) and 'Connecting with others' ($t(463) = 5.06$, SE = 0.10, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .05$) were the most statistically significant predictors out of all EI scales, with the effect size of 'Connecting with others' and 'Goal directedness' being small, and the effect size of 'Flexibility' being of moderate size. In addition to these, the effect of 'Reflective learning' ($t(463) = 2.84$, SE = 0.09, $p = .005$, $\eta 2 = .02$), 'Conflict handling' ($t(463) = 2.72$, SE = 0.11, $p = .007$, $\eta 2 = .02$), Self awareness ($t(463) = -2.18$, SE = 0.11, $p = .029$, $\eta 2 = .01$) and 'Personal power' ($t(463) = 1.96$, SE =0.10, $p = .05$, $\eta 2 = .01$) on 'Motivating and learning' was also statistically significant. Looking at the regression coefficients of the EI scales listed, higher scores in 'Goal directedness' ($\beta = 0.38$), 'Flexibility' ($\beta = 0.59$), 'Connecting with others' ($\beta = 0.51$), 'Reflective learning' ($\beta = 0.26$), 'Conflict handling' ($\beta = 0.30$) and 'Personal power' ($\beta = 0.20$) seem to predict better competence in 'Motivating and engaging'. However, the effect seems to be the contrary with 'Self awareness' ($\beta = -0.24$): lower scores in this EI scale is likely to result in higher scores in the 'Motivating and engaging' competence. The effect sizes of all these associations were small, based on the Eta square ($\eta 2 < .06$). In this model, job level also had a statistical significance in predicting 'Motivating and engaging' ($t(463) = 7.19$, SE = 0.26, $p < .001$), and the effect size of the association was moderate ($\eta 2 = .10$). The regression coefficient for job level in this model is 1.85, indicating that those in managerial position have higher competence in 'Motivating and engaging'.

Table 6. Regression analysis table (Model 5) on the association between EI scales and the leadership competence 'Motivating and engaging', controlled by job level and gender of the respondent.

Dependent variable: 'Motivating and engaging'	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	2.04	0.90	2.28	**.02 ***	
Self Regard	0.04	0.13	0.34	.74	.00
Regard for Others	-0.17	0.10	1.57	.06	.00
Self Awareness	-0.24	0.11	-2.18	**.029 ***	.01
Awareness of Others	0.11	0.11	0.97	.33	.00

Emotional Resilience	0.13	0.12	1.08	.28	.00
Personal Power	0.20	0.10	1.96	**.05 .**	.01
Goal Directedness	0.38	0.11	3.54	**< .001 *** **	.03
Flexibility	0.59	0.11	5.24	**< .001 *** **	.06
Connecting with Others	0.51	0.10	5.06	**< .001 *** **	.05
Authenticity	0.12	0.10	1.19	.23	.00
Trust	0.04	0.09	0.47	.64	.00
Balanced Outlook	0.01	0.10	0.06	.96	.00
Emotion Expression and Control	0.03	0.14	0.25	.81	.00
Conflict Handling	0.30	0.11	2.72	**.007 ** **	.02
Interdependence	0.16	0.11	1.43	.15	.00
Reflective Learning	0.26	0.09	2.84	**.005 ** **	.02
Job level	1.85	0.26	7.19	**< .001 *** **	.10
Gender	0.30	0.26	1.14	.26	.00

Signif. Codes: 0 '*' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.'**

Residual standard error: 2.68 on 463 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.54, Adjusted R-squared: 0.52
F-statistic: 30.10 on 18 and 463 DF, p-value <.001

3.5 EI and 'Resilience'

Model 6 was used to examine the association of all EI scales to the 'Resilience' competence and the model was statistically significant in doing this ($F(18,463) = 34.50$, $p = <.001$) , with an adjusted R^2 of 0.56. This finding suggests that the 16 EI scales account for approximately 56% of the variance in the 'Resilience' competence among the sampled individuals. Out of all EI scales, 'Emotional resilience' ($t(463) = 9.00$, $SE = 0.12$, $p < .001$) was the most statistically significantly connected to 'Resilience', with the effect size being large as measured by Eta squared ($\eta 2 = .15$). Further, the EI scales 'Flexibility' ($t(463) = 4.91$, $SE = 0.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .0.5$), 'Self regard' ($t(463) = 3.82$, $SE = 0.12$, $p < .001$, $\eta 2 = .03$), 'Balanced outlook' ($t(463) = 2.89$, $SE = 0.09$, $p = .004$, $\eta 2 = .02$), 'Regard for others' ($t(463) = 2.87$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .004$, $\eta 2 = .02$) and 'Conflict handling' ($t(463) = -1.66$, $SE = 0.10$, $p = .097$, $\eta 2 = .01$) were also statistically significantly associated with the leadership competence in this model. When examining the regression coefficients in this model, the results indicate that higher 'Emotional resilience' ($\beta = 1.06$), 'Flexibility' ($\beta = 0.53$), 'Self regard' ($\beta = 0.46$), 'Balanced outlook' ($\beta = 0.27$) and 'Regard for others' ($\beta = 0.0.28$) predicts

higher competence in ‘Resilience’. On the other hand, a lower score in ‘Conflict handling’ (β = -0.17) seems to predict higher competence in ‘Resilience’. All effect sizes of these EI scales to ‘Resilience’ were small (η2 < .06). Gender had a statistically significant effect to ‘Resilience’ in this model (t(463) = -4.38, SE = 0.25, p < .001) and its effect size as measured with Eta square was small (η2 = .04). The regression coefficient of gender in this model was -1.08, indicating that men have higher competence in ‘Resilience’.

Table 7. Regression analysis table (Model 6) on the association between EI scales and the leadership competence ‘Resilience’, controlled by job level and gender of the respondent.

Dependent variable: ‘Resilience’	**Estimate**	**Std. Error**	**t value**	**p value**	**η2**
Intercept	3.04	0.85	3.58	**< .001** ***	
Self Regard	0.46	0.12	3.82	**< .001** ***	.03
Regard for Others	0.28	0.10	2.87	**.004** **	.02
Self Awareness	0.02	0.10	0.17	.87	.00
Awareness of Others	-0.04	0.10	-0.43	.67	.00
Emotional Resilience	1.06	0.12	9.00	**< .001** ***	.15
Personal Power	-0.07	0.10	-0.76	.45	.00
Goal Directedness	0.07	0.10	0.67	.50	.00
Flexibility	0.53	0.11	4.91	**< .001** ***	.05
Connecting with Others	-0.02	0.10	-0.18	.86	.00
Authenticity	-0.05	0.10	-0.49	.63	.00
Trust	0.04	0.09	0.40	.69	.00
Balanced Outlook	0.27	0.09	2.89	**.004** **	.02
Emotion Expression and Control	0.16	0.13	1.17	.24	.00
Conflict Handling	-0.17	0.10	-1.66	**.097 .**	.01
Interdependence	-0.05	0.10	-0.49	.63	.00
Reflective Learning	-0.13	0.09	-1.45	.15	.00
Job level	-0.16	0.24	-0.65	.52	.00
Gender	-1.08	0.25	-4.38	**< .001** ***	.04

Signif. Codes: 0 ’*’ 0.001 ’**’ 0.01 ‘*’ 0.05 ‘.’**

Residual standard error: 2.54 on 463 degrees of freedom
Multiple R-squared: 0.57, Adjusted R-squared: 0.56
F-statistic: 34.5 on 18 and 463 DF, p-value <.001

4. Discussion

4.1 EI predicting leadership competence

In this study, EI's association with the three leadership competences 'Coaching and developing', 'Motivating and engaging' and 'Resilience' was examined. The results indicated that the regression models used to study these associations were a good fit for the sample of this study, with the association between total EI and leadership being statistically significant in all three models.

These results are very much in line with previous research literature on emotional intelligence and its predictive value in regard to leadership performance, effectiveness and competence (Bratton et al., 2010; Eberly & Fong, 2013; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Kerr et al., 2005; Palmer et al., 2001; Singh, 2007; Yammarino et al., 1993). The specific mechanisms and reasons, why EI has such a big effect on leadership have been discussed in the research literature as well. Leadership is not just about technical expertise or strategic thinking; it also involves understanding and managing relationships, both with oneself and others (Humphrey, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann & Hirst, 2002). Additionally, it has been argued that emotional intelligence might be even more important to leadership, than intellectual intelligence (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sadri, 2012).

Looking at the literature, it seems that the importance of emotional competence and skills have become more and more important throughout the past decades. Specifically, when talking about the competences examined in this study, coaching and developing, motivating and engaging, and resilience, the need for higher emotional intelligence is highlighted. Especially in the turbulent and challenging nature in today's world of work, the importance of these skills is increasingly emphasized. The research on EI and its effect to leadership has, in fact, greatly increased during the 21st century, which might partly be the result of the changes in the expectations of leadership. Currently, employees need increased engagement and leaders that are able to motivate them through harder times and are able to coach their employees to have the right skills and mindset to navigate in midst of changes and challenges, are essential.

In the following sections, the association between EI and leadership is studied even further, with discussing the effect individual EI scales have on the three leadership competences

selected in this study. Later, the effect of both job level and gender on these association is further examined.

4.1.1 EI predicting competence in coaching and developing

Diving deeper into the competence of ‘Coaching and developing’, 7 out of all 16 EI scales were found to have an association with it. Based on the results, higher scores in ’Awareness of others’, ’Personal power’, ’Flexibility’, ’Connecting with others’, ’Conflict handling’ and ’Reflective learning’ would indicate higher competence in ‘Coaching and developing’. On the contrary, the results interestingly indicate ’Regard for others’ and ’Coaching and developing’ having a negative association, meaning that lower scores on the EI scale result in lower competence in Coaching and developing.

The EI scale ’Regard for others' can be defined as "the extent to which a person accepts and values others (as distinct from liking or approving of what they may do)" (Appendix 2). While it may initially seem surprising that having a high regard for others exhibits a negative association with the ability to coach and develop others there are multiple potential reasons for this finding. In a coaching context, qualities like empathy, the establishment of trust, and the creation of a collaborative environment are deemed crucial (Graham, Wedman & Garvin-Kester, 1994; Grant & Hartley, 2013). However, when the coach is the manager, rather than an external talent management consultant, the coaching dynamic can be influenced. Managers often harbor expectations toward their employees, impacting the coach-coachee relationship (Smither & Reilly, 2013). Managerial coaching, with its inclusion of extensive feedback, requires a balance between empathy and assertiveness; managers must be both understanding and transparent when assisting others in their development (Grant & Hartley, 2013; Smither & Reilly, 2013). Although skills such as empathy, awareness, and collaboration are essential for successful coaching, these factors may contribute to the observed negative association between 'Regard for others' and 'Coaching and developing', based on the results of this study. Furthermore, while acknowledging and valuing others in a coaching setting is recognized as vital, acceptance is a nuanced and multidimensional concept. While accepting others and their perspectives is crucial for effective coaching, it is conceivable that unquestioning acceptance of the coachee's working style or skills as they are, for instance, could impede future positive change.

In the EIP model, 'Awareness of others' refers to the degree to which an individual is attuned to and comprehends the emotions of others (Appendix 2). Actively listening to and

understanding the emotions of others is particularly crucial for establishing trust with others and fostering a supportive relationship with them (De Haan, Duckworth, Birch & Jones, 2013; Sonesh et al., 2015). Moreover, research indicates that an empathetic approach is integral to successful coaching, encompassing the capacity to adopt the perspective of others, recognize and comprehend their emotions, and even share and experience those emotions themselves (Diller, Mühlberger, Löhlau & Jonas, 2021). Therefore, a heightened ability in being aware of others and their emotions is likely to enrich the coaching relationship, facilitating the identification of potential areas for development and, consequently, ensuring the durability of positive change.

According to the EIP model, ’Personal power’ is defined as "the extent to which an individual perceives themselves to be in control of and responsible for their outcomes" (Appendix 2). Both coaches and leaders typically shoulder significant responsibilities, such as overseeing overall business and team performance, pinpointing developmental areas within the organization, and implementing contextual changes (Jones, Armour & Potrac, 2002; Truter, 2008). Success in coaching and developing individuals and teams demands a strong sense of accountability and dedication to the entire process (Jones et al., 2002; Truter, 2008). While acknowledging the role of the subordinate in coaching is essential, fostering a mindset of personal power is crucial for maintaining the integrity, results-oriented approach of coaches, and ensuring the positive impact and lasting transformation of coaching and development processes. It is vital to attentively listen to one's team and subordinates, collaboratively identifying key development areas and challenges. However, effective coaching also necessitates a self-belief and trust in one's ability to provide insightful decisions and guidance on how the team and subordinates can enhance their performance, unlock their potential, and adapt to change. Therefore, the success and effectiveness of coaching lie in a combination of collaboration, open communication, and the coach's confidence in their capacity to lead positive change, which evidently is partly built on the coach’s personal power.

’Flexibility’ (“the degree to which a person feels free to adapt their thinking and behaviour to changing situations”, Appendix 2) stands as the foundation of effective coaching, given the substantial need for adaptability in response to individual and situational nuances. In research literature, the importance of adjusting the coaching approach and focus to align with the most crucial factors in a specific context, has been emphasized (Phillips, 1994). Consequently,

flexibility emerges as a pivotal attribute that significantly enhances the efficacy of coaching and development processes. Beyond accommodating individual, situational, and contextual variations, flexibility is likely to facilitate the seamless adaptation and adjustment of the coaching process, thereby improving responsiveness to the needs and perspectives of others. It also contributes to heightened inclusivity and sensitivity on the part of the coach. Moreover, a flexible approach could aid both the coach and coachee in navigating within uncertainty, fostering creativity and innovation, and establishing a solid foundation for continuous improvement.

The ability to connect with others stands out as a pivotal and, arguably, the most critical attribute in the realm of coaching and personal development. In the EIP model, 'Connecting with others' is defined as follows: "The extent and ease with which an individual makes significant connections with other people" (Appendix 2). While there are various skills and qualities associated with effective coaching, the capacity to establish meaningful connections has consistently proven to be a key factor for success in this field. Overall, interpersonal skills are not only emphasized in coaching contexts but has also garnered recognition as a vital quality for effective leadership (Jacox, 2019). Thus, a robust coaching relationship relies on the coach's ability to create significant connections with their clients or subordinates. This is closely linked to the establishment of mutual trust, effective communication, and the building of rapport. These elements are not mere luxuries in coaching; rather, they are fundamental prerequisites for facilitating positive change and achieving favorable outcomes in the coaching process (Stillman, Freedman, Jorgensen & Stillman, 2017). Furthermore, the ability to connect with others is likely to play a pivotal role in overcoming potential barriers to change. Coachees are more likely to embrace new perspectives, confront challenges, and actively engage in the coaching process when they feel a genuine and authentic connection with their coach. This sets the stage for a collaborative and supportive partnership that goes beyond the immediate coaching sessions, contributing to sustained personal and professional growth.

In the context of EIP, 'Conflict handling' means not just the ability to manage and handle conflict but also the assertiveness of an individual (Appendix 2). Coaches equipped with strong conflict handling skills can adeptly manage conflicts, turning them into opportunities for growth and learning. This involves addressing conflicts with a constructive and assertive approach, ensuring that communication remains open and conducive to positive outcomes.

The importance of conflict handling in coaching has been emphasized in the research literature as well (Passmore, Brow & Csigas, 2017), highlighting its role in maintaining positive relationships and facilitating effective communication within the coaching dynamic. Furthermore, the link between assertiveness and successful coaching is multifaceted. In the coaching and leadership context, assertiveness contributes to effective communication, enabling coaches to convey insights, feedback, and guidance in a direct and impactful manner. Additionally, assertiveness plays a crucial role in setting boundaries within the coaching relationship, ensuring a professional and respectful interaction (Townend & Townend, 2017). Coaches employ assertiveness throughout the coaching process to guide coachees, maintain focus on objectives, and create a supportive yet structured environment (Stober and Grant, 2006). Thus, conflict handling goes hand-in-hand with assertiveness as a crucial dimension in coaching. Coaches who master this dual skill set are more likely to navigate conflicts effectively, contribute to positive coaching outcomes, and create a coaching relationship characterized by clear communication, respect for boundaries, and a supportive yet structured approach.

Out of all EI scales within the EIP model, ’Reflective learning’ differs slightly from the rest. Its basically means “the degree to which EI is enhanced by the individual reflecting on what they and others feel, think, and do, noticing the outcomes these produce and altering their patterns accordingly” (Appendix 2). The concept of reflective learning within the context of EI is unique in that it emphasizes the importance of self-awareness, self-reflection, and learning from experiences. It implies an ongoing process where individuals actively engage in introspection to deepen their understanding of emotional dynamics, both within themselves and in their interactions with others (Maddocks, 2018). As previously mentioned, the association between EI and the the ability to coach and develop others has been vastly studied, and EI seems to be a good predictor of this competence (Dougherty & Dreher, 2007; Goleman, 1995; Grant & O’Connor, 2019). This would indicate that the ability in reflective learning contributes to a coach's capacity to continually refine and enhance their coaching skills. Coaches who engage in reflective learning are more attuned to their own emotional responses and are better equipped to understand the emotional landscapes of their clients. This heightened self-awareness and reflective practice could also enable coaches to make informed adjustments to their coaching approaches, fostering a more adaptive and effective coaching style.

4.1.2 EI predicting competence in motivating and engaging

When examining the ‘Motivating and engaging’ competence and EI’s effect to it, 6 out of the 16 scales were found to have a significant association with the competence. The findings indicate that an individual who gets higher scores in ’Goal directedness’, ’Flexibility’, ’Connecting with others’, ’Conflict handling’ and ’Reflective learning’ are likely to have greater skills in the competence of ‘Motivating and engaging’. However, it was also found that surprisingly, lower ’Self awareness’ would result in higher capability for motivating and engaging.

’Self awareness’ (“the degree to which a person is in touch with their physiology, feelings and intuitions”, Appendix 2) has usually been shown to be significantly associated with leadership and hence, the finding that it lower self-awareness could predict higher capability in motivating and engaging is quite surprising. However, this is only one of many leadership competences and this association hasn’t specifically been studied much before. Additionally, some theoretical perspectives and indirect evidence can shed light on potential reasons for such challenges. It's important to note that the relationship between self-awareness and interpersonal effectiveness can be complex and context-dependent. Some studies have found a link between self-awareness and self-criticism (Wicklund, 1975) which might lead to hesitancy in taking risks or making decisions that could positively influence and motivate others. Thus, the fear of making mistakes might hinder proactive engagement. Higher self-awareness might also be associated with a tendency to overthink and overanalyze one's own actions and decisions (Boyatzis, 2018). This overthinking could lead to hesitation or indecisiveness, which may, in turn, impact the ability to inspire and engage others in a dynamic and spontaneous manner. Additionally, self-awareness might get the individual to be more attuned to their own thoughts, feelings, and internal experiences (Goleman, 1995). If this self-awareness leads to an inward focus, it might result in less attention to external factors, including the needs and motivations of others. Lastly, there is a possibility that an individual highly focused on self-awareness might find it challenging to shift perspectives and understand the emotions and perspectives of others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This lack of empathy or perspective-taking ability can hinder effective communication and engagement.

’Personal power’ aligns closely with psychological and leadership theories that underscore the significance of self-efficacy, empowerment, and autonomy in effective leadership.

Bandura's (1994) theory of self-efficacy, for instance, suggests that individuals with a robust sense of self-efficacy are inclined to establish ambitious goals, exhibit perseverance in the face of challenges, and instill confidence in others. Leaders who perceive themselves as having control and responsibility are more prone to establishing challenging objectives for both themselves and their teams, coupled with a commitment to empowering the team (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Locke & Latham, 2002). The process of goal-setting, coupled with a belief in the ability to achieve those goals, emerges as a potent motivator for both the leader and their team. This mindset can manifest in the delegation of responsibilities, granting autonomy, and encouraging team members to take ownership of their work. Such actions not only enhance motivation and engagement within the team but also contribute to the cultivation of a positive organizational culture. In essence, leaders who embody personal power not only set the stage for their own success but also foster an environment where team members are motivated, empowered, and engaged in achieving collective goals.

Similar to personal power, ’Goal-directedness’ embodies a proactive and assertive approach in establishing and attaining objectives. It can be defined as "the degree to which a person's behavior is aligned with their long-term goals" (Appendix 2). This concept goes beyond merely setting goals; it contains the behavioral alignment towards challenging objectives. The impact of goal-directedness on the ability to motivate and engage others is multifaceted. One crucial aspect is its role in providing a clear sense of direction and purpose. When individuals possess a deep understanding of the goals they are working towards, it fosters motivation and engagement by giving their efforts a meaningful context (Locke & Latham, 2002). Individuals characterized by high goal-directedness naturally exhibit a propensity to focus on tasks and prioritize activities that contribute to goal attainment (Locke & Latham, 2002). This inclination towards focus and prioritization not only enhances efficiency but also cultivates a workforce that is inherently more engaged and motivated. Furthermore, goal-directed individuals align their personal aspirations with the broader objectives of the organization (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Locke & Latham, 2002). This alignment ensures that individual efforts contribute meaningfully to the overall success of the organization. Such coherence between personal and organizational goals fosters a sense of purpose and engagement among team members. Goal-directedness also facilitates a continuous feedback loop and progress monitoring. Individuals can actively track their progress toward established goals, receive constructive feedback on their performance, and make necessary adjustments (Locke & Latham, 2002). This iterative process is not only likely to keep individuals engaged but could

also instill motivation as individuals witness tangible progress towards their objectives. Overall, this comprehensive integration of personal and organizational objectives contributes to a work environment that is inherently driven, motivated, and engaged.

'Flexibility', or the ability to adapt one's thinking and behavior to changing situations, has also important implications for motivating and engaging others. First, flexibility is a significant underlying factor of leadership agility (Eisenbeiss, Knippenberg & Boerner, 2008). An agile approach to leadership is immensely important when navigating through changing circumstances and is furthermore likely to influence the ability to inspire and motivate others. Flexibility can also affect communication effectiveness (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). This likely implies the ability to tailor communication styles to diverse situations and audiences, potentially yielding more favorable outcomes and heightened motivation and engagement within teams. Flexible approach towards day-to-day challenges might also give one the ability to solve complex problems in different situational contexts, as it is linked with increased creativity and a commitment to continuous improvement (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008). Moreover, recognizing and accommodating diverse needs and preferences also stems from a flexible and adaptive mindset (Judge & Bono, 2001), further enhancing the ability to adapt to individual differences and need within the workplace.

Leadership is fundamentally an interpersonal process, which highlights the importance to be able to connect with others. This is supported by the evidence found in this study, indicating that 'Connecting with others' and 'Motivating and engaging' have a significant association with each other. Moreover, engaging and motivating others relies a lot on the capacity to build relationships and collaborate effectively. Leaders who excel in forming connections can tap into a deeper understanding of the needs, aspirations, and concerns of the employees. This understanding, in turn, becomes a powerful catalyst for motivation, as it allows leaders to tailor their approach to resonate with the unique attributes of each individual (Goleman et al., 2013). A strong connection between a leader and the team is likely to enhance communication effectiveness as it helps conveying messages in a way that resonates with the audience, ensuring clarity and understanding. Additionally, the skill to establish trust and rapport is derived from the capability to connect with others (Stillman et al., 2017). It is probable that the presence of this trust plays a significant role in fostering motivation and engagement among individuals in their work. Overall, when there is a strong feeling of connection and a good, collaborative environment within a team or the whole organization, it

is more likely for everyone to feel a string sense of commitment to the leader or towards the organization itself.

'Conflict handling' can affect the ability to motivate and engage others through various processes and was found to be significant when predicting the ability to engage and motivate others in this study as well. As highlighted previously, building trust and creating good, collaborative relationships is especially important when talking about motivation and engagement in the workplace. Effectively resolving conflicts contributes to the establishment and maintenance of trust within a team (Einarsen, Aasland & Skogstad, 2007). This said, it is likely that team members are more likely to be invested and committed in an environment where they feel mutual trust with others. In addition to this, conflict resolution involves open communication and the understanding of different perspectives (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). When managed by a person, who is skilled in challenging situations and is not afraid of conflict, it is likely to result in a more positive work environment, further increasing the motivation and engagement of individuals. Furthermore, unresolved conflicts can have a detrimental impact on morale and motivation. With trust, good collaboration and communication as well as thorough leaders who address conflicts promptly and effectively it could be possible to prevent the negative consequences of unresolved disputes, creating a healthier and motivating work environment. In conclusion, when conflicts are managed constructively, it contributes to a more harmonious team dynamic, promoting a sense of unity and shared goals. This, in turn, is likely to enhance motivation and engagement among team members.

As overall EI has been found to have a great influence over leadership as well as the ability to motivate and engage others, 'Reflective learning' helps foster better self-awareness, enabling leaders to comprehend their emotional states and those of their team members (Goleman, 1995). Heightened self-awareness can also contribute to empathetic understanding, allowing leaders to create a positive and motivating work atmosphere. EI development often focuses on enhancing empathy: the ability to understand and share the feelings of others (Goleman et al., 2013). Leaders with higher levels of empathy can be more likely to connect more deeply with their team members, creating a supportive and engaging work environment. Additionally, other abilities linked with increased EI, such as building trust and great communication skills can further be the underlying factors when discussing the relationship between reflective learning and the competence of 'Motivating and engaging'.

4.1.3 EI predicting competence in resilience

Overall, EI was found to be statistically significantly connected to the competence in ‘Resilience’, and there were 5 EI scales, out of all 16, that predicted ‘Resilience’ statistically significantly. The findings indicate that ’Self regard’, ’Regard for others’, ’Emotional resilience’, ‘Flexibility’ and ’Balanced outlook’ have a positive association with ‘Resilience’, meaning that higher scores in these EI scales indicate higher competence in ‘Resilience’. However, the sixth scale, ’Conflict handling’, was actually found to have a negative association with the leadership competence. Thus, lower scores in Conflict handling would indicate higher scores of ‘Resilience’.

Lower ability in handling conflicts could be associated with reduced leadership resilience due to the profound impact that conflicts can have on a leader’s well-being and the overall organizational climate. It has been studied that those individuals who struggle to handle conflicts effectively may experience heightened stress and burnout (Michinov, 2022; Montoro-Rodriguez & Small, 2006; Rahim, 2016). Unresolved conflicts can contribute to emotional exhaustion, compromising a leader's resilience and ability to bounce back from challenges and the emotional toll can further affect the leader’s capability to stay resilient and focused. The effects can happen on the team level as well: leaders with lower conflict-handling abilities may struggle to foster positive team dynamics and build trust within the team (Tjosvold, 2008). Trust is a crucial element of resilience, and conflicts that go unresolved can undermine the trust essential for navigating challenges. Additionally, conflicts can also lead to disengagement among team members. A disengaged workforce could possibly pose additional challenges for leaders, reducing their resilience in managing both interpersonal conflicts and broader organizational issues happening due to a more negative organizational culture.

In the EIP model, Self regard is described as “the degree to which an individual accepts and values themselves” (Appendix 2). Self-acceptance and self-value contribute significantly to an individual's overall well-being and mental health (Neff, 2011). In the context of resilience in a leadership context, this foundation could be crucial for navigating challenges and setbacks effectively. Leaders who possess a strong sense of self-acceptance are better equipped to handle adversity. Self-acceptance involves acknowledging one's strengths and weaknesses without harsh self-judgment (Neff, 2003). Leaders with this mindset are more likely to approach setbacks with a constructive perspective, viewing challenges as

opportunities for growth rather than impossible obstacles. Furthermore, individuals who value themselves are more resilient in the face of criticism or failures. They are less likely to internalize setbacks as reflections of their worth, allowing them to bounce back from setbacks with greater ease (Neff, 2003). Research in positive psychology emphasizes the connection between self-compassion, which includes self-acceptance, and resilience (Fredrickson, Cohn, Coffey, Pek & Finkel, 2003). Leaders who exhibit self-compassion are better able to maintain emotional well-being during challenging times, demonstrating an essential aspect of leadership resilience. Thus, a foundation of self-acceptance and self-value fosters a mindset that enables leaders to navigate challenges with resilience and maintain emotional well-being in the face of adversity.

In addition to ’Self regard’, ’Regard for others’ was also found to be statistically significantly associated with ‘Resilience’ in this study. Leaders who exhibit a high level of acceptance and value toward others contribute to the creation of a positive and supportive work environment (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007). In such environments, it is likely for there to be a sense of mutual respect and understanding, resulting in stronger interpersonal relationships. Positive relationships at the workplace are a crucial component of individual well-being and resilience (Carmeli & Gittell, 2009). When leaders accept and value their team members, they could be more likely to contribute to a supportive social context that enhances the psychological resources necessary for resilience. Valuing others is associated with empathy and interpersonal skills, which are essential for effective communication during challenging situations (Boyatzis, 2006). Leaders who possess these qualities have a greater likelihood to navigate adversity more effectively by fostering open communication, understanding diverse perspectives, and promoting a collaborative approach. Research in positive organizational psychology emphasizes the importance of a positive workplace culture for individual and collective resilience (Cameron & Caza, 2004). Leaders who prioritize acceptance and valuing others within the team contribute to the development of such a culture, enhancing the collective capacity to bounce back from setbacks.

’Emotional resilience’ is defined by “the degree to which an individual is able to pick themselves up and bounce back when things go badly for them” (Appendix 2), and as the whole the scale’s name itself indicates, it goes hand-in-hand with overall resilience. As ’Emotional resilience’ is a part of overall EI, which in turn, is a crucial component of effective leadership (Goleman, 2021), the impact ’Emotional resilience’ has on leadership is

immense. Emotional resilience involves the ability to cope with stressors and adapt to changing circumstances (Connor & Davidson, 2003). Leaders who exhibit emotional resilience are more likely to be adept at employing adaptive coping strategies when faced with challenges, especially in managing and adapting their own and other's emotions in these situations. This adaptability is vital for leaders dealing with uncertainties and dynamic environments. Resilience is a key aspect of positive psychology, emphasizing strengths and well-being (Luthans, 2002). Emotional resilience contributes to a leader's overall psychological well-being, fostering a positive mindset even in the face of adversity. This positive orientation is linked to increased effectiveness in leadership roles. Additionally, emotional resilience in leaders is likely to positively influence team dynamics. Leaders who can maintain emotional balance inspire confidence and trust among team members (Luthans et al., 2007). This supportive leadership style contributes to a resilient team culture, where individuals feel empowered to overcome challenges collaboratively.

'Flexibility', as measured with the EIP questionnaire, might also help leaders to be better equipped to cope with unexpected challenges and disruptions. The capacity to adapt to changing situations reflects a resilient mindset, allowing leaders to maintain composure and make informed decisions even in unpredictable environments. (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008). Research suggests that an agile leadership approach, marked by flexibility, is essential for thriving in complex and uncertain conditions (Eisenbeiss et al., 2008). Leaders with this adaptive quality could be more likely to bounce back from setbacks, demonstrating resilience in the face of adversity. The relationship between flexibility and resilience extends to communication effectiveness (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). It is likely that this flexibility to adjust one's communication style to diverse situations and audiences helps in fostering positive outcomes, which is a key aspect of navigating challenges and maintaining resilience on both an individual and organizational level. As mentioned in previous chapters, flexibility can also affect creativity in problem-solving. This could further help contributing to a resilient and inclusive work environment, through innovative new ideas and effective change management.

'Balanced outlook' in the EIP model stands for "how effectively an individual balances optimism with realism" (Appendix 2). This dynamic between positive outlook and a grounded understanding of reality contributes significantly to a leader's ability to navigate challenges and setbacks. A realistic approach allows leaders to adopt effective coping

strategies when confronted with adversity (Seligman, 2006). Leaders who maintain a positive outlook while acknowledging the reality of challenges could be more likely to be better equipped to devise resilient responses to setbacks. Additionally, an adaptive leadership mindset involves balancing a sensible amount of optimism with a realistic assessment of the situation (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). Leaders who can strike this balance demonstrate resilience by approaching challenges with a hopeful perspective while acknowledging the constraints of the current circumstances. This might be especially useful in effective risk management as well. Leaders who are able to maintain a positive outlook while realistically evaluating risks could be more likely to make informed decisions and navigate uncertainties with resilience. Furthermore, when the leader has a balanced outlook on things, it could be likely for them to convey a hopeful vision while being realistic about challenges, inspire others, and build trust and resilience among team members, contributing to a positive and adaptive team culture and overall organizational resilience.

4.1.4 Gender and job level differences

The proposition that individuals in managerial positions tend to exhibit better leadership abilities aligns with both intuitive expectations and findings in the research literature. The idea is grounded in the assumption that those in leadership roles naturally demonstrate and enhance specific managerial competences. Additionally, the findings in this study align with the notion that the traits and behaviors associated with effective leadership are more pronounced in individuals working in leadership positions (Amit, Popper, Gal, Mamane-Levy & Lisak, 2009). The competences of ‘Coaching and developing’ and ‘Motivating and engaging’ were found to be pronounced among those that work in managerial positions. This underscores the conventional understanding that individuals who assume leadership roles often develop and exhibit qualities essential for effective leadership. These qualities may encompass strategic thinking, decision-making, communication skills, and the ability to motivate and guide teams. As individuals ascend to managerial positions, they are likely to hone these competences through practical experience, further solidifying their effectiveness as leaders (Amit et al., 2009). In essence, the alignment between occupying managerial positions and showcasing heightened leadership competences is not merely coincidental; it reflects a natural progression and accumulation of skills and behaviors inherent in effective leadership. This aligns with the idea that leadership is a learned and evolving process, with individuals in managerial roles continually refining their abilities through practical experiences and challenges.

However, there was no differences in the competence on ‘Resilience’ between managers and those not working in a managerial position. This outcome challenges conventional assumptions that leadership roles inherently require or foster higher levels of resilience. Firstly, the interpretation of resilience could differ based on individual and organizational contexts. Resilience, in the context of leadership, might not necessarily manifest as a distinct characteristic that distinguishes leaders from non-leaders. Instead, resilience could be a multifaceted trait influenced by various personal and situational factors, making it less exclusive to leadership roles. Rather than resilience affecting leadership and being associated with leadership competences, it might actually be connected with improved leader well-being and have a role in reducing stress and burnout, as per previous research literature (Luthans, Avolio, Walumbwa & Li, 2005; Smith et al., 2008). Secondly, the nature of leadership roles and the challenges faced by leaders might not be significantly different from those encountered by non-leaders, particularly in specific organizational contexts. The contemporary workplace may expose both leaders and non-leaders to comparable stressors, necessitating similar levels of resilience for effective performance and adaptation.

Much research has also been done on the influence of gender and its relationship to leadership, especially based on history and the way our society is structured. Throughout history, prominent leaders have predominantly been male, sparking extensive discussions on gender equality and the aptitude of women for leadership roles, particularly in the latter part of the 20th century and into the 21st century (Herrera et al., 2012). As mentioned, research findings in differences between women and men in leadership behaviour and ability are relatively contradictory, but it would be important to understand these differences even further and understand the underlying factors behind the perceived differences (Hasan & Othman, 2013; Ridgeway, 2001). In this study there were no gender differences found in the competences ‘Coaching and developing’ and ‘Motivating and engaging’. The finding is surprising in the sense that most times, especially when talking about coaching and development or motivating and engaging employees, women have been found to have a higher ability to effect change in their subordinates, which is often related to their emotional skills, ability to build rapport and trust with their subordinates, and emphasis on collaboration and cooperativeness, among other things (Herrera et al., 2012). At the same time, however, it has been noted that, especially in studies conducted in organisations, the gender gap may be narrowed due to the culture of the organisation and the leadership behaviours sought and emphasised. Again, this study used assessment data collected in recruitment situations for

clients of a private organisation. Thus, the relatively small number or similarity of the client organisations selected for the study, including the Finnish work culture and the clients' industries, may influence the traits and behaviours of the managers, and further the gender similarity results obtained in the study.

However, a clearly significant connection between gender and ‘Resilience’ was found in this study, indicating that overall, men have higher resilience than women. This connection has been a subject of interest in psychological and sociological research, but the relation seems to be quite complex and influenced by many individual and societal dynamics. For example, it has been found that men may be more likely to use problem-focused coping strategies, emphasizing practical solutions to challenges, which is, in turn, related to higher resilience (Matud, 2004). On the other hand, women may tend to employ more emotion-focused coping strategies, which, while effective, might be perceived differently in the context of resilience measures (Matud, 2004). Additionally, the workplace environment and the challenges faced in everyday work may contribute to the gender differences in resilience. For example, if the work environment emphasizes problem-solving and competition, traits associated with resilience might be more pronounced in men. Furthermore, societal expectations and gender roles may contribute to differences in resilience. Traditional gender norms may shape the development of resilience in individuals, influencing how men and women are socialized to handle adversity (Zimmerman & Brenner, 2010). It is however crucial to understand that resilience is a complex and multifaceted trait influenced by many factors, such as individual experiences and cultural expectations and is additionally highly context dependent. Hence, it’s manifestation may differ across various circumstances.

4.2 Strengths and limitations of this study

Additional research is needed to advance the understanding on how emotional intelligence affects leadership and what are the most important EI scales in this connection. EI’s connection to leadership competence has also been studied very little, and although this study is able to answer some of the questions, more research is definitely needed.

The design used in this study was cross-sectional, which means that the causal relationship between EI and its scales, and the leadership competences examined, cannot be proved. Additionally, the generalizability of the findings is limited. First, the sample was gathered

from people participating in different competence assessments in a private company. Therefore, the sample of participants included in this study might share some similarities in e. g., the industry they are working in and their education level. Furthermore, the participants were mostly European, and all applied to European companies in the United Kingdom, Sweden and Finland, which might affect the generalizability of the results.

The measures used in this study were both self-report questionnaires. This always raises the question whether the results obtained in this study are objective enough measures of emotional intelligence and leadership competence, as the results are based on subjective assessment of the respondents themselves. Additionally, as the sample was gathered from job seekers participating in competence assessments for different positions, some amount of social desirability could affect the results. Both concepts studied are very abstract in their nature, meaning that the operationalization of these constructs is not simple. Although, as mentioned previously, the reliability and validity, as well as the overall psychometric components of these measures is good, it is unknown whether similar results would be obtained with other measures of attitude-based emotional intelligence or leadership competence.

There is still much more to do in-depth research in, and it is necessary to study further the relationship between EI and leadership. In this study, only three competences of leadership were studied, although they are important especially in the current world of work. This said, in the future it would be important to broaden the research on this topic to other leadership competences as well. It would also be important to use additional measures to study these associations as to further validate the research findings. For example, other measures, more academically acclaimed measures of EI could be useful in further research, and it could be useful to obtain objective data on both the EI and leadership competence of the participants, as this study only used self-report measures. Moreover, it is important to make sure that in later studies the sample would be universal, and thus generalizable to other groups as well.

However, this study also adds to the gap in the literature, when talking about the connection between emotional intelligence and leadership competence. Although the competence-based approach has gained a lot of popularity within organizations and talent management recently, there is still only little research on this topic. This study sheds light on the association between these two constructs and is able to give more insight into how EI affects leadership, and what dimensions of emotional intelligence are especially important in its association with

leadership. The results also indicate that there are significant correlations with some EI scales and leadership competences. It is important to understand these associations as thus EI can be used to measure good leadership in the future. It is also important knowledge in relation to leadership development programs, as one key point in these programs could be the emotional intelligence of a leader. The differences between managers and non-managers also gives insight into what competences are especially important for leaders and their success. This could have important implications for e. g., succession planning and identifying future talent and leadership potential.

5. Conclusion

This study indicates that there is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership competence. Hence, leadership seems to be at least partly an emotion-laden process, and it shouldn't be discussed without considering the effect of EI. The results underscore the importance of emotional intelligence as a key predictor of effective leadership performance and leadership competence. Organizations that prioritize the development of emotional intelligence among their leaders are likely to see improvements in overall leadership effectiveness, team dynamics, employee wellbeing and engagement as well as organizational success and performance, to name a few. Moving forward, further research and practical interventions focusing on enhancing emotional intelligence skills in leadership development programs can yield significant benefits for individuals and organizations alike.

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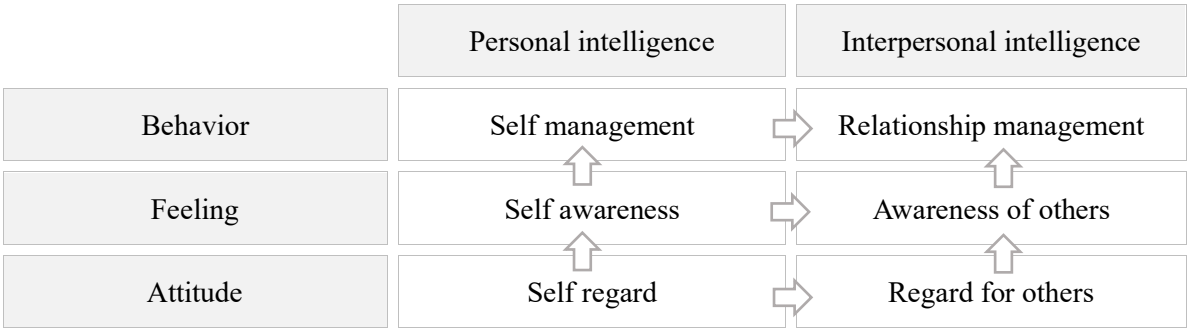
7. Appendices

Appendix 1

The dual-processing model of the EIP3 tool: three three dimensions split into personal and interpersonal intelligence.



Appendix 2

The EIP3 framework: its 16 scales and their descriptions.

EIP FRAMEWORK	EIP SCALES	CORE MEANING OF THE EIP SCALES
Attitude	Scale 1 Self regard	The degree to which an individual accepts and values themselves
	Scale 2 Regard for others	How much a person accepts and values others (as distinct from liking or approving of what they may do)
Feeling	Scale 3 Self Awareness	The degree to which a person is in touch with their physiology, feelings and intuitions
	Scale 4 Awareness of others	The degree to which a person is in touch with the feelings of others
Behaviour: **Self Management**	Scale 5 Emotional resilience	The degree to which an individual is able to pick themselves up and bounce back when things go badly for them
	Scale 6 Personal power	The degree to which a person believes that they are in charge of and take sole responsibility for their outcomes
	Scale 7 Goal directedness	The degree to which a person's behaviour is aligned with their long-term goals
	Scale 8 Flexibility	The degree to which a person feels free to adapt their thinking and behaviour to changing situations

	Scale 9 Connecting with others	The extent and ease with which an individual makes significant connections with other people
	Scale 10 Authenticity	The degree to which an individual invites the trust of others by being principled, reliable, consistent, and known
Behaviour: Relationship management	Scale 11 Trust	The tendency for a person to place the right amount of trust in others
	Scale 12 Balanced outlook	How effectively an individual balances optimism with realism
	Scale 13 Emotional expression and control	The degree to which an individual achieves appropriate balance in the expression and control of their emotions
	Scale 14 Conflict handling	How well conflict is handled; how assertive a person is
	Scale 15 Interdependence	How well an individual manages to balance taking themselves and others into account
Developing EI	Scale 16 Reflective learning	The degree to which Emotional Intelligence is enhanced by the individual reflecting on what they and others feel, think, and do, noticing the outcomes these produce and altering their patterns accordingly

Appendix 3

The leadership framework; six different dimensions of leadership and all of the 24 leadership competences.

LEADERSHIP DIMENSION	LEADERSHIP COMPETENCES
Agile mind	• Breadth of perspective • Strategic thinking • Business sense • Learning agility
Inspiring purpose	• Leading change • Communication • Influencing • Motivating & engaging
Empowering approach	• Building teams • Delegating and empowering • Coaching and developing • Managing conflict

Focus on momentum	• Drive for results • Planning & prioritizing • Directing and guiding • Decisiveness
Authentic connection	• Building relationships • Concern for others • Embracing diversity • Integrity
Steady presence	• Composure • Resilience • Courage • Personal development

Appendix 4

The structure of the P.A.P.I 3+ tool: its 26 scales and their facets.

FACTOR	SCALE	FACET
Impact & Drive	Need to a achieve	Competitiveness
		Personal success
	Persistence	Determination
		Opportunity focus
	Need to influence	Persuasive
		Dominant
	Leadership role	Confident
		Leading
	Need to be noticed	Bold
		Attention seeking
Organisation & Structure	Need to be organised	Structured
		Orderly
	Planner	Forward planning
		Careful
	Attention to detail	Critical
		Detail conscious
	Need for rules and guidelines	Need for rules
		Need for guidelines
	Need to finish a task	Completion focus
		Perseverance
Ideas & Change	Conceptual thinker	Creative

		Conceptual
	Need for change	Variety seeking
		Open to change
Interaction	Need to belong to groups	People oriented
		Team oriented
	Social harmonizer	Social
		Harmoniser
	Need to relate closely to individuals	Personal
		Frienship seeking
	Need to connect	Social confidence
		Networking
Work momentum	Ease in decision making	Purposeful
		Decisive
	Work tempo	Quick
		Fast
	Need to be direct	Independent
		Outspoken
Composure	Emotional restraint	Self-controlled
		Placid
	Optimism	Positive
		Hopeful
	Core composure	Calm
		Tolerant of criticism
	Resilience	Robust
		Buoyant
Engagement	Inspirational motivator	Inspirational
		Motivator
	Need to be upwardly supportive	Organisational commitment
		Management support
	Work focus	Passion
		Satisfaction