

**THE ROLE OF EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY  
INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP: AN INTEGRATIVE REVIEW**

**C. GREYLING**

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**THE ROLE OF EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP: AN  
INTEGRATIVE REVIEW**

By

Candice Greyling

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Supervisor: Prof. R. van Niekerk

Co-Supervisor: Ms. M.J. de Jager

**Declaration of Authenticity**

I, Candice Greyling (s209010230), hereby declare that the treatise for MA Health and Welfare Management to be awarded is my own work and that it has not previously been submitted for assessment or completion of any postgraduate qualification to another University or for another qualification.

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Candice Greyling

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**Table of Contents**

**Declaration of Authenticity.....ii**

**Acknowledgements.....iii**

**Table of Contents.....iv**

**List of Figures and Appendices.....vii**

**Abstract.....viii**

**Chapter 1 Introduction.....1**

1.1. Overview of Chapter.....1

1.2. Background and Motivation.....1

1.3. Theoretical Framework.....4

1.4. Problem Formulation and Research Method.....4

    1.4.1. Problem statement.....4

    1.4.2. Aim of this study.....5

    1.4.3. Research design and methodology.....5

1.5. Structure of the Treatise.....6

1.6. Chapter Summary.....7

**Chapter 2 Literature Review.....8**

2.1. Overview of Chapter.....8

2.2. Emotional Intelligence.....8

2.3. Model of EI and their Measurements.....11

    2.3.1. Ability model of EI.....11

    2.3.2. Mixed models of EI.....12

2.4. Physiology of EI.....13

2.5. Empathy.....15

2.6. Leadership.....19

2.7. The Role of Empathy in Emotionally Intelligent Leadership.....20

2.8. Chapter Summary.....24

**Chapter 3 Research Methodology.....25**

3.1. Overview of Chapter.....25

3.2. Research Question.....25

3.3. Research Design and Methodology.....26

    3.3.1. Research design.....26

    3.3.2. Advantages and disadvantages of an integrative review.....28

3.4. Target Documentation.....29

3.5. Steps and Procedure.....30

    3.5.1. Formulating a focused evidence analysis question.....31

    3.5.2. Gathering and classification of evidence.....31

        3.5.2.1. Literature search strategy.....32

        3.5.2.2. Selecting the studies.....32

        3.5.2.3. Inclusion criteria.....33

    3.5.3. Critical appraisal of articles.....34

    3.5.4. Summary of evidence.....36

        3.5.4.1. Data extraction.....36

        3.5.4.2. Data synthesis and integration.....37

    3.5.5 Formulation and grading of conclusions.....37

3.6. Rigour.....37

3.7. Ethical Considerations.....40

3.8. Chapter Summary.....41

**Chapter 4 Findings and Discussion.....42**

4.1. Overview of Chapter.....42

4.2. Research Output.....	42
4.3. Findings and Discussion.....	44
4.3.1. Effect on relationship with subordinates.....	44
4.3.1.1. Level of EI.....	44
4.3.1.2. Empathy and communication.....	45
4.3.1.3. Leader behaviour.....	46
4.3.2. Empathy as EI ability.....	47
4.3.2.1. Recognising emotions in self and others (self- and social awareness)....	47
4.3.2.2. Regulating emotions in self and others (self-management and social skills).....	49
4.3.3. Leadership performance/effectiveness.....	51
4.3.4. Transformational leadership style.....	54
4.3.5. Training EI.....	55
4.3.6. Group performance.....	56
4.4. Chapter Summary.....	57
<b>Chapter 5 Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations.....</b>	<b>58</b>
5.1. Overview of Chapter.....	58
5.2. Summary of Positive Findings.....	58
5.3. Value of Study.....	62
5.4. Limitations of the Study.....	63
5.5. Recommendations for Further Research.....	64
5.6. Chapter Summary.....	66
<b>References.....</b>	<b>67</b>

**List of Figures and Appendices**

**Figures**

Figure 1. The stages of the integrative review.....43

**Appendices**

Appendix A. Summary of search results.....80

Appendix B. List of Articles Retrieved for Inclusion/Exclusion.....82

Appendix C. Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Table.....89

Appendix D. Critical Appraisal Sheets.....95

Appendix E. Data Extraction Sheets.....99

Appendix F. Emergent Themes.....103



### **Abstract**

Empathy is regarded as a fundamental interpersonal skill. Interpersonal skills are the life skills that we make use of every day to communicate and interact with other people, both individually and in groups. In this study, empathy is given prominence as a component of emotional intelligence. The concept emotional intelligence has enjoyed great popularity in recent years. In this study leadership denotes any person in a leadership position within an organisation.

Extensive research has been done on the impact of emotional intelligence on organisations and leadership. Therefore, the aim of this study is to critically analyse the available evidence and to provide a clear review and synthesis of the role that empathy plays in emotionally intelligent leadership.

The methodology used in this study will be that of an integrative review. An integrative review summarises the best-quality empirical evidence of the benefits and limitations of a specific practice to provide recommendations for future research. Data to be reviewed include articles in scholarly journals, books, theses and computerised databases. International and national literature involving both quantitative and qualitative research studies will be reviewed.

As both qualitative and quantitative research studies will be of focus in this integrative review, rigour in both research methods was considered. The reviewer also considered four ethical considerations, namely: quality, transparency, honesty and plagiarism.

*Keywords:* emotional intelligence, empathy, role, leadership, manager, employer, subordinates, integrative review.

## **Chapter 1**

### **Introduction**

#### **1.1. Overview of Chapter**

This introductory chapter outlines the key focus areas of the study. These include the background and motivation for the study, a brief overview of the theoretical frameworks utilised, a description of the problem formulation and research methodology, and a delineation of the structure of the study.

#### **1.2. Background and Motivation**

Emotional intelligence (EI) was originally conceptualised by Salovey and Mayer (1990), however, EI was popularised outside academia by Daniel Goleman (Bulmer-Smith, Profetto-McGrath & Cummings, 2009). The topic of EI has been extensively researched and popularised - and often highly acclaimed, as well as criticised. There are many different models and definitions of EI (Bulmer-Smith et al., 2009). EI is a relatively new field and this has consequently led to several competing definitions, although many of the mainstream schools of thought within the paradigm have some degree of overlap. EI is sometimes referred to as emotional quotient or EQ (Mersino, 2013). This is to show the relationship to intelligence quotient (IQ). EI is known to be associated with non-cognitive abilities, capacities and competencies and thus represents the non-cognitive potential of an individual (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). Researchers use the terms EQ and EI interchangeably. For the purposes of this study the term EI will be used.

The influence of EI on leadership and management practice has also been investigated and popularised in recent years (Hicks & Dess, 2008). Batool (2013) cautions that EI does not fit the classic historical models of leadership. Leaders are now required to manage and lead an

empowered workforce, collaborate with others, manage cross-organisational and -cultural boundaries and need to create a shared direction. In addition to this they also need to align commitment between social groups with very different histories, perspectives, values and cultures. A top priority for many organisations today is to look beyond the traditional strategies for leadership development and recruitment to create a team of leaders capable of moving the company forward (Gentry, Weber & Sadri, 2007). An emphasis on a high IQ alone is insufficient when recruiting for leadership positions. There are many unanswered questions pertaining to leaders who are intelligent and yet fail in leadership, to the extent that some individuals question the role of intelligence (Doe, Ndinguri & Phipps, 2015). According to Dulewicz and Higgs (2000), the combination of both IQ and EI is a more powerful predictor of success. There is no question that IQ is a better determinant of career success, but once an individual is in a job requiring a high IQ, intellect loses its power in determining a productive employee or effective leader (Goleman, 2011). Recent research has also found that effective leaders consistently have a high level of EI and that EI is a better predictor of life success (personally and professionally) than IQ (Hicks & Dess, 2008). Leaders with high EI competencies can identify, assess, predict and take control of their own emotions, as well as the emotions of their team members (Davies, Stankov & Roberts, 1998; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

EI consists of five components: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skill. The first three components are self-management skills, whereas the last two involve the ability to manage relationships (Hicks & Dess, 2008). Empathy is thus one of the constructs of EI that is fundamental to leadership. It stands to reason that empathy would go a long way toward meeting these people-oriented managerial and leadership requirements (Gentry et al., 2007).

Empathy concerns the interpersonal realm of EI and has an important role to play in leading people, which is fundamentally an emotional- and interpersonal activity (Fried, 1995; Yukl, 1998). Many leadership theories suggest that the ability to have and display empathy is an important part of leadership (Gentry et al., 2007). Salovey and Mayer (1990) propose that empathy may be a central characteristic of emotionally intelligent behaviour. They define empathy as the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself. Several researchers also believe that empathy is critical to being an effective leader (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; George, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and that leaders, if given sufficient time and support, can develop and enhance their empathic skills through coaching, training, or developmental opportunities and initiatives (Gentry et al., 2007). In their review of leadership effectiveness, House and Podsakoff (1994) observed that outstanding leaders differ from less effective leaders in their higher consideration of and sensitivity to the needs of their followers.

According to Goleman (1998, p.8) "empathy is particularly important today as a component of leadership for at least three reasons: the increasing use of teams, the rapid pace of globalisation, and the growing need to retain talent". This means that leaders need to thoughtfully consider employees' feelings, along with other factors, in the process of making intelligent decisions. Empathy has been found to be the most important EI predictor of authentic leadership. In order to develop authentic leaders, it may be meaningful to identify how empathy manifests in the workplace, as no detailed descriptions of empathic behaviour in the workplace exist (Kotze & Nel, 2015).

### **1.3. Theoretical Framework**

Two generally accepted approaches to the definition and measurement of EI are reflected in the literature, namely mixed models and ability models (Vallverdu & Casacuberta, 2009). The theoretical models that formed the focus of this study are the ability model of Salovey and Mayer (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), and the mixed models of Bar-On (2006) and Goleman (1998).

The ability model of Salovey and Mayer posits that EI is a cognitive ability which is separate from, but also associated with general intelligence. This model consists of four different abilities (or branches) including; perception of emotion, emotional facilitation, understanding emotions, and management of emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). These branches are well-organised from basic to higher-order abilities which develop as an individual matures (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Conversely, the mixed models of EI consist of certain emotional and social competencies. These competencies are not frequently viewed as innate talents, but rather as learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman (1998) particularly suggests that individuals are born with a general EI that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. These theoretical models of EI have been extensively researched and are widely used. They are therefore regarded as appropriate models to use for this study.

### **1.4. Problem Formulation and Research Method**

**1.4.1. Problem statement.** Given the recent popularity of this topic there is a bulk of literature available, with new research being added continuously. Integrative reviews in which studies were methodically selected, appraised and summarised are, however, lacking. During a preliminary review of the literature no existing reviews on the topic could be found. The

reviewer hand searched journals, theses, books, and computerised databases. The databases searched were: Academic Search Complete; Business Source Complete; CINAHL; ERIC (Education Resource Information Center); Health Source - Consumer Edition; Health Source: Nursing/Academic Edition; MasterFILE Premier; MEDLINE; and PsycINFO. Google Scholar, Sabinet: SA ePublications and the Cochrane Library were also consulted in the search. The literature search for this review took place during March 2017.

This study was undertaken to gain an in-depth and comprehensive understanding of, as well as to critically synthesise, the best available evidence on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership. A clear summary of available evidence on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership will thus be established. The study will be conducted in the hope of strengthening research in this field, which will ultimately lead to improved knowledge on the topic of EI in leadership, and more specifically, the role that empathy plays.

**1.4.2. Aim of this study.** The primary aim of this study is to critically appraise and synthesise, by means of an integrative review, the best available evidence on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership. This integrative review will provide a comprehensive synthesis of the findings reported in the literature from 1996 to 2016. The study was undertaken to gain an in-depth understanding of this topic, and aimed at presenting a concise representation of the available literature at both national and international levels and to provide recommendations for future research. In doing so, this study aims to answer the following research question: What is the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership?

**1.4.3. Research design and methodology.** The methodology employed for this study will be an integrative review. Several studies have been done on the topic of EI, and more specifically, on the relationship between empathy and emotionally intelligent leadership. Because there is

such a vast body of research on the topic of this study, an integrative review provides a succinct overview of the research conducted thus far.

Integrative reviews aim at comprehensively synthesising research that relates to particular questions, using organised, transparent, and replicable procedures. The integrative review method is an approach that allows for the inclusion of diverse methodologies (i.e. experimental and non-experimental research) and has the potential to play a greater role in evidence-based practice (Whittemore & Knafl, 2005). This evidence analysis process is conducted according to five steps as described by the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (2012). As both qualitative and quantitative research studies were the focus of this integrative review, the reviewer considered rigour in both research methods. Due consideration was also given to any ethical concerns associated with this type of methodology.

### **1.5. Structure of the Treatise**

This treatise will be structured as follows:

Chapter two includes an overview of literature and aims to position the study within existing research relevant to the field of this study. It also aims at providing the context and theoretical framework for understanding the importance of this study.

Chapter three outlines the methodology employed in the present study. The chapter describes the research design, target documentation and procedures followed. The assurance of rigour and ethical considerations are also discussed.

Chapter four presents the research output and emergent themes of the study. These are followed by a narrative synthesis of the data.

Conclusions of the study are discussed in chapter five. This chapter offers a summary of the research findings. The value of the study and limitations are then outlined. This is followed by recommendations for future research.

### **1.6. Chapter Summary**

This chapter introduced key elements of the study. The motivation and theoretical framework for the study were briefly outlined. The problem statement, aim of the study and research methodology was then discussed, followed by a brief overview of the structure of this treatise.



## **Chapter 2**

### **Literature Review**

#### **2.1. Overview of Chapter**

The following review aims to position the study within existing research relevant to the field and provide the context for understanding the importance of this study. Firstly, the concept EI is outlined, followed by a discussion about empathy as a component of EI. An overview of the literature on leadership is then provided. The chapter concludes with a discussion on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership.

#### **2.2. Emotional Intelligence**

The conceptualisation of EI has developed considerably in recent years. Mayer (2006) found that the history of EI can be divided into five time periods. From 1900 to 1969 the psychological study of intelligence and of emotion were treated as separate areas. It is only from 1970 to 1989 that theorists started focusing on how emotions and thought influenced each other. The period from 1990 to 1993 marked the emergence of EI as a topic of study, whereafter the concept was popularised from 1994 to 1997. The last period refers to the present era, starting in 1998, where clarifying research has been taking place. It is only in the present era that several refinements to the concept of EI have emerged, along with the introduction of new assessment measures.

It is for these reasons that the field of EI remains a contentious one. EI is a relatively new field and this has therefore led to several competing definitions and many of the mainstream schools of thought within the paradigm have some degree of overlap. The characterisation of EI by various theories and models has drawn a great deal of criticism. As this is a new field these

differences signify health, however, it also poses challenges to the field (Palmer, Gignac, Ekermans & Stough, 2008).

There are many different models and definitions of EI. Salovey and Mayer (1990) define EI as a type of intelligence that involves the ability to monitor emotions, discriminate amongst them, and use the information to guide thinking and actions. This definition of EI, employed in the ability model, views it as a general, traditional intelligence made up of specific interrelated abilities (Mayer, 2006). Other definitions of EI that are more focused on traits, as opposed to abilities, are labelled as mixed models (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). One such definition is that of Bar-On (1997, p14) noting that EI is “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures.” A broad definition by Becahra, Tranel and Damasio (2000) states that EI is a collection of emotional abilities that constitute a form of intelligence that is different from cognitive intelligence.

EI thus refers to all of the processes involved in the recognition, use, understanding, and management of one’s own and other’s emotional states to solve emotion-laden problems and to regulate behaviour (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Mayer and Salovey (1993) state that the scope of EI includes verbal and nonverbal appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion in the self and in others, and the utilisation of emotional content in problem solving.

EI is known to be associated with non-cognitive abilities, capacities and competencies and thus represents non-cognitive potential (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). Cognitive or general intelligence is an inborn, as well as learned phenomenon (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). Similarly, EI also has some inborn facets, such as level of emotional sensitivity, emotional processing and

emotional learning ability. Yet, individuals can, at any stage, age or juncture of their lives, learn, practice and bring improvement to their current levels of EI (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). Unlike general intelligence, this innate potential of EI is expected to be influenced by individuals' experiences, and interactions with their environment (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). Issues related to the definition and measurement of EI continue to generate debate and controversy. However, there seems to be general agreement among the major models of the EI paradigm that the competencies, skills, and abilities related to EI can be developed (Palmer et al., 2008).

According to Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (1999) the construct of any intelligence must meet several standard criteria before it can be considered scientifically legitimate. First, it should be capable of being operationalised as a set of abilities. Second, it should meet certain correlational criteria: the abilities defined by the intelligence should form a related set, and be related to pre-existing intelligences, while also showing some unique variance. Third, the abilities of the intelligence should develop with age and experience. A study done by Mayer et al. (2000) show that EI, as measured by the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale (MEIS), meets the above three criteria of a standard intelligence.

Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2004) posited that EI received widespread interest. This is due to the increasing importance attributed to emotion management for people in modern society. Matthews et al. (2004) add that EI can be trained and improved in various social contexts, such as educational, occupational, and interpersonal. Personal and societal benefits will follow from investment into programmes to increase EI. There is still a necessity for more research to gain clarity regarding the impact EI may have on individual and organisational performance (Stein, Papadoniannis, Yip & Sitarenios, 2009).

### **2.3. Models of EI and their Measurements.**

In addition to the debate surrounding the appropriateness of various models of EI, a second debate has focused on the operationalisation of the construct. Despite considerable debate about the definition and measurement of EI, researchers have developed a better understanding of the different approaches and how they relate to each other (Palmer et al., 2008). There are a number of instruments available to assess EI. The instruments tend to differ in three areas: the person providing the assessment, the mechanism for measurement, and the underlying theoretical framework (Mersino, 2013). Researchers and practitioners have often associated the various approaches to EI with specific assessment instruments, or assessment methodology, when, in fact, all the various models lend themselves to methods of assessment which differ from the methods with which they are often associated (Palmer et al., 2008). Two generally accepted approaches to the definition and measurement of EI are reflected in the literature, namely mixed models and ability models (Vallverdu & Casacuberta, 2009). These models will now be described.

**2.3.1. Ability model of EI.** Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer first published their work on this concept in 1990 (Mayer et al., 1990; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). They later published a revised theory of EI (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). This revised theory elaborated on the existence of four inter-related areas of EI: to perceive emotions in oneself and others, to understand emotions, to use them to facilitate thought, and lastly to manage them in oneself and others. This theory defines EI as,

the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion

and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p.10)

The ability model of EI (or cognitive-emotional ability) concerns emotion-related cognitive abilities that should be measured via maximum-performance tests (Petrides, 2011). The most frequently used performance assessment is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso EI Test (MSCEIT) published in 2001. The test data provide an estimate of the individual's ability to solve problems about emotions, or problems that require the use of emotions.

**2.3.2. Mixed models of EI.** The mixed models approach include both ability and personality characteristics as important factors in EI (Palmer et al., 2008). Unlike the ability model, the mixed models approach includes non-ability traits, such as motivation, optimism, interpersonal skill and stress management, in theorising EI (Sengupta, 2007).

Bar-On's model of EI (2006) is one of the most well-known mixed models. This model defines EI as an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Mayer, 2006). Bar-On's (2006) model of social and emotional intelligence groups these skills under five headings: interpersonal skills (including empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships), intrapersonal skills (including emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, self regard and self actualisation), adaptability, stress management ability (including stress management and impulse control), and lastly general mood (including happiness and optimism). According to this model emotional-social intelligence is "a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves, understand others and relate with them, and cope with daily demands" (Bar-On, 2006, p.3).

The Bar-On model provides the theoretical basis for the EQ-i measure. The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is one of the most widely used and oldest self-report measures of EI. The assessment requires participants to report for themselves as possessing, or not possessing, an attribute, or describe themselves on a Likert-type scale. The assessment can be modified to become the EQ-360. This means that, in addition to the self-report scales, reports provided by observers, who are familiar with the individual, are taken into account when scoring (Mangal & Mangal, 2015).

Another popular and accepted mixed model of EI is the one proposed by Daniel Goleman. Similar to the Bar-On model, Goleman's model also emphasises 'non-cognitive intelligence' (Muyia, 2009). Goleman, who believes that EI is a competence that can be developed, lists five key components of EI, namely self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and social skills (Goleman, 1998). This model views EI as a total of personal and social competencies (Sengupta, 2007). Personal competence comprises the dimensions of self-awareness, self-regulation and motivation. Social competence comprises empathy and social skills (Sengupta, 2007). The Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) was developed by Daniel Goleman and his collaborators. This tool is also a self-report inventory. A related version of the ECI, the ECI 2.2, is a 360-degree tool designed to assess the emotional and social competencies of individuals in the workplace. It mainly measures two broad emotional competencies of individuals: personal competence (managing the self) and social competence (managing social relationships) (Mangal & Mangal, 2015).

### **2.4. Physiology of EI**

EI refers to a set of abilities or competencies that are essential features to human social life. Since social organisation is an integral component to human survival, the ability to understand

and cooperate with one another must take centre stage. Therefore, a large and significant proportion of our brain is dedicated to carrying out the complex web of social interactions that take place within our species (Aults, 2012).

The human brain consists of three separate, yet interconnected, parts. They are the hindbrain (reptilian brain), the neocortex (rational brain) and limbic system, popularly known as the emotional brain (Kohlrieser, 2006). Kohlrieser furthermore proposes that, at its most basic level, the brain is hardwired for attack or defence. This fight-or-flight mechanism is controlled by our reptilian brain. The reptilian brain is responsible for all basic urges such as fight, flight, hunger, or fear. The neocortex is responsible for more specific cognitive processes such as abstract thought, words, symbols and logic, whereas the limbic system handles emotions and feelings. That is why the limbic system is most often referred to as the 'emotional brain'. Two major parts of the limbic system are the amygdala and the hippocampus. The limbic system is also responsible for hormone levels, body temperature and motor functions (Fournier, 2016).

General intelligence is undeniably regarded as a function of our rational brain. EI on the other hand, is a product of the coordination and partnership between the limbic- and rational brain (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). These authors further posit that sensations enter the brain at the back near the spinal cord, and that task- and rational thinking take place on the opposite side of the brain, at the front. The emotional and rational brains thus need to remain in coordination and communication constantly. It is in this communication and coordination that the physical source of EI can be found. By blending the thoughts given and guidance offered by the rational brain with the rich sensory information and feelings from the emotional brain, we can be in a better position to direct our actions and behaviours on a proper path for the realisation of our motives (Mangal & Mangal, 2015).

Perhaps the most thought-provoking recent discovery in behavioural neuroscience is the identification of mirror neurons in widely dispersed areas of the brain. When we consciously or sub-consciously detect someone's emotions through their actions, our mirror neurons reproduce those emotions. Collectively, these neurons create an instant sense of shared experience. The discovery of mirror neurons is of particular importance to organisations since leaders' emotions and actions prompt followers to mirror those feelings and deeds (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008).

### **2.5. Empathy**

Empathy concerns the interpersonal realm of EI. It describes the awareness and management of the feelings and emotions of others (Mangal & Mangal, 2015). In all the aforementioned models and approaches concerned with EI it is evident that empathy is an important component of EI with regard to interpersonal relationships. Salovey and Mayer (1990) declare that empathy may be an essential characteristic of emotionally intelligent behaviour. Humphrey (2002) adds that empathy is shown to be an important variable that is fundamental to both EI and leadership emergence. As empathy has been shown to be the most important EI predictor of authentic leadership, leaders need to understand when subordinates perceive a leader as displaying empathic emotion (Kotze & Nel, 2015).

According to Montag, Gallinat and Heinz (2008), Theodor Lipps coined the German word *Einfühlung*. In German the words *ein* means 'in' and *föhlung* means 'feeling'. This term was used to describe empathy as the power of projecting one's own personality into, and so fully comprehending another's personality, and being in-feeling with another (Vincent, 2005). In 1909 the psychologist Edward Titchener introduced the term "empathy" into the English language as a translation of "Einföhlung". Empathy is derived from the ancient Greek word *empathia* (Coplan & Goldie, 2011).



Developmental perspectives on empathy suggest that assessment of one's own feelings and those of others are highly related. In fact, one may not exist without the other. These skills enable individuals to gauge accurately the affective responses in others and to choose socially acceptable behaviours in response (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Hardwick (2007) linked empathy to EI noting that several studies have shown that emotional 'attunement', or empathy, has little to do with rational intelligence. Empathy is a core competency that assists people in addressing the challenges of social living (Goleman, 1998). Empathy allows one to quickly and automatically relate to the emotional states of others. It is thus essential for the regulation of social interactions, coordinated activity, and cooperation toward shared goals (de Waal, 2008).

There seems to be little agreement on the definition of empathy. There is an ongoing debate about the construct of empathy, described respectively as a cognitive attribute featuring understanding of experiences of others; or as an emotional state of the mind featuring sharing of feelings; and at other times, as a concept involving both cognition and emotion (Hojat, 2007). Eisenberg and Strayer (1987) add that researchers have debated whether empathy is an emotional or cognitive construct, also whether empathy is considered in content, or process terms, or both. Although a specific definition of empathy may be ambiguous, it broadly includes the idea that empathy is the lens through which we view others' emotional expressions, and respond to them (Sucksmith, Allison, Baron-Cohen, Chakrabarti & Hoekstra, 2013). According to Carl Rogers (1980, p.140) "the state of empathy, or being empathic, is to perceive the internal frame of reference of another with accuracy, and with the emotional components and meanings which pertain thereto, as if one were the other person, but without ever losing the "as if" condition".

Davis (1994) describes empathy as the drive to identify another person's emotions and to respond with an appropriate emotion. Empathising involves understanding another person in

order to predict their behaviour, and to connect or resonate with them emotionally. Stein and Book (2006) support the position that, at its core, empathy is the ability to see the world from another person's perspective, the capacity to tune into what someone else might be thinking and feeling about a situation – regardless of how that view might differ from your own perception. Sengupta (2007) explicates that empathy is the ability to feel and acquire concern for others, to take their perspective and to treat people according to their emotional reactions. People with this ability are experts in generating and motivating others. It is the ability to non-judgmentally put into words your understanding of the other person's perspective on the world, even if you do not agree with it. Being empathic shifts an adversarial relationship to a collaborative relationship. When a relationship is an effective collaboration, you maximise your ability to get what you want or need from the other party (Stein & Book, 2006).

There are various layers to empathy. Empathy covers all the ways in which one individual's emotional state affects another's, with simple mechanisms at its core and more complex mechanisms and perspective-taking abilities as its outer layers. Because of this layered nature of the capacities involved, de Waal (2008) speaks of the Russian (matryoshka) doll model. In the Russian doll model the simplest mechanism is emotional contagion. This means that the lowest common denominator of all empathic processes is that one party is affected by another's emotional or arousal state. An example of emotional contagion would be when babies start crying when they hear other babies crying – long before they develop a sense of self separate from others (Simner, 1971). The next step that builds upon emotional contagion is sympathetic concern. This occurs when emotional contagion is combined with appraisal of the other's situation and attempts to understand the cause of the other's emotions. The largest 'doll' and outer layer of empathy refers to empathic perspective-taking. Perspective-taking by itself is

hardly empathy. It is only so in combination with emotional engagement. Empathy thus crucially depends upon self-awareness and self/other distinction (Singer & Lamm, 2009).

Much of our knowledge on empathy has been limited by available technologies, with little integration across methods. Thus, investigations of the role of the function and structure of empathy has greatly depended on what was chosen to measure and how it was measured. Different researchers have employed a host of disparate ways to measure empathy (Pedersen, 2009). Most measures are narrow in scope, though, and as a result, are limited in their ability to provide valid and reliable data (Levenson and Ruef, 1992). Gerdes, Segal and Lietz (2010) assert that likert-type self-report measures are by far the most typical instrument used in empathy research. There are also a few measures that make use of observation to gather data. Olckers, Buys and Grobler (2010) suggest that a number of instruments exist to measure empathy. Some of the most widely used questionnaires include the Hogan Empathy Scale (Hogan, 1969), the Emotional Empathic Tendency Scale (Mehrabian & Epstein, 1972), the Interpersonal Relativity Scale Index (Davis, 1980) and the Multi-dimensional Emotional Empathy Scale (Caruso & Mayer, 1998).

There is a distinction between measures of situational and dispositional empathy. Situational empathy refers to an empathic reaction to a specific situation, whereas dispositional empathy is where empathy is understood as a person's character trait (Stueber, 2017). Situational and dispositional empathy are most commonly measured through self-reports, physiological measures (such as methods that measure facial muscle activity, or skin conductivity changes), reports of others, or by relying on the administration of various questionnaires associated with specific empathy scales (Stueber, 2017). Stueber (2017) adds that none of these measures are perfect tools. The least commonly utilised measures of empathy are physiological measures as

they are more complicated and require more resources than self-report and observation methods (Gerdes et al., 2010).

### **2.6. Leadership**

The concept of EI continues to occupy a prominent space in the leadership literature and in everyday coaching practices (Goleman & Boyatzis, 2008). Ricketts and Ricketts (2011) reported that leadership means different things to different authors and that leadership is usually defined according to their individual perspectives, or the contexts that have meaning to them. Bass and Stogdill (1990) suggest that some definitions describe leadership as a focus of group processes, while others view leadership from a personality perspective which suggests that leadership is a combination of special traits, or characteristics that some individuals possess. Other approaches define it as an act, or behaviour. Northouse (2013) adds that some scholars define leadership in terms of a power relationship or a transformational process or from a skills perspective.

According to Northouse (2013) leadership can be defined as a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Ricketts and Ricketts (2011) define leadership as the ability of a person to move an organisation or group toward the achievement or accomplishment of its goals and objectives, using the style most effective in each situation. According to Fried (1995), leading people is fundamentally an emotional activity. Leadership is also not a quality that one individual has and another has not. It is learned behaviour that anyone can acquire or improve by study and application (Ricketts & Ricketts, 2011). People working in leadership positions are constantly immersed in the emotional demands placed on them by their peers, students and members of the community. Among leadership theories, all the components of EI - and more specifically, empathy - are significantly correlated to authentic leadership (Kotze & Nel, 2015).

## **2.7. The Role of Empathy in Emotionally Intelligent Leadership**

Interest in emotionally intelligent leadership can be attributed to many different reasons most notable for its potential value to predict success as a leader and to help explain the difference between outstanding and average levels of leadership performance (Herbst, Maree & Sibanda 2006). In recent years the concept of EI has gained popularity as a potential primary attribute of effective leadership. However, despite the growing interest in relating EI to effective leadership, relatively little empirical research has been published that explicitly examines this relationship (Herbst et al., 2006).

In addition to the increasing recognition of EI as an important leadership skill, empathy is also being acknowledged as a powerful interpersonal tool that is frequently underutilised (Martinuzzi, 2006). There is a growing body of literature devoted to the study of empathy as a tributary leadership skill. Connelly (2014) found that leaders in organisations have traditionally viewed empathy with scepticism, as it was perceived that there is no place for ‘soft emotional skills’ in the world of business. However, changing times and the recognition of the strategic advantages of taking employees feelings into consideration have lead to empathy being regarded as a critical skill for effective leaders.

Shankman, Allen and Haber-Curran (2015) suggest that being empathetic helps with building healthy relationships, managing difficult situations and developing trust. To be empathetic requires awareness of what an individual is feeling. This may enable the individual to acknowledge and identify what others may be feeling. Stein and Book (2006) pronounce empathy as a powerful interpersonal tool. According to Levenson and Ruef (1992) empathy is a part of the social fabric of emotion, providing a bridge between the feelings of one person and those of another. The success of our interpersonal relationships is decidedly dependent on

processing social information and our affective communication skills (Aults, 2012). Evans (2009) posited that empathy guides and allows us to join into groups with some feeling of safety. It also helps us to steer away from situations that may seem unsafe. It provides us with the opportunity for deep personal connections and it also creates emotional bonds in a group and leads to heightened intuition. It is for these reasons that empathy is an outright requirement for leadership (Shankman et al., 2015).

Stein and Book (2006) outline three common misconceptions about empathy. Firstly, it is sometimes confused with being polite and making pleasant statements. Secondly, empathy often gets confused with sympathy. Sympathy as defined by Eisenberg and Strayer (1987) is “feeling for” someone, and refers to feelings of sorrow, or feeling sorry for another. Lastly it may be believed that making an empathic statement might seem to be approving, or agreeing with another person’s position. However, empathy is simply an acknowledgement of another person’s viewpoint. By expressing empathy, one admits the existence of the viewpoint without passing judgement on its validity.

Connelly (2014) lists the advantages of empathetic leaders. They are good at recognising the needs of customers, colleagues and subordinates. They are also approachable and respond directly to people’s concerns. Empathetic leaders have a lower employee turnover; they also have relationships which build trust, improve intercultural associations and connect people. Empathy, in a teamwork context, allows people to understand one another’s views, to motivate one another, to assist one another in alleviating the stress that individual team members may experience and to move across culturally defined barriers (Goleman, 1998). Furthermore, cultural sensitivity is also increasingly important in a multicultural society, such as in South

Africa. The presence of empathy exists in the presence of EI, which helps cross-cultural interactions (Olckers, Buys, & Grobler, 2010).

A study by Galinsky, Magee, Inesi and Gruenfeld (2006) suggests that compared to individuals in low-power positions, individuals in positions of high-power are less focused on the meaningful psychological experiences of those around them. This might be one of the reasons why leaders overlook the human component (emotional connection) involved in leadership. Research also indicates that business students and business leaders seem to have lower degrees of empathy. Brown, Sautter, Littvay, Sautter and Bearnese (2010), for example, assert that multiple studies report that business students are more focused on self-interest than students in other fields. Brown et al. (2010) assert that business schools are still focusing too much on academic and social skill sets that will help students succeed in a competitive world, and too little on interpersonal or 'softer' skills.

In a study by Stein et al. (2009) the EQ-i was administered to a group of top executives. As hypothesised, the sample of executives obtained significantly higher total EQ-I scores than the general population. The results showed that these executives demonstrated higher intrapersonal, general mood and adaptability scores. The executive group also displayed greater self-regard, self-actualization, assertiveness and independence scores. The capacity to posit assumptions, theories and beliefs with confidence, as well as remaining self-directed, most likely enhanced the level of influence for those holding leadership positions. Most notably, the top executives obtained significantly higher scores in terms of problem solving and flexibility. The researchers suggest that executives seemed to be able to survive in their corporate environment through the continual adjustment of emotions and thoughts, and through the latent ability to diagnose problems and tailor solutions. Optimism and stress tolerance was yet another point of

differentiation when comparing executives to the general population. This lends support to the findings of Fox and Amichai-Hamburger (2001), which suggests that, in order to empower an organisation, a leader must maintain a positive and calm attitude when facing adversity, as well as when setting a corporate vision.

Significantly lower scores were found when comparing the executive group with the general population on the subscales of social responsibility and impulse control. The researchers postulated that this is not surprising. This is due to the notion that an executive may at times have to lower his or her social consciousness in order to make tough decisions. The lower than average impulse control scores may also be due to the constantly changing demands of the marketplace, coupled with the desire for organisational success.

A similar study by Herbst et al. (2006) investigated the significance of EI for leadership effectiveness, focusing on a South African context. They examined the possible relationship between four facets of EI (defined as a multi-faceted ability) and five possible practices of exemplary leaders at a higher education institution. They administered the MSCEIT and measured its results against the results of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). The outcomes provide some evidence that managers with the ability to understand and manage emotions are more effective in challenging the process and in inspiring a shared vision. Furthermore, the ability to manage their own, as well as the emotions of other people, emerged as a strong predictor of leadership effectiveness in general.

Many great leaders have vast reserves of empathy, interpersonal astuteness, and awareness of their own feelings and their impact on others. More importantly, they apply these capabilities judiciously to fit the situation. The key is self-regulation and properly channelling the components of EI (Hicks & Dess, 2008).



## **2.8. Chapter Summary**

This chapter provides an overview of the existing research relevant to the field of the study to provide a context for understanding the importance of this study. EI was discussed, along with empathy, as one its components. The review of literature was concluded by outlining the role of empathy in leadership. The research methodology employed in this study will be discussed in the following chapter.

## **Chapter 3**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **3.1. Overview of Chapter**

This chapter outlines the methodology employed in the present study. The research question and research design of the study are discussed. This is followed by a description of the target documentation and the procedure followed to undertake the study. The steps taken to assure rigour and ethical considerations are also discussed.

#### **3.2. Research Question**

As indicated in the previous chapter, notwithstanding a clear demonstration in past research of the important role of EI in leadership, there is no synthesised literature of the various research findings. A considerable number of studies have been done on the topic of EI, and more specifically on the relationship between empathy and emotionally intelligent leadership. Integrative reviews in which studies were methodically selected, appraised and summarised are, however, lacking. During a preliminary review of the literature no existing reviews on the topic could be found. The primary aim of this study is thus to critically appraise and synthesise, by means of an integrative review, the best available evidence on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership. The present study will therefore attempt to address the gap by employing an integrative review methodology. In doing so, this study hopes to provide a comprehensive synthesis of the findings reported in the literature from 2006 to 2016. This study also aimed at offering a concise representation of the available literature on both national and international levels, and to provide recommendations for future research in the hope of strengthening exploration in this field.

The specific objectives of this study were:

- To establish the importance of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership
- To determine what role, if any, empathy plays in emotionally intelligent leadership

In undertaking this study, the reviewer aims to answer the following research question: What is the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership?

### **3.3. Research Design and Methodology**

This section presents the research design employed for this study and also describes the various advantages and disadvantages that accompany this methodological process.

**3.3.1. Research design.** This research design is descriptive in nature and is aimed at exploring and describing the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership by means of an integrative literature review. Integrative reviews represent only one of several review methods and approaches. The other methods are systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and qualitative synthesis (Oermann & Hays, 2015). Paterson, Thorne, Canam and Jillings (2001) suggest that these meta-study approaches emphasise the importance of using explicit and reproducible criteria and methods to identify and appraise all research relevant to the focus of interest. De Sousa, da Silva and de Carvalho (2010) contend that integrative reviews, however, represent the most comprehensive methodological approach of reviews. The reason for this being that integrative reviews allow for the inclusion of experimental and non-experimental studies to fully understand the phenomenon analysed.

Recent evidence-based practice initiatives have increased the need for and the production of all types of literature reviews (Whittemore & Knafl, 2005). Evidence-based practice relies on the review and synthesis of evidence from multiple studies, rather than the report of one original

research study (Oermann & Hays, 2015). Integrative reviews aim at comprehensively synthesising research that is applicable to particular questions, using organised, transparent and replicable procedures.

The purpose of an integrative review is to collect data, to identify high-quality studies and to synthesise the findings in such a rigorous and inclusive way that a complete picture of the current best available evidence is provided (Badr, 2007). If this review is comprehensive it presents the state of the science on the topic (Oermann & Hays, 2015; Whitemore & Knafl, 2005). Reviewers of reviews of a high-quality take care to find all published and unpublished relevant studies, assess each study, synthesise the findings in an unbiased manner and present a balanced and unbiased summary of the findings with due consideration of any flaws in the evidence (Glasziou, Irwig, Bain & Colditz, 2001). The findings of each study are examined in light of other relevant studies to identify similarities and differences between them. These study findings are integrated to develop new truths and understandings, using any systematic interpretive approach used in primary qualitative research (Paterson et al., 2001). Reviewers also need to take ample precautions to minimise error and bias to increase the soundness of a study (Littell, Corcoran & Pillai, 2008).

The integrative review, with reference to the topic of this study, is thus a helpful method to summarise the best-quality empirical evidence of the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership and to provide recommendations for future research. It will also offer a summary to practitioners with limited access to a wide variety of research literature and limited time to read this literature.

Torraco (2005) states that most integrative reviews are intended to address two general kinds of topics, namely mature, or new emerging topics. An integrative review on a mature topic

addresses the need for a review, critique, and potential reconceptualisation of the expanding and more diversified knowledge base of the topic as it continues to develop. The second kind of integrative review addresses new or emerging topics that would benefit from a holistic conceptualisation and synthesis of the literature to date. Reviews addressing mature or emerging topics may lead to a framework that offers a new perspective on the topic.

**3.3.2. Advantages and disadvantages of an integrative review.** There are many advantages to conducting integrative reviews. Glasziou et al. (2001) point out that it may not always be possible to detect small, but significant effects from individual studies, and that by combining data that answer the same question, the reader is enabled to study the consistency of results, thereby improving the statistical power of the effect. The accuracy of a topic is hence increased.

Sholapurkar (2011) also lists the following additional advantages of integrative reviews:

- The use of a pre-determined methodology for searching and selecting studies limit bias and random error.
- Combining studies allows for more reliable and accurate conclusions.
- The collection of a large amount of information from several studies becomes available in a processed format. This can indicate whether results of different studies are consistent in their findings.
- Increasing the possibility to generalise the results of different studies.

It must be noted that despite the scientific rigour and value attached to reviews, there are also a few disadvantages associated with integrative reviews. Lang (2010) states that complete access to literature is essential to conducting reviews. Although online access to full-text articles is improving, the number of articles available at a particular time may not yet be sufficient for conducting reviews entirely online. Another disadvantage may be that suitable research may be

published in a foreign language. This may restrict the pool of articles that can be reviewed. Sholapurkar (2011) adds that bias and methodological errors may occur, and unless regularly updated to include new studies, integrative reviews quickly become outdated. The time and effort required to conduct a review could also mean that it requires a fairly large budget. Researchers could also be influenced to find results that suited their funders (Shuttleworth, 2009; Torgerson, 2003), which is contrary to the unbiased nature associated with reviews.

The integrative literature review nevertheless plays an important role in stimulating further research on the topic. The appeal of an integrative literature review is its capacity to generate new ideas and directions for the field (Torraco, 2005).

### **3.4. Target Documentation**

The data reviewed during this investigation include English and Afrikaans articles in scholarly journals, books, theses and computerised databases. To broaden the scope of the literature to be reviewed, the reviewer considered both quantitative and qualitative studies. Given the limited number of such studies done in South Africa, the reviewer considered both international and national literature. The data needed for this review were located by using the following sources and databases: EBSCOhost: Academic Search Complete; Business Source Complete; CINAHL; ERIC (Education Resource Information Center); Health Source - Consumer Edition; Health Source: Nursing/Academic Edition; MasterFILE Premier; MEDLINE; and PsycINFO, Emerald Insight, JSTOR, PubMed Central; SAGE; ScienceDirect; SpringerLink; Nexus and Sabinet: SAe Publications. The reviewer also checked reference lists to identify relevant studies, made use of Interlibrary Loans and hand searched journals. Journal hand searching is a method that entails manually examining various issues of journals to find relevant articles. The literature search for this review took place during March 2017.

A rating system commonly used to make decisions about evidence has been developed by LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (2014), and was useful in indicating the levels of evidence to be selected for this research study. All levels of evidence were the focus for this research study, as the purpose of the study was to provide a current and comprehensive synthesis of available evidence. The levels of evidence were graded as follows:

- Level I: Best (clinical) practice guidelines based on systematic reviews; systematic review, or meta-analysis of randomised control trials.
- Level II: Well-designed randomised controlled trial, or randomised cross over studies.
- Level III: Controlled trial without randomisation.
- Level IV: Single non-experimental study.
- Level V: Systematic reviews of descriptive and qualitative studies.
- Level VI: Single descriptive or qualitative study.
- Level VII: Opinions of experts and/or reports from expert committees/conference papers.

### **3.5. Steps and Procedure**

There are several steps involved in the integrative review procedure. Researchers differ on the number of steps taken when conducting reviews. However, the sequence of the steps is similar (ten Ham-Baloyi & Jordan, 2015). According to the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (2012) the evidence analysis process is conducted according to five steps. They are:

1. Formulating a focused evidence analysis question
2. Gathering and classification of evidence
3. Critical appraisal of articles
4. Summary of evidence

5. Formulation and grading of conclusions

Each of the steps listed above are discussed in greater detail below.

**3.5.1. Formulating a focused evidence analysis question.** Formulating the research question is the most critical step in any integrative review. Grove, Burns, and Gray (2013) suggest that an integrative review is best directed by a relevant clinical question that focuses the review process and promotes the development of a quality synthesis of research evidence. An integrative review question must be answerable and searchable and therefore should include the following variables: population of interest (P), intervention (I), context (C) and the outcome (O) – known as the PICO format (Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 2012). The PICO review question formulated to search for relevant literature for this study was: What is the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership?

- P - Literature on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership
- I - Empathy
- C - International and national literature about empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership
- O - An integrated synopsis of relevant and recent literature about empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership that could be used to inform leadership practice

**3.5.2 Gathering and classification of evidence.** This step involves several actions: Developing a search strategy with inclusion/exclusion criteria specified; conducting searches using various sources (databases, bibliographies); reviewing citations and abstracts; gathering articles that meet the specific criteria; and constructing a search plan and results through detailed examination of included and excluded articles. Through this process the identification of evidence becomes increasingly detailed and precise (Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 2012).



**3.5.2.1. Literature search strategy.** A well-defined literature search strategy is critical for the integrative literature review to provide an adequate comprehensive search that ensures accurate results and enhances rigour of the study by limiting publication bias (Whittemore & Knafl, 2005). Greenes (2007) states that an integrative review should be comprehensive and all relevant literature should be reviewed. The Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (2012) outlines the important considerations of a search strategy. This includes listing inclusion and exclusion criteria, identifying search words and identifying databases to search. A comprehensive and unbiased search of a range of databases needs to be conducted to identify the maximum number of relevant studies. The search needs to be comprehensive and unbiased (Grove et al., 2013).

To ensure that the search was unbiased and comprehensive, multiple sources were included to identify all relevant research studies. A librarian from the Nelson Mandela University library was consulted for overall guidance, and to assist with the identification of keywords and a search strategy to use. This was done to ensure that no relevant data was missed. A broad combination of keywords was used to search the literature on the topic. The following keywords were used:

(Empath\*) AND (role\* OR impact\* OR effect\*) AND (emotional intelligence OR emotionally intelligent OR EQ OR EI) AND (lead\* OR manag\* OR supervis\* OR employ\*)

**3.5.2.2. Selecting the studies.** After the formal search, the next step was the selection of relevant studies to collect evidence to answer the review question. Grove et al. (2013) recommend that researchers conducting integrative reviews need to review the literature and select studies to be included based on relevant inclusion and exclusion criteria. The authors posited that researchers conducting integrative reviews or meta-analyses need to identify the inclusion and exclusion criteria to be used to direct their literature search. A search of a wide range of databases needs to be conducted to identify the maximum number of relevant studies.

The result will be a final list of articles to be abstracted, as well as a list of any articles that were excluded after the citation and abstract review, along with the reason(s) for their exclusion (Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 2012). All the titles and abstracts of identified studies were screened for relevance to the review question. In cases where uncertainty regarding the relevance of the studies arose, the complete original article was retrieved to thoroughly assess its relevance. An accurate record of all identified studies, the screening process and motivation of decisions for inclusion and exclusion of studies were kept for audit purposes. A formulated table that summarises the search results for this study can be found in Appendix A. The table outlines the initial search outputs per database (stage one), the number of accessible full-text articles selected (stage two), and the number of articles saved for inclusion/exclusion (stage three).

**3.5.2.3. Inclusion criteria.** To identify relevant studies for inclusion and exclusion the following criteria were clearly defined before embarking on the study. Specifying the inclusion criteria a priori minimises the possibility of selection and reviewer bias (Torgerson, 2003). The criteria for selection of studies were as follows:

- Content – only studies that explored the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership were considered. Studies focusing on EI, but not relating to empathy specifically, were excluded.
- Population – only studies focusing on persons in a leadership/management position in an organisational context and/or on their subordinates were considered. Studies where persons who could be perceived to be in a position of authority/leadership (such as sport coaches or teachers), as well as non-employee samples (e.g. student samples) were not included in the sample.

- Language – studies in the languages of Afrikaans and English (languages the reviewer is proficient in).
- Date – only studies published since 2006 were considered. All studies in preliminary searches were very recent, thus limiting studies to only the past 10 years should present the current best available evidence.
- Types of studies - based on the objectives of the study, a wide base of sources were included in the study. All levels of evidence as described in 3.4 were included. Non-research reports, consumer articles without scientific evidence, and duplicate studies were excluded.

This decision-making process was carefully recorded so as to limit bias, facilitate replicability of the study and inform the reader. The set of criteria was first piloted on a few studies before being incorporated into the study and applied to the rest of the study. All studies that met the criteria for inclusion were included. Appendix B comprises a list of all the articles retrieved for inclusion/exclusion. The Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Table can be found in Appendix C. The Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Table shows which studies were included and which were excluded, with reasons for exclusion provided.

**3.5.3. Critical appraisal of articles.** Gardiner, Elsen and Murphy (2009) define critical appraisal as the process of systematically assessing the information presented in research papers to decide whether it is valid and could be used to inform practice. The aim of a critical appraisal is to grade studies according to the reliability and validity of their results (Antonisamy, Christopher & Samuel, 2010). Holly, Salmond and Saimbert (2012) indicated that a critical appraisal provides a balanced assessment of the benefits and strengths of research against its flaws and weaknesses.

There are many different tools available for assessing the quality of research studies within the context of an integrative review. Tools vary based on the type of design used and generally take the form of scales wherein quality criteria are scored and combined in a summary score, or checklists in which specific questions are asked; the reviewer must determine which questions are critical to quality for inclusion. Checklists are most commonly used and recommended (Holly et al., 2012). Akobeng (2005) adds that it is important to use appropriate instruments that fit the research design to appraise a research study, as this will strengthen its internal validity. Glasziou et al. (2001) report that to avoid a selection that is biased by preconceived ideas, it is important to use a systematic and standardised approach to appraise the studies critically. The data in this study were critically appraised using a critical appraisal sheet to ensure that each study was subjected to the same criteria in an unbiased and transparent manner. A random sample of critical appraisal sheets is added to the research study as Appendix D.

The components of this appraisal tool were based on guidelines set out by Letts et al. (2007). These guidelines are as follows:

- Full citation according to APA standards: this was to ensure that other researchers could easily retrieve the article.
- Purpose of the study: this provided a useful summary of the study and helped determine whether the topic was relevant to the review. For the purposes of this study, this question was considered: did the article provide answers to the research question, that is, the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership.
- Literature: this helped to identify gaps in current knowledge and research about the topic.
- Study design: this assisted in judging the appropriateness of the design, sampling, data collection methods and analyses.

- Sampling: this assisted with determining whether the sample size was adequate and transparent.
- Data collection: to determine whether the data collection methods were congruent with the research design and that the procedure was clear and rigorous.
- Data analyses: to assess whether the methods and reasoning employed were appropriate and rigorous.
- Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability: to assess trustworthiness of the study.
- Conclusions and implications of the study: to assess for soundness and contribution.

**3.5.4. Summary of evidence.** Once studies were selected for inclusion, their findings were synthesised and combined. Holly et al. (2012) assert that in an integrative review, the *subject* is the primary research article. Data extraction involves sourcing and recording relevant information from original articles. Reviewers are required to analyse the data to determine discrepancies, or differences in the studies. In addition, reviewers must examine the outcomes of various studies, classify each study, search for flaws in their research designs, and examine the samples used, searching for any limitations.

**3.5.4.1. Data extraction.** Once the studies had been critically appraised, the next step was to extract the relevant data from the selected studies. These selected studies made up the final sample of the review (n= 18, initially and n=19 after a second search 7 months later ). The relevant data were now extracted from the final sample. The table in Appendix E was used to extract the data and to record answers to the research question. Extraction elements are contained in the table to serve as a basis for analysis of study characteristics. The publishing details, focus

of the study, sample size, recommendations, limitations, as well as the identified themes and findings relevant to this study, are featured on the Data Extraction Sheet (Appendix E).

**3.5.4.2. Data synthesis and integration.** The next step, the narrative data synthesis, involved respectively rigorously scrutinising emerging patterns for individual studies and exploring the relationships between studies (Centre for Research and Dissemination, 2009; Petticrew & Roberts, 2006). According to the Centre for Research and Dissemination (2009), data synthesis involves the collation, combination and summary of the findings of individual studies included in the review, as well as drawing results together. This enables reliable conclusions to be drawn from the assembled body of evidence. Emerging themes were identified in individual studies and evidence for each identified factor was sought across studies. The mapped emerging themes, which will be discussed in the next chapter, can be found in Appendix F.

**3.5.5. Formulation and grading of conclusions.** Great care should be taken when conducting reviews (Thyer, 2010). This should be synchronised with careful use of language in the interpretation and summary of results. Obviously, summaries that are both accurate and accessible will maximise the utility of an integrative review. Conclusions must be based on the reviewed studies. Theoretical and methodological limitations, as well as recommendations for future research, are discussed in this final step of the review process (see Chapter Five).

### **3.6. Rigour**

It is well-documented that research reviews are considered research of research and therefore should meet the same standards as primary research in methodological rigour (Ganong, 1987; Cooper, 1998). The integrative literature review was performed according to the steps of a systematic literature review to limit bias and enhance rigour. According to Gerrish and Lathlean (2015) ensuring rigour in the research process is important for all researchers, irrespective of the

methodology they have chosen. As both qualitative and quantitative research studies were the focus of this integrative review, the reviewer considered rigour in both research methods.

Rigour in quantitative research involves the concepts of validity (both internal and external validity) and reliability. Validity refers to the strength of the conclusions and presented findings of a study in relation to the study process, whilst reliability refers to the repeatability of findings (Thornicroft, Szmukler, Mueser & Drake, 2011). Thyer (2010) asserted that reliable extraction of information from previous studies is more difficult than many reviewers have acknowledged. In the case of integrative reviews, the “measure” can be related to the tools used in the critical appraisal (process). Validity was maintained through the careful selection of studies based on the soundness and suitability of its methodology. The use of comprehensive critical appraisal sheets assisted in this regard. Repeatability was ensured through detailed reporting of the decisions made in the selection and the obtaining of relevant data. The use of data extraction sheets and grids outlining search results and inclusion criteria ensured that every step of the process was well documented.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) have proposed that the validity and reliability of qualitative studies should be judged differently from those used in quantitative research. They have suggested the terms *credibility* for internal validity, *transferability* for external validity, *dependability* for reliability and *confirmability* for objectivity.

According to Macnee and McCabe (2008) credibility refers to the confidence that the researcher and user of the research can have in the truth of the findings of the study. Credibility requires convincing evidence of the integrity of the research and the plausibility of both the process and the results (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014). In this study credibility was increased by doing a final search before the final submission of the research study.

To ensure that no relevant data were missed, the entire search was updated seven months after the first search by using the same search strategy (including using the same databases, keywords, etc). The second search yielded one possible relevant study (Üstüner & Kış, 2014). This study met the inclusion criteria and was included in the critical appraisal, data extraction and finally in the results of this research paper.

Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings of the study are confirmed by, or are replicable in, different settings to where the data were collected (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Coghlan and Brydon-Miller (2014) the rigour in achieving credibility provides the basic groundwork for transferability. The reviewer in this study thoroughly described the research context and the assumptions that were central to the research to increase transferability.

Skinner, Edwards and Corbett (2015) state that dependability is when the researcher attempts to account for changing conditions in the phenomenon chosen for the study, as well as changes in the design created by increasingly refined understanding of the setting. The reviewer ensured dependability by describing the changes that occurred in the setting and how these changes affected the way in which the reviewer approached the study, where applicable.

Confirmability is the consistency and repeatability of the decision making about the process of data collection and data analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It demonstrates that the inquiry is free of bias, values and prejudice. Techniques that may be used to strengthen confirmability include: prolonged engagement, persistent observation, peer debriefing, negative case analysis and triangulation (Skinner et al., 2015). The documentation of each decision within the review process, as well as the use of an independent reviewer, strengthens the confirmability of this study.



### **3.7. Ethical Considerations**

The reviewer considered four ethical considerations, namely: quality, transparency, honesty and plagiarism. It is the reviewer's responsibility to carry out research of a high quality. Therefore, high standards were maintained concerning the planning, implementation and reporting of the research. This was done by the reviewer and by an independent reviewer performing the critical appraisal, to ensure that only high-quality evidence was included for data extraction. To ensure transparency the entire integrative review process (including justification of all decisions made in the search strategy) was reported and presented as clearly as possible, to prevent the omission of relevant information. In addition, a record was compiled of studies that were excluded throughout the critical appraisal process, and the reasons for their exclusion were documented (Appendix C).

The reviewer conducted the research in an honest way. Honesty was ensured by upholding integrity through considering both supporting and opposing points of view. The reviewer also does not have a vested interest in the outcomes of the study, financial or otherwise. This ensures the prevention of overselling the significance of the data, or the importance of likely outcomes. Plagiarism was avoided by quoting and acknowledging all references used. This was achieved through in-text referencing and by including the bibliographic details in the list of references.

The proposal was evaluated by the Nelson Mandela University Faculty of Health Sciences Postgraduate Studies Committee to ensure the proposed study does not breach any ethical codes or guidelines. Since this study considered only published research within the public domain, no ethical permission for conducting the systematic review was required.

### **3.8. Chapter Summary**

This chapter provided an overview of the research methodology employed for this study. It included a discussion on the research question, research design, target documentation and procedure followed in undertaking the study. This was followed by steps taken to ensure that rigour and ethical considerations were given due attention. The following chapter will present the research output, emergent themes and findings of the study.

## **Chapter 4**

### **Findings and Discussion**

#### **4.1. Overview of Chapter**

This chapter presents the findings of the integrative review according to the primary aims of the study, namely to explore the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership. Data from primary studies were systematically reviewed with findings organised into themes. A narrative synthesis of the findings is presented.

#### **4.2. Research Output**

The initial data search yielded a total of 13,270 potentially relevant articles across all databases. Only 241 of these articles had full-text accessibility. Each of these articles was screened through an in-depth reading of its abstract to assess their suitability for the study. The number of articles was reduced to 112, with 129 articles deemed not relevant to the primary aim of this study. A further 10 articles were then discarded once all these articles from various databases were collated due to some articles being retrieved more than once. After the discarding of duplicate studies there were 102 studies left to be considered for the inclusion/exclusion stage. The additional study yielded from the second search made this total 103.

A total of 21 of the 103 remaining articles were selected for review based on the inclusion criteria. A further 82 articles were excluded at this stage as they did not meet the inclusion criteria. To assess the quality and methodological soundness of each primary study, the included studies (n = 21) were then each critically appraised. Due to the large number of articles reviewed the critical appraisal sheets of only four studies are presented as Appendix D. The critical appraisal for each of the remaining studies is available on request. A further two articles were

discarded at this stage because they were deemed lacking in methodological soundness. The studies that were positively appraised (n = 19) formed the final sample for the review.

A data extraction sheet (Appendix E) was then used to extract salient aspects of each study and highlight emerging themes. A sample of four of the data extraction sheets is presented. The data extraction for the remainder of the studies is available on request. Appendix F represents a summary of emergent themes. The emergent themes and findings of the integrative review process are discussed in 4.3.

Figure 1 represents the process described above.

**Stage one: Initial search output: using search string**

**Result: Total n = 13270**  
Electronic Databases: n = 13253  
Manual search: n = 17



**Stage two: Full-text articles available**

**Result: Total n = 241**  
Electronic Databases: n = 224  
Manual search: n = 17



**Stage three: Read abstracts (in-depth screening)**

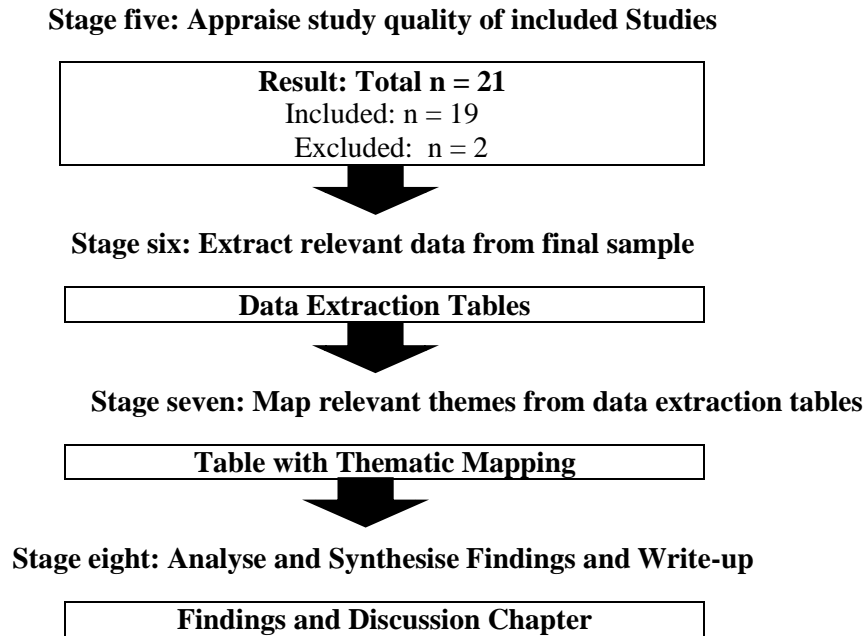
**Result: Total n = 112**  
Electronic Databases: n = 98  
Manual search: n = 14  
Duplicate articles removed: n = 10



**Stage four: Apply Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria: Read Full Texts**

**Result: Total n = 103**  
Included: n = 21  
Excluded: n = 82





*Figure 1.* The stages of the integrative review.

### 4.3. Findings and Discussion

The reviewer identified six central themes along with sub-themes which emerged from the literature review. The findings are presented under thematic headings. The themes are presented in order of weighting derived from the thematic analysis starting with the most prominent. The emerging themes are presented below.

**4.3.1. Effect on relationship with subordinates.** The levels of EI and empathy that a leader displays have a clear influence on the relationship with their subordinates (Behbahani, 2011). EI is found to be a potential factor for managers to establish more effective relationships with their subordinates. The findings are presented under the following sub-themes that emerged from the review.

**4.3.1.1. Level of EI.** Sears and Holmvall (2010) propose that the EI levels of leaders as well as those of their subordinates are important. The EI levels of leaders and their subordinates jointly contribute to the development of high-quality Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)

relationships. This is a theoretical approach to leadership that describes the leader-subordinate relationship and how this relationship's quality evolves over time (Sears & Holmvall, 2010). The findings from this study suggest that the quality of the LMX relationship is dependent on the EI levels of both parties. The findings indicate that similar levels of EI (be it high or lower levels) may result in relatively high levels of LMX. Sears and Holmvall (2010) attribute this to shared expectations and beliefs regarding the importance and use of emotion in workplace interactions. They add that EI similarity between a leader and subordinate may foster better interpersonal attraction and communication in the leader-subordinate relationship.

In contrast to this, leaders and subordinates with dissimilar levels of EI tend to produce lower levels of LMX (Sears & Holmvall, 2010). Sears and Holmvall (2010) further contend that in these situations both parties may have difficulty identifying with one another. The view of either party may be that the other is reluctant to express or reciprocate affect. As a result, they may be less inclined to display gestures of affection and emotional support.

The EI levels of both parties are also mentioned in a study by Miao, Humphrey and Qian (2016). They found that leaders' EI was significantly and positively associated with their subordinates' job satisfaction. The results further indicate that a leader's EI is nearly as important as a subordinate's EI in predicting a subordinate's job satisfaction. This suggests that a leader's EI plays a significant role in determining their subordinates' workplace satisfaction.

**4.3.1.2. Empathy and communication.** Empathy helps leaders to establish a connection with followers, better recognize their needs, and develop a shared identity (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith & Gupta, 2010). The empathy and communication skills of leaders affect their opinions regarding the quality of the workers (human capital) in their businesses. This includes the

opinions of the leaders about the importance of the educational level, tenure and skills of their workers (Ayranci & Çolakoğlu, 2014).

High levels of empathy improve leaders' ability to recognise when others are under strain and increase their awareness of the impact of their behaviour on other employees. This can help them to choose appropriate communication channels. This will inevitably contribute to relieving employee stress and reducing conflict in the workplace (Nikolić, Vukonjanski, Nedeljković, Hadžić & Terek, 2014). Nikolić et al. (2014) furthermore state that employees who are members of a team led by a leader with a high level of empathy recognise that their leader is ready to help them in situations when they are under stress. They realise that communication with their leader is a way to overcome stress. This thus increases the quality of the communication channel between leaders and their subordinates.

Similarly, Üstüner and Kış (2014) also highlight the importance of empathy and communication and the role that these skills have in reducing conflict. The authors refer to three types of communication competences, with empathy being one of them. They contend that leaders are recommended to display empathic and supportive behaviour when necessary to decrease the level of intra- and intergroup conflict, as well as interpersonal conflict in the workplace. Furthermore, empathy also helps supervisors to understand subordinates' feelings, take an active interest in them and provide emotional support to their team members in order to work together to attain shared goals (Polychroniou, 2009).

**4.3.1.3. Leader behaviour.** Guinalíu and Jordán (2016) proposed that certain physical and behavioural aspects of leaders can affect the building of trust in their subordinates. They recognise that perceived attractiveness, empathy and justice have a positive and significant effect on trust in leadership. More specifically, the empathy that subordinates perceive in their leader

makes them more willing to give the leader their trust. The importance for leaders to build positive relationships with others, treat staff fairly and justly, and role model appropriate behaviours and practices was also noted by Parrish (2015).

According to the research findings of Polychroniou (2009), leaders in Greek organisations try to lead effectively by handling conflict with tact and diplomacy, managing negative feelings and creating team consensus in their subordinates. Polychroniou (2009) further notes that employees are one of the most valuable resources that companies possess to remain competitive. Leaders thus need to offer more than a salary (monetary incentive) to win individuals' trust and motivate subordinates. This means that leaders need to acquire and use their social skills, motivation, and empathy competencies to enhance their own leadership and improve team effectiveness regarding the leader-subordinate relationship.

**4.3.2 Empathy as EI ability.** Another emergent theme was the findings of various authors regarding EI abilities. These abilities include an individual's ability to recognise, understand, and manage their own emotions, as well as to recognise and understand the emotions of others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). These EI abilities will be discussed separately. The research findings on the capability to recognise and understand emotions in the self and others (self- and social awareness) will be discussed first, followed by the findings on the regulation and utilisation of emotions in the self and others (self-regulation and social skills).

**4.3.2.1. Recognising emotions in self and others (self- and social awareness).** The first EI ability that emerged in the findings was that of self-awareness. Olannye (2013) found that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between self-awareness and leadership performance. Self-awareness is important to psychological insight and self-understanding. Olannye (2013) further states that this skill is crucial to eliciting empathy towards and adjusting



responses to others. Behbahani (2011) found that there was a significant relationship between empathy as a component of EI and the capabilities of leaders and subordinates in their sample. In a qualitative study by Parrish (2015), empathy was explained by the case study participants as “the need for leaders to accurately identify and understand a person, their concerns, needs and abilities and then appropriately manage the person considering this understanding to promote productivity and success” (Parrish, 2015, p.829).

Ayranci and Çolakoğlu (2014) suggest that the psychosocial capacities and skills of leaders (self-awareness and their sensitivity toward, and interactions with others) affect their opinions on the intellectual capital of their businesses. Behbahani (2011) asserts that the benefits of having high levels of EI in organisations are that leaders and their subordinates can avoid negative feelings and focus on positive emotions such as self-confidence and conformity. EI plays a major role in helping leaders and their subordinates to understand emotions and feelings of themselves and others, and how to react appropriately to these emotions (Behbahani, 2011). Ayranci and Çolakoğlu (2014) additionally report that the self-awareness of the leaders has an effect on their opinions about the organisational commitment of their subordinates. This may be due to the perception of the leaders regarding the strong and weak aspects of their own characters, which is a facet of their self-awareness. Self-awareness is a skill that enables individuals to criticise themselves. This skill is expected to result in objectivity, which in turn may reflect the opinions of leaders regarding the commitment of their subordinates (Ayranci & Çolakoğlu, 2014).

Martina, Denisa, and Mariana (2015) researched the levels of EI of managers across different industries. The focus was on the managers’ perception of their emotional potential in working with others. They found that the best results were achieved in self-awareness. Martina et al.

(2015) therefore assume that these leaders were able to perceive their own emotions, possess high self-confidence, and know themselves well.

Leaders with high levels of self-awareness have the ability to motivate and encourage employees through the skilful use of their emotions. This can increase their persuasiveness in communication. It can also contribute to employees' trust in their vision of organisational development and in achieving organisational goals (Nikolić et al., 2014).

Equally, the findings of this review reflect the importance of leaders to be socially aware and to possess the ability to accurately perceive the emotions of others. Leaders should understand their subordinates' behaviours in order to assess them correctly (Ayranci & Çolakoğlu, 2014). In a two day EI training intervention by Clarke (2010), the results for the EI ability, perceiving emotions, failed to show any statistically significant change or improvement as a result of the training.

Zhang and Fan (2013) assert that emotional self-awareness and organisational awareness were found to affect project performance significantly. The abilities of leaders such as managing their own emotionality and impulsiveness, self-acceptance, problem-solving focus, self-awareness, self-confidence and empathy, are significant temperamental qualities for coping with the strains and pressures of the workplace, besides producing results through people (Sayeed & Shanker, 2016).

#### ***4.3.2.2. Regulating emotions in self and others (self-management and social skills).***

Olannye (2013) found that self-regulation has a positive effect on leadership performance. Self-regulation involves monitoring oneself. This fosters the management of emotions and controlling impulses. These factors have an important influence on leadership performance. Zhang and Fan (2013) found that (in addition to self-and organisational awareness) emotional self-control,

empathy, cultural understanding and communication have a significant effect on project performance. There is a significant relationship between self-regulation as a component of emotional intelligence and the abilities of the managers and employees researched by Behbahani (2011).

The ability of leaders to responsibly manage themselves was identified as an important EI trait by Parrish (2015). This trait comprises the ability of the leader to be able to keep disruptive emotions and impulses under control and maintain a high standard of behaviour. This in turn provides a positive role model for others and fosters relationships with others that are considerate and professional (Parrish, 2015). Correspondingly, Gooty et al. (2010) found that positive moods from a leader produce constructive outcomes for all parties, whereas negative leader moods seem to be harmful.

In conjunction with self-management, the findings indicate that social skill is also found to have a significant relationship with leadership performance. This implies that the effective handling of social relationships will help to promote appropriate interpersonal behaviour in the workplace. This in turn will enhance teamwork and affect leadership performance (Olannye, 2013). Empathy is one of these interpersonal skills.

The findings of Üstüner and Kış (2014) revealed that the educational leaders in their study generally display empathy, social relaxation and supportive abilities. Martina et al. (2015) are of the opinion that empathy is a very important part of the job performance of leaders because it enables leaders to put themselves in the shoes of a criticised employee, and feel what impact the critical words will have on this employee. This will inevitably have a positive effect on their relationship with subordinates. Ayrañci and Çolakođlu (2014) additionally found that the

sociability of leaders affects their opinions about information technology and information sharing in the workplace.

Olannye (2013) suggest that managing emotions has a positive effect on leadership performance. This implies that carefully managed emotions are associated with successful results. This can drive employees' loyalty and commitment (Olannye, 2013). A high level of ability to manage emotions is trailed by high levels of all aspects of communication satisfaction. This means that there is an increase in the effectiveness of communication skills during conversations with employees to clearly point out more productive methods for the realisation of work tasks, and the improvement of job performance. The ability to manage emotions may also contribute to resolving conflict (Nikolić et al., 2014).

**4.3.3. Leadership performance/effectiveness.** Srivastava and Nair (2016) conclude that a high level of EI in leadership could lead to high managerial effectiveness. A literature review by Gooty et al. (2010) additionally found that several scholars have theoretically linked the construct of EI to effective leadership (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Bass, 2002; Caruso, Mayer, & Salovey, 2002; George, 2000).

According to the EI model promoted by Olannye, four constructs of EI, namely self-awareness, social skill, self-regulation and managing emotions exhibited a statistically significant positive effect on leadership performance (Olannye, 2013). The sentiment expressed by case study participants in Parrish (2015) was that leaders in higher education who possessed strong EI were more respected by peers, colleagues and subordinates and performed more effectively as leaders. These leadership capabilities were seen to be a consequence of the fact that these leaders would be more sensitive and responsive to the emotional needs and actions of others.

Empathy in relation to understanding and appreciating how others might be inspired to perform and achieve surfaced as a critical EI trait. According to Parrish:

Empathy is exhibited through leaders who, in consultation with their team, negotiate realistic and appropriate timeframes and performance goals. They ensure that each member of their team has the necessary resources, skills and capacity to accomplish the negotiated goals. It requires the leader to be able to accurately discern the motivations, interests, concerns and needs of those in their team. These leaders aptly utilise the skills of individuals, identify areas where professional development is required and harness the appropriate opportunities to engender necessary development. These leaders manage conflict in a just, timely and fair manner and establish a work environment whereby individuals feel safe to ask questions, are supported to express their concerns and are encouraged to contribute to key decisions. These leaders strive to ensure that all members of the team respect and value the contributions of others and are likewise respected and valued for their contributions (2015, p.831).

Sadri, Weber and Gentry (2011) found that the ability of leaders to display empathy from the perspective of their subordinates is positively related to their performance. This finding makes an important empirical contribution to the existing leadership literature. It demonstrates that empathy is a meaningful component of leadership and key toward performance. Additionally, results by Menegazzo, Cruz-Ortiz, Ortega-Maldonado and Salanova (2015) indicate the importance of developing empathy between team members, as empathy plays a vital role in achieving excellent results. This is important because it shows the value of the role played by empathy as an organisational and social resource to produce desired results.

The effect of displaying control over emotions has also been found to be significant in the relationship between EI and managerial effectiveness. A leader's ability to behave in a way that portrays control over their emotions enhances managerial effectiveness, and thus performance, in an organisation (Srivastava & Nair, 2016).

Sadri et al. (2011) propose that power distance also plays a role. Power distance relates to a culture's willingness to accept a difference in power over other members of a culture. High-power distance cultures are thus more willing to accept inequality in power as the norm in comparison to low-power distance cultures (Ahmed, Mouratidis & Preston, 2009). In both low and high-power distance cultures, various displays of empathy led to higher ratings of performance. The magnitude of this effect was stronger in high-power distance cultures. Thus, while high-power distance cultures believe that power in organisations and institutions should be stratified and focused at higher levels and as such, leaders are not expected to show as much empathy as leaders in low-power distance cultures, the findings suggest that when leaders at those higher levels display empathy, it has a very positive impact upon ratings of performance (Sadri et al., 2011).

In contrast, leadership is more likely to be considered ineffective due to character flaws and the inability to effectively manage emotions and maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships, more than any other aspect (Pienaar, 2011). Pienaar (2011) reviewed literature to illustrate how narcissism could explain some of the behaviours associated with leadership ineffectiveness. Leaders with this trait will exhibit behaviours and take action to become the centre of attention. They also display a grandiose sense of self-importance whilst having an excessive need for admiration by others, a sense of uniqueness and entitlement, lack of empathy, and a tendency to exploit others (Pienaar, 2011).

**4.3.4. Transformational leadership style.** The transformational style of leadership was another theme that emerged in the review of literature on the role of empathy in leadership.

Research findings by Menegazzo et al. (2015) suggest that empathy completely enables the relationship between transformational leadership and excellent performance. Although transformational leadership has an effect on the performance of team members, empathy remains an important factor to achieve expected results.

Parrish (2015) ascertained that emotional intelligence traits related to empathy, inspiring and guiding others and responsibly managing oneself were most applicable for academic leadership. These traits have strong links with aspects of transformational leadership, namely idealised influence, inspirational motivation and individualised consideration. In addition to this, transformational leaders also have an emotional impact on their subordinates (Polychroniou, 2009).

According to Parrish this EI trait manifests in practice as:

leaders who regularly communicate, reinforce and reiterate the strategic direction and associated implementation plan. These leaders convince others of the need for the strategic direction and they motivate, direct and assist individuals to understand the role they have in achieving the strategic direction and executing the implementation plan (Parrish, 2015, p.832).

Guinalú and Jordán (2016) analysed the possible effect of leadership style on the relationship of empathy with trust. According to the results, leadership style as perceived by subordinates appears to only influence transformational leadership styles. Leaders who possess interpersonal intelligence may be associated with the transformational leadership style for several reasons. Transformational leaders create an atmosphere of change and are passionate about visionary

ideas that excite, inspire, and drive other people to work hard. They have the ability to motivate subordinates to integrate their goals with those of their leaders (Polychroniou, 2009). Gooty et al. (2010) found that positive moods in leaders stimulate perceptions of leader effectiveness. They add that both transformational and charismatic leaders are more likely to feel positive moods and display those moods to followers. Transformational leaders are thus in a position to be more effective leaders as a result.

Sayeed and Shanker (2016) contend that transformation in organisations may emanate from HR level policies, or as a result of leadership interventions. If the leaders of an organisation are fully involved with transformation-centric behaviour/styles, they create a rewarding work environment. This environment is one in which leaders' roles are perceived, not necessarily as 'action-oriented for results alone', but also as caring, compassionate and committed (Sayeed & Shanker, 2016).

**4.3.5. Training EI.** A number of studies mentioned the importance of training EI, adding to the viewpoint that EI comprises some innate facets, but it is also an ability that can be developed. The findings of Clarke (2010) suggest that the EI ability, understanding emotions, could be developed in project managers as a result of a two-day training intervention. The results, however, suggest that this development took place during the six months following the training intervention. This improvement six months later seems to suggest that, although training can provide an initial awareness of the importance of emotions (including awareness of own emotions, i.e. self-awareness), the actual processes associated with the development of this EI ability (of understanding emotions) continued taking place after training had taken place, possibly through on-the-job learning mechanisms (Clarke, 2010). Sears and Holmvall (2010) highlight the importance of training EI. The results of their study support the value of providing



EI skills training to both subordinates and their leaders. Their findings suggest that dissimilar levels of leader and subordinate EI may result in lower LMX, thus EI training efforts targeted at only one of these groups may fail to yield the desired outcomes.

Leaders are also encouraged to include measures of EI and interpersonal fit when they make personnel decisions, such as in selection or promotion (Clarke, 2010; Miao et al., 2016; Sears & Holmvall, 2010; Srivastava & Nair, 2016). Polychroniou (2009) is of the opinion that appropriate interventions are needed to enhance leaders' emotional abilities. This would involve education and specific job-related training. Organisations should provide support for learning and improving leaders' essential emotional abilities needed for specific jobs.

Organisations wishing to develop leaders' ability in EI might achieve positive results if they adopt identical strategies to the design of the training programme used by Clarke (2010).

These included: (1) opportunities for participating in structured practice sessions that require participants to consider how emotional abilities may be used in their roles as project managers; (2) practicing EI associated behaviours and then receiving feedback and (3) observing others during role plays and simulations.

**4.3.6. Group performance.** Leaders may be more successful in achieving organisational goals and being effective in teams if their subordinates are empowered to do their jobs and feel secure in the organisation (Polychroniou, 2009). Research suggests that supervisors' EI competencies such as social skills, motivation and empathy are positively associated with transformational leadership, thereby increasing team effectiveness with subordinates (Polychroniou, 2009).

The benefits of empathy and its important role in group performance were also noted by (Menegazzo et al., 2015). These authors highlight the importance of making use of practices that

increase empathy among employees to enhance the well-being of teams. This will also have a positive relationship on how they carry out their tasks and produce expected results. Polychroniou (2009) adds that the role of leadership in management is largely determined by the organisational culture of the company. Organisations that promote the development of skills in their workforce are likely to empower teamwork, enhance employee satisfaction and enjoy superior performance.

### **4.4. Chapter Summary**

Exploring the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership allows for a more informed and in-depth understanding of the topic. In this chapter, the stages of the integrative review employed to yield the final sample were discussed. In an attempt to answer the research question, findings of the reviewed studies (the final sample) were provided according to the various emergent themes.

The findings of this review showed that empathy certainly plays a role in leadership. It has a significant influence on the relationship between leaders and their subordinate's group performance. It also plays an important role in perceived leadership performance and leadership effectiveness in organisations. The findings further describe empathy as a facet of EI, outlining the significant role it plays both in recognising emotions in the self and others, as well as the regulation of emotions in the self and others. Training EI skills was another theme that emerged from the study. Lastly, the transformational style of leadership materialised as the most salient leadership style linked to the role of empathy in leadership.

A summary of the positive findings of this chapter, as well as the value and limitations of this study are presented in the following chapter. This is followed by recommendations for future research.

## **Chapter 5**

### **Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations**

#### **5.1. Overview of Chapter**

A narrative synthesis of the findings of the study was presented in Chapter Four. This chapter offers a summary of the positive findings of the previous chapter. The value of the study and limitations are then outlined. This is followed by recommendations for future research that emanated from the study.

#### **5.2. Summary of Positive Findings**

In recent years the concept of EI has gained popularity as a potential key aspect of effective leadership (Herbst et al., 2006). Interest in emotionally intelligent leadership can be attributed to its value in predicting success as a leader and outstanding levels of leadership performance (Herbst et al., 2006). Empathy concerns the interpersonal realm of EI and many leadership theories propose that the ability to have and display empathy is an important part of leadership (Gentry et al., 2007). Empathy can be described as the ability to see the world from another person's perspective and the capacity to tune into what someone else might be thinking and feeling about a situation – regardless of how that view might differ from your own perception (Stein & Book, 2006). Empathy has been acknowledged as a powerful, albeit frequently underutilised interpersonal tool (Martinuzzi, 2006).

The findings from this study indicate that, although there is indeed a vast amount of research done on EI in leadership, research on the role of empathy as a specific leadership skill, is limited. While many authors suggest that empathy is important in leadership to reach organisational objectives, more research needs to be conducted in this regard. This integrative review was

undertaken to gain an in-depth understanding of the topic and yielded some themes which demonstrate the role of empathy in leadership.

The findings showed that empathy, as an EI skill, indeed has an important role to play in leadership. EI, as a general leadership skill, has a noteworthy influence on the establishment of more effective relationships between leaders and their subordinates. The findings suggest that the levels of EI of both parties play a role in the fostering of the working relationship (Miao et al., 2016; Sears & Holmvall, 2010). In addition, the behaviour exhibited, as well as the communication skills of the leader were found to also impact the relationship. Subordinates of empathic leaders know that their leader is prepared to assist them in stressful situations (Nikolić et al., 2014). The display of empathic and supportive behaviour from a leader increases the communication between leaders and their subordinates (Nikolić et al., 2014) and reduces conflict within the workplace (Gooty et al., 2010; Üstüner and Kış, 2014). The ability of a leader with a high level of empathy also assists in establishing a shared identity between leaders and their subordinates (Gooty et al., 2010). Furthermore, the empathy that subordinates perceive in their leader has an influence on the building of positive relationships where justice, fairness and trust are present (Guinalú & Jordán, 2016; Parrish, 2015). A positive relationship between leaders and their subordinates ought to benefit organisations. This may be done by ensuring efforts to attain shared organisational goals from both parties.

The findings further describe empathy as a facet of EI, outlining the significant role that it plays both in recognising emotions in the self and others, as well as the regulation of emotions in the self and others. The self-awareness of leaders is crucial to eliciting empathy, and regulating responses towards others (Olannye, 2013). EI plays a role in assisting both leaders and their subordinates to understand the emotions and feelings of themselves and others, and react

appropriately to these emotions (Behbahani, 2011). Similarly, the importance of social awareness in leaders was also reflected. The ability to accurately perceive the emotions of others was found to be important (Ayranci & Çolakoğlu, 2014) and affect performance significantly (Zhang & Fan, 2013).

In the same vein, the regulation of emotions in the self and others was another finding. A leader's ability to monitor and manage emotions is an important trait that influences performance (Olannye, 2013; Parrish, 2015; Zhang & Fan, 2013). A leader's ability to responsibly manage their emotions portrays a positive role model for others and fosters considerate relationships with others (Parrish, 2015). Likewise, social skill is found to have a significant relationship with leadership performance (Olannye, 2013). The skills to effectively manage interpersonal relationships enhance teamwork, drives loyalty and commitment (Olannye, 2013) and can contribute to resolving conflict in the workplace (Nikolić et al., 2014).

A further finding was the influence of EI and empathy on leadership effectiveness. A high level of EI could lead to being highly effective as a manager (Srivastava & Nair, 2016) as well as being respected by peers, colleagues and subordinates (Parrish, 2015). Sadri, Weber and Gentry (2011) also posit that leaders' ability to display empathy, as perceived by their subordinates, is positively linked to their performance. A leader who is more sensitive and responsive to the needs of others, and a leader who develops empathy between team members, play an important role in attaining exceptional results (Menegazzo et al., 2015). In contrast, ineffective leadership is likely to be influenced by an inability to manage emotions and maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships (Pienaar, 2011).

The transformational style of leadership emerged as the most apparent leadership style due to its links to the practice of empathy in leadership. The transformational leadership style relates to

leaders who possess EI (Menegazzo et al., 2015; Polychroniou, 2009). Moreover, Menegazzo et al. (2015) found that empathy wholly enables the relationship between transformational leadership and excellent performance. Transformational leaders have an emotional impact on their subordinates (Polychroniou, 2009) and are perceived as thoughtful, empathetic and committed (Sayeed & Shanker, 2016).

The training of empathy and EI was another theme that emerged from the study. EI is found to be an ability that can be trained (Clarke 2010; Sears & Holmval, 2010). Matthews et al. (2004) add that investment into programmes that increase EI hold benefits for the individual as well as the organisation. The importance of leaders to include measures of EI and interpersonal fit in making personnel decisions was also highlighted (Clarke, 2010; Miao et al., 2016; Sears & Holmval, 2010; Srivastava & Nair, 2016).

Lastly, the importance of group performance emerged as a theme. The effects of EI abilities in the workplace are positively associated with increasing team effectiveness (Polychroniou, 2009). Organisations that promote skills development and implement practices aimed at increasing empathy among employees benefit by empowering teamwork, and enhancing employee satisfaction (Menegazzo et al., 2015; Polychroniou, 2009).

In conclusion, the implications of this review are that leaders need to acknowledge, acquire and make use of their EI abilities. Key to these abilities is empathy, a soft skill that can be developed over time and that is crucial when working in teams and with subordinates. Empathy is furthermore a valuable social and organisational resource to employ to generate desired outcomes. An empathetic leader is good at recognising and responding to the needs of those around them. Leading by example is key to having an emotional impact on and promoting empathy in others.

The ability to recognise and regulate emotions in themselves and others will equip leaders with the necessary tools to enrich their interpersonal relationships in the workplace. This will inevitably enhance their relationship with their subordinates, peers and colleagues, and by inference, their effectiveness as leaders. In a multicultural society such as South Africa that hosts a variety of values and cultures, cultural sensitivity and the ability to recognise, understand, regulate and utilise emotions is essential for cross-cultural leadership.

### **5.3. Value of Study**

The volume of articles on the influence of EI on leadership suggests an increase in the awareness of how EI can alter leadership and the workplace. The findings of the search in this study contradict Herbst et al. (2006) who state that despite the growing interest in EI relating to effective leadership, little empirical evidence has been published that examine this relationship. The considerable amount of literature yielded in the data search for this review contrasts with the statement above. This contradiction might be due to the timeframe of studies included in this review (from 2006 to 2016) meaning that most research might have taken place after 2006. This might thus be an indication of the popularity of this topic in recent years.

Exploring the *role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership* allows for a more in-depth understanding of the value that this important interpersonal skill has in organisations. Since a review on the topic has never been conducted, according to a preliminary search, this study offers a noteworthy summary on the research available on the topic. The evidence collected in the study is gained after reviewing an all-encompassing and comprehensive range of studies in the field.

The study hopefully provides greater insight into the value of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership. Findings from this study could be used to inform policy makers and

leaders in organisations. Furthermore, the study can assist in determining effective strategies and interventions aimed at training and developing EI, and more specifically, empathy as an EI and a leadership quality. Customised strategies aimed at promoting empathic leadership in the South African context may also prove to be of great value. A programme specifically designed to develop EI in leaders may benefit from the strategies used by Clarke (2010). These include: (1) opportunities for participating in structured practice sessions that require participants to consider how emotional abilities may be used in their roles as leaders; (2) practicing EI associated behaviours and then receiving feedback and (3) observing others during role plays and simulations.

South Africa has come a long way in terms of diversifying the workplace. A focus on the continuous development and fostering of EI, specifically empathy, in the workplace will benefit South African organisations. This will enhance the capacity of leaders and subordinates to understand and accept cultural and social differences, and enrich interpersonal relationships.

### **5.4. Limitations of the Study**

Two types of limitations exist, namely (1) *theoretical limitations*, which involve the weakness in the study framework; and (2) *methodological limitations*, which concern the weakness in study design, sampling, and measurement (Burns & Grove, 2005). One of the most significant limitations of this review is that it is highly selective. By definition and procedure, only studies that explicitly focused on the role of empathy in EI leadership were focused on. While a deliberately narrow focus helped to clearly outline what literature conveys about this particular topic, it also resulted in the omission of peripheral themes. As EI includes many other facets, other than empathy, this review presents only a narrow portion of knowledge about EI in leadership, namely only the role of one component of EI, namely empathy.



Most of the studies included in this review referred to empathy as a construct of EI (as an ability, skill, or competency), and not a stand-alone concept. There were no studies included in this review focusing purely on empathy and the role it plays in leadership (without adding the 'EI tag' to it), or on the role of empathy in the workplace.

The rigorous implementation of the methodology for integrative reviews reduces the probability of bias. Every attempt was made to ensure that all relevant studies were located and included in this review. Due to human error in judgement, however, exclusion of studies might have occurred.

Another limitation is that only the electronic databases subscribed to by the Nelson Mandela University were used. Relevant data might have been missed. Other universities might have more or different databases. A further limitation is related to language, as the study was limited to the exclusive use of Afrikaans and English articles. Additionally, Paterson et al. (2001) state that in any meta-synthesis the primary data set (sample) is limited. This may not permit data saturation and could then result in a limited emerging theory (Paterson et al., 2001).

Lastly, an inherent limitation to this study, as in all reviews of this nature, links to the fact that integrative reviews should be updated continuously as science develops. As new literature on the topic is being generated constantly, the findings of this study may become out-of-date rather quickly. At the same time, this can also be seen as an inherent advantage of the methodology, since findings can serve as an incentive to follow-up and update. The aim of such updating is to ensure that the quality of the review(s) is improved over time (Shea, Boers, Grimshaw, Hamel & Bouter, 2006).

### **5.5. Recommendations for Further Research**

Firstly, there were no studies included in this review focusing purely on empathy and the role it plays in leadership, or on the role of empathy in the workplace. All the studies included in this review considered empathy as either a construct of EI, or an influencing factor alongside other interpersonal and EI competences. The review still leaves questions, however, regarding the specific impact of empathy on leadership, as well as how and when leaders can best utilise empathy.

A further recommendation might be that more qualitative studies be conducted on this topic. As qualitative research offers evidence that is richer in quality than quantitative research, the qualitative approach might offer deeper insight into the phenomenon of empathy and how it relates to emotionally intelligent leadership. In the same vein, more research needs to be conducted around what effects empathy has on leadership and the impact it may have on an organisation. It would be interesting to study whether factors such as gender or age play a role, as well as whether empathy might influence the bottom line in organisations. More research on how empathy can be taught and developed is needed as well.

Finally, only a limited number of studies were based on data from South Africa. Most of the studies included in this review were international studies. The generalisability of the findings of these studies may be limited. Given South Africa's unique cultural context and its current leadership crisis, more perspectives on how empathy features in the South African and African leadership context might be insightful. Exploring the role of empathy in the South African workplace and/or empathy in the African/South African leadership context are recommended areas for future research.

## **5.6. Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented a summary of the positive findings of the study. The value of the study and limitations were also discussed. This was followed by recommendations for future research. This review revealed opportunities for future research that could be both helpful in understanding the over-all role of empathy in general - and in filling in gaps around ‘empathy in leadership’. In providing a synthesis of available literature on the role of empathy in emotionally intelligent leadership, it is my hope that the study offers a sound overview of the collective themes linked to the topic.

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**Appendix A**

**Summary of Search Results**

			<b>Stage 1</b>	<b>Stage 2</b>	<b>Stage 3</b>
<b><u>Database</u></b>	<b><u>Keywords</u></b>		<b><u>Initial Search Output</u></b>	<b><u>Relevant Articles Selected</u></b>	<b><u>New Articles Saved</u></b>
<b>International</b>	<b>1. EBSCOhost</b>  <b>Total = 146</b>	Full combination of keywords used	189	62	36
	<b>2. Emerald Insight</b>	The following search strings were used as the full combination of keywords could not be used: (empath*) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	4	0	1
		emotional intelligence OR emotionally intelligent OR EQ OR EI) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	55	6	
	<b>3. JSTOR</b>	Full combination of keywords used	761	28	9
	<b>4. PubMed Central</b>	Full combination of keywords used	101	0	0
	<b>5. SAGE</b>	Full combination of keywords yielded no results. The following search strings also yielded no results: (empath*) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	0	0	0
		(emotional intelligence OR emotionally intelligent OR EQ OR EI) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	0	0	
	<b>6. ScienceDirect</b>	Full combination of keywords used	1176	68	36

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

	<b>7. SpringerLink</b>	Full combination of keywords used	5	0	1
		(emotional intelligence OR emotionally intelligent OR EQ OR EI) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	12	0	
		(empath*) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	2002	8	
<b>National</b>	<b>1. Nexus</b>	Full combination of keywords used	60	3	0
	<b>2. Sabinet: SA ePublications</b>	Only two keywords can be used at a time in Sabinet, so the following search strings were used: (empath*) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	2995	31	15
		(emotional intelligence OR emotionally intelligent OR EQ OR EI) AND (lead* OR manag* OR supervis* OR employ*)	5893	18	
<b>Manual search</b>	<b>1. Manual searching of journal issues to find relevant articles</b>			8	6
	<b>2. Manual scanning of reference lists to identify relevant studies</b>			9	8
<b>Total</b>					112

## Appendix B

### List of Articles Retrieved for Inclusion/Exclusion

Ref. No.	Article
1	Adeoye, H., & Torubelli, V. (2011). Emotional intelligence and human relationship management as predictors of organisational commitment. <i>Ife Psychologia</i> , 19(2), 212–226.
2	Akintayo, D. I., & Babalola, S. S. (2012). The impact of emotional intelligence on workers' behaviour in industrial organizations. <i>Journal of Human and Social Sciences</i> , 4(2), 83–90.
3	Altındağ, E., & Köseadağı, Y. (2015). The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence of Managers, Innovative Corporate Culture and Employee Performance. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 210, 270–282.
4	Antonakis, J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dasborough, M. T. (2009). Does leadership need emotional intelligence? <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 20(2), 247–261.
5	Atkins, P. W. B., & Parker, S. K. (2012). Understanding individual compassion in organizations: The role of appraisals and psychological flexibility. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 37(4), 524–546.
6	Ayranci, E., & Çolakoğlu, N. (2014). An empirical study on the nexus between the emotional intelligence of top managers and their assessment of intellectual capital. <i>Quality and Quantity</i> , 48(4), 2023–2052.
7	Badea, L., & Pană, N. A. (2010). The role of empathy in developing the leader's emotional intelligence. <i>Theoretical &amp; Applied Economics</i> , 17(2), 69–78.
8	Bankole, A. R. (2010). Psychological predictors of conflict management behaviour of labour leaders in Lagos State, Nigeria. <i>IFE Psychologia</i> , 18(2), 210–222.
9	Barry, M.L., & du Plessis, Y. (2007). Emotional intelligence: a key human resource management competence for project managers in the 21 <sup>st</sup> century. <i>Journal of Contemporary Management</i> , 4, 1–19.
10	Bawany, S. (2015). What makes a great leader? <i>Leadership Excellence Essentials</i> , 32(12), 5-6.
11	Behbahani, A. A. (2011). A comparative study of the relation between emotional intelligence and employee's performance. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 30, 386–389.
12	Berkovich, I., & Eyal, O. (2015). Educational Leaders and Emotions: An International Review of Empirical Evidence 1992-2012. <i>Review of Educational Research</i> , 85(1), 129–167.

13	Berman, E. M., & West, J. P. (2008). Managing Emotional Intelligence in U.S. Cities : A Study of Social Skills among Public Managers, <i>68</i> (4), 742–758.
14	Brown, C. (2014). The Effects of Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Leadership Style on Sales Performance. <i>Economic Insights – Trends and Challenges, III (LXVI)</i> (3), 1–14.
15	Camuffo, A., Gerli, F., & Gubitta, P. (2012). Competencies matter: Modeling effective entrepreneurship in northeast of Italy small firms. <i>Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, 19</i> (1), 48–66.
16	Chan, J. T., & Mallett, C. J. (2011). The Value of Emotional Intelligence for High Performance Coaching. <i>International Journal of Sports Science and Coaching, 6</i> (3), 351–356.
17	Chikovani, G., Babuadze, L., Iashvili, N., Gvalia, T., & Surguladze, S. (2015). Empathy costs: Negative emotional bias in high empathisers. <i>Psychiatry Research, 229</i> (1–2), 340–346.
18	Chu, K. H., Baker, M. A., & Murrmann, S. K. (2012). When we are onstage, we smile: The effects of emotional labor on employee work outcomes. <i>International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31</i> (3), 906–915.
19	Clarke, N. (2010). The impact of a training programme designed to target the emotional intelligence abilities of project managers. <i>International Journal of Project Management, 28</i> (5), 461–468.
20	Cummings, G. G., MacGregor, T., Davey, M., Lee, H., Wong, C. A., Lo, E., Muise, M., & Stafford, E. (2010). Leadership styles and outcome patterns for the nursing workforce and work environment: A systematic review. <i>International Journal of Nursing Studies, 47</i> (3), 363–385.
21	De Braine, R., & Verrier, D. (2007). Leadership, character and its development: A qualitative exploration. <i>SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 5</i> (1), 1–10.
22	DeFelice, A. (2011). What Does It Take to Lead?, <i>Journal of Accountancy</i> (April 2011), 34–37.
23	Dincer, H., Gencer, G., Orhan, N., & Sahinbas, K. (2011). The significance of emotional intelligence on the innovative work behavior of managers as strategic decision-makers. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 24</i> , 909–919.
24	Eason, T. (2009). Emotional intelligence and nursing leadership: a successful combination. <i>Creative Nursing, 15</i> (4), 184–185.
25	Eberly, M. B., & Fong, C. T. (2013). Leading via the heart and mind: The roles of leader and follower emotions, attributions and interdependence. <i>Leadership Quarterly, 24</i> (5), 696–711.
26	Emery, C. (2012). Uncovering the role of emotional abilities in leadership emergence. A longitudinal analysis of leadership networks. <i>Social Networks, 34</i> (4), 429–437.
27	Flores, M. M. T., & Tovar, L. A. R. (2008). Emotional intelligence model for directors of research centers in Mexico. <i>Estudios Gerenciales, 24</i> (106), 13–30.

28	Gardner, W. L., Fischer, D., & Hunt, J. G. (2009). Emotional labor and leadership: A threat to authenticity? <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 20(3), 466–482.
29	Girdauskiene, L., & Eyvazzade, F. (2015). The Profile of an Effective Female Leadership in Multicultural Context. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 210, 11–20.
30	Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 21(6), 979–1004.
31	Guinalfú, M., & Jordán, P. (2016). Building trust in the leader of virtual work teams. <i>Spanish Journal of Marketing</i> , 58–70.
32	Hamidi, F., & Azizi, F. (2012). Relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles of principals in high schools. <i>International Journal of Vocational and Technical Education</i> , 4(November), 60–67.
33	Hewertson, R.B. (2012). Stand out among peers, (December 2012), 57–59.
34	Hicks, R., Dess, G. G. (2008). A question of leadership. <i>Leadership in Action</i> , 28(5), 18–24.
35	Holt, S., & Marques, J. (2012). Empathy in Leadership: Appropriate or Misplaced? An Empirical Study on a Topic that is Asking for Attention. <i>Journal of Business Ethics</i> , 105(1), 95–105.
36	Humphrey, R. H. (2002). The many faces of emotional leadership. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 13(5), 493–504.
37	Humphrey, R. H. (2013). The Benefits of Emotional Intelligence and Empathy to Entrepreneurship. <i>Erj</i> , 3(3), 287–294.
38	Hur, Y., van den Berg, P. T., & Wilderom, C. P. M. (2011). Transformational leadership as a mediator between emotional intelligence and team outcomes. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(4), 591–603.
39	Insley, R., Jaeger, P., Ekinici, A., & Sakiz, H. (2016). An Evaluation of Teachers' Opinions about the Servant Leadership Behaviours of School Principals. <i>Educational Process: International Journal</i> , 5(3), 223-235.
40	Jowah, L. (2015). Botho values and beliefs as a leadership style: the maturation of the studies in effective leadership. <i>Journal of Contemporary Management</i> , 1(12), 208–225.
41	Kaplan, S., Cortina, J., Ruark, G., LaPort, K., & Nicolaidis, V. (2014). The role of organizational leaders in employee emotion management: A theoretical model. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 25(3), 563–580.
42	Karnes, R. E. (2009). A Change in Business Ethics: The Impact on Employer-Employee Relations. <i>Journal of Business Ethics</i> , 87(2), 189–197.
43	Kellett, J.B., Humphrey, R. H., & Sleeth, R. G. (2002). Empathy and complex task performance : Two routes to leadership. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 13, 523–544.
44	Kellett, J. B., Humphrey, R. H., & Sleeth, R. G. (2006). Empathy and the emergence of task and relations leaders. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 17(2), 146–162.

45	Kilduff, M., Chiaburu, D. S., & Menges, J. I. (2010). Strategic use of emotional intelligence in organizational settings: Exploring the dark side. <i>Research in Organizational Behavior</i> , 30(C), 129–152.
46	Kim, T., Cable, D. M., Kim, S., & Wang, J. (2009). Emotional competence and work performance: The mediating effect of proactivity and the moderating effect of job autonomy. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> , 30(7), 983–1000.
47	Kotze, M., & Nel, P. (2015). The influence of trait-emotional intelligence on authentic leadership. <i>SA Journal of Human Resource Management</i> , 13(1), 1–10.
48	Lekganyane, J., & Oosthuizen, T. (2006). Analysing Leadership Traits in Establishing Effective Leadership At Eskom. <i>Acta Commercii</i> , 54–58.
49	Lewis, K. M. (2000). When leaders display emotion: How followers respond to negative emotional expression of male and female leaders. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> , 21(2), 221–234.
50	Little, L. M., Gooty, J., & Williams, M. (2016). The role of leader emotion management in leader-member exchange and follower outcomes. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 27(1), 85–97.
51	Martina, M., Denisa, M., & Mariana, S. (2015). Emotional Intelligence of Managers. <i>Procedia Economics and Finance</i> , 26(15), 1119–1123.
52	Mazibuko, N.E., Tait, M., & Jowah, L. (2015). Critical core competencies required for effective project leadership in the presence of the authority gap. <i>Journal of Contemporary Management</i> , 12, 313–335.
53	Menegazzo, J.S., Cruz-Ortiz, V., Ortega-Maldonado, A., & Salanova, M. (2015). Positive institutions and their relationship with transformational leadership, empathy and team performance. <i>Multidisciplinary Journal for Education, Social and Technological Sciences</i> , 2 (2), 2341–2593.
54	Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2016). Leader emotional intelligence and subordinate job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of main, mediator, and moderator effects. <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 102, 13–24.
55	Mill, W. C. (2010). Training to survive the workplace of today. <i>Industrial and Commercial Training</i> , 42(5), 270–273.
56	Mills, J.P., & Boardley, I.D. (2016). Expert Premier League soccer managers' use of transformational leadership behaviours and attitude towards sport integrity: An intrinsic case study. <i>International Journal of Sports Science &amp; Coaching</i> , 11(3), 382-394.
57	Mohamad, M., & Jais, J. (2016). Emotional Intelligence and Job Performance: A Study among Malaysian Teachers. <i>Procedia Economics and Finance</i> , 35, 674–682.
58	Maloş, R. (2011). Emotional intelligence in leadership. <i>Annals of Eftimie Murgu University Resita, Fascicle II, Economi</i> , 208-214.
59	Nazem, F. (2010). The Role of Governance in Leading Universities as the Thinking Base for Directing Societies, 125–133.

60	Newman, M. A., Guy, M. E., & Mastracci, S. H. (2009). Beyond cognition: Affective leadership and emotional labor. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 69(1), 6–20.
61	Nikolić, M., Vukonjanski, J., Nedeljković, M., Hadžić, O., & Terek, E. (2014). The relationships between communication satisfaction, emotional intelligence and the GLOBE organizational culture dimensions of middle managers in Serbian organizations. <i>Journal for East European Management Studies</i> , 19(4), 387–412.
62	Obradovic, V., Jovanovic, P., Petrovic, D., Mihic, M., & Mitrovic, Z. (2013). Project Managers' Emotional Intelligence – A Ticket to Success. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 74, 274–284.
63	Okorie, V., Emuze, F., Smallwood, J., & Wyk, J. (2014). A Qualitative Review of the Health and Safety Leadership Roles of Managers in South African Construction. <i>Journal of Construction Project Management and Innovation</i> , 4(2), 950–965.
64	Olannye, A. P. (2013). An assessment of the effect of emotional intelligence on leadership performance in local government administration. <i>Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences</i> , 5(1), 44–50.
65	Olckers, C., Buys, M.A., & Grobler, S. (2010). Confirmatory factor analysis of the Multi-dimensional Emotional Empathy Scale in the South African context. <i>SA Journal of Industrial Psychology</i> , 36(1), Art. 856, 8 pages.
66	Parrish, D. R. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. <i>Studies in Higher Education</i> , 40(5), 821–837.
67	Pastor, I. (2014). Leadership and Emotional Intelligence: The Effect on Performance and Attitude. <i>Procedia Economics and Finance</i> , 15(14), 985–992.
68	Pescosolido, A. T. (2002). Emergent leaders as managers of group emotion. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 13(5), 583–599.
69	Petrovici, A., & Dobrescu, T. (2014). The Role of Emotional Intelligence in Building Interpersonal Communication Skills. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 116, 1405–1410.
70	Petrovici, M. A. (2014). Emotionally Intelligent Leader (Ship): An Efficient Approach. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 141, 227–231.
71	Pienaar, J. W. (2011). What lurks beneath leadership ineffectiveness? A theoretical overview. <i>African Journal of Business Management</i> , 5(26), 10629–10633.
72	Polychroniou, P. V. (2009). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership of supervisors: The impact on team effectiveness. <i>Team Performance Management: An International Journal</i> , 15(7/8), 343–356.
73	Rajah, R., Song, Z., & Arvey, R. D. (2011). Emotionality and leadership: Taking stock of the past decade of research. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(6), 1107–1119.

74	Ramchunder, Y., & Martins, N. (2014). The role of self-efficacy, emotional intelligence and leadership style as attributes of leadership effectiveness. <i>SA Journal of Industrial Psychology</i> , 40(1), 1–11.
75	Rao, P. R. (2006). Emotional intelligence: The Sine Qua Non for a clinical leadership toolbox. <i>Journal of Communication Disorders</i> , 39(4), 310–319.
76	Richards, Y., & Barry, M.L. (2010). The relevance of emotional intelligence in project management for the aviation industry. <i>Journal of Contemporary Management</i> , 7, 56–70.
77	Riggio, R. E., & Lee, J. (2007). Emotional and interpersonal competencies and leader development. <i>Human Resource Management Review</i> , 17(4), 418–426.
78	Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., & Gentry, W. A. (2011). Empathic emotion and leadership performance: An empirical analysis across 38 countries. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(5),
79	Sayed, O.B., & Shanker, M. (2016). Emotionally Intelligent Managers & Transformational Leadership Styles, <i>Indian Journal of Industrial Relations</i> , 44 (4), 593–610.
80	Sears, G. J., & Holmvall, C. M. (2010). The Joint Influence of Supervisor and Subordinate Emotional Intelligence on Leader-Member Exchange. <i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i> , 25(4), 593–605.
81	Semadar, A., Robins, C., & Ferris, G. R. (2006). Comparing the validity of multiple social effectiveness constructs in the prediction of managerial job performance. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior</i> , 27(4), 443–461.
82	Singh, K. (2008). Emotional intelligence & work place effectiveness. <i>Indian Journal of Industrial Relations</i> , 44(2), 292–302.
83	Singh, P., & Dali, C. M. (2013). Need for Emotional Intelligence to Develop Principals' Social Skills. <i>Africa Education Review</i> , 10(3), 502–519.
84	Srivastava, N., & Nair, S.K. (2016). Emotional Intelligence & Managerial Effectiveness: Role of Rational Emotive Behaviour. <i>Indian Journal of Industrial Relation</i> , 46(2), 313-327.
85	Stoller, J. K., Taylor, C. A., & Farver, C. F. (2013). Emotional intelligence competencies provide a developmental curriculum for medical training. <i>Medical Teacher</i> , 35(3), 243–247.
86	Sy, T., Tram, S., & O'Hara, L. A. (2006). Relation of employee and manager emotional intelligence to job satisfaction and performance. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 68(3), 461–473.
87	Tolegenova, A., Madaliyeva, Z., Jakupov, M., Naurzalina, D., Ahtayeva, N., & Taumysheva, R. (2015). Management and Understanding Features in Communication Depending on Level of Emotional Intelligence. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 171, 401–405.
88	Trichas, S., & Schyns, B. (2012). The face of leadership: Perceiving leaders from facial expression. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 23(3), 545–566.



89	Trivellas, P., & Reklitis, P. (2014). Leadership Competencies Profiles and Managerial Effectiveness in Greece. <i>Procedia Economics and Finance</i> , 9, 380–390.
90	Türksoy, A., Keskin, B., & Duran, C. (2015). Examining Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Skills of Trainers. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 185, 117–122.
91	Üstüner, M., Kış, A. (2014). The relationship between communication competence and organizational conflict: A study on heads of educational supervisors. <i>Eurasian Journal of Educational Research</i> , 56, 23-44.
92	Van der Vyver, C. P. (2016). Die invloed van biografiese faktore op sorg in skoolleierskap. <i>Tydskrif vir Geesteswetenskappe</i> , 56(1), 221–237.
93	Vigoda-Gadot, E., & Meisler, G. (2010). Emotions in Management and the Management of Emotions : The Impact of Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Politics. <i>Public Administration Review</i> , 70 (1), 72-86
94	Von Eck, C., & Verwey, A. (2007). Change dynamics and related leadership competencies. <i>SA Journal of Human Resource Management</i> , 5(2), 42–50.
95	Vongas, J. G., & Al Hajj, R. (2015). The evolution of empathy and women’s precarious leadership appointments. <i>Frontiers in Psychology</i> , 6 (1751), 1–14.
96	Vrba, M. (2007). Emotional intelligence skills and leadership behaviour in a sample of South African first-line managers. <i>Management Dynamics</i> , 16(2), 25–35.
97	Waldman, D. A., Balthazard, P. A., & Peterson, S. J. (2011). Social cognitive neuroscience and leadership. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(6), 1092–1106.
98	Walters, D. (2012). One vision, many eyes: reflections on leadership and change. <i>International Journal of Leadership in Education</i> , 15(1), 119–127.
99	Wells, C. M. (2009). Conceptualizing Mindful Leadership in Schools: How the Practice of Mindfulness Informs the Practice of Leading, <i>Educational Leadership Review of Doctoral Research</i> , 2(1), 1–23.
100	Wolff, S. B., Pescosolido, A. T., & Druskat, V. U. (2002). Emotional intelligence as the basis of leadership emergence in self-managing teams. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 13(5), 505–522.
101	Yalin, B.E. (2012). Siyasal parti liderlerinin üniversite gençliği üzerindeki duygusal zekâ algisi. <i>Karadeniz Arastirmalari</i> , 35, 81-99.
102	Yoo, Y., & Alavi, M. (2004). Emergent leadership in virtual teams: What do emergent leaders do? <i>Information and Organization</i> , 14(1), 27–58.
103	Zhang, L., & Fan, W. (2013). Improving performance of construction projects: A project manager’s emotional intelligence approach. <i>Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management</i> , 20(20), 195–207.

Appendix C

Inclusion/Exclusion Criteria Table

Article Ref. No.	2006+	Population		Language	Type			Content			Action		Reason for exclusion	
		Leaders	Subordinates	English/Afrikaans	Quantitative	Qualitative	Reviews	Empathy	Role/impact of empathy on leadership	EI	Role/impact of EI on leadership	Include		Exclude
1	x		x	x	x					x			x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content – not related to empathy or leadership
2	x		x	x	x					x			x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content – not related to empathy or leadership
3	x		x	x	x					x	x		x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership ; Content – not relating to empathy
4	x			x						x	x		x	Content – not relating to empathy
5	x			x									x	Content – not relevant to the research question
6	x	x		x	x					x	x	x		
7	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
8	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content – not relating to empathy
9	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content – not relating to empathy
10	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

11	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
12	x	x		x			x			x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but educational leaders (principals)
13	x	x		x	x	x				x	x		x	Content – not relating to empathy
14	x	x		x						x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
15	x			x	x	x							x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content – not relevant to the research question
16	x	x		x				x	x	x	x		x	Population - not appropriate, sport coaches
17	x			x	x								x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content – only relating to empathy, no link to leadership
18	x		x	x	x					x			x	Content – only relating to empathy, no link to leadership
19	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
20	x	x		x			x						x	Content – not relevant to the research question
21	x	x		x		x							x	Content – not relevant to the research question
22	x							x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
23	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content – not relating to empathy
24	x	x		x						x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
25	x		x	x		x				x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
26	x			x	x						x	x	x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content - not relating to empathy
27	x	x		x	x			x		x			x	Content – not relevant to the research question
28	x			x				x		x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
29	x	x		x		x				x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
30	x			x			x	x	x	x	x	x		
31	x		x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

32	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but educational leaders (principals)
33	x			x						x	x		x	Population – not relating to leaders or leadership; Content - not relating to empathy
34	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
35	x			x	x	x		x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but undergraduate students
36		x		x			x	x	x	x	x		x	Date - study is from 2002
37	x	x		x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
38	x		x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
39	x		x	x		x		x	x				x	Content - not relating to empathy in leadership specifically, only that empathy is a component of servant leadership
40	x			x			x	x		x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
41	x			x						x	x		x	Content – not relevant to the research question
42	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
43				x				x	x	x	x		x	Date - study is from 2002
44	x			x	x			x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but undergraduate students
45	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
46	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
47	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but MBA applicants
48	x	x		x	x								x	Content – not relevant to the research question
49				x	x			x		x	x		x	Date - study is from 2002

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

50	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
51	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
52	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
53	x		x	x	x			x	x			x		
54	x	x		x			x	x	x	x	x	x		
55	x			x						x			x	Content – not relevant to the research question
56	x	x		x		x				x			x	Content – not relevant to the research question
57	x			x	x					x			x	Content - not relating to leadership or empathy
58	x	x		x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
59	x	x		x	x			x		x	x		x	Content – not relating specifically to role of empathy in leadership
60	x			x				x	x				x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
61	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
62	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
63	x	x	x	x		x							x	Content – not relevant to the research question
64	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
65	x			x	x			x					x	Content – not relevant to the research question
66	x			x		x		x	x	x	x	x		
67	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
68				x		x		x	x				x	Date - study is from 2002
69	x			x	x			x		x			x	Content - no link of EI and empathy to leadership
70	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

71	x			x			x	x	x	x	x	x		
72	x	x	x	x	x	x		x	x	x	x	x		
73	x			x			x			x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
74	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
75	x			x				x		x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
76	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
77	x			x			x			x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
78	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
79	x	x		x	x					x	x	x		
80	x	x	x	x	x			x		x	x	x		
81	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
82	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
83	x	x		x		x		x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but educational leaders (principals)
84	x	x		x	x			x		x	x	x		
85	x			x						x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
86	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
87	x			x	x			x		x	x	x		
88	x			x	x								x	Content – not relevant to the research question
89	x	x		x	x								x	Content – not relevant to the research question
90	x			x	x			x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but sport trainers/coaches
91	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		
92	x	x	x	x	x			x	x	x	x		x	Population - not leaders within organisation, but educational leaders (principals) and teachers

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

93	x	x		x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
94	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
95	x			x				x	x				x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
96	x	x	x	x	x					x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy
97	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
98	x			x						x	x		x	Content - not relating to empathy; Commentary on research, not a primary study
99	x			x				x	x	x	x		x	Type - no indication of study design or methodology used
100				x		x		x	x	x	x		x	Date - study is from 2002
101	x												x	Study is in a language that the reviewer is not proficient in
102		x		x	x	x							x	Date - study is from 2002; Content – not relevant to the research question
103	x	x		x	x			x	x	x	x	x		

**Appendix D**

**Critical Appraisal Sheets**

<b>Title</b>	An empirical study on the nexus between the emotional intelligence of top managers and their assessment of intellectual capital		
<b>Author(s)</b>	Ayrançi, E., & Çolakoğlu, N.		
<b>Publishing Details</b>	Quality and Quantity, 48(4), 2023–2052. (2014).		
<b>Reviewer’s Decision</b>	Accepted		
<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1. Was the purpose/research question clearly stated?		X	No clear research question
2. Was relevant background literature reviewed?	X		
3. Was the study design appropriate for the research question?	X		
4. Was the sampling method appropriate?	X		Simple random sampling of 363 participants
5. Was the data collection method described clearly and completely?		X	
6. Was the process of data analysis described adequately?	X		Extensive statistical analysis employed
7. Was there evidence of trustworthiness?		X	Not clarified
8. Were the conclusions appropriate?	X		



<b>Title</b>	Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review.		
<b>Author(s)</b>	Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A.		
<b>Publishing Details</b>	Leadership Quarterly, 21(6), 979–1004. (2010).		
<b>Reviewer’s Decision</b>	Accepted		
<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1. Was the purpose/research question clearly stated?	X		
2. Was relevant background literature reviewed?	X		
3. Was the study design appropriate for the research question?	X		Qualitative review
4. Was the sampling method appropriate?	X		Three phases used to identify potentially relevant articles are described
5. Was the data collection method described clearly and completely?	X		
6. Was the process of data analysis described adequately?	X		Thematic analysis
7. Was there evidence of trustworthiness?	X		Only papers deemed relevant by all 4 authors were used. Due consideration was also given to the limitations of this study.
8. Were the conclusions appropriate?	X		Yes as well as recommendations for future research

<b>Title</b>	Emotional Intelligence of Managers.		
<b>Author(s)</b>	Martina, M., Denisa, M., & Mariana, S.		
<b>Publishing Details</b>	Procedia Economics and Finance, 26(15), 1119–1123. (2015).		
<b>Reviewer’s Decision</b>	Accepted		
<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1. Was the purpose/research question clearly stated?		X	
2. Was relevant background literature reviewed?		X	
3. Was the study design appropriate for the research question?	X		Quantitative – questionnaires sent online
4. Was the sampling method appropriate?	X		Managers of small and medium enterprises in Slovakia. Had a 80% response rate
5. Was the data collection method described clearly and completely?	X		Questionnaire sent online
6. Was the process of data analysis described adequately?	X		Statistical analysis process described and presented
7. Was there evidence of trustworthiness?		X	Not explicitly stated or discussed
8. Were the conclusions appropriate?	X		

<b>Title</b>	Emotionally Intelligent Leader (Ship): An Efficient Approach.		
<b>Author(s)</b>	Petrovici, M. A.		
<b>Publishing Details</b>	Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 141, 227–231. (2014).		
<b>Reviewer’s Decision</b>	Not accepted		
<b>Criteria</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Comment</b>
1. Was the purpose/research question clearly stated?		X	
2. Was relevant background literature reviewed?	X		
3. Was the study design appropriate for the research question?	X		Qualitative
4. Was the sampling method appropriate?		X	Sample of 15 participants – very small. Study is restrictive as limited number of participants reduces generalizability of study findings
5. Was the data collection method described clearly and completely?		X	
6. Was the process of data analysis described adequately?		X	Results presented but data analysis procedure not described
7. Was there evidence of trustworthiness?		X	
8. Were the conclusions appropriate?	X		

**Appendix E**

**Data Extraction Sheets**

<p align="center"><b><u>Title</u></b></p> <p>A comparative study of the relation between emotional intelligence and employee’s performance.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Author(s)</u></b></p> <p>Behbahani, A. A.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Publishing details</u></b></p> <p>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 30, 386–389. (2011).</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Population</u></b></p> <p>160 male and female managers and employees at the departments of physical education in Shahr-e-Rey, Iran.</p>		<p align="center"><b><u>Purpose/Focus of the study</u></b></p> <p>This study investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence (and its components) and capabilities of managers and employees at departments of physical education in Shahr-e-Rey, Iran (henceforth, DPESI).</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Findings</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The findings showed that the relationship between self-regulation and capabilities of the subjects was the strongest and could be the best predictor for capabilities.</li> <li>- Shows that there is a significant relationship between empathy as a component of emotional intelligence and capabilities of managers and employees at DPESI.</li> <li>- Having a high emotional intelligence, managers and employers at departments of physical education can avoid anger, doubt and many negative feelings and focus on their positive emotions such as self-confidence and conformity. Emotional intelligence plays a major role in helping managers and employers at DPESI to understand emotions and feelings of the self and others and how to react appropriately to these emotions. Since it has a determining role as a psychological factor in empowering employees at such departments, special planning must be done in this regard.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Recommendations</u></b></p>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Additional notes</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- “The findings of the present study are in line with research findings by Parolini (2005), Tekleab <i>et al.</i> (2008), Barsade (2000), Moradi (2005), Fitzgerald (1993), and Gerits <i>et al</i> (2005).”</li> </ul>		

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

<p align="center"><b><u>Title</u></b></p> <p>Building trust in the leader of virtual work teams.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Author(s)</u></b></p> <p>Guinalú, M., &amp; Jordán, P.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Publishing details</u></b></p> <p>Spanish Journal of Marketing, 58–70. (2016).</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Population</u></b></p> <p>The data necessary for this study was obtained through a self-administered survey on the Internet taken by 241 people who regularly work in virtual teams.</p>		<p align="center"><b><u>Purpose/Focus of the study</u></b></p> <p>This study considers various antecedent factors of trust toward leaders of virtual teams grouped in two blocks: the physical attributes (attractiveness) and the behavioural characteristics (justice and empathy) of the leader</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Findings</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Perceived attractiveness, empathy and justice have a positive and significant effect on trust in leadership</li> <li>- The characteristics of the behaviour of leaders toward their subordinates also exert a positive effect on trust. More specifically, the empathy that subordinates perceive in their leader makes them more willing to give the leader their trust.</li> <li>- Furthermore, the possible moderating effect of leadership style on the relationship of empathy with trust was also analysed. According to the results, the leadership style perceived by subordinates appears to only influence transformational leadership styles, given that the influence of empathy on trust seems lower for the more transformational leaderships.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Recommendations</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- First, it would be interesting to analyse the determinants of trust in the leader in greater detail.</li> <li>- Second, it would be interesting to replicate the study with a sample that includes a wider diversity of nationalities.</li> <li>- Third, in the future it would be interesting to analyse not only the antecedents of trust in the leader but also the effects that are derived from building that trust.</li> <li>- Finally, as previously mentioned, it is very important to further examine the moderating effect that can be exerted by the style of leadership.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Additional notes</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The results concerning the moderation of leadership styles are interesting given that research conducted in non-virtual contexts suggests the existence of moderating effects as a consequence of leadership style (Connelly &amp; Ruark, 2010). A possible explanation for this result could be that the characteristics of the online environment reduced, modified or eliminated the effect of the leadership style (Cote, Lopes, Salovey, &amp; Miners, 2010).</li> </ul>		

## EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

<p align="center"><b><u>Title</u></b></p> <p>Positive institutions and their relationship with transformational leadership, empathy and team performance.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Author(s)</u></b></p> <p>Menegazzo, J.S., Cruz-Ortiz, V., Ortega-Maldonado, A., &amp; Salanova, M.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Publishing details</u></b></p> <p>Multidisciplinary Journal for Education, Social and Technological Sciences, 2 (2), 2341–2593. (2015).</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Population</u></b></p> <p>The sample consists of 69 work teams, SMEs including 4 educational institutions and 3 institutions of medical services from Spain.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Purpose/Focus of the study</u></b></p> <p>The current study tests the relationship between transformational leadership, empathy and excellent team performance</p>	
<p align="center"><b><u>Findings</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Empathy plays a full mediating role between transformational leadership and excellent team performance, so this relationship may be very important for the development of positive institutions.</li> <li>- The fact that the relationship between transformational leadership and excellent performance became significant suggests that empathy full mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and excellent performance.</li> <li>- The result shows the importance to develop empathy between team members, because although the characteristics of a transformational leader are important for the performance, empathy plays a vital role for excellent results.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Recommendations</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Future studies can be directed to unravel the causal pathways by using longitudinal studies to observe how this mediation evolves over time.</li> <li>- The use of multilevel methodology is also recommended to explore longitudinal studies in which the organizational level and lower-level variables are related.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Additional notes</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• This is important because it shows the value of the role played by empathy as an organizational and social resource to generate desired results.</li> <li>• Furthermore, the results contribute to research, showing the benefits of promoting the positive aspects in work contexts, in this case the role of empathy and its important role in the group performance.</li> <li>• From the point of view of organizational practices, this research interests human resources professionals toward implementing practices and resources that improve outcomes in teams work. We can say that it is important to conduct practices that increase empathy among employees and to enhance the wellbeing of teams, as this will have a positive relationship in how they carry out their tasks and generate expected results.</li> </ul>		

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

<p align="center"><b><u>Title</u></b></p> <p>Empathic emotion and leadership performance: An empirical analysis across 38 countries.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Author(s)</u></b></p> <p>Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., &amp; Gentry, W. A.</p>	<p align="center"><b><u>Publishing details</u></b></p> <p>Leadership Quarterly, 22(5), 818–830. (2011).</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Population</u></b></p> <p>6731 practicing managers around the world</p>		<p align="center"><b><u>Purpose/Focus of the study</u></b></p> <p>To examine the relationship between subordinate ratings of a target-leader's empathic emotion and boss ratings of performance of that target-leader.</p>
<p align="center"><b><u>Findings</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Leaders who are rated by their subordinates as engaging in behaviours that signal empathic emotion are perceived as better performers by their bosses.</li> <li>- Subordinate ratings of empathic emotion of target-leaders are positively related to boss ratings of target-leaders' performance. The more target-leaders display behaviours of empathic emotion as rated by their subordinates, the higher their performance ratings from their boss.</li> <li>- In both low and high power distance cultures, high empathic emotion led to higher ratings of performance, the magnitude of this relationship was stronger in high power distance cultures. Thus, while high power distance cultures believe that power in organizations and institutions should be stratified and concentrated at higher levels and as such, leaders are not expected to show as much empathy as leaders in low power distance cultures. Findings suggest that when leaders at those higher levels display empathic emotion, it has a very positive impact upon ratings of performance.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Recommendations</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Future research might consider both within-country as well as between-country differences.</li> <li>- Future research measure cultural values of participants directly.</li> <li>- Future research should build upon our preliminary findings with more comprehensive measures of empathic emotion.</li> <li>- Further research and conceptual work are needed to distinguish between empathic emotion and these potentially related leadership constructs.</li> <li>- In addition, studying empathy more broadly (i.e. going beyond empathic emotion) across cultures is also needed in future research.</li> <li>- Future research might also test the cross-cultural relevance of other distinct and relevant leadership competencies and behaviours in addition to empathy.</li> <li>- Future research might incorporate multiple sources of data, both quantitative and qualitative.</li> </ul>		
<p align="center"><b><u>Additional notes in the form of direct quotes</u></b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Prior research has linked empathy to the successful work performance of physicians, salesmen and healthcare managers (Friedman &amp; DiMatteo, 1982; Silvester et al., 2007; Skinner &amp; Spurgeon, 2005; Tobolski &amp; Kerr, 1952). The present findings extend this prior research.</li> </ul>		

**Appendix F**

**Emergent Themes**

Article Ref. No.	Author and Title (Final sample)	Emerging Themes						
		Effect on relationship with subordinates	Recognising emotion in self and others (self- and social awareness)	Regulating emotion in self and others (self-management and social skills)	Leadership performance/ effectiveness	Transformational leadership style	Training EI	Group performance
6	Ayranci, E., & Çolakoğlu, N. (2014). An empirical study on the nexus between the emotional intelligence of top managers and their assessment of intellectual capital. <i>Quality and Quantity</i> , 48(4), 2023–2052.	X	X	X				
11	Behbahani, A. A. (2011). A comparative study of the relation between emotional intelligence and employee’s performance. <i>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</i> , 30, 386–389.	X	X	X				
19	Clarke, N. (2010). The impact of a training programme designed to target the emotional intelligence abilities of project managers. <i>International Journal of Project Management</i> , 28(5), 461–468.		X				X	
30	Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 21(6), 979–1004.	X		X	X	X		
31	Guinalfú, M., & Jordán, P. (2016). Building trust in the leader of virtual work teams. <i>Spanish Journal of Marketing</i> , 58–70.	X				X		



EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

51	Martina, M., Denisa, M., & Mariana, S. (2015). Emotional Intelligence of Managers. <i>Procedia Economics and Finance</i> , 26(15), 1119–1123.		X	X				
53	Menegazzo, J.S., Cruz-Ortiz, V., Ortega-Maldonado, A., & Salanova, M. (2015). Positive institutions and their relationship with transformational leadership, empathy and team performance. <i>Multidisciplinary Journal for Education, Social and Technological Sciences</i> , 2 (2), 2341–2593.					X		X
54	Miao, C., Humphrey, R. H., & Qian, S. (2016). Leader emotional intelligence and subordinate job satisfaction: A meta-analysis of main, mediator, and moderator effects. <i>Personality and Individual Differences</i> , 102, 13–24.	X					X	
61	Nikolić, M., Vukonjanski, J., Nedeljković, M., Hadžić, O., & Terek, E. (2014). The relationships between communication satisfaction, emotional intelligence and the GLOBE organizational culture dimensions of middle managers in Serbian organizations. <i>Journal for East European Management Studies</i> , 19(4), 387–412.	X	X	X				
64	Olannye, A. P. (2013). An assessment of the effect of emotional intelligence on leadership performance in local government administration. <i>Journal of Emerging Trends in Economics and Management Sciences</i> , 5(1), 44–50.		X	X	X			
66	Parrish, D. R. (2015). The relevance of emotional intelligence for leadership in a higher education context. <i>Studies in Higher Education</i> , 40(5), 821–837.	X	X	X	X	X		
71	Pienaar, J. W. (2011). What lurks beneath leadership ineffectiveness? A theoretical overview. <i>African Journal of Business Management</i> , 5(26), 10629–10633.				X			

EMPATHY IN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT LEADERSHIP

72	Polychroniou, P. V. (2009). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership of supervisors: The impact on team effectiveness. <i>Team Performance Management: An International Journal</i> , 15(7/8), 343–356.	X				X	X	X
78	Sadri, G., Weber, T. J., & Gentry, W. A. (2011). Empathic emotion and leadership performance: An empirical analysis across 38 countries. <i>Leadership Quarterly</i> , 22(5), 818–830.				X			
79	Sayeed, O.B., & Shanker, M. (2016). Emotionally Intelligent Managers & Transformational Leadership Styles, <i>Indian Journal of Industrial Relations</i> , 44 (4), 593–610.		X			X		
80	Sears, G. J., & Holmvall, C. M. (2010). The Joint Influence of Supervisor and Subordinate Emotional Intelligence on Leader-Member Exchange. <i>Journal of Business and Psychology</i> , 25(4), 593–605.	X					X	
84	Srivastava, N., & Nair, S.K. (2016). Emotional Intelligence & Managerial Effectiveness: Role of Rational Emotive Behaviour. <i>Indian Journal of Industrial Relations</i> , 46(2), 313-327.				X		X	
91	Üstüner, M., Kış, A. (2014). The relationship between communication competence and organizational conflict: A study on heads of educational supervisors. <i>Eurasian Journal of Educational Research</i> , 56, 23-44.	X		X				
102	Zhang, L., & Fan, W. (2013). Improving performance of construction projects: A project manager’s emotional intelligence approach. <i>Engineering, Construction and Architectural Management</i> , 20(20), 195–207.		X	X				