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The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style in educational leaders

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND

LEADERSHIP STYLE IN EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Diana Fannon

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Ronald Stephens, Ed.D. — Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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VITA

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ABSTRACT

Current research suggests that emotional intelligence continues to grow in importance and is a

critical component of effective leadership. Although not usually listed as a specific job

requirement, high emotional intelligence allows one to make more informed decisions and to

solve problems more easily. A gap persists in research on emotional intelligence and leadership

in the K–12 setting and determining whether educational leaders possess the skills to lead

effectively, or if they need additional support in developing additional facility in emotional

intelligence to support students. This quantitative correlational study examined the relationship

between emotional intelligence and leadership style of educational leaders by surveying leaders

in the K–12 setting. Results suggested that individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence

are most likely to use a transformational-leadership style and least likely to use a laissez faire

leadership style. No gender-based differences emerged for leadership style or overall level of

emotional intelligence. This information will assist educational organizations and school districts

in a variety of ways most importantly in equipping current leaders with tools to make their

practice more effective. School districts may also use these findings to implement relevant

professional development that targets improving overall emotional intelligence and leadership

practice to benefit all employees, and specifically, to prepare future leaders.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Effective leaders continue to be in demand in the workplace, as companies seek individuals who can guide their companies and set dynamic vision, and employees seek individuals who can provide an effective example or role model. This search applies not only to those who perform job actions well, but those who manage emotions surrounding the job. The most sought leaders are often those who have successfully combined high emotional intelligence (EI) with effective leadership. Much of the research surrounding EI suggested that, "we perform better when we are good at recognizing and dealing with emotions in ourselves and others" (Abdul & Ehiobuche, 2011, p. 43). As a result, EI is receiving increased attention in the field of leadership as a critical, necessary component of a successful leader. These emotional skills increase one's ability to build relationships, and have also translated to more tangible outcomes.

Goleman et al. found that "superior analytical skills resulted in 50% greater monetary returns, while superior emotional capacity yielded 110% greater monetary returns" (as cited in Gragg, 2008, p. 244). Because an important component of leadership in the workplace is developing relationships and increasing revenues, EI is becoming more highly valued. Leaders often interact with a wide variety of individuals with a wide variety of skill levels, and must continue to increase their awareness of employee needs and abilities so they can respond appropriately. EI will assist all leaders in managing difficult situations and moving fluidly through changes and challenges, as "emotional common sense is needed when adapting to and working with people who bring a myriad of differences to the work context" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, pp. 222–223).

Background

"Education is constantly evolving, and is currently in a state of flux. Once seen as the great equalizer of society, education in the twenty-first century has now become a battleground for a host of societal tensions" (Neal, 2016, p. 75). Thus, the need is greater than ever before for leaders who are equipped with the skills and sensitivity to guide the current transition. Leaders will guide schools through the unique challenges that exist and ensure they continue to progress and implement positive change.

Leaders must build a close working relationship with the employees they supervise and create an environment in which employees feel safe. Psychological safety means an individual feels "able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (Kahn as cited in May, Gilson, & Harter, 2004, p. 15). In many circumstances, fear will cause individuals to resist trying new things in an attempt to avoid failure or to avoid damaging one's self-esteem or self-image. Therefore, to truly work to the best of one's ability, individuals must feel safe; they must feel they are able to try new things they have not previously attempted, even when failure is a possibility. If one knows they would experience no or few repercussions, they would maximize their creativity and would have a greater likelihood of accomplishing something unique and unexpected. May defined psychological availability as "an individual's belief that s/he has the physical, emotional, or cognitive resources to engage the self at work" (May et al., 2004, p. 17). Guiding individuals to perform at their peak level is good not only for the employee, but also for the organization, and "when people are thriving, they feel progress and momentum, marked both by a sense of learning (greater understanding and knowledge) and a sense of vitality (aliveness)" (Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005, p. 537).

Although safety, availability, and meaningfulness are important, it is critical that individuals have highly developed skills in the realm of EI. Such skills are important for managers as well as employees, as they will allow people to more clearly identify why they feel unsafe or why a particular aspect of their job lacks meaning for them. To help individuals develop their EI, one must first investigate and identify the definition of EI that will be employed. Goleman (1998b) defined EI as, "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317). It stands to reason, then, that significant benefits accrue from possessing a high level of EI to achieve personal satisfaction, derive positive meaning, and learn to thrive in the workplace. Increasing one's level of EI may also increase one's perceived level of psychological safety.

EI correlates to finding happiness and meaning from work. A high level of EI suggests individuals will be able to identify what truly excites them, where their strengths reside, and how to accept and use feedback to continue to grow. In addition, developing "emotional self-control" will also help employees be more successful and better able to function in any type of environment, under any circumstances, regardless of how stressful the situation may be (Goleman, 1998a). Individuals with high levels of EI will also have a better chance of improving their level of self-awareness. Improvements in self-awareness will likely lead to an increased desire to continue working on their EI. This cycle is one from which all individuals would benefit, recognizing the importance of regular engagement.

Very often, a primary goal of individuals who are recognized as leaders of their workplaces is ensuring employee job satisfaction. Without factoring in the feelings of employees and coaching those employees to develop new abilities and greater independence, the leaders'

visions may falter. Goleman (1998b) found that companies increase the likelihood of job burnout by giving employees "too much work to do, with too little time and support," lack of independence, few rewards (monetary or in other forms), social isolation, unequal treatment, and "value conflicts: a mismatch between a person's principles and the demands of their jobs" (pp. 289–290). To accomplish this goal, a leader needs to have self-awareness and be skilled in the critical building blocks of EI, such as teamwork and collaboration, as well as conflict management (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013).

In a study conducted from July 2006 to August 2007, 110 doctors and 2,872 of their patients completed interviews or a survey (Weng et al., 2011). The EI of the doctors "positively correlated with less burnout and higher levels of job satisfaction" and that "less burnout is significantly correlated with higher patient satisfaction and higher job satisfaction" (Weng et al., 2011, p. 840). Researchers postulated that doctors with high EI were better able to manage negative aspects of their job, such as stress (Weng et al., 2011). Working as a doctor requires one to interact with others throughout the day, so clearly, patients would derive more satisfaction from interactions with doctors who were deriving satisfaction from doing their job. If a doctor entered an examination room manifesting symptoms of stress, such as a clipped manner of speaking, an unhappy expression on their face, or an unwillingness to engage in conversation and answer questions, it is likely a patient would leave their appointment unsatisfied.

In a similar study conducted in 2010 that examined the behaviors of 123 secondary school teachers, researchers examined teachers' abilities to regulate their emotions (Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes, & Salovey, 2010).

> Teachers … experience intense, emotion-laden interactions on a daily basis and have a
> great number of emotional demands compared to most other professionals. The stress and

emotional demands associated with the teaching profession can lead to emotional and physical exhaustion, cynical attitudes about teaching, reduced feelings of personal accomplishment, and lower job satisfaction. (p. 406)

Because of these demands, having the ability to identify how one is feeling and to develop and implement strategies to cope with negative emotions—qualities associated with having high EI—would serve as protective factors. "The theory of EI assumes that individuals with high EI have better interpersonal and communication skills. Studies have demonstrated that EI has a positive impact on social relationships and job satisfaction" (Weng et al., 2011, p. 836).

The results of these two studies suggested that leaders, when tasked with managing employees, must manage stress and negativity to learn to cope with the stressful aspects of their job without allowing their stress to affect their interactions with others. Additionally, these study authors suggested that in the workplace, it would be beneficial for professional development to include strategies to manage emotions in the workplace in order to increase job efficacy and satisfaction for all employees (Brackett et al., 2010; Weng et al., 2011). Specifically, Brackett et al. (2010) suggested,

teacher-training programs focusing on developing emotion-regulation skills might result in a number of favorable outcomes … including increases in positive affect. … Teachers may experience less burnout and greater job satisfaction, remain in the profession longer, and be more effective in the classroom. (p. 415)

It is possible to generalize these results and consider that the development of these skills would have a positive impact on individuals in all industries and professions. Managers also should pay close attention to these results when planning professional development, so activities that allow individuals to build emotional regulation and other skills will enhance their EI.

Furthermore, employees will benefit from finding positive meaning in their work because they will be able to derive personal satisfaction from going to work every day. "Managers and organizations are said to benefit from the attention to emotion and learning in understanding how emotions can either hinder or aid the learning process at both an individual and an organizational level" (Rumens, 2005, p. 117). If managers simply address the manner in which employees respond to certain assignments, tasks, or pairings with other individuals, it is likely managers will be able to learn more about individual employees. May suggested managers can assist in increasing meaningfulness by the "effective design of jobs … and [learning] more about the personal aspirations and desires of employees in order to fit them to roles that will allow them to better express themselves" (May et al., 2004, p. 33). Although managers can certainly play a role in helping individuals thrive in the workplace, it is important for people to be aware of their own emotions to enable managers to help them. Therefore, it is critical to find a way to enhance EI. If a job lacks meaning, or if it runs counter to one's values, one is likely to experience internal conflict. In that case, it is possible that an individual will struggle with even the simplest tasks at work because they will be unable to develop justifications strong enough to motivate them to work.

Statement of the Problem

Current research suggests that EI continues to grow in importance, recognized as a critical component of effective leadership. Although not listed as a requirement for any jobs of individuals who will be participants in this study, researchers suggested that high EI allows one to make more informed decisions and to solve problems more easily. According to Pool, the senior editor of *Educational Leadership,* "emotional well-being is the strongest predictor of achievement in school and on the job" (as cited in Mayer & Cobb, 2000, p. 170). Hogan et al.

(2010) reported that those who have control over their emotions are more likely to make rational, thoughtful decisions, rather than resorting to "primitive fight or flight responses" (p. 39). However, researchers focused less on the K–12 setting and determining whether educational leaders possess the skills to lead effectively, or if they need additional support in developing additional facility in EI to support students (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007). A need persists to add to this body of research by investigating current leaders in education and examining their experiences and skill sets.

Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine whether a statistically significant relationship exists between EI and leadership style, with a focus on transformational-, transactional-, and laissez faire-leadership styles. This study aimed to further establish the importance of EI so educational leaders and school districts would understand the importance of this characteristic, thereby being motivated to adapt their own and others' leadership styles, if necessary, to establish more effective and enjoyable workplaces. Although extensive research exists on EI and leadership, a gap persists in the research focusing on the importance of EI in educational leaders, specifically in a K–12 setting.

Nature of the Study

This quasiexperimental study was quantitative and correlational. It was inferential in that the statistically valid results allowed readers to generalize from the current findings to the population studied. However, I was unable to establish direction of causation with a correlational study. The leadership styles examined were transformational, transactional, and laissez faire, to gather data regarding which is most common among the individuals surveyed. Chapter 2 will present an examination of the characteristics of individual leadership styles in greater detail.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transactional leadership?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transformational leadership?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and the laissez faire style of leadership?

4. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for a particular leadership style?

5. Do the results of the EI assessment suggest gender-based differences for overall EI level?

Significance of Topic

This study bears significance to two fields: the field of leadership and the field of EI. In delving into the study of EI and its intersection with leadership, valuable information emerged because "a leader's high [emotional intelligence] has been linked to the emotional climate of an organization and its … success" (Kreitz, 2009, pp. 531–532). An organization's leadership usually consists of multiple people, and the existence of EI is equally important for all members of the leadership team (Kreitz, 2009). EI "contributes to constructive thinking," which "can facilitate the generation of creative ideas to settle disagreements, arrive at win–win solutions, and ensure cooperation and trust in the workplace" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 222). With higher EI, each leader, in their respective field, can better able work with the employees they

supervise on a daily basis. By extension, such leaders would better serve their respective organizations.

This research is also significant to the field of leadership and specifically educational leadership. As school districts across the United States work to ensure academic success for all students in the face of continued budgetary constraints, educational leaders must take on multiple diverse responsibilities. Thus, "understanding the concept of emotional intelligence and its role in becoming a more effective leader becomes paramount for those of us in academic leadership positions" (Greenockle, 2010, p. 260). The importance of EI is becoming more established in education, and this study builds that credibility, adding to the existing but limited body of research. Educators will benefit from this research, determining if a connection exists between level of EI and the leadership style of educational leaders.

Key Definitions

- Correlational research: Research that strives to connect "two or more aspects of a situation or phenomenon" and "discover or establish the existence of a relationship, association, or interdependence" (Kumar, 2014, p. 13).

- Leader: Individuals who hold a significant role in their organization in that they are viewed from inside their organization as having "the ability to influence [their] group toward the achievement of a vision or set of goals. The source of this influence may be formal, such as that provided by managerial rank in an organization" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 376).

- Educational leader: District- and site-level administrators or teacher-leaders who serve as change agents in their workplace, thereby taking part in affecting change. Although district- or site-level administrators serve in a supervisorial role, teacher

leaders provide leadership through "non-supervisory, school-based instructional leader roles" (Poekert, 2012, p. 169). This is a role that builds on, "influence and interaction, rather than power and authority" (Poekert, 2012, p. 171).

- Emotional intelligence: Also referenced as EI, this is "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (Salovey & Mayer, as cited in Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011, p. 88). EI is sometimes referenced as *emotional quotient* (EQ) to provide a comparison to the abbreviation IQ for *intelligence quotient* (Goleman, 1998b).

- Emotional self-awareness: "Knowing what you feel when you feel it, having a vocabulary that enables you to describe emotions" (Maslen, 2008, para. 9).

- Leadership: "The ability to influence a group toward the achievement of a vision or a set of goals" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 410).

- Transformational leadership: A style of leadership "that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals" (p. 175) and often does exactly what the root of the word suggests, which is to help people develop new skills and move them toward becoming a new and better version of who they are (Northouse, 2007).

- Transactional leadership: This style "differs from transformational leadership in that the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates or focus on their personal development" (Northouse, 2007, p. 185). Leaders who use this style may use the "contingent reward" manner of encouraging compliance (Northouse, 2007, p. 185).

- Laissez faire leadership: Also referenced as the passive-avoidant leadership style, according to Northouse (2007), this type of leader has a "hands-off, let-things-ride approach" and, "makes little effort to help followers satisfy their need" (p. 186).

- Quantitative research: "A means for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed using statistical procedures" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4).

- Psychological safety: An individual feels "able to show and employ one's self without fear of negative consequences to self-image, status, or career" (Kahn, as cited in May et al., 2004, p. 15).

- Purposive sampling: Also referenced as *judgmental sampling*, the researcher uses "judgment as to who can provide the best information to achieve the objectives of [the] study" (Kumar, 2014, p. 244). In this type of sampling, the researcher will, "only go to those people who in your opinion are likely to have the required information and be willing to share it" (Kumar, 2014, p. 244).

- Snowball sampling: "The process of selecting a sample using networks" (Kumar, 2014, p. 244).

Theoretical Framework

Findings from Goleman's (1998a, 1998b, 2000, 2013) research on EI undergirded this research. A number of other works, including Bar-On's mixed model, and Salovey and Mayer's ability model of EI, contributed seminal findings to the field of EI and will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. Goleman's (1998a, 1998b, 2000, 2013) focused study on EI in the workplace framed this dissertation. Goleman noted that, "the rules for work are changing," and

those rules "[focus] instead on personal qualities, such as initiative and empathy, adaptability and persuasiveness" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 4). Goleman expanded: "emotional competence is particularly central to leadership, a role whose essence is getting others to do their jobs effectively" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 32).

Key Assumptions

The relevance of this study, as well as the validity of the results, rests on the honesty of those who participated. Therefore, a fundamental assumption is that those who participated provided information that is accurate, and that were completely honest when responding to questions. Another critical assumption was that the validity and reliability data provided by publishers of the assessments administered, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004) and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Self-Assessment (Genos, 2014) were sufficient to gain an understanding of educational leaders' perceptions of the importance and effect of their leadership styles and the frequency with which they "demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviours at work" (Genos, 2014, p. 1).

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to educational leaders who gave their consent to participate and began by using individuals known to this researcher; therefore personal bias may have been a limitation. I attempted to minimize bias by using objective questions on standardized survey questionnaires, as well as ensuring participants remain anonymous, once they contributed to the study. I continue to exercise caution when discussing generalizability of these results and the applicability to individuals and groups whose demographic characteristics differ significantly from those of the study participants.

Delimitations of the Study

The delimitation of this study is that the participants were educational leaders, defined as currently or previously serving in a role as a district- or site-level administrator or a teacher-leader in a K–12 educational setting.

Summary

Researchers have increasingly attended to EI and its importance in leadership. For example, Kobe, Reiter-Palmon, and Rickers wrote, "Individuals who are better able to assess and adapt to social situations are expected to be leaders" (2001, p. 154). Therefore, by examining individuals who are considered leaders in their organizations, I gathered information about the importance of EI in leadership. EI informs people's actions and assists people in making good decisions, because "without being aware of what you are feeling you cannot begin to behave or think appropriately" (Abdul & Ehiobuche, 2011, p. 44). Individuals who lead organizations need to ensure they are setting an example for others to follow and are able to accurately self-assess at all times. By gathering additional data on EI as it relates to leadership style, educational organizations will be better equipped to provide current leaders with valuable information about effective practices. More importantly, educators can use this information to prepare future leaders.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Overview

The purpose of this literature review is to examine the historical context of leadership and EI, including leadership theories and the evolution of EI models and current views. This literature review will also more closely assess the intersection of EI and leadership and the importance of emotionally intelligent leadership. Finally, this literature review will cover effective leadership and its role in establishing a positive organizational climate and effecting sustainable organizational change.

Significance of the Topic

When a team comes together, its members look to the leader for guidance and direction. Kotter (2012) stated that, "the word *vision* connotes something grand or mystical, but the direction that guides successful transformations is often simple and mundane" (p. 73). The vision guides the organization and its members toward their goal, whether the task is straightforward or complex. Leaders often set the tone and the pace for teams who need to work toward a goal. When employees engage in creating the vision and developing the strategy, their level of excitement and feeling of belonging may increase. Effective leaders can bring teams together and improve not only the internal, emotional state of the team, but its overall productivity as well. "Leaders project attitudes and feelings that affect others. Unless leaders can separate emotion, there will be a risk that emotion will *sway* judgment and intelligent decision making" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 773). Leaders support team members in working collaboratively toward the same end goal.

The benefits of working cohesively cannot be overstated, in part because one can gain immense personal satisfaction from successful team efforts, particularly on the part of the leader.

As George, Sims, McLean, and Mayer (2011) noted, "no individual achievement can equal the pleasure of leading a group of people to achieve a worthy goal" (p. 17). The leader and team members gain satisfaction from working together to achieve the vision. The leader's job is to ensure all team members feel they are part of the change vision and share in the vision. This aspect is crucial, because a "shared sense of a desirable future can help motivate and coordinate the kinds of actions that create transformations" (Kotter, 2012, p. 87). Empowering team members can help guarantee they work to further the organization's vision, which also helps to make leaders more effective, creating a type of virtuous circle. "Employees generally won't help, or can't help, if they feel relatively powerless" (Kotter, 2012, p. 106). Cooperative teamwork leads to a much higher level of employee satisfaction and organizational effectiveness, which is typically the goal of leaders.

The History and Evolution of Leadership Theories

Leadership is difficult to define, and that "there are almost as many different definitions of *leadership* as there are people who have tried to define it" (Northouse, 2007, p. 2). Lippitt (1969) wrote, "The quest for leadership is not a choice we make. It is a responsibility. We are leaders only as we give ourselves to the task of leadership" (p. 3). However, one way to conceptualize leadership is as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (Northouse, 2007, p. 3).

Throughout history, leadership has taken on different faces and forms; this chapter will touch on the evolution and varying conceptualizations briefly. One of the reasons for so many different theories of leadership is the difficulty of agreeing on what characterizes an effective leader. Beyond the efficacy of the individual leader, the performance of the group and the opinions of the followers are important when considering effective leadership models (Derue,

Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Thus, this is a complex and multi-faceted area of study.

> From early on, leadership style studies discriminated between two basic styles of leadership: relationship-oriented (democratic) versus task-oriented (autocratic). Although later studies have added more styles and combinations, there still is a dichotomy noticeable when authors write about complex adaptive and traditional systems, lead management and boss management, or creating resonance or dissonance. (Schoo, 2008, p. 42)

Despite significant gains made in leadership research, common themes remain, and leadership theories or approaches to leadership tend to fall into democratic or autocratic categories. However, researchers have also focused significant attention on the qualities that make effective leaders, which has led to attention on trait, behavior, and gender studies, among others.

Trait perspective. For centuries, people thought that those who become leaders do so by possession of a superior degree of certain personal traits such as "stamina, decisiveness, and composure, which make it their fate to reach positions of leadership in their organizations or societies" (Tucker, 1977, p. 383). This approach proposed "that certain individuals have special innate or inborn characteristics or qualities that make them leaders, and it is these qualities that differentiate them from nonleaders" (Northouse, 2007, p. 4). "This suggests that [leadership] resides *in* select people and restricts leadership to only those who are believed to have special, usually inborn, talents" (Northouse, 2007, p. 4). "Research suggests that leader traits related to task competence and interpersonal attributes are important predictors of leadership effectiveness" (Derue et al., 2011, p. 14). Traits that are generally considered critical to successful leaders include intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability (Northouse, 2007).

Another critical trait that has become important in leadership research is EI. Northouse (2007) suggested that "people who are more sensitive to their emotions and the impact of their emotions on others will be more effective leaders" (p. 23).

The strengths inherent in the trait perspective are supported by research conducted over many years (Cherry, 2016; Stogdill, 1974; Yukl, 2006), suggesting that "leaders are a special kind of people—people with gifts who can do extraordinary things" (Northouse, 2007, p. 24). Another positive aspect of this approach is that a plethora of research "points to the important role of various personality traits in the leadership process" (Northouse, 2007, p. 24). Finally, "focusing exclusively on the role of the leader" (p. 25) allows for a more thorough examination and assessment of the role of that individual; how the person is impacting their organization (Northouse, 2007).

Negative aspects of the trait approach also exist, such as the notion that some of the research "[has] been ambiguous and uncertain at times" (Northouse, 2007, p. 25). Additionally, limiting the definition of leaders to those individuals who possess certain characteristics suggests that *leadership* itself is a stable quality; that is, requires no attempt to factor "situational effects into the equation" (Northouse, 2007, p. 25). These "traits are largely fixed psychological structures, and this limits the value of teaching and leadership training" (Northouse, 2007, p. 26). Finally, as with the previous weaknesses, "this approach has resulted in highly subjective determinations of the most important leadership traits" (Northouse, 2007, p. 25). Multiple researchers may disagree on which traits will best serve a leader and will be most valued when an individual occupies a leadership role. Therein lies a challenge with the trait approach. However, "it can be applied by all individuals at all levels and in all types of organizations" (Northouse, 2007, p. 26) and therefore continues to offer useful information when occupying a

leadership role or when developing individuals who will eventually move into a leadership role (Northouse, 2007).

Behavioral theories. In contrast to trait-leadership theory are behavioral theories of leadership, suggesting that leaders can be made (Krumm, 2001). "One consistent theme in the literature is that behaviors can be fit into four categories: task-oriented behaviors, relational-oriented behaviors, change-oriented behaviors, and what we refer to as passive leadership" (Derue et al., 2011, p. 15). Because behaviors can be taught, leaders can learn to behave in a certain way to be successful. Transactional and transformational leadership are behavioral-leadership theories, examined in greater detail later.

Situational-leadership theory. Situational-leadership theory, developed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969, indicated four different areas of leadership behavior: supporting, coaching, delegating, and directing. These behaviors are present to varying degrees, depending on the individual with whom the leader is working (see Figure 1).

Whereas situational leadership has varying degrees of success, demonstrating flexibility in the form of adaptive leadership, particularly in complex workplace situations, it continues to be a highly valued characteristic of leaders. "Hersey and Blanchard's model continues to be popular for leadership training but has been criticized for lack of research support and for generating self-fulfilling prophesies" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 342). This need for innovation and flexibility is one of the reasons research has increased into the field of transformational leadership, as transformational leaders are thought to connect with individuals on a personal level, and to motivate them to action (Bolman & Deal, 2013). "Being flexible and adaptive often includes finding innovative ways to deal with new problems and opportunities, but the types of decisions and actions needed for effective leadership may not be consistent with traditional role

expectations in an organization" (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010, p. 84). Transformational leadership has become increasingly popular in recent years, as "a number of studies [confirmed] that transformational leaders had a more powerful impact than those who relied only on transactional leadership" (Bolman & Deal, 2013, p. 343).
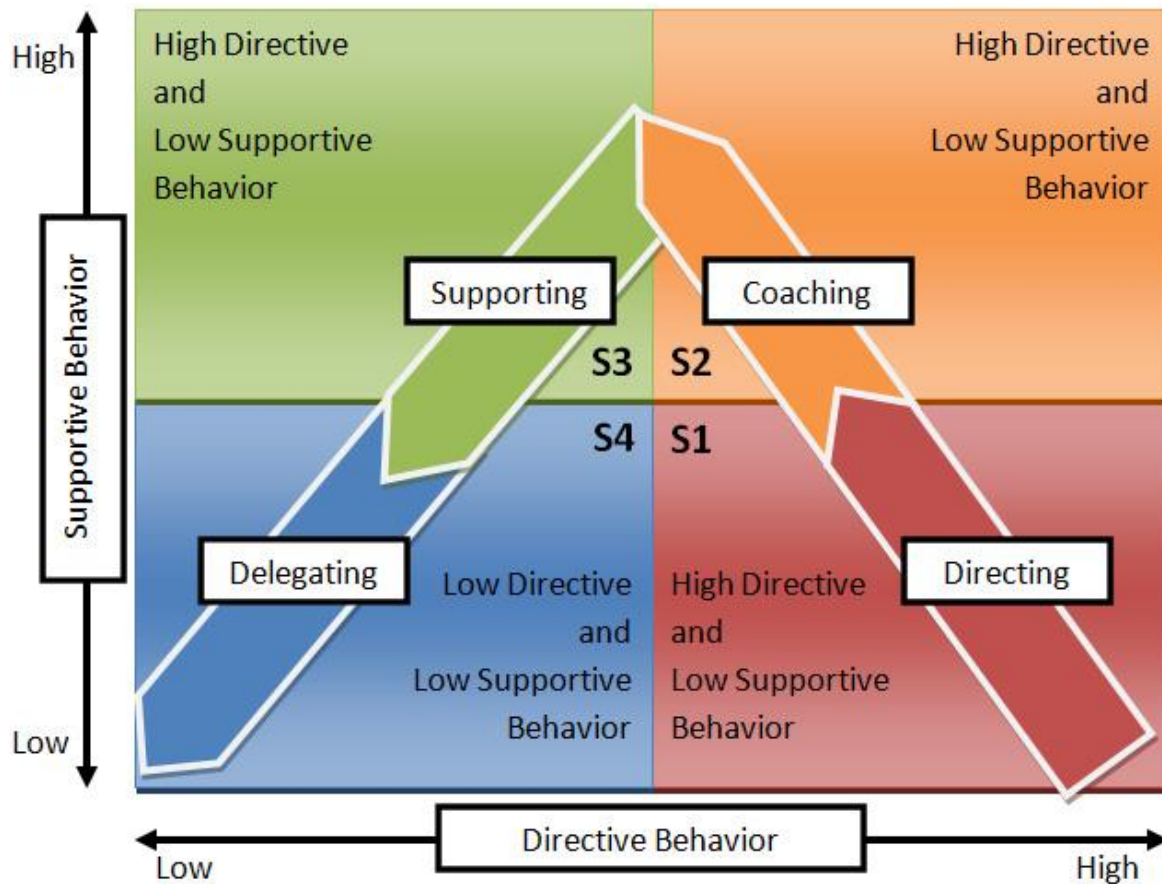
Figure 1. Leadership style: Hersey–Blanchard situational-leadership theory. From Leadership Style: Hersey–Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory (Web log), by E. Franceschi, 2014, retrieved August 13, 2015, from http://tlmacademy.blogspot.com/2014/02/leadership-stylehersey -blanchard.html. Reprinted with permission.

Transformational leadership. Bass first popularized transformational leadership, "concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals" and often does what the root of the word suggests: help people develop new skills and move them toward becoming a new and better version of who they are (Northouse, 2007, p. 175). The critical elements of a

transformational leader, depicted in Figure 2, are inspirational motivation, intellectual

stimulation, idealized influence, and individualized consideration.
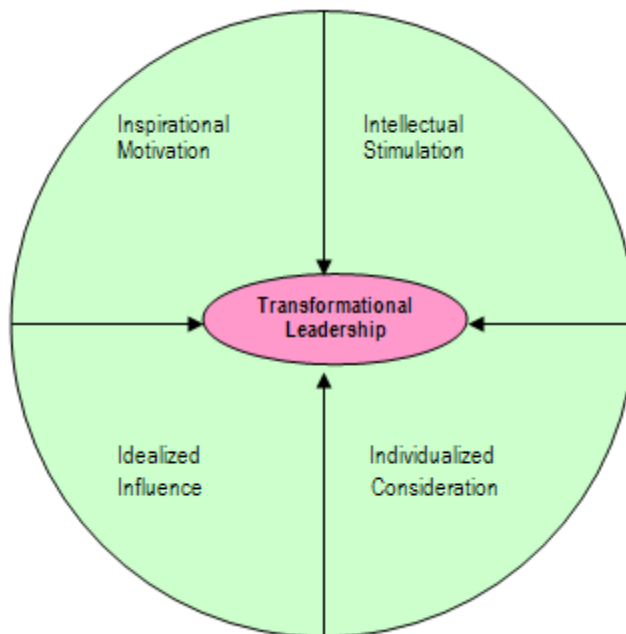
Figure 2. Critical elements of transformational leadership (2018). From Transformational
Leadership Theory, by P. Juneja, 2018, retrieved February 28, 2018, from http://
managementstudyguide.com/transformational-leadership.htm. Reprinted with permission.

As a leadership style, transformational leaders attempt to truly transform individuals and

help them move beyond what they believed possible. It "is the process whereby a person engages

with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the

leader and the follower" (Northouse, 2007, p. 176). The role of leaders is to motivate their

followers by finding a way to build relationships, or to connect "with them emotionally, which

provides the opportunity to share a vision" (Vito, Higgins, & Denney, 2014, p. 810).

Transformational leaders work to move their teams toward a future goal and vision.

"Transformational leaders … seek different perspectives from group members, challenge

assumptions, and take risks" (Derue et al., 2011, p. 17).

Transactional leadership. Whereas transformational leadership focuses on the individual and their needs, transactional leadership centers more on employees accomplishing tasks in exchange for agreed rewards. "Transactional leadership differs from transformational leadership in that the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates or focus on their personal development" (Northouse, 2007, p. 185). Organizations set goal for its members, and the transactional leader ensures these goals are met. This style of leadership emphasizes the hierarchical nature of the leader–follower relationship and "is commonly used in education in the relationship between instructors and students" (Khan, 2017, p. 179). "Transactional leaders make clear what is expected in terms of task performance and the rewards for meeting those expectations" (Derue et al., 2011, p. 16), and the system of clear expectations and consequences may help teams increase their overall productivity.

Most research on transactional leadership reflects a comparison between transactional and transformational forms as a significant focus of research in recent years (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Bolman & Deal, 2013). Some researchers suggested that "transactional leadership may not work in the long-term due to the fact that it is only motivating on a base level and fails to motivate individuals beyond the set goal" (Khan, 2017, p. 181). A solely transactional leadership style tends to be less effective, although it is helpful at times, particularly with a skilled leader who is "active, and arranges to … monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors" and "take corrective action as necessary" (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 4). However, using transactional leadership effectively requires that environmental and human elements are considered. If they are not, "there is more of a chance that decisions will be made without all factors being considered, leading to poor decision making" (Khan, 2017, p. 180).

Laissez faire leadership. The laissez faire leader has a "hands-off, let-things-ride approach" (Northouse, 2007, p. 186): "This leader abdicates responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes little effort to help followers satisfy their need" (p. 186). Significantly less research exists on this style of leadership than others. According to Skogstad, Hetland, Glasø, and Einarsen (2014), "research on laissez-faire leadership is scarce compared to the abundant studies on [other styles]" (p. 323). Additionally, individuals avoiding responsibility often characterizes this type of leadership, holding little or no concern about what is best for the organization or what is best for employees in the organization. This lack of concern is often apparent in that employees are often uncertain about their assignments or the ultimate vision. Finally, and perhaps most striking about this type of leadership, is that it is "closely related to subordinates experiencing stressful work situations characterized by a lack of clarity regarding duties and responsibilities within the organization" (Skogstad et al., 2014, p. 324). Despite a dearth of research on this style of leadership, likely because of the aforementioned negative characteristics and risks when it is implemented, more attention should be devoted to it because of the inherent risks (Skogstad et al., 2014). Researchers often pay significant attention to more effective or more positive forms of leadership, rather than training individuals on those forms that should be avoided. This lack of training is a great risk for future leaders, their followers, and the organizations who will employ both.

Gender and Leadership

A growing body of research focuses on gender and leadership style. For example, Ayman and Korabik (2010) found that "women and ethnocultural minorities still confront many leadership-related challenges" (p. 157). According to Northouse (2007), "empirical research supports small differences in leadership style and effectiveness between men and women"

(p. 268). Specifically, "women's styles tend to be more transformational than men's, and they also tend to engage in more contingent reward behaviors than men, all of which are aspects of leadership that predict effectiveness" (Northouse, 2007, p. 267). Although researchers suggested some differences in style preference, overall efficacy appears to be more or less the same. Women occupy a significant number of management positions, but these tend to be "middle management" rather than CEO, superintendent, or other top executive positions (Bolman & Deal, 2013). According to Quader (2011), citing research by Heilman et al. (1995), "terms used to describe successful managers included competence, independence, and rationality, typically masculine terms … and typically not used to describe women. Among male and female managers, women were scored lower than men on attributes of success" (p. 6). Therefore, the rationale for women's placement in middle management, for lack of promotion to C-level positions, tends to rest more on perception than empirical data.

Flexibility in Leadership

Many leaders find the most success in practicing multiple styles of leadership, or moving flexibly between styles depending on the situation, engaging situational leadership. Goleman suggested leaders will be more effective if they exhibit traits of multiple styles, and "switch flexibly among the leadership styles as needed" (Goleman, 2000, p. 11). Flexible individuals will be "exquisitely sensitive to the impact they are having on others and seamlessly adjust their style to get the best results" (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). This finding of the need for a sensitivity to and awareness of the emotional needs of others has led to an increasing focus on linking EI with leadership.

Although various leadership styles each have positive and negative attributes, moving flexibly and fluidly between the styles is the hallmark of a strong leader. One way for leaders to

transition between styles is to first be aware of the leadership style they demonstrate most often, as well as to be aware of their own level of EI. Then, leaders can focus on "which emotional intelligence competencies underlie the leadership styles they are lacking" (Goleman, 2000, p. 90). Leaders require a high degree of self-awareness so that they can be well-acquainted with the skill set they possess, and those they may continue to develop.

> Lead managers will benefit from having more tools in their toolbox to manage. They are well equipped in relation to EI but could benefit from having more leadership styles available to them that may suit the strengths they have and the situations they are in, therefore making their leadership more effective. (Schoo, 2008, p. 44)

Goleman et al. (2013) described a leadership model built on styles that may have previously gone by different names, but indicated these rely on "an understanding of the underlying emotional intelligence capabilities" (p. 54). Table 1 illustrates the styles.

Table 1

Goleman's Leadership Styles

Leadership style	How it builds resonance	Impact on climate	When appropriate
Visionary	Moves people toward shared dreams	Most strongly positive	When changes require a new vision, or when clear direction is needed
Coaching	Connects what a person wants with the organization's goals	Highly positive	To help an employee improve performance by building long-term capabilities
Affiliative	Creates harmony by connecting people to each other	Positive	To heal rifts in a team, motivate during stressful times, or strengthen connections
Democratic	Values people's input and gets commitment through participation	Positive	To build buy-in or consensus, or to get valuable input from employees
Pacesetting	Meets challenging and exciting goals	Because too frequently poorly executed, often highly negative	To get high-quality results from a motivated and competent team
Commanding	Soothes fears by giving clear direction in an emergency	Because so often misused, highly negative	In a crisis, to kick-start a turnaround, or with problem employees

Note. From *Primal Leadership: Unleashing the Power of Emotional Intelligence,* by D. Goleman, R. Boyatzis, & A. McKee, 2013, Boston, MA, Harvard Business Review Press, p. 55, as text.

Each of the styles described in Table 1 can be classified into the relationship-oriented or task-oriented leadership style, as discussed earlier. However, they can also link closely with aspects of emotionally intelligent behaviors. Goleman found that the affiliative-leadership style focuses on "building strong emotional bonds" (Goleman, 2000, p. 84). The importance of high EI cannot be overstated, as "emotionally intelligent leaders understand the difference between being *too emotional* and *not being emotional enough*" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 775, emphasis in the original). "Having the ability to *read* body language, *especially their own,* gives them a distinct advantage, for they know how to project the message they want others to receive by using *their own body language*" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 775, emphasis in original).

Affiliative-leadership styles value components of EI and value aspects in which building relationships will be of importance in achieving success as a leader. In fact, many of the styles described by Goleman are relationship driven, such as affiliative leadership. The affiliative leader will know much about the teams with whom they work (Goleman, 2000). The democratic leader is open to hearing concerns and feedback from employees, which may contribute to employees feeling they are an important part of the team and that their opinions are an important part of the team (Goleman, 2000). In some cases, this may include "endless meetings where… consensus may be elusive, and the only visible result may be scheduling more meetings" (Goleman, 2000, p. 85). Coaching leaders will work with team members to "identify their unique strengths and weaknesses and tie them to their personal and career aspirations" (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). Employees will be involved in accomplishing tasks, and will take part in achieving the team vision; "these leaders are willing to put up with short-term failure if it furthers long-term learning" (Goleman, 2000, p. 87). Goleman found that "coaching is used least often" because,

"many leaders … don't have the time in this high-pressure economy for the slow and tedious work of teaching people and helping them grow" (Goleman, 2000, p. 87).

In general, leadership styles may evolve, and different names may be applied, but similarities continue to exist. However, a new trend, and an important one, is that EI is a critical component of leadership. EI continues to require more research to acquire a greater understanding of its role.

Emotional Intelligence

EI as a construct is significant and relevant to current organizational climates and educational settings. Prior to currently recognized theories, EI went through several iterations, and many different names. It has been linked to Darwin (Bar-On, 2006) and later to Thorndike. Thorndike introduced the concept of social intelligence (1920) and is referenced as "a pioneer in theory and research on intelligence" (Landy, 2005, p. 414). Gardner introduced a theory of multiple intelligences in 1983, initially listing seven types of intelligence ranging from mathematical to interpersonal; Gardner later revising this list to include additional types of intelligence. Salovey and Mayer formally defined the concept of EI in 1990 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 thinking and action" (p. 189). Goleman gained significant attention from the press with two journal articles in 1990 and then popularized the notion with a "best selling book *Emotional Intelligence* [which] began with the early version of [Salovey and Mayer's] EI model but mixed in many other personality traits" (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008, p. 503).

The education system picked up on the term quickly because Goleman's "book saw rudeness, irresponsibility, and violence as a serious problem," and "the book claimed that

scientists had discovered a link between high emotional intelligence and prosocial behavior," and "claimed that emotional intelligence was 'as powerful, and at times more powerful, than IQ' in predicting success in life" (Mayer & Cobb, 2000, pp. 163–164). Individuals involved in education-policy development were interested in examining a relationship between EI and socioemotional learning (Mayer & Cobb, 2000). In addition, "policy experts quickly accepted the idea that emotional intelligence predicted success" (Mayer & Cobb, 2000, p. 170). According to the senior editor of *Educational Leadership,* "emotional well-being is the strongest predictor of achievement in school and on the job" (Pool, as cited in Mayer & Cobb, 2000, p. 170).

EI plays a role in all phases of life, and children who learn or exhibit EI early in life may be well placed for academic and career success. Similarly, a body of emerging research has targeted the importance of the EI skills in educational leaders, suggesting that the principal who is "anxious and insecure" will find that in the staff and overall school climate, as will the principal who has a "calm demeanor" and "[connects] well with teachers and parents" (Goodwin & Hein, 2015, p. 83). EI is an area that is growing in importance and is becoming increasingly relevant to many areas, particularly to the development of effective leadership skills. Despite this notion, critics of the overall concept and the underlying tenets exist, and it is important to examine these.

Criticism of emotional intelligence. One of the criticisms has been the lack of data and a feeling that much of what is written is subjective, as in the case of Antonakis (2004), who noted that, "EI's proponents need to move science forward, objectively" (p. 179). Locke (2005) echoed a similar concern, indicating that EI is not a skill, but a choice, and wrote that, "monitoring one's emotions is basically a matter of where one chooses to focus one's attention, outwards at the external world or inward at the contents and processes of one's own consciousness" (p. 426).

Locke (2005) further noted that much of what was written about EI may have been an attempt to offer skills to those who might not otherwise have them, but "arbitrary definitions do not change reality. Some people actually are more intelligent, in terms of their ability to grasp concepts, than others" (p. 426). Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2012) noted that the concept was not significantly different from anything that existed previously. Locke (2005) directed specific criticism at the connection between EI and leadership, and Goleman, stating, "EI's extension into the field of leadership is even more unfortunate. By asserting that leadership is an emotional process, Goleman denigrates the very critical role played by rational thinking and actual intelligence in the leadership process" (p. 430). Researchers directed additional criticism at the lack of an accurate measurement tool to assess one's level of EI because of the heavy reliance on self-assessment (Matthews et al., 2012). The next sections include an examination of EI models, which offer a detailed look at the foundation of EI as well as the theoretical background for this research.

Bar-On's Emotional Intelligence model. Bar-On learned of the concept of EI by reading Goleman's (2006) book. The mixed model, with abilities and skills detailed, and may impact one's EI. This model, "describes an array of interrelated emotional and social competencies and skills that affect intelligent behavior" (Di Fabio, Palazzeschi, & Bar-On, 2012, p. 120). Further, the Bar-On model suggested the following:

> Emotional-social intelligence … is a multi-factorial array of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that influence one's ability to recognize, understand and manage emotions, to relate with others, to adapt to change and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature, and to efficiently cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures. (Bar-On, 2006, p. 22)

Bar-On (2006) also referenced a measure called the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), created as part of a dissertation study, but realized its significance after reading Goleman's book (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). Bar-On stated that this measure "played an instrumental role in developing the model" (2006, p. 13) and indicated it was a useful tool for companies implementing EI in their planning. Bar-On (2006) stated, "human resources personnel in organizations could…make more widespread use of this model … in hiring, training, and succession planning in order to increase individual effectiveness and organizational productivity" (p. 22).

Mayer and Salovey's Emotional Intelligence model. After Mayer and Salovey (1997) eventually reworked their initial theory on emotional intelligence, they settled on the premise that EI consisted of "the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth" (p. 10). Mayer and Salovey first described the four components of their ability model in 1997:

- *Emotional perception* is the building block on which the others rest, described as "the ability to become aware of emotions in the self and in others" and is "necessary but not sufficient" for the other three components to exist (Harper & White, 2013, p. 3). This branch also includes detecting "honest and false" emotions (Brackett et al., 2011, p. 91).

- *Emotional facilitation* is when "emotions are not only sensed, but they also begin to prioritize thinking and can be seen to expand and improve cognitive processing" (Harper & White, 2013, p. 3).

- *Emotional understanding* allows one to experience multiple, often conflicting, emotions, and begin to process these emotions in a way that influences one's actions (Brackett et al., 2011). Harper and White (2013) stated that, "the cause and effect relationships between events and emotions add to knowledge" and that "knowing what the likely chains are can influence how you act in various situations" (pp. 3-4).

- *Emotional management* has been termed the "action branch" (Harper & White, 2013, p. 4). Emotional management begins with being "open to feelings, both those that are or are not comfortable," and then moves into developing "the ability to control the effect of the emotions perceived, either by engaging in the emotion or by detaching from it" (Harper & White, 2013, p. 4). Finally, an individual will show strength in "reflectively monitoring emotions in oneself and in others, and being able to recognize the effects of emotions on behavior and then combining this with the lessons learned from emotional understanding" (Harper & White, 2013, p. 4).

Mayer and Salovey also discussed the importance of using performance-based measures to assess EI. They developed the Mayer, Salovey, Caruso Emotional Intelligence Scale. This assessment takes approximately 45 minutes and produces four scores, one for each component of the model (Brackett et al., 2011).

Goleman's model. Goleman's model is a mixed model similar to that of Salovey and Mayer (1990). Goleman's (1998b) theory builds on the work of predecessors: Bar-On, Gardner, and Salovey and Mayer. Goleman (1998b) defined EI as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317). In particular, Goleman "adapted [the Salovey and Mayer] model into a version most useful for understanding how these talents matter in work life"

(Goleman, 1998b, pp. 317–318). The author listed five critical components: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 1998b).

The theories and definitions of EI have evolved over time, but the basic premise has not changed significantly: the emotionally intelligent person can capitalize fully on his or her changing moods to best fit the task at hand. For example, focusing on "the third branch of EI, understanding emotions … encompasses the ability to be sensitive to slight variations between emotions, such as the difference between happy and ecstatic" (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, pp. 281–282). The understanding of language, verbal and nonverbal, and relationships allow individuals to find success in a number of intricate situations. This understanding can apply to individuals across settings and in a number of scenarios. The examination of EI in the work environment is of particular importance in this literature review.

Emotional Intelligence in the Workplace

EI is an incredibly valuable skill, as the individual traits that make up the collective quality of EI are valuable in many situations in life. "High EI correlates with better relationships in business settings as well. Managers higher in EI are better able to cultivate productive working relationships with others" (Mayer et al., 2008, p. 511). However, those traits are even more critical in the work environment, where individuals come into contact with a high number of individuals, and leaders, in particular, are often responsible for the well-being of significant numbers of individuals while attempting to accomplish goals. High levels of EI suggest a greater likelihood of success (Mayer & Cobb, 2000, p. 170). For example, level of EI, rather than overall intelligence (IQ), is likely to predict school principals' ability to effectively lead their school (Gilio & Dorsey, 2016). Goleman (1998b) further expanded on the components of EI as follows:

- Self-awareness: "the ability to recognize and understand your moods, emotions, and drives, as well as their effect on others" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 88)

- Self-regulation: includes "the ability to control or redirect disruptive impulses and moods" and individuals will be characterized by "trustworthiness and integrity" and "openness to change" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 88)

- Motivation: "A passion to work for reasons that go beyond money or status" with "optimism, even in the face of failure" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 88)

- Empathy: "Skill in treating people according to their emotional reactions" which may be demonstrated with "expertise in building and retaining talent" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 88)

- Social skill: "Proficiency in managing relationships and building networks" characterized by "effectiveness in leading change" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 88)

Stronger self-awareness and empathy may characterize higher levels of EI in leaders (Goleman, 1998b). These individuals will work well with others, will connect with their team members, and will inspire others in difficult situations. This capacity becomes valuable to leaders, particularly in that many employees have reported feeling that because their leaders (or bosses) received higher monetary compensation, those employees were less sympathetic to hearing from their superiors regarding difficulty coping with stress, or difficulty processing any emotional reactions on the job. This finding is an important reminder that all aspects of decision making need to be considered, and why high EI is so important (Ginsberg, 2008, p. 294). Although leaders work to connect with their teams, a divide occasionally remains of a mutually supportive connection.

Authentic leaders build extraordinary support teams to help them stay on course. Those teams counsel them in times of uncertainty, help them in times of difficulty, and celebrate with them in times of success. After their hardest days, leaders find comfort in being with people on whom they can rely so they can be open and vulnerable. (George et al., 2011, p. 15)

The army's model of leadership also includes valuable information that is relevant to current leadership studies, as "there are very few tasks in the army more important than developing effective, competent leaders" (McDonald, 2013, p. 2). McDonald (2013) cited that "higher levels of moral reasoning were related to leader effectiveness in obtaining established objectives" (pp. 3–4). The Army's *Field Manual* had little writing on EI, but previous research on "U.S. Navy human resource officers … revealed a positive and significant correlation between the officers' overall EI and effectiveness as a leader" (McDonald, 2013, p. 4). Although not explicitly addressed as valued in the armed forces, researchers suggested that "general intelligence has little impact on a leader's performance unless he or she possesses some of the social and interpersonal skills necessary in motivating and directing a group to a common objective" (McDonald, 2013, p. 6). In support of that concept, "emotionally intelligent leaders are more sensitive to their own emotions and the effect they have on others" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 771).

Leaders with high EI are likely to be more attuned to their own and others' needs and aware of how to make the best decisions to serve everyone's needs. Most importantly, people can learn these skills. "Some of the traits identified as most important build on an individual's innate personal qualities. Many researchers and practitioners agree that EI traits can be acquired

and strengthened through practice and training" (Kreitz, 2009, p. 547). Training can be

implemented through many formats to improve EI traits in individuals (Kreitz, 2009).

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Organizations continually seek individuals who can be effective leaders. More than 20

years prior to the mainstream entry of EI, Lippitt (1969) noted, "the effective leader understands

himself," and that "the person who best understands himself is best able to confront situations

and lead others" (p. 2). EI has a clear role in leadership, but it is also clear that some critical

aspects of emotionally intelligent leaders are difficult to quantify.

> Emotional intelligence (EI) is about being aware of your own needs and those of others,
> and working with both the best you can. It is about priming positive attitudes and
> behaviors. In relation to the concept of priming, Goleman and colleagues coined the term
> *primal leader* for leaders that use EI. (Schoo, 2008, p. 40)

Because of the primary role a leader occupies in an organization, they can impact the emotions

of those around them, making it even more important that they are aware of their own emotions

and that they foster positive relationships with their team members. Leaders with high EI are

more likely to be skilled in these areas.

Goleman (1998a) noted several areas considered important when considering EI. One is

the ability to regulate and recognize traits in oneself as they may impact an individual internally,

as well as ways an individual may interact socially and impact other individuals in that setting

(Mayer & Cobb, 2000). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, EI as an official term was first

defined in 1990. However, in 1969, before the term had been officially defined, the concept

existed and was of critical importance when referencing ideal leadership qualities. For example,

Lippitt noted , "the effective leader can cope because he has a good relationship between his

philosophy of life and his philosophy of management. The attitudes and values he holds condition the way he manages" (1969, p. 3). Lippitt further mentioned skills such as coping, flexibility, willingness to change, and being a person who "establishes trust with those with whom he works" (1969, p. 3).

Self-awareness. Leaders bear a great responsibility for guiding a team and an organization toward the achievement of a vision. "To guide the emotional tone of a group, however, leaders must first have a sure sense of their own direction and priorities—which brings us back again to the importance of self-awareness" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 31). Multiple researchers have noted the importance of high EI as an important component of an effective leader. However, companies are not built on the back of a single person. "Institutions that endure thrive not because of one leader's charisma, but because they cultivate leadership throughout the system" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 36). "By its very nature then, leadership includes a social component. It is not surprising that individuals who are better able to assess and adapt to social situations are expected to be leaders" (Kobe et al., 2001, p. 154).

"Leaders who are also pacesetters—focused exclusively on high performance—often think they're coaching when actually they're micromanaging or simply telling people how to do their jobs" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 61). In this situation, EI becomes critically important once again, particularly its self-awareness aspect. The leader who is not aware of their own behavior will repeat the same behavior, to the detriment of their employees and the organization as a whole. "Emotional self-awareness creates leaders who are authentic, able to give advice that is genuinely in the employee's best interest rather than advice that leaves the person feeling manipulated or even attacked" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 62).

Individuals must create and navigate interpersonal relationships in many aspects of life: work, school, and community. Certain skills in establishing and maintaining relationships are necessary. "Emotions have adaptive functions," which suggests that, "accurately interpreting emotional signals may provide substantial evolutionary advantages" (Fiori & Antonakis, 2012, p. 245). The question remains whether EI is part of an individual's personality, a learned trait, or a type of intelligence (Fiori & Antonakis, 2012). If viewed as (or proven to be) an ability, this implies that individuals can develop or increase their skills in accurately assessing, interpreting, and responding to emotional cues.

The fundamental aspect of having a well-developed EI is possessing "emotional self-awareness, knowing what you feel when you feel it, having a vocabulary that enables you to describe emotions" (Maslen, 2008, para. 9). Goleman (1998b) found that companies can increase the likelihood of job burnout by giving employees "too much work to do, with too little time and support," lack of independence, few rewards (monetary or in other forms), social isolation, unequal treatment, and "value conflicts: a mismatch between a person's principles and the demands of their jobs" (pp. 289–290). Workers generally look for fulfillment in three areas: meaningfulness to them, their feeling of safety in the workplace, and their availability to do the work required of them (May et al., 2004, p. 33). According to Weng et al. (2011), psychological meaningfulness is the "value of a work goal or purpose, judged in relation to an individual's own ideals or standards" (p. 14).

Successful leaders—those individuals who increase a company's productivity in a sustainable way, or presidents who lead a country out of war—are often admired and frequently held as examples of effective leaders. Important questions about how those individuals include what they were able to do what they did and what skills and traits others should try to emulate.

Goleman (1998a) noted, "it would be foolish to assert that good-old-fashioned IQ and technical ability are not important ingredients in strong leadership. But the recipe would not be complete without emotional intelligence" (p. 102). In reviewing the tenure of past presidents, "the key quality that differentiated the successful (such as Roosevelt, Kennedy, and Reagan) from the unsuccessful (such as Johnson, Carter, and Nixon) was emotional intelligence" (Robbins & Judge, 2011, p. 113). McClelland "found that leaders with strengths in a critical mass of six or more emotional intelligence competencies were far more effective than peers who lacked such strengths" (Goleman, 2000, p. 80).

Goleman (1998b) cited research from the Hay/McBer consulting firm that found six leadership styles that suggested "a direct and unique impact on the working atmosphere of a company, division, or team, and in turn, its financial performance" and "perhaps most importantly, the research indicates that leaders with the best results do not rely on only one leadership style; they use most of them in a given week—seamlessly and in different measure— depending on the business situation" (pp. 78–80). Leaders not only need to be intelligent but need to be flexible and intuitive. A high level of EI will allow a leader to assess occurrences and determine which style best fits the situation. Further, when trying to make changes in an organization, whether large or small, a leader's level of EI will come into play as the leader guides the change. "With emotional information, leaders can build trust and cooperation, display empathy to employees, display social awareness, develop collaboration, understand the loss that people experience during the change process, and display skill in addressing issues and solving problems" (Moore, 2009, p. 22).

Emotionally intelligent leaders are likely to display an intuitive ability to understand what the organization needs, and more importantly, what the individuals in the organization need.

"Leaders who utilize relationship, empathy, and problem-solving behaviors are likely to have both a clear understanding of what is needed in a situation and how to communicate information in such a way that it can really be heard" (Pearman, 2011, p. 69). It is also likely that these leaders will be able to see the best in individuals and in situations, and "optimistic leaders are more satisfying to work with and for" (Pearman, 2011, p. 69).

Strong leadership is important because results and employees are important. Although each organization may define results differently, employee satisfaction and retention are objective measures valued by all.

> Positive leadership has been associated with outcomes that include happy relationships, teamwork, learning, recognition, staff retention, and health and wellbeing. There is evidence that emotionally intelligent leaders in workplaces are able to bring about these positive outcomes because they are attuned to the emotions that move people around them. (Schoo, 2008, p. 40)

Though it has become increasingly clear that emotionally intelligent leaders benefit organizations and their employees, it may be difficult to pinpoint exactly how these leaders function. Though much research detailed the traits these leaders possess, their presentation may simply be "consistent with what most people would identify as good communication skills in the professional environment" (Gragg, 2008, p. 251). The emotionally intelligent leader will be able to communicate thoughts and feelings effectively, and will receive the messages accurately from employees.

Strong leaders are responsible for more than just creating a successful organization. They are responsible for the people in the organization. Increasingly, happiness, safety, and security at work link with the health of the workers.

Psychosocial environmental conditions such as work overload, high organizational

tension, career limitations, and high personal constraints have been associated with

illness and absenteeism, yet these conditions can be addressed by good management.

Emotions and behaviors experienced and/or encountered by managers and their staff may

include fear and anxiety, insecurity, defensive or irrational behavior, anger, aggression,

arrogance, and controlling behavior. (Schoo, 2008, pp. 41–42)

Managers' EI and awareness allows individuals to perceive the condition of the work

environment and ensures the work conditions alleviate, rather than cause, symptoms such as

tension and anxiety.

One way to view "emotionally intelligent leadership" is "as the development and

application of emotional and social skills to positively influence others" (Kobe et al., 2001,

p. 155). Kobe et al. (2001) cited a study by Sosik and Megerian that found "individuals high in

EI may be more likely to participate in leadership experiences and perhaps may be more likely to

be effective leaders" (p. 156). Thus, a higher level of EI may lead one to seek more leadership

opportunities, to be selected for more leadership opportunities, or simply to be better equipped

for leadership opportunities. This study by Sosik and Megerian (1999) also found that "managers

who had been rated high on transformational leadership had more satisfied subordinates, were

seen as more effective, and were seen as putting forth more effort than were managers rated low

on transformational leadership" (as cited in Kobe et al., 2001, p. 156).

Using Emotional Intelligence to Adapt Leadership Style

Frankl famously "remarked that the only thing human beings can control is their own

reactions (emotions) to the situations in which they find themselves" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012,

p. 771). However, this statement fails to take consider controlling one's emotions will be more

difficult for some than for others. "Managers who have higher [emotional intelligence] may be more capable of forming an accurate, or more critical, self-image of their strengths and weaknesses with respect to managing diversity" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 223). EI increases one's ability to read a situation and to respond as appropriate. Although much research has focused on determining which style of leadership is most effective, adaptive leadership skills, "involve the ability to understand the leadership situation, and the ability to be flexible when confronted by changing conditions that require a change in strategies or behaviors" (Yukl & Mahsud, 2010, p. 88). When required to face changes, one must adapt. Using an adaptive-leadership style means providing "leadership for complex, multifaceted contexts and challenges in times of change" (Campbell-Evans, Gray, & Leggett, 2014, p. 542). "Adaptive change in organizations, like in organisms, preserves what works while allowing for experiments that can help the institution adapt to the current environment" (Wolfe, 2015, p. 64).

Although adapting one's leadership style can be challenging at times, it is critical that leaders possess this ability. Adaptive leadership is also best for organizations, leaders, and employees who are part of each team, and typically works best in most settings to ensure maximum success. Additionally, leaders must select styles that work for them, and work with their strengths and skills so that the style feels natural to them. "Authentic leaders build extraordinary support teams to help them stay on course. Those teams counsel them in times of uncertainty, help them in times of difficulty, and celebrate with them in times of success" (George et al., 2011, p. 15).

Although adaptation is essential in leadership, it is important in all levels of the organization, to maximize organizational effectiveness. Therefore, a focus on the development of EI at all levels is critical, as "leadership occurs at all levels of the professional career, and that

often, being a good leader means being a good follower" (Gragg, 2008, p. 242). Additionally

important, EI "skills are not necessarily innate and can be learned and practiced just as good

leadership can be learned" (Gragg, 2008, p. 242). "Effective functional EI will find the

individual observing and adjusting (as necessary) each aspect of the emotional universe" (Gragg,

2008, p. 245).

EI is critical for any leader who is responsible for a team and will need to ask members to

work on projects (Gragg, 2008). Although volunteers may emerge from those eager to take on

more responsibilities, it is the leader's job to know if and when certain tasks align with team

members' skill sets. However, it may still be worthwhile for an individual to take on "a project

that is new, but that stretches one's ability and results in the acquisition of new skills" (Gragg,

2008, p. 246). Again, it will be the leader's job to know when it will stretch that individual's skill

set or simply be above their ability level, leading to potential frustration. The stronger leaders' EI

skills, the more likely they will be able to differentiate.

Research conducted by Kreitz (2009) with library directors and senior-management

teams found that,

> integrity, good judgment, an ability to listen, people skills, effectiveness in leading
>
> change, and self-understanding were ranked as the top competencies that any leader
>
> should possess and that individuals—no matter where they are in an organization—would
>
> like any leader they follow to possess. (Kreitz, 2009, p. 546)

Self-management. Self-management is also important for the leader who is hoping to

fully realize their EI. "This is the application of the inner balance created through self-awareness

that is projected outward for others to see" (Gragg, 2008, p. 246). The leader who is skilled in

self-management will have the ability to "control what goes out during the self-management

stage, observe what comes back as a result, and then reengage self-awareness to see if our assessment of ourselves was accurate" (Gragg, 2008, p. 246). This continuous loop allows for a highly effective leader, both in self-evaluation and in team management. Change often begins with leaders setting the pace but requires employees at all levels to be invested in the vision and ultimate success of an organization. Therefore, the more effectively a leader is able to self-monitor and self-assess, the more likely an organization can implement changes that will lead to the realization of its goals. This focus reinforces the notion that leaders and followers need to be skilled in EI.

Attitudes of leaders play a significant role in their efficacy; self-awareness is one way to ensure leaders can monitor the way they present to their teams. "Optimistic, enthusiastic leaders more easily retain their people, compared with those bosses who tend toward negative moods" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 12). In other words, "the more positive the overall moods of people in the top management team, the more cooperatively they worked together, and the better the company's business results" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 15).

Empathy. EI also requires a level of awareness of the external environment, or "social awareness" (Gragg, 2008, p. 248). "The key feature of social awareness is the development of empathy for those around you" (Gragg, 2008, p. 248). This is less becoming the "resident counselor" and more attempting to appreciate others' situations and working to put oneself in another's place to gain an understanding (Gragg, 2008, p. 248). The leader can serve the important role of monitoring not only their own emotions and internal state, but that of those around them. The leader can use their EI to develop their social awareness and ensure they are consistently raising their level of environmental awareness. The ultimate goal, however, is to develop the ability to show more empathy and attempt to understand others' situations, and to

combine all of these skills to build a more positive organizational climate. Success will help the individual employees and the organization.

Multicultural skills. Using EI skills, such as self-awareness and social skills, will assist leaders in ensuring they are selecting the appropriate style, or mix of styles, for each situation. "This 'emotional common sense' that people possess, which enables them to effectively monitor and adapt to new situations and people, may be the underlying skill or motivating factor that enhances the development of multicultural skills" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 222). These multicultural skills, buoyed by EI, are yet another asset of a leader. Multicultural skills suggest that leaders will be able to work well with everyone in their organization, which means they will have fewer issues and conflicts throughout their tenure and will help create harmonious working environments.

Skills in all areas, including multicultural awareness, allow a leader to adapt to any situation that they face. "Self-awareness of multicultural competence may improve leader effectiveness because it allows the leader to accurately monitor and adjust his/her behavior, assumptions, stereotypes, and prejudices when dealing with followers, client, coworkers, etc., from various cultural backgrounds" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 225). Chrobot-Mason and Leslie (2012) studied managers at the Center for Creative Leadership. They found that "EQ predicted group differences in self-awareness of multicultural competence. In general, the stress management and intrapersonal factors were the strongest predictors of managerial self-awareness" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 232).

Self-awareness. A self-aware leader who is willing and able to adapt to any given situation is incredibly important.

> It is possible the positive environment created by the leader is more important than monetary compensation. Such leaders usually have a transformational leadership style, which is a process whereby the leader creates a positive connection with associates that enhances their feelings. … [and] generates the development of higher levels of motivation, and encourages the development of their highest potential. (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 774)

However, in this situation, the leader must know they cannot rely on their preferred transformational style, but must be able to move fluidly to one of the more task-oriented styles, if that is what a particular situation requires. "Along with accurate emotional self-assessment comes awareness of one's own strengths and weaknesses" (Gragg, 2008, p. 245). This study also echoes Goleman: "no one leader can or needs to develop competency in the full range of EI traits leaders need" (as cited in Kreitz, 2009, p. 548). By choosing a leadership style that works best with their personality and traits, leaders will do best when they focus on fully developing EI traits that are inherent to their character and that will serve them best in multiple situations and multiple settings.

"Self-awareness offers a sure rudder for keeping our career decisions in harmony with our deepest values" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 59). One aspect of EI, according to Goleman, is the ability to accurately assess one's own needs and wants. Individuals need to spend time determining what makes them happy; aspects from which they derive the greatest sense of satisfaction. One aspect that typically drives people to reevaluate life goals is the "radical realization that life is limited … [the] acknowledgement of mortality" brings "a reconsideration of what really matters" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 59). "People with this competence are aware of their strengths and weaknesses; reflective, learning from experience; open to candid feedback, new

perspectives, continuous learning, and self-development; and able to show a sense of humor and perspective about themselves" (Goleman, 1998, pp. 61–62). "And self-awareness in itself is an invaluable tool for change, especially if the need to change is in line with the person's goals, sense of mission, or basic values—including the belief that self-improvement is good" (Goleman, 1998, p. 67).

Emotional Intelligence Affects Organizational Climate

The leadership style and EI level of leaders receive such significant amounts of attention because of the role they play in creating a positive and effective organizational climate. Employee retention is often a significant concern in organizations, which suggests it will also be of concern for leaders. "Strong EI has the potential to create a more harmonious and pleasurable work environment," and it can be argued that "anyone involved in a professional environment would do well to become familiar with and implement these skill sets" (Gragg, 2008, p. 251).

Transformational leadership is more likely to promote the personal development of the individual than transactional leadership. Transformational leaders are likely to focus on connecting with the members of their organizations, and move beyond simply working to achieve goals. Transformational leaders and other leaders who share these qualities will move "beyond developing a common purpose" and "seek to build the individual employee and help them grow and achieve some of their own goals" (Gragg, 2008, p. 250). Alternatively, leaders who choose to use "rigid commanding and pacesetting styles and who actually prevent people from telling them the truth" can be harmful to organizations (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 193). As a result, the climate established may be one in which leaders are unaware of existing problems (Goleman et al., 2013). If the climate needs to improve, it "begins when emotionally intelligent leaders actively question the emotional reality and the cultural norms underlying the group's

daily activities and behavior" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 195). Those emotionally intelligent leaders can help members of the organization push beyond their comfort zone, and by extension, help organizations accomplish their goals. "A leader's high EI has been linked to the emotional climate of an organization and its financial or operational success. Leadership, however, is not confined to one person" (Kreitz, 2009, pp. 531–532). Others in the organization may also influence those whom they supervise and impact the top leader's effectiveness.

Dean of the School of Education Ginsberg, at the University of Kansas, studied more than 100 education and business leaders and found that "making difficult decisions, most often about personnel or budget issues, can take a heavy emotional toll with which few are prepared to deal" (Ginsberg, 2008, p. 294). Leaders may struggle to cope with these challenges, but have additional difficulty because no one in the organization is addressing the same challenges. Leaders need to remain stable for their teams, and therefore, "emotional common sense is needed when adapting to and working with people who bring a myriad of differences to the work context" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, pp. 222–223).

According to Rumens (2005), "emotion, despite being a permanent aspect of organizational life, has been unacknowledged and neglected in the traditional management literature" (p. 117). By increasing the frequency of discussions of emotional awareness and EI, individuals may be more likely to research and choose jobs with a different set of criteria. People will have a language to identify their needs and wants, as well as their strengths and weaknesses. Individuals will be able to use their EI to enhance their cognitive and vocational skills. Ultimately, they will be able to achieve greater job satisfaction, and will learn to thrive in their chosen profession. By ensuring higher levels of contentment on the individual level, it is likely that individuals and companies will thrive.

By helping individuals build their EI, it is likely that those individuals will develop an improved ability to build capacity in other individuals. Those skills are called "people skills" or "social radar" (Goleman, 1998b). Enhancing skills in this area will help people learn to "acknowledge and reward people's strengths and accomplishments," "offer useful feedback and identify people's needs for further growth," and "mentor, give timely coaching, and offer assignments that challenge and foster a person's skills" (p. 146). Those individuals who improve their EI will not only be able to serve as more effective coaches to others, but will also be likely to maintain honesty and high ethical standards so other individuals will understand they can be trusted (Thiroux & Krasemann, 2012). Those skills will help create leaders who can manage others and assist them in producing their best work. It may also assist leaders and managers who are able to create a work environment that is not only productive, but also pleasant and enjoyable.

Leaders want employees who will commit significant time and effort to advancing the organization, yet an organization cannot retain its best employees under "the premise that junior employees must work exhaustively and exclusively toward the organization's goals with only the promise of promotion or profit" (Gragg, 2008, p. 250). A promise made to an employee, financial or otherwise, will sustain them for a period of time but eventually will be insufficient, eventually having the opposite effect, setting a negative tone, and "ultimately destructive to an organization" (Gragg, 2008, p. 250).

Emotional Intelligence Facilitates Organizational Change

The organizational climate is important for the well-being of all individuals, but is also important in maintaining organizational effectiveness and, ultimately, achieving organizational change. Emotionally intelligent leaders are instrumental in instituting change in organizations.

Even more noteworthy is that leaders are critical *when* changes are being implemented, as "there is no need for leadership if no change is needed" (Collins, 2013, p. 4). Leaders, "build resonance, and then they ensure that resonance can be sustained through the systems that regulate the ebb and flow of relations and work in the organization" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 218). However, although these leaders are critical in the implementation of change, it is important to ensure that individuals are in place who are willing to take risks and push boundaries. A critical of aspect of "leadership and leading means … [embracing] change" (Collins, 2013, p. 4). "If top management consists only of cautious managers, no one will push the urgency rate sufficiently high and a major transformation will never succeed" (Kotter, 2012, pp. 46–47).

A guiding coalition must also be in place during any transitions, and many of the noted skills overlap with important aspects of EI. Four key characteristics help in selecting a guiding coalition: position power, expertise, credibility, and leadership skills (Kotter, 2012, p. 59). In addition to this skill set, other unique, less quantifiable skills are critical, as awareness of oneself and recognition of emotions and feelings in others are key components of any successful leader. Self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills are traits that will assist members of a guiding coalition to successfully lead employees in moving through changes and transitions successfully (Goleman, 1998a). "Strong leadership development processes are focused on emotional *and* intellectual learning, and they build on active, and participatory work: action learning and coaching" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 234).

Leaders must include the following steps when working to implement change:

- "Respect the group's values and the organization's integrity" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 218)

- "Slow down in order to speed up" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 219). In other words, "processes such as dynamic inquiry require a supportive coaching approach and democratic style" (p. 219).

- "Start at the top with a bottom-up strategy" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 219). The entire organization must be involved in the process, and must examine "what is working, what is not, and how exciting it would be if the organization could move more in the direction of what *is* working" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 220).

The process by which change should occur is clear, and teams should follow processes and procedures. Sustaining change, however, is a complex process, requiring effort on multiple levels over an extended period of time. It is in the maintenance of effort that EI, including self-awareness and empathy, become particularly important to leaders. "In the development of resonance-building leaders, we are talking about tapping into—and changing—the emotional reality of the organization itself, the culture, as well as deep-seated behaviors" (Goleman et al., 2013, p. 230). Leaders who are able to establish positive relationships have a better ability to connect with members of the organizations, particularly relevant when attempting to implement change in schools. A principal must be able to establish positive relationships with teachers "in order to develop mutual respect and understanding, which facilitate positive change in teacher perceptions and behaviours" (Cai, 2011, p. 170). Similarly, Kotter (2012) states that, "useful change tends to be associated with a multistep process that creates power and motivation sufficient to overwhelm all the sources of inertia" and the "process is never employed effectively unless it is driven by high-quality leadership, not just excellent management" (p. 22).

Leaders and team members experience a wide range of emotions throughout the process of change, which suggests a need for leaders who are skilled in aspects of EI. "Emotions exist for

a reason, and individuals can become victims of them or use them to their advantage" (Ingram &
Cangemi, 2012, p. 774). Therefore, it is critical that leaders develop EI skills such as self-
awareness, allowing insight into their own emotions, ensuring they do not succumb to emotions
and can use them to effect positive change on their teams and, ultimately, in their organizations.
In addition to individual emotions, conflict may arise. The effective leader will assist the team in
resolving any issues smoothly, so that change may continue in the organization. In fact,
"managers who are multiculturally competent and confident in inter-group encounters will be
skilled at minimizing the potential for greater inter-group encounters will be skilled at
minimizing the potential for greater inter-group conflict that often accompanies increased
diversity" (Chrobot-Mason & Leslie, 2012, p. 221). However, if conflict cannot be avoided,
leaders may demonstrate their skill in "emotionally intelligent conflict resolution," which
includes "the identification of common ground and the understanding of all sides' positions"
(Gragg, 2008, p. 251). "Aristotle believed the ultimate goal for humanity is to improve
relationships and solve problems. Conflicts are a part of life, and it is imperative that leaders
learn to navigate through them intelligently" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 776).

Change is necessary, but often difficult for people to accept. In large organizations,
change can be more complicated. "Organizations reflect our deepest assumptions about
humanity. As such, our view is that they are living centers, alive with the capacity to create
connections" (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003, p. 233). Research allows people to learn how to
make change as seamless as possible, with strong, emotionally intelligent leaders guiding the
way. "Leaders must inspire themselves and others to achieve the vision—to make things
happen—to change" (Collins, 2013, p. 4).

Summary

This chapter focused on the history of EI, leadership, and how emotionally intelligent leaders can positively impact organizational climates and help organizations effect positive, lasting change. Despite significant research on EI and leadership, EI is a much newer field. Thus, less research describes how one's level of EI may impact their style of leadership and, more importantly, why it *should* impact their chosen leadership style. This is particularly true in the field of education. In summarizing the research, it is noteworthy that, "most people don't quit jobs, *they quit their leaders*" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 774, emphasis in original). Improved awareness and sensitivity in the workplace through increased EI may improve the overall climate, leader efficacy, and employee satisfaction (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012).

Chapter 3: Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between EI and leadership style, as well as gender-based differences for both levels of EI and leadership style. In this chapter, I reexamine the research questions, present the hypotheses, and detail the research method and study design. I describe the data-collection instruments used—the MLQ and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory—examined in greater detail.

Research Questions

This study attempted to examine if a relationship exists between EI and leadership style, and if the surveyed leaders have a preference for a specific leadership style. Specifically, I explored the following research questions in detail:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transactional leadership?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transformational leadership?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and the laissez faire leadership style?

4. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for a particular leadership style?

5. Do the results of the EI assessment suggest gender-based difference for overall level of EI?

Research Design/Methodology

This quasiexperimental study used a quantitative correlational approach to examine the

relationship between leadership style and the EI of educational leaders. This was the most

appropriate method by which to analyze these data, as this study "aim[ed] to quantify the extent

of variation in a phenomenon [and] emphasizes the measurement of variables and the objectivity

in the process" (Kumar, 2014, p. 14). Additionally, this type of study allows for "building in

protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations, and being able to generalize and

replicate the findings" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). EI served as the independent variable, with

leadership style as the dependent variable. In other words, the study determined if level of EI

predicted leadership style. I also collected demographic data (age, gender, education, and

position; see Appendix A).

Process for Selection of Data Sources and Analysis-Unit Characteristics

The target population was adults over 18 years of age who are educational leaders in

elementary and secondary (K–12) public, private, or charter schools. Those individuals serve as

district- or site-level administrators, as well as teacher-leaders. Because "educational reforms

have led to a focus on the organizational development needed to bring about organizational

changes," district- and site-level administrators are responsible for supervising employees and

carry a great deal of responsibility (Madsen, Schroeder, & Irby, 2014, p. 27). District-level

administrators are individuals who hold positions such as superintendents, directors,

coordinators, specialists, and other management-level posts. Site-level administrators include

individuals who hold positions such as principals and assistant principals. Teacher-leaders often

hold significant influential roles in their schools, and because one does not have to supervise

individuals to act as a leader, this role is considered, "the means by which credible teachers

exercise formal or informal influence over supervisors, colleagues, and members of the school community through collaborative relationships that improve teaching and learning practices" (Poekert, 2012, p. 171). This study has the potential to impact all individuals who work in education, and provide additional research into the area of EI and leadership. The target population consisted of a broad cross-section of educational leaders, and their responses inform individuals in this field about whether a need exists for additional skill building in this area to create leaders who have stronger leadership abilities and more heightened awareness of their emotions.

I began the process using purposive sampling, as I selected the initial participants by requesting information from those who "are likely to have the required information and be willing to share it" (Kumar, 2014, p. 244). Following this initial step, I used snowball sampling, or "the process of selecting a sample using networks" (Kumar, 2014, p. 244). After initially contacting leaders I knew, I asked those leaders to identify other potential participants. I also posted study information on LinkedIn and Facebook to identify participants outside my network who could provide valuable contributions to this study, and attempted to secure a minimum of 100 responses (see Appendix B). I sent individual e-mails containing information regarding informed consent and information regarding anonymity to each participant, along with the link to access the survey through SurveyMonkey.

Definition of Data-Gathering Instruments

I gathered the data gathered through two instruments, both self-assessments. The Genos *Emotional Intelligence Self Assessment* assessed each participant's level of EI, and the MLQ by Avolio and Bass (2004) assessed each individual's leadership style. Additionally, demographic data accrued through questions regarding participants' ages, genders, education levels, and

positions. I administered these questions through the online survey vehicle, SurveyMonkey. I discuss these questions in greater detail below and in Appendix D, to the extent allowable by the publishers.

Emotional Intelligence

The Genos *Emotional Intelligence Self Assessment Version* is a 70-question self-assessment. Genos granted permission to use and reproduce this survey online for the purposes of this research (see Appendix C). This self-assessment was created to assess one's perception of how often they "demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviours at work" (Genos, 2014, p. 1).

Specifically, this assessment measures "how often people demonstrate 70 emotionally intelligent workplace behaviors that represent the effective demonstration of EI in the workplace" (Palmer, Stough, Harmer, & Gignac, 2009, p. 2). These behaviors group into emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, emotional management of others, and emotional self-control. Additionally, each participant received a total score for their overall EI. The raters responded on a Likert-type scale (from 1 to 5), with possible answers ranging from "almost never" to "almost always." The assessment took between 15 and 25 minutes to complete (Palmer et al., 2009).

The full instrument is included in Appendix D, and sample question from each domain follow:

Emotional self-awareness

- I am aware of things that upset me at work

- I am aware of when I am feeling negative at work.

- I am aware of how my feelings influence the way I respond to   colleagues.

Emotional expression

- I effectively express how I feel about issues at work.

- I express how I feel to the wrong people at work.

- I express positive emotions I experience at work inappropriately.

Emotional awareness of others

- I am aware of the things that make colleagues feel satisfied at work.

- I find it difficult to identify the things that motivate people at work

- I understand the things that cause others to feel engaged at work.

Emotional reasoning

- I ask others how they feel about different solutions when problem solving   at work.

- I demonstrate to others that I have considered their feelings in decisions I make at work.

- I consider the organization's values when making important decisions.

Emotional self-management

- I take criticism from colleagues personally.

- I ruminate about things that anger me at work.

- I effectively deal with things that annoy me at work.

Emotional management of others

- I create a positive working environment for others.

- I fail to get colleagues to cooperate.

- When necessary I effectively demonstrate empathy to colleagues

Emotional self-control

- I demonstrate enthusiasm appropriately at work

- I remain focused when anxious about something at work.

- I demonstrate excitement at work appropriately.

Leadership

The MLQ long form by Avolio and Bass (2004) is a 45-question self-assessment

designed to assess the style of leadership most often used by that leader as the leader perceives it.

Responses were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 ("not at all") to 4

("frequently, if not always"). This instrument includes 20 questions that are specific to the

transformational-leadership style, eight questions that address the transactional-leadership style,

and eight questions tailored to the laissez faire-leadership style. The remaining questions address

the "outcomes of leadership" characteristics—extra effort, satisfaction, and effectiveness—which

"are not Leadership styles, rather they are outcomes or results of leadership behavior" (Avolio

and Bass, 2004, p. 121).

I obtained permission from the publisher to reproduce this survey online for the purposes

of this research (Appendices E, F and G). Additionally, the publisher granted permission to

include up to five sample items, which follow:

Transformational leadership

- I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group

- I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions

- I act in ways that build others' respect for me

Transactional leadership

- I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures

Laissez faire leadership

- I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action

Reliability and Validity

Ensuring reliability and validity is a primary focus of this study, both in the selection of instruments and in the interpretation of data, particularly because "external validity threats arise when experimenters draw incorrect inferences from the sample data to other persons, other settings, and past or future situations" (Creswell, 2009, p. 162). The Genos EI Self-Report Inventory has been studied extensively since its 2001 publishing date and found to have acceptable reliability. "Gignac (2008a) reported mean subscale reliabilities (a) ranging from .71 to .85 across five nationalities (American, Australian, Asian, Indian, and South African). The mean Genos EI total score internal consistency reliability (a) was estimated at .96" (Palmer et al., 2009, p. 14). The test–retest reliability associated with the Genos EI inventory scores has also been examined and found to be .83 and .72 (Palmer et al., 2009).

The publishers of the MLQ have amassed a significant amount of data to support reliability and validity since it was first published in 1985. One study cited was conducted by Catanyag in 1995 in the Philippines and indicated that school principals who received higher scores on the MLQ in the area of transformational leadership aligned with students who were more well-prepared, compared to those principals who were highly rated by teachers (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Leadership outcomes most highly correlated with transformational-leadership characteristics, but strongly correlated with all leadership styles. The intercorrelations ranged from .71 to .83 across scales comprising each leadership style.

Description of Proposed Data-Analysis Procedures

By administering these self-assessments, or surveys, to educational leaders, this research produced information about the "opinions of [this] population" (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). I initially contacted participants I know. The e-mails included information on informed consent, as required by the Pepperdine Institutional Review Board, as well as the notion that I would maintain anonymity, would not collect participants' identities, and would not connect participants to the data in any way. Based on responses on the MLQ, participants revealed their preferred leadership style. From the Genos EI self-assessment, participants' responses indicated their overall EI. The goal was to secure 100 responses to the survey. Because the desired minimum was 100 responses, and to allow for attrition and lack of response to e-mails, I attempted to reach 350 individuals who meet the criteria, which assumed a 28–30% completion rate. To accomplish this end, I sent 236 individual e-mails to members of my personal network as well as my LinkedIn professional network, following the steps described above. As mentioned earlier, I posted information on this survey on multiple professional groups on Facebook and on LinkedIn. Once I received a satisfactory number of responses, data analysis began. I describe the data-collection and -analysis procedures in detail in the following section.

Data Collection and Analysis

Based on the research questions discussed earlier, data accrued on the following hypotheses:

H_1: A statistically significant relationship exists between EI and transactional leadership.

To examine the relationship between the independent variable, EI, and the dependent variable, transactional leadership, a Pearson's r correlation was the most appropriate methodology because two quantitative, or continuous, variables allowed for the determination of

the type of linear bivariate relationship that exists. Pearson's *r* has a value of -1 to +1, with 0 indicating no relationship and +1 indicating a perfect correlation.

H_2: A statistically significant relationship exists between EI and transformational leadership.

To examine the relationship between the independent variable, EI, and the dependent variable, transformational leadership, a Pearson's *r* correlation was the most appropriate methodology because two quantitative, or continuous, variables, allow for the determination of the type of linear bivariate relationship that exists. Pearson's *r* has a value of -1 to +1, with 0 indicating no relationship and +1 indicating a perfect correlation.

H_3: A statistically significant relationship exists between EI and the laissez faire leadership style.

To examine the relationship between the independent variable, EI, and the dependent variable, laissez faire leadership, a Pearson's *r* correlation was the most appropriate methodology because two quantitative, or continuous, variables allow for the determination of the type of linear bivariate relationship that exists. Person's *r* has a value of -1 to +1, with 0 indicating no relationship and +1 indicating a perfect correlation.

H_4: The results of the leadership assessment will reveal statistically significant gender-based differences for a particular leadership style.

To examine differences between male and female preferences for a particular leadership style based on participant responses on the MLQ, the appropriate methodology was an independent sample *t*-test. This method was appropriate because the independent variable, gender, is binary, and the dependent variable, leadership style, is continuous.

H_5: The results of the EI assessment will reveal statistically significant gender-based

differences for overall level of EI.

To examine the differences between overall level of EI for male and female respondents, based on participant responses on the Genos EI Self-Report Inventory, the appropriate methodology was an independent sample *t*-test. This was appropriate because the independent variable, gender, is binary, and the dependent variable, EI level, is continuous.

I conducted a G*Power analysis to ensure that the goal sample size of 100 would be sufficient to conduct a regression analysis on participants' gender. According to G*Power 3.0.10, the minimum sample size required was 89 to run regression with one variable, 107 with two variables, and 119 with three variables. I collected demographic information on age, gender, education level, and position. The only nominal variable included in the research questions/hypotheses was gender. However, if the sample size was sufficient, I planned additional analyses on these additional variables (age, education level) to determine if they impacted EI or leadership style.

Data collection began following IRB approval. Immediately following, I distributed the preapproved e-mail (see Appendix H) to individuals I know, in line with the procedures described above and included informed-consent information, and the notion that I would maintain anonymity and secure stored data. I analyzed data using IBM SPSS Statistics 25 using the procedures described in detail above, and summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Data Analysis

Hypotheses	Variable	Measurement	Method of Analysis
Hypothesis 1	IV: Emotional Intelligence DV: Transactional Leadership	IV: Continuous DV: Continuous	Pearson correlation
Hypothesis 2	IV: Emotional Intelligence DV: Transformational Leadership	IV: Continuous DV: Continuous	Pearson correlation
Hypothesis 3	IV: Emotional Intelligence DV: Laissez Faire Leadership	IV: Continuous DV: Continuous	Pearson correlation
Hypothesis 4	IV: Gender DV: Leadership Style	IV: Nominal DV: Continuous	Independent sample *t*-test
Hypothesis 5	IV: Gender DV: Emotional Intelligence	IV: Nominal DV: Continuous	Independent sample *t*-test

Note: IV: independent variable, DV: dependent variable.

Data Management

The data will be stored on a password-protected computer in my residence for 3 years.
The collected data will be not be identifiable nor will it be linked to participants' identity. I will
not collect participants' names, addresses, or other identifiable information.

Plans for the Institutional Review Board

The Pepperdine IRB approved this study prior to contacting any participants (see
Appendix I). Thus, this study complied with all requirements outlined by the IRB. Additionally, I
participated in the human subjects training course offered by the Collaborative Institutional
Training Initiative Program (see Appendix J). By following the requirements that guide informed
consent, participants will remain anonymous and this study posed no risk to participants. Only
adults were allowed to participate. I provided specific guidelines regarding informed consent to
all participants before they completed the survey. Because participants received the survey link
by e-mail through the SurveyMonkey online platform, they were not required to sign informed
consent but received comprehensive details outlined in the *Informed Consent for Participation in
Research Activities* (see Appendix K). Finally, I solicited participants from no specific school

district, and placed no focus on the practices of—or individuals employed by—any specific

school district. Therefore I did not require permission of any school district(s).

Summary

The intention of this study was to analyze the correlation between EI and leadership style.

This chapter included a review of the research questions, a presentation of the hypotheses, a

discussion of the survey instruments to be used, and a description of the validity and reliability of

those instruments. Additionally, I discussed the method of data collection, including the manner

in which I distributed those survey instruments and the specific plan for data analysis. Finally, I

outlined plans to ensure the safety of human subjects. In Chapter 4, I present and discuss the

results. Chapter 5 contains conclusions and implications of this research.

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between EI and the leadership style of educational leaders, with a focus on transformational-, transactional-, and laissez faire-leadership styles. I measured EI using the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory and measured leadership style using the MLQ. Demographic data accrued through questions regarding participants' age, gender, education level, and position. Study participants held positions as teacher-leaders or as administrators in elementary or secondary (K–12) public, private, or charter schools. Data accumulated from the online survey vehicle SurveyMonkey and all participants' responses were anonymous.

In the current chapter, I address the current trends in leadership and EI, and then explore the detailed findings based on the current research. The chapter provides a detailed analysis of the data collection and demographic breakdown, followed by data preparation. Then, I discuss the results of the statistical analyses including descriptive statistics of the mean and standard deviation. I used the Cronbach's alpha test to measure the internal consistency of the EI and leadership-style scales and a Pearson's *r* correlation to examine the relationship between overall level of EI and each leadership style. Additionally, I used an independent sample *t*-test to determine if gender differences emerged for either overall EI or a specific leadership style.

Finally, the data gathered answered the following five research questions:

1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transactional leadership?

2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transformational leadership?

3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and the laissez faire style leadership?

4. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for a particular leadership style?

5. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for overall EI level?

Current Trends in Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

To fully understand the current research, it is also important to briefly examine general trends in EI and leadership, to clearly grasp how they differ from or mirror trends in education. Current workplace trends are shifting toward recognizing the importance of EI as well as the critical role of leadership in guiding an organization. Ahuja (2015) noted that, "cognitive skills (IQ) can get you in the organization, but it is your emotional skills that assist you thrive in the job" (p. 260). This notion highlights that intelligence alone is not typically enough to help employees separate themselves from coworkers and to achieve success. Individuals who occupy leadership roles hold a critical role that "constitutes the elements of influencing, directing, guiding, achieving goals and exchanging some emotions between the leaders and the individuals" (Badri-Harun, Zainol, Amar, & Shaari, 2016, p. 119). It is crucial that these leaders examine the manner in which they lead, as "acquiring appropriate leadership styles and adopting effective leadership styles would be among the major factors for the leaders to achieve" (Badri-Harun et al, 2016, p. 117).

The critical juncture at which EI and leadership intersect is where many organizations currently devote time, attention, and resources, as "E.I. has the power to better explain the people's organization or office performance. Its purpose is to change management effectiveness,

attempts, training and the performance of organization within the organization (such as school, company, bank)" (Ahuja, 2015, p. 262). Knowing that an organization's performance may be improved by improving EI and leadership style means that companies want to spend time focusing on improving their employees' skills in those areas. Ahuja (2015) also suggests that, "by adopting E.I., [human resources departments] can improve manager's and employees' job performance and effectiveness and efficiency of the organizations" (p. 262).

Many companies currently demonstrate practices that prioritize EI, and an awareness that EI is a critical component in the success of employees and organizations as a whole. These companies are beginning to offer training in EI and leadership. One such company, Google, currently offers a course for its employees called "Search Inside Yourself," which focuses on mindfulness and leadership. As noted above, companies that are hiring view EI as an asset, as it is important that individuals are able to work well with others and possess "soft skills [which] include managing and interacting with people, decision making, planning, and creative work" (Benjamin, 2017, para. 2).

Educational leaders could benefit from a focus on elements such as mindfulness and EI, as could the students with whom they interact on a daily basis. "Because teacher education and professional development of in-service teachers do not explicitly develop teachers' [social emotional competencies], most educators are left on their own to determine if they need certain social-emotional skills and how to actually develop them" (Zakrzewski, 2013, para. 14). The job of an educator is often emotionally draining and requires that individuals care for themselves. "For teachers, these skills are imperative not only for their personal well-being but to improve student learning" (Zakrzewski, 2013, para. 6). A detailed discussion of the findings from the

current research follows, providing specific information about the EI level and leadership style of current educational leaders.

Findings

Data collection. I solicited participants through my network, through posts on Facebook, and through LinkedIn Educators' groups. Survey questions were administered through the online survey vehicle SurveyMonkey, and all participants completed the survey anonymously, aligned with IRB guidelines. Because the desired minimum was 100 participants, I built in allowances to factor in attrition and potential lack of response to e-mails. Therefore, I attempted to reach 350 individuals who met the criteria, which assumed a 28–30% completion rate. To reach this number, I sent 236 individual e-mails to those in my personal network as well as my LinkedIn professional network, following the steps described above. As mentioned earlier, I also posted information regarding this survey on multiple professional groups on Facebook, as well as on LinkedIn. As noted above, because I maintained participants' anonymity, it was not possible to determine which individuals had completed the survey. Therefore, I sent general reminder e-mails to all participants at the 3- and 7-week periods to ensure maximum responses had been received. After an 8-week period, and survey completion by 96 individuals, the survey was closed, and data analysis began.

As mentioned above, a total of 96 individuals completed the survey. However, nine respondents did not provide valid data for the dependent variable. Researchers must provide casewise deletion of missing data for dependent variables prior to all statistical calculations (Allison, 2002). Thus, I deleted the nine cases with missing data on the dependent variable from the dataset. This reduced the dataset to a final sample size of 87 cases, unless otherwise noted.

Demographic data. As noted above, the final sample consisted of 87 educational leaders for most variables. In the case of age, one participant did not provide a response, so only 86 individuals provided data for this variable. Most individuals were over the age of 30 (78, 89.5%). Similarly, only 86 individuals responded to the gender question, so that question had 86 rather than 87 responses. Data analysis revealed that the majority of the participants (60, 69%) were female. All 87 respondents indicated their education level and their positions in the field of education. All but one had a bachelor's degree, and the majority had a master's degree or higher (72, 82.7%). Finally, in examining participants' roles in the field of education, 37 (42.5%) identified as teacher-leaders and 50 (57.5%) identified as either site or district administrators. For categorical variables, percentages and frequencies are the appropriate descriptive statistics to report (Ritchey, 2008). I calculated percentages and frequencies for all categorical variables shown in Table 3.

Data preparation. I used two surveys, the MLQ and the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, to gather the data for this research. To prepare the data, it was necessary to itemize relevant items as they applied to each category. The first composite scale used in the analyses was created from Questions 5 to 74 on the final survey. This scale was designed to measure EI total. I added these 70 questions together and then divided by the total number of items present in the scale (i.e., 70). Using this coding format allowed the average of the composite scale to be interpreted as a function of the original measurement metric of the scale (i.e., a scale of 0 to 4). I The following questions were reverse coded for EI total because they had negative responses, 1 = almost always and 5 = almost never: Q9, Q13, Q15, Q16, Q20, Q21, Q30, Q34, Q39, Q42, Q47, Q53, Q59, Q61, Q65, Q68, Q69, Q71, and Q72.

Table 3

Percentages and Frequencies, Study Variables

	Frequency	Percent
Q1. Age Categories		
18–25	1	1.1
26–30	7	8.0
31–35	15	17.2
36–40	17	19.5
41–50	17	19.5
51–60	13	14.9
61 and over	16	18.4
Q2. Gender		
Male	26	29.9
Female	60	69.0
Q3. Education Level		
Less than a bachelor's degree	1	1.1
Bachelor's degree	14	16.1
Master's degree	53	60.9
Doctorate degree	19	21.8
Q4. Position in field of education		
Teacher-Leader	37	42.5
Site Administrator	28	32.2
District Administrator	22	25.3
N	87	100.0

The second composite scale used in the analyses was created from Questions 78, 96, 98, 101, and 109. This scale was designed to measure transactional-leadership style. I added these five questions together and then divided by the total number of items present in the scale (i.e., 5). Using this coding format allowed the average of the composite scale to be interpreted as a function of the original measurement metric of the scale (i.e., a scale of 0 to 4).

The third composite scale used in the analyses was created from Questions 76, 80, 82, 83, 84, 87, 88, 89, 92, 93, 95, 97, 99, 100, 103, 104, 105, 106, 108, and 110. This scale was designed to measure transformational-leadership style. I added these 20 questions together and then divided by the total number of items present in the scale (i.e., 20). Using this coding format allowed the average of the composite scale to be interpreted as a function of the original measurement metric of the scale (i.e., a scale of 0 to 4).

The fourth composite scale used in the analyses was created from Questions 77, 79, 86, 91, 94, 102 and 107. This scale was designed to measure laissez faire-leadership style. I added these seven questions together and then divided by the total number of items present in the scale (i.e., 7). Using this coding format allowed the average of the composite scale to be interpreted as a function of the original measurement metric of the scale (i.e., a scale of 0 to 4).

For all questions, I calculated the mean response as well as the standard deviation. For continuous variables, this is the appropriate descriptive statistic to report (Ritchey, 2008). Table 4 shows these the detailed statistics. The independent variable, EI total, had a mean response of 4.24. In examining the dependent variable leadership styles, transformational-leadership style had the highest mean value (4.39), followed by transactional-leadership style (2.60), and laissez faire-leadership style (1.51). I explore these mean scores and their implications in greater detail as I answer each research question later in this chapter.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations, Study Variables

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Min.	Max.
Emotional intelligence total	4.24	0.34	3.21	4.94
Transactional leadership style	2.60	0.72	1.60	4.60
Transformational leadership style	4.39	0.41	3.35	5.00
Laissez faire leadership style	1.51	0.50	1.00	3.00

Note: n = 80.

To evaluate the reliability of the scales, I used the Cronbach's alpha test to measure internal consistency (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Scores of .70 or higher indicate an acceptable level of reliability (Cronbach, 1970). The measure of alpha ranges between a value of 0 and 1, with higher scores generally indicating better reliability. All four scales demonstrated good to very good reliability, evidenced by alpha scores ranging from.700 (laissez faire-leadership style) to .946 (EI total). Table 5 details these scores.

Table 5

Internal Consistency Values (Cronbach α)

Scale	α
Emotional intelligence total	0.946
Transactional leadership style	0.718
Transformational leadership style	0.897
Laissez faire leadership style	0.700

To examine the relationship between EI and each leadership style, I used a Pearson's *r* correlation. This is the appropriate analysis because the independent variable and the dependent variables are continuous (Ritchey, 2008). Scores that were closer to -1 suggested a stronger negative or inverse relationship, and those that were closer to +1 suggested a stronger positive relationship. A score of -1 is a perfect negative relationship whereas +1 indicates a perfect positive relationship. I explore Pearson's *r* scores in greater detail when answering the research questions and when exploring the relationship between EI and each leadership style.

Table 6

Pearson Correlation, Leadership Style and Emotional Intelligence

Measure	1	2	3	4
1. Emotional intelligence total	1	-0.430**	0.811**	-0.601**
2. Transactional leadership style	-0.430**	1	-0.306**	0.416**
3. Transformational leadership style	0.811**	-0.306**	1	-0.057**
4. Laissez faire leadership style	-0.601**	0.416**	-0.057**	1

*Note: *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$, two-tailed tests, $n = 80$.

Research Question 1. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transactional leadership?

Table 6 shows that the relationship between EI and the transactional-leadership style is a negative and moderate statistically significant relationship ($r = -0.430$, $p < .01$). That is to say that the higher EI, the less transactional leadership one is likely to display. Additionally, the mean response score (see Table 4) was 2.60, with a .72 standard deviation. This mean response was lower than for transformational- but higher than for laissez faire-leadership style, suggesting respondents used this style less frequently than transformational leadership and more frequently than laissez faire. The reliability of this scale was good, indicated by a Cronbach's alpha score of.718 (see Table 5).

Research Question 2. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transformational leadership?

Table 6 shows that the relationship between EI and transformational-leadership style is a strong, positive, statistically significant relationship ($r = 0.811$, $p < .01$). That is to say, the higher EI, the higher the transformational-leadership style used by the individual. Additionally, the mean response score (see Table 4) was highest of the three leadership styles at 4.39, with a .41 standard deviation. The mean score of 4.39 suggests that the majority of respondents indicated

they display behaviors associated with transformational leadership "fairly often" or "frequently, if not always." The reliability of this scale was very good, evidenced by a Cronbach's alpha score of .946 (see Table 5).

Research Question 3. Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and laissez faire leadership?

Table 6 shows that the relationship between EI and laissez faire-leadership style is a negative, moderately strong relationship ($r = -0.601$, $p < .01$). That is to say that the higher the EI, the lower the laissez faire-leadership style or the higher the laissez faire-leadership style, the lower the EI. Because EI responses and scores were right skewed (the majority were at the higher end), I ran a nonparametric version of correlation called Spearman's. However, the results did not change, which suggested the results are valid.

The mean response score on the items measuring laissez faire-leadership style was 1.51, the lowest of the three leadership styles. The response average of 1.51 with a standard deviation of .50 indicated that the majority of respondents display behaviors associated with this style "not at all" or "once in a while." The reliability of this scale was good, indicated by a Cronbach's alpha score of .700 (see Table 5).

Research Question 4. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for a particular leadership style?

The results of the independent sample *t*-test (see Table 7) revealed no statistically significant gender-based differences for any of the leadership styles. To examine this relationship between gender (male and female) and leadership style, I used an independent sample *t*-test. This was the appropriate analysis because the independent variable gender is binary (comparing two groups—male and female) and the dependent variables are continuous (Ritchey 2008).

The mean response for transactional leadership style was 2.65 for males and 2.54 for females. For transformational leadership, males had a mean response of 4.33 and females had a mean response of 4.43. The mean response for the laissez faire-leadership style was 1.54 for males and 1.50 for females. I summarize these results in Table 7.

Table 7

Independent Samples t-Test: Leadership Styles

Variable	Male		Female		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Transactional leadership style	2.65	0.66	2.54	0.72	0.574	0.568
Transformational leadership style	4.33	0.52	4.43	0.34	-0.933	0.353
Laissez faire leadership style	1.54	0.61	1.50	0.46	0.338	0.736

Note. $*p < .05$, $**p < .01$, $***p < .001$, two-tailed tests.

Research Question 5. Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for overall EI level?

The results of the independent sample *t*-test, summarized in Table 8, revealed no statistically significant difference between males and females on the results of the EI total. The mean response for males was 4.20, with a standard deviation of 0.34, and 4.27 for females, with a standard deviation of 0.32. To arrive at these results and examine the relationship between gender (male and female) and leadership style, I used an independent sample *t*-test. This was the appropriate analysis because the independent variable gender is binary (comparing two groups, which in this case was males and females) and the dependent variables are continuous (Ritchey, 2008). I completed an additional analysis because the EI total was skewed: the Mann Whitney U test is a nonparametric version of the independent sample *t*-test. No difference emerged in these results, suggesting the results may be viewed as valid.

Table 8

Independent Samples t-Test: Emotional Intelligence Total

	Male		Female			
Variable	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*
Emotional intelligence total	4.20	0.34	4.27	0.32	-0.966	0.337

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$, two-tailed tests.

Summary

This quasiexperimental study explored the relationship between leadership and EI to answer five central research questions, by gathering data from educational leaders. These educational leaders answered questions from two self-assessments: the Genos Emotional Intelligence Self-Assessment and the MLQ by Avolio and Bass (2004). I administered these, as well as demographic questions, through the online survey vehicle SurveyMonkey. Data revealed a statistically significant relationship between overall level of EI and transformational leadership, as well as a statistically significant negative relationship between EI and laissez faire leadership. No relationship emerged between gender and leadership style, and no relationship emerged between gender and EI. The next chapter provides a more thorough analysis of the results of the current research, as well as recommendations for future research.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations

This research study examined whether a statistically significant relationship exists between EI and leadership style, with a focus on transformational-, transactional-, and laissez faire-leadership styles. In this study, I attempted to further establish the importance of EI so educational leaders and school districts will understand the importance of this characteristic, thereby being motivated to adapt their own and others' leadership style, if necessary, to establish more effective and enjoyable workplaces. Although extensive research exists on EI and leadership, a gap persists in research focused on the importance of EI in educational leaders, specifically in a K–12 setting.

The literature review in Chapter 2 focused on the history of EI, leadership and how emotionally intelligent leadership can positively impact organizational climates and help organizations effect positive lasting change. Despite a significant amount of research on EI and leadership, because EI is a much newer field, less research focuses on how one's level of EI may impact their style of leadership and, more importantly, why it *should* impact their chosen leadership style. This lack is particularly present in the field of education. In summarizing the research, it is noteworthy that, "most people don't quit jobs, *they quit their leaders*" (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012, p. 774, emphasis in original). Improved awareness and sensitivity in the workplace through an increase in EI may improve the overall climate, leader efficacy, and employee satisfaction (Ingram & Cangemi, 2012).

Chapter 3 reviewed the research questions, the resulting hypotheses, the survey instruments used to gather data, and the reliability and validity of those survey instruments. The chapter also included the plan for data collection, including the target demographic and method

of data analysis. Finally, the chapter presented guidelines for ensuring the safety of study participants, in accordance with the Pepperdine University IRB.

Chapter 4 presented a detailed discussion of the research methods and results of the research. Data revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between EI and transformational leadership and a negative relationship between EI and laissez faire leadership. Data also revealed no relationship between gender and leadership style as well as no relationship between gender and EI.

This chapter will present a review of EI and leadership, as well as its current state in the educational setting. Following is a summary of the key findings that resulted from the current research. This chapter also provides recommendations for future research based on the literature review and the data collected.

Educational Leadership

Research in the area of leadership is extensive, and reveals themes that focus on building relationships to improve employee efficacy, which is contrasted with emphasizing task completion (Schoo, 2008). Researchers discuss employee efficacy in the diverse leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and the less researched and less used laissez faire style of leadership. In the area of educational leadership, task versus relationship becomes significantly more complicated, partially due to a lack of focus on leadership development, whether in training programs or in the professional-development offerings in schools. Thus, individuals in leadership positions may be expected to lead effectively without possessing the necessary skills to do so. "Research accumulating over the past 40 years suggests the dynamic nature of both the leadership role and the context in which leaders work" and research also suggests that "leaders affect every aspect of schooling" (Young, Winn, & Reedy, 2017, p. 712).

Specifically, as discussed in the literature review, leadership is critical to every aspect of the organizational climate throughout the change process. Educational leadership is critical to student success (or potential failure), which can be viewed through the leader's impact on the organization. Educational leaders have an impact on the following:

1.   their organization,

2.   the visions and goals of the school and district,

3.   the people within the organization, and

4.   the curricular and instructional agenda in their schools and districts. (Young et al., 2017, p. 713)

Goleman (1998a) noted that leaders have a significant impact on others simply by displaying a positive attitude, which can be done by improving their own level of self-awareness, which is a critical component of EI. By improving individuals' EI level, they will be better able to lead effectively.

Emotional Intelligence

The concept of EI dates back to 1920, when Thorndike introduced social intelligence. Since that time, many others have researched and built on that theory, as discussed in the literature review. Goleman's (1998a, 1998b) research, which focused on EI in the workplace and is discussed in the theoretical framework section of this chapter, was critical to the current study. EI is becoming more desirable as a trait in leaders, as researchers showed that a leader's EI has played a role in "(a) the ability to transform complaints in constructive feedback; (b) the creation of an atmosphere where difference is appreciated and not considered as a cause of conflict; and (c) the skill of network cooperation" (Brinia, Zimianiti, & Panagiotopoulos, 2014, p. 32).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that grounds the current research is Goleman's (1998a, 1998b, 2013) work on EI in the workplace. Goleman's mixed model builds on the work of previous researchers, including the early research of Bar-On and Gardner, and the later research of Salovey and Mayer, who originated the term "emotional intelligence." The five components of this model are self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills (Goleman, 1998b). The definition of EI, according to Goleman (1998b), is "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships" (p. 317).

Summary of Key Findings

The key findings of this study are guided by the following five, central research questions:

- Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transactional leadership?

- Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and transformational leadership?

- Is there a statistically significant relationship between EI and the laissez faire leadership style?

- Do the results of the leadership assessment suggest gender-based differences for a particular leadership style?

- Do the results of the EI assessment suggest gender-based difference for overall level of EI?

Key Finding 1. The transformational-leadership style was the overwhelming choice of the respondents surveyed. The data collected revealed a significant relationship between overall level of EI and the transformational-leadership style. This style of leadership had the strongest relationship ($r = 0.811$, $p < .01$). That is to say, the higher the participant's level of EI, the higher the transformational-leadership style evidenced by the participant.

The literature review also suggested that transformational leadership is one in which leaders work to build connections with team members, and to facilitate team building, and "raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower" (Northouse, 2007, p. 176). Many advantages of this leadership style have been discussed, including the focus on building relationships. It is a style that may come naturally to individuals working in education because educational leaders, specifically school principals, work "to achieve goals through cooperation, effectively creating organization means in order to promote education values, aims and intentions" (Brinia et al., 2014, p. 30).

Key Finding 2. The transactional-leadership style was used less frequently than the transformational style but more frequently than the laissez faire style of leadership. The data collected revealed a significant relationship between overall level of EI and the transactional-leadership style. This relationship was negative, suggesting that the higher one's level of EI, the less likely that individual is to use a transactional-leadership style.

This is a significant finding, indicating that individuals surveyed were less likely to use a transactional-leadership style. This finding may suggest that those in leadership positions in education are less likely to use a transactional-leadership style. This may be because of the type of work that is done in education, which requires interaction with adults and children on a regular basis, where a transactional approach may be less likely to be effective. For example, a

study conducted by Dey and Carvalho (2014) showed that sales executives who "showed a preference for a transactional leadership style [were] also emotionally intelligent" (p. 45). The executives surveyed in this study were all male and typically worked independently engaging in heavily task- and goal-oriented work.

      Key Finding 3. Participants with higher levels of EI used laissez faire leadership less frequently than the other two leadership styles. The data collected revealed a significant relationship between overall level of EI and the laissez faire leadership style, but the relationship is a negative one, suggesting that those with higher levels of EI are less likely to use laissez faire leadership. The data collected revealed a negative, moderately strong relationship ($r = -0.601$, $p < .01$). This outcome suggests that the higher the level of EI, the lower the use of the laissez faire-leadership style. This is an important finding, and one that suggests that current educational leaders are taking a more active leadership role.

      This style of leadership has been referred to as no leadership, or the absence of leadership. Additionally, this type of leadership is often characterized by individuals avoiding responsibility, with little or no concern about what is best for the organization or what is best for the employees in the organization. This is often apparent in the notion that employees are often uncertain about their assignments or the ultimate vision. Finally, and perhaps most striking about this type of leadership, is that it is "closely related to subordinates experiencing stressful work situations characterized by a lack of clarity regarding duties and responsibilities within the organization" (Skogstad et al., 2014, p. 324). The results of the current research suggest that this is the style least used, consistent with the smaller amount of research on this style when compared with transformational leadership and transactional leadership.

Key Finding 4. The results of the current research revealed no gender-based differences for a particular leadership style. The data collected revealed no gender-based differences for overall level of EI, that is, no gender is likely to have higher or lower levels of EI.

Many of the topics addressed in the literature review are relevant to the results of the survey responses. When examining the topic of gender and leadership, the review of literature suggested that women continue to face challenges in the workplace in gaining promotions and they are more likely to be in "middle management" (Bolman & Deal, 2013). However, Northouse (2007) reported that women were more likely than men to demonstrate a transformational-leadership style. Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero, and Berrios Martos (2012) also commented on this, noting, "women can be viewed as more supportive and affective with characteristics involving the management of emotions, thus generalizing the perception that women are more emotionally intelligent" (p. 100).

The results of the current research demonstrated that men and women were equally likely to demonstrate the transformational-leadership style, and that overall, transformational leadership was the style demonstrated most frequently. Quader (2011) suggested "that a female leader does not possess fundamentally different attributes than a male leader" and "the brain of both sexes works in the same way" (p. 5). Researchers showed that some historically "female" and "male" traits may relate to cultural rather than biological differences, which is consistent with the current research. "Supportive (e.g., intellectual stimulation) and considerate (e.g., individual consideration) behaviors are also typical of transformational leaders and are related to feminine gender roles" (Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012, p. 99). The current research illustrated that gender predicted neither leadership style nor overall EI level, which also suggests that gender does not directly link to any workplace challenges faced by women.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current research provides important information, particularly for schools to use to equip leaders with critical tools in the areas of leadership and EI, as well as their intersection. Goleman noted as far back as 1998 that EI is not coded into one's genes, and one does not just "have it," although some individuals might be more skilled in this area than others. This skill can be learned, or at the very least, improved upon, in all settings. It is particularly important to help children learn it early, "because the emotional regulatory centers are the last part of the brain to mature" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 24). Adults can be taught as well, but it requires more than a "one-day seminar on how to improve your listening skills" (Goleman, 1998b, p. 25). Rather, for adults, Goleman noted that, "you need a learning plan for people, which they themselves help construct. And you need to support them with coaching, clear expectations, and positive work assignments" (1998b, p. 25).

Transformational leadership. Transformational leadership has long shown to be effective. The current study revealed that high levels of EI correlated with high levels of transformational leadership. This style of leadership relies on connecting with other individuals and building strong relationships. Additional research may be warranted into the specific traits that link with transformational leadership, so these traits may be fostered in leaders and reinforced in training programs and at individual worksites.

Laissez faire leadership. As mentioned above and in the literature review, this area of leadership has significantly less research than transformational or transactional leadership. Findings from the current study revealed it is used less frequently, and the higher the level of EI, the less likely one is to use this style of leadership. However, to be truly effective, one needs to be familiar with all styles and well-versed in all literature. This knowledge includes fully

understanding the advantages and disadvantages of each style, and fully comprehending the negative aspects of a leader using a laissez faire-leadership style, rather than simply accepting that it may not be the right choice. Therefore, I recommend that more research be conducted in this area to equip current and future leaders with the necessary knowledge and tools.

Transactional leadership. As mentioned above and in the literature review, this style can often be effective. Those who use this style should be fully informed about the aspects of this method, as it may not work well with all individuals, particularly in the educational field, where the focus is often on relationship-oriented work. Researchers found that, "the associations between the transactional leadership component and the three basic needs [of autonomy, competence, and relatedness] were consistently weaker than for transformational leadership" (Hetland, Hetland, Andreassen, Pallesen, & Notelaers, 2011, p. 517). This method may have weaknesses because typically, it is less individualized. Transactional leadership is task driven, so the advantage is that it will often result in the accomplishment of goals. Ultimately, the human element is important, so leaders may need to use components of multiple styles to be truly effective. I recommend that future research include a focus on the fields in which this style is most effective, and the personality types with whom this style of leadership is most effective.

Professional development. A common theme that emerged in the literature review was that the hallmark of a strong leader is the ability to move flexibly among leadership styles, using one of the critical tenets of EI: self-awareness. Although one of the skills that allows individuals to do move between styles is high levels of EI and specifically, self-awareness, which includes an awareness of others and their emotions, although many of these skills may be innate, they can also be taught. Based on the results of the current research, which suggests a statistically significant relationship between transformational leadership and overall level of EI, school

districts have a number of opportunities to deliver targeted trainings in EI and leadership style. K–12 schools should implement professional development to assist educational leaders in acquiring any skills they are lacking. This professional development should include self-assessments to help individuals understand which skills they possess and which skills they need to enhance. Furthermore, educational leaders need to understand which style of leadership they demonstrate most often, what traits are beneficial, and what traits may be hindering them from becoming the most effective leader possible.

Future research should include investigation into the most effective programs and methods for delivering professional development in EI to current and future leaders in school districts, as this is currently an area that is significantly lacking in most school districts. As mentioned earlier, professional development for teachers, as well as other professionals in education, rarely includes explicit instruction in EI or the competencies that underlie it. However, such knowledge is critical to one's success in career and life.

> As teachers, one of the best things about developing our own social-emotional skills is that we can then turn around and help our students do the same thing. And instead of feeling exhausted after getting "emotionally dumped on" yet again, we feel uplifted because we've learned how to manage our own emotions and compassionately work with someone else's. (Zakrzewski, 2013, para. 22)

This sense of being recharged is critical to our teacher-leaders and all other educational leaders. Managing emotions is important for all individuals who interact with other individuals on a regular basis.

> The fourth branch of EI, managing emotions, consists of the ability to regulate emotions in both ourselves and in others. Everyone is familiar with times in their lives when they

have temporarily, and sometimes embarrassingly, lost control of their emotions. The

fourth branch also includes the ability to manage the emotions of others. For example, an

emotionally intelligent politician might increase her own anger and use it to deliver a

powerful speech in order to arouse righteous anger in others. Therefore, the emotionally

intelligent person can harness emotions, even negative ones, and manage them to achieve

intended goals. (Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 282)

When facing challenges, whether in school or in business, the individual with well-developed EI

skills will be able to find a way to succeed, or to cope when success is not achieved.

"Since the concept first became popular, eager advocates of EI have claimed that

emotional skills matter in almost all areas of life—from career success to being liked by others"

(Salovey & Grewal, 2005, p. 283). Continuing research in the area of EI will involve how to

raise an individual's awareness of the emotions occurring internally and what factors may impact

the expression of these emotions. Salovey and Grewal (2005) further indicated,

We lack a thorough understanding of the underlying mechanisms by which emotion-

related abilities affect relationships. Research is needed to understand the motivational

underpinnings of using certain skills depending on the particular interpersonal context.

One of the biggest challenges is figuring out how to examine the influence of such

contextual factors on the application and functionality of these skills. It seems likely that

individual differences in temperament, which affect levels of arousal, might influence the

application of emotion-related skills. Furthermore, some have argued that much emotion-

related knowledge and subsequent behavior operate outside of conscious awareness, an

idea that has yet to receive much exploration. (p. 285)

Education policy. Although current research has focused exclusively on adult leaders, it is critical to recognize the importance of children, who represent our future leaders. Goleman (1998b) noted that children's brain development provides adults with an optimal period in which to teach the skills that will equip them with EI later in life. The increasing focus on social and emotional learning, starting with our educational system and extending to the federal level, brings heightened awareness to the notion that these foundational skills are critical for our children, and also build skills that will help adults flourish in life and in leadership. "Emphasizing building leaders within federal policy and incorporating their development within programming at the state and district levels are essential to realizing federal education policy goals" (Young et al., 2017, p. 707).

The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) has been working to advance education policy to ensure all individuals understand the importance of teaching social and emotional learning skills. According to CASEL,

> social and emotional learning is gaining significant traction in federal policy. Members of Congress from both parties have introduced or supported pending legislation that includes social and emotional learning. Also, the Department of Education's recent Race to the Top District competition awarded extra credit to applications that made social and emotional learning a key ingredient in districtwide improvement efforts. Meanwhile, more and more states are adopting pre-K–12 social and emotional learning standards that outline what students should know and be able to do. (CASEL, 2011, para 1)

As policy continues to evolve, it will be important for policymakers, including politicians, educators, and school board members, to highlight the potential benefits of providing additional instruction in social emotional learning. For example, researchers showed that acquiring skills in

this area may assist in promoting the well-being of individuals suffering from mental health diagnoses (Kee et al., 2009).

      Curriculum design and implementation. Children, educators, and society benefit if children are able to learn more and function more capably in society. In addition, the possibility exists of improving the society as a whole by improving its future leadership. Noncognitive skills: "are now increasingly being taken seriously by the education community" (Lipnevich & Roberts, 2012, p. 173). Multiple countries are raising the level of attention on these skills and working to include noncognitive skills as part of the curriculum in schools (Lipnevich & Roberts, 2012). "For children and adolescents, psychosocial factors such as self-efficacy, self-concept, and confidence predict reading, science, and mathematics achievement on several large-scale domestic and international assessments" (Lipnevich & Roberts, 2012, pp. 173–174).

      One category of noncognitive skills includes social and emotional qualities, with an increasing focus on "examining relationships between academic emotions and achievement and the mechanisms through which emotions affect students' immediate engagement and subsequent academic performance" (Lipnevich & Roberts, 2012, p. 174). In the classroom, teachers often struggle to maintain student engagement and ensure students are participating in classroom activities. If students are able to cope with emotions, it stands to reason that they will be much more likely to access the academic curriculum. Thus, although much of the discussion about EI is about improving behavior and managing social relationships, ancillary benefit are likely in accessing a greater percentage of core instruction in schools, which will increase a student's knowledge base and the information they can access at any given time. Much research has been conducted in the area of EI and its effect on success or failure as a leader. In considering the

importance of teaching children these skills early in life, it is critical to consider short-term and long-term goals.

Use of 360-degree assessments. I recommend that additional research be conducted using the 360 version of the MLQ, so not only the feedback of leaders themselves is included, but also that of the individuals who work with leaders. This viewpoint will allow researchers to compare individuals' responses with responses from those they supervise or coach regularly. Bergman, Lornudd, Sjöberg, and Von Thiele Schwarz (2014) cautioned that, "using single-source ratings may fail to comprehensively capture all dimensions of leadership behavior" (p. 390). Individuals may view themselves quite differently from the views of those they supervise and those who supervise them. Researchers found that self-ratings have been over- and underestimations. Subordinate ratings often differ significantly, and the combination of multiple raters gives a more accurate picture of actual leadership behaviors.

Organizational performance. Extensive data exists, summarized in the literature review, that documents the impact of leadership style and EI on organizational climate, organizational change, and the organization as a whole. Leaders help ensure change is implemented effectively and with the least amount of disruption. Effective leadership is critical to employees and the organization. Therefore, I recommend this study be expanded to include additional metrics that assess leaders and organizational effectiveness.

Sample selection. I conducted this research using a snowball-sampling technique. Future research should be conducted using a random sample so results may be generalized to a larger population.

Limitations

I conducted this research using a nonprobability, snowball-sampling technique; therefore, survey respondents emerged from connections in my personal network rather than a random sample, which could be viewed as a limitation. However, I attempted to gain additional participants through posts in educators' groups on LinkedIn and Facebook. I am unlikely to have known those individuals.

Closing Thoughts

EI and leadership have received increasing amounts of attention. According to Goleman (1998b),

> recent research clearly shows that EI is the sine qua non of leadership. Without it, a person can have the best training in the world, an incisive, analytical mind, and an endless supply of smart ideas, but still will not make a good leader. (p. 92)

Schools and educational organizations are beginning to devote the attention necessary to enhance the ability of educational leaders and children to have the skills to be successful in life.

"The work place is an arena which clearly can both meet and thwart employees' needs in terms of autonomy, competence and feelings of relatedness to others" (Hetland et al., 2011, p. 508). It is incumbent on educational organizations to devote the time and attention necessary to ensure all employees have their needs met so that they find meaning in their work on a daily basis. In this scenario, educational leaders will flourish, enabling them to ensure that students receive the education they deserve.

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APPENDIX A

Demographic Questions

1. Gender: Man __

       Woman ___

2: Age range: 18-25 __

       26–30 __

       31–35__

       36–40__

       41–50__

       51–60__

       61 and over __

3: Education: Less than a Bachelor's degree __

       Bachelor's degree __

       Master's degree __

       Doctorate degree __

4: Position: Teacher-leader (non supervisory position at school site) __

       Site administrator (Principal/Assistant Principal) __

       District administrator (Superintendent/Director/Coordinator/Other management) __

APPENDIX B

Recruitment Advertisement/Flyer

Seeking Educational Leaders to participate in a 30 minute, online survey for a study conducted by Diana Fannon, Graduate School of Educational Leadership, Student

Are you a district or site-level administrator at an elementary or secondary school? Are you a teacher-leader at a K–12 school? I am interested in your responses to questions on emotional intelligence and leadership style.

Contact Information:

For more information please contact:

Diana Fannon

Principal Investigator: Diana Fannon

APPENDIX C

Genos: Permission to Administer Questionnaires Online

For Students and Researchers
Genos makes available its workplace based emotional intelligence questionnaires free of charge
for the purposes of research. Individuals and organizations are strictly forbidden from
using these questionnaires for any type of commercial purpose.

There are three versions of Genos EI questionnaires:

- Genos EI Short Inventory (14 items)
- Genos EI Concise Inventory (31 items)
- Genos EI Full Inventory (70 items)

Each version exists in both self-report and rater-report format. The short version of Genos EI
yields only a total score. The concise and full versions yield seven subscale scores and
one total EI score. The concise version is recommended for research scenarios where a
total EI score is of principal interest and there are some exploratory type hypotheses
related to one or more of the individual seven dimensions. If there are primary
hypotheses relevant to one or more of the seven dimensions, then the full version is
recommended.

The basic psychometric properties, as well as the normative sample means and standard
deviations, associated with the three versions of the Genos EI inventory can be found in
Palmer, Stough, Harmer and Gignac (2009), as well as Gignac (2010). Genos does not
make available the normative sample percentile scores. For research purposes, raw scores
should be sufficient.

The questionnaires in PDF can be downloaded below. Students and researchers have permission
to administer the questionnaires online.

APPENDIX D

Genos Emotional Intelligence Self Assessment Version

Emotional Intelligence Self Assessment Version

Instructions

The Genos EI Self Assessment has been designed to measure how often you believe you demonstrate emotionally intelligent behaviours at work. There are no right or wrong answers. However, it is essential that your responses truly reflect your beliefs regarding how often you demonstrate the behaviour in question. You should not answer in a way that you think sounds good or acceptable. In general try not to spend too long thinking about responses. Most often the first answer that occurs to you is the most accurate. However, do not rush your responses or respond without giving due consideration to each statement. Below is an example.

Q. I display appropriate emotional responses in difficult situations.

You are required to indicate on the response scale how often you believe you demonstrate the behaviour in question. There are five possible responses to each statement (shown below). You are required to circle the number that corresponds to your answer where...

1 = Almost Never
2 = Seldom
3 = Sometimes
4 = Usually
5 = Almost Always

When considering a response it is important not to think of the way you behaved in any one situation, rather your responses should be based on your typical behaviour. Also, some of the questions may not give all the information you would like to receive. If this is the case, please choose a response that seems most likely. There is no time limit; however it should take between 15-25 minutes to complete.

Emotional Intelligence Self-Assessment Version

Below are a series of statements. Please circle the number corresponding to the statement that is most indicative of the way you typically think, feel and act at work. If you make a mistake simply cross it out and fill in the correct response.

	Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
1. I am aware of things that upset me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I effectively express how I feel about issues at work.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am aware of the things that make colleagues feel satisfied at work.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I ask others how they feel about different solutions when problem solving at work.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I take criticism from colleagues personally.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I create a positive working environment for others.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I demonstrate enthusiasm appropriately at work	1	2	3	4	5
8. I am aware of when I am feeling negative at work.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I find it difficult to identify the things that motivate people at work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I demonstrate to others that I have considered their feelings in decisions I make at work.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I express how I feel to the wrong people at work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I fail to get colleagues to cooperate.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I motivate others toward work related goals.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I remain focused when anxious about something at work.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am aware of how my feelings influence the way I respond to colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I express positive emotions I experience at work inappropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I fail to identify the way people respond to me when building rapport.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I consider the organisation's values when making important decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I engage in activities that make me feel positive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. When necessary I effectively demonstrate empathy to colleagues	1	2	3	4	5
21. I behave inappropriately when angry at work	1	2	3	4	5
22. I am aware of my body language at work.	1	2	3	4	5
23. I express how I feel at the appropriate time.	1	2	3	4	5
24. I understand the things that cause others to feel engaged at work.	1	2	3	4	5
25. I demonstrate to others that I have considered my own feelings when making decisions at work.	1	2	3	4	5
26. I ruminate about things that anger me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I am effective in helping others feel positive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
28. I demonstrate excitement at work appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I am aware of my mood state at work.	1	2	3	4	5
30. When I am under stress I become impulsive.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I demonstrate an understanding of others' feelings at work.	1	2	3	4	5
32. I communicate decisions at work in a way that captures other's attention	1	2	3	4	5

	Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Usually	Almost Always
33. I effectively deal with things that annoy me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I help people find effective ways of responding to upsetting events.	1	2	3	4	5
35. I fail to control my temper at work.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I am aware of the tone of voice I use to communicate with others at work.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I provide positive feedback to colleagues.	1	2	3	4	5
38. I fail to recognise when colleagues' emotional reactions are inappropriate	1	2	3	4	5
39. I gain stakeholders' commitment to decisions I make at work.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I appropriately respond to colleagues who frustrate me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
41. When colleagues are disappointed about something I help them feel differently about the situation.	1	2	3	4	5
42. I hold back my initial reaction when something upsets me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
43. I fail to recognise how my feelings drive my behaviour at work.	1	2	3	4	5
44. When I am happy at work I express how I feel effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
45. I identify others' non verbal emotional cues (e.g., body language).	1	2	3	4	5
46. I appropriately communicate decisions to stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I demonstrate positive moods and emotions at work.	1	2	3	4	5
48. I help people deal with issues that cause them frustration at work.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I am impatient when things don't get done as planned at work.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I am aware of how my feelings influence the decisions I make at work.	1	2	3	4	5
51. When someone upsets me at work I express how I feel effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
52. I understand the things that make people feel optimistic at work.	1	2	3	4	5
53. I consider the way others may react to decisions when communicating them.	1	2	3	4	5
54. I quickly adjust to new conditions at work.	1	2	3	4	5
55. I don't know what to do or say when colleagues get upset at work.	1	2	3	4	5
56. When upset at work I still think clearly	1	2	3	4	5
57. I find it difficult to identify my feelings on issues at work.	1	2	3	4	5
58. I effectively express optimism at work.	1	2	3	4	5
59. I understand what makes people feel valued at work.	1	2	3	4	5
60. I take into account both technical information and the way I feel about different choices when making decisions at work.	1	2	3	4	5
61. I fail to handle stressful situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
62. I respond to events that frustrate me appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
63. I am aware of things that make me feel positive at work.	1	2	3	4	5
64. I fail to resolve emotional situations at work effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
65. I have trouble finding the right words to express how I feel at work.	1	2	3	4	5
66. I identify the way people feel about issues at work.	1	2	3	4	5
67. I focus solely on facts and technical information related to problems when trying to derive a solution.	1	2	3	4	5
68. I fail to keep calm in difficult situations at work.	1	2	3	4	5
69. I explore the causes of things that upset me at work.	1	2	3	4	5
70. When I get frustrated with something at work I discuss my frustration appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

Mind Garden: Permission to use Copyright Material for Research

mind garden

www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

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

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

Sincerely,

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

APPENDIX F

Permission to Reproduce the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

For use by Diana Fannon only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on August 24, 2017
**Permission for Diana Fannon to reproduce 50 copies
within one year of August 24, 2017**

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire™

Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)

and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)

---

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com
www.mindgarden.com

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APPENDIX G

Permission to Reproduce Additional Copies of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Approval for Remote Online Use of a Mind Garden Instrument

Effective date is January 15, 2018 for:

Diana Fannon

You submitted your statement for remote online use at 4:56 pm EST on December 18, 2017.

mind garden

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APPENDIX H

Recruitment Email

Dear Participant,

My name is Diana Fannon, and I am a doctoral student in the Graduate School of Education and
Psychology at Pepperdine University. I am conducting a research study examining the
relationship between leadership style and emotional intelligence and you are invited to
participate in the study. If you agree, you are invited to participate in an online survey.

The survey is anticipated to take no more than 30 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your identity as a participant will remain anonymous
during and after the study. If you have questions or would like to participate, please
contact me at (310) 663-1194 or diana.fannon@pepperdine.edu.

Thank you for your participation,

Diana Fannon
Pepperdine University
Graduate School of Education and Psychology
Doctoral Student

APPENDIX I

Institutional Review Board Approval Letter

PEPPERDINE

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: October 30, 2017

Protocol Investigator Name: Diana Fannon

Protocol #: 17-10-621

Project Title: The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Style in Educational Leaders

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Diana Fannon:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair

APPENDIX J

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI) Ceritificate of Completion

APPENDIX K

Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

INFORMATION/FACTS SHEET FOR EXEMPT RESEARCH

The Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence and

Leadership Style in Educational Leaders

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Diana Fannon, M.S., under the guidance of Dr. Ron Stephens, Faculty Advisor, at Pepperdine University, because you are a leader in the field of education**.** Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read the consent form. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to examine whether there is significant relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership style. This study aims to further establish the importance of emotional intelligence as it correlates to specific leadership styles. In doing this, educational leaders will gain additional information regarding emotional intelligence and its correlation to the most effective leadership styles, thus being motivated to adapt their own and others' leadership style if necessary, in order to establish more effective and enjoyable workplaces.

PARTICIPANT INVOLVEMENT

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be asked several demographic questions (age range, gender, education, and position), followed by questions regarding emotional intelligence as well as leadership style. The survey should take no longer than 30 minutes to complete, and no identifying information (name, email address, school district, etc.) will be gathered.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of
benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time
and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims,
rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study.

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

The alternative to participation in the study is not participating or completing only the items
which you feel comfortable.

Your alternative is to not participate, and you may withdraw from the study at any time without
consequence.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study anonymous as far as permitted by law. However, if I am
required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you.
Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if you
tell me about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine's University's Human
Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP
occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of
research subjects.
The data will be stored on a password protected computer in the principal investigators place of
residence. The data will be stored for a minimum of three years. The data collected will
be not be identifiable nor will it be linked to your identity.
There will be no identifiable information in connection with this study. Your name, address, or
other identifiable information will not be collected.

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the
research herein described. I understand that I may contact Dr. Ronald Stephens, Faculty
Advisor, at **ron.stephens@pepperdine.edu** if I have any other questions or concerns
about this research.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or
research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate &
Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center
Drive Suite 500
Los Angeles, CA 90045, 310-568-5753 or gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

By clicking on the link to the survey questions, you are acknowledging you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at end time, for any reason without penalty.

You Agree to Participate

You Do Not Wish to Participate

<u>If you would like documentation of your participation in this research you may print a copy of this form</u>