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Emotional Intelligence and Toxic Leadership in Police Departments

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Walden University
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Abstract

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Abstract

Effective leadership in law enforcement is critical for the overall success and effectiveness of law enforcement personnel. Police leaders need to effectively guide officers through unparalleled social, technological, and life and death challenges. Although scholarly research indicates a positive connection between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence, understanding the specifics of this relationship has not been clearly identified. This research was an attempt to better understand how emotional intelligence impacts the perception of leaders demonstrating toxic behaviors and the relationship quality between police leaders and their direct reports.

Data was collected from 63 law enforcement leaders and 162 direct reports in small to medium-sized agencies in Minnesota. Pearson's correlation coefficient and multiple linear regression analyses were performed to test the hypotheses. Statistically significant correlations were identified between the emotional intelligence of leaders and perceived leader toxic behavior and poorer relationship quality between leaders and direct reports. By identifying relationships between leader emotional intelligence, toxic behaviors, and leadership effectiveness, moderated by direct report emotional intelligence, the results of this research illuminate how and why emotional intelligence influences perceived leadership effectiveness as well as the interaction of direct report emotional intelligence with how and why leaders are either effective or ineffective at leading others when the emotional intelligence is integrated. The outcomes of this research can impact police selection, promotion, training, and coaching initiatives as well as promote more positive impacts on the communities served.

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Dedication

I dedicate this manuscript to my wife Dena, the love of my life, who took care of everything so I could focus on this dissertation journey. I am forever grateful for your love, patience, encouragement, and kick in the derrière to finish this effort when I needed it. I can't wait to live the rest of my life with you.

I dedicate this to my mom Anita and my aunt Karen, who raised me to care about helping others and make a positive difference. You both left this world too early, but the loving and positive impact you had on my life will forever continue.

I dedicate this to my Uncle Gary and best friend Cheryl who provided encouragement every step of the way, especially when I lost my motivation during tough times.

Finally, thank you to God Almighty, who provides me with purpose each and every day. Yea, we did it!

Acknowledgments

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Most researchers agree that the need for effective leadership has never been more crucial to survive in uncertain, complex, and changing environments (Görgens-Ekermans & Roux, 2021). Effective leaders develop and implement organizational missions and visions, while providing staff with direction and support to achieve organizational goals (Moldoveanu & Narayandas, 2019). Although research has been conducted for many years on the concept of effective leadership, no one definition exists today (Buribaevich, et al., 2022; Doshi, 2021). A primary responsibility for leaders in both public and private organizations is to lead and manage the work output of direct reports successfully during stressful and changing work environments. In trying to fulfill this responsibility, leaders not only need to complete their own workload but also, they need to manage and assist direct reports and others to be engaged in their work, and to use a variety of methods to help direct reports get work accomplished on time and within changing and pressure-filled work environments. Organizations realize that to survive in today's volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous environment, they need leadership skills and organizational capabilities different from those that helped them succeed in the past (Moldoveanu & Narayandas, 2019).

While effective leadership often has positive effective on organizational performance, poor leadership can be devastating with outcomes such as higher employee turnover, low morale, poor performance, and toxic workplace cultures (Seppala & Cameron, 2015). If leaders do not or cannot effectively complete their own work responsibilities, or work with their direct reports to assist in managing and completing

their responsibilities, higher rates of employee turnover, higher rates of production errors, and lower rates of employee engagement are often reported which can quickly expend a large quantity of organizational resources (De-la-Calle-Durán & Rodríguez-Sánchez, 2021). Studies examining demonstrating a combination of effective leadership behavior and emotional intelligence have shown promise in helping leaders exhibit more effective leadership behaviors, especially during times of change and stress (Knippenberg & Edelman, 2018; Van Ooaten et al., 2019).

Emotional intelligence in a leadership context has been referred to as the ability to understand and manage one's own emotions, as well as recognize and influence the emotions and perspectives of direct reports (Phipps, 2017). Leaders that demonstrate emotional intelligence skills such as self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, motivation, and social skills often show enhanced leadership effectiveness as they are not only aware of their own emotional responses, especially during times of stress, but they are receptive to the emotions of others (Goleman et al., 2003). Leaders demonstrating emotional intelligence are better able to recognize the needs of individual and team members, which can enhance allegiance and motivation to perform as a stronger team (Landry, 2019). Also, researchers have indicated that when leaders demonstrate emotional intelligence, they are able to make sound decisions, deal with stressful situations, and cope with constant change (Romanelli et al., 2006).

Toxic leadership is a term that has become a generalized word describing many forms of poor or ineffective leadership behaviors and attributes (Dagless, 2017; Maxwell, 2015). The U.S. Army was one of the first groups to recognize and research the concept

of toxic leadership (Reed & Norton, 2016). Toxic leaders have been described as intentionally and unintentionally demonstrating abusive bullying, destructive, tyrannical type behaviors such as intimidation, spite, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts that can lead to psychological, emotional, and physical injury for direct reports intentionally and unintentionally demonstrate toxic behaviors (Behery et al., 2018; Lipan-Blumen, 2005b). Reed (2004) calculated that having a toxic leader decreased work effort by 48% and decreased work quality by 38%. Toxic leaders have been described as intentionally and unintentionally demonstrating abusive busying, destructive, tyrannical type behaviors such as intimidation, spite, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts that can lead to psychological, emotional, and physical injury for direct reports intentionally and unintentionally demonstrate toxic behaviors (Behery et al., 2018; Lipan-Blumen, 2005b).

Policing in the 21st Century has become more dynamic and complex as police personnel are faced with having to keep communities safe while dealing with negative news stories of police brutality (Donner & Olson, 2020; Reynolds, 2022). When dealing with such complexity and pressure on the streets, law enforcement personnel need effective leaders at the helm to promote effective behavior, measures, and procedures to deal with external pressures, negative publicity, and professional demands (Smith, 2019). Yet in many law enforcement agencies, toxic leadership is considered an obvious, but

avoided problem (Neil, 2014). Police agencies, staff at all levels, and outcomes are negatively affected when toxic leaders are able to create unhealthy subcultures, power groups, groupthink, and unprofessional standards (Ellis, 2018; Williams, 2019). Finding methods to ensure leaders are efficient in building and maintaining effective professional relationships and demonstrating constructive leadership behaviors with personnel are critical to the overall performance of policing agencies as well as the officers charged with the responsibility to keep communities safe (Smith, 2019). Currently, there have been very few research studies conducted on the potential correlational relationship between emotional intelligence, perceptions of police leadership effectiveness, and perceptions of toxic leadership. The goal of this study is to determine if there are correlations between the emotional intelligence of leaders and direct reports, and if and how the correlations promote positive or negative outcomes affecting relationship quality and perceived toxic leadership.

Background of the Study

Law enforcement is one profession experiencing several complex and serious challenges, especially in recent years. Since the beginning of the spread of the Coronavirus pandemic in the United States, police personnel have experienced higher levels of scrutiny and calls for significant police reforms, which has led to officers leaving the profession at higher-than-average numbers (Reynolds, 2022). As with many other organizations, recruitment and retention is a serious issue facing many police agencies across the United States (Westervelt, 2021). Currently there are approximately 800,000 sworn law enforcement personnel working in over 1,800 local, state, and federal

agencies in the United States (Law enforcement facts, 2022). A study completed by the Police Executive Research Forum (2021) identified a 45% increase in the rate of police officer retirements and a 20% increase in resignations compared to the previous year. With this trend occurring, it is imperative that police leaders are effective at both the technical and human aspects of the position which can positively impact retention and effective performance.

Being a police leader today is said to be more difficult than at any time in memory (Reynolds, 2022). There is increased pressure to reevaluate practices while balancing an ever-changing landscape of cultural, social, and technological changes and expectations (Fritsvold, 2022). Police leaders need to develop and manage the performance of direct reports (Salehzadeh, 2019), while maintaining the agency culture (Almklov et al., 2018), and performing their own responsibilities within the constraints of a formally established bureaucracy with rank-based structures (Davis, 2020; Pyle & Cangemi, 2019). In many law enforcement agencies, there are open discussions concerning the real and potential threats of violence, modifying procedures to increase officer and citizen safety and satisfaction, and increasing community oversight. Yet the topic of toxic leadership has been considered purposely ignored (Neil, 2014; Fritsvold, 2022). Agencies of all sizes are negatively affected when toxic leaders create unhealthy subcultures, power groups, groupthink, and unprofessional standards (Ellis, 2018; Williams, 2019). Officers have reported feeling greater stress from working with leaders demonstrating toxic behaviors than from carrying out potentially life-threatening public safety responsibilities (Neil, 2014). The demonstration of ineffective or toxic leadership and deficient leader-direct

report relationships within police agencies can be devastating for individual, team, and agency performance, which can significantly negatively impact the quality of service provided to communities and the overall welfare of humanity (Erickson et al., 2015; Krasikova et al., 2013; Milosevic et al., 2019). The need to identify law enforcement leaders that demonstrate toxic behaviors before these leaders cause destructive and poisonous cultures is stronger today than ever before (Hakik & Langlois, 2020).

Thirty years of research has revealed that emotional intelligence can greatly influence relationship and performance quality among leaders and direct reports (Bar-On, 2016) and lessen the effects of working with toxic individuals in both private and public organizations (Schneider et al., 2013; Singh; 2017). Researchers have established that demonstrating emotional intelligence is required, especially in demanding and stressful work environments, to accomplish goals, promote collaborative working relationships, and create environments that promote optimal success (Can et al., 2017; Koh & O'Higgins, 2018; Smith, 2019). As emotions are central in every relationship, a cumulative amount of research suggests emotional intelligence can predict and promote effective performance, especially when interpersonal contact is involved during conflictual, unpredictable, and stressful situations (Bar-On, 2016; Boyatzis & Goleman, 2007; Conroy, 2018; Millar et al., 2019). The study of emotional intelligence has been an emerging field in which diverse definitions, constructs, and models of emotional intelligence have been proposed. Three current researched and established models of emotional intelligence are the trait-based model, the mixed-model, and the ability-based model (O'Connor et al., 2019). Each model examines and measures emotional

intelligence slightly differently, but the underlying theme of these three models is that emotions have a powerful impact on building and maintaining effective working relationships, being empathetic to the needs of others, handling emotions effectively, and managing stressful circumstances (Bar-On, 2016; Smith, 2019).

Problem Statement

Toxic leadership is devastating for employees, organizations, and to the well-being of humanity (Burke, 2018; Erickson et al., 2015; Milosevic et al., 2019). Toxic leadership has become a generalized term describing numerous forms of poor or ineffective leadership behaviors and attributes (Dagless, 2017; Maxwell, 2015). Typical toxic leadership behaviors include the intentional and unintentional demonstration of destructive and unethical behaviors such as playing favorites, intimidation, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts (Behery et al., 2018). Direct reports of leaders demonstrating toxic behaviors often suffer from higher levels of stress, anxiety, cynicism, disengagement, depression, emotional and mental fatigue, and physical injury than employees who work for leaders that do not demonstrate toxic behaviors (Cheang & Appelbaum, 2015; Dobbs & Do, 2019; Milosevic et al., 2019; Williams, 2019). Research estimated U.S. organizations spent approximately $223 billion from 2013 to 2018 to cover the costs of employees working within toxic and ineffective work environments (Cheang & Appelbaum, 2015; Erickson et al., 2015; Mirza, 2019). Such costs included lower production of goods, services, and profits along with higher disability and workers' comp claims, litigation costs, insurance

costs, and turnover (Bakkal et al., 2019, Williams, 2019). For law enforcement agencies enduring immense pressure to effectively carry out their responsibilities while promoting a more positive and collaborative culture with communities served, the need for recognizing toxic leadership is even more critical to the success of law enforcement personnel and departmental performance, as well as officer and community safety (Akin, 2020; Cain, 2017; Can et al., 2017; Fleming, 2020, Williams, 2019).

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to investigate if and how emotional intelligence was correlated with toxic leadership and relationship quality between leaders and direct reports in small to midsized Minnesota police agencies. The secondary purpose of this study was to understand how emotional intelligence subscales, using the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0, related to perceived leadership effectiveness within police agencies. A third purpose of this research was to examine possible moderating effects of direct report emotional intelligence on leader emotional intelligence and perceived leadership effectiveness and toxic leadership behaviors. Having a clearer understanding of how emotional intelligence affects the judgement of effective, ineffective, or toxic leadership and emotional intelligence behaviors can provide insight for police leadership in determining effective leadership behavior for individual, team, and agency performance and community outcomes.

Research Questions & Hypotheses

For this study, emotional intelligence was measured using the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0, the quality of leader-direct report relationships was measured using the LMX-7, and toxic leadership behavior was measured using the Toxic Leadership Scale.

RQ1: Is police leader emotional intelligence levels correlated with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$1: There are no significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a1: There are significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

RQ2: Are Leader EQ-i scores correlated with Direct Report EQ-i scores?

$H_0$2: There are no significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

H_a2: There are significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

RQ3: What are the moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$3: There are no moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a3: There are moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical framework guiding this study combined the theory of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006), the theory of toxic leadership (Kaplan & Kaiser, 2013; Kılıç & Günsel, 2019; Lipman-Blumen, 2005a, 2005b; Schmidt, 2008), and the leader-member exchange theory (Pan et al., 2018). The Bar-On model of emotional intelligence provided a theoretical basis for the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0 assessment and was created to measure interrelated emotional and social competencies needed for optimal personal and professional effectiveness such as understanding and expressing oneself, understanding and relating with others, and managing everyday experiences (Bar-On, 2006). Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0 was found to be reliable, consistent, and stable (Bar-On, 2004). Average test-retest coefficients were .85 and .75. The internal consistency coefficient of the Bar-On EQ-i was high ($\alpha = .97$) based on a normative sample ($N = 3,831$) in North America (Bar-On, 1997). The internal consistency was re-examined in 2004 on 51,623 adult participants in North America, producing virtually identical results with a slight increase in the mean of .025 in coefficients (Bar-On, 2004). The validity of the Bar-On EQ-i was tested by comparing the test with other measures such as cognitive intelligence and personality tests in six different studies of 4,218 participants (Bar-On, 2004) with a validity coefficient of ($\alpha = .76$). Researchers have described the Bar-On EQ-i as assessing a variety of capabilities that drive leadership performance (Baesu, 2018).

Toxic leadership theory involves the intentional or unintentional demonstration of intimidation, spite, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts that can lead to psychological, emotional, and physical injury (Behery et al., 2018; Pelletier, 2010). The Toxic Leadership Scale was developed by Schmidt (2008) to measure leadership behaviors considered toxic by direct reports. This instrument's five scales were found highly reliable (Abusive Supervision: α=0.93, Unpredictable Leadership: α=0.92, Self-Promotion: α=0.91, Authoritarian Leadership: α=0.89, and Narcissism: α=0.88).

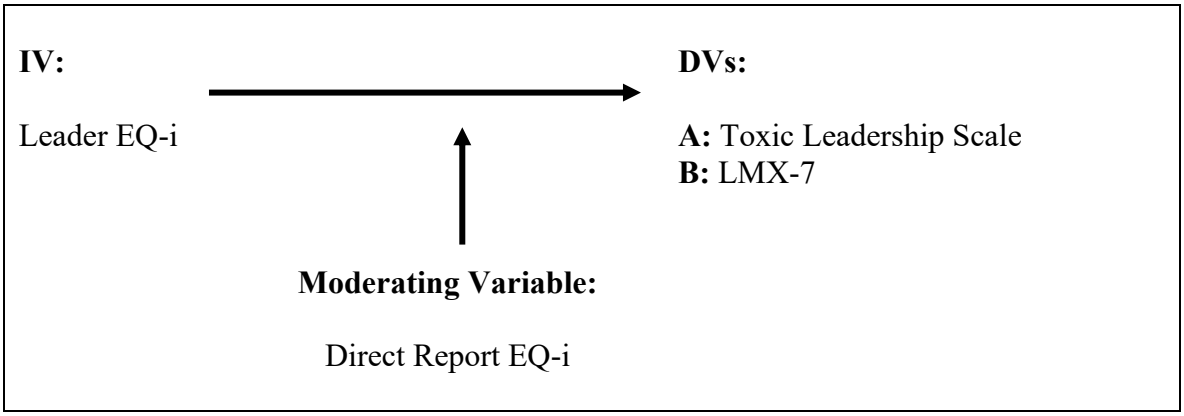
Leader-member exchange theory (LMX-7) focuses on the quality of the relationship between leaders and direct reports. LMX theory describes how leaders and direct reports influence and depend on each other (Setiawan, 2020). Research has shown that leader-direct report exchanges can impact the perceptions and outcomes of relationship effectiveness and overall performance (Lian et al., 2012). The basic concept in LMX theory is that the exchange relationship between leaders and direct reports will either positively or negatively impact the results of organizational performance (Sears & Holmvall, 2010; Setiawan, 2020). A high LMX relationship (higher score) is characterized by exchanging information resources from leaders to direct reports, providing support, mutual trust, and using reasonable effort. A low LMX relationship (low score) is characterized by the absence of good quality relationships between leaders and direct reports, which negatively impact organizational performance (Setiawan, 2020).

The LMX-7 has an internal consistency alpha of .92 (Aditya, 2004) and highly correlates with job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

In this study, the independent variable was Leader EQ-i. The dependent variables were the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale. A moderating variable affects the strength of the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Warner, 2013). The moderating variable in this study was the Direct Report EQ-i (Figure 1).

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework of the Study



If the interaction between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i was statistically significant, then the Direct Report EQ-i would be a moderating variable in the perception of leadership effectiveness. If the interaction between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i was not statistically significant, then the Direct Report EQ-i would not be a moderating variable, but rather, a second independent variable.

Nature of the Study

Quantitative and correlational methodology is used to understand and determine relationships between variables using surveys and experiments (Mertler, 2016). In this

research study I investigated the correlation between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i, toxic leadership, and leadership quality. More specifically, I examined the moderating effect of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between Leader EQ-i, relationship quality, and demonstration of toxic leader behavior. By identifying potential relationships and moderating effects of EQ-i, the outcomes of this study may assist in the early identification of leaders who demonstrate toxic behaviors, as well as provide concrete tools for the mitigation or elimination of ineffective or toxic behaviors occurring,

Definitions

AS_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Assertiveness for Direct Reports

AS_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Assertiveness for Leaders

Assertiveness: Communicating clearly and nonoffensively (Bar-On, 2006).

EE_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Emotional Expression for Direct Reports

EE_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Emotional Expression for Leaders

EM_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Empathy for Direct Reports

EM_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Empathy for Leaders

Emotional Expression: Effectively expressing emotions (Bar-On, 2006).

Emotional intelligence (EI): Accurately and effectively identifying, categorizing, comprehending, and demonstrating emotion (Bar-On, 2006).

Emotional Quotient (EQ): The numerical value of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006).

Emotional Self-Awareness: Accurately identifying one's own emotional state (Bar-On, 2006).

Empathy: Accurately understanding others (Bar-On, 2006).

EQ-i, 2.0 Composites: The five divisions of the EQ-i, 2.0. The five Composite divisions are: Self-Perception, Self-Expression, Interpersonal, Decision Making, and Stress Management

EQ-i, 2.0 Subsets: The three subset areas within each Composite division of the EQ-i, 2.0.

ESA_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Emotional Self Awareness for Direct Reports

ESA_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Emotional Self Awareness for Leaders

EQ-i, 2.0 Total: The overall numerical score for emotional intelligence

FL_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Flexibility for Direct Reports

FL_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Flexibility for Leaders

Flexibility: Adapting to meet the needs of the situation (Bar-On, 2006).

IC_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Impulse Control for Direct Reports

IC_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Impulse Control for Leaders

Impulse Control: Resisting or delaying impulses (Bar-On, 2006).

IN_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Independence for Direct Reports

IN_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Independence for Leaders

Independence: Working without others direction (Bar-On, 2006).

Interpersonal Relationships: Taking the time to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships (Bar-On, 2006).

Intellectual Quotient (IQ): The numerical value of cognitive intelligence score (Bar-On, 2006).

IR_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Interpersonal Relationships for Direct Reports

IR_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Interpersonal Relationships for Leaders

IRC_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 Composite score for Interpersonal Relations

Leadership style: The manner for influencing behavior that leaders demonstrate (Bar-On, 2006).

OP_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Optimism for Direct Reports

OP_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Optimism for Leaders

Optimism: Having a positive attitude and outlook on life (Bar-On, 2006).

Problem Solving: Effectively solving problems and making decisions (Bar-On, 2006).

PS_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Problem Solving for Direct Reports

PS_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Problem Solving for Leaders

Reality Testing: Paying attention to the environment in the present (Bar-On, 2006).

RT_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Reality Testing for Direct Reports

RT_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Reality Testing for Leaders

SA_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Self Actualization for Direct Reports

SA_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Self Actualization for Leaders

Self-Regard: Respecting and having confidence in oneself (Bar-On, 2006).

Self-Actualization: Perusing meaning and self-improvement (Bar-On, 2006).

Social Responsibility: Being socially consciousness for the common good of others (Bar-On, 2006).

SR_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Self Regard for Direct Reports

SR_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Self Regard for Leaders

SRE_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Social Responsibility for Direct Reports

SRE_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Social Responsibility for Leaders

ST_DR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Stress Tolerance Regard for Direct Reports

ST_LDR: EQ-i, 2.0 subscale Stress Tolerance Regard for Leaders

Stress Tolerance: Coping with stressful situations (Bar-On, 2006).

TEQ_DR: Total EQ-i, 2.0 score for direct reports.

TEQ_LDR: Total EQ-i, 2.0 score for leaders.

TL_AL: Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

TL_AS: Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

TL_NA: Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

TL_SP: Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

TL_UN: Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

Total Emotional Intelligence: Overall emotional intelligence score on Bar-On EQ-i (Bar-On, 2006).

Toxic Behaviors: The intentional and unintentional demonstration of destructive and unethical behaviors such as playing favorites, intimidation, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts (Behery et al., 2018).

Toxic Leadership Questionnaire Subsets: The five areas measured in the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire; Authoritarian Leadership (TL_AL), Abusive Supervision (TL_AS), Narcissism (TL_NA), Self-Promotion (TL_SP), and Unpredictability (TL_UN).

Assumptions

I assumed that assessments chosen for this study, the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0, the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire, and the LMX-7 questionnaire, correctly measure what they are supposed to evaluate with comparable degrees of reliability and validity documented in previous studies. To ensure the assessments were reliable, the first step in analysis was to review the internal consistency or reliability of the EQ-i, the Toxic Leadership Scale and the LMX-7. I assumed that there would be a willingness from police chiefs to allow this research to be conducted within their agencies. To test this assumption, I asked police chiefs to provide me the opportunity to talk with staff and to allow staff to volunteer for this study.

I assumed that volunteers would willingly take part in the research to produce sufficient data to make valid conclusions. To test this assumption, I monitored volunteer rates of potential participants in the participating agencies. I reached the desired volunteer rate for this study within 45 days. I also made the assumption that respondents would have effective self-awareness and could respond accurately and honestly when completing the assessments (see Dilchert et al., 2006). I assumed that direct reports responding to the Toxic Leadership Scale may have experienced fear of retribution if ratings for their leaders indicated the demonstration of toxic behaviors, even though the

results would not be shared with leaders, direct reports, or agencies. To test this assumption, I monitored response to the EQ-i compared to the leadership questionnaire which contained the Toxic Leadership Scale and LMX-7 questions. I assumed that if leaders and direct reports worked effectively together, community members served by these agencies would be positively affected by the quality of service received. Finally, I assumed that the results of the study would contribute to knowledge for scholars, business practitioners, and impact positively on the performance of leaders in law enforcement as well as in any other profession, leading to positive social change.

Limitations and Delimitations

The first potential concern of this research was using convenience sampling (see Martinez-Mesa et al., 2016). I have worked with many police agencies for over 30 years. The population used for this study were small to medium-sized police agencies in the Minneapolis, St. Paul suburbs of Minnesota and two agencies just outside the Minneapolis, St. Paul area. Using this type of sampling would not allow for the generalization of results to different populations. A second concern for this research study was the use of self-assessments as a measure of emotional intelligence. Effective self-assessment relies on accurate honest self-awareness and if individuals have difficulty with admitting their own strengths or limitations, self-assessment may not be accurate (Warner, 2013). A third concern for this research study was assuming direct reports would be honest when assessing their leaders' demonstration of effective relationship or toxic behaviors. Although participation in the study was confidential, participants may

have experienced trepidation or fear of retaliation if leaders were to speculate or identify direct report responses.

Limitations

Limitations are the potential weaknesses that could affect the reliability and validity of results (Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019). A primary limitation of this study was the ability for participants to accurately respond to the assessment questions. A second limitation was that the results of this research study cannot be generalized to the larger population due to the small sample size of participants. A third potential limitation was geographical in that the death of George Floyd, which occurred in Minneapolis a few years prior to this study and had a large, negative impact on many law enforcement personnel within Minnesota and around the world. A fourth limitation was that police agencies were identified through my convenience sampling instead of randomly chosen. A fifth limitation was that the Bar-On EQ-i is a self-assessment and positive or negative biases needed to be considered when participants completed the assessment. I assumed that participants were self-aware and would honestly and openly respond to the assessment questions. A final limitation was that leadership style, length of service, and agency culture were not controlled for in this study, which may have impacted the leader-direct report relationship and the perception of toxic behavior in leaders.

Delimitations

Delimitations are restrictions or boundaries a researcher has set as the scope or focus of the study (Mitchell & Jolley, 2010). The sample population for this study was limited to police personnel currently working within police agencies in the Minneapolis

and St. Paul suburbs of Minnesota. Geographically, the delimitation of the study was the suburbs of Minneapolis and St. Paul, MN, which meant that the study did not cover police agencies outside of this geographic area for communities served.

Significance of the Study

This section is organized into the following subsections: significance to theory and significance to practice and social change.

Significance to Theory

The results of this study will hopefully add practical evidence on how emotional intelligence may play a part in both the leader-direct report relationship and perceptions of effective or ineffective leadership. Also, the results of this study may further enhance understanding how differences or similarities in emotional intelligence levels between leaders and direct reports affect the quality of professional relationships and perceptions of effective leadership.

Significance to Practice and Social Change

The results of this study will hopefully make an original and positive contribution to the field of leadership and law enforcement by understanding how emotional intelligence can impact professional relationships and leadership effectiveness. By having stronger professional relationships and effective leadership, stress levels for police officers may decrease as officers would feel a higher level of support and ease, promoting more effective performance and overall outcomes.

Summary

When leaders in law enforcement agencies demonstrate toxic behavior, detrimental impacts can be experienced internally by direct reports and fellow personnel, as well as externally by community members (Ellis, 2018; Williams, 2019). When police officers are faced with the challenge of dealing with toxic leadership behavior, the stress officers feel from ineffective leadership can have a greater impact on their effectiveness than performing the technical, and at times dangerous, aspects of enforcing laws (Neil, 2014). Ensuring law enforcement leaders demonstrate effective behavior with direct reports is key to promoting enhanced officer performance, resilience, and longevity (Can et al., 2017; Koh & O'Higgins, 2018; Smith, 2019). Additionally, as the available workforce is decreasing in large numbers, attracting new officers to the profession, as well as retaining effective and healthy officers, is an increasing challenge for agencies to deal with (Baker, 2018). Ensuring there are effective leaders to train, coach, and mentor officers is critical in today's environment to attract and retain officers as well as perform duties effectively (Akin, 2020; Cain, 2017; Can et al., 2017; Fleming, 2020).

Chapter 2 contains a review of the analysis and syntheses of empirical research on emotional intelligence, toxic leadership, and effective police leadership. Specifically, the first section contains a review of the theoretical foundation of measuring intelligence. The second section focuses on the relationship between cognition and emotion. The third section is an overview of emotional intelligence, and three emotional intelligence models are highlighted. The fourth section summarizes the connection between emotional intelligence and leadership. The fifth section contains a summary of leadership theories.

The sixth section reviews the under and overuse of leadership behaviors. The seventh section is a review of toxic leadership, the toxic triangle, and the Toxic Leadership Scale. The last section reviews law enforcement leadership.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Policing in the 21st Century has become more dynamic and complex as police personnel are faced with having to keep communities safe while dealing with negative news stories of police brutality (Donner & Olson, 2020; Reynolds, 2022). When dealing with such complexity and pressure on the streets, law enforcement personnel need effective leaders at the helm to promote effective behavior, measures, and procedures to deal with external pressures, negative publicity, and professional demands (Smith, 2019). Yet in many law enforcement agencies, toxic leadership is considered an obvious, but avoided problem (Neil, 2014). Police agencies, staff at all levels, and outcomes are negatively affected when toxic leaders are able to create unhealthy subcultures, power groups, groupthink, and unprofessional standards (Ellis, 2018; Williams, 2019). Finding methods to ensure leaders are efficient in building and maintaining effective professional relationships and demonstrating constructive leadership behaviors with personnel are critical to the overall performance of policing agencies as well as the officers charged with the responsibility to keep communities safe (Smith, 2019).

Literature Search Strategy

This literature review includes scholarly peer-reviewed academic studies and resources from Walden University's Library and the following databases: ProQuest peer-reviewed articles, Google Scholar, Ebsco host, Thoreau at Walden University Library, and Scholarworks. Search engines used for this study included Google Scholar, the Emotional Intelligence Consortium, and the National Police Foundation. Key search terms included *intelligence, emotional intelligence, Bar-On EQ-i, leadership and*

emotional intelligence, law enforcement and emotional intelligence, law enforcement and leadership effectiveness, ineffective leadership, leadership and emotional intelligence, overused and underused competencies, overused and underused leadership, quality leader-direct report relationships, toxic leadership, toxic police leadership, toxic leadership assessment, toxic behaviors, toxic work environments, and *toxic employees*.

Theoretical Foundation

Emotional Intelligence

"Everyone knows what an emotion is, until asked to give a definition. Then, it seems, no one knows" (Fehr & Russell, 1984, p. 464). Payne (1985) introduced the concept of emotional intelligence. Payne developed a theoretical and physiological structure to better comprehend the nature and characteristics of emotion and emotional intelligence, as well as methods of emotional development. Goleman (1995) introduced the concept to the mainstream which produced interest in both the scientific and lay fields (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006). As continued research has linked emotional intelligence with increased personal and professional effectiveness, further articles, books, and training topics have been developed on the subject (Mattingly & Kraiger, 2019). Among the current research on emotional intelligence, three notable models of emotional intelligence are the ability-based model, the mixed-model, and the trait-based model (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The Ability-Based Model

Ability-based measures of emotional intelligence provide an indication of capability to understand how emotions function (O'Connor et al., 2019). Building upon

the study of multiple intelligences and Payne's work on emotion, Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed the first emotional intelligence model as a subset of social intelligence. Salovey and Mayer defined emotional intelligence as, "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's own thinking and actions" (, p. 189). Awareness of emotion enhances cognitive functioning (Mayer et al., 2004). Salovey and Mayer recognized five domains of emotional intelligence: (a) understanding, (b) managing, (c) recognizing emotions in self and in others, (d) motivating oneself, and (e) handling relationships effectively. In 2000, Mayer et al. revised the model into a four-branch model of emotional intelligence (Mayer et al., 2000). The first or lowest level is the ability to perceive emotions, the second level is the ability to use emotions for enhanced thinking, the third level is the ability to understand emotions, and the highest or fourth level is the ability to manage emotions (Mayer et al., 2000). Mayer et al. maintained that those demonstrating higher emotional intelligence levels could more accurately recognize and observe emotions in themselves and others (e.g., anger and sadness), and control emotions in themselves and others in order to achieve greater success than those with lower levels of emotional intelligence (O'Connor et al., 2019). Functioning at higher levels of understanding and managing emotions requires greater emotional intelligence than functioning at the lower levels of emotional intelligence (O'Connor et al., 2019). The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test is their current assessment of emotional intelligence. This assessment focuses on emotionally based problem-solving questions and provides the following scores: a total score, two area scores for experiential

and strategic emotional intelligence, and four branch scores for perceiving, using, understanding, and managing emotions (Dragos et al., 2013).

The Mixed-Model

In 1995, Goleman (1995) developed a model of emotional intelligence which consisted of both personality traits and abilities. The Goleman model of emotional intelligence consists of knowing and managing one's own emotions, recognizing emotions in others, and managing relationships. Goleman defined five components involved for social and emotional functioning, three related to personal competence and two related to social competence, (a) self-awareness, (b) self-regulation, (c) motivation, (d) motivation, and (e) social skills. Goleman differentiated the five components of emotional intelligence into four capabilities: being self-aware, regulating self, being socially aware, and demonstrating effective relationship skills. The Goleman model differs from the Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso model as Goleman added three personality characteristics of conscientiousness, collaboration, and leadership (Gayathri & Meenakshi, 2013). The Emotional Competence Inventory and the Emotional and Social Competency Inventory are two assessments Goleman and Boyatzis developed to specify behavioral measures of emotional intelligence (Yang et al., 2020).

Trait-Based Social Intelligence Model

Bar-On (1997) developed a trait-based model for emotional intelligence that did not incorporate cognitive skills, but rather, a system of interconnected behaviors that arise from social and emotional competencies. Bar-On (2000) defined emotional intelligence as "a multi factory array of interrelated emotional, personal, and social abilities, that

influence our overall ability to actively and effectively cope with daily demands and pressures" (p. 385). Bar-On found that flexibly demonstrating a mixture of social and emotional behavior strongly influenced the occurrence of desired outcomes. Consequently, Bar-On identified five competencies involved in driving human behavior and relationships as well as measuring emotionally and socially intelligent behavior: intrapersonal skills, interpersonal skills, adaptability, stress management, and general mood (Bar-On, 2000). This work led to the development of the term *emotional quotient* (EQ) and the development of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i).

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

The concept of leadership has been highly researched (Avolio et al., 2009) and studies examining the combination of leadership and emotional intelligence are also increasing (Knippenberg & Edelman, 2018; Van Ooaten et al., 2019). Many researchers have studied the relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence and have found a positive correlation between the two theories (Walter et al., 2011). Having the capability to accurately self-assess one's own performance, emotions, perspectives, and needs, as well as to read and interpret the performance, emotions, perspectives, and needs of others helps leaders to lead and manage direct reports with greater effectiveness (Bar-On, 2016). Leaders that demonstrate emotional intelligence effectively are extremely valued in modern organizations (Baesu, 2018). In high-risk professions, emotionally intelligent leaders are essential for managing the safety of employees (Zohar, 2000). Kol and O'Higgens (2018) found a significant positive relationship between leaders having leadership and emotional intelligence effectiveness

as assessed by peers and direct reports. Van Ooaten et al., (2019) found that leaders with emotional and social competence have higher levels of leadership effectiveness, work engagement, and career satisfaction.

Leadership Effectiveness

Effective leadership is one of the key factors in organizational success (Ali & Islam, 2020). Leadership is the practice where leaders influence direct reports to achieve outcomes (Ali & Islam, 2020). Leadership research has established that successful leaders are more effective in enhancing direct report effectiveness, which improves overall organizational performance while the performance of ineffective leaders limits organizational performance (Hersona & Sidharta, 2017). The concept and beliefs about effective leadership have changed throughout history in response to transformations in society, organizational cultures, requirements, ideals, and environments (Learmonth, 2018). Although there have been numerous studies examining effective leadership traits and characteristics, a prevailing definition of effective leadership has not been established for any profession (Page et al., 2019; Vilkinas et al., 2020). Yet there has been evidence to support that overuse or underuse of any one style, behavior, or characteristic may be perceived as a weakness or toxic in nature (Niemiec, 2019).

The Under and Overuse of Leadership Behaviors

The study of the under and overuse of behaviors or character is a newer area of research (Niemiec, 2019), and offers a potential link to the concept and study of toxic leadership behaviors. In 2015, researchers studied the under and overuse of leadership traits which can lead to counterproductive effects (Kaiser et al., 2015). This research

identified that when leaders demonstrated too much of or too little of a particular leadership behavior, the overall effectiveness of leaders was found to be extreme, ineffective, and counterproductive (Kaiser et al., 2015). This research also summarized that the moderating effect of direct report emotional stability may amplify the perception of toxic leadership behaviors occurring (Kaiser et al., 2015). Niemeic (2019) found that there is an optimal level of demonstrating leadership behavior that promotes healthy and effective relationships between leaders and their direct reports. When leaders under or overuse behaviors with direct reports, relations between them can be negatively affected (Niemiec, 2019). For example, if an officer overuses assertiveness, behaviors would likely lead to the perception of aggressive behavior while an underuse of assertiveness may lead to the perception of passivity (Niemiec, 2019). A third study examining the underuse, overuse, and optimal demonstration of behaviors found that both under and overuse were considerably correlated with a lower satisfaction of life and higher levels of depression while optimal use of behaviors were correlated with higher levels of life satisfaction (Littman-Ovadia & Freidlin, 2019). Bergin found that optimal use of character strengths was correlated with enhanced physical and psychological health and positive emotions while overuse led to negative health (Bergen, 2019).

There are an increasing number of studies investigating the relationship between high levels of emotional intelligence and the demonstration of malicious behaviors to meet one's own interests at the expense of others (Austin et al., 2014; Côté et al., 2011). Kilduff et al. (2010) found that leaders with very high levels of emotional intelligence may choose to manipulate others to promote their own interests. Nozaki and Koyasu

(2013) found that those with higher emotional intelligence levels could manipulate the emotions of others to enhance their own goals or exclude others who get in the way of their own desired outcomes. Lubbadeh (2020) described how individuals with very high levels of emotional intelligence could use their skills for the darker side of leadership or for evil or unethical purposes. Chamorro-Premuzic and Yearsley (2017) found that individuals with higher levels of emotional intelligence could more easily manipulate the emotions of others for personal interests or agendas. In summary, leaders demonstrating high levels of emotional intelligence may be perceived by direct reports as overusing such behaviors, thereby promoting the perception of toxic leader behavior. Also, if leaders do not demonstrate emotional intelligence, direct reports may perceive their leaders as underusing such behaviors and consequently, demonstrating toxic leadership behavior. Hopefully the outcomes of this study may show optimal levels of emotional intelligence demonstration as well as levels that indicate overuse and underuse of emotional intelligence.

Toxic Leadership

Toxic leadership is a term that has become a generalized word describing many forms of poor or ineffective leadership behaviors and attributes (Dagless, 2017; Maxwell, 2015). The U.S. Army was one of the first groups to recognize and research the concept of toxic leadership (Reed & Norton, 2016). In 2003, the American War College began to address destructive and toxic leadership which was negatively affecting soldiers and outcomes (Reed, 2004). Reed (2004) calculated that having a toxic leader decreased work effort by 48% and decreased work quality by 38%. In 2010, when examining the high

number of soldier suicides in Iraq, an outside investigator for the U.S. Army revealed that having a toxic leader was one of the consistent variables for each soldier that ended his or her life (Zwerdling, 2014). As a result of this research, in 2012, the Army Doctrine Publication 6-22, which is the leadership manual for the Army, defined toxic leadership as follows: "Toxic leadership is a combination of self-centered attitudes, motivations, and behaviors that have adverse effects on subordinates, the organization, and mission performance. This leader lacks concern for others and the climate of the organization, which leads to short- and long-term negative effects. The toxic leader operates with an inflated sense of self-worth and from acute self-interest. Toxic leaders consistently use dysfunctional behaviors to deceive, intimidate, coerce, or unfairly punish others to get what they want for themselves. The negative leader completes short-term requirements by operating at the bottom of the continuum of commitment, where followers respond to the positional power of their leader to fulfill requests. This may achieve results in the short-term but ignores the other leader competency categories of leads and develops. Prolonged use of negative leadership to influence followers undermines the followers' will, initiative, and potential and destroys unit morale" (U.S. Army, 2012, p. 3). In 2019, the U.S. Army revised the section on toxic leadership and changed the term toxic leadership to counterproductive leadership (U.S. Army, 2019).

In non-military organizations, the research on toxic leadership is parallel to what the U.S. Army has revealed (Milosevic et al., 2019). There is a growing amount of research in public and private organizations centering on leaders that demonstrate

ineffective and toxic behaviors and the negative consequences that result (Bhandarker & Rai, 2019; Mirza, 2019; Williams, 2018, 2019).

According to Lipman-Bluemen (2005a), toxic leadership is like a poison that often results in serious and negative outcomes for employees. Lipman-Blumen studied and defined characteristics of toxic leaders as intentionally demonstrating abusive busying, destructive, tyrannical type behaviors within the workplace (Lipan-Blumen, 2005b). “Toxic leaders are not garden-variety authoritarian bosses, nor undependable political leaders, nor overly strict parents, nor even difficult spouses about whom we all love to complain. Rather, toxic leaders are those individuals, who by dint of their destructive behaviors and dysfunctional personal qualities generate a serious and enduring poisonous effect on the individuals, families, organizations, communities, and even entire societies they lead.” (Lipman-Blumen, 2010, p. 214). Lipman-Blumen (2010) described the complexity of toxic leadership as multidimensional in that the intentionality and intensity level, type, personal qualities, and significance of outcomes need to be taken into account when understanding the damage a toxic leader can have on individuals and organizations. According to Lipman–Blumen, (2005b), toxic leadership behavior can lead to increased alcohol and drug use among direct reports, employee turnover, and have negative physical, psychological, and sociological outcomes.

Behery et al., (2018) investigated toxic leadership using the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire developed by Schmidt (2008) with employee commitment and organizational performance. This study considered the trust and commitment level of direct reports as a possible mediator of the impact of toxic leadership. The conclusion of

this study was that toxic leaders can both intentionally and unintentionally demonstrate destructive and unethical behaviors such as intimidation, spite, manipulation, aggression, narcissism, corruption, humiliation, bullying, micromanaging, dishonesty, retaliation, blame, withholding or distorting information, and emotional outbursts that can lead to psychological, emotional, and physical injury for direct reports (Behery et al., 2018). According to Behery et al., (2018), toxic leadership behavior led to increased alcohol and drug use among direct reports, employee turnover, and had negative physical, psychological, and sociological outcomes. Findings showed a weak mediating correlation between the commitment level of direct reports on the relationship between toxic leadership and overall organizational outcomes (Behery et al., (2018),

The negative impact of a toxic leader can be recognized at all levels within an organization and the consequences of working with toxic leaders results in lower employee engagement, poorer productivity, and higher turnover (Ross, et al. 2020). The consensus of twenty years of research is that when leaders demonstrate a leadership style that is defined as destructive, narcissistic, dark, or abusive, negative consequences occur for employees and the overall success organizations and stakeholders (Milosevic et al., 2019). Long-term interaction with leaders demonstrating toxic behaviors can have negative psychological effects on direct reports such as lower self-worth, and higher levels of hostility, anxiety, hopelessness, withdrawal, and depression (Bhandarker & Rai, 2019).

The Toxic Triangle

Researchers developed the term *toxic triangle* when examining toxic leadership behaviors to include the how direct reports and environmental factors play a role in understanding and defining toxic leadership behaviors (Milosevic et al., 2020; Race, 2019; Stoten, 2015). The toxic triangle is the dynamic of three factors: a destructive leader, an enabling environment, and vulnerable followers (Pelletier et al., 2018). When leaders have unbridled control of their leadership style and actions, work within an environment that doesn't have effective measures to identify destructive leadership behavior, and when direct reports working within such environments do not have the power to challenge destructive leadership, an organization will be suitable for the toxic triangle to arise (Pelletier et al., 2018).

The Toxic Leadership Scale

Schmidt believed that toxic leaders neglected the welfare of staff members by focusing only on their own interests resulting in the creation of toxic environments which increased the absenteeism rate of staff and reduced the overall quality of work life (Schmidt, 2008). Schmidt developed the first version of the Toxic Leadership Scale which contained 30 statements divided into five scales: (a) Self-Promotion or taking credit for good work and deflecting responsibility for poor performance, (b) Abusive Supervision or publicly humiliating and emotionally abusing direct reports, (c) Unpredictability or not knowing what behavior to expect from a leader which promotes fear and helplessness (d) Narcissism or having unrealistic positive perspectives of their performance and persona as well as freedom to ignore what policies and rules do not

work for them, and (e) Authoritarian Leadership or the micromanagement of direct reports (Schmidt, 2008). The revised version kept the original 5 scales but shortened the questionnaire into 18 items and used a nine-point Likert-type rating scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree (Pelletier, 2012). This scale was found reliable and valid in measuring five scales of toxic leadership (Pelletier, 2012; Schmidt, 2008). This scale has also been effective in measuring the 5 scales of toxic leadership in both quantitative and qualitative studies.

Law Enforcement Leadership

Historically, police agencies have been managed using a quasi-military approach characterized by impersonal and highly directive leadership (Jermier & Berkes, 1979; Schafer, 2010). The quasi-military approach promotes a culture of 'us vs. them' in the framework of police-community relations and internally with management and street cops (Schafer, 2010). In 2021, policing is in a period of conflict, crisis, and change as multiple events of perceived police violence occurring in Montana, Missouri, Minnesota, and New York have questioned the legitimacy and professionalism of policing by members of the public, especially during use of force situations (DeVylder et al., 2020; Shafer, 2010). One study indicated police shootings are the leading cause of death among men between the ages of twenty-five to twenty-nine in the United States (Edwards et al., 2019). Many communities are demanding change in how law enforcement carries out responsibilities and how officers interact with community members (Diaz, 2019). Yet promoting and implementing change in law enforcement processes and procedures is

somewhat constrained by an adherence to the quasi-military model in which many agencies are built upon (Pyle & Cangemi, 2019).

The President's Task Force on 21st Century Policing (2015) recommended that police departments focus on six pillars: trust and legitimacy; policy and oversight; technology and social media; community policing and crime reduction; training and education; and officer wellness and safety. This recommendation promotes agencies to change the way things are done internally within departments and externally with community. To meet these recommendations, many departments are moving towards using a more transformational, collaborative approach in how they carry out their responsibilities and work with community members (Schafer, 2010; Stamper, 2016).

In dealing with issues of public scrutiny and political pressures, effective leaders need to be in place demonstrating effective leadership behavior that meets the needs of staff and community that guides departments towards a more operational and positive direction. Training law enforcement professionals of all ranks to effectively demonstrate emotional intelligence behaviors can have a positive impact on the interpersonal interactions at all levels within agencies and with interactions with outside organizations and community (Inzuna, 2015).

Summary

In this chapter, I reviewed the relationship between cognition and emotion, emotional intelligence, leadership and emotional intelligence, the under and overuse of leadership behaviors, the toxic triangle, effective vs. toxic leadership, and law enforcement leadership. Emotional intelligence influences how leaders and direct reports

work together and judge each other's behavior and performance. Emotional intelligence influences communication, self-awareness, people awareness, problem-solving and decision making, conflict management, social responsibility, stress tolerance and resilience, the quality of professional relationships, and agency effectiveness. All of these areas are essential to a healthy workplace environment, quality of performance, as well as overall effectiveness and success in carryout our duties and in working with community members. The next chapter will focus on research methodology, research design and rationale, procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection, instrumentation, and data analysis.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The primary research question I developed for this study was designed to examine the potential relationship between emotional intelligence, relationship quality, and toxic leadership within police departments in Minnesota. I created the second research question to investigate the relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and direct reports. With the third research question, I explored potential moderating effects of direct report emotional intelligence on leader emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and the demonstration of toxic leadership behavior. The independent variable was leader emotional intelligence. The dependent variables were the quality of leader-direct report relationships and perceived toxic leadership. The moderating variable was direct report emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Bar-On EQ-i 2.0, leader-direct report relationship quality was measured using the LMX-7, and toxic leadership was measured using the Toxic Leadership Scale. The literature review in the previous chapter addressed the importance of emotional intelligence for professional success, the need for effective leadership in law enforcement agencies, and the detrimental effects of demonstrating under or overused leadership behaviors which can lead to the perception of toxic leadership behaviors. Yet understanding if and how emotional intelligence effects and moderates the relationship between leaders and direct reports, and how emotional intelligence may influence the perspective of toxic leadership was missing from the scholarly literature. Additional studies examining the potential relationship between emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and demonstrating toxic behaviors could enhance the understanding and applicability of emotional

intelligence and leadership effectiveness. In this chapter, research design and rationale, research questions and hypotheses, methodology, instrumentation, data analysis, internal and external validity is reviewed.

Research Design and Rationale

For this study, I used a nonexperimental, quantitative, correlational research design as the research was completed in current law enforcement agencies by examining existing relationships among preexisting teams of leaders and direct reports (Price et al., 2020). The independent variable was Leader EQ-i. The dependent variables were the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire (combined into one questionnaire named the Leadership Questionnaire). The moderating variable was Direct Report EQ-i. The outcomes of this study are correlational in nature and do not determine causality but may provide insight on how the emotional intelligence of leaders and direct reports can influence the perspective of quality relationships and toxic leadership behaviors (see Price et al., 2020).

Research Questions & Hypotheses

RQ1: Is police leader emotional intelligence levels correlated with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$1: There are no significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a1: There are significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

RQ2: Are Leader EQ-i scores correlated with Direct Report EQ-i scores?

$H_0$2: There are no significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

H_a2: There are significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

RQ3: What are the moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$3: There are no moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a3: There are moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

Methodology

Population

The desired population for this study included small to medium-sized police agencies in Minnesota with leaders (chiefs, deputy chiefs, captains, lieutenants, and sergeants) and their direct reports that have worked in law enforcement for at least 1 year and with each other for at least 3 months. Participating agencies had similar characteristics such as agency structure, demographics, job qualifications, and function. I used a convenience sampling approach as I have worked with many of the police agencies over the past 30 years conducting psychological and leadership assessments, coaching, and training.

Sample Size and Power Analysis

Power is the probability of detecting an effect, when an effect really occurs (Suresh & Chandrashekara, 2012). The population size of the targeted agencies for participation included a chief, deputy chief, captains, lieutenants, sergeants, and officers. According to Suresh and Chandrashekara (2012), determining the ideal sample size assures effective power to identify statistical significance. With a power of 0.95 and an alpha of 0.05, the desired sample size in this study was 50 leaders and 100 or more direct reports, or at least two direct reports per each leader if possible.

Procedure for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

As this population for this study was a convenience sample, I met with police chiefs to talk about the study and asked for their permission to talk with their staff about the study, distribute consent forms, and ask for consideration to volunteer. As I have worked with many police agencies in Minnesota for 30 years, familiarity and trust in my performance had been established. I also attended the Minnesota Chief's Conference to talk with police chiefs about the study. If a chief provided approval for a presentation to staff, information was presented via in-person sessions at agencies, and via personal email. During the presentations, consent forms were distributed and potential participants were notified that participation was voluntary. According to the American Psychological Association (2017), informed consent requires providing participants information on the purpose of the research, the expected timeframe needed to participate, the process needed to follow, the right to decline participating, any possible consequences of not participating, any risks of participating, potential benefits of research outcomes,

confidentiality limits, incentives, and information on who to contact for questions or concerns regarding taking part in the study prior to taking part. The consent form agreement indicated that participation in this study was voluntary.

Once completed consent forms were returned, teams of leaders and direct reports were identified. Team members were sent, via personal email, directions to complete the on-line assessment. Direct reports were also sent a leadership questionnaire. Once participants completed the one-line EQ-i, electronic data was captured into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet. Leadership questionnaires were returned via email to this researcher and entered into the Microsoft Excel spreadsheet for review. To ensure confidentiality, participant information was coded using unique numerical identifiers. Collected data from the EQ-i was downloaded from Multi-Health Systems, Inc., and entered onto a spreadsheet for statistical analysis. Leadership questionnaire data was entered onto the spreadsheet for analysis using coded numerical identifiers. Once edited, the data was moved into a SPSS spreadsheet for analysis. The data will be kept for 3 years in a secure location.

Instrumentation

Participants completed the following on-line assessments: the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0, the Toxic Leadership Scale, and the LMX-7 questionnaire. Both the Toxic Leadership Scale and the LMX-7 questionnaire were combined into one document named the Leadership Questionnaire.

The Bar-On EQ-i 2.0

In 1997, Bar-On developed the first EQ-i assessment to measure social and emotional intelligence using 133 questions clustered into 1 total score, 5 composite scores, and 15 subscale scores (Bar-On, 1997). In order to ensure the language did not become outdated, EQ-i, 2.0 released the EQ-i in 2012 which also had updated scales while keeping the 5 composite scale and 15 subscale structure (Bar-On, 2016).

The Toxic Leadership Scale

In 2008, Schmidt developed the Toxic Leadership Scale which consisted of 30 statements describing toxic behaviors and a six-point Likert scale ranging from 6 = "Strongly Agree" to 1 = "Strongly Disagree" that respondents would use to rate their leaders on. The 5 subscales included self-promotion, abusive supervision, unpredictability, narcissism, and authoritarian leadership. Schmidt shortened the questionnaire from thirty statements to fifteen statements. In scoring the Toxic Leadership Scale, lower scores are consistent with effective leadership behavior and higher scores are indicative of toxic behavior.

The LMX-7

The leader–member exchange (LMX) is a key concept measuring the interpersonal interchange of mutual trust, respect, and commitment between leaders and direct reports (Zhao et al., 2018). The Leader-Member Exchange questionnaire (LMX-7) is a 7-statement survey developed in 1995 to measure the quality of professional relationships between leaders and direct reports (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The developer of the LMX-7 questionnaire believed that interpersonal-oriented leader

behaviors such as demonstrating support, recognition, and delegation to direct reports enhances the LMX quality between leaders and direct reports (Yukl et al., 2009). Direct reports completed the LMX-7 questionnaire to measure the quality of the relationship with their leader. The LMX-7 uses a five-point Likert-type rating scale to rate relationship quality. The scoring key for the LMX-7 is as follows: Very high = 30–35; High = 25–29; Moderate = 20–24; Low = 15–19, Very low = 7-14. Higher scores indicate higher quality interactions between leaders and direct reports whereas lower scores indicate weaker, lower quality exchanges between leaders and direct reports (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Data Analysis

Three research questions were investigated to better understand the how emotional intelligence affected relationships between leaders and direct reports. All data from the EQ-i, the LMX-7, and Toxic Leadership Scale was loaded into Excel and reviewed for correctness before loading into SPSS for analysis. Then, Cronbach's alpha was completed to check for internal consistency with the EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale. Next, Pearson's correlation was completed to better comprehend the strength of relationships between the emotional intelligence levels of leaders with the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale. Finally, linear regression was completed to explain the strength between Leader emotional intelligence and the scores from the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale. Moderation analysis was completed to understand how direct report emotional intelligence influenced the relationship between

leader emotional intelligence and toxic leadership and the quality of leader-direct report relationships.

Internal and External Validity

The essence of validity in a research study is accuracy and generalizability of the results. The validity of a study refers to how accurately the results of a study represent exact conclusions outside the study (Patino & Ferreria, 2018). Internal validity refers to the accuracy of the assessments, the extent to which inferences can be made about the relationship between two or more variables being measured and is based on the assessments and procedures used during the study, the origin of the participants, and the sample size, and attributes of participants. External validity represents the extent to which the results of a study can be generalized to the larger population. Threats to internal and external validity of a study can occur at any time during a research study. By not addressing internal or external threats to validity, incorrect conclusions of research studies can be obtained.

Threats to Internal Validity

One concern for internal validity includes rater self-awareness when answering the assessment questions as the emotional intelligence assessment or the EQ-i is a self-assessment. If participants did not accurately respond to statements or questions because of poor self-awareness, the internal validity threats could lessen the validity of the outcomes. A second potential threat to internal validity is if direct reports choose socially acceptable vs. accurate responses when rating their leaders' effectiveness for fear of retribution, even with the assurance that responses would be kept confidential.

Threats to External Validity

For this study, selection bias may be an external threat to external validity. Selection bias occurs when the sample population studied does not represent the general population. In this study, participants from small to medium sized agencies in Minnesota were asked to participate. If the participant sample was not large enough to represent agencies larger than those in this study or agencies in a different geographical location where different challenges and cultures exist, the results will only be applicable to the agencies included in this study. External validity threats can be minimized by accounting for selection bias and ensuring the sample and sample size obtained represents the population.

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate if there was a relationship between the emotional intelligence levels of leaders and direct reports, and perceived toxic leadership behavior, as judged by direct reports in small to midsized Minnesota police agencies. In this chapter, I discussed research design and rational, research questions and hypotheses, recruitment, methodology, participation and data collection, instrumentation, data analysis, and internal and external validity. In the next Chapter, I will review data collection, descriptive statics, and the results of the data analysis.

Chapter 4: Results

The primary research question for this quantitative, correlational study examined the relationship between emotional intelligence, relationship quality, and toxic leadership. The second research question investigated the relationship between the emotional intelligence of leaders and direct reports. The third research question explored the moderating effects of direct report emotional intelligence on leader emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and the demonstration of toxic leadership behavior.

RQ1: Is police leader emotional intelligence levels correlated with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$1: There are no significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a1: There are significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

RQ2: Are Leader EQ-i scores correlated with Direct Report EQ-i scores?

$H_0$2: There are no significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

H_a2: There are significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report EQ-i scores.

RQ3: What are the moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

$H_0$3: There are no moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

H_a3: There are moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between the Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

This chapter covers details regarding the study, the data collecting period, recruitment and response rates, changes in data collection tactics, and the sample's stated demographic characteristics. The interpretation and outcomes of the data analysis, descriptive statistics, and effect sizes are also included in this chapter.

Data Collection

Consent forms were distributed during staff meetings and by using personal emails for confidentiality from 15 police agencies in the Minneapolis/St. Paul suburbs in Minnesota. Participants volunteered for the study by completing and returning consent forms. The participants were informed they could stop participating at any point in time. Once leader and direct report volunteers were matched, leaders were then sent an email containing a link to complete the EQ-i, 2.0 using the MHS platform. Direct reports were sent an email containing a link to complete the EQ-i, 2.0 using the MHS platform and a leadership questionnaire containing the Toxic Leadership Scale and the LMX-7 questionnaire. EQ-i respondent data was gathered through the MHS website. Direct report participants sent the completed leadership questionnaire via email. All data was entered and organized in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet to ensure proper coding before being transferred onto a SPSS spreadsheet.

Descriptive Statistics

The only requirements for this study were that supervisor and direct report participants had to work in law enforcement for at least 1 year and had to have worked with each other for at least 3 months. Length of total service was not collected. Data collection began on October 15, 2022, and lasted approximately 45 days. In total, 63 leaders (Table 1) completed the EQ-i on-line questionnaire, and 162 direct reports completed the EQ-i questionnaire and the leadership questionnaire (the Toxic Leadership Scale and the LMX-7 questionnaire). Of those that completed the process, there were 4 chiefs, 3 deputy chiefs, 13 captains, 21 lieutenants, 33 sergeants, and 151 officers (Table 2).

Table 1

Demographic Data: Gender, & Age Range

Gender	Position	*n*	Age Range	%
Female	Leader	13	37-51	20.63
Male	Leader	50	29-56	79.37
Female	Direct report	53	25-53	32.72
Male	Direct report	109	25-55	67.28

Table 2

Demographic Data: Position

Position	*n*	%
Chief	4	1.78%
Deputy chief	3	1.33%
Captain	13	5.78%
Lieutenant	21	9.33%
Sergeant	33	14.67%
Officer	151	67.11%

Results

The first step in analyzing the data was to review the internal consistency or reliability of the subscales utilized for this study. Manerikar and Manerikar (2015) asserted that values of Cronbach's alpha, ranging from .70 to .90, indicated suitable internal consistency. Using Cronbach's alpha within SPSS, reliability analysis was completed to ensure a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher was attained for each composite grouping of the EQ-i, the 15 EQ-i subscales, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scales.

As shown in Table 3, the results of Cronbach's alpha for the five EQ-i composites (n = 225) included self-perception (α = .728), self-expression (α = .618), interpersonal (α = .734), decision making (α = .736), and stress management (α = .680).

Table 3

Reliability Statistics: EQ-I Composites

	Cronbach's Alpha	*n*
Self-perception	.728	3
Self-expression	.618	3
Interpersonal	.734	3
Decision making	.736	3
Stress management	.680	3

These results showed moderate internal consistency and are lower than the overall internal consistency coefficient completed by Bar-On (α = .97) based on a normative sample (N = 3,831) in North American (Bar-On, 1997).

The results of Cronbach's alpha for the Toxic Leadership Scale (Table 4) subscales were (α = .974), and for the five subscales of the Toxic Leadership Scale

included Abusive Supervision (α = .923), Authoritarian Leadership (α = .913), Narcissism (α = .884), Unpredictability (α = .914), and Self Promotion (α = .882). These five scales of the Toxic Leadership Scale showed high internal consistency.

Table 4

Reliability Statistics: Toxic Leadership Scale

	Cronbach's Alpha	*n*
Abusive supervision (TL_AS)	.923	7
Authoritarian leadership (TL_AL)	.913	6
Narcissism (TL_NA)	.884	5
Unpredictability (TL_UN)	.914	7
Self-Promotion (TL_SP)	.882	5

The results of Cronbach's alpha for the seven questions on the LMX-7 was LMX Clarity (α = .971), LMX Understanding (α = .972), LMX Potential (α = .970), LMX Helpfulness (α = .970), LMX Bailout (α = .971), LMX Defend (α = .969), and LMX Relationship (α = .970) all show high internal consistency (Table 5).

Table 5

Reliability Statistics: LMX-7

	Cronbach's Alpha	*n*
LMX clarity	.971	1
LMX understanding	.972	1
LMX potential	.970	1
LMX helpfulness	.970	1
LMX bailout	.971	1
LMX defend	.969	1
LMX relationship	.970	1

Research Question One

Leader EQ-i and the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire

In order to assess the relationship and strength between the total EQ-i score for leaders or Leader Total EQ-i (TEQ_LDR) and the five Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision (TL_AS), Authoritative Leadership (TL_AL), Narcissism (TL_NA), Self-Promotion (TL_SP), and Unpredictability (TL_UN), Pearson's correlation was completed as shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Pearson's Correlation: EQ-i Composites and Total Leader EQ-i

		TEQ_LDR
TL_AS	Pearson correlation	.577**
	sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	162
TL_AL	Pearson correlation	.517**
	sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	162
TL_NA	Pearson correlation	.407**
	sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	162
TL_SP	Pearson Correlation	.391**
	sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	162
TL_UN	Pearson correlation	-.118
	sig. (2-tailed)	.135
	N	162

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Leader Total EQ-i had statistically significant correlations at $p < .01$ with Toxic Leadership Subscales (Table 6) including Abusive Supervision ($r = .577$, $p =$

<.001), Authoritarian Leadership (r = .517, p = <.001), Narcissism (r = .407, p = <.001), and Self-Promotion (r = .391, p = <.001). The Toxic Leadership Scale subscale of Unpredictability did not have a statistically significant at $p < .05$ correlation with the Leader Total EQ-i (r = .118, p = .135). As lower scores on the Toxic Leadership Scale indicate less toxicity, the higher the Leader Total EQ-i, the more toxic behaviors of leaders were perceived by the direct reports in the areas of abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, and self-promotion.

Leader EQ-i and the LMX-7

In order to assess the relationship and strength between the Leader Total EQ-i and the LMX-7, Pearson's correlation (r) was completed (Table 7). The Leader Total EQ-i had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 (r = -.204, p = .009), indicating that as Leader Total EQ-i increased, scores on the LMX-7 decreased. As higher scores on the LMX-7 indicate stronger, more positive relationships between leaders and direct reports, the higher the Leader Total EQ-i, the poorer the relationship as judged by direct reports.

Table 7

Pearson's Correlation: LMX-7 and Total Leader EQ-i

		LMX7
TEQ_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.204**
	sig. (2-tailed)	.009
	N	162

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Next, Pearson's correlation was completed (Table 8) to understand if there were relationships between the LMX-7 and the Leader EQ-i Composites scores of Self-

Perception (SPC_LDR), Self-Expression (SEC_LDR), Interpersonal Relations (IRC_LDR), Decision Making (DMC_LDR), and Stress Management (SMC_LDR).

Table 8

Pearson's Correlation: LMX-7 and EQ-i Composites

		LMX7
SPC_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.284**
	sig. (2-tailed)	<.001
	N	162
SEC_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.171*
	sig. (2-tailed)	.029
	N	162
IRC_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.153
	sig. (2-tailed)	.051
	N	162
DMC_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.183*
	sig. (2-tailed)	.020
	N	162
SMC_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.173*
	sig. (2-tailed)	.028
	N	162

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results of this analysis showed a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ between the LMX-7 and the Leader EQ-i Composite of Self-Perception ($r = -.284$, $p = <.001$), and statistically significant negative correlations at $p < .05$ between the LMX-7 and Self-Expression ($r = -.171$, $p = .029$), Decision Making ($r = -.183$, $p = .020$), and Stress Management ($r = -.173$, $p = .028$). Interpersonal Relations had a nearly statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ ($r = -.153$, $p = .051$).

Leader EQ-i Subscales, the Toxic Leadership Questionnaire, and the LMX-7

In order to assess the relationship and strength between the Leader EQ-i Subscales, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales, Pearson's correlation was completed as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Pearson's Correlation: EQ-i Subscales, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale

		LMX7	TL_AS	TL_AL	TL_NA	TL_SP	TL_UN
SR_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.238**	.430**	.439**	.481**	.532**	.010
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.900
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
SA_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.308**	.530**	.465**	.377**	.403**	.047
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.556
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
ESA_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.278**	.540**	.477**	.343**	.349**	-.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.335
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
EE_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.101	.405**	.438**	.349**	.315**	-.124
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.199	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.117
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
AS_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.207**	.416**	.505**	.321**	.310**	.063
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.423
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
IN_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.119	.315**	.253**	.212**	.171*	.151
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.133	<.001	.001	.007	.029	.054
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162

IR_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.109	.449**	.371**	.305**	.288**	-.222**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.166	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.005
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
EM_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.147	.424**	.332**	.191*	.189*	-.115
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.062	<.001	<.001	.015	.016	.144
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
SRE_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.244**	.468**	.394**	.241**	.365**	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	<.001	<.001	.002	<.001	.401
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
PS_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.138	.358**	.379**	.348**	.322**	.101
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.203
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
RT_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.363**	.622**	.473**	.345**	.321**	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.910
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
IC_LDR	Pearson correlation	.013	.296**	.281**	.238**	.244**	-.373**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.867	<.001	<.001	.002	.002	<.001
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
FL_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.224**	.551**	.447**	.363**	.356**	-.238**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.002
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
ST_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.137	.442**	.313**	.329**	.308**	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.082	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.878
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162
OP_LDR	Pearson correlation	-.152	.461**	.382**	.277**	.257**	-.061
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.054	<.001	<.001	<.001	<.001	.441
	N	162	162	162	162	162	162

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As shown in Table 9, the Leader EQ-i subscale Self-Regard (SR_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.238$, $p = .002$), and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .430$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .439$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .484$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .532$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Self-Regard did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = .010$, $p = .900$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Self-Actualization (SA_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.308$, $p = <.001$) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .530$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .465$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .377$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .403$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Self-Actualization did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = .047$, $p = .556$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Emotional Self-Awareness (ESA_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.278$, $p = <.001$) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .540$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .477$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .343$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .349$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Emotional Self-Awareness did not have a statistically

significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.076$, $p = .335$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Emotional Expression (EE_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.101$, $p = <.199$) yet had statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .405$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .438$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .349$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .315$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Emotional Expression did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.124$, $p = .117$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Assertiveness (AS_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.207$, $p = .008$) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .416$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .505$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .321$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .310$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Assertiveness did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the LMX-7 ($r = .063$, $p = .423$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Independence (IN_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.119$, $p = .133$) yet had statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .315$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .253$, $p = .001$), Narcissism ($r = .212$, $p = .007$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .171$, $p = .029$). The Leader EQ-i

subscale for Independence almost had a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = .151$, $p = .054$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Interpersonal Relations (IR_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.109$, $p = .166$) yet had statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .449$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .371$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .305$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .288$, $p = <.001$). Also, the Leader EQ-i subscale Interpersonal Relations had a statistically significant negative correlation with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.222$, $p = .005$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Empathy (EM_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.147$, $p = .062$) yet had statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .424$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership) ($r = .332$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .191$, $p = .015$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .189$, $p = .016$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Empathy did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.115$, $p = .144$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Social Responsibility (SRE_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.244$, $p = .002$) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .468$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .394$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .241$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .365$, $p = <.001$). The

Leader EQ-i subscale Social Responsibility did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = .066$, $p = .401$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Problem Solving (PS_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.138$, $p = .080$) yet did have statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .358$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .379$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .348$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .322$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Problem Solving did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = .101$, $p = .203$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Reality Testing (RT_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 ($r = -.363$, $p = <.001$) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .622$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .473$, $p = <.001$), Narcissism ($r = .345$, $p = <.001$), and Self-Promotion ($r = .321$, $p = <.001$). The Leader EQ-i subscale Reality Testing did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.009$, $p = .910$).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Impulse Control (IC_LDR) did not have a statistically significant correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 ($r = .013$, $p = .867$) yet did have statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision ($r = .296$, $p = <.001$), Authoritarian Leadership ($r = .281$, $p =$

<.001), Narcissism (r = .238, p = .002), Self-Promotion (r = .244, p = .002) and Unpredictability (r = -.373, p = <.001).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Flexibility (FL_LDR) had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7 (r = -.224, p = .004) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision (r = .551, p = <.001), Authoritarian Leadership (r = .447, p = <.001), Narcissism (r = .363, p = <.001), and Self-Promotion (r = .356, p = <.001) and Unpredictability (r = -.238, p = .002).

The Leader EQ-i subscale Stress Tolerance (ST_LDR) did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 (r = -.137, p = .082) yet had statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision (r = .442, p = <.001), Authoritarian Leadership (r = .313, p = <.001), Narcissism (r = .329, p = <.001), and Self-Promotion (r = .308, p = <.001). The Leader EQ-i subscale Stress Tolerance did not have a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability (r = -.012, p = .878).

Finally, the Leader EQ-i subscale Optimism (OP_LDR) had a nearly statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .05$ with LMX-7 (r = -.152, p = .054) and statistically significant positive correlations with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision (r = .461, p = <.001), Authoritarian Leadership (r = .382, p = <.001), Narcissism (r = .277, p = <.001), and Self-Promotion (r = .257, p = <.001). The Leader EQ-i subscale Optimism did not have a statistically significant negative

correlation at $p < .05$ with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability ($r = -.061$, $p = .441$).

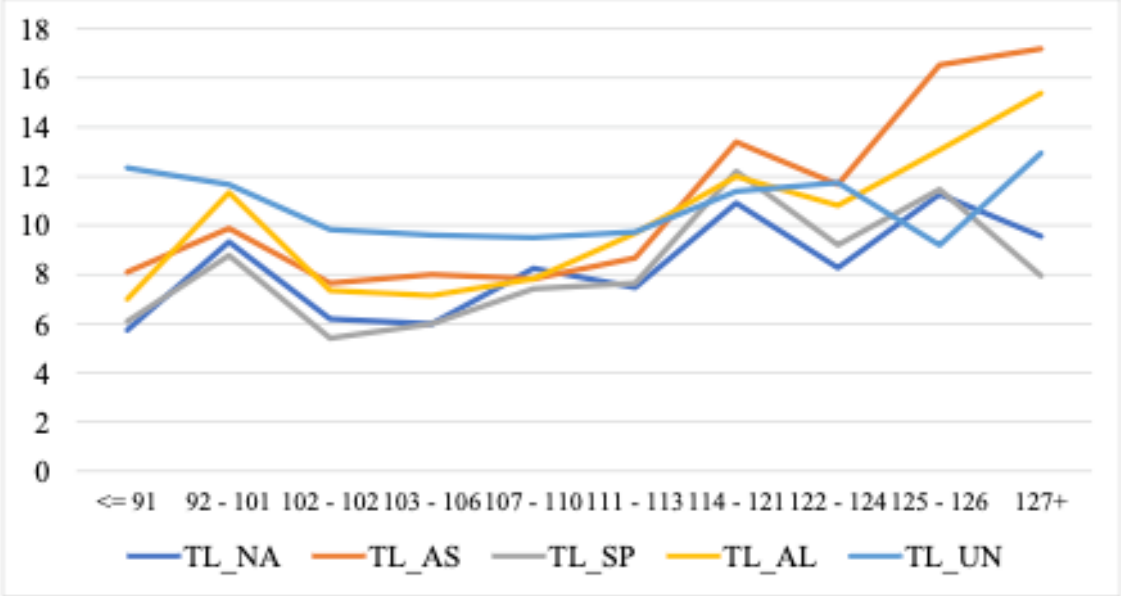
The results of the Pearson's correlation analysis indicated that there were statistically significant correlations at $p < .05$ between the Leader Total EQ-i, the Leader EQ-i subscales, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales, and the LMX-7. Overall, these findings showed that as Leader Total EQ and Subscale scores increased, the LMX-7 scores decreased. As higher scores on the LMX-7 indicated a stronger relationship between leaders and direct reports, the higher the Leader Total EQ-i, the poorer the relationship as judged by the direct reports as indicated by the correlation of lower LMX-7 scores. These findings answered the first research question in that there was a significant statistical relationship between leaders' self-report scores on the EQ-i and the leadership effectiveness from ratings from the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

In an effort to understand the relationship between emotional intelligence and toxic leadership, as well as to investigate the potential outcome of the under and overusing emotional intelligence, an independent sample t-test was completed to determine of there were statically significant differences in the means of the Leader Total EQ-i scores and Toxic Leadership Scale ratings (Figure 2). In Figure 2, the x-axis represents Leader Total EQ-i scores, and the y-axis represents Toxic Leadership Scale scores. The results of the analysis showed two primary Leader Total EQ-i score groupings where spikes in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale ratings occurred. The first spike in Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, and self-promotion ratings occurred when Leader Total EQ-i

ratings were between 92 and 101. The second spike occurred when Leader Total EQ-i ratings were between 114 and 121. The Toxic Leadership Scale subscale of Unpredictability peaked at different Leader Total EQ-i scores of > 91 and then between Leader Total EQ-i scores of 122-124, and again > 127+. As higher scores on the Toxic Leadership Scale indicated higher levels of perceived toxic leadership, direct reports perceived leaders' behaviors increased in toxicity as Leader Total EQ-i scores increased.

Figure 2

Leader Total EQ-i Scores and Toxic Leadership Scale Ratings



In summary, for RQ1, the Null Hypothesis was rejected as there were significant statistical relationships between the Leader Total EQ-i, the Leader EQ-i subscales, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales, and the LMX-7. As Leader Total EQ-i scores increased, so did the perception of toxic leadership which correlated with the concept of under and overuse of Emotional Intelligence behaviors.

Research Question 2

In order to understand if there was a statistically significant correlation between leader and direct report Total EQ-i, linear regression analysis was completed to compare the Total EQ-i of leaders (TEQ_LDR) and direct reports (TEQ_DR). The dependent variable was the Direct Report Total EQ-i and the independent variable was the Leader Total EQ-i. As shown in Table 10, the Leader Total EQ-i had a positive effect on the Direct Report Total EQ-i with an Unstandardized Coefficients β coefficient of (.048), indicating that as the Total EQ-i for leaders increased by one point, on the average the direct reports Total EQ-i increased by (.048) of a point. However, this relationship was not statistically significant (r = .456, p = .456).

Table 10

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Direct Report Total EQ-i

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	98.910	6.994		14.142	<.001
	TEQ_LDR	.048	.064	.059	.748	.456

a. Dependent Variable: TEQ_DR

Table 11 shows that very little variance in the Direct Report Total EQ-i (R^2 = .003) was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The ANOVA table (Table 12), F-values were, $F(1,160) = .559$, p = .456). Overall, this regression analysis was not statistically significant. In summary, for RQ2, the Null Hypothesis was not rejected as there was not a significant statistically relationship at $p < .05$ between Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i.

Table 11

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.059[a]	.003	-.003	11.78399

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 12

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	77.622	1	77.622	.559	.456[b]
	Residual	22217.989	160	138.862		
	Total	22295.611	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TEQ_DR

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Research Question 3

To investigate RQ3, linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism (TL_NA) was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i (TEQ_LDR). The outcome variable for this analysis was the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism (TL_NA). The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable and the outcome variable. The R^2 value of .17 (Table 13) revealed that leader Total EQ-i explained 17% variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism with $F(1,160) = 31.706$, $p < .001$ (Table 14).

Table 13

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.407[a]	.165	.160	3.198

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 14

ANOVA: Leader Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	324.297	1	324.297	31.706	<.001[b]
	Residual	1636.494	160	10.228		
	Total	1960.790	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_NA

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 15, as leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism increased in a positive direction by .097 ($F(1,160) = 31.706$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .165$. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Leader Total EQ-i (TEQ_LDR) increased, so did perceived narcissism in leaders.

Table 15

Coefficients: Leader Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		*b*	SE	ß	t	*p*
1	(Constant)	-2.680	1.898		-1.412	.160
	TEQ_LDR	.097	.017	.407	5.631	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: TL_NA

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between leader Total EQ-i and Narcissism of the Toxic Leadership Scale, an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 16 shows R^2 value of .26 indicating the interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 26% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism with ($F(3,158) = 18.394$, $p < .001$ (Table 17).

Table 16

Model Summary: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i, and Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.509[a]	.259	.245	3.033

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 17

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i, and Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	507.555	3	169.185	18.394	<.001[b]
	Residual	1453.235	158	9.198		
	Total	1960.790	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_NA

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term is negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism (TL_NA) as shown in Table 18 ($\beta 2 = -.003$, $p = .456$).

Table 18

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-30.828	16.808		-1.834	.069
	TEQ_LDR	.436	.155	1.825	2.808	.006
	TEQ	.257	.156	.866	1.643	.102
	LDREQ_DREQ	-.003	.001	-1.860	-2.170	.032

a. Dependent Variable: TL_NA

To further investigate RQ3, a second linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i. The outcome variable for this analysis was the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision. The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable and the outcome variable Abusive Supervision. The R^2 value of .33 (Table 19) revealed that Leader Total EQ-i explained 33% variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision with $F(1,160) = 79.796$, $p < .001$ (Table 20).

Table 19

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.577[a]	.333	.329	3.665

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 20

ANOVA: Leader Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1071.569	1	1071.569	79.796	<.001[b]
	Residual	2148.628	160	13.429		
	Total	3220.198	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AS

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 21, as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision increased in a positive direction by .117 $F(1,160) = 79.796$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .33$. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Abusive Supervision in leaders.

Table 21

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-8.714	2.175		-4.007	<.001
	TEQ_LDR	.177	.020	.577	8.933	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AS

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ-i and Abusive Supervision of the Toxic Leadership Scale, an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 22 shows R^2 value of 0.38 indicating the interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 38% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive

Supervision with ($F(3,158) = 32.875$, $p < .001$ (Table 23). The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Table 24) and as the β coefficient was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision.

Table 22

Model Summary: Predictors Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.620[a]	.384	.373	3.542

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 23

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1237.575	3	412.525	32.875	<.001[b]
	Residual	1982.623	158	12.548		
	Total	3220.198	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AS

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 24

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-66.224	19.632		-3.373	<.001
	TEQ_LDR	.753	.181	2.458	4.149	<.001
	TEQ	.534	.182	1.404	2.925	.004
	LDREQ_DREQ	-.005	.002	-2.486	-3.182	.002

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AS

To further investigate RQ3, a third linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i. The outcome variable for this analysis was the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership. The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable, Leader Total EQ-i, and the outcome variable Authoritarian Leadership. The R^2 value of .27 (Table 25) revealed that Leader Total EQ-i explained 27% variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership with $F(1,160) = 31.235$, $p < .001$ (Table 26).

Table 25

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.517[a]	.268	.263	3.638

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 26

ANOVA: Leader Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	774.246	1	774.246	58.501	<.001[b]
	Residual	2117.563	160	13.235		
	Total	2891.809	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AL

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 27, as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership increased in a positive direction by .150 $F(1,160) = 31.235$, $R^2 = .27$. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Authoritarian Leadership in leaders.

Table 27

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-6.548	2.159		-3.033	.003
	TEQ_LDR	.150	.020	.517	7.649	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AL

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ-i and Authoritarian Leadership of the Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 28 shows R^2 value of .28 indicating the interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 28% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership with ($F(3,158) = 20.824$, $p < .001$ (Table 29). The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was not statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Table 30) and as the β coefficient was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership.

Table 28

Model Summary: Predictors Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.532[a]	.283	.270	3.622

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 29

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	819.424	3	273.141	20.824	<.001[b]
	Residual	2072.384	158	13.116		
	Total	2891.809	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AL

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 30

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-24.334	20.071		-1.212	.227
	TEQ_LDR	.351	.185	1.210	1.894	.060
	TEQ	.163	.187	.453	.875	.383
	LDREQ_DREQ	-.002	.002	-.911	-1.081	.281

a. Dependent Variable: TL_AL

To further investigate RQ3, a fourth linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic

Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i. The outcome variable for this analysis was the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion. The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable and the outcome variable Self-Promotion. The R^2 value of .15 (Table 31) revealed that Leader Total EQ-i explained 15% variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion with $F(1,160) = 28.906$, $p < .001$ (Table 32).

Table 31

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.391[a]	.153	.148	3.201

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 32

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	296.212	1	296.212	28.906	<.001[b]
	Residual	1639.615	160	10.248		
	Total	1935.827	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_SP

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 33, as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion increased in a positive direction by .093

$F(1,160) = 28.906$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .15$. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Leader Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived self-promotion in leaders.

Table 33

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-2.285	1.900		-1.203	.231
	TEQ_LDR	.093	.017	.391	5.376	<.001

a. Dependent Variable: TL_SP

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ-i and Self-Promotion of the Toxic Leadership Scale, an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 34 shows R^2 value of .22 indicating the interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 22% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion with ($F(3,158) = 14.546$, $p < .001$ (Table 35). The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Table 36) and as the β coefficient was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion.

Table 34

Model Summary: Predictors Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.465[a]	.216	.202	3.098

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 35

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	418.943	3	139.648	14.546	<.001[b]
	Residual	1516.884	158	9.601		
	Total	1935.827	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_SP

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 36

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	-33.388	17.172		-1.944	.054
	TEQ_LDR	.440	.159	1.851	2.770	.006
	TEQ	.286	.160	.970	1.791	.075
	LDREQ_DREQ	-.003	.001	-1.921	-2.179	.031

a. Dependent Variable: TL_SP

To continue the investigation of RQ3, a fifth linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i. The outcome variable for this analysis was the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability. The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable Leader Total EQ-i and the outcome variable Unpredictability. The R^2 value of 0.14

(Table 37) revealed that Leader Total EQ-i explained 14% variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability with $F(1,160) = 2.254$, $p < .135$ (Table 38).

Table 37

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.118[a]	.014	.008	4.256

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 38

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	40.835	1	40.835	2.254	.135[b]
	Residual	2898.276	160	18.114		
	Total	2939.111	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_UN

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 39, as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability decreased by -.034 ($F(1,160) = 2.254$, $p <$ .135. Also, this was not a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, perceived unpredictable behaviors in leaders decreased.

Table 39

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	14.500	2.526		5.740	<.001
	TEQ_LDR	-.034	.023	-.118	-1.501	.135

a. Dependent Variable: TL_UN

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ-i and Unpredictability of the Toxic Leadership Scale, an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 40 shows R^2 value of .035 indicating the interaction Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 3.5% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability with ($F(3,158) = 1.894$, $p < .133$ (Table 41). The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was not statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Table 42) and as the β coefficient was positive, the Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability.

Table 40

Model Summary: Predictor Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.186[a]	.035	.016	4.237

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 41

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	102.010	3	34.003	1.894	.133[b]
	Residual	2837.101	158	17.956		
	Total	2939.111	161			

a. Dependent Variable: TL_UN

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 42

Coefficients: Dependent Variable Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	39.371	23.484		1.676	.096
	TEQ_LDR	-.304	.217	-1.038	-1.399	.164
	TEQ	-.229	.218	-.631	-1.050	.295
	LDREQ_DREQ	.002	.002	1.212	1.239	.217

a. Dependent Variable: TL_UN

To finish the investigation of RQ3, a final linear regression and moderation analysis was performed using SPSS to understand how much of the total variation in the LMX-7 was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. The focal variable for the analysis was the Leader Total EQ-i. The outcome variable for this analysis was the LMX-7. The first part of this analysis was completed to assess the character and strength of the focal variable Leader Total EQ-i and the outcome variable LMX-7. The R^2 value of .042 (Table 43) revealed that Leader Total EQ-i explained 4.2% variance with the LMX-7 with $F(1,160) = 6.928$, $p < .001$ (Table 44).

Table 43

Model Summary: Predictor Leader Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.204[a]	.042	.036	8.449

a. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

Table 44

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and LMX-7

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	494.488	1	494.488	6.928	.009[b]
	Residual	11420.456	160	71.378		
	Total	11914.944	161			

a. Dependent Variable: LMX7

b. Predictors: (Constant), TEQ_LDR

As shown in Table 45, as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the LMX-7 decreased by -.120 ($F(1,160) = 6.928$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .042$. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, the relationship between leaders and direct reports decreased.

Table 45

Coefficients: Dependent Variable LMX-7

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	36.063	5.014		7.192	<.001
	TEQ_LDR	-.120	.046	-.204	-2.632	.009

a. Dependent Variable: LMX7

To investigate if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ-i and the LMX-7, an interaction variable was created (LDREQ_DEREQ). Table 46 shows R^2 value of .099 indicating the interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 9.9% of the variance in the LMX-7 with ($F(3,158) = 5.794$, $p < .001$ (Table 47). The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ (Table 48), and as the β coefficient was positive, the Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7.

Table 46

Model Summary: Predictor Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.315[a]	.099	.082	8.242

a. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 47

ANOVA: Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i and LMX-7

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1180.907	3	393.636	5.794	<.001[b]
	Residual	10734.038	158	67.937		
	Total	11914.944	161			

a. Dependent Variable: LMX7

b. Predictors: (Constant), LDREQ_DREQ, TEQ, TEQ_LDR

Table 48

Coefficients: Dependent Variable LMX-7

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	150.037	45.680		3.285	.001
	TEQ_LDR	-1.269	.422	-2.154	-3.005	.003
	TEQ	-1.057	.425	-1.446	-2.490	.014
	LDREQ_DREQ	.011	.004	2.577	2.726	.007

a. Dependent Variable: LMX7

Summary

The primary purpose of this research study was to investigate if there was a significant relationship between the emotional intelligence levels of leaders and direct reports, and perceived toxic leadership behavior, as judged by direct reports in small to midsized Minnesota police agencies. Three research questions were addressed to find out if there was a relationship between EQ-i, the perception of toxic behaviors, and relationship quality between leaders and direct reports.

The results of the analysis for RQ1 indicated that Leader Total EQ-i had statistically significant positive correlations at $p < .01$ with four out of the five Toxic Leadership Scale Subscales of Abusive Supervision, Authoritarian Leadership, Narcissism, and Self-Promotion, but not with Unpredictability. As Leader Total EQ-i increased, the perceptions of abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, and self-promotion increased. Also, Leader Total EQ-i had a statistically significant negative correlation at $p < .01$ with LMX-7, indicating that as Leader Total EQ-i increased, scores on the LMX-7 decreased. Lower scores on the LMX-7 paralleled a

poorer quality relationship between leaders and direct reports. These findings answered the first research question in that there was a significant statistical relationship between the Leader Total EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale. In summary, for RQ1, the Null Hypothesis was rejected as there were significant statistical correlations between the Leader EQ-i, the LMX-7, and the Toxic Leadership Scale.

Overall, for RQ2, the results of linear regression analysis indicated that Leader Total EQ-i had a positive effect on the Direct Report Total EQ-i with an β coefficient of 0.048 indicating that as Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, on the average the Direct Report Total EQ-i increased by 0.048. However, the relationship was not statistically significant. Consequently, for RQ2, the Null Hypothesis was not rejected as there were no significant statistical relationships between Leader and Direct Report Total EQ-i scores.

To investigate RQ3, a linear regression and moderation analysis was performed to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales and the LMX-7 could be explained by the Leader Total EQ-i. Regression analysis was performed individually for each Toxic Leadership Scale subscale and for the LMX-7. Leader Total EQ-i explained 17% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism increased in a positive direction by .097. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Leader Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived narcissism in leaders. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was

negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 26% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism.

Leader Total EQ-i explained 33% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision increased in a positive direction by .117. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Leader Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Abusive Supervision in leaders.

The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 38% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision.

Leader Total EQ-i explained 27% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership also increased in a positive direction by .150. This was a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Authoritarian Leadership in leaders. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total

EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 28% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership.

Leader Total EQ-i explained 15% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion increased in a positive direction by .093. Also, this was a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Self-Promotion in leaders. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 22% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion.

Leader Total EQ-i explained 14% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership Unpredictability decreased by -.034. Also, this was not a statically significant regression. As Total EQ-i increased, perceived Unpredictability decreased. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was not statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was positive, the Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability. The interaction of Leader Total

EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 3.5% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability.

Leader Total EQ-i explained 4.2% of the variance with the LMX-7. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the LMX-7 decreased by .120. As Total EQ-i increased, the relationship quality between leaders and direct reports decreased. Also, this was a statically significant regression. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was positive, Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7. The Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7.

Chapter 5: Implications, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to investigate if and how emotional intelligence was correlated with toxic leadership and relationship quality between leaders and direct reports in small to midsized Minnesota police agencies. The secondary purpose of this study was to understand how emotional intelligence subscales, using the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0, related to perceived leadership effectiveness within police agencies. A third purpose of this research was to examine possible moderating effects of direct report emotional intelligence on leader emotional intelligence and perceived leadership effectiveness and toxic leadership behaviors. The theoretical framework guiding this study combined the theory of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006), the theory of toxic leadership, (Kaplan & Kaiser, 2013; Kılıç & Günsel, 2019; Lipman-Blumen, 2005a, 2005b; Schmidt, 2008), and the leader-member exchange theory (Pan et al., 2018). Participants were full-time police officers and their supervisors from medium-sized police agencies within the Minneapolis/St. Paul area of Minnesota. Data was obtained from a total of $N = 226$ participants, 63 supervisors and 162 direct reports. Supervisory participants completed the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0 self-assessment. Direct report participants completed the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0 self-assessment, the LMX-7 questionnaire, and the Toxic Leadership Scale. The three research questions investigated in this study:

RQ1: Is police leader emotional intelligence levels correlated with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

RQ2: Are Leader EQ-i scores correlated with Direct Report EQ-i scores?

RQ3: What are the moderating effects of Direct Report EQ-i on the relationship between Leader EQ-i with the LMX-7 and the Toxic Leadership Scale?

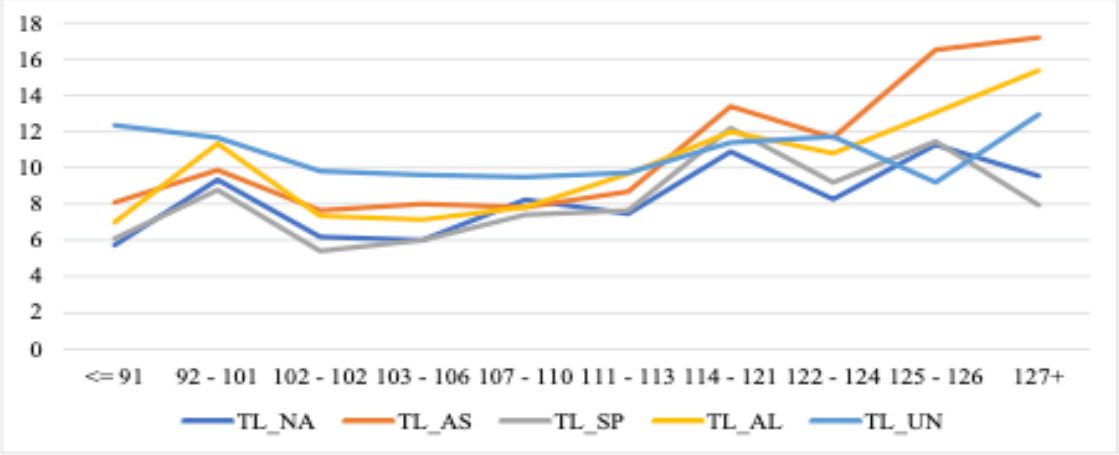
The results of Pearson's correlation indicated that there were statistically significant correlations at $p < .05$ and the $p < .01$ levels between the Leader Total EQ-i, the Leader EQ-i subscales, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales, and the LMX-7. Specifically, in looking at the correlations between the Leader EQ-i, 2.0 subscales and the LMX-7 relationship quality questionnaire, there were statically significant negative correlations between the LMX-7 and the Leader EQ-i, 2.0 subscales of Self-Regard (r = -.238, p = .002), Self-Actualization (r = -.308, p = <.001), Emotional Self-Awareness (r = -.278, p = <.001), Assertiveness (r = -.207, p = .008), Social Responsibility (r = -.244, p = .002), Reality Testing (r = -.363, p = <.001) and Flexibility (r = -.224, p = .004). Higher scores on the LMX-7 indicate stronger relationship quality and lower scores indicate poorer relationship quality. As Leader EQ-i increased in these areas, the relationship quality significantly decreased on the LMX-7.

For the correlations between the Leader EQ-i, 2.0 subscales and the Toxic Leadership subscales of Abusive Supervision (TL_AS), Authoritative Leadership (TL_AL), Narcissism (TL_NA), and Self-Promotion (TL_SP), as the EQ-i subscales increased, so did the perceptions of toxic leadership in a statically significant manner on all four of the Toxic Leadership Scale subscales. Higher scores on the Toxic Leadership Scale indicate a stronger perception of toxic behaviors occurring. There were three statically significant correlations between Leader EQ-i and the Toxic Leadership subscale Unpredictability (TL_UN) which were Interpersonal Relationships (r = -.222, p = .005),

Impulse Control (r = -.373, p = <.001), and Flexibility (r = -.238, p = .002). These findings revealed that higher levels of leader emotional intelligence were correlated with higher levels of perceived toxic leadership and lower relationship quality among leaders and direct reports. As shown in Figure 3, there were two spikes of increased toxic leadership scores for Abusive Supervision, Authoritarian Leadership, Narcissism, and Self-Promotion when the Leader EQ-i scores were between 92 to 101 and 114 to 121. These results correlate with prior research on under and overusing behaviors that can lead to the perception of toxic leadership (Kaiser et al., 2015) as well as the under and overuse of leadership behaviors leading to the perception of malicious, toxic leadership (Austin et al., 2014, Bergen, 2019, Chamorro-Premuzic and Yearsley, 2017, Côté et al., 2011, Kaiser et al., 2015, Kilduff et al., 2010, Koyasu, 2013, Lubbadeh, 2020, and Niemiec, 2019).

Figure 3

Leader Total EQ-i Scores and Toxic Leadership Scale Ratings for Abusive Supervision, Authoritarian Leadership, Narcissism, and Self-Promotion



Also, as Leader Total EQ-i scores increased over 121 (see Figure 3), Toxic Leadership Scale scores on the subscales of Abusive Supervision (TL_AS), Authoritarian Leadership (TL_AL), and Narcissism (TL_NA) also increased indicated even higher perspectives of toxic leadership occurring. These findings that when leaders demonstrated too much of or too little of a particular leadership behavior, leaders' overall effectiveness was found to be extreme, ineffective, and counterproductive (Kaiser et al., 2015). Perhaps officers were indicating that when their leaders demonstrated too much or too little EQ-i behavior, having an effective relationship was more difficult and toxic in nature.

Moderating Effects of Direct Report Total EQ-i

Kaiser et al. (2015) also studied a moderating effect of direct report emotional stability and found that when direct reports had lower stability, the perception of toxic leadership was amplified. To determine if Direct Report Total EQ-i had a moderating effect on the relationship between Leader EQ-i, toxic leadership and relationship quality, I performed linear regression and moderation analysis to understand how much of the total variation in the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale ratings and the LMX-7 ratings was explained by the Leader Total EQ-i.

Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism.

In this study, the Leader Total EQ-i explained 17% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership subscale Narcissism. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership subscale Narcissism increased in a statistically significant positive direction by .097. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report

Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Narcissism. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 26% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Narcissism.

Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision

The Leader Total EQ-i explained 33% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision increased in a statistically significant positive direction by 0.117. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Abusive Supervision. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 38% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Abusive Supervision.

Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership

The Leader Total EQ-i explained 27% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership also increased in a statistically significant positive direction by 0.150. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Authoritarian Leadership in leaders. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Authoritarian Leadership. The interaction of

Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 28% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Authoritarian Leadership.

Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion

The Leader Total EQ-i explained 15% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership subscale Self-Promotion. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion increased in a statistically significant positive direction by .093. As Total EQ-i increased, so did perceived Self-Promotion in leaders. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was negative, the Direct Report Total EQ-i decreased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Self-Promotion. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 22% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Self-Promotion.

Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability

The Leader Total EQ-i explained 14% of the variance with the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability decreased in a statistically significant direction by -.034. As Total EQ-i increased, perceived Unpredictability decreased. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was not statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was positive, the Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability. The interaction of Leader Total EQ-i and Direct Report Total EQ-i explained 3.5% of the variance in the Toxic Leadership Scale Unpredictability.

The results of moderation analysis showed that Direct Reports EQ-i had a negative moderating effect on four of the five Toxic Leadership subscales of Narcissism, Self-Promotion, Abusive Supervision, and Authoritarian Leadership. Direct Report EQ-i scores decreased the effect of Leader Total EQ and toxic leadership. Yet Direct Report EQ-i has a positive moderating effect on the relationship between Leader Total EQ and the Toxic Leadership subscale Unpredictability.

The LMX-7

The Leader Total EQ-i explained 4.2% of the variance with the LMX-7. As Leader Total EQ-i increased by one point, the LMX-7 decreased by .120. As Total EQ-i increased, the relationship quality between leaders and direct reports decreased. Also, this was a statically significant regression. The moderator effect of Direct Report Total EQ-i was statistically significant at $p < .05$ and as the β coefficient in the interaction term was positive, Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7. The Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7.

The results of moderation analysis on Direct Report EQ on the relationship between Leader EQ and LMX-7 relationship quality showed similar results. The Direct Report Total EQ-i increased the effect of the Leader Total EQ-i on the LMX-7. As Direct Report EQ-i increased, relationship quality between leader and direct report decreased as Leader EQ increased.

Interpretation of Findings

Being a police leader today is said to be more difficult than at any time in memory (Reynolds, 2022). Policing in the 21st Century has become more dynamic and complex as police personnel are faced with having to keep communities safe while dealing with negative news stories of police brutality (Donner & Olson, 2020; Reynolds, 2022). Agencies of all sizes are negatively affected when toxic leaders create unhealthy subcultures, power groups, groupthink, and unprofessional standards (Ellis, 2018; Williams, 2019). Officers have reported feeling greater stress from working with leaders demonstrating toxic behaviors than from carrying out potentially life-threatening public safety responsibilities (Neil, 2014). This study examined the correlation between emotional intelligence, toxic leadership, and relationship quality among leaders and direct reports within police agencies in Minnesota. Overall, the findings of this study indicated that higher scores for leaders on the Bar-On EQ-i, 2.0 are correlated with the perception of toxic leadership behavior occurring as well as lower quality relationships between leaders and direct reports through the eyes of direct reports. Specifically, when leader Total EQ-i scores are within the range between 92 to 101 and 114 to 121 or higher, there are greater chances that direct reports perceive leaders to demonstrate toxic behaviors.

Four of the five Toxic Leadership Scale subscales of Abusive Supervision (TL_AS), Authoritative Leadership (TL_AL), Narcissism (TL_NA), and Self-Promotion (TL_SP) all had statically significant correlations with higher levels of emotional intelligence meaning that when leaders demonstrated higher levels of emotional intelligence behavior, there was a strong chance that direct reports would rate their

behavior as toxic. The Toxic Leadership Scale subscale Unpredictability had only three statically significant correlations with emotional intelligence subscales of interpersonal relations, impulse control, and flexibility. Perhaps as police work is very unpredictable, more officers have been trained to deal with the unknown and are used to living in an unpredictable world and consequently, behaviors associated with unpredictability were more easily dealt with.

Seven subsets of leader demonstrated emotional intelligence were correlated with lower quality relationships between leaders and direct reports. These emotional intelligence subsets were self-regard, self-actualization, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, social responsibility, reality testing, and flexibility. These subsets involve self-focus, communication, caring about the common good, attention to detail, and being flexible in perspective, approach, and behavior, all of which can have negative outcomes to relationship quality if under or overused.

Recommendations For Future Research

The results of this research study contribute to the increasing body of knowledge on emotional intelligence and effective leadership in police agencies. However, limitations of the study affect the generalization of the findings as participants of this study came from small to medium sized police agencies in Minnesota. One recommendation for future research would be to include agencies of all sizes across the United States to understand if and how agency size and location would replicate or alter study outcomes between emotional intelligence, toxic leadership, and relationship quality between leaders and direct reports. A second recommendation would be to include a

larger sample size to find out if similar results occur with a greater population included. A third recommendation would be to investigate alternative participant relationships such as peer to peer along with leader to direct report, to understand how emotional intelligence correlates with perceived toxic behavior occurring. A fourth recommendation would be to include participants in professions other than law enforcement to understand if the trends found in this study occur between coworkers in other types of professional environments. As correlational study designs do not provide strong evidence of cause and affect relationships, a final recommendation is to develop a study that investigates causal relationships vs. correlation relationships in the relationship between emotional intelligence and toxic leadership behavior.

Implications For Social Change

As with many other organizations, recruitment and retention is a serious issue facing many police agencies across the United States (Westervelt, 2021). Most organizations can no longer be reactive to dealing with leaders that demonstrate toxic behaviors in the workplace. The demonstration of ineffective or toxic leadership and deficient leader-direct report relationships within police agencies can be devastating for individual, team, and agency performance, which can significantly negatively impact the quality of service provided to communities and the overall welfare of humanity (Erickson et al., 2015; Krasikova et al., 2013; Milosevic et al., 2019). The need to identify law enforcement leaders that demonstrate toxic behaviors before these leaders cause destructive and poisonous cultures is stronger today than ever before (Hakik & Langlois, 2020). With the significant increase of police officer retirements and resignations

occurring over the past few years, it is imperative that agencies find ways to attract and retain law enforcement professionals at all levels to cover the responsibilities that society places in their hands. Police leaders need to be effective at both the technical and human aspects of the position which can positively impact retention and effective performance.

Providing training on the effective demonstration of emotional intelligence behaviors as well as the recognition and alternation of toxic behavior can promote better professional relationships, trust, communication, problem solving, decision making, engagement, and recruitment and retention of effective staff at all levels of an organization. Simply, when leaders can effectively demonstrate emotional intelligence, direct report performance increases and stress decreases (Ismail, Suh- Suh, Ajis, & Dollah, 2009). And when employees are less stressed and performing well, higher levels of external customer satisfaction typically occur.

Conclusions

One of the primary goals of industrial and organizational psychologists is to assist in the promotion of higher productivity and employee well-being. I wanted to conduct this research for two primary reasons. First, to understand if there were correlations between emotional intelligence, toxic leadership and relationship quality between leaders and direct reports. The second objective was to understand how direct report emotional intelligence influenced the relationship between leader emotional intelligence and perceived toxic leadership. The results of this study may aid those working with organizations where leader and direct report relationships as well as performance are less than effective by identifying and providing practical training and coaching areas for those

in law enforcement and perhaps in other professional fields where effective leadership needs to occur to attain desired business results. If organizations provided training on emotional intelligence, toxic leadership, and effective relationships to all staff, perhaps there would be faster identification and transformation when negative leadership behaviors first begin to show. In turn, this quicker identification and modification of toxic behavior would result in more positive, effective relationships, greater effective communication, higher performance, and more positive outcomes for communities served.

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Appendix A: Bill of Rights for Research Participants

As a participant in a research study, you have the right to:

1. have enough time to decide whether or not to be in the research study, and to make that decision without any pressure from the people who are conducting the research.
2. refuse to be in the study at all, or to stop participating at any time after you begin the study.
3. be told what the study is trying to find out, what will happen to you, and what you will be asked to do if you are in the study.
4. be told about the reasonably foreseeable risks of being in the study.
5. be told about the possible benefits of being in the study.
6. be told whether there are any costs associated with being in the study and whether you will be compensated for participating in the study.
7. be told who will have access to information collected about you and how your confidentiality will be protected.
8. be told whom to contact with questions about the research, about research-related injury, and about your rights as a research participant.

Appendix B: Permission Letter for the Toxic Leadership Scale

September 1, 2021

Lisa Sorensen, MA, LP

Dr. Schmidt,

My name is Lisa Sorensen from Walden University and I am writing my dissertation titled *Emotional Intelligence and Toxic Leadership in Police Departments*, under the direction of my dissertation committee chaired by Dr. James Herndon. I would like your permission to use the Toxic Leadership Scale in my research study. I would like to use your scale under the following conditions:

- I will use the surveys only for my research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated or curriculum development activities.
- I will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- I will send a copy of my completed research study to your attention upon completion of the study.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by replying to me through e-mail.

Sincerely,

Lisa Sorensen, MA, LP

Doctoral Candidate

Appendix C: Permission Letter from MHS for use of EQ-i

From: Betty Mangos
Sent: Monday, July 12, 2021 10:16 AM
To: Lisa Sorensen
Subject: RE: Pricing for study

Hello Lisa,

Thank you for your email. I hope you are well.

We do usually require that you complete the mandatory EQ-i 2.0 certification prior to purchasing this. However, this can be exempted since you are using the EQ-i 2.0 for academic research, **provided that you are qualified**.

The EQ-i 2.0 is a B-Level assessment which requires that you have completed graduate level courses in assessment testing and measurements. If you do not do not meet these requirements, they must have a supervisor/professor that does.

If you are both still not qualified, you must attend EQ-i 2.0 certification, which you must pay for.

EQ-i 2.0 FOR RESEARCH
MHS does have a Scored Data Set Report for the EQ-i 2.0 available to approved researchers.
Since you are using the EQ-i 2.0 for academic research, you will likely only need the Scored Data Set Reports. I have attached a sample of this.

In order to use the EQ-i 2.0, Scored Data Reports, you must be approved for a research discount. I have attached the application.

The EQ-i 2.0 Scored Data Reports will be discounted to **$7.00 EACH** if you are approved for the research discount.

You will need one Scored Data Set Report for every participant in your study. For instance, if you have 100 participants, you will need to purchase 100 Scored Data Set Reports - $700.00.

The EQ-i 2.0 can only be administered and scored using the MHS Talent Assessment Portal, called TAP. Your participants will take the EQ-i 2.0 online using a link that you will send to them. Once the administrations are complete, you will log in to your TAP account to score these, and receive the Scored Data Set Report.

The TAP account will also grant you access to the EQ-i 2.0 Manual.

If you would like to purchase the EQ-I 2.0. please begin by returning the completed discount application to r&d@mhs.com

Thank you,
Betty

BETTY MANGOS
Permissions & Licensing Specialist

PHONE. 1
International –

EMAIL.

Appendix D: The Leadership Questionnaire

Directions: Please think your current supervisor. For each behavior listed in the left-hand column, please place an X in the box under the response that represents your response.

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Slightly Disagree**	**Slightly Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Drastically changes their demeanor when their supervisor is present						
Has explosive outbursts						
Controls how subordinates complete their tasks						
Tells subordinates they are incompetent						
Has a sense of personal entitlement						
Thrives on compliments and personal accolades						
Acts only in the best interest of their next promotion						
Is inflexible when it comes to organizational policies, even in special circumstances						
Ridicules subordinates						
Reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures						
Invades the privacy of subordinates						
Thinks that they are more capable than others						
Will only offer assistance to people who can help them get ahead						
Affects the emotions of subordinates when impassioned						
Publicly belittles subordinates						
Determines all decisions in the unit whether they are important or not						
Speaks poorly about subordinates to other people in the workplace						
Varies in their degree of approachability						
Does not permit subordinates to approach goals in new ways						

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Accepts credit for successes that do not belong to them						
Holds subordinates responsible for things outside their job descriptions						
Believes that they are an extraordinary person						
Causes subordinates to try to "read" their mood						
Is not considerate about subordinates' commitments outside of work						
Expresses anger at subordinates for unknown reasons						
Allows their current mood to define the climate of the workplace						
Denies responsibility for mistakes made in their unit						
Assumes they are destined to enter the highest ranks of my organization						
Allows their mood to affect their vocal tone and volume						
Will ignore ideas that are contrary to their own						

Directions: Please think your current supervisor. For each statement, circle your response using the ratings below each statement.

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader (follower) . . .[and] do you usually know how satisfied your leader (follower) is with what you do?

   Rarely: 1 Occasionally: 2 Sometimes: 3 Fairly often: 4 Very often: 5

2. How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?

   Not a bit: 1 A little: 2 A fair amount: 3 Quite a bit: 4 A great deal: 5

3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?

   Not at all: 1 A little: 2 A fair amount: 3 Quite a bit: 4 A great deal: 5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader (follower) has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader (follower) would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

   None: 1 Small: 2 Moderate: 3 High: 4 Very high: 5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader (follower) has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?

   None: 1 Small: 2 Moderate: 3 High: 4 Very high: 5

6. I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

   Strongly disagree: 1 Disagree: 2 Neutral: 3 Agree: 4 Strongly agree: 5

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (follower)?

   Extremely ineffective: 1; Worse than average: 2; Average: 3; Better than average: 4;

   Extremely effective: 5

Appendix E: Original and Revised EQ-I Composite and Subscales and Subscales and EQ-i Composite and Subscales

Original EQ-i	**Revised EQ-i, 2.0**
Intrapersonal • Self-Regard • Emotional Self-Awareness • Assertiveness • Independence • Self-Actualization **Interpersonal** • Empathy • Social Responsibility • Interpersonal Relationships **Stress Management** • Stress Tolerance • Impulse Control **Adaptability** • Reality-Testing • Flexibility • Problem Solving **General Mood** • Optimism • Happiness	**Self-Perception** • Self-Regard • Emotional Self-Awareness • Self-Actualization **Self-Expression** • Emotional Expression • Assertiveness • Independence **Interpersonal** • Interpersonal Relationships • Empathy • Social Responsibility **Decision Making** • Problem Solving • Reality Testing • Impulse Control **Stress Management** • Flexibility • Stress Tolerance • Optimism

Appendix F: Toxic Leadership Scale

Abusive Supervision: (α = .93),
1. Ridicules subordinates
2. Holds subordinates responsible for things outside their job descriptions
3. Is not considerate about subordinates' commitments outside of work
4. Speaks poorly about subordinates to other people in the workplace
5. Publicly belittles subordinates
6. Reminds subordinates of their past mistakes and failures
7. Tells subordinates they are incompetent

Authoritarian Leadership: (α = .89),
1. Controls how subordinates complete their tasks
2. Invades the privacy of subordinates
3. Does not permit subordinates to approach goals in new ways
4. Will ignore ideas that are contrary to his/her own
5. Is inflexible when it comes to organizational policies, even in special circumstances
6. Determines all decisions in the unit whether they are important or not

Narcissism: (α = .88),
1. Has a sense of personal entitlement
2. Assumes that he/she is destined to enter the highest ranks of my organization
3. Thinks that he/she is more capable than others
4. Believes that he/she is an extraordinary person
5. Thrives on compliments and personal accolades

Self-Promotion: (α = .91),
1. Drastically changes his/her demeanor when his/her supervisor is present
2. Denies responsibility for mistakes made in his/her unit
3. Will only offer assistance to people who can help him/her get ahead
4. Accepts credit for successes that do not belong to him/her
5. Acts only in the best interest of his/her next promotion

Unpredictability: (α = .92),
1. Has explosive outbursts
2. Allows his/her current mood to define the climate of the workplace
3. Expresses anger at subordinates for unknown reasons
4. Allows his/her mood to affect his/her vocal tone and volume
5. Varies in his/her degree of approachability
6. Causes subordinates to try to "read" his/her mood
7. Affects the emotions of subordinates when impassioned

Appendix G: LMX-7 Questionnaire

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader (follower) . . .[and] do you usually know how satisfied your leader (follower) is with what you do?

   Rarely: 1 Occasionally: 2 Sometimes: 3 Fairly often: 4 Very often: 5

2. How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?

   Not a bit: 1 A little: 2 A fair amount: 3 Quite a bit: 4 A great deal: 5

3. How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?

   Not at all: 1 A little: 2 A fair amount: 3 Quite a bit: 4 A great deal: 5

4. Regardless of how much formal authority your leader (follower) has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader (follower) would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

   None: 1 Small: 2 Moderate: 3 High: 4 Very high: 5

5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader (follower) has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?

   None: 1 Small: 2 Moderate: 3 High: 4 Very high: 5

6. I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

   Strongly disagree: 1 Disagree: 2 Neutral: 3 Agree: 4 Strongly agree: 5

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (follower)?

   Extremely ineffective: 1 Worse than average: 2 Average: 3 Better than average: 4

   Extremely effective: 5