EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF GEORGIA'S TECHNICAL COLLEGE DEPARTMENT CHAIRS

by

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(Under the Direction of Wanda L. Stitt-Gohdes)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the self-perceived emotional intelligence (EI) and the self-perceived leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges. Both emotional intelligence and leadership were categorized into more specific aspects for comparison purposes.

The researcher administered a pencil-and-paper version of the Emotional Intelligence test by Jerabek (2001) to 60 department chairs in the state of Georgia. The test measured the six dimensions of the EI framework including *behavioral aspect*, *knowledge aspect*, *emotional insight into self*, *goal orientation and motivation*, *ability to express emotions*, and *social insight and empathy*. In addition, the department chairs completed the Leadership Practices Inventory by Kouzes and Posner (2003) measuring a broad range of leadership styles including *model the way*, *inspire a shared vision*, *challenge the process*, *enable others to act*, and *encourage the heart*.

Prior research has suggested that leadership at all levels of an organization is important. The department chair holds a unique position, one that is often referred to as being caught in the middle between upper-level administrators and the faculty. The dual role of being an advocate for the department and an agent of the administration is made more difficult because of the various internal and external constituencies who tend to hold "simple perceptions of the department chair's role" (Hecht et al., 1999, p. 24).

Chairs must be managerial leaders, possessing both strong managerial and strong leadership skills (Yamasaki, 1999). The focus on one role to the exclusion of the other jeopardizes trust, support, and the effectiveness of the position (Hilosky & Watwood, 1997). As the department manager and leader, the chair position is crucial to the day-to-day operation and the institutional and department planning, policy, and outcomes. This requires setting the department direction, inspiring and cultivating relationships, and developing collaborative initiatives on many levels.

INDEX WORDS: Emotional Intelligence, Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Leadership Effectiveness, Educational Leadership, Technical College, Department Chair

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my mother and father, Glenda and Lamar Reddick, who have encouraged me in my educational endeavors and have offered their love and support through all the challenging times in both my educational and personal careers. I also dedicate this dissertation to my fiance, Nan Hunt, who offered her love and support to me during the last year of this dissertation. Thank you all for your support as your belief in me sustained me throughout the trials of accomplishing this milestone in my life. To this I am grateful.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background

Leadership is needed at all levels of any organization. The concept of leadership has most often been associated with the chief executive officer of an organization. While quality leadership at the top is important, the organization cannot be effective without leadership at other critical junctures. Making up possibly the largest administrative group in United States colleges and universities, department chairs have been identified as holding the key position in a department and institution (Jennerich, 1981). As colleges and universities became larger and more complex, a need for leadership and control below the level of the dean came into existence, with the department chair being the logical choice. The chair is the critical component that provides leadership, establishes climate, guides curriculum development, and formulates and implements goals for the department (Creswell, Seagren, Egly, & Beyer, 1990; McLaughlin, Montgomery, & Malpass, 1975). Additionally, chairs are arguably the most important leaders on campus as they function at the point within the institution where academic services are actually delivered (Creswell et al.).

The chair position evolved out of the Progressive era of the early 1900s and has evolved to one of the most important and critical on any college campus (Dyer & Miller, 1999). Department chairs make approximately 80% of all decisions on college campuses and are primarily responsible for both the budgeting and planning activities of the academic enterprise (Dyer & Miller). Departments are subjected to many pressures for change both from within and

outside the institution. "The chairperson's role in bringing about needed change can be central in determining whether change is indeed desirable, in planning for change, and in providing leadership in the process of implementing change" (Tucker, 1992, p. 73). Lucas (1994) referred to academic departments as the "building blocks" of a college. She stated that "how well the necessary changes are developed and implemented will depend heavily on the leadership ability of department chairs" (p. 5).

Drawing upon the work of Busher and Harris (1999) and Glover, Gleeson, Gough, and Johnson (1998), it is possible to identify four dimensions of the department chair's work. The first dimension concerns the way in which department chairs translate the perspectives and policies of senior staff into practice. This bridging function remains a central responsibility. It implies a transactional leadership role for the leader.

The second dimension focuses on how department chairs encourage a group of faculty and staff to come together and develop a group identity. An important role for the department chair, therefore, is to foster collegiality within the group by shaping and establishing a shared vision. This necessarily implies a leadership style that empowers others and that involves leaders using 'power with' or 'power through' other people to generate such collaborative departmental cultures (Blase & Anderson, 1995). This style of leadership is people-oriented and requires a leadership approach that helps other people transform their feelings, attitudes, and beliefs. Transformational leaders not only manage structure but they also purposefully impact the culture in order to change it. Hence, an important part of the department chair's work is to shape and manage departmental culture.

A third dimension concerns the improvement of staff and student performances. At one level this implies a transactional leadership role for the department chair in monitoring the

attainment of school goals and meeting particular prescribed levels of curriculum performance. On the other hand, as Glover et al. (1998) note, it suggests an important mentoring or supervisory leadership role in supporting colleagues' development and the development of students academically and socially.

The fourth and final dimension of the department chair's work is that of a liaison or representative role. This requires the leader to be in touch with a variety of individuals outside the department and to negotiate, where necessary, on behalf of the faculty and staff in the department (Busher, 1992).

Conceptual Underpinnings of the Study

Bennis and Nanus (1985) stated that a leader is a major force in an organization for articulating its dreams, pointing the way to achievement, and helping people work together effectively to bring vision into reality. According to Schein (1992), leadership is the ability to both create and manage the culture of the organization. The leader impacts the organization by creating a common language, defining boundaries of operations and clarifying roles, distributing power and status, developing norms regarding intimacy, teamwork, and trust, defining a code of conduct, and communicating the values of the organization. The success of these attempts may indicate the perceived effectiveness of the leader (Schein).

One theory of leadership that may be applicable to leadership in academia, such as department chairs, is transformational leadership. This original concept emphasized the ability of the leader to inspire followers by appealing to their higher ideals and moral values (Burns, 1978). Yukl (1998) stated that "transformational leadership refers to the process of building commitment to the organization's objectives and empowering followers to accomplish those objectives" (p. 324). Transformational leaders model participatory decision making and

consequently increase morale and productivity simultaneously as followers exhibit admiration, respect, and trust toward the leader (Bass, 1985). Tichy and Devanna (1986) indicated that transformational leaders recognize the need for change, manage the transition process, create a new vision, and institutionalize the changes.

In Kouzes and Posner's (2002) research about leaders, effective leadership was assessed by how well people were able to get extraordinary things done in organizations. Kouzes and Posner discovered recurring patterns of successful leadership practices that could be implemented by ordinary people to address challenging issues in the workplace. Their book, *The Leadership Challenge* (2002), is based on a multitude of data, including leadership surveys, in-depth interviews, and case studies. Analysis of the data resulted in an identification of the following five fundamental practices of effective leadership: Model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. Kouzes and Posner's research transcended different organizational types and levels. Consequently, leaders in a variety of fields such as education may apply their findings to their own situations.

Lucas (1994) applied the model developed by Kouzes and Posner to behaviors that are characteristic of academic chairs who become transformational leaders. She stated that transformational chairs challenge the process within the department in order to make things better, inspire a shared vision out of which come plans and procedures to make improvements, and empower others to translate innovative thoughts into action. Furthermore, they serve as role models to others by being generally positive and seeking ways to be creative problem solvers. This generates ownership and a commitment from faculty rather than a focus on negativity. Finally, department chairs believe in other people, celebrate others' accomplishments, and value change that results from experiencing successes (Lucas, 1994).

Kouzes and Posner (2002) indicated that leaders must be socially competent at all levels and that "the skills of emotional intelligence are particularly central to leadership" (p. 264). For purposes of this study, emotional intelligence is defined as a form of intelligence that refers to the ability to recognize one's own feelings, the feelings of others, and the ability to motivate oneself and others. Further, emotional intelligence is the ability to manage emotions well in oneself and in others, to be able to differentiate among emotions, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Goleman, 2000b; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Kouzes and Posner further stated that according to Daniel Goleman, "Interpersonal ineptitude in leaders lowers everyone's performance: it wastes time, creates acrimony, corrodes motivation and commitment, builds hostility and apathy" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 264).

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) stated:

> Great leaders move us. They ignite our passion and inspire the best in us. When we try to explain why they are so effective, we speak of strategy, vision, or powerful ideas. But the reality is much more primal: Great leadership works through the emotions. (p. 3)

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2001) compiled two years of new research that suggested that the leader's mood and behaviors actually determined the moods and behaviors of others in the organization. They said that a leader's emotional intelligence actually creates a certain culture or work environment. Their research showed that higher levels of emotional intelligence created climates that encouraged information sharing, trust, healthy risk-taking, and learning. On the other hand, lower levels of emotional intelligence created climates that were full of fear and anxiety.

To support their findings, Goleman et al. (2001) turned to the latest neurological and psychological research, referred to their work with business leaders, observed colleagues of

hundreds of leaders, and analyzed data on the leadership styles of thousands of executives, including those in education. "From this body of research, we discovered that emotional intelligence is carried through an organization like electricity through wires. To be more specific, the leader's mood is quite literally contagious, spreading quickly and inexorably throughout the business" (p. 44).

Goleman et al. (2001) indicated that if a leader's mood and accompanying behaviors are the cornerstones of business success, then a leader's primal task should be that of emotional leadership. The leader needs to ensure that in addition to regularly being in an optimistic, authentic, high-energy mood, one needs to make sure that the followers feel and act that way, too. "Managing for financial results, then, begins with the leader managing his inner life so that the right emotional and behavior chain reaction occurs" (Goleman et al., 2001, p. 44).

Statement of the Problem

Strong leadership is needed at all levels in Georgia's technical colleges. Goleman (2000b) asserted that leaders who are most effective are alike in one important way–they all have a high degree of emotional intelligence. He stated that a high degree of emotional intelligence is a qualification of leadership. Others have said "by now, most executives have accepted that emotional intelligence is as critical as IQ to an individual's effectiveness" (Druskat & Wolff, 2001, p. 81).

Department chairs need cognitive skills, but being the best at these skills does not make one an effective leader. According to Goleman's (2000b) research, star performers "showed significantly greater strengths in a range of emotional competencies, among these influence, team leadership, political awareness, self-confidence, and achievement drive. On average, close to 90 percent of their success in leadership was attributable to emotional intelligence" (p. 34).

Department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges may believe that they are effective and that their emotional intelligence is adequate to perform their jobs and to lead their faculty. The reality, however, may be something different. Research has shown that leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence are more successful (Sosik & Megerian, 1999; George, 2000).

One might look at the emotional intelligence of a department chair to determine if there is a relationship between the department chair's self-reported emotional intelligence and the department chair's self-reported leadership effectiveness. Humphrey (2002) referred to work by Dasborough and Ashkanasy on perceptions and maintained that leadership is "intrinsically an emotional process, where leaders display emotion, and attempt to evoke emotion in their members" (p. 500).

A department chair's emotional intelligence level may impact his or her leadership effectiveness. Specific areas of leadership can be developed and strengthened based on the department chair's level of emotional intelligence. This study is intended to explore the strength of these relationships.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges. Determining the relationship of the department chairs' emotional intelligence to leadership effectiveness will provide them with information that may assist them in improving their leadership efforts.

Research Questions

The research questions explored possible relationships between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in 13 technical colleges in Georgia. These research questions guided the study:

1. What is the self-reported emotional intelligence of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the six subscales (behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy) of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test?
2. What is the self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the five subscales (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart) of Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory?
3. What is the relationship between the six subscales of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test and the five subscales of leadership effectiveness as determined by Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory?

Significance of the Study

Kouzes and Posner (2002) proposed that leadership is a process that the average person uses to bring forth the best in oneself and others, and that the most important resources that one has are the individuals with whom he or she works. Much of what is written about school leadership, however, is based upon how teachers perceive the leadership practices of their administrators. While significant research has been conducted on leadership at the senior level of technical and community colleges, there is a shortage of research concerning leadership at the

department chair level. Because there is a need for more research on the concept of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness as proclaimed by Cherniss (2000), Goleman (2000b), Goleman, et al. (2002), Kouzes and Posner (2003a), and Leithwood and Jantzi (1999), the focus of this study was to explore the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of Georgia's technical college department chairs.

Individuals in any field need a broad range of competencies in order to predict, understand, and solve complex problems within the organization (Cleveland, 1985; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). Humphrey (2002), a leadership management professor at Virginia Commonwealth University, espoused that although it is recognized that cognitive abilities are important in making good leaders, leadership theorists have failed to realize the importance of emotions. He also implied that research into the relationship between emotions and leadership is only just beginning, so there should be grounds for future research for many years to come.

Although emotional intelligence appears to be distinguishable from other parts of intelligence, including personality, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) affirm that emotional intelligence should be taken into consideration when school administrators are interviewed. Goleman et al. (2002) cite data from 500 competence models to support their contention that "while there is no precise ratio, EI [emotional intelligence] has much more impact on leadership performance than intellect, as EI contributes from 80 to 90 percent of the competencies that distinguish outstanding leaders from average leaders – and sometimes more" (p. 251).

A better understanding of emotional intelligence and its relationship to leadership effectiveness can address the gaps that currently exist in the literature and provide a more informed link between theory and practice. This understanding can also better inform educators,

their leadership development programs, and how organizations are staffed. This study contributes new knowledge to these areas.

Limitations

Leadership is a broad concept, with a wide variety of definitions and perspectives. According to Bass and Stogdill (1990), over 200 models of leadership exist with varying boundaries, concepts, construct validities, and so forth. The limitation of using a broad construct like leadership is outweighed by the possibility of acquiring additional knowledge in this domain.

The emotional intelligence construct is another limitation of this study. There are many definitions of emotional intelligence that range from the very broad to the very narrow. Since the construct of emotional intelligence is relatively new (since the early 1990s), most of the work to date has been definitional in nature. How the construct of emotional intelligence impacts individuals and their performance is something that has only recently been examined.

Another limitation is that only 13 of the 34 technical colleges in the state of Georgia have department chairs in a formally defined leadership role. The department chairs completed the emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness assessments, and it is assumed that the participants were honest in their responses and interpreted the assessments as intended. Therefore, findings are based on their own personal perceptions of their leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence.

Definitions of Key Terms

The following terms are essential to the understanding of this study. In order to provide the reader with a better understanding of these key elements, operational definitions are provided below.

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence that refers to the ability to recognize one's feelings and the feelings of others, to motivate oneself and others, to manage emotions well in oneself and in others, and to be able to differentiate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Goleman, 2000b; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The following definitions are components of emotional intelligence and are based on the instrument used in this study.

Behavioral aspect: measures actions that will encourage desired outcomes in social situations and intrapersonal issues (Jerabek, 2001).

Knowledge aspect: measures the degree of knowledge about how to behave in order to achieve desired outcomes in interpersonal and intrapersonal situations (Jerabek, 2001).

Emotional insight into self: measures the level of emotional insight (Jerabek, 2001).

Goal orientation and motivation: measures the ability to set goals and the drive to achieve them (Jerabek, 2001).

Ability to express emotions: measures the ability to show strong mental or instinctive feelings (Jerabek, 2001).

Social insight and empathy: measures the level of mutual relations with other human beings and the ability to identify with other people (Jerabke, 2001).

Leadership. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), "leadership is a relationship. Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow" (p. 20).

Leadership effectiveness. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002), how successful one is in leadership, business, or life, ultimately depends on how well people work and play together. "Success in leading will be wholly dependent upon the capacity to build and sustain those human relationships that enable people to get extraordinary things done on a regular basis" (p. 21).

Kouzes and Posner (2002), through extensive research and studies of what they refer to as 'personal-best leadership experiences,' have discovered common threads in their work. They uncovered five practices that were common throughout numerous case analyses and survey questionnaires. These practices are as follows:

Model the way. In order for a leader to be viewed as exemplary, the leader must model the behavior they expect of others. By doing this, the leader will achieve higher standards and gain commitment from followers. Put another way, in order to earn the respect of others, a leader must lead through direct individual involvement and action. "People first follow the person, then the plan" (p. 15).

Inspire a shared vision. A leader should have dreams and visions of what *could* be. They should have an unwavering belief in their dreams; and in order to make extraordinary things happen, they must exhibit confidence in their abilities. Leaders have a desire to change the way things are and to do what no one else has ever done before. "Leaders cannot command commitment, only inspire it" (p. 15).

Challenge the process. Leaders recognize good ideas, support them, and are willing to challenge the system to get different results. These results can be new products, services, processes, and systems. Seeking and accepting challenge is what a leader pursues in order to push others to greatness. "Leaders are learners. They learn from their failures as well as their successes" (p. 17).

Enable others to act. A great leader enables others to do good work. To enable others to act, a leader must give power away, not hoard it. "When leadership is a relationship founded on trust and confidence, people take risks, make changes, keep organizations and movements alive. Through that relationship, leaders turn their constituents into leaders themselves" (p. 19).

Encourage the heart. A major part of a leader's job is to create a culture that celebrates and shows appreciation for people's accomplishments and contributions. " And leaders also know that celebrations and rituals, when done with authenticity and from the heart, build a strong sense of collective identity and community that can carry a group through extraordinary tough times" (p. 20).

Summary

The need for effective leadership has become increasingly vital to meet the challenges of the 21st century. A growing number of academics and senior managers have come to recognize the importance of emotional intelligence for effective leadership. An understanding of emotional intelligence has the potential to contribute to effective leadership in multiple ways.

This chapter developed the background and the importance for the study of emotional intelligence and effective leadership. The chapter outlined the conceptual underpinnings of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, and the research questions that are used in this study.

Chapter two includes a comprehensive review of the relevant literature as it relates to emotional intelligence, leadership, and leadership effectiveness. Chapter three includes the research design and methodology including a description of the assessments and sampling procedures. Chapter four contains a presentation of the findings including an analysis of the research questions. Chapter five concludes the study and contains a summary of the findings and suggests implications for future research.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Since the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of department chairs' self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness, the literature review includes four areas of research: emotional intelligence with an overview of Jerabek's Emotional Intelligence Test; leadership; leadership with an emphasis on transformational leadership, leadership with an emphasis on educational leadership; and leadership effectiveness with an emphasis on Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory.

Leadership involves emotions. Caruso, Salovey, and Mayer (2004) suggested that emotional intelligence may play an important role in effective leadership:

> Emotional intelligence, from an ability perspective, offers a distinctive and unique approach to an understanding of leadership, and supplements [a list of leadership traits]. Emotional intelligence may be a new trait to consider, along with other central traits that predict leadership excellence. Emotional intelligence may also provide a means to better operationalize these traits. (p. 316)

According to Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, and Buckley (2003), there are many benefits to hiring emotionally intelligent individuals and training others in the organization to be more emotionally intelligent. In the area of recruitment and selection of new employees, a measure of the new employee's emotional intelligence could aid in the selection of employees who are better able to handle high-pressure interactions and high-stress situations. The

likelihood of burnout, workplace violence, and workplace conflict might be reduced if a measure of emotional intelligence indicated a need for additional training.

To deal with rapid technological and social change, individuals need the interpersonal competencies included in the emotional intelligence construct. "Emotionally intelligent individuals who work well with others, and thus elevate the group's collective emotional intelligence, will be the most valued and sought-after employees" (Tucker, Sojka, Barone, & McCarthy, 2000, p. 332).

Emotional Intelligence

Daniel Goleman (2000b), one of several emotional intelligence scholars, posited that there are new rules in the workplace, redefining what it means to be intelligent. Individuals are being judged not just by how smart they are, or by their expertise and training, but also by how well they handle themselves and each other. The new work environment requires that successful individuals have personal qualities or competencies in understanding those with whom they work or lead (Goleman, 1995; Gowing, 2001; Williams, 2002). In his 1995 book, Goleman stated that emotional intelligence comprises a large set of abilities that have been studied by psychologists for many years. A person's ability to perceive, identify, and manage emotions provides the basis for the kinds of social and emotional competencies that are important for success in almost any job.

With the increasing use of emotional intelligence by both managers and educators, many definitions of emotional intelligence have emerged (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman 2000b; Langley, 2000; Meeker-Lowry, 2001; Salovey & Mayer 1990). Goleman (2000b) said that emotional intelligence refers to "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).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) indicated that emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence that involves "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" (p. 189). The following definitions, developed by Jerabek (2001), are components of emotional intelligence and are used in this study. *Behavioral aspect* measures actions that will encourage desired outcomes in social situations and intrapersonal issues. *Knowledge aspect* measures the degree of knowledge about how to behave in order to achieve desired outcomes in interpersonal and intrapersonal situations. *Emotional insight into self* measures the level of emotional insight. *Goal orientation and motivation* measures the ability to set goals and the drive to achieve them. *Ability to express emotions* measures the ability to show strong mental or instinctive feelings. *Social insight and empathy* measures the level of mutual relations with other human beings and the ability to identify with other people (Jerabek, 2001).

The concept of emotional intelligence, while not defined as such, has been around for centuries. Aristotle was possibly the first to talk about the importance of emotion in human interaction. As he stated, those who possess the rare skill "to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way" (Goleman, 1995, p. 23) are at an advantage in any area of life.

From 1900 to the late 1960s intelligence and emotion were viewed as separate areas of study. Tests were developed, explored, and understood within the area of intelligence. Intelligence was seen as the "capacity to carry out valid, abstract reasoning, and various biological explanations of intelligence were investigated" (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001, p.

4). In the area of emotions research, early investigators asked questions such as how would one respond in a stressful situation. Would one respond physiologically and then emotionally or vice versa? Questions also arose as to whether emotions had universal meaning (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001).

"When psychologists began to write and think about intelligence, they focused on cognitive aspects, such as memory and problem-solving" (Cherniss, 2000, p. 1). However, there were researchers who realized early on that non-cognitive aspects were very important.

Thorndike saw non-cognitive aspects of intelligence as important for adaptation and success. He wrote about "social intelligence" in the 1920s (Cherniss). He characterized social intelligence as "the ability to understand and manage men and women, girls and boys – to act wisely in human relations" (Maulding, 2002, p. 5). His work looked at what made up 'intelligence' and showed that 'social intelligence' was a part of general intelligence. He defined social intelligence as "the abilities to understand others and to act or behave wisely in relation to others" (Orme, 2001, p. 19).

Wechsler (1939) defined intelligence as "the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment" (p. 3). Wechsler further stated that there was a "social intelligence" that centered around dealings with human beings. As early as 1940 he referred to "non-intellective" as well as "intellective" elements, by which he meant affective, personal, and social factors. Wechsler was the first researcher to show that a range of intelligences was a part of general intelligence, other than traditional IQ (Orme, 2001). In 1943, Wechsler, as cited by Orme, wrote:

> The main question is whether non-intellective, that is affective and cognitive abilities, are admissible as factors of general intelligence. (My contention) has been that such factors

> are not only admissible but also necessary. I have tried to show that in addition to intellective there are also definite non-intellective factors that determine intelligent behavior. If the foregoing observations are correct, it follows that we cannot expect to measure total intelligence until our tests also include some measures of the nonintellective factors. (p. 1)

Leeper (1959) added to the work of Wechsler in studying 'emotional thought.' He concluded that emotions "arouse, sustain and direct activity" (p. 209). He suggested that 'emotional thought' contributes to 'logical thought' and intelligence in general (Leeper).

The middle 1970s to the middle 1980s was a time when several precursors of emotional intelligence were put into place (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001). Whereas intelligence and emotion were previously viewed as two distinct fields, this period marked a time when the two were integrated in the "new field of 'cognition and affect' (i.e., thought and emotion)" (p. 4). Researchers began to look at what emotions meant and when they arose. The term "emotional intelligence" was used sporadically during this time, but it was never described in any definitive way as the foundations of the concept were still being developed (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer) .

Much of the work of the early pioneers was largely forgotten or overlooked until 1980 when Bar-On, a clinical psychologist, began to research the question "why is it that some people achieve overall emotional health and wellbeing whilst others don't?" (Orme, 2001, p. 20). He developed an instrument, the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), and during the 1980s and 1990s worked directly on measuring emotional intelligence in over 15 countries (Bar-On, 2000). His test was the first test of emotional intelligence to be published by a psychological test publisher and reviewed in the Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook (Emmerling, 2003). In 1985, instead of using "EI" to describe emotional intelligence, he created the term "EQ"

(emotional quotient) to describe his approach to assessing emotional and social competence (Bar-On, 2000).

In 1983, psychologist and Harvard University professor Howard Gardner began to write about "multiple intelligences." He proposed that "intrapersonal" and "interpersonal" intelligences are as important as the type of intelligence typically measured by IQ and related tests (Cherniss, 2000; Gardner, 1993; Langley, 2000). Gardner said that many types of intelligence were essential for success in life and disputed the notion that there was one all-encompassing intelligence quotient (Gardner, 1993).

Gardner defined intrapersonal intelligence as having a true understanding of oneself and interpersonal intelligence as having an understanding of others and that both have strong implications for leadership (Gardner, 1993). Taking it a step further, Gardner defined interpersonal intelligence as "the ability to understand other people: what motivates them, how they work, how to work cooperatively with them" (Gardner, p. 9). According to Gardner (1998), "accurately determining moods, feelings and other mental states in oneself (intrapersonal intelligence) and in others (interpersonal intelligence) and using the information as a guide for behavior" (p. 22) defines a key component of emotional intelligence.

Sternberg continued the research of Wechsler and Leeper. Sternberg wrote about expanding intelligence by talking about practical intelligence. He wrote "practical intelligence is the ability to adapt to, change or alter real-life situations" (Orme, 2001, p. 21). Sternberg (2002) indicated that when one applies practical intelligence, one deliberately may, although will not necessarily, seek outcomes that are good for oneself and bad for others. His research was instrumental in creating a broader view of intelligence.

The period from the late 1980s to early 1990s marked a time when further foundations of emotional intelligence were developed (Ciarrochi, et al., 2001). In 1990, Salovey and Mayer published their first research paper, coined the term 'emotional intelligence,' and published their first review of emotional intelligence (Orme, 2001). Salovey and Mayer were aware of the previous work on non-cognitive aspects of intelligence (Maulding, 2002; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003). They described emotional intelligence as "a form of social intelligence that involves 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" (Cherniss, 2000, p. 2).

Mayer and Salovey (1997) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to reason with emotion in the areas of perceiving, integrating, understanding, and managing emotions. Mayer said that emotional intelligence gives individuals a better understanding of what it means to be smart.

Mayer and Salovey's objective was to produce a test that measured EQ in a similar way to IQ and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scales. Their work suggested that intellect and EQ were different and indeed used different parts of the brain (Langley, 2000).

Carolyn Saarni, a developmental psychologist who specialized in emotional development, spoke about 'emotional competency' as it relates to emotional development. Saarni (1999) posited that emotional competence is a vital component of social development and adds to the quality of interpersonal relationships. Her work focused on how children interact with peers, parents, and siblings and how they learn to accurately express, understand, and regulate emotions. Saarni's theory of emotional competence is comparable to other theories of emotional

intelligence but places more emphasis on the social contexts of emotional performance and on emotional self-efficacy.

The middle 1990s to late 1990s marked a time when emotional intelligence was popularized and broadened (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001). In 1995, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso started work on a test of emotional intelligence. An article in *Time* magazine that year was to be one of hundreds of newspaper and magazine articles around the world that popularized the concept (Orme, 2001).

Goleman became aware of Salovey and Mayer's work, which eventually led to his book, *Emotional Intelligence*. Goleman argued that human competencies like self-discipline, self-awareness, empathy, and persistence are of greater consequence than IQ in much of life, that people are at risk if they ignore the decline in these competencies, and that children can—and should—be taught these abilities (Goleman, 1995).

Goleman (1995) theorized that emotional intelligence plays a role in the establishment and maintenance of relationships. He said that these abilities are what distinguish great leaders and successful companies. He was trained as a psychologist at Harvard where he worked with David McClelland, among others. McClelland was among a group of researchers who were concerned with how little traditional assessments of cognitive intelligence revealed about what it takes to be successful in life.

In 1997, Salovey and Mayer further refined emotional intelligence into four mental abilities. The first consisted of perceiving and identifying emotions. The second consisted of integrating emotions into thought processes. The third consisted of understanding emotions, and the fourth consisted of managing emotions (Vitello-Cicciu, 2003).

The late 1990s to the present marks a time when "theoretical and research refinements in the area have taken place, new measures of EI have been developed, and serious research is taking place within the field" (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001, p. 8). In 1998, Daniel Goleman's book *Working with Emotional Intelligence* was published. This book outlined 25 competencies for leaders. The consulting firm that Goleman is associated with – Hay McBer – published a 360-degree measure of emotional intelligence for people in business called the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI)(Orme, 2001).

Interest in the subject of emotional intelligence has continued to grow (Orme, 2001). Higher education's administrators who master the lessons of emotional intelligence could benefit greatly and the working and learning environment could be positively affected. "Survey data in [a book called] *Primal Leadership* shows that leadership styles that exhibit emotional intelligence create the most positive working climate" (Shinn, 2003, p. 20).

Kane (1998) stated that in managing others, people with high emotional intelligence (EQ) are more successful. He gave an example in offering criticism, which is often one of the most important and difficult tasks of management. "High EQ leaders are skillful in focusing on specific information on what the person did well, what was done poorly, and how the action could be changed. Skilled EQ leaders offer a way to fix the problem rather than launch a personal attack that makes people defensive" (p. 7).

Noyes, a management consultant, cited in Meeker-Lowery (2001), stated that there are several advantages of possessing or developing a heightened emotional intelligence. She stated that one of the advantages includes understanding one's goals, motivations, and strengths more clearly. This is especially important when it comes to understanding the goals, motivations, and strengths of those one manages. Noyes stated that recognizing and overcoming obstacles to

personal and professional development, making better choices, and improving one's ability to relate to others are all advantages of a heightened emotional intelligence. "You see, when leaders take time to process and integrate their feelings, they are more authentic, and ultimately, more effective" (Meeker-Lowery, 2001, p. 9). Further, "top leaders build on their strengths rather than scramble to make up for their weaknesses" (Meeker-Lowery, p. 9).

According to Yoder (2005), there is, however, much conflict and controversy among researchers and practitioners about emotional intelligence as a construct. Unresolved issues include the definition and concept itself, measuring emotional intelligence, relevance of emotional intelligence with IQ, the relationship between individual and group emotional intelligence, and the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational effectiveness.

For example, Maccoby (2001) did not put much trust in the emotional intelligence theory of Goleman (2000b) substantiating effective leadership, especially in the area of technology. He believed that while it is obvious that managers with these qualities can improve collaborative teamwork, some of the most successful technology leaders score very low on emotional intelligence quotients. A number of the successful leaders are insensitive to and unaware of the feelings that they provoke in their outbursts. Maccoby demonstrated a prime example of this in writing about Bill Gates who often stated at the end of his conversations to employees, "That's the stupidest thing I've ever heard" (p. 2). Maccoby espoused that even though the ideal leader might have a heart that listens, he prefers a leader who puts more emphasis on following the strategic production goals rather than being guided by empathy.

In summary, the literature showed that the ability to understand one's self and others is continuing to shape the workplace and putting an unprecedented premium on determining on-

the-job success. Emotional intelligence competencies should be used by effective leaders on a daily basis, especially in building and developing working relationships in creating a positive organizational climate (Beatty & Schachter, 2001; Fullan, 2002; Goleman, 2000a). Emotional intelligence and the competencies included support the fact that leaders of the 21st century should understand and respond to working relationships in an appropriate and sensitive manner. An individual's intelligence quotient and one's interest in the work environment will need to interact in order to have an impact on whether or not the emotional intelligence competencies are used and workplace effectiveness is accomplished (Goleman, 2000a; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003).

Queendom's Emotional Intelligence Inventory

To answer the first research question, the emotional intelligence of the participating department chairs was determined by the Queendom Emotional Intelligence Test (Jerabek, 2001). This assessment integrates numerous bodies of research on emotional intelligence and has been used for human resource and counseling purposes, as well as to predict professional, personal, and social success. It is an extensively researched, statistically reliable measurement tool, having been used with thousands of men and women. The sample used in developing this assessment was 84,274 persons; and the sample used in the study for developing this assessment was randomly selected from a pool of nearly 150,000 participants, including men and women, aged 10 to 80, who took the test on Queendom.com website. This instrument is a 70-item inventory assessing several aspects of emotional intelligence, yielding an overall score as well as six subscores including a behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy. The instrument is a likert-type scaled-test with a variety of options depending on the type of question or statement posed. Low scores indicate low emotional intelligence and high scores indicate

high emotional intelligence. See Appendix A for statistics related to the emotional intelligence test and Appendix D for the actual test.

Leadership

Like emotional intelligence, leadership is also defined in a multitude of ways (Bagshaw & Bagshaw, 1999; Goleman, 2000a; Humphrey, 2002; Kane, 1998). According to Stogdill (1981), leadership is defined as an individual's behavior when he or she is directing a group's activities toward a shared goal. Stogdill (1974) also said that for every person who has attempted to define the concept of leadership, there have been an equal number of variations in definitions. For purposes of this study, leadership is defined by Kouzes and Posner (2002) who said that, "Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow" (p. 20).

The issue of leadership has been researched extensively, yielding an enormous amount of literature. A wide variety of approaches to leadership have been proposed – researchers have analyzed what leaders are like, what they do, how they motivate their followers, how their styles interact with situational conditions, and how they can make major changes in their organizations (Bass and Stogdill, 1990; Fiedler & House, 1994; Yukl, 1998). These theories have increased the understanding of leadership. How and why leaders have or fail to have positive influences on their followers and organizations is still a compelling question for leadership researchers (George, 2000).

Stogdill and Coons (1957) indicated that the Ohio State Leadership Studies, initiated in 1945, approached the topic of leadership as that of examining and measuring performance or behavior rather than human traits. At that time, no satisfactory theory or definition of leadership

was available. It was suggested that performance in a leadership position was determined to a large degree by the demands made upon the position.

The 'trait approach' was the first systematic attempt at studying leadership (Stogdill, 1974). Scholars were looking for traits that make a great leader and those traits that encourage others to follow. Stogdill (1981) stated that the leader's traits must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics of the followers. Stogdill suggested that leadership could not be defined by a set of traits but rather that leadership was based on a relationship between leaders and followers (Stogdill, 1981; Yukl, 1998).

Blake and Mouton (1985) explored how managers, in the organizational setting, used task and relationship behaviors to influence subordinates. They said that in order to lead an organization, leaders needed to focus on two factors: concern for production and concern for people. According to Blake and Mouton, the factor "concern for production" refers to the bottom line, the results, the performance or profits of the organization. "Production, in other words, is whatever an organization hires people to accomplish" (p. 10). The factor "concern for people" refers to the subordinates or colleagues in an organization and the dynamics that occur between them and especially those that occur between the leader and those he or she manages. Blake and Mouton stated that in order to determine effectiveness, the assumptions that managers make about people are important. "People are people regardless of the context in which the work takes place – industry, government, educational and medical institutions, or the home" (p. 10).

Frederick Herzberg is best known for his two-factor theory of motivation. According to the theory, there are two sets of variables that are responsible for motivation and employee satisfaction. One is motivators and the other is hygiene factors (Miller & Scott, 1988).

Motivators include achievement, advancement, the work itself, growth, responsibility, and recognition. Hygiene factors include the work environment, the type of supervision, salary, job security, status, and attitudes and policies of supervisors (Herzberg, 1982). Herzberg, referring to work that he did with 1,685 employees, stated that motivators were the primary cause of satisfaction and hygiene factors the primary cause of unhappiness on the job.

Victor Vroom (1995) is the researcher who is credited with developing the expectancy theory. Expectancy theory is probably the most widely accepted theory of work and motivation. While there are different variations to this theory, "they all explain work motivation in terms of a rational choice process in which a person decides how much effort to devote to the job at a given point in time" (Montana & Charnov, 2000, p. 266). According to the expectancy theory, one chooses behaviors based on two variables: one is on the belief that choosing a particular behavior will result in some type of outcome and the probability that choosing this behavior will indeed result in a particular outcome – that the outcome will indeed occur. Yukl (1998) continued by describing the successful completion of a task and the likelihood that the completion of a task will result in desirable outcomes. This determines the extent to which a person exerts effort toward the task.

Evans and House investigated how leaders motivated subordinates to accomplish goals. This is referred to as the path-goal theory (Yukl, 1998). Evans and House were interested in research that showed what motivates employees to do what they do, and the path-goal theory first appeared in the leadership literature in the early 1970s (Northouse, 2004). This leadership theory focuses on employee motivation which should enhance employee performance and satisfaction (Tosi, House, & Dunnette, 1972).

The leadership style of the department chair is reflected in how the chair fulfills roles and responsibilities and may influence others' perceptions of effectiveness (Lucas, 1994). Sometimes, if faculty uses academic freedom as an excuse for poor teaching or lack of productivity, the chair and upper level administrators may use an autocratic leadership style. Other chairs may choose to be transactional leaders in order to maintain the status quo within the department. Past practices and functioning as a manager in terms of goal attainment guide their decisions. They offer rewards in order to motivate performance. Still other chairs choose to adapt a laissez-faire approach to leadership in which the leader waits for deviations or mistakes to occur and then takes action when they are detected (Hilosky & Watwood, 1997).

In looking more broadly at leadership and, in particular, the future nature of leadership, a number of authors and researchers have identified the growing significance of emotional intelligence (Cacioppe, 1997; Chaudry, 2000; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). In part, this shift in focus from the rational to emotional aspects of leadership represents the continuation of a trend encountered more broadly in thinking on organizational behavior and leadership (Fineman, 1997; Goffee & Jones, 2000). Indeed, although not explicitly stated, much of the literature on transformational leadership implies that leaders require emotional intelligence. In reviewing the leadership literature from the "transformational" period onward, there appears to be a strong indication that there is a linkage between leadership and emotional intelligence (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003).

The importance of emotions as an influence on leadership began to emerge as a concept in the 1980s (Yukl, 1998). What is believed to greatly influence the achievements of groups and organizations are the emotional, value-based aspects of leadership. Much of this emotional, value-based leadership research concentrated on the characteristics and effects of charismatic

and transformational leadership with its recognition on the importance of emotion (Bass, 1985; Kanungo, 1998; Tichy & Devanna, 1990).

Leadership - Transformational Leadership

The original idea of transformational leadership was developed by Burns (1978) who defined it as a process in which "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (p. 20). Bass (1985) further refined the definition and looked at Burns' theory as two distinct types of leadership processes, the first being transactional leadership and the second being transformational leadership. Transactional leadership is concerned with enabling others to accomplish a set of tasks. Transformational leadership is seen as that which influences followers by arousing strong emotions and an identification with the leader (Bass, 1985).

James McGregor Burns first developed the idea of transformational leadership in 1978 and was followed by Bernard Bass and others. Neither Burns nor Bass studied schools but rather based their work on studies of business executives, political leaders, and army officers (Liontos, 1992). Much of the research up until the 1970s had been on ordinary or transactional leadership (Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992).

James Burns stated that transformational leadership is the result of a fusion of the purposes of the leader and followers into one purpose. They should come together for a common cause. Leaders do not have to represent formal leadership positions, as they can be any two or more individuals who want to influence one another (Brown, 1993).

Burns also stated that transformational leadership allows leaders and followers to raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation (Wilmore & Thomas, 2001). He said that this occurs in two stages. In the first stage, there is a focus on self-esteem, autonomy, and self-

actualization. These represent one's higher-order psychological needs. The second stage focuses on moral issues such as goodness, righteousness, duty, and obligation (Wilmore & Thomas).

Bass (2003) felt that through motivation, transformational leaders enable their followers to accomplish more than they originally intended, to look at the overall interests of the group instead of focusing on individual interests, and to ultimately convert their followers into leaders. This is accomplished by inspiring the followers to identify with and imitate positive behaviors and actions. Through challenge and persuasion, followers receive meaning and understanding through their work and are able to tap into their own abilities in order to strengthen and build on them.

Transformational leadership assumes that individuals are not the same as a result of interactions that take place between a leader and his or her followers. They are much different. Marked improvements and positive changes are evident as the leader motivates and encourages the followers through close-knit relationships. Transformational leadership is concerned with values, emotions, standards, ethics, and long-term goals. It also includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings (Burns, 1978).

The transformational leader seeks to understand employees in order to meet their needs and demands. The followers' potential motives are sought, their higher needs are satisfied, and the follower is engaged to the fullest extent (Brown, 1993). Transformational leadership allows leaders and followers to develop relationships where followers become 'elevated' and often become more active themselves, creating new leaders (Brown).

Transformational leaders are more concerned with getting cooperation, energy, enthusiasm, and excitement out of the organization's members than with completing a list of

tasks. "Transformational leaders see themselves as responsible more for redefining educational goals than for implementing existing programs" (Mitchell & Tucker, 1992, p. 34). When members do not have a clear understanding of the organization's goals or if they do not agree with them, then the leadership must seek to transform the feelings, beliefs, and attitudes of the followers. Followers have to believe in themselves and the goals of the organization; compliance is not enough (Mitchell & Tucker).

An important attribute of the transformational leader is that of a "people person." Building and developing relationships with the employees is critical. They inspire, energize, and intellectually stimulate their employees. Transformational leadership is about vision and working with others. It is about respect for people by allowing and encouraging the growth of others and influencing people to work willingly to accomplish group goals (Brown, 1993). Through training, managers can learn the techniques and obtain the qualities they need to become transformational leaders.

Bass (2003) was concerned with identifying the behaviors underlying incidents of exceptional leader performance. To identify leaders capable of exceptional performance, he devised a model of transformational and transactional leadership which led to the identification of factors such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, management by exception, and contingent reward. The kinds of problem-solving skills identified should contribute to intellectual stimulation. The types of skills that are identified may also account for the tendency of leaders to use transformational as opposed to transactional approaches when managing subordinates.

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and various criteria of leadership effectiveness (Avolio & Howell,

1992; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). A meta-analysis of 39 studies found that three transformational leadership behaviors (charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation) were related to leadership effectiveness in most studies (Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). This meta-analysis revealed that transformational leadership behaviors correlated more strongly with leadership effectiveness than did the transactional leadership behaviors.

Because of continuing restructuring initiatives in education, views of school leadership continue to change (Liontos, 1992). Leaders need to define collaboratively the essential purpose of teaching and learning, and then empower the entire school community to become energized and focused in this pursuit (Sagor, 1992). In effectively maintaining and achieving positive standards of performance, transactional leadership can be used to communicate to followers the work that must be accomplished. In addition, the leader demonstrates how the work will be done and uses rewards when the work is completed successfully (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammario, 1991). However, transactional leadership can only explain a small portion of how effective leaders relate to their followers. Rather than focusing merely on day-to-day operations of the organization, transformational leaders attempt to maintain and communicate a vision of where their group or team is headed. They concentrate on viewing problem situations as opportunities and take an active interest in developing individual employee relationships. As a result, transformational leaders aggressively address a crisis or problem situation and actively motivate their followers to pursue alternative and creative methods resulting in successful organizational change (Avolio et al., 1991; Yukl, 1998).

Utilizing the connection of emotion and leadership, Sosik and Megerian (1999) studied the relationship among transformational leadership behavior, emotional intelligence, and leader

effectiveness. They collected data from 63 managers regarding their transformational leadership behavior and emotional intelligence, 192 subordinates who rated their manager's transformational leadership behavior and performance outcomes, and 63 superiors who rated managerial performance. They found that categorizations of self-awareness were positively correlated with emotional intelligence of leadership and leadership behavior. Subordinate ratings of transformational leadership behavior were positively related to those leaders categorized as self-aware. They concluded "managers who maintain self-awareness (self-other rating agreement) possess more aspects of emotional intelligence and are rated as more effective by both superiors and subordinates than those who are not self-aware" (p. 386).

Transformational leadership can occur in any organization when the employees' interests are viewed as important, when they are made aware of and accept the mission of the organization, and when the employees are shown the importance of looking out for the interests of others. These results can be achieved if the leader inspires the workers, meets the emotional needs of the employees, and/or stimulates them intellectually.

Leaders should develop a unique and compelling message to share with other people. Convincing employees to strive for the organization's goals is essential to bring about change, but it is not enough. Leaders must be willing to spend time to build commitment and support for change in an organization. Trust is of utmost importance. Without it, an organization sets itself up for failure. In order to energize people in today's work force, one needs to emotionally engage people in new and innovative ways (Humphrey, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002).

Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer (2004) stated that emotional intelligence can contribute positively as an important theoretical concept to the literature on leadership. Referring to a model they developed and other models, Salovey, Brackett, and Mayer have given new

respectability to workplace discussions on emotions and have proven to be of enormous value (Salovey, et al., 2004). They have suggested that organizations, teams, and individuals will benefit from choosing leaders whose emotional intelligence is high and by developing the skills of leaders with less emotional intelligence (Salovey et al., 2004).

According to Yoder (2005), emotions have been considered a soft area and have often been seen as a detriment in the workplace. However, as one learns about how the emotional and the cognitive parts of the brain work together, it appears that intelligence about emotions can be a significant asset in the workplace – and certainly in learning organizations (Yoder).

In summary, rather than focusing merely on day-to-day operations of the organization, transformational leaders attempt to maintain and communicate a vision of where their group or team is headed. Leaders concentrate on viewing problem situations as opportunities and take an active interest in the development of individual employee relationships. Successful leaders must demonstrate trust through mutual learning and open communication with their subordinates (Covey, 1989). All stakeholders must respect themselves and each other, as well as understand the importance of focusing on the issues, not on personalities or positions in order to have effective organizational results.

Educational Leadership

Literature on research in leadership in higher education indicates that pertinent theories are based on more general theories of leadership and usually involve behaviors or traits of the leader (Seagren, Creswell, & Wheeler 1993). Cameron and Ulrich (1986) indicated that effective leaders possess professional credibility and characteristics such as decisiveness and willingness to take chances, are able to articulate a vision for the institution, and are able to lead others into internalizing the vision. While Chaffee and Tierney (1988) postulated that the

environmental context is significantly different from college to college, other researchers stated the most effective leader is able to adjust leadership strategies according to the type of institution in which he or she works (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989).

Because factors of effective college leadership have changed throughout the last three decades, traditional standards of measuring effectiveness based on environmental factors are no longer appropriate (Whetten & Cameron, 1985). Whetton and Cameron have identified characteristics of effective leadership which are similar to those found by other researchers (Keller, 1983; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Those factors include an emphasis on process and outcome, willingness to take risks, successful coalition management, individual imprinting on the organization, over-communication rather than under-communication, respect for the power of the organizational culture, and preservation of opportunity during periods of scarcity of resources.

The difference between an educational leader perceiving those under his or her command as subordinates and followers should be made clear, in terms of adequately identifying and addressing the issue of leadership. For example, all too often, a leader in the educational setting on the administrative level naturally assumes that just because instructors and other staff members are working under them, they are naturally going to look up to the administrator as a leader. Leadership is important, but it is not automatic. It is also important for individuals within an educational setting to act within a framework of teamwork, communication, and mutual understanding. "The school executive is looking for the best solutions to problems – routine and non-routine. Such solutions will not occur in an organization of interacting humans unless processes are employed that make appropriate use of the collective intelligence of these humans" (Ubben, Huges, & Norris, 2004, p. 55). This decision-making relationship heightens

both the individual responsibility of the educational administrator and the group dynamic of other staff members such as instructors and other associated professionals.

Successful college leaders are cognizant of the symbolic significance of history and the related cultural symbols and realize that they are pivotal in providing stability to the organization as well as maintaining and impacting the culture. Effective leaders realize how difficult it is to change institutional culture (Schein, 1992; Taylor, 2001).

Even though colleges are in the business of developing leaders for society, little systematic attention has been given to developing leaders within the college (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995; Lindholm, 1999). Higher education's relative lack of interest in developing people to assume roles of administrative leadership is hardly accidental. Its traditions value faculty and individual effort rather than administrative achievements. For many academic leaders, administration is a temporary assignment in a faculty career. Even though models of effective leadership have been analyzed and described from various perspectives – sociology, psychology, business, history, and education – little correlation has been found between models of effective leadership and how to develop leadership talents (Green, 1998).

Hoachlander, Alt, and Beltranena (2001) proposed that the needs for successful student achievement are not being met and are a direct result of inadequate preparation of teachers and administrators. They reported that schools have not taken the lead as business organizations have done in making internal plans for leadership development, creating these plans, and being accountable for developing leaders from within. School leaders need to be encouraged to succeed; and they should be provided with the necessary ongoing learning on how to achieve success in creating and operating schools where all school community members expect high achievement from all students, understand the depth and breadth of rigorous academic and

technical standards, and incorporate these standards thoroughly and systematically into the curriculum (Hoachlander et al.).

Filan (1999) contrasted community and technical colleges with the private sector and noted that unlike the private sector, community and technical colleges provide minimal or no funds to develop their mid-level leaders. He also pointed out that those filling the chair position…the ones regarded as "key to the effective functioning of the college's major academic and career programs" (p. 47)…generally receive little or no formal training on the job. For people in such pivotal positions to the organization, training, mentoring, and other leadership development activities are imperative.

In analyzing studies conducted over a 30-year period on leadership effectiveness and student achievement, Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2003) found that there is a substantial relationship between leadership and student achievement. Their meta-analysis revealed an average effect size between leadership and student achievement as having a positive correlation of .25. Two primary variables were determined by Waters et al. (2003) as to whether or not leadership had a positive or a negative impact on achievement. The first was the focus of change (whether leaders properly identified and focused on improving the school and classroom practices that were most likely to have a positive impact on student achievement in their school) and the second was the magnitude of change (whether or not leaders properly understood the change that they were leading and adjusted their leadership practices accordingly). By recognizing one's own feelings and those of others, as well as motivating one's self and managing emotions well in the workplace, leaders in any organization can display effectiveness through increased productivity and achievement (Goleman, 2000b).

Positing his school leadership and complexity theory demonstrating the need for school leaders to move in the direction of a more democratic, person-centered, and relational style of leadership, Morrison (2002) stated that "More fitting styles of leadership for the complex school would suggest open-endedness, unpredictability and interpersonal relations" (p. 57). With this type of leadership, a great deal of emotional intelligence is required in order to foster positive interpersonal relationships as leadership moves away from being coercive and authoritative and adopts more humanistic principles, promoting the organizational health and climate of the school, and building on mutual trust. In addition, coercion is replaced, and a feeling of a safe school climate where more diverse learning can take place is established. Communication, cooperation, diversity, and self-organization promote the human side of the organization, both personally and interpersonally (Deal & Peterson, 1999; Fullan, 2002).

Goleman (2000a) recognized that in these times of change, much of the leadership agenda concerns are established by the appropriate climate of the organization. Strong relationships and a feeling of connectedness must be established and maintained (Deal & Peterson; Senge, 2000). McCluskey (1997) suggested that schools must be viewed as "organic wholes" that grow and develop and a place where all participants and their knowledge are interrelated and extended to the surrounding environment. Beatty and Schachter (2001) believed that the emotionally intelligent leader knows how to handle himself or herself and others sensitively and effectively. Emotions appear to be an intricate part of school leadership as they play a significant part in school reform (Beatty & Schachter).

While there is lack of agreement regarding the best way to lead colleges, a review of literature suggests there is a need for more research on leadership in higher education. The public is demanding more effectiveness in all levels of education, and leaders are being held

responsible for meeting the public's demands. Research has reflected that effectiveness of colleges is highly dependent on the effectiveness of administrators but has not reflected the means to guarantee that leaders are prepared to be effective (Dyer & Miller, 1999). McDade (1987) stated that quantifiable evidence in the effectiveness of leadership training opportunities is, to a larger degree, missing. However, organized training initiatives may be able to prepare leaders for the new millennium in a shorter span of time than formal graduate programs (Anderson, 1997).

Henry Mintzberg, a researcher on leadership effectiveness, said "in professional bureaucracies such as schools and colleges, the operating core is the controlling element in the accomplishment of the organizational mission" (Myran, Baker, Simone, & Zeiss, 2003, p. 16). This core at community colleges consists of teaching, instruction, and facilitation (Mintzberg, 1989). Myran et al. stated that:

> The work of the faculty as the operating core must be controlled directly by the faculty members who need to exercise some degree of leadership and management to sequence and schedule the work. The operating core also requires an administrative element to maintain continuity, equity, safe environments, and communication, as well as to evaluate the quality of learning delivery systems. (p. 16)

According to Seagren et al., (1993), the academic department is the base unit of colleges. Not only do departments provide structure for daily operations, they divide the faculty of the larger institution and are influential in formation of faculty members' attitudes, behaviors, and performances. They are the heart and soul of the college, serving as the center of disciplinary knowledge and the niche in which faculty performs its work (Hecht, Higgerson, Gmelch, & Tucker, 1999).

Academic departments began in the 19th century as the impossibility of one person teaching all subjects became common (Seagren et al., 1993). During the 1880s and 1890s the number of academic units or departments began to grow due to a need for more specialized education. Development of the current department structure continued as new fields of study emerged, professors trained in Germany, and specialization at the graduate level emerged. Business, industry, and government provided funding for research and development of specialized programs. Out of the establishment of increased numbers of departments, the need for additional administrators to oversee the function of the department emerged (Dyer & Miller, 1999).

Throughout the years, the department structure has withstood numerous challenges and critics. Dressel, Johnson, and Marcus (1971) contended that academic departments inhibit growth of new fields of knowledge, tend to isolate professors, and narrow the focus of courses and research in specialized areas. Corsen (1975) argued that the establishment of independent departments inhibit interdisciplinary efforts, resulting in faculty resistance to change in curriculum, course requirements, and instructional practices. Conversely, department advocates contended that departments are vital organizational structures that allow faculty to develop, preserve, and transmit knowledge (Seagren et al., 1993). The department fosters a vehicle by which faculty and students may interact with a minimum of misunderstanding and superfluous efforts while providing a familiar status system in which a faculty member may be acculturated, professionally evaluated, and developed (Seagren et al.).

The lack of organizational standardization among community and technical colleges makes it difficult to identify what title to use for administrators of the basic academic unit. The position title may variously be seen as chair, head, coordinator, assistant dean, or, in some cases,

even dean (Seagren et al.; Gillett-Karam, 1999). The terms "chair" or "chairperson" are common in the literature when referring to the person who has daily contact with faculty, students and administrators and has the responsibility of assuring academic quality for the unit, whether it is a division, department or program (Byrne, 1997; Seagren et al., 1993; Tucker, 1992).

The leadership provided by a department chair is a critical factor for success, yet one that has been described as being one of the most complex and ambiguous of all leadership positions (Hecht et al., 1999). Hecht et al. reported that "departments are the heart and soul of our post-secondary institutions" and "serve as the home of disciplinary knowledge and as the intellectual and social base for faculty" (p. 271). The chair has the intricate challenge of connecting the basic organizational unit to the larger institution, requiring leadership that builds bridges, creates connections, and defuses tensions (Hecht et al.).

Chairs come into their position in a variety of ways (Hecht et al.). Some are appointed by the dean; some are elected by their colleagues; and some are recruited from outside the institution. Regardless of their appointed authority, chairs must have the support of the faculty to lead effectively. This does not come from positional power or power of authority but emerges from the ability to shape culture within the department; on their ability to focus the energy of the faculty; and on the ways in which they determine how time is used (Hecht et al.).

Bennett (1989) indicated that the position of chair is so important because that is where the educational mission is actually delivered. He related the success of the institution to how successful the chairs facilitate and monitor change with an eye to the needs of the institution as a whole. Department chairs set the academic tone for the institution and greatly facilitate or hinder the accomplishment of its mission (Bennett). Spaid and Parsons (1999) suggested that

community colleges will need to depend on internal leadership to manage the sea of change in the coming years. They stressed that it will be imperative that "people learn to lead from where they are" (p. 13) and see middle management as playing a significant role in changing the focus of leadership. It is evident that continued research in the area of department chair leadership is needed to better understand the role as an agent of change.

Leadership Effectiveness

Like emotional intelligence and leadership, leadership effectiveness has many definitions. Leadership effectiveness has been the focus of the study of leadership, and many have sought to determine the characteristics that make an effective leader (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Goleman, 2000a; Wong & Law, 2002;). Through behaviors, situational influences, traits, abilities, and sources of power, the social sciences have looked at leadership through many lenses. The question has been asked as to why some people emerge as leaders and others do not, how leaders act, and what makes an effective leader (Yukl, 1998).

Kouzes and Posner (2002) provided a useful definition of leadership effectiveness which is used in this study. They maintained that how successful one is in leadership, business, or life, ultimately depends on how well people work and play together. "Success in leading will be wholly dependent upon the capacity to build and sustain those human relationships that enable people to get extraordinary things done on a regular basis" (p. 21). Kouzes and Posner's five key leadership practices, as defined below, identify the practices of an effective leader.

Model the way. In order for a leader to be viewed as exemplary, the leader must model the behavior they expect of others. By doing this, the leader will achieve higher standards and gain commitment from followers.

Inspire a shared vision. A leader should have dreams and visions of what could be. The leader should have an unwaivering belief in his or her dreams; and in order to make extraordinary things happen, the leader must exhibit confidence in his or her abilities.

Challenge the process. Leaders recognize good ideas, support them, and are willing to challenge the system to get different results. These results can be new products, services, processes, and systems.

Enable others to act. A great leader enables others to do good work. To enable others to act, a leader must give power away, not hoard it.

Encourage the heart. A major part of a leader's job is to create a culture that celebrates and shows appreciation for people's accomplishments and contributions.

Many organizations today need to change rapidly to maintain their competitive edge. Rapid change requires that an organization has employees and leaders who are adaptive, work effectively, constantly improve systems and processes, and are customer focused. Effective leaders are those who get results within time frames that are considered appropriate for their industries and stakeholders (Goleman, 2000b). Emotional intelligence has been identified through the popular press and some research as that critical element needed for effective leadership. Comparing leaders from successful educational organizations with those who are employed in successful businesses, Fullan (2002) found that there are similar traits between the two groups. Fullan explained that leaders in all organizations share a common theme of thoughts and emotions including a keen belief in morals, understanding the mechanisms of change, knowing the importance of using emotional intelligence in building relationships, committing to the development and sharing of new information, and a capacity to be creative.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) suggested that as organizations wrestle with the need to change and adapt to the challenges of the 21st century, the requirement for effective leadership is very important. However, more than 50 years of research have failed to provide a clear template describing what makes for effective leadership (Dulewicz & Higgs). This juxtaposition of a critical need and absence of a clear framework perhaps calls for a new way of exploring leadership requirements in volatile environments (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003).

Elements of effective departmental leadership may vary according to the context in which it is exhibited (Chaffee & Tierney, 1988). Specific requirements of effective leadership revolve around recent developments at the institution or department, the history and traditions of the department, the culture of the department, and personalities of key players (Gmelch, 1991). The effective chair must be prepared to periodically evaluate senior faculty members in order to prevent individual stagnation and loss of vitality. In addition, the effective chair must be able to forge relationships with the commercial world and to give attention to student recruitment and enrollment, as well as recruit and retain large numbers of new faculty (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 2000; Creswell, et al., 1990; Gmelch). Furthermore, the chair must be subjected to review in order to foster job protection and satisfaction by identifying strengths and weaknesses, determining department consensus and division, and assessing the degree to which faculty and the chair share harmonious perceptions of objectives and performance (Chaffee & Tierney). The overall task of effective leadership is to create a unity and common identity out of an assemblage of individuals. The chair is in the unique position to shape the department's self-perception and spirit (Bennett & Figuli, 1990).

Chairs need to learn a clearly defined set of skills or techniques to operate efficiently (Gmelch & Miskin, 1995). They must be able to gather and share information both internally

and externally, maintain appropriate communication with all stakeholders, determine relevant factors in situations, involve those affected in decision-making, and influence people by motivating them or winning their support (Bennett, 1989; Bennett & Figuli, 1990; Gmelch & Miskin, 1995; Seagren, et al., 1993; Seedorf, 1992; Tucker, 1992). Literature on leadership also emphasizes that the leader must have the ability to articulate a vision for the future and, then, possess the tenacity to embed that vision in the culture of the organization (Schein, 1992; Yukl, 1998). Effective leaders do not attempt to impose the vision on the rest of the organization, but, rather, facilitate dialogue by which options and strategies lead to adoption of the vision by others (Seagren, et al., 1993).

Once in the office, the chair must figure out how to conduct the business of serving the department and college (Seagren, et al.). Often those people who become chairs find they are ill-prepared for their new roles and experience difficulty in effectively serving as department chairs. Dressel (1981) stated that individuals are selected to serve in an administrative position without being trained or suited to it. Researchers have made little attempt to match roles and responsibilities to specific strategies for developing and implementing leadership strategies (Seagren, et al.). Too often the assumption is made that administration is synonymous with leadership, and that appointment of a chair automatically provides a leader when in reality, that may not be the case (Eble, 1990).

Kane (1998) stated that the good news from the vast literature on leadership is that much of what is needed for success can be learned. He said that there appears to be a prevailing consensus on how to effectively lead organizations today and in the years to come. There are knowledge, skills, core competencies, and attitudes that one will find in an effective leader.

In order to determine what it takes to effectively lead organizations, Kouzes and Posner (2003a) asked people what they look for and admire in a leader. After receiving responses from more than 100,000 respondents in countries all over the world and in just about every industry including education, they found that there are four clear characteristics that people look for and admire in a leader that they would willingly follow. The characteristics a leader exhibits are to be honest, forward-looking, competent, and inspiring (Kouzes & Posner, 2003a). For leaders in higher education, the results are just as applicable. Responses over the past few years have affirmed these findings and were provided by hundreds of faculty members (many of them department chairs and deans). "Comparisons with college student personnel administrators, registrars, and development officers, among other groups of college administrators, are strikingly similar to the faculty and to those from the larger data base" (p. 11).

Kouzes and Posner (2002), through their extensive research and studies of what they refer to as 'personal-best leadership experiences,' have discovered common threads in their work. They uncovered five practices that were common throughout numerous case analyses and survey research. The following practices represent the characteristics they feel make a great and effective leader.

Model the way. In order for leaders to be viewed as exemplary, they must model the behavior they expect of others (Beatty & Brew, 2004; George, 2000; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996). This means the leader must basically go first, living the behaviors he or she wants others to adopt and exhibit. It is referred to as leading from the front because people believe what they see the leader do, not what the leader talks about. Leaders must talk the talk and walk the walk; they serve as role models for others. By doing this, leaders will achieve higher standards and gain commitment from followers. Put another way, in order to earn the respect of others, a

leader must lead through direct individual involvement and action. A leader models the positive norms they would like to characterize their organization. "People first follow the person, then the plan" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 15).

Another important point is that a leader's values must remain consistent. If he or she changes values, they will be viewed either as political or inconsistent, or both (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). Crises are excellent opportunities for leaders to show that their values remain the same regardless of the situation or conditions.

A department chair's effective behavior can, in part, lead to the establishment of a healthy, positive culture within the department. Lucas (1994) suggested that chairs be upbeat and positive in their thinking and in their conversation in order to create a climate that discourages dwelling on past negatives and encourages positive problem solving.

Kouzes and Posner (2003a) said that leadership is a relationship. They refer to the work of Taylor and her colleagues at the Center for Creative Leadership who discovered that the number one critical variable for success in the top three jobs in large organizations had to do with "relationships with subordinates" (p. 2). Kouzes and Posner (2003a) stated that "the critical importance of understanding and interacting with others is underscored in higher education settings" (p. 2). They stated that if there is to be any meaningful change in most institutions of higher education, positive working relationships must be developed (Kouzes and Posner, 2003).

In the 1940s, the Ohio State Leadership Studies suggested that "consideration" is an important aspect of effective leadership. "More specifically, this research suggested that leaders who are able to establish 'mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport' with members of their group will be more effective" (Cherniss, 2000, p. 2). Modeling the behavior they expect of others allows leaders to exhibit greater influence over their followers.

Inspire a shared vision. A leader should have dreams and visions of what could be (George, 2000; Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Creation of a vision of what the organization can be is motivational and increases the self-esteem of followers. People are motivated by ideas that capture and touch their hearts, not by fear. This characteristic means that the leader is able to not just develop a vision but to communicate that vision to others in such a way that they adopt it, taking the vision on as their own. The vision must be forward-looking and positive; and it must appeal to others' values, dreams, hopes and interests. The leader should have an unwavering belief in his or her dreams and in order to make extraordinary things happen, the leader must exhibit confidence in his or her abilities. Leaders have a desire to change the way things are and to do what no one else has ever done before. "Leaders cannot command commitment, only inspire it" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 15).

In creating a shared vision, chairs must move their faculty toward a dream. Lucas (1994) iterated the importance of involving faculty in a carefully planned process of developing the departmental vision. This should be followed by the participative development of a departmental mission statement, goals, and action plans.

According to Jensen, Giles, and Kirklin (2000), "the trend toward greater participation in campus decision making demands that administrators and faculty work together more honestly and respectfully, even when a faculty member or faculty leader is difficult to work with" (p. 21). Jensen, Giles, and Kirklin go on to state that

> As you move up the administrative ranks, you will come to realize that community college administration boils down to the inescapable fact that, in the end, it's all about people – how you treat them, how you react to them, and how you work with them. (p. 21)

A leader with vision will not only see extraordinary things happen, but also will gain the respect and trust from the organization and those being led.

Challenge the process. Leaders recognize good ideas, support them, and are willing to challenge the system to get different results (Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Goleman, 2000b; Mussig, 2003). These results can be new products, services, processes, and systems. Leaders engage in an ongoing quest for quality and look for opportunities to make things better. They challenge norms when they are not in the best interest of the organization. Seeking and accepting challenge is what a leader pursues in order to push others to greatness. Leaders are not afraid of adversity nor are they afraid of difficult situations. They learn from these. Effective leaders are first to adopt innovations. Leaders step back from the status quo, they look for ways to grow, innovate, change and improve the existing situation (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). "Leaders are learners. They learn from their failures as well as their successes" (p. 17).

A department chair knows "his or her organization's norms and culture very well, but will also be willing to risk challenging those norms when they are negative or dysfunctional" (Lucas, 1994, p.52). Lucas noted that challenging norms that are deeply embedded in the culture of the organization requires taking risks; thus, chairs must be courageous. They also help faculty to identify departmental norms and to ask whether these norms work to the betterment or detriment of the department. Chairs must be supportive and have a high tolerance for mistakes.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) stated that in reviewing the leadership research, it is evident that thinking has moved from a personality or trait basis, through a behavioral and contextual (or situational) stage, and into the now classic transformational/transactional models. They contend that a new stream of thinking is emerging which looks at the challenges faced by organizations and the need to think of the associated leadership requirements in less rational or analytic terms.

This thinking focuses on the emotional aspects of leadership and is typified by the work of Kouzes and Posner and others. The development of this thinking is parallel with the broader growth in interest and research into emotional intelligence. There is an emerging view, from different streams of work, that emotional intelligence is a critical factor in the effective leadership of 21st century organizations (Dulewicz & Higgs). All organizations are full of challenges, and a great leader is one who takes advantage of those challenges to push the organization to greatness.

Enable others to act. A great leader enables others to do good work. To enable others to act, a leader must give power away, not hoard it (McCauley & Velsor, 2004; Morand, 2001; Mussig, 2003). By empowering followers to act, leaders encourage the transition of creative ideas into actions. "When leadership is a relationship founded on trust and confidence, people take risks, make changes, keep organizations and movements alive. Through that relationship, leaders turn their constituents into leaders themselves" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 19).

Encouragement and praise are not enough to motivate people; they must feel they have the power to act. People must also have the ability to put their ideas into actions. Leaders encourage collaboration; they build teams and teamwork where others may use their own leadership skills. Trust is critical; the leader must trust subordinates and they must trust the leader (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Department chairs can enable faculty to act on innovative ideas. Chairs can empower faculty by listening through more completely. Lucas (1994) suggested four means of providing empowering information to others: "by providing positive emotional support when others are under stress; by generally being supportive and offering words of encouragement; by providing successful role models; and by creating actual successful experiences or small steps taken toward

the accomplishment of a goal" (p. 60). Lucas felt that creating and rewarding small wins was the most effective method of empowering others. Encouraging others to act allows followers the opportunity to respond to challenges and to be productive in ways that otherwise would not be possible.

Encourage the heart. A major part of a leader's job is to create a culture that celebrates and shows appreciation for people's accomplishments and contributions (George, 2000; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Morand, 2001; Murray, 1998). Leaders recognize that experiencing success with a new behavior results in change. "And leaders also know that celebrations and rituals, when done with authenticity and from the heart, build a strong sense of collective identity and community that can carry a group through extraordinary tough times" (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, p. 20).

To accomplish anything, people must be passionate about it, about what they are doing. Effective leaders are able to unlock the enthusiasm of their followers. They can do so with their own passion as well as with stories. Leaders also recognize that things just do not go right all the time. At those times, the leader is there to encourage people to keep trying, not to give up. They help people move beyond the challenges that may seem like obstacles (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

To encourage the heart of faculty, chairs should reinforce positive behavior and accomplishments. Transformational department chairs make people feel important and good about themselves.

Kouzes and Posner (2003a) stated that after numerous interviews and case analyses, they were amazed at how often leaders used the word 'love' so freely "when talking about their own motivations to lead, in explaining why they endured the hardships, made the personal sacrifices,

and accomplished what they did" (p. 104). They said that love is the most lasting of all the things that sustain a leader.

> It's hard to imagine leaders on any college campus getting up day after day, and putting in the long hours and hard work it takes to get extraordinary things done, without having their hearts in it. This may just be the best-kept secret of successful leaders: If you love what you're doing, you will never have to work. Stay in love with leading, stay in love with the people who do the work, with the students, faculty, staff, and alumni that are transformed because of their time at your institution, with the scholarship, ideas, programs, and applications that emerge through and because of what you and so many others contribute. (p. 104)

Kane (1998) said that intelligence and integrity have an impact on other people's lives since they provide a foundation for making sound judgments. He said that leaders with integrity have a firm set of personal ethical standards – mainly honesty and fairness. He also believes that school leaders set the tone for human interactions in the school. To develop students and teachers who are caring and loving, schools must by led by caring and loving leaders (Kane).

It is possible for a leader to bring out positive feelings in workers. This does not mean that everyone should be in a good mood. The idea is to get more work accomplished in an easier way and to motivate by something other than fear. "Leaders who guide with both head and heart foster environments that promote teamwork, collaboration. . .and desired outcomes. Emotional awareness is the cornerstone that underlies your ability to become emotionally intelligent" (Vitello-Cicciu, 2003, p. 32). Guiding with both head and heart shows that the leader is sincere in his or her motives and gives leadership a dimension of "humanness."

Kouzes and Posner's leadership practices represent the characteristics they feel make a great leader. What is the relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence? While there have been years of research on leadership and an increasing number of studies on emotional intelligence over the last 10 to 15 years, there is a growing body of research that addresses the relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence. Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, and Buckley (2003) supported this relationship by saying that:

> For decades, leadership scholars have sought to identify the personal qualities and characteristics that contribute to leadership effectiveness. Increased evidence in recent years seems to suggest that social effectiveness skills are crucial to the performance and effectiveness of leaders. Furthermore, emotional intelligence has emerged as one of the most notable social effectiveness constructs, and we argue that it is a foundational element of leadership effectiveness. (pp. 21-22)

The higher up the leadership ladder one goes, the more vital the skills of emotional intelligence become, often influencing who is hired or fired, and passed over or promoted (Goleman, 2000a; Hamel & Prahalad, 1991). If this is true, the implications for how one organizes and manages one's working life are considerable.

Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2001) provide further support for the idea that a critical component of leadership effectiveness, as it relates to leaders and their interactions with teams, is in the area of emotional intelligence. They state that leaders who are emotionally intelligent motivate team members to work together toward team goals and are often transformationally influential over team members. They continue by stating that these types of leaders are able to increase team effectiveness and performance by challenging the members of the team,

facilitating interaction dynamics, building interpersonal trust, and inspiring team members to execute the organization's vision.

What makes a leader successful and effective and how does emotional intelligence fit into the equation? "People are beginning to realize that success takes more than intellectual excellence or technical prowess . . . Internal qualities such as resilience, initiative, optimism, and adaptability are taking on a new valuation" (Maulding, 2002, p. 11). According to Maulding, it starts with understanding one's emotional self and underpinning it with cognitive intellectual knowledge. The other domains of emotional intelligence would be difficult to exhibit if this foundational intelligence in regard to oneself were missing. Taking it a step further, Maulding said that in order to distinguish successful leaders from those who were only good enough to keep their jobs, one must build on the other competencies or domains of emotional intelligence such as empathy, self-discipline, and initiative.

If the objective of leadership is the success of short-term projects and meeting preset standards, then traditional concepts of leader/follower may be appropriate. However, if the objective of leadership is to evolve a climate conducive to real transformation of thinking, attitudes, and behavior over several years, then emphasis needs to shift to how to connect diverse people and introduce new ideas into the thinking and activities of the organization. The ideas of emotional intelligence can aid in this process.

Ehrle and Bennett (1988) stated:

> It is difficult to describe just what constitutes effective leadership. Like effective teachers, effective leaders come in all sizes and shapes, and have different styles and different ways of getting their way and helping others get theirs. Whatever one's style, however,

deliberate efforts must occur to make one's values and goals visible to others and to empower their activities. (p. 191).

Leaders may be evaluated in terms of effectiveness by focusing on how well the leaders influence others while some leaders may be judged to be more effective by the way they respond to crises (Schein, 1992; Yukl, 1998). Regardless of whether there is a best way to assess leadership effectiveness, Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) extensive research provides a comprehensive, reliable framework from which to examine effectiveness of department chairs.

In summary, determining the relationship of the emotional intelligence of department chairs at Georgia's technical colleges to leadership effectiveness will enable them to look for ways to improve their leadership abilities where needed. Training and professional development efforts can be targeted toward specific areas of weakness. Findings will allow leadership preparation programs to target their training to improve the selection, recruitment, and retention of quality department chairs.

Kouzes and Posner's Leadership Practices Inventory

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was developed through a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods and studies. In-depth interviews and written case studies from personal-best leadership experiences generated the conceptual framework, which consists of the five leadership practices of *model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart* (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

The actions that make up these practices were translated into behavioral statements. Following several iterative psychometric processes, the resulting instrument has been administered to over 350,000 managers and non-managers across a variety of organizations, disciplines, and demographic backgrounds. Validation studies confirm the reliability and

validity of the LPI and the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders model. Overall, the LPI has been extensively applied in many organizational settings and is highly regarded in both the academic and practitioner world (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

The conceptual portion of the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders framework grew out of the collection and analysis of case studies of personal-best leadership experiences. The resulting questionnaire generally requires about an hour of reflection and expression. Kouzes and Posner collected more than 4,000 of these surveys and over 7,500 additional respondents have completed a short form of this survey. In addition to the case studies, in-depth interviews have been conducted with managers and individual contributors across a wide variety of public and private-sector companies around the world. These interviews have generally taken forty-five to sixty minutes; in some cases, they have lasted four to five hours. The total number of interviews is now well over 500. The experience and the process has been relatively consistent over the nearly two decades that Kouzes and Posner have been collecting case studies (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b). See Appendix B for test statistics.

The LPI was created by developing a set of statements describing each of the various leadership actions and behaviors. Each statement was originally cast on a five-point Likert scale, and reformulated in 1999 into a more robust and sensitive ten-point Likert-scale. A higher value represents more frequent use of a leadership behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

Statements were modified, discarded, or included following lengthy discussions and iterative feedback sessions with respondents and subject matter experts as well as empirical analyses of various sets of behaviorally based statements. Ongoing analysis and refinements in the instrument continue, with a database involving well over 100,000 respondents (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

The LPI contains thirty statements—six statements for measuring each of the five key practices of exemplary leaders. Both a Self and Observer form of the LPI have been developed. The Self form was the only form used in this study. In addition, subsequent forms of the LPI have been developed for use with various populations (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

Summary

Emotions and emotional intelligence are worthy of consideration in the leadership domain. Emotional intelligence has the potential to contribute to effective leadership in multiple ways. Leadership is an emotion-laden process, from both a leader and a follower perspective. Leadership is a long-term investment in any organization; and since the investment is long-term, the advantages of emotionally intelligent leadership are also long term. Improvements can be seen as a result of the emotionally-intelligent style of leadership.

Transformational leadership theory is a newer theory that has occupied center stage in leadership research in the last two decades. The transformational theory of leadership enables individuals of an organization to redefine their mission and vision, renew their commitment, and restructure their organization's systems for the attainment of goals. It is about transforming the hearts and minds of followers to higher levels of motivation and performance. Transformational leadership empowers, generates hope, creates optimism and provides energy to a group as it seeks to compete in an ever-changing world. Leadership has an immediate effect on the successes or failures of organizations. Transformational leadership theory has the potential to improve colleague motivation, perception, accountability, commitment, understanding, and job satisfaction in the workplace.

A leader's emotional intelligence level may impact the follower's perceptions of their effectiveness. Specific areas of emotional intelligence may also have an impact on those

perceptions. Specific areas of leadership can be developed and strengthened based on the leader's level of emotional intelligence. This study will explore the potential relationship between the emotional intelligence of Georgia's technical college department chairs and their perceived leadership effectiveness.

The literature suggests that there is limited but growing research related to the connections between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence. This study explored these relationships and connections. Chapter three provides a description of the research methodology, including the measurement instruments used and sampling procedures. Chapter four includes the data analysis and research findings. Chapter five includes the summary of the study and suggests implications for further research.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Introduction

Emotional intelligence may provide the guidance that is needed for understanding the leadership practices of the department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges. If one is better able to understand the importance of emotional intelligence and its impact on leadership effectiveness, department chairs may be able to experience greater influence and professional satisfaction within their colleges.

This chapter describes the method used to study relationships between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The following components will be addressed: (a) purpose of the study; (b) research questions; (c) design; (d) participants; (e) instrumentation; (f) procedures; and (g) data analysis.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges. Determining any relationship between the department chairs' emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness may assist them to improve their leadership efforts as needed.

Research Questions

Research questions include:

1. What is the self-reported emotional intelligence of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the six subscales (behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy) of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test?
2. What is the self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the five subscales (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart) of Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory?
3. What is the relationship between the six subscales of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test and the five subscales of leadership effectiveness as determined by Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory?

Study Design

The study employed the survey research method. One major advantage of survey research is that it allows large amounts of information to be gathered rather quickly. The survey design allowed for an exploratory inquiry into emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of Georgia's technical college department chairs.

The independent variable was the emotional intelligence of the department chairs. The six components used to describe emotional intelligence in this study were based on the work of Jerabek (2001) who stated that emotional intelligence consists of the following: behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to

express emotions, and social insight and empathy. Leadership effectiveness was the dependent variable and is defined according to Kouzes and Posner (2002) who stated that effective leadership consists of the following: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart.

This study used correlational analysis to determine the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs. A correlational study is one that measures the degree of the relationship between two or more variables (Hurlburt, 2003). A simple correlational study is one where there is a single variable (Y) in the left-hand set and a single variable (X) in the right-hand set (Huberty & Petoskey, 1999). A multiple correlational study is one where there is a single variable (Y) in the left-hand set and multiple (X) variables in the right-hand set (Huberty & Petoskey, 1999). The degree of this relationship is expressed as a correlation coefficient ranging from -1 to 1.00. Zero indicates no relationship while 1.00 indicates a perfect positive relationship and -1.00 indicates a perfect negative relationship. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 13.0 software was utilized to conduct descriptive statistical analyses in reviewing the data from an emotional intelligence assessment and a leadership effectiveness assessment.

Participants

The population for this study included department chairs employed at 13 technical colleges in the state of Georgia in fall 2006. These 13 technical colleges have department chairs in a formally defined role. The lists of department chairs were obtained from the colleges' web sites. There are 60 department chairs in these 13 technical colleges, and all 60 department chairs were surveyed.

Instrumentation

The field of psychological assessment has a rich research history. A great deal of consensus has been reached as to what constitutes a worthy psychological test (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001). Written self-report assessments are the most commonly used measurement mode in organizational research; however, results can be severely impacted by undetected trivial features of questions within the measurement (McLaughlin, 1999). The context of an item, including the way the question is stated or worded, as well as the order of questions and response options, can have intended or unintended effects on the answers of the respondents. The importance of these item context effects is essential in leading researchers to accurate conclusions both in instruments being comparable and in observed relations between variables, possibly threatening the validity of theoretical propositions (Feldman & Lynch, 1998; Harrison & McLaughlin, 1996).

This study attempted to eliminate any undesirable context effects of self-reporting by administering valid and reliable assessments that have been carefully scrutinized for clarity and specificity of instructions, questions, and response options using the everyday language of those who will provide answers. Participants were instructed to take their time in providing thoughtful answers and were assured of confidentiality, reducing one's reliance on what may be considered socially or normally desirable.

The ideal emotional intelligence test should satisfy four criteria: adequate coverage of content domain, reliability, usefulness, and similarity and distinctiveness (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer, 2001; Schutte, Malouff, Hall, Haggerty, Cooper, & Golden, 1998). To determine whether or not adequate coverage of content domain has been satisfied, a scientifically valid test of emotional intelligence should cover a representative sample of the domain that it was designed

to assess. Reliability refers to whether or not the instrument measures something consistently over time. Usefulness refers to whether the instrument is able to produce good results. The test should predict important practical outcomes (Ciarrochi, Forgas, & Mayer).

To answer the first research question, the emotional intelligence of the department chairs was determined by the Queendom Emotional Intelligence Test. This instrument is a 70-item inventory assessing several aspects of emotional intelligence, yielding a general overall score as well as a behavioral score and a knowledge score. Subscores are also available in four specified areas: emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy. Question types include self-assessment and situational questions. Research on the reliability and internal consistency of this emotional intelligence test concludes that the inter-item consistency according to Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha is .9068. Speaking in terms of split-half reliability, the correlation between forms is .7136; the Spearman-Brown formula is .8329; and the Guttman's formula is .8235 (Jerabek, 2001). Reliability refers to the extent to which an instrument contains "measurement errors" that cause scores to differ for reasons unrelated to the individual respondent (Rojewski, 1999). The fewer errors contained, the more reliable the instrument, and instrument reliabilities above .60 are considered good (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b).

Validity addresses the question of whether or not an instrument truly measures what it purports to measure and, accordingly, whether its scores have meaning or utility for a respondent (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b; Rojewski, 1999). Means, standard deviations, and reliability scores are presented in table form in Appendix A.

The goal of the second research question was to obtain a measure of leadership effectiveness. Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) 3rd Edition

Self form was used. The LPI contains thirty statements, six statements for measuring each of the five key practices of exemplary leaders. A ten-point Likert scale was used to report the leadership effectiveness of the department chairs on each item. According to Kouzes and Posner (2003b), there is considerable empirical support for the five practices of exemplary leadership framework. The inventory was developed through a triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods and studies. In-depth interviews and written case studies from personal-best leadership experiences generated the conceptual framework consisting of the five practices.

The actions that make up these practices were translated into behavioral statements. Validation studies that Kouzes and Posner, as well as other researchers, have conducted over a 15-year period consistently confirm the reliability and validity of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders model (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b). Overall, the LPI has been extensively applied in many organizational settings and is highly regarded in both the academic and practitioner worlds. Internal reliability, as measured by Cronbach's Alpha, continues to be strong, with all scales close to the .75 level. This is true for the Self version as well as for all Observers and the Observer category.

A change in the response scale, from a 5-point to a 10-point scale, was made for the second edition of the LPI. In addition, a few statements were revised and editorial changes were made in several other statements. Responses from observers can now be further categorized by their relationship to the leader. Otherwise, the basic structure of the instrument was not altered i.e., five scales of leadership practices, each one measured by response to six statements, on a 10-point Likert scale, about how frequently this behavior was engaged in. The results described in the psychometric report are consistent with those reported earlier from the first edition of the LPI. The total sample size used in this analysis was 17,908 (Self = 2,072; Manager = 1,426;

Direct Report = 5,234; Co-Worker / Peer = 5,591; and Other = 3,585. Means, standard deviations, and reliability scores are presented in Appendix B.

Procedures

An introductory letter was mailed to the presidents of the 13 technical colleges that were identified as having department chairs, asking permission to administer the emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness assessments to the department chairs. The letter explained the purpose of the study and sought their participation. Once participation was affirmed, the department chairs were mailed introductory letters along with surveys asking them to participate in this study. The researcher requested and was granted a waiver of signed consent from the institutional review board meaning that a consent form was not necessary for this study. The introductory letter included a statement of assurance that risk to the participants would be minimal. The letter also included a statement of the confidentiality of the colleges and department chairs. In addition, it stated that participation would be completely voluntary and that the participants could withdraw at any time during the study.

The emotional intelligence assessment was mailed to the department chairs asking them to complete the pencil-and-paper version of the emotional intelligence test and a pencil-and-paper version of the Leadership Practices Inventory. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were mailed along with the surveys for the purpose of returning the completed surveys to the researcher. See Appendix C for sample of letter.

Error limit is defined as the degree to which the researcher can be confident that the sample and the respondents are representative of the population (Wunsch, 1986). The possibility of systematic distortion of the data because of differences between respondents and non-respondents is referred to as non-respondent bias. One-hundred percent response rates are

unrealistic, so it is the researcher's responsibility to decrease the concern of non-response bias (Wunsch). Following up with the non-respondents is a generally accepted method for accomplishing this. Through the use of follow-up mailings and incentives, response rates as high as 70% can be achieved for mail questionnaires (Weisberg, Krosnick, & Bowen, 1996). An email requesting participation was sent to the department chairs who did not respond to the initial mailing. After two to three more weeks, another set of surveys was sent to the department chairs who still had not participated at that time.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed using SPSS Version 13.0 software. All instruments were completed and there was no missing data. The first research question sought to describe the self-reported emotional intelligence of the department chairs as determined by the six subscales of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test. A descriptive analysis provided details about the emotional intelligence of the chairs in the six areas of behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy. Means and standard deviations were calculated and ranked for the six subscales.

The second research question sought to describe the self-reported leadership effectiveness of the department chairs as determined by five subscales. A descriptive analysis provided details about the leadership effectiveness of the chairs in the areas of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. Means and standard deviations were calculated and ranked for the five subscales.

The third research question sought to determine the relationship between the six subscales of emotional intelligence and the five subscales of leadership effectiveness. To answer this

research question, a multiple correlation analysis was conducted. Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) stated that a multiple correlational analysis method is the most appropriate statistical method used to explore the single or combined relationship between three or more independent variables. Thirty Pearson correlations were used to examine the relationship among the six emotional intelligence subscales and five subscales of leadership effectiveness. Huberty and Petoskey (1999) suggested that there are four steps to conducting a multiple correlational analysis. The four steps are as follows: (a) calculate the strength of the relationship; (b) conduct a statistical test of the strength of the relationship; (c) interpret the relationship between the X and what is substantively represented by the collection of Y variables; and (d) determine the relative contribution of the Y variables to the relationship.

The first step was accomplished by developing a matrix showing the Pearson product correlation calculations for the collection of independent variables to the dependent variables. The independent variables of emotional intelligence consisted of: behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy. The dependent variables of leadership effectiveness consisted of: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart.

The data from the department chairs' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness assessments were tabulated and analyzed using a correlation statistical process known as Pearson r, to determine if factors of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were related. Pearson r is the most frequently used correlation coefficient (Hurlburt, 2003). It is appropriate when variables to be correlated are expressed as either ratio or interval data. Further, Pearson r is the most reliable estimate of correlation, and is more precise with a small number of subjects

(Hurlburt). Statistical analysis of data included a correlation matrix to determine the degree to which the variables of this study were related. "A correlation matrix is a table of all possible correlation coefficients between a set of variables" (Stockburger, 1998, p. 162). A correlation matrix is a convenient way of summarizing large numbers of coefficients in a single table. The matrix was used to identify whether there is independence, multivariate normality and homogeneity of the *y*-variables across *x*-variables. Once confident of these conditions, an examination was conducted to determine if there were any undue influences of extreme values and ordering of variables.

The second step was accomplished by examining the correlation coefficient, which is a number that lies between -1 and +1. Correlation coefficients are descriptive statistics that characterize a property of the relationship between two variables. The correlation coefficient is the statistic used to describe the extent to which such measurements are related. A correlation coefficient of 1.0 is the strongest possible degree of relationship. A correlation coefficient of .0 indicates no statistical relationship. The correlation coefficient, which is called 'r' when describing a sample and 'rho' when describing a population, is a number that lies between -1 and +1 (Hurlburt, 2003). A positive correlation means that as the value of one variable increases, the value of the other variable increases; as one decreases, the other decreases. If there is a negative relationship, the value of one variable increases and the other decreases, and vice-versa (Stockburger, 1998).

The third step was accomplished by examining the correlation coefficients and their probability levels for significance. There were a couple of factors to consider in the relationships between two variables: the strength and the significance of the relationships. The strength of the relationship is indicated by the correlation coefficient **r** but is actually measured by the

coefficient of determination, **r squared**. The significance of the relationship is expressed in probability levels and tells how unlikely a given correlation coefficient, **r**, will occur given no relationship in the population. The smaller the p-level, the more significant the relationship. The larger the correlation, the stronger the relationship, given that the relationship is significant.

Consider the classical model for testing significance. It assumes that one has a sample of cases from a population. The question is whether the observed statistic for the sample is likely to be observed given some assumption of the corresponding population parameter. If the observed statistic does not exactly match the population parameter, perhaps the difference is due to sampling error. The fundamental question: is the difference between what one observes and what one expects given the assumption of the population large enough to be significant – to reject the assumption? The greater the difference – the more the sample statistic deviates from the population parameter – the more significant it is.

A relationship can be strong and yet not significant. Conversely, a relationship can be weak but significant. The key factor is the size of the sample. For small samples, it is easy to produce a strong correlation by chance and one must pay attention to significance to keep from jumping to conclusions, i.e., rejecting a true null hypothesis which means making a Type I error. For large samples, it is easy to achieve significance, and one must pay attention to the strength of the correlation to determine if the relationship explains very much.

The fourth step was accomplished by ordering the independent variables. Huberty and Hussein (2001) indicated that the question should be asked as to which Y variable(s) is(are) the least important and which Y variable(s) is(are) the most important? Calculations were conducted on the data to address the question of variable importance by ordering the variables in the left-hand set (Y variables). The emotional intelligence traits were ordered to determine which Y

variable(s) is (are) the most important and which is (are) the least important in their relative contribution to perceived leadership effectiveness. Huberty and Hussein (2001) stated that "a reasonable approach to determining the relative contribution of the *p X* variables with respect to the relationship focus is to conduct *p* MCAs each with $p - 1$ *X* variables. That *X* variable which when deleted decreases the R [squared] value the greatest is considered the most important variable. One could equivalently consider decreases in the R [squared adjusted] value" (p. 335). Huberty and Hussein also stated that "a reasonable approach to determining the relative contribution of the *p X* variables to the definition of the construct defined by the *p*-variable composite is to simply compare the (absolute values or squares of the) structure *r*'s" (p. 336).

Summary

This chapter described the research design and methodology including a statement of the problem along with the purpose of the study. The research questions were given along with a description of the population and sample sizes. Sampling procedures and data collection were described along with the instrumentation used in the study. The type of data analysis and type of study and research design were described along with threats to validity and reliability. Chapter four will contain a presentation of the findings including an analysis of the research questions. Chapter five will conclude the study and contain a summary of the findings and suggest implications for future research.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction

As the department manager and leader, the chair position is important in the day-to-day operation and the institutional and department planning, policy, and outcomes. As the 21st century begins, leaders of colleges and universities are being asked to meet challenges that are more monumental in scope than any in previous time (Cohen, 1998). These challenges require setting the department direction, inspiring and cultivating relationships, and developing collaborative initiatives on many levels.

Much of the literature has concentrated on the roles, tasks, and characteristics of the department chair position. Operating in an open system, leaders must be able to adapt to an environment that is making more demands on resources while fiscal and public support is waning (Guskin, 1997). This study determined the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of the department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges. A quantitative research design was used for this study. Data collection was based on two instruments, one for measuring the emotional intelligence and one for measuring the leadership effectiveness of the department chairs.

Results

Sixty department chairs representing thirteen technical colleges in the state of Georgia were used in this study. Thirty-nine individuals participated in the study for a response rate of 65%. Nineteen (49%) participants were male and twenty (51%) participants were female. The

mean age was 49.38 (SD = 9.62). The mean number of years in the department chair position was 4.54 (SD = 2.93).

Responses to survey instruments were entered into SPSS version 13.0. Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the first two research questions. Pearson correlations were used to determine the strength of possible relationships in research question three.

Research question one asked, what is the self-reported emotional intelligence of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the six subscales (behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy) of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test? The test provided a score that was between 50 and 150, indicating very low to very high scores respectively. There are 70 questions on the test. Minimum and maximum scores along with descending ranked means and standard deviations for the six emotional intelligence subscales are presented in Table 1. 'Goal orientation and motivation' had the largest mean and, thus, was ranked first; and 'social insight and empathy' had the smallest mean, resulting in the lowest ranking. For a data set, the mean is the sum of the observations divided by the number of observations. The mean is often quoted along with the standard deviation. The mean describes the central location of the data, and the standard deviation describes the spread. The standard deviation is the most common measure of statistical dispersion, measuring how widely spread the values in a data set are. If the data points are close to the mean, then the standard deviation is small. Conversely, if many data points are far from the mean, then the standard deviation is large. In this study, the data indicate that the points are close to the mean, indicating not much dispersion in the responses.

Table 1

Descending Ranked Means and Standard Deviations for the Six Emotional Intelligence Subscales

Emotional Intelligence Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Rank
Goal Orient / Motivation	89.0	133.0	116.64	10.19	1
Behavioral Aspect	90.0	129.0	114.44	8.91	2
Emotional Insight	97.0	132.0	114.18	9.00	3
Knowledge Aspect	90.0	129.0	112.41	10.17	4
Expressing Emotion	85.0	126.0	107.64	11.59	5
Social Insight & Empathy	72.0	120.0	104.74	10.81	6

The 'goal orientation and motivation' mean score of 116.64 indicates that participants with this score possess a high level of intrinsic motivation and plenty of self-discipline to work toward their goals. They are able to handle most obstacles effectively and cope with setbacks. In addition, they are able to delay gratification in order to work towards long-term goals, and do not depend on external reinforcement (like praise or frequent encouragement) to keep them going. Individuals with high levels of inner drive generally have what it takes to set personal goals and carry them through, which likely stems from self-confidence and a proactive approach to life (Jerabek, 2001).

The 'behavioral aspect' mean score of 114.44 and 'knowledge aspect' mean score of 112.41 indicate that, in general, they are able to express their feelings clearly and determine the appropriate time and place to express those feelings. Their optimistic and positive nature helps them adapt well to changed circumstances. They deal effectively with stress, interact well with others and communicate adequately. They are comfortable with themselves, and they know and appreciate their talents and strong points as well as their weaknesses. They also have an ability to motivate themselves, and find the energy and drive necessary to go after their goals. These are resilient people who bounce back after major setbacks, survive hard times without bitterness,

and still manage to empathize with others. These skills will certainly bring them long-term benefits such as stronger relationships, better health and personal happiness (Jerabek, 2001).

The 'emotional insight into self' mean score of 114.18 indicates that people with such a score are typically in touch with their own emotions and are able to recognize and identify their true feelings. They understand their own reactions in most situations, and this self-insight prevents miscommunications with others. The fact that they are able to pinpoint the reason why something is bothering them gives them a sense of self-control. In fact, they can often console themselves rather than unleashing a flood of uncensored emotions. Having such insight into their own emotional "weather" generally means they have a high self-esteem and are able to bounce back from life's difficulties (Jerabek, 2001).

The 'expressing emotion' mean score of 107.64 indicates that the participants with such a score are able to express their emotions in most situations, although they may feel less comfortable with some emotions than others (anger, sadness or even joy). Individuals who possess the ability to express and recognize emotions are typically more communicative, assertive, and self-confident. They also are generally well equipped, because of their ability to share their feelings, to form mature, intimate relationships. Unless the score was perfect, however, there is always some room for improvement. The more we are able to handle emotions, no matter how powerful, the better we can effectively communicate what we need and understand where others are coming from (Jerabek, 2001).

The 'social insight and empathy' mean score of 104.74 indicates that the participants are typically able to recognize the emotions of others and understand the underlying motivation behind their actions. They are also able to put themselves in other people's shoes and empathize,

which is obviously an important skill for satisfying and meaningful human interaction (Jerabek, 2001).

Research question two asked what is the self-reported leadership effectiveness of department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges as determined by the five subscales (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory? The test provided a score between 6 and 60, indicating almost never to almost always respectively. Descending ranked means and standard deviations for the five leadership practices subscales are presented in Table 2. For these participants 'enable others to act' had the largest mean, and 'inspire a shared vision' had the smallest mean. The data indicate that the points are close to the mean. According to the normed information from the survey instrument and based upon mean scores according to the psychometric properties of the leadership practices subscales, Enabling is the leadership practice most frequently reported being used. This is closely followed by Modeling, with the average scores for Challenging and Encouraging being fairly similar. Inspiring is perceived as the leadership practice least frequently engaged in (Kouzes & Posner, 2003b). The participants in this research study followed a similar pattern.

Table 2

Descending Ranked Means and Standard Deviations for the five Leadership Practice Subscales

Leadership Practices Subscales	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Rank
Enable Others	43.0	58.0	52.03	3.65	1
Model the Way	37.0	59.0	47.62	5.62	2
Encourage	26.0	60.0	46.69	7.69	3
Challenge the Process	18.0	57.0	42.28	8.89	4
Inspire a Vision	16.0	56.0	40.59	9.32	5

Research question three asked what is the relationship between the six subscales of Jerabek's (2001) Emotional Intelligence Test and the five subscales of leadership effectiveness as determined by Kouzes and Posner's (2003b) Leadership Practices Inventory? Thirty Pearson correlations were conducted to determine if significant relationships existed between the emotional intelligence subscales (behavioral aspect, knowledge aspect, emotional insight into self, goal orientation and motivation, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy) and the leadership practices subscales (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart). The results are presented in Table 3. Significant positive relationships exist between 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' with 'goal orientation and motivation.' This suggests that as 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' scores increase, 'goal orientation and motivation' scores also increase. As 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' scores decrease, 'goal orientation and motivation' scores also decrease. No other significant correlation coefficients emerged between the emotional intelligence subscales and the leadership practices subscales.

Table 3

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for Emotional Intelligence Subscales and Leadership Practices Subscales

	Behavioral Aspect	Knowledge Aspect	Emotional Insight into Self	Goal Orientation & Motivation	Ability to Express Emotions	Social Insight & Empathy
Model the Way	-.09	-.06	-.05	.19	-.22	-.06
Inspire a Vision	.18	-.12	.16	.32*	-.01	.11
Challenge the Process	.16	-.08	.14	.35*	-.10	.16
Enable Others to Act	.12	-.05	.14	.26	-.06	-.07
Encourage the Heart	-.13	-.05	-.21	.02	-.06	.05

Note: *p < .05

Supplementary Analysis

Observation of the bivariate correlations shown in Table 3 show that only 'Goal orientation and motivation' of the six emotional intelligence subscales related to several of the leadership practices subscales with two correlations being moderately high and statistically significant. Bivariate correlation is limited to determining the relationship between two variables. The bivariate correlation analysis was followed by multiple correlation analysis which allows for the determination of the combined relationship of two or more independent variables with one dependent variable. Effect size analysis was also performed. The effect size is an indicator of the strength of a correlation disregarding its statistical significance. Multiple regression, which

often accompanies multiple correlation, was also employed and allows one to determine which independent variables contribute the most to the multiple correlation.

Bivariate correlation is generally symbolized by a lower case 'r' indicating the relationship between two variables. For research purposes, one variable can be the independent variable and the other the dependent variable. Multiple correlation is symbolized by upper case 'R' indicating the combined relationship between multiple independent variables in combination with a single dependent variable. R^2 is an indicator of the shared variance between the dependent variable and the independent variables. R^2_{adj} adjusts R^2 downward based on the number of independent variables to reduce bias in overestimating the relationship. The effect size (d) is derived from the number in the sample (N), the number of independent variables, and the adjusted R^2 (R^2_{adj}).

For these data the six emotional intelligence subscales were designated as the independent variables. Multiple correlation and regression are limited to one dependent variable per analysis. This resulted in five separate analyses, one for each of the five leadership scales versus the six combined independent variables. The analyses are summarized in Table 5. Shown in the table are the t-ratios indicating the relative contribution of each independent variable, the R, R^2, R^2_{adj}, and d values.

From a statistical point of view, only one of the five analyses resulted in statistical significance and is shown in Table 4 where the leadership scale 'Challenge the Process' was the dependent variable. The multiple correlation (R = .50) was statistically significant at the .05 level. It may be seen that the emotional intelligence subscale 'Goal Orientation and Motivation' made the largest contribution to the R and was statistically significant ($t = 2.01$, $p < .05$). None of the other five emotional intelligence subscales was statistically significant. The reason that the correlation increased from r = .35 (Table 3) to R = .50 was because when analyzed in

combination, each of the other emotional intelligence subscales made their small contributions to the relationship but not to the extent that any one was statistically significant. Nevertheless, they are listed in order of their contribution to the overall R value as represented by their t-ratios. It was felt that this listing might help in understanding the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership practices to some extent no matter how small the contributions were. Thus, the column in the table labeled 'order of importance' should not be over-interpreted in that the contributions were quite small even though they could be ordered.

The R^2_{adj} value shows that 11% of the 'Challenge the Process' variable is shared with the six independent variables. The effect size (d = .09) while small, indicates a 9% better than chance explanation of the shared variance between 'Challenge the Process' and the linear composite of the six independent variables.

Table 4

Summary of the Multiple Correlation between the Six Emotional Intelligence Subscales and Challenge the Process.

Order of Importance	t
Goal Orientation and Motivation	2.01*
Knowledge Aspect	1.80
Emotional Insight into Self	1.15
Ability to Express Emotions	.90
Social Insight and Empathy	.82
Behavioral Aspect	.74
$R = .50$*	
$R^2 = .25$	
$R^2_{adj} = .11$	
$d = .09$	

* $p < .05$

Table 5 summarizes the results for the four remaining dependent variables. As stated above, there were no statistically significant R-values or subscale t-ratios. While the observed R-values may appear to be of moderate magnitude, they only reflect that the emotional intelligence

subscales, in combination, each had a small relationship with leadership effectiveness which, when accumulated, provided the multiple Rs, although no single variable made statistically significant contributions. Further, it can be observed that in each of the remaining analyses that the R^2_{adj} values were essentially zero. The fact that several adjusted R values were negative is an artifact of the calculation process due to the small number of participants (N = 39) associated with the rather large number of dependent variables (6) as well as no individual variables making a substantive contribution to the multiple correlation. Because the adjusted R-values showed zero shared variance, effect sizes were non-applicable (na).

Although no statistical or effect sizes of any magnitude were found, the results when looked at overall, may be helpful in identifying those emotional intelligence subscales in respect to importance in relation to leadership practices. When observing all five analyses, it may be seen that, based on the t-ratios, the emotional intelligence subscale 'Orientation and Motivation' was listed in the top three in each of the five. 'Emotional insight into Self' was listed in the top three for four of the five analyses while 'Knowledge Aspect' was listed in the top three for three of the five analyses. These observations, based on weak statistical evidence, should be treated with caution. However, a consistent pattern did emerge for several of the emotional intelligence subscales that suggests support for further investigation.

Table 5

Summary of the Multiple Correlation and Regression between the Six Emotional Intelligence subscales and Inspire a Shared Vision, Enable Others to Act, Model the Way, and Encourage the Heart

Order of Importance	t
Inspire a Shared Visioin	
Goal Orientation & Motivation	1.86
Knowledge Aspect	1.82
Emotional Insight into Self	.82
Social Insight & Empathy	.76
Behavioral Aspect	.65
Ability to Express Emotions	.32
$R = .45$	
$R^2 = .20$	
$R^2_{adj} = .05$	
d = na	
Enable Others to Act	
Social Insight & Empathy	1.33
Goal Orientation & Motivation	1.29
Behavioral Aspect	1.27
Emotional Insight into Self	1.22.
Ability to Express Emotions	1.19
Knowledge Aspect	.14
$R = .39$	
$R^2 = .15$	
$R^2_{adj} = -.01$	
d = na	

Model the Way

Goal Orientation & Motivation	1.65
Emotional Insight into Self	1.09
Ability to Express Emotions	1.01
Behavioral Aspect	.55
Social Insight & Empathy	.50
Knowledge Aspect	.33

$R = .38$
$R^2 = .15$
$R^2_{adj} = -.01$
$d = na$

Encourage the Heart

Knowledge Aspect	1.24
Goal Orientation & Motivation	1.18
Emotional Insight into Self	1.07
Social Insight & Empathy	.75
Behavioral Aspect	.20
Ability to Express Emotions	.10

$R = .36$
$R^2 = .13$
$R^2_{adj} = -.04$
$d = na$

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* $p < .05$

Summary

The statistical analysis and findings of this study exploring the relationship between the self-perceived emotional intelligence and self-perceived leadership effectiveness of department chairs have been presented in this chapter. For the emotional intelligence assessment, 'goal orientation and motivation' had the largest mean and, thus, was ranked first; and 'social insight and empathy' had the smallest mean, resulting in the lowest ranking. For the leadership effectiveness assessment, 'enable others to act' had the largest mean, and 'inspire a shared

vision' had the smallest mean. Significant positive relationships exist between 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' with 'goal orientation and motivation.' Important information and insight has been gained regarding emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. In chapter five, the researcher will use this data analysis to formulate conclusions and to make recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

One can expect leaders of the future to revitalize both business and educational organizations by developing better working relationships that incorporate emotional intelligence and a sense of well being in leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 2000b; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Kouzes & Posner, 2003a). Administrators in any capacity face great challenges in the new millennium and the technology age that did not previously exist. In the field of education, the job of the department chair is sometimes overwhelming and quite stressful; but effective educational leaders who employ a keen sense of emotion and understanding of others can be very effective in providing leadership and in creating positive change.

Goleman (1995) clarified that neither intelligence nor analytical ability separates the most successful leaders from those who are merely average. Many years of research on thousands of workers in diverse organizations have demonstrated the need for personal and social abilities, stressing emotional intelligence as a key ingredient to success (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman (1995); Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Goleman (2000a) purported that the new measurement for success focuses on accountability in leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness, espoused by Deal and Peterson (1999) and Senge (2000), is where the department chair transports new ideas, conducts new thinking, and enlists teachers and other stakeholders within the school community to discover concepts in the field of education leading to improved student achievement and an appreciation for lifelong learning.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the self-reported emotional intelligence and the self-reported leadership effectiveness of the department chairs in Georgia's technical colleges.

The two broad areas of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were further categorized into more specific subscales so comparisons could be made with regard to their relationships with one another.

Research states that positive emotions have a beneficial impact on decision making and leadership and that aspects of emotional intelligence contribute to strong transformational leadership (Bagshaw & Bagshaw, 1999; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). Both educational and business leaders fail due to their poor interpersonal skills, poor decision making skills, and/or ineffective management of time, tasks, and people. However, leaders with high levels of emotional intelligence are more successful (Sosik & Megerian, 1999; George, 2000). Cacioppe (1997) summed up the relationship of emotional intelligence and leadership with the following statement, "While concepts, rules, and ideas may help guide a person in training, a true leader carries his/her mission in his/her heart – it is not external rules that make the person. The leader models the way not by following outer form but by seeing their work as their way of being" (p. 335).

Method

Data for this quantitative study were obtained through the administration of survey instruments to 60 department chairs in 13 technical colleges in the state of Georgia. Thirty-nine department chairs responded to the surveys. The instruments divided data into subsections of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness.

The first section of data was directed at finding the self-reported emotional intelligence of the department chairs surveyed. QueenDom's Emotional Intelligence (EIQ) Test, developed by Jerabek (2001) was used to assess levels of emotional intelligence. This instrument is a 70-item inventory assessing several aspects of emotional intelligence, yielding a general overall score as well as scores for goal orientation and motivation, behavioral aspect, emotional insight into self, knowledge aspect, ability to express emotions, and social insight and empathy.

The goal of the second section of data was to obtain a measure of self-reported leadership effectiveness. This was done using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Self form,

developed by Kouzes and Posner (2003b). The LPI evaluates leadership effectiveness in the following five essential areas of leadership: challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. The LPI contains thirty statements, six related to measuring each of the five key leadership practices. A ten-point Likert scale was used to report the self-reported leadership effectiveness of the department chairs on each item.

The data from the surveys were collected utilizing mail-in packets; then data were tabulated and analyzed. The Pearson correlation statistical process and multiple correlation were utilized to determine if factors of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were related. The statistical package, SPSS Version 13.0, was used to determine correlations between variables.

Findings

The findings of this study illustrate the relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence and self-reported leadership effectiveness of Georgia's technical college department chairs. Data were analyzed based on the three research questions. The strongest emotional intelligence subscale for the study participants was 'goal orientation and motivation.' The strongest leadership practices subscale for the study participants was 'enable others to act.' When the data were disaggregated between the subscales of emotional intelligence and the subscales of leadership effectiveness, the results revealed that significant positive relationships exist between 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' with 'goal orientation and motivation.' If one is goal orientated and motivated to help others, then it would be expected that one is better able to inspire others and to challenge the process. People are motivated by ideas that capture and touch their hearts, not by fear. 'Inspire a shared vision' means that the leader is able to not just develop a vision but to communicate that vision to others in such a way that they adopt it, taking the vision on as their own. The vision must be forward-looking and positive; and it must appeal to others' values, dreams, hopes and interests. Leaders listen to the ideas of other people and then, share their own ideas (Kouzes and Posner, 2002). 'Challenge the

process' means that effective leaders are not afraid of adversity nor are they afraid of difficult situations. They learn from these. Effective leaders are first to adopt innovations. Leaders step back from the status quo, they look for ways to grow, innovate, change and improve the existing situation (Kouzes and Posner, 2002).

Discussion

All 39 participants scored substantially above national means in all areas of the Leadership Practices Inventory. The maximum possible score in each of the five areas is 60. Of the 39 participating department chairs, the mean score in the area of inspiring a shared vision is 40.59, as compared to a national mean of 20.48. The mean score of participants in the area of challenging the process is 42.28, compared to a national mean of 22.38. In the area of modeling the way, participants' mean score is 47.62, as compared to the national mean score of 22.18. In enabling others to act, the mean score was 52.03, as compared to the national mean score of 23.89. In the area of encouraging the heart, the mean participant score was 46.69, compared to the national mean score of 21.89.

All 39 participants scored substantially above national means in all areas of the Emotional Intelligence Inventory. The nationally normed mean of 100 for all subscales reveals that the participants scored above the mean in all areas. Based on these results, one could infer that either Georgia's technical college department chairs are effective leaders and emotionally intelligent or that they inflated their views of themselves. Some prominent emotional intelligence advocates suggest that emotional intelligence is the crucial difference between an average leader and effective leader with close to 90 % of an effective leader success being attributable to emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995).

This study has significant implications for the staff development needs of Georgia's technical colleges. Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were investigated in terms of several dimensions. The behavioral and knowledge aspects of emotional intelligence, for example, focused on the ability to express emotions in an acceptable way. For staff development, the implication is that department chairs who are able to express emotions

acceptably can handle interpersonal conflict situations with more poise than those not so in control or aware of their emotions. Each department chair should, therefore, be made aware of the importance of expressing emotions in an acceptable way. This is particularly so of negative emotions such as anger or irritation, and even more particularly if these emotions are directed at other staff members.

Department chairs can be educated to deal acceptably with their emotions, not only in the narrow sense of being trained regarding emotions as such, but also in a broader sense. Social gatherings or seminars can, for example, be used to help department chairs to get to know each other on an emotional level, and hence cultivate a deeper understanding of each other. Furthermore, emotional intelligence seminars and communication programs can be integrated to help department chairs to support each other during times of stress. A high level of emotional intelligence facilitates not only self-management, but also the ability to communicate. Effective communication is vital, particularly during times of change or other stress factors, as well as during times of personal upheaval or crises that might affect work performance.

In terms of staff development, emotional intelligence is beneficial on a variety of levels. Change brings about a particularly high level of stress in workers. This results in a higher likelihood of conflict. A high degree of emotional intelligence will mitigate this.

Particularly, the elements of emotional intelligence should be addressed in staff development. Each department chair will have a certain level of emotional intelligence when arriving at the workplace for the first time. This will be the result of certain strengths and weaknesses in different areas. One staff member may, for example, be less aware of his or her own emotional responses, but particularly well aware of how others act to express certain emotions. Strengths in this regard can then be used to work on the weaker areas. In teamwork, department chairs can be grouped according to their emotional strengths and weaknesses.

This study showed that emotional intelligence correlates with leadership effectiveness in certain areas. Highly effective leaders tend to be those who are highly emotionally intelligent. When identifying staff members for future chair positions, it is important for existing leaders to

be aware of the level of emotional intelligence in the potential candidate. This can then be used to project the future leadership qualities that such a staff member is likely to exhibit in the future.

The issue of change is never an easy matter to deal with in a business. This is also true of educational institutions such as Georgia's technical colleges. In times where applications for administrative and leadership positions are solicited from staff, emotional intelligence will be a particularly useful asset. Communication is vitally important in this respect. Clear and calm communication should be exemplified by leaders which should then inspire subordinates to use the same communication paradigm in their interpersonal relationships. This will mitigate unnecessary conflict situations.

It is significant that 'goal orientation and motivation' had the largest mean, with 'social insight and empathy' at the lowest ranking position with the smallest mean. This demonstrates that the traditional business paradigm concentrates on the work aspect of the college rather than the interplay of emotional intelligence and job satisfaction. While goal orientation and motivation naturally flow from the emotional paradigm, cultivating staff for leadership positions should also focus on how precisely these interact with areas such as social insight and empathy.

It is particularly important for leaders to be emotionally intelligent. Leaders are obliged to communicate with their staff members, to motivate them, and to keep the focus upon the collective goals of the institution. An institution can, therefore, only function effectively when the leadership is effective. This means that leaders must not only be emotionally intelligent, but must also be aware of their level of emotional intelligence and where this needs improvement. One way of doing this is by encouraging mutual communication between leaders and staff members.

The cultivation of effective future leaders should focus upon cultivating an awareness of the nature of emotional intelligence, the various levels that can be achieved, and areas of potential improvement. Department chairs should then be encouraged to cultivate their emotional intelligence by continuous interaction with each other, both in the daily workplace and via programs specifically developed for this purpose.

While leadership in the past may have meant simply keeping staff motivated and oriented towards the goals of the company, the concept has now become attached to many different aspects of this core element. One of the most important of these elements is emotional self-awareness. A leader must at all times, even more than staff members, be aware of his or her own level of emotional awareness. He or she must be aware of the basic motivation for actions and how this motivation can be used to translate into his or her work with staff members. This can then be used as a means of understanding the emotional motivations of others.

In choosing future administrative and leadership staff, considering various leadership qualities is important. One of these is emotional intelligence, with its various dimensions. Candidates must display an awareness of their own emotions and motivations, as well as the ability to interact effectively with others, even in conflict situations. This, of course, must be combined with the more traditional values of subject area knowledge and the ability to motivate and inspire.

The particularly high self-reports could indicate a number of things. One possibility is the small sample size and a lack of variety for comparison purposes. In other words, only 39 department chairs responded to the survey, the results of which were compared with the nationwide mean. The discrepancy in number may then explain the particularly high scores.

However, it must also be kept in mind that 39 individuals could hardly be expected to deliver results with such similarity that not even one of them falls below the nationwide mean. Other more likely explanations should be taken into consideration. One possible explanation might be that department chairs have an unrealistically high opinion of their own emotional intelligence levels. A reason for this may be a lack of effective communication between these chairs and other staff members. By not receiving adequate, or any, input regarding the true level of their leadership and emotional intelligence levels, these chairs may then be honestly unaware of their true level of effectiveness.

This is why communication is such an important aspect of business and leadership. These research findings can be used to make these leaders aware of the necessity to encourage their

staff members toward honest communication. Only when communicated effectively can shortcomings in the leadership position be addressed in a targeted manner.

Another reason for this lack of realistic self-perceptions by department chairs is the fact that feedback towards such an end is often provided only by a person in a superior position. Department chairs do not have many opportunities for such feedback, because there are in practice fewer persons above them.

A further possibility is that department chairs, being human, are simply unwilling to monitor themselves in a truly non-biased way. Indeed, it is very difficult to be constructively critical of oneself. Emotional intelligence also has an important role here. Better self-awareness will relieve the stress of possible self-criticism and also provide the leader with the emotional equipment to be constructive without being unrealistic in self expectation. Such a person will be unafraid to solicit constructive criticisms not only from superiors, but also from subordinates in the college. No one is perfect, and there is always room for improvement.

In summary, the results of this study demonstrate that department chairs may be likely to have an inflated view of their emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness competencies and less congruence with the perceptions of others who work with them. The information obtained in this study is valuable because previous research has firmly established that high performing managers tend to have more accurate self-perceptions. That is, high-performing individuals' self-perceptions tend to match the perceptions / ratings of others. Therefore, helping department chairs better understand how they are perceived by others can have significant implications for performance improvement.

People that are higher within an organization such as department chairs have fewer opportunities for feedback from others because there are literally fewer people above them within the organization that can provide such feedback. Therefore, they may perceive themselves better than they really are. It may be that people are less inclined to give constructive feedback to themselves in general. Perhaps, even when this information is specifically asked for

by those higher than them, department chairs may be less likely to give candid feedback that is less than flattering.

Future research might validate and explore why department chairs possibly overrated themselves. It may be that higher-level positions generate self-aggrandizing sentiments. These sentiments might help provide department chairs the self-confidence they need to perform their duties; however, they may paradoxically also create difficulties because they develop a false understanding of their strengths while similarly overlooking opportunities to develop their strengths in areas with needed improvement.

Even though the participants in this study scored above the average in most areas of the emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness assessments, there are some in this study who did not score as equally well and there is always room for improvement. According to McCauley and Velsor (2004), effective leader development is seen as a process that occurs over time and through a variety of experiences that occur both on and off the job. "And people responsible for leader development in those organizations are beginning to create linkages between the content and processes of leader development and the organizational context and systems" (p. 233). McCauley and Velsor stated that some individuals are better than others at learning from experiences, so a leadership development process should address this aspect of one's being. One can take on a greater variety of challenges, as well as increasingly complex challenges if one has a greater ability to learn.

McCauley and Velsor stated that:

> By reviewing the leader development processes currently in place, in terms of appropriate linkage to business context and other organizational systems and in terms of shared understandings about those linkages, practitioners can work to create the systems and organizational environment in which both leaders and leader development thrive. (p. 233)

. According to Yukl (1998), there are two different approaches to developing leadership skills. One is through training programs and the other is through developmental activities. Most training programs are conducted away from the manager's immediate work site and occur during

a defined time period. Developmental activities are usually embedded within one's job assignments or in conjunction with those assignments.

Yukl stated that:

> These experiences can take many forms, including coaching by the boss or coworkers, mentoring by someone at a higher level in the organization, special assignments within the current job, special assignments on temporary leave from the current job, and a promotion or transfer that provides new challenges and opportunities for skill development (p. 466).

Yukl stated that there is a third approach that involves self-development activities conducted by the individual on their own.

Miller and Scott (1988) said that a manager will become trained in people skills if he or she wants to excel, earn loyalty and the right to exercise leadership authority. They will develop a larger view of both self and others. This view will allow the manager to accept not only themselves but others regardless of the way they look, think, or act. "As acceptance happens, the manager can then affirm both themselves and others while building in self-confidence that will lead to greater performance and productivity for the organization" (p. 93). As this occurs, the manager will become one of the most significant others in the employee's life. Openness, sharing, and revelation are the result of giving the manager enough knowledge to understand where the employee is coming from and to be able to meet the employee wherever he or she is. As a result of this "meeting," productivity and performance are increased and will meet or exceed the manager's expectations.

Significance of Study

The findings of this study suggest that emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness are related in some cases. There were several significant correlations between specific aspects of emotional intelligence and specific aspects of leadership effectiveness. Significant positive relationships exist between 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' with 'goal orientation and motivation.' This suggests that as 'inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the

process' scores increase, 'goal orientation and motivation' scores also increase. As "inspire a shared vision' and 'challenge the process' scores decrease, 'goal orientation and motivation' scores also decrease. No other significant correlation coefficients emerged between the emotional intelligence subscales and the leadership practices subscales.

Leaders inspire a shared vision. Leaders have a desire to make something happen, to change the way things are, to create something that no one else has ever created before. Leaders cannot command commitment, they can only inspire it. In challenging the process, a leader's primary contribution is in the recognition of good ideas, the support of those ideas, and the willingness to challenge the system to get new products, processes, services, and systems adopted. In order to inspire a shared vision and to challenge the process, a leader must be highly motivated and goal oriented in order to make things happen.

Recommendations for Future Research

There is much evidence that the leadership of an organization has a great influence on its culture (Williams, 2002; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996). Thus, the impact of organizational culture on the development of future emotionally intelligent leaders has to be an important area for further research. Such research should help to determine the way in which emotional intelligence is translated into effective senior-level leadership behaviors and will provide guidance on the development of future leaders.

It would be worthwhile to study emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness on followers and the effects that emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness on followers have on the leadership process. How do the interactions between leaders and followers result in the creation and management of emotions in a work setting?

Another recommendation for future research is to explore the concept of emotional intelligence from a qualitative perspective. It may be that emotional intelligence is difficult to measure in the quantitative perspective and a better understanding may be gained through looking at this differently. The nuances around individuals' behavior and approach to others could be explored through a qualitative lens and would contribute additional knowledge in this body of emotional intelligence work.

The topic of emotional intelligence has generated a great deal of interest in the practitioner community and a divergence of perspectives in the research community. A better understanding of this construct from a multitude of perspectives, along with tools to effectively measure it, will contribute significantly to this phenomenon of emotional intelligence and further clarify whether it provides a unique contribution to our understanding of individuals and to the field of education.

Anything is possible when a leader's emotional intelligence is high, not just because the leader is feeling good and thinking well but because emotion gives the leader boundless motivation to act. It is the ultimate in power, expansive and incorruptible, because when a leader knows how he or she feels, the leader also knows how others feel. Add empathy to passion, and the leader will find himself moved to act not only in his own behalf but in behalf of others, too. Using that power only adds to one's knowledge of oneself and his fellow human beings, and therefore, to one's constant emotional growth.

Emotional intelligence can be used to resolve differences and conflicts of interest in relationships at work. As one keeps his emotional intelligence growing, he will find that the differences in feelings, desires, personalities, opinions, and values he encounters in other settings

don’t have to become divisive. Emotional intelligence fosters respect, creativity, and camaraderie; it’s the element that helps groups reach their constructive potential.

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APPENDIX A

1. Emotional Intelligence Summary of Scale Score Statistics
2. Emotional Intelligence Reliability and Internal Consistency
3. Emotional Intelligence Descriptive Statistics

Emotional IQ Test means, standard deviations, reliability and validity indexes

Table A1

Summary of Scale Score Statistics	
Number of items	70
Mean	100
Median	101
Standard Deviation	15
Standard Error of Measurement	0.22

Source: Jerabek, I. (2001). *Emotional intelligence test – 2nd revision*. PsychTests.com. http://www.psychtests.com/tests/iq/emotional_iq_r2_access.html.

Table A2

Reliability and Internal Consistency

Internal-Item Consistency		
Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha		0.91
Standard Error of Measurement		3.29
Split-Half Reliability		
Correlation Between Forms		0.71
Spearman-Brown Formula		0.83
Guttman's Formula		0.82
Hoyt's Analysis		
Between Items	F (69, 172638) = 409.3	p < 0.0001
Between Cases	F (2502, 172638) = 11.4	p < 0.0001

Source: Jerabek, I. (2001). *Emotional intelligence test – 2nd revision*. PsychTests.com. http://www.psychtests.com/tests/iq/emotional_iq_r2_access.html.

Table A3

Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence Constructs

	Behavior	Knowledge	Emotion	Motivation	Expression	Insight
N	84274	84274	84274	84274	84274	84274
Mean	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median	100.90	101.50	100.58	100.69	101.72	101.48
Std Deviation	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0
Variance	225.0	225.0	225.0	224.99	224.99	224.99
Skewness	-.221	-.407	-.095	-.095	-.434	-.509
Kurtosis	-.317	-.204	-.619	-.592	-.433	.025
Range	103.73	88.08	79.67	77.99	76.14	104.63
Minimum	40.60	42.78	59.36	55.45	52.22	28.42
Maximum1	144.33	130.86	139.03	133.45	128.37	133.05

Source: Jerabek, I. (2001). *Emotional intelligence test – 2nd revision*. PsychTests.com. http://www.psychtests.com/tests/iq/emotional_iq_r2_access.html.

APPENDIX B

1. Reliability Coefficients for the LPI
2. Means and Standard Deviations for the LPI

Table B1

Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) Coefficients for the LPI by Respondent Category

Leadership Practice	Self (All)	Observers	Manager	Direct Report	Co-Worker or Peer	Others
Challenge	.80	.89	.89	.90	.88	.88
Inspire	.87	.92	.92	.92	.91	.91
Enable	.75	.88	.86	.89	.87	.88
Model	.77	.88	.86	.90	.87	.87
Encourage	.87	.92	.92	.93	.92	.93

Source: Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2003b). *Leadership practices inventory*; (3rd.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Table B2

Means and Standard Deviations by Respondent Category

Leadership Practice		Self	Observers (All)	Manager	Direct Report	Co-Worker or Peer	Others
Challenge	Mean	43.9	44.4	44.0	44.3	44.5	44.4
	Std Deviation	6.8	9.1	8.5	9.9	8.5	9.0
Inspire	Mean	40.6	42.0	40.4	42.4	41.6	42.7
	Std Deviation	8.8	10.6	10.1	11.4	9.9	10.2
Enable	Mean	48.7	47.8	48.0	48.2	47.6	47.5
	Std Deviation	5.4	8.4	6.9	9.3	7.8	8.5
Model	Mean	47.0	47.5	47.6	47.2	47.5	47.6
	Std Deviation	6.0	8.5	7.4	9.5	7.8	8.3
Encourage	Mean	43.8	44.9	45.4	44.5	45.0	45.0
	Std Deviation	8.0	10.2	8.3	11.5	9.4	10.2

Source: Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2003b). *Leadership practices inventory*; (3rd.) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

APPENDIX C

Correspondences

1. President Introductory / Explanation Letter

2. Department Chair Introductory / Explanation Letter

Date

Dear [pres. name]:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Georgia and am completing my dissertation entitled, “Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of Georgia’s technical college department chairs” under the direction of Dr. Wanda Stitt-Gohdes, Department of Workforce Education, Leadership and Social Foundations, University of Georgia. As part of the research study, department chairs are being surveyed regarding their thoughts toward specific statements and situations as part of an emotional intelligence assessment. This assessment should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. In addition, leadership behaviors and characteristics will be examined as part of a leadership effectiveness assessment. This assessment should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. These assessments will be compared to see if a relationship exists between the two areas: emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The findings could serve to assist department chairs in improving their effectiveness as leaders.

I am seeking your permission to conduct the questionnaires in your college, provided that the department chairs agree to participate voluntarily.

I truly appreciate your support because limited information is available regarding how the emotional intelligence of department chairs can enhance their effectiveness as leaders. Confidentiality of the college and the department chairs will be protected throughout the study. No college or department chair will be identified in the reported results. No information about the participants, or provided by participants during the research, will be shared with others without their written permission, except if it is necessary to protect their welfare (for example, if they were injured and needed physician care) or if required by law.

While I do hope you will allow your college’s participation in this study, participation is completely voluntary. Participants may withdraw at any time without penalty. Participants can stop taking part without giving any reason. Individual responses to the questionnaires are completely confidential. Confidentiality will be maintained in that a participant’s name will not appear on the survey or in the published study itself. Participants will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on the survey they fill out. Only aggregate data for the questionnaires will be shared with the department chairs and reported in the study results. Someone from the study may call participants to clarify any information. The information will be kept on file and participants will only be asked to complete one survey.

If you have any questions about this research project, now or during the course of the project, please feel free to contact me at (678) 344-6977, or reddick@uga.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Wanda Stitt-Gohdes, at (706) 542-4078, or WLSG@uga.edu. Thank you in advance for your assistance with this research project.

Sincerely,

Mark G. Reddick
Doctoral Candidate
University of Georgia

Date

Dear [dept. chair name]:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Georgia and am completing my dissertation entitled, “Emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of Georgia’s technical college department chairs.” As part of the research study, department chairs are being surveyed regarding their thoughts toward specific statements and situations as part of an emotional intelligence assessment. This assessment should take approximately 30 minutes to complete. In addition, leadership behaviors and characteristics will be examined as part of a leadership effectiveness assessment. This assessment should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. These assessments will be compared to see if a relationship exists between the two areas: emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The findings could serve to assist department chairs in improving their effectiveness as leaders.

I am writing to seek your participation in my research project. Will you please take a few minutes to complete the enclosed assessments?

I truly appreciate your participation because limited information is available regarding how the emotional intelligence of department chairs can enhance their effectiveness as leaders. Confidentiality of the college and the department chairs will be protected throughout the study. No college or department chair will be identified in the reported results. No information about you, or provided by you during the research, will be shared with others without your written permission, except if it is necessary to protect your welfare (for example, if you were injured and needed physician care) or if required by law.

While I do hope you will choose to take part in this study, participation is completely voluntary. You may withdraw at any time without penalty. You can stop taking part without giving any reason. Individual responses to the questionnaires are completely confidential. Confidentiality will be maintained in that your name will not appear on the survey or in the published study itself. You will be assigned an identifying number and this number will be used on the survey you fill out. Only aggregate data from the questionnaires will be shared with the department chairs and reported in the study results. Someone from the study may call you to clarify any information. The information will be kept on file and you will only be asked to complete one survey.

If you have any questions about this research project, now or during the course of the project, please feel free to contact me at (678) 344-6977, or reddick@uga.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Wanda Stitt-Gohdes, at (706) 542-4078, or WLSG@uga.edu. Thank you in advance for your assistance with this research project.

Sincerely,

Mark G. Reddick
Doctoral Candidate
University of Georgia

APPENDIX D

Data Collection Assessment

Emotional Intelligence (EQ) Test

PsychTests.com advancing psychology and technology

tel 514.745.8272 fax 514.745.6242
CP Normandie PO Box 26067 I Montreal, Quebec I H3M 3E8
contact@psychtests.com

Emotional IQ – 2nd Revision

The following test is designed to assess a specific personality type. It consists of 70 questions. The test takes approximately 35-40 minutes to complete. Ideally, you should be in a quiet room without disturbances for the duration of the test. Answer all of the questions on the answer sheet provided. Before beginning, check that you have all 15 test pages.

Instructions

For each question, indicate which option best applies to you. There may be some questions describing situations that do not apply to you. In such cases, select an answer that would be most likely if you ever found yourself in such a situation.

Relax and answer honestly. Inconsistent or inaccurate responses will invalidate the test results. Work as quickly as you can. Do not spend too much time on any particular question. Typically, your first reaction to the question is the most accurate one. Remember to use the answer sheet provided.

1) When I feel crappy, I know what or who is upsetting me.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

2) Even when I do my best, I feel guilty about the things that did not get done.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

3) Everybody has some problems, but there are so many things wrong with me that I simply cannot like myself.

a. Strongly agree
b. Agree
c. Partially agree/disagree
d. Disagree
e. Strongly disagree

4) When I am upset, I can pinpoint exactly what aspect of the problem bugs me.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

5) Some people make me feel bad about myself, no matter what I do.

a. Strongly agree
b. Agree
c. Partially agree/disagree
d. Disagree
e. Strongly disagree

6) I buy things that I can't really afford.

a. Regularly
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

7) When I mess up, I say self-depreciating things, such as "I am such a loser," "Stupid, stupid, stupid," or “I can’t do anything right.”

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

8) I am ashamed about how I look or behave.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

9) I feel uneasy in situations where I am expected to display affection.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

10) I feel weird when I hug someone other than my close family.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

11) When I see something that I want, I can hardly think of anything else until I get it.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

12) Although there might be things I could improve, I like myself the way I am.

a. Strongly agree
b. Agree
c. Partially agree/disagree
d. Disagree
e. Strongly disagree

13) I say things that I later regret.

a. Regularly
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

14) I get into a mode where I feel strong, capable and competent.

a. Regularly
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

15) I panic when I have to face someone who is angry.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

16) I am under the impression that people's reactions come out of the blue.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

17) I have a need to make a difference.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

18) I am able to get over guilt about trivial mistakes and faux pas that I made in the past.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

19) When I resolve to achieve something, I run into obstacles that keep me from reaching my goals.

a. Regularly
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

20) I am able to stop thinking about my problems.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

21) It is better to remain cold and neutral towards a person until you really get to know him/her.

a. Strongly agree
b. Agree
c. Partially agree/disagree
d. Disagree
e. Strongly disagree

22) I will do whatever I can to keep myself from crying.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

23) I have difficulty saying things like "I love you," even when I really feel them.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

24) I enjoy spending time with my friend(s).

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

25) I do my best even if there is nobody to see it.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

26) I am bored.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

27) I pay people compliments when they deserve them.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

28) I worry about things that other people don't even think about.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

29) I need someone's push in order to get going.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

30) People who are emotional make me uncomfortable.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

31) When someone does me a favor without being asked, I wonder what his/her real agenda is.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

32) My life is full of dead ends.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

33) I am not satisfied with my work unless someone else praises it.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

34) When I hear about someone else's problem, several possible solutions immediately pop into my head.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

35) I do what people expect me to, even when I disagree with them.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

36) People tell me that I overreact to minor problems.

a. Regularly
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

37) I finish what I set out to do.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

38) No matter how much I accomplish, I have a nagging feeling that I should be doing more.

a. Most of the time
b. Often
c. Sometimes
d. Rarely
e. Almost never

39) I am unhappy for reasons that I can't understand.

a. Very true
b. Mostly true
c. Somewhat true
d. Mostly not true
e. Not true at all

40) I have __ confidence in my abilities.

a. Complete
b. A lot of
c. Some
d. Little
e. No

41) I feel ___ deviating from standard procedures/strategies.

a. Very uncomfortable
b. Quite uncomfortable
c. Somewhat uncomfortable
d. Comfortable
e. Very comfortable

42) When I fail at a task or do worse than I would like to, it is usually due to:

a. lack of preparation or effort on my part.
b. lack of concentration or attention on my part.
c. lack of ability on my part.
d. external factors, i.e. things that have nothing to do with me, such as an unreasonably difficult task, bad weather/timing.
e. internal factors (i.e. my traits and characteristics, such as IQ, talents etc.) beyond my control.
f. a combination of factors, mostly things that I can change.
g. factors beyond my control - I would have done everything in my power to succeed.
h. a combination of external and internal factors, mostly things that I can't change.

43) I open up and talk about my most intimate issues and private feelings with just about anybody, anytime, in any circumstances.

a. Exactly right, I am willing and able to share and discuss anything with anybody, no matter the time and place.
b. It depends; I share and discuss my intimate issues with some people, but there are circumstances where it can be a mistake or inappropriate.
c. It depends; I share and discuss my intimate issues with some people, but in most circumstances, it can be a mistake or inappropriate.
d. No way, intimate issues should not be discussed with anybody except for the closest family members or friends.
e. No way, people should deal with intimate issues by themselves.

44) I get most motivated when I:

a. picture the worst possible outcome and then do my best to avoid it.
b. picture the best possible outcome and then do my best to achieve it.
c. picture the expected outcome and then do my best to achieve it.
d. picture the acceptable outcome and then do my best to achieve it.
e. forget the possible outcome and just do what needs to be done.

45) Sizing up people's character is:

a. one of my strongest points.
b. something I am relatively good at.
c. something I am not very good at.
d. one of my weakest points.
e. something that I don't bother doing.
f. something that doesn't interest me at all.
g. something that I never attempted.

46) When there is something unpleasant to do, I:

a. do it right away and get it over with.
b. postpone it until I feel like doing it.
c. postpone it until I have nothing else to do.
d. postpone it until it is too late and it gets dropped.
e. wait until I have no other choice but to do it.
f. decide how I will reward myself for doing it and then do it.
g. break the task into small steps and do them one by one.
h. find an acceptable, valid reason why I cannot do the task and get rid of it somehow.
i. find someone else to do it for me.

47) In my view, happiness depends mostly on:

a. society and economy.
b. one's background.
c. the way one was treated as a child.
d. one's environment.
e. the people one is surrounded by.
f. the way one leads his/her life.
g. one's luck.

48) When I am upset, I:

a. can tell exactly how I feel, i.e. whether I feel sad, betrayed, lonely, annoyed, angry etc.
b. can usually tell how I feel (i.e. whether I feel sad, betrayed, lonely, annoyed, angry etc.), but sometimes it is difficult to distinguish what exactly I am feeling.
c. usually cannot distinguish what I am feeling exactly.
d. don't waste time trying to figure out what exactly I am feeling.

49) In my social group (workplace, school, neighborhood, community, extended family etc.), _____who likes whom, who cannot stand whom, who has a crush on whom, etc.

a. I am always well aware of
b. I am usually well aware of
c. I don't pay any attention to
d. I don't pay much attention to
e. I sometimes notice
f. I cannot figure out

50) When I have a major problem that I find extremely difficult to deal with, I:

a. deal with it by myself.
b. go to family members for advice and/or support.
c. go to my friend(s) for advice and/or support.
d. go to my therapist/counselor for advice and/or support.
e. try to distract myself.
f. submerge myself in unrelated work.
g. try to forget about it.
h. pretend it does not exist.

51) When I am upset (ex. after dealing with a rude service worker), I:

a. step back and reassess the situation.
b. take it out on someone.
c. step back and find a way to calm down.
d. find a reason to blow up.
e. step back and console myself.
f. find it difficult to calm down.
g. start doing things that I later regret.
h. talk to someone to get it off my chest.

52) When people make important decisions, they use different strategies and pay attention to different aspects of the situation. In your case, what impact does your gut feeling about the possible outcome have on your decision?

a. It has absolutely no bearing on the decision.
b. It has very little bearing on the decision.
c. It has some bearing on the decision.
d. It has considerable bearing on the decision.
e. It has a lot of bearing on the decision.

53) When someone snaps at me,
a. I quickly retaliate.
b. I panic.
c. I withdraw, feeling hurt.
d. I ask for an explanation.
e. I get very upset.
f. I get very angry.
g. I feel hurt and start crying.
h. I let it go without confronting the person.
i. I ignore it.
j. I confront the person.

54) When a new prospect comes along,

a. I remain skeptical until I have reasons to change my attitude.
b. I don't expect much; that way, I never get disappointed.
c. I have no preconceptions and take as it comes.
d. I expect the best; if it does not work out, I will deal with it.

55) When I break a rule (without breaking the law),

a. I feel bad for a long time.
b. I feel bad for quite a bit of time and then get over it.
c. I feel bad but get over it relatively quickly.
d. I don't allow myself to feel bad.
e. I don't really care.

56) Which of the statements below describes you best?

a. I make acquaintances and friends easily.
b. I make acquaintances easily but it takes some time to make a really good friend.
c. I make acquaintances with some difficulty and it takes even more time to make a really good friend.
d. I remain mistrustful for a long time before I allow someone "in".
e. It is difficult for me to make new friends and acquaintances.
f. I am unable to make acquaintances or friends.

57) When I get frustrated,

a. I almost always drop what I am doing and go use my time more productively.
b. I usually drop what I am doing and go use my time more productively.
c. I sometimes drop what I am doing and go use my time more productively.
d. I sometimes persist and finish the task.
e. I usually persist and finish the task.
f. I almost always persist and finish the task.
g. I take a break and then continue the task.

58) When it comes to communicating a positive feeling (i.e. admiration, love, etc.) towards someone, I prefer to:

a. show it by doing something nice for the person.
b. say it to the person.
c. write it to the person.
d. tell it to someone else, hoping that the message will get to the right person.
e. keep it to myself so I don't overly-flatter the person.
f. keep it to myself and hope that the person will notice what a good mood I am in.
g. keep it to myself; if the person really likes/loves me, s/he will know how I feel.

59) What is the best time to reveal shocking news (coming out of the closet, announcing a divorce, admitting infidelity, etc.) to one's family?

a. When the family enters a transition phase (relocating, changing jobs, divorce etc.) so you can "kill two birds with one stone".
b. At weddings, funerals, religious holidays, etc., when most family members are present.
c. When the family is doing generally fine or during a quiet period.
d. When the family learns about another shocker -- killing two birds with one stone.
e. Immediately or as soon as possible, regardless of other circumstances.

60) In general, it is best:

a. not to set goals at all and just go with the flow.
b. to set goals that are a piece of cake to reach.
c. to set goals that are relatively easy to achieve and not too challenging.
d. to set goals that are challenging but possible to achieve.
e. to set goals that are so challenging that they are very difficult to achieve.
f. to set goals way above one's capability.

61) Emma is a self-made entrepreneur. Despite her limited education, she is able to successfully run her small business - a Bed & Breakfast with a gift shop. She is a great mother and is well-liked in the community. When Emma goes to parties or other social gatherings, she avoids talking about anything except for her kids, B & B in America, and local events. The reason she feels annoyed about any other topic is:

a. her belief in the future of B & B in the United States.
b. her belief that children are the most fascinating subject.
c. her belief that everybody would find these topics fascinating.
d. her wish to keep the conversation within neutral limits.
e. her wish to keep the conversation within limits of her expertise.
f. her wish to avoid hot topics, such as politics, abortion or capital punishment.

62) Tony, age 39, has been battling a weight problem for most of his teen and adult life. He has tried numerous diets, used various weight-loss pills and started many short-lived exercise programs. Nothing has ever worked, in part because he was never able to stick with the weight-loss program. Next month, he will turn 40 and has decided that this milestone will mark the end of his chubby days - he is going to lose weight and stay trim, no matter what it takes. He is all motivated, ready to starve until his last fat cell runs dry. Which weight-loss strategy would give him the best chance of reaching his goal?

a. Save some money and go for liposuction; he won't be able to lose weight otherwise.
b. Begin an extremely easy program (substituting certain foods with low fat/low calorie equivalents) that will require little willpower and yield the first results after several weeks.
c. Begin a regular diet that will yield a loss of a few pounds within the first two weeks and leave exercising alone (since he hates it anyway).
d. Begin a regular diet that will yield a loss of a few pounds within the first two weeks and combine it with light exercise.
e. Begin a crash diet that will yield a loss of several pounds within days and leave exercising alone (since he hates it anyway).
f. Begin an extremely difficult program (crash diet & heavy exercise) that will require a lot of willpower and will yield the first results within a few days.

63) Nancy is a very capable secretary, but she has a difficult personality. She works at a medical school for a professor. She is usually nice with her superiors, but she strictly sticks to her job description. She cannot get along with any of the other secretaries; in fact, she behaves as if she were superior to them. She gives an especially hard time to all the students. She keeps them waiting needlessly, snaps at them, dwells on their minor mistakes, and truly enjoys when they get in trouble. The reason for Nancy's behavior toward the students is:

a. that she has an inferiority complex and compensates this way.
b. that she wishes she could have stayed longer in school and resents all those who did.
c. that she believes that all the students are incompetent.
d. that she has had bad experiences with students and prefers to keep them at a safe distance.
e. that she has low opinion about the quality of today's higher education system.
f. that she is jealous of the students.
g. that she is a sick, irrational and unpredictable person.
h. that she is introverted and prefers to be alone.
i. that she, in fact, believes to be smarter than everybody else is.

64) (Background is in previous question) As a new student of Nancy's boss, you have to deal with her on a regular basis. The best way for you to get along well with Nancy is to:

a. become friends with her.
b. show her how smart you really are.
c. ignore her completely (avoid greeting her, small talk etc.).
d. remind her in a friendly way what her job and place is.
e. treat her with respect without becoming too chummy.
f. show her that you admire her expertise as a secretary and ask her for advice.
g. give her a taste of her own medicine.
h. ask her why she is so nasty while all the other secretaries are so nice and helpful.
i. show her compassion and tell her that not everybody can get into medical school.
j. tell her to seek professional help for her emotional problems.
k. engage her in a discussion about her views on education.
l. tell her that she is not smarter than everybody; if she were, she would not be behaving this way.

65) You have an opportunity to work on an important project that could boost your career. However, there is a contest and a committee composed of five members who will choose the best proposal. You have spent a lot of time and effort preparing the proposal, and you are quite proud of the results. Unfortunately, you come in third. What do you do?

a. I get the winner's proposal and try to figure how it was better than mine.
b.I confront the committee members and explain to them how they hurt me by not choosing my proposal.
c. I confront the committee members and let them know what a mistake they made by passing up my proposal.
d. I persuade myself that it was not such a big deal and hardly worth the effort.
e. I realize that I am really a loser and will never amount to anything.
f. I find reasons to believe that there was a conflict of interest and the selection was not fair.
g. I shake the defeat off and go on with my life.

66) You are single and your last date turned out to be someone totally incompatible...again. You look back and realize that you haven't had a decent date for two years. How do you react?

a. I remain optimistic and decide to keep dating until I find the right person.
b. I decide to give up dating forever, and concentrate on things worth my while.
c. I decide to stop dating for now and wait for the right person to find me.
d. I decide to go out with people who are somehow different from my typical dates.
e. I decide to have a look and figure out why I have been falling for the wrong people.
f. I decide to stick it out with the next one to come along and try to change that person into who I want him/her to be.
g. I decide to lower my standards because, apparently, this is as good as it gets.

67) Your best friend's grandma died a month ago. They were very close and your friend is devastated. It is best:

a. to leave your friend alone and not disturb her/him.
b. to take your friend out dancing.
c. to take your friend out to see a comedy.
d. to take your friend out to see a drama about losing someone close.
e. to encourage her/him to cry it out.
f. to encourage her/him to toughen up.
g. to tell him/her to get over it; life goes on.

h. to tell her/him about your own problems to take their mind off her/his grief.
i. to hang around and be available.
j. to follow your friend's lead in whatever s/he wants to do.

68) Speaking out about negative emotions is:

a. always unhealthy, regardless of the circumstances.
b. generally unhealthy, but necessary in some circumstances.
c. healthy for some people, unhealthy for others.
d. generally healthy, but inappropriate in some circumstances.
e. always healthy, regardless of the circumstances.

69) You are in the middle of a heated argument with your spouse/boyfriend/girlfriend. Although you normally like/love this person, you are so furious that you are about to say something very nasty, something that you know will hurt him/her. The best way to deal with this kind of situation is to:

a. say that you are too angry and set a different time to continue the discussion.
b. say whatever is on your mind; s/he needs to know how you feel and just deal with it.
c. say whatever is on your mind, weather the storm and look forward to the make-up sex.
d. start crying.
e. just walk away.
f. walk away, saying that you don't want to talk about it anymore.
g. give yourself a time out and continue after you've calmed down.
h. swallow your anger and continue the argument.
i. let the anger out because it is unhealthy to bottle up emotions.
j. let the anger out and apologize later.
k. proclaim that you refuse to have a battle of wits with an unarmed person and walk away.

70) You are part of a group that has been working together for two hours, trying to solve a difficult and pressing problem that calls for a creative approach. Everybody is getting tired and edgy. Basically, you are stuck. The best approach would be to:

a. tell a joke, or find another way to make people laugh.
b. go through the solutions to past problems in search of inspiration.
c. put pressure on the group, telling them that this is not a joke - they better figure out something, and fast!
d. initiate brainstorming.
e. take turns in making suggestions.
f. suggest a short break to recharge.
g. motivate the group by reminding them of the importance of finding a solution

APPENDIX E

Data Collection Assessment

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) – Self Form

LPI SELF

Leadership Practices Inventory

by JAMES M. KOUZES
& BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS

Write your name in the space provided at the top of the next page. Below your name, you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully, and using the RATING SCALE on the right, ask yourself:

"How frequently do I engage in the behavior described?"

- Be realistic about the extent to which you *actually* engage in the behavior.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to behave or in terms of how you think you should behave
- DO answer in terms of how you typically behave on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving yourself 10s on all items is most likely not an accurate description of your behavior. Similarly, giving yourself all 1s or all 5s is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply to you, it's probably because you don't frequently engage in the behavior. In that case, assign a rating of 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then record the corresponding number in the box to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement *must* have a rating.

The RATING SCALE runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

1	=	Almost Never
2	=	Rarely
3	=	Seldom
4	=	Once in a While
5	=	Occasionally
6	=	Sometimes
7	=	Fairly Often
8	=	Usually
9	=	Very Frequently
10	=	Almost Always

When you have completed the LPI-Self, please return it to:

_____

_____

_____

Thank you.

Your Name:_____

To what extent do you typically engage in the following behaviors? Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and record it in the box to the right of that statement.

1. I set a personal example of what I expect of others.
2. I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.
3. I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.
4. I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.
5. I praise people for a job well done.
6. I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.
7. I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.
8. I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.
9. I actively listen to diverse points of view.
10. I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.
11. I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.
12. I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.
13. I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.
14. I treat others with dignity and respect.
15. I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.
16. I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.
17. I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.
18. I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.
19. I support the decisions that people make on their own.
20. I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.
21. I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.
22. I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.
23. I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.
24. I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.
25. I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.
26. I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.
27. I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
28. I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
29. I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.
30. I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

APPENDIX F

Approval Forms

1. Institutional Review Board
2. Kouzes Posner International

The University of Georgia
Office of The Vice President for Research
DHHS Assurance ID No. : FWA00003901

Institutional Review Board
Human Subjects Office
612 Boyd GSRC
Athens, Georgia 30602-7411
(706) 542-3199
Fax: (706) 542-5638
www.ovpr.uga.edu/hso

APPROVAL OF RENEWALS / CHANGES

Request Date: 2007-01-23 **Project Number:** 2006-10199-1

Name	Title	Dept/Phone	Address	Email
Mr. Mark G. Reddick	PI	Workforce Education River's Crossing	318 Gable Brook Drive Grayson, GA 30017 678-344-6977	reddick@uga.edu
Dr. Wanda L. Stitt-Gohdes	CO	Occupational Studies 225 River's Crossing +4809 706-542-4078		wlsg@uga.edu

Title of Study: Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness of Georgia's Technical College Department Chairs

45 CFR 46 Category: Continuing Review **Renew :** No **Change(s) :** Changed Co-PI; Changed Title
Parameters:
APPROVAL OF ABOVE NOTED CHANGES.
Waiver of Signed Consent 46.117 (c) (2);

Approved : 2006-01-18 Begin date : 2006-01-18 Expiration date : 2011-01-17

NOTE: Any research conducted before the approval date or after the end data collection date shown above is not covered by IRB approval, and cannot be retroactively approved.

Number Assigned by Sponsored Programs: **Funding Agency:**

Form 310 Provided: No

Your request for approval of renewal and/or changes has been approved.

You must report any adverse events or unanticipated risk to the IRB within 24 to 72 hours. Refer to the IRB Guidelines for additional information.

Use the attached Researcher Request Form for requesting renewals, changes, or closures.
Keep this original approval form for your records.

Chairperson or Designee,
Institutional Review Board

KOUZES POSNER INTERNATIONAL
15419 Banyan Lane
Monte Sereno, California 95030
FAX: (408) 354-9170

September 14, 2005

Mr. Mark Reddick
318 Gable Brook Drive
Grayson, Georgia 30017

Dear Mark:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your request, at no charge, with the following understandings:

(1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
(2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument: "Copyright © 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission.";
(3) That one (1) **bound** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of **all** papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
(4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.

If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to us. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Barry Z. Posner, Ph.D
Managing Partner

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) _____Date: _____