

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE
AND THE LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF HALL DIRECTORS

A Dissertation
presented to
the Faculty of the Graduate School
at the University of Missouri-Columbia

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
DENISE M. BAUMANN

Dr. Cynthia MacGregor, Dissertation Supervisor

DECEMBER 2006

The undersigned, appointed by the Dean of the Graduate School, have examined the dissertation entitled:

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND THE
LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF HALL DIRECTORS

Presented by Denise M. Baumann

A Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education

And hereby certify in their opinion it is worthy of acceptance.

Dr. William Agnew

Dr. Tammy Condren

Dr. Cynthia MacGregor

Dr. Barbara Martin

Dr. Gerald Moseman

This dissertation is dedicated to my grandpa,

Ambrose F. Saffert

May 13, 1918 – November 3, 1995,

because he always believed I could do anything.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am very fortunate to have had so many people support me. First of all, I am extremely grateful to my dissertation advisor, Dr. Cindy MacGregor. Her encouragement and support made the dissertation process thought-provoking and enjoyable. I could never have persevered without her. I want to also thank my dissertation committee: Dr. Barbara Martin, Dr. Tammy Condren, Dr. William Agnew, and Dr. Gerald Moseman. Their timely responses and feedback were very helpful in the revision process.

In my work, I have many colleagues, past and present, who supported me over the past five years. Thanks for your patience, understanding, and willingness to “pick up the slack” when I was in Columbia, studying, or writing. In particular, I would like to thank my supervisor, Gary K. Stewart, for allowing me time away to take advantage of this opportunity.

Personally, I have many friends and family members who have been my cheerleaders. Thanks for your patience and forgiveness as I missed many holidays, events, football games, and visits over the years. A special thank you goes to my friend and classmate Dr. Cindy Baker. Although she finished before me, she continued to encourage me until I finished as well.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	ii
LIST OF TABLES	vii
ABSTRACT	viii
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
Conceptual Underpinnings for the Study	4
Statement of the Problem	9
Purpose of the Study	10
Research Questions	11
Hypotheses	12
Limitations, Assumptions, Design Controls, and Definition of Key Terms	13
Limitations and Assumptions	13
Design Controls	14
Definition of Key Terms	15
Summary	20
2. LITERATURE REVIEW	21
Introduction	21
Emotional Intelligence	23
History of Emotional Intelligence	23
Development of Emotional Intelligence	24

Different Views of Emotional Intelligence.....	25
Brain Development	26
Brain Operation.....	28
Thinking vs. Feeling	30
Clusters of Emotional Intelligence.....	32
Self-awareness	32
Self-management	32
Social awareness	33
Relationship management.....	33
Leadership.....	33
Theories.....	34
Power and influence.....	34
Cultural	35
Behavioral.....	35
Charismatic	38
Transformational.....	38
Leadership in Higher Education	39
Leadership and Relationships	40
Leadership Effectiveness	42
Different Viewpoints	42
Use of Emotion	44
New Viewpoints.....	46
Assessment Tools.....	47

Summary	50
3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	53
Introduction.....	53
Research Questions.....	54
Research Hypotheses	55
Statistical Hypotheses	55
Population and Sample	56
Data Collection and Instrumentation	57
<i>Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition (ECI-U)</i>	59
<i>The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)</i>	60
Data Analysis	61
Summary	63
4. RESULTS	65
Introduction.....	65
Demographics	66
Research Questions Findings.....	70
Research question 1	71
Research question 2	72
Research question 3	73
Research question 4	73
Statement of Research Hypotheses.....	76
Hypothesis one.....	76
Hypothesis two.....	77

Hypothesis three.....	77
Hypothesis four.....	77
Summary.....	78
5. DISCUSSION.....	81
Introduction.....	81
Conclusions.....	82
Limitations Based on Study.....	84
Implications for Future Practice.....	85
Recommendations for Future Research.....	86
APPENDIX	
A. Participant Introductory Letter.....	88
B. Helpful Instructions for Participants.....	89
C. Demographic Questionnaire.....	90
D. List of Names and Addresses.....	91
E. Helpful Instructions for Raters.....	92
F. Rater Introductory Letter.....	93
G. Reminder E-mail Messages.....	94
H. Participant Informed Consent Form.....	95
I. Rater Informed Consent Form.....	96
REFERENCE LIST.....	97
VITA.....	105

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Gender of Participants in Sample Population	67
2. Average Age of Participants in Sample Population.....	67
3. Age of Participants in Sample Population	68
4. Level of Education for Participants	69
5. Years of Experience in Hall Director Position	70
6. Pearson Correlation Between Overall ECI Score and Overall LPI Score	71
7. Pearson Correlation Between Exemplary Leadership Practices and Overall ECI Score.....	72
8. Stepwise Regression for Exemplary Leadership Practices and Overall LPI Score.....	73
9. Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Inspiring a Shared Vision.....	74
10. Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Encouraging the Heart.....	74
11. Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Modeling the Way	75
12. Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Enabling Others to Act.....	75
13. Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Challenging the Process	76

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE EMOTIONAL COMPETENCE AND THE LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS OF HALL DIRECTORS

Denise M. Baumann

Dr. Cynthia MacGregor, Dissertation Supervisor

ABSTRACT

In this study, the exemplary leadership practices of hall directors were investigated in relation to the emotional competence of hall directors. Data was collected from randomly selected hall directors ($N = 62$) who worked at colleges and universities in the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers in the fall of 2006.

Data analysis included Pearson product-moment correlations and stepwise multiple regression. Significant Pearson correlations were found between the overall scores on the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI). Correlation analyses performed on the individual exemplary leadership practices scores (modeling the way, enabling others to act, challenging the process, encouraging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision) and the overall ECI-U score indicated the ECI-U was a significant predictor of all five leadership practices.

Stepwise multiple regression results demonstrated that the overall LPI score was best predicted by the combination of emotional competence clusters entitled relationship management and self-management. Further analyses indicated that relationship management was the strongest predictor of the leadership practices entitled inspiring a shared vision and encouraging the heart. The emotional competence cluster combination

of self-management and social awareness were the best predictors of modeling the way and enabling others to act. In regard to the leadership practices challenging the process, the combination of relationship management and self-management was the strongest predictor. All stepwise regression results were significant.

Data results could be used to support the inclusion of emotional competence skill exercises to students in graduate preparatory programs, and to create on-the-job training and development sessions for hall directors. Additional research could consist of using 360 degree feedback of hall director skills and behavior. Studies investigating whether or not a relationship exists between age and experience level of hall directors and their LPI and ECI-U scores is another option. Finally, studies could be conducted with graduates of specific graduate programs or hall directors working within specific residence life departments. Results may demonstrate which programs are most effective at preparing students for hall director positions or which departments are providing hall directors with appropriate professional development opportunities.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction to the Study

Background

In the upcoming decade, student affairs professionals will need to reexamine their priorities in order to create strategies that will enable them to serve the needs of students. The number of students from different populations, i.e., females, minorities, people with disabilities, who are choosing to pursue higher education has increased. Implementation of new programs will need to take place in order to assist students in a multicultural environment. Student affairs divisions must be committed to redefining their existence into one that is focused on educating students to become engaged citizens (Woodward, Love, & Komives, 2000a).

A strong residence life department is at the core of any student affairs division within a residential university. Out of classroom experiences are heightened in the residence halls. Within the first two years of college, no other program in a student affairs division will have more opportunities to influence student development than the residential life program (Blimling, 1993).

Many authors have written about the changes that will face personnel within residence life departments (Blimling, 1993; Woodward, Love, & Komives, 2000a; Woodward, Love, & Komives, 2000b). One approach to handling the changes was noted by Sandeen (2001) when he defined educational leadership as “moving forward; developing new approaches; challenging the status quo; and creating new programs, policies, services, and facilities. Above all, it involves taking risks” (p. 6). Weymes (2003) took a different approach and argued that “the success of an organization is vested

in the formation of sustainable relationships, with the primary purpose of leadership being to influence the feelings and emotions of those associated with the organization” (p. 320). Members of organizations realized that the power of relationships played a larger part in whether or not they are successful as opposed to “the strategy of associated systems and processes” (Weymes, 2003, p. 320). The organization will not succeed if the leader experienced difficulty while trying to interact effectively with staff members (Weymes).

In his article on leadership, Weymes (2003) discussed the work of James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. These two authors have completed studies of personal best leadership experiences, and as a result, have created a model of leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) wrote, “...leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow” (p. xxviii). In addition, these same authors noted that “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” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 21). Kouzes and Posner (2002a) believed behaviors that were embedded within their *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* model formed the basis for leading others to accomplish extraordinary things.

Other authors (Cherniss, 1998; Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1995, 1998c; Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Roper, 2002; Woodward, Love, & Komives, 2000c; Yukl, 2002) wrote that relationships were essential to effective leadership. Weymes (2003) believed “the terms leadership and relationship are connected, since one cannot occur without the other” (p. 325).

A leader must work in a group and effective leaders are those who elicit positive feelings in the members of the group. But feelings are derived from emotions. Thus effective leaders must be able to create positive emotions within the group, they must be able to interpret and respond appropriately to the emotions of those around them. (Weymes, 2003, p. 325)

Daniel Goleman, author of *Emotional Intelligence*, believed a high degree of emotional intelligence was found in effective leaders (Goleman, 1998c). “Great leadership works through the emotions” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 3) and “...sets the best leaders apart from the rest” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 5). Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognize one’s emotions and the emotions of others, to use emotions to motivate oneself, and to manage one’s own emotions and those expressed by other people (Goleman, 1998c; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Goleman (1998c) adapted the definition created by Salovey and Mayer to be more useful in work settings. His adaptation included four clusters that encompass eighteen competencies. The clusters were labeled Self-Awareness, Self-Management, Social Awareness, and Social Skills (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee).

Emotional intelligence was part of what Howard Gardner defined as personal intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Gardner (1983) argued that evidence existed for several human intellectual competencies. He stated the competencies were typically independent of one another but could be combined in different ways depending on the individual and the culture. Gardner’s theory of multiple intelligence included six areas of intelligence: linguistic, musical, logical-mathematical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic, and

personal. The area of personal intelligence was divided into intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee's (2002) clusters of Self-Awareness and Self-Management correlated to Gardner's intrapersonal intelligence, whereas the clusters of Social Awareness and Social Skills aligned most closely with interpersonal intelligence (Maulding, 2002).

Many studies have been conducted to assess the link between emotional intelligence and leadership. Studies completed by Barling, Slater, and Kelloway (2000); Gardner and Stough (2001); MacGregor and Watson (2005); Mandell and Pherwani (2003); and Sivanathan and Fekken (2002) found strong positive relationships between transformational leadership behaviors and emotional intelligence. Significant relationships were discovered between selected components of transformational leadership (inspirational motivation and individualized consideration) and emotional intelligence sub-scales (ability to monitor and manage emotions in oneself and others) (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough 2000). In 2002, Condren discovered "the relationship of principals' emotional intelligence and their leadership effectiveness appear to be related, however, building level and gender of the principal play a role in the significance of the relationship" (p. 88). Yet, there have been few research studies to assess the correlation of emotional intelligence and leadership in hall directors, and the research overall is very limited.

Conceptual Underpinnings for the Study

Leadership practices used to focus on the actions of people. Late in the twentieth century the focus shifted to relationships among people in the organization (Woodward, Love, & Komives, 2000c). Roper (2002) believed unimportant or insignificant

relationships do not exist and wrote “our success as student affairs professionals is more closely tied to our ability to construct and manage essential relationships during our careers than to any other activity” (p. 11). Student affairs professionals were expected to cooperate and collaborate to achieve success with their policies and programs (Sandeen, 1993, 2001; Schuh, 2002). Successful professionals in the field of student affairs could not work in isolation (Sandeen, 1993, 2001). These references did not list hall directors specifically. However, hall directors are student affairs professionals and the expectations would logically be similar.

Over the past thirty years, skills such as leadership, communication, and interpersonal relations continued to be essential for hall directors to be successful in their positions. Newton and Richardson (1976) described mature interpersonal relationships as being “top priority among competencies most essential” (p. 427) for hall directors and leadership was a second priority competency. In 1981 Ostroth noted four competencies considered to be absolutely essential: “work cooperatively with others, manifest well-developed interpersonal relations and communications skills, work effectively with a wide range of individuals, and display leadership skills” (p. 8). A meta-analysis of thirty years of research studies conducted by Lovell and Kosten (2000) yielded results where human facilitation skills were listed 78% of the time. Human relations and interpersonal relations were listed as particularly important in later studies (Burkard, Cole, Ott, & Stoflet, 2005; Herdlein, 2004).

In 2005, Burkard, Cole, Ott, and Stoflet discovered a need for advanced “human relations competencies represent a significant change in expectations” (p. 298) of hall directors and postulated “perhaps these results are a reflection of the changing needs of

students or the increasing demands on student affairs professionals in a competitive postsecondary education environment” (p. 298). Interpersonal relations and leadership skills were also important because hall directors “create and control the environment in which subordinates perform goal-oriented tasks, test skills, acquire knowledge, and apply theory to practical situations” (Coleman & Johnson, 1990, p. 13).

In August 1990, housing directors who were members of the Association of College and University Housing Officers – International (ACUHO-I) were asked to list the competencies necessary to be an effective residence life professional. A list of fifty-five competencies was created, and ten competencies were determined to be the most important. One of them was being “able to work cooperatively with a wide range of individuals” (Kearney, 1993, p. 289).

For many years, people have struggled to pinpoint what separates successful leaders from unsuccessful ones (McDowelle & Bell, 1997).

Leadership ranks among the most researched and debated topics in the organizational sciences. While research has been conducted which supports (and sometimes fails to support) currently popular theories, and those theories have increased our 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, p. 1028)

Bass (1960) noted, that as specialization of labor had increased and organizations had grown to be more complex, there was “an increased complexity of relationships among the individuals within these organizations. The high degree of interdependence of

individuals...has augmented the need for...skill in leadership” (p. 3). Increased industrialization has created complex relationships; therefore, a need to study interpersonal behavior has arisen (Bass).

In today’s world, knowledge and capability were keys to success because items such as product offerings and marketing strategies were easily acquired (Pfeffer, 1999). “Putting people first, or at least taking people issues seriously, is more important than ever. It may seem strange to see the leader’s role as being chief people...officer, but that is exactly what you will find in organizations” (Pfeffer, 1999, p. 285). Leadership “lies in seeing that the most powerful influences consist of deeply human relationships in which two or more persons *engage* with one another” (Burns, 1978, p. 11).

Relations-oriented behaviors were used by leaders who were concerned with creating relationships and maintaining those relationships after they were formed. Effective leaders used a variety of relation-oriented behaviors: exhibit trust and respect, utilize coaching and mentoring behaviors, provide recognition, consult with others, and cultivate relationships with people outside the organization who can provide information and assistance (Yukl, 2002).

At the present time, “...our prospects for the future increasingly depend on managing ourselves and our relationships more artfully” (Goleman, 1998c, p. 14). People who think along the cutting edge of personal and professional development believed that “leadership is primarily a matter of emotional intelligence...a set of competencies that enhance interpersonal effectiveness and, incidentally, predict career success” (Lozar Glenn, 2002, p. 10). “Great leadership works through the emotions” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 4). “Gifted leadership occurs where heart and head – feeling and

thought – meet” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 26). The emotional state exhibited by the leader affected the people they lead in regard to their performance and how they felt (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee).

After conducting research within hundreds of companies, Goleman (1998c) wrote it was obvious that the importance of emotional intelligence increased the higher one ascends the hierarchical ladder. Emotional competence (a capability one learns based on emotional intelligence) contributed to mediocre leaders becoming better leaders (Goleman, 1998c). “For star performance in all jobs, in every field, emotional competence is twice as important as purely cognitive abilities. For success at the highest levels, in leadership positions, emotional competence accounts for virtually the entire advantage” (Goleman, 1998c, p. 34).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) wrote “...people differ in the capacity to understand and express emotions. Such differences may be rooted in underlying skills that can be learned” (p. 191). In addition, “people often *feel* before they *think* or *act*.” (Currie, 2004, p. 1). A leader who has developed emotional competencies was able to connect with his/her own feelings and in turn altered responses to a situation (Currie). Leaders who have the ability to deal effectively with emotions may be better suited to handle the needs of others (Goleman, 1998c).

Emotional intelligence, Goleman (1998b) argued, was a prerequisite for successful leadership. He also noted that emotionally intelligent leaders were considered to perform better in their jobs (Goleman, 1998c). A conclusion was reached by other authors (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997) that 10-20% of a leader’s success can

be explained by general intelligence, which left 80-90% of one's success to be explained by other factors, one of which may be emotional intelligence.

In their writings Salovey and Mayer (1990) suggested that the accurate appraisal and expression of one's emotions was part of emotional intelligence. Other authors (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998c; Lozar Glenn, 2002; Maulding, 2002) believed that emotional intelligence was a learned behavior. As life progressed, a person learned from experiences and emotional competencies were developed (Cooper; Goleman). Monitoring emotional upsets enabled a leader to recover from distress more quickly (Goleman).

Gardner (1983) wrote, "...it is the unusual individual who does not try to deploy his understanding of the personal realm in order to improve his own well-being or his relationship to the community" (p. 241). The more a leader understands his/her feelings, the less likely he/she is to be controlled by them. There was a greater tendency for a leader to act inappropriately if he/she did not understand the feelings, behaviors, and responses of others (Gardner).

Statement of the Problem

Research was conducted to further explore the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2000). A study conducted by Gardner and Stough (2001) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership styles. Empirical evidence justified existence of a relationship between emotional intelligence and effective leadership in all of the studies. Descriptive articles were written about the interrelatedness of emotional intelligence or emotions and

leadership (George, 2000; Maulding, 2002; McDowelle & Bell, 1997). Two doctoral dissertations were written about emotional intelligence and leadership (Condren, 2002; King, 1999). King (1999) discovered that practicing administrators scored higher on emotional intelligence than educational leadership students. When utilizing school principals as subjects, Condren (2002) found a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. An article written for a student affairs professional journal included results from a study examining the relationship between the dynamics of leadership teams in the student affairs division and the perceptions of campus leaders as to the effectiveness of that student affairs division (Wheelan & Danganan, 2003).

Positive results were found when examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2000). In addition, authors of descriptive articles (George, 2000; Maulding, 2002; and McDowelle & Bell, 1997) provided support for pairing emotional intelligence and effective leadership. Research examining emotional intelligence or emotional competencies and perceived leadership effectiveness within a higher education setting was insignificant. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional competencies and leadership effectiveness of hall directors.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between the emotional competencies of the hall director and the hall director's leadership effectiveness utilizing self-report scores. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) noted that the primal task of

the leader was to understand “the powerful role of emotions in the workplace” (p. 4). “It is both the original and the most important task of leadership” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 5). Leaders who used emotions to bring out the best in others created an effect called resonance. Emotional resonance allowed people to achieve their best performance (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee). In addition, “emotions are contagious and positive emotions resonate throughout an organization...To get *extraordinary* things done in *extraordinary* times, leaders must inspire optimal performance – and that can only be fueled with positive emotions” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 31). When the complexity of a job increased, the importance of emotional intelligence also increased (Goleman, 1998c). Ascertaining the relationship of hall directors’ emotional intelligence, through assessment of their emotional competencies, to their leadership effectiveness will inform hall directors as they work to become better leaders.

Emotions were impulses to act. Human beings had, in a sense, two minds – “one that thinks and one that feels” (Goleman, 1995, p. 8). The two minds worked harmoniously most of the time; however, when passions escalated, the balance was disrupted, and the emotional mind took over (Goleman). Hall directors who are aware of their emotional competencies can be watchful for situations that escalate their passion. Emotional intelligence was a learned behavior (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998c; Lozar Glenn, 2002, Maulding, 2002); therefore, hall directors could become more effective leaders by working to improve their lower emotional competency scores.

Research Questions

The research questions that were explored in this study examined a possible relationship between the emotional competency of the hall director and the hall director’s

leadership effectiveness based on leadership practice scores. Research questions included:

1. What was the relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores?
2. Which of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of hall directors were best predicted by the overall emotional competence score?
3. Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the overall exemplary leadership practices score?
4. Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart)?

Hypotheses

In an effort to answer the aforementioned research questions, the following null hypotheses were investigated:

Hypothesis 1. There was no statistically significant relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores.

Hypothesis 2. There was no statistically significant relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

Hypothesis 3. There was no statistically significant relationship between the emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices score.

Hypothesis 4. There was no statistically significant relationship between the emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors and their exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

Limitations, Assumptions, Design Controls, and Definition of Key Terms

Limitations and Assumptions

The limitations for this study were related to geographical area and design used by the researcher and are indicated as follows:

1. This study was limited geographically to colleges and universities within the eight-state region designated as the Upper Midwest Region – Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO).
2. This study was limited to 300 hall directors out of 378 who worked in the region. For feasibility reasons, 300 was the maximum number that could be invited to participate but still be large enough for multivariate analysis.

3. It was an assumption that participants were honest when completing the survey instruments and interpreted the instruments as directed.
4. This study was limited in design through the use of self-reporting measures of emotional competence and exemplary leadership practices.
5. The hall directors selected the people who would be randomly selected to serve as raters of the hall director's competence and leadership effectiveness.

Design Controls

The design selected for this study was descriptive. Descriptive research was used when the researcher wanted to describe a situation or phenomenon in order to understand it better (York, 1998). The information gathered in a descriptive research study included the characteristics of a place or person and were useful when looking for a potential association between two factors (Sherry, Archer, & Van Horn, 2003).

To ensure all ethical procedures were followed, a letter was sent to all subjects after research approval was granted by the Institutional Review Board (IRB). The letter listed information about the research study including a full description of the study and an explanation of confidentiality. Subjects were invited to participate, and if they chose to do so, they returned a signed consent form. The subjects had the option of withdrawing from the study at any time (Monsen & Cheney, 2003).

Two assessment instruments, the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) were selected for use. The research instruments selected have been tested and retested to ensure validity and reliability. Validity described the degree to which an instrument measures what it was

designed to measure. Reliability referred to the consistency of the results obtained after the test was used repeatedly (Monsen & Cheney, 2003).

Definition of Key Terms

Included below were the key terms and definitions used in this study. The key terms were listed to provide the reader with a firm understanding of the important elements associated with the research study.

Emotional Intelligence. Emotional intelligence was defined as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and others” (Goleman, 1998c, p. 317).

Emotional Competencies. Daniel Goleman and the Hay Group created a list of competencies to “differentiate individuals with Emotional Intelligence” (*Resources*, n.d., p. 1). “An emotional *competence* is a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work” (Goleman, 1998c, p. 24). Goleman and Richard Boyatzis grouped eighteen of these competencies into the four clusters of emotional competencies entitled self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (*Resources*, n.d.).

Self-Awareness. This cluster encompassed three competencies that demonstrated a leader’s capacity for understanding him/herself. Leaders in this area assessed their own feelings and determined how those feelings affected them and their performance. These leaders knew their strengths and weaknesses, and enjoyed receiving feedback on how to improve. Having a strong sense of who they were, these leaders were willing to work on a difficult project and stood out among their peers (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Self-Management. Leaders in this cluster exhibited behavior within seven competencies. These leaders managed disturbing feelings and sometimes utilized those feelings in a productive ways. Leaders who were competent in this area practiced their values on a daily basis and were willing to let others view their behavior. These leaders were adaptable and optimistic. They were willing to seize or create opportunities, and they set high standards for themselves and the people with whom they work (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Social Awareness. This cluster included three competencies practiced by leaders who were attuned to the emotions of others. These leaders read emotional signals sent by others, and they listened attentively. Leaders who had strong social skills sensed social networks and detected power relationships. They were able to create emotional climates that allowed them to interact with others more effectively (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Relationship Management. This cluster encompassed eight competencies. Leaders inspired others to work toward a shared goal. These leaders recognized when a change was needed, were strong advocates for change, and found ways to overcome resistance if any existed. An ability to encourage others to develop their abilities was another competency exhibited by leaders in this cluster. These leaders were able to manage conflicts in a way that redirected people's energy toward the goal in addition to fostering an environment of respect and cooperation (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Leadership. Leadership in this study was defined as “a relational process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good” (Komives, Lucas, & McMahan, 1998, p. 21).

Leadership Effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness was defined as “the extent to which the leader’s organizational unit performs its task successfully and attains its goals” (Yukl, 2002, p. 8). Leadership effectiveness in this study was measured by the hall director’s ability to find innovative ways to improve the organization, to create a vision of what the organization can become, to foster collaboration and involve others, to set an example for others, and to recognize the contributions of other staff members (Kouzes & Posner, 2001a).

Student Affairs (also Student Services). Student Affairs was a division within a college or university made up of offices or departments that managed the services provided for students and encouraged the development of students while they were in college. Departments that were typically located within the division include: (a) student activities, (b) health services, (c) international student services, (d) residence life, (e) judicial affairs, (f), career planning, (g) counseling services, (h) orientation, and (i) multicultural student services (Wheelan & Danganan, 2003).

Residence Life (also Housing Department). Residence life was the department on campus that oversees all management functions of the residence halls. It included “the total residential operation (including programming, facility operations and maintenance, and professional and support services) and all the personnel employed in the accomplishment of its mission” (Winston & Anchors, 1993, p. xxii).

Hall Director (also New Professional). The hall director was the staff member who supervised the student staff members in a residence hall (Komives, 1991).

Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2002a) created five practices (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act,

modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) that leaders utilized to accomplish extraordinary tasks within their organizations. The practices were revealed when personal-best leadership experiences were examined.

Challenging the process. This practice was exhibited by leaders who were willing to step into the unknown. These leaders searched for opportunities to innovate and improve. “Innovation comes more from listening than from telling” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 17). The leaders’ primary contribution was to recognize and support new ideas in addition to getting new products and systems adopted. “Leaders also pay attention to the capacity of their constituents to take control of challenging situations and become fully committed to change” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 17).

Inspiring a shared vision. Leaders who displayed behaviors within this leadership practice have a desire to create something new. They had a picture in their mind, and they worked to make that picture a reality. These leaders knew the dreams, values, hopes, and aspirations of their followers. They spoke the same language as their followers and used that language to enlist the followers to achieve the same vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

Enabling others to act. This practice was demonstrated by leaders who fostered collaboration and built trust among their followers so good work was completed. These leaders did not keep power to themselves; they “work to make people feel strong, capable, and committed” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 18). When followers felt trusted and were given discretion to make decisions, they worked hard and surpassed their own expectations (Kouzes & Posner).

Modeling the way. Leaders who succeeded within this leadership practice established principles for themselves and demonstrated a commitment to their values on a daily basis. These leaders spent time with their followers often working next to them or asking questions to encourage followers to determine their own values (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). “Modeling the way is essentially about earning the right and the respect to lead through direct individual involvement and action. People first follow the person, then the plan” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 15).

Encouraging the heart. This practice was exhibited by leaders who recognized the contributions made by other individuals (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). Leaders used celebrations and rituals to allow others to recognize the benefit of aligning behavior with values. In addition, leaders created a strong collective identity that carried a group through tough times (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a).

Personal Intelligences. Gardner (1983) wrote a theory of multiple intelligences and included personal intelligences (intrapersonal and interpersonal) as part of his theory. “The personal intelligences amount to information-processing capabilities – one directed inward, the other outward – which are available to every human...as part of its...birthright” (Gardner, 1983, p. 243).

Intrapersonal Intelligence. This intelligence encompassed “access to one’s own feeling life” (Gardner, 1983, p. 239) – one’s ability to feel emotions, to discriminate among them, to label them, and to use them to understand and guide behavior (Gardner). “Intrapersonal knowledge allows one to detect and to symbolize complex and highly differentiated sets of feelings” (Gardner, 1983, p. 239).

Interpersonal Intelligence. This intelligence included one's "ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals (Gardner, 1983, p. 239). One who has interpersonal intelligence deciphered the moods, motivations, and intentions of others and possibly acted upon the information that had been deciphered if one desired (Gardner).

Summary

McDade (1989) stated "student affairs professionals are on the verge of new opportunities to exert leadership within their institutions and within higher education" (p. 39). Successful leaders were people who paid attention to human interaction and utilized emotional sensitivity when making decisions (Rybak, 1998). "Advanced...human relations competencies represent a significant change in the expectations" (Burkard, Cole, Ott, & Stoflet, 2005, p. 283) of hall directors. Goleman (1998b) noted that an essential condition of leadership was emotional intelligence.

The intent of this study was to examine the relationship between the emotional competence of hall directors and the leadership practices of the hall directors. Another investigation took place by exploring whether emotional competence of hall directors predicted exemplary leadership practices.

A comprehensive review and synthesis of the relevant literature on emotional intelligence, emotional competencies, and leadership are presented in Chapter Two. The research design and methods of data collection are contained in Chapter Three. A description of the survey instruments utilized is also noted. Quantitative findings and related analyses of each research question are included in Chapter Four. The summary of findings and future research implications are contained in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Introduction

Emotions: Ah! Let us never be one of those who treat lightly
one of the words that most deserve reverence.
- Charles DuBos

There has been a leadership crisis in the corporate world and in the field of higher education (Fife, 1989; Ryback, 1998). During the industrial revolution, the focus was on productivity and achievement rather than human relations (Ryback). However, the “enhanced use of electronic technology...fall[s] empty without human sensitivity of soul to guide the data” (Ryback, 1998, p. xxiii). Increased reliance on technology and increased use of machines lead to an emotionally sterile workplace (Ryback). “This can lead to low morale, poor motivation and an increasing number of conflict hot-spots. Communication of feelings among those workers who do have face-to-face contact on a periodic basis can help overcome such problems” (Ryback, 1998, p. 214).

More and more attention has been focused on the human brain as people discovered “that although mind can be separated from heart, the two are intertwined at some level...It’s apparent that what we need is a finely tuned combination of mind and heart” (Ryback, 1998, p. 2). “Leadership may not only depend on intellectual and managerial talents, but also on ‘affairs of the heart’, such as understanding and mastering one’s emotions” (Megerian & Sosik, 1996, p. 32). Dalton (2002) echoed this idea by writing “knowledge and reasoning skills without emotional intelligence probably will not stand the tests of leadership” (p. 7).

Successful leadership in the past and in the future, depended on the ability of people working and playing together (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). “Success in leading will be...dependent upon the capacity to build and sustain those human relationships” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 21). Weisinger (1998) wrote “relating well to others means connecting with them to exchange information meaningfully and appropriately. What enables you to relate well to others is interpersonal expertise” (p. xxi). The field of residence life is one where interpersonal communication skills are necessary. In an ACUHO-I survey given to housing directors, respondents listed interpersonal communication skills as one of the top ten competencies needed to be successful (Kearney, 1993). Research conducted by Goleman (1998b) supported the importance of interpersonal skills in leadership. Goleman (1998a) noted “the changes that organizations are now demanding of their people call for even higher levels of commitment, compassion, caring and vitality” (p. 26).

Educational leaders who chose to be successful created and maintained working relationships with many people (Cherniss, 1998). “They need to be mediators and mentors, negotiators and networkers. In short, educational leaders need to be more emotionally intelligent” (Cherniss, 1998, p. 26). “Today’s workplace demands [emotional intelligence]...” (Renschler, 1998, p. xviii). The information leaders had was just as important as their actions, and emotional intelligence was part of that information (Renschler).

The relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership and the relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and leadership effectiveness were the primary components of this study. The literature review included four areas of

research: emotional intelligence, leadership, leadership effectiveness, and assessment tools.

Emotional Intelligence

History of Emotional Intelligence

The phrase emotional intelligence became popular in the 1990's, but broader descriptions of emotional intelligence have been in existence since the early twentieth century. E. L. Thorndike (1920) labeled three intelligences – mechanical, social, and abstract – because he believed “a man has not some one amount of one kind of intelligence, but varying amounts of different intelligences” (p. 228). Social intelligence was defined as “the ability to understand and manage men and women, boys and girls – to act wisely in human relations” (Thorndike, 1920, p. 228). In the late 1930's, R. L. Thorndike and Stein (1937) modified the earlier definition of social intelligence to read, the “ability to understand and manage people” (p. 275).

Many years later, Gardner (1983) outlined his theory of multiple intelligences. In his book, *Frames of Mind*, Gardner described in detail seven “*relatively autonomous human intellectual competences*” (p. 8). Personal intelligence related most closely to emotional intelligence (Maulding, 2002). Gardner believed there were two aspects of personal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence included the “development of the internal aspects of a person” (p. 239) or “*access to one's own feeling life*” (p. 239). Gardner further described intrapersonal intelligence as the capacity to discriminate among one's feelings, to label them, and use them in ways to understand and guide one's behavior. On the other hand, interpersonal intelligence “turns outward, to other individuals” (p. 239). The main focus was on “*the ability to notice and make distinctions among other*

individuals and, in particular, among their moods, temperaments, motivations, and intentions” (p. 239). Intrapersonal intelligence and interpersonal intelligence were linked together under one heading of personal intelligence because, according to Gardner, “these two forms of knowledge are intimately intermingled” (p. 241). In Gardner’s view, the knowledge an individual has of one’s self was dependent upon information gathered by observing other people, whereas knowledge of other people stemmed from perceptions made by the individual on a routine basis.

Development of Emotional Intelligence

In 1990, Mayer and Salovey wrote an article that outlined their emotional intelligence framework. Mayer and Salovey (1990) listed emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence and utilized part of Gardner’s personal intelligences when they defined emotional intelligence as “the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide ones’ thinking and actions” (p. 189).

The book entitled *Emotional Intelligence* was published in 1995. The book was written as a way of dealing with the senseless acts that were occurring (e.g., random violence and school shootings) (Salopek, 1998). After the book was considered a best-seller, an increased interest in emotional intelligence occurred (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). A second book was written by Goleman in 1998 entitled *Working with Emotional Intelligence* where he outlined 18 emotional intelligence competencies that could be used in the workplace. Goleman (1998c) adapted Mayer and Salovey’s (1990) definition of emotional intelligence when he wrote the following definition, “ ‘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). Five emotional and social clusters were listed by Goleman – self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. The number of clusters was reduced to four after new data was analyzed. The four clusters were listed as self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

The clusters of self-awareness and self-management fell under the personal competence category which included the capabilities that “determine how we manage ourselves” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 39). Social competence, the category that was described as the capabilities that “determine how we manage relationships” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 39) included the clusters of social awareness and relationship management. A blend of interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence was used in defining emotional intelligence and the four clusters (Maulding, 2002).

Different Views of Emotional Intelligence

Emotion and intelligence have been viewed as adversarial components. Typically, emotions were seen as an irrational and disruptive force in the work setting (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). However, emotionality and rationality were determined to be complimentary components. McDowell and Bell (1997) viewed them as “inseparable parts of the life of an organization” (p. 6). Those authors examined the operation of the human brain and discovered that “proper functioning of the brain is dependent upon the smooth interaction of emotionality and rationality” (McDowell & Bell).

Goleman (1995) viewed each person as having two minds, “one that thinks and one that feels” (p. 8). Two minds meant two ways “of knowing to construct our mental life” (p. 8). The rational mind was the one of which people were most conscious – “aware, thoughtful, able to ponder and reflect” (Goleman, 1995, p. 8). The emotional mind worked alongside the rational mind, but was viewed as impulsive, powerful, and at times even illogical (Goleman).

These two minds, the emotional and the rational, operate in tight harmony...intertwining their very different ways of knowing to guide us through the world. Ordinarily, there is a balance between emotional and rational minds, with emotion feeding into and informing the operations of the rational minds, and the rational mind refining and sometimes vetoing the inputs of the emotions. Still, the emotional and rational minds are semi-independent faculties, each...reflecting the operation of distinct, but interconnected, circuitry in the brain. (Goleman, 1995, p. 9)

Brain Development

The human brain is triple the size of nonhuman primates and grew from the bottom up. The most primitive part of the brain, the brainstem, is located at the top of the spinal cord. The brainstem “regulates basic life functions like breathing and metabolism of the body’s other organs, as well as controlling stereotyped reactions and movements” (Goleman, 1995, p. 10). This primitive brain does not learn or think, it is a “set of preprogrammed regulators that keep the body running as it should and reacting in a way that ensures survival” (Goleman, 1995, p. 10).

The emotional center of the brain emerged from the brainstem, and it was millions of years before the thinking part of the brain evolved. Within the emotional center is the olfactory lobe which is made up of “cells that take in and analyze smell” (Goleman, 1995, p. 10). As the olfactory lobe evolved, new layers of cells emerged. The first layer “took in what was smelled and sorted it out into the relevant categories” (Goleman, 1995, p. 10). A second layer of cells “sent reflexive messages throughout the nervous system telling the body what to do” (Goleman, 1995, p. 10).

More layers, known as the limbic system, were added to the brain (Goleman, 1995). The limbic system added emotions to the brain and “refined two powerful tools: learning and memory” (p. 10). “The connections between the olfactory bulb and the limbic system...took on the tasks of making distinctions among smells and recognizing them, comparing a present smell with past ones, and so discriminating good from bad” (Goleman, 1995, p. 11). Most decisions were determined through smell.

Two amygdalas, one on each side of the brain, are located near the bottom of the limbic ring. The amygdalas are the parts of the brain that serve as the “center[s] for emotional reactivity, and [have] the ability to scan everything that’s happening to us moment to moment to see if it perceives a threat” (Salopek, 1998, p. 30). Another part of the limbic system is the hippocampus which is important for the functions of learning and memory (*Adventures in neuroanatomy*, n.d.; Goleman, 1995). The amygdalas and the hippocampus have much to do with a human being’s ability to learn and remember.

The brain in mammals underwent a growth spurt about 100 million years ago as new layers of brain cells, called the neocortex, were added to the top of the cerebrum and the cerebral cortex. “The neocortex is the seat of thought; it contains the centers that put together and comprehend what the senses perceive. It adds to a feeling what we think about it” (Goleman, 1995, p. 11). The mass of the neocortex increased as one moved up the phylogenetic scale. The larger the neocortex, the larger the number of interconnections located in the circuitry of the brain. Humans had a greater range of possible responses due to the fact that they had a larger number of interconnections in their brains. “The neocortex allows for the subtlety and complexity of emotional life, such as the ability to have feelings *about* our feelings” (Goleman, 1995, p. 12).

However, the outer portions of the brain do not control the emotional life of a human being. The emotional brain, or the limbic system, was crucial to the operation of the overall brain function. The neocortex, or the thinking brain, evolved from the limbic system. “As the root from which the newer brain grew, the emotional areas are intertwined via myriad connecting circuits to all parts of the rest of the brain – including its centers for thought” (Goleman, 1995, p. 12).

Brain Operation

Goleman (1995) cited examples where the amygdala took control of a person’s actions before the person’s neocortex had completed the process of deciding how to react. In one situation, a man was robbing two women. After the man tied up both women, one woman told the man he would not get away with the crime because she would remember his face. The man panicked, lost control,

clubbed the women until they were unconscious, and then stabbed them until they died. Goleman (1995) used the term “neural hijacking” (p. 14) to describe the situation.

A neural hijacking occurred when a portion of the limbic system sensed an emergency and activated other parts of the brain. The hijacking was instantaneous and occurred before information was sent to the neocortex for processing. People who experienced neural hijackings claimed they did not know what came over them. According to Goleman (1995), the neocortex never had time to assess the entire situation much less determine if the action being taken was appropriate. Neural takeovers originated in the amygdala of a person’s brain, and Goleman (1995) noted that hijackings also occurred when a person experienced great joy.

“The amygdala...occupies a privileged position in the brain. It has a direct connection to the thalamus, which processes all incoming sensory information” (Goleman, 1995, p. 21). At times, this direct connection caused trouble when processing information. The amygdala stored memories and responses that a person utilized without understanding why. The experiences stored in the amygdala were scanned very quickly to determine if there was a match to the current situation. If a match occurred, the command was sent to act in the manner that was imprinted on the brain in the past. A difficulty arose when ways to respond to the situation were outdated or did not match accurately (Goleman).

The shortened connection/response time between the sensory receptor, the thalamus, and the amygdala was crucial and necessary if there was an emergency where an immediate response was required (Goleman, 1995; Maulding, 2002).

However, if the situation was not an emergency, the selected response was sometimes inappropriate. If a person controlled the feeling to react immediately, the prefrontal lobes in the neocortex had time to process the information received. Within moments of receiving information, the prefrontal lobes scanned the many possible reactions to determine the best one for the situation (Goleman, 1995, 1998a). Due to the circuitry of the neocortex, the response was slower than the response selected between the amygdala/thalamus connection, but “these prefrontal-limbic connections are crucial in mental life beyond fine-tuning emotion, they are essential for navigating us through the decisions that matter most in life” (Goleman, 1995, p. 26).

Thinking vs. Feeling

Connections between the neocortex and the limbic system were the focal point of creating balance between the head and the heart, and between thoughts and feelings. Working memory was stored in the prefrontal cortex but strong emotion caused neural static on the connections which made it difficult at times to access the brain’s working memory (Goleman, 1995). The best illustration was someone saying he cannot think straight because of being emotionally upset (Goleman).

In essence, “feelings are intricately bound up in ways that people think, behave, and make decisions” (George, 2000, p. 1030). The point where the amygdala and prefrontal circuitry met was crucial for a person to access all the information gathered over the course of a lifetime. If the connection between the two was broken, the information in the neocortex became neutral and rather dry

without the emotion-laden information from the amygdala. “Feelings are typically *indispensable* for rational decisions; they point us in the proper direction”

(Goleman, 1995, p. 28). “In the dance of feeling and thought, the emotional [brain] guides our moment-to-moment decisions, working hand-in-hand with the rational mind” (Goleman, 1995, p. 28).

Goleman (1995) wrote “in a sense, we have two brains, two minds – and two different kinds of intelligence: rational and emotional. How we do in life is determined by both – it is not just IQ, but *emotional* intelligence that matters” (p. 28). “We can be effective only when the two systems – our emotional brain and our thinking brain – work together. That working relationship, which encompasses most of what we do in life, is the essence of emotional intelligence” (Goleman, 1995, p. 21).

According to Currie (2004), “people feel before they think or act” (p. 1). Some people responded better when taking the time to examine their emotions, determine what the habitual response was, and then chose to react appropriately (Lozar Glenn, 2002). Emotional intelligence was a learned process (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998c; Lozar Glenn, 2002; Maulding, 2002; Ryback, 1998; Salopek, 1998; Weisinger, 1998); therefore, development of emotional competency assisted people with rewiring their thought processes so they identified their feelings before selecting an appropriate response (Currie, 2004).

To assist with the learning process and determine one’s strengths and weaknesses, Goleman (1998c) identified five clusters of emotional intelligence. Later, the five clusters were reduced to four with 18 competencies associated with

the clusters (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). “Emotional intelligence competencies are not innate talents, but learned abilities” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee).

Clusters of Emotional Intelligence

The first two clusters have been grouped together under the personal competence heading (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). The clusters underneath this heading were similar to what Gardner (1983) defined as intrapersonal intelligence and determined how a person managed him/herself (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee).

Self-awareness. People who were competent in the self-awareness cluster were able to identify their feelings and assess how their feelings affected them (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Elevated self-awareness skills allowed a person to monitor self and behavior to ensure actions worked to benefit him/herself in the future. “High self-awareness is the foundation upon which all other emotional intelligence skills are built” (Weisinger, 1998, p. xx). In addition, people with self-awareness competencies knew their strengths and limitations, and exhibited confidence when their strengths were needed (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee).

Self-management. Competencies under this cluster included the ability to admit mistakes, juggle multiple demands, set high standards for self and others, take initiative, and be optimistic (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). “Managing your emotions means understanding them and then using that understanding to deal with situations productively (Weisinger, 1998, p. xx).

Maulding (2002) defined self-management as “handling feelings so they are appropriate. An *ability* that builds on self-awareness” (p. 9).

Social competence was the second heading and included the capabilities that determined how relationships were managed (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). These clusters were similar to what Gardner (1983) described as interpersonal intelligence.

Social awareness. Empathy, organizational awareness, and service orientation were competencies listed under this cluster. People who were skilled in this area read the emotions of others, detected power relationships, got along well with others, and created an emotional climate suitable for all involved parties (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Relationship management. A person adept at creating good relationships was one who inspired others to be appropriate role models and who persuaded others to be supportive of change. In addition, skilled individuals managed conflict, encouraged collaboration among team members, and developed the skills of others (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). “Relating well to others means connecting with them to exchange information meaningfully and appropriately” (Weisinger, 1998, p. xxi).

Leadership

The concept of leadership had “almost as many different definitions...as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). Bennis and Nanus (1985) noted the existence of more than 350 definitions of leadership, and Klenke (1996) wrote that leadership “means different things to

different people” (p. 8). Authors described leadership as a phenomena that has been greatly studied but not often understood (Bennis & Nanus; Clement & Rickard, 1992). Leadership, according to George (2000), ranked “among the most researched and debated topics in the organizational sciences” (p. 1028).

Theories

Over the years, what constituted leadership had changed considerably. “Leadership competencies have remained constant, but our understanding of what it is, how it works, and the ways in which people learn to apply it has shifted” (Bennis & Nanus, 1985, p. 3). At one point, leadership skills were considered to be innate. Specific traits differentiated the leader from followers; however, the presence of these traits did not guarantee effectiveness (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). Trait theory was also referred to as the “Great Man” theory because the belief was that the ability to be a leader was vested in a small number of people who were destined to become great leaders with little regard given to behaviors exhibited by the leader (Bennis & Nanus; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Locke & Associates, 1999). “Leadership traits were constructed to be communal practices” (Woodard, Love, & Komives, 2000c, p. 83).

Power and influence. The focus of these theories was on how leaders use power. Some leaders utilized social power to influence their followers. French and Raven (*Bases...*, 2005) wrote about five bases of social power: legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power, and referent power. Social exchange theories emphasized a two-way relationship between the leader and follower where the leader provided services to followers in exchange for

compliance from the followers in carrying out the demands of the leader (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Yukl, 2002).

Cultural. Leadership theories focused around culture presented a paradigm shift in how one views the organization and the leadership within the organization. Other leadership theory models were designed around the assumption that the world was “essentially certain, rational, and linear” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 20). However, from the cultural perspective it was proposed that people whose reasoning skills were limited were trying to “impose meaning upon an equivocal, fluid, and complex world” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 20). Cultural theories were used to describe the actions of participants who “attempt to find meaningful patterns in the behaviors of others so that they can develop common understandings about the nature of reality” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 20).

Behavioral. Theories of leadership included under the heading of behavioral theories focused more on the activities performed by the leader rather than traits or skills (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Stogdill, 1974). During the 1950s, research was conducted at Ohio State University “to identify categories of relevant leadership behavior and develop questionnaires describing this behavior” (Yukl, 2002, p. 49). Approximately 1,800 examples of behaviors were noted before the researchers reduced that number to 150 items described as important leadership functions (Yukl). Based on the responses provided by subordinates, the researchers discovered two categories of supervisor behavior. Subordinates

perceived the behavior of their leaders focused on task objectives or interpersonal relations (Yukl).

Two different questionnaires, the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire* (LBDQ) and the *Supervisory Behavior Description* (SBD or SBDQ), were created after the results were compiled. Original and modified versions of these questionnaires were used in many studies; however, the findings were questionable in regard to meeting leadership effectiveness criteria (Yukl, 2002).

While the studies were taking place at Ohio State University, other studies of leadership behavior were being conducted at the University of Michigan. “The focus of the Michigan research was the identification of relationships among leader behavior, group processes, and measure of group performance” (Yukl, 2002, p. 52). The findings led researchers to believe that effective and ineffective managers were differentiated by three kinds of leadership behavior. The first, task-oriented behavior, was demonstrated by supervisors who concentrated on “planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities, and providing necessary supplies, equipment, and technical assistance” (Yukl, 2002, p. 53).

Leaders who exhibited the second type of leadership behavior, described as relations-oriented, were seen as more supportive and helpful. Managers in this category showed trust, were friendly and considerate, took time to assist subordinates in developing their careers, and provided recognition for

accomplishments (Yukl, 2002). Researchers found that leaders of this type used “general supervision rather than close supervision” (Yukl, 2002, p. 53).

The third category of behavior was described as participative leadership. Managers were inclined to use group meetings to “facilitate subordinate participation in decision making, improve communication, promote cooperation, and facilitate conflict resolution” (Yukl, 2002, p. 53). The role of the manager was to guide the discussion in such a way that was “supportive, constructive and oriented toward problem solving” (Yukl, 2002, p. 53).

Contingency theories of leadership were also used to describe behavior. These theories were focused on the importance of situational factors and the assumption “that different situations require different patterns of traits and behavior for a leader to be effective” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 14). Bensimon, Neumann, and Birnbaum believed there was considerable overlap between contingency theories and behavior theories. Contingency theories tended “to emphasize the importance of factors outside the organization, while behavioral theories more frequently focus on internal variables” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 15).

“Since the mid-1970s, a substantial body of theoretical and empirical literature concerning the behavior that distinguishes outstanding leadership has emerged” (House, 1995, p. 414). This new class of theory “emphasizes leader appeal to follower values, motives, and dearly held self-concepts” (House, 1995, p. 414). Leaders took the time to articulate to their followers the vision of the organization and stressed the importance of the values associated with that vision

(House). Charismatic leadership and transformational leadership were two theories described under the heading of neocharismatic leadership (House).

Charismatic. The theory of charismatic leadership was influenced by Max Weber. Charismatic leadership

occurs when there is a social crisis, a leader emerges with a radical vision that offers a solution to the crisis, the leader attracts followers who believe in the vision, they experience some successes that make the vision appear attainable, and the followers come to perceive the leader as extraordinary. (Yukl, 2002, p. 241)

“Charisma is a Greek word that means ‘divinely inspired gift’” (Yukl, 2002 p. 241); however, the distinction was not made “clear whether this gift of grace was a quality possessed by leaders independent of society or a quality dependent on its recognition by followers” (Burns, 1978, p. 243).

Transformational. Leadership described as transformational was influenced by James McGregor Burns (1978) in the book *Leadership* where the theories of transformational and transactional leadership were outlined. Bass (1985) presented a formal theory of transformational leadership which was further defined by Bass, Avolio, and their colleagues (Bass & Avolio, 1994). “The essence of the theory is the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership” (Yukl, 2002, p. 253). Under the transformational leadership model, “followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do” (Yukl, 2002, p. 253). According to Bass and Avolio, a leader who practiced transformational leadership generated “an awareness of the mission or vision of the team

and organization” (p. 2) and developed “colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential” (p. 2). On the other hand, “transactional leadership involved an exchange process that may result in follower compliance with leader requests but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives” (Yukl, 2002, p. 253).

Leadership in Higher Education

In recent years, there has been growing concern over leadership in higher education institutions. There has been a perception that a “great leadership crisis” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 1) was occurring in higher education. “Calls for better, stronger, and bolder leadership have been echoed simultaneously in several reports by blue ribbon commissions, decrying the decline of higher education” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 1). In the realm of higher education, “leadership is essential to the creative improvement of services and programs for our increasingly diverse student populations” (Clement & Rickard, 1992, p. 3).

While the cry for leadership in the field of student affairs has been strong, a limited amount of literature exploring the concept was found (Clement & Rickard, 1992). An annotated list of higher education governance, management, and leadership studies totaled almost six hundred. Only five of the six hundred studies were related to the field of student affairs (Peterson & Mets, 1987). The student affairs literature included information professionals utilized to assume a stronger leadership role (Clement & Rickard). “Much of this literature seems fragmented, however, separating functional roles from leadership and viewing style as independent of situation” (Clement & Rickard, 1992, p. 9).

Leadership and Relationships

Late in the twentieth century, a shift occurred in leadership practices. Rather than focusing on the actions of people who were viewed as leaders, new leadership practices centered around the relationships among people in an organization (Woodard, Love, & Komives, 2000c). Many authors, (Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Kouzes & Posner, 2002a; Locke & Associates, 1999;) shared the new philosophy and wrote about the relational concept of leadership. Weymes (2003) wrote “the terms of leadership and relationship are connected, since one cannot occur without the other” (p. 325).

Relationships were seen as a source of power (Burns, 1978). Weymes (2003) wrote that “the difference between winning and losing can be attributed to the power of relationships” (p. 320). In addition to being seen as a source of power, relationships were deemed necessary in certain situations. Increased specialization of labor and the increased complexity of organizations had increased the “complexity of relationships among individuals” (Bass, 1960, p. 3). Relationships and the problems that resulted from these relationships became more complex due to industrialization (Bass). Schein (1992) wrote relationships needed to be valued in order for levels of trust and communication to develop to a point where problem solving and implementation of solutions could occur. Gerstner and Day (1997) and Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) wrote separate articles on high-quality interpersonal relationships. Both sets of researchers documented advantages in organizations where leaders and followers experience satisfying relationships with each other.

The importance of relationships was highlighted in “complex turbulent environment[s] in which technological and other forms of interdependence are high”

(Schein, 1992, p. 371). Blimling (1993) noted that “housing programs are in a period of transition” (p. 2). Issues of a changing student population, aging facilities, a declining number of staff members to work with students, and increased scrutiny by state legislatures were just a few items within the turbulent residence life environment (Blimling).

Schuh (2002) completed a study where leaders with more than 30 years of experience in student affairs were asked what they learned about leadership. The leaders “observed that being able to work effectively with others was most important” (Schuh, 2002, p. 209). “Student affairs...depends on cooperation and collaboration with others. The most serious error student affairs professionals can make is to isolate themselves, thinking they are an independent entity” (Sandeen, 1993, p. 300). In 2001, Sandeen wrote about extensive interviews conducted with 15 senior student affairs officers, all of whom had spent 20 years or more at their current institution. The student affairs leaders said they were expected to work with administrative colleagues “as a team, collaborating and cooperating to accomplish the objectives of the president and the mission of the college or university” (Sandeen, 2001, p. 10).

“The student affairs staff will need to develop effective campus relationships” (Sandeen, 1993, p. 300) in order for campus programs and policies to be considered successful. “Success in leadership, success in business, and success if life, is now, and will continue to be a function of how well people work and play together” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 21). “Relationships are the key to leadership effectiveness” (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998, p. 21).

Leadership Effectiveness

There were many ways to evaluate leadership effectiveness, but “the quest to uncover the secret of successful leadership...remains” (Weymes, 2003, p. 319). “There is no simple answer to the question of how to evaluate leadership effectiveness. The selection of appropriate criteria depends on the objectives and values of the person making the evaluation, and people have different values” (Yukl, 2002, p. 10).

Different Viewpoints

Conger and Kanungo (1998) wrote that measurement of leadership effectiveness should be based on “the degree to which a leader promotes (1) instrumental attitudes and behaviors that encourage the achievement of group objectives, (2) followers’ satisfaction with the task and content within which they operate, and (3) followers’ acceptance of their leader’s influence” (p. 39). In a study performed by Clement and Rickard (1992) “three constellations of attributes and related personal qualities” (p. 18) emerged as contributors to a leader’s level of effectiveness: integrity, commitment, and tenacity.

When comparing superior leaders to those deemed average or below average in performance, Cherniss (1998) discovered the emergence of several competencies exhibited by the superior leaders. Self-confidence; an ability to manage emotions, motivation, persistence; and the ability to get along with others were listed. “Effective leaders are particularly adept at building consensus, coordinating team efforts, appreciating multiple perspectives, and avoiding unproductive conflicts” (Cherniss, 1998, p. 28).

Yukl (2002) wrote “conceptions of leadership effectiveness differ from one writer to another” (p. 8). The writer’s conception of leadership, either implicit or explicit, was a

determinant in how leadership effectiveness was evaluated (Yukl). “The most commonly used measure of leadership effectiveness is the extent to which the leader’s organizational unit performs its task successfully and attains its goals” (Yukl, 2002, p. 8). The attitude followers displayed toward the leader and the perception of the leader’s contribution to the quality of the group’s processes were other common indicators of leadership effectiveness (Yukl).

Seven core qualities were listed by Ryback (1998) as essential to successful leadership: (a) strategic planning, (b) communication and alignment, (c) team building, (d) continuous learning, (e) dynamic accountability (f) systemic results, and (g) actualized integrity. “Successful leadership now includes guidance and empowering ability along with productivity and achievement. The successful leader is now seen more as a motivator of purpose and alignment and an inspiration to corporate commitment” (Ryback, 1998, p. 6).

“Network-building is...[a] key interpersonal skill of effective leaders” (Locke & Associates, 1999, p. 40) in addition to exhibiting a high level of positive energy that can be felt by members of the organization (Goleman, 1998c). “Effective leaders help group members communicate and work together” (Bolman & Deal, 1997, p. 158). Skillful leaders paid attention to subtle emotional undercurrents that existed within their group (Goleman).

“In the twenty-first century, the criteria for leadership will be not only knowledge and experience, but also healthy self-esteem and sensitivity to others’ feelings” (Ryback 1998, p. 11). “The most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: they all have a high

degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence” (Goleman, 1998b, p. 94).

Use of Emotion

According to George (2000), leaders who utilized emotional intelligence were able to develop goals for the organization and create ways to achieve those goals. Leaders effectively communicated a newly created vision in a way that motivated followers to share the vision. The utilization of emotional intelligence allowed leaders to assess and manage the emotions of others when making decisions, when assisting followers in identifying and expressing emotions, and when altering the feelings of followers in more productive ways to transform the organization (George).

Effective leaders used emotional intelligence skills when distinguishing between real and faked emotions, and when understanding why emotions were faked (George, 2000). Work became less routine, due to technological advances, and therefore, leaders became more dependent on culture as an influence. Leaders found it harder to control the less routine work and employed emotional intelligence skills to embrace and express norms and values that generated strong feelings of organizational identity (George). “Emotional intelligence has the potential to contribute to effective leadership in multiple ways. The special relevance to leadership revolves around the fact that leadership is an emotion-laden process, both from a leader and a follower perspective” (George, 2000, p. 1046).

Megerian and Sosik (1996) added another view of emotions and effective leadership. “Relationship management entails being able to manage emotions in others to solve interpersonal conflicts for which there may be no logical solutions” (Megerian &

Sosik, 1996, p. 36). The authors suggested “that relationship management, along with self-awareness, emotional management, self-motivation, and empathy are components of EI [emotional intelligence] that may be personal characteristics related to effective leadership” (Megerian & Sosik, 1996, p. 36).

Results of research studies supported the concept of emotional intelligence as a component of effective leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2001; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough; 2000). Palmer, Walls, Burgess, and Stough (2000) studied emotional intelligence compared with transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The authors concluded that preliminary evidence existed between emotional intelligence and effective leadership (Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough). In a similar study, Gardner and Stough (2001) examined “relationships between emotional intelligence and leadership (p. 71). Based on the findings, Gardner and Stough hypothesized that a leader’s ability

to identify and understand the emotions of others in the workplace, to be able to manage their own and others’ positive and negative emotions, to be able to control emotions states in the workplace effectively, to utilise [*sic*] emotional information when problem solving, and to be able to express their feelings to others, is integral to the leader being effective. (p. 76)

George and Bettenhausen (1990) completed a research study in which a significant and positive result was found between a leader’s mood and the group’s performance. In 1995, George conducted a similar study on the impact a leader’s positive mood had on followers. “Finding leader positive mood to be positively associated with group performance...may...help explain why some leaders are much more effective than

others, even though their education, skills, abilities, and experiences are quite similar” (George, 1995, p. 790).

New Viewpoints

New yardsticks have been used to measure a leader’s performance. In addition to intelligence, training, and expertise, an evaluation was made by how well leaders handled themselves and others in the organization (Goleman, 1998c). “This yardstick is increasingly applied in choosing who will be hired and who will not, who will be let go and who retained, who passed over and who promoted (Goleman, 1998c, p. 3). Intellectual ability and technical know-how were taken for granted when using the new measurement tool; the focus was placed on personal qualities like initiative, empathy, adaptability, and persuasiveness (Goleman).

“The answer to the dilemma of effectiveness in leadership does not lie in more and better research methodologies but in the ability to think about leadership differently” (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). Kouzes and Posner (2002a) viewed leadership in a different way when beginning a research project in 1983. The premise of the research was to have leaders “select a project, program, or significant event that represented his or her ‘personal-best’ leadership experience” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 3). The leader answered specific questions about the experience, and similar patterns were revealed as the answers were studied (Kouzes & Posner, 2001a). Kouzes and Posner (2002a) believed the patterns demonstrated that leaders engaged in specific practices “when getting extraordinary things done in organizations” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 13). The practices of (a) modeling the way, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) challenging the process, (d) enabling others to act, and (e) encouraging the heart became known as

the Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a). “Leadership is not at all about personality; it’s about practice (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 13).

“Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 20). “Success in leading will be wholly dependent upon the capacity to build and sustain those human relationships that enable people to get extra-ordinary things done on a regular basis” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 21). Twenty years had passed, over 4,000 cases studied, and more than 200,000 surveys had been completed to document the authenticity of that statement even in the present day (Kouzes & Posner, 2001a, 2002)

Assessment Tools

“Before data are collected, any necessary measuring instruments must be identified” (Wiersma, 2000, p. 21). There were over 60 different assessment tools that measure emotional intelligence (Thompson, n.d.), and five of them stand out: the *Emotional Quotient Inventory* (EQ-i), the *Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale* (MEIS), the *Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* (MSCEIT), the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI), and the *Emotional Competence Inventory - University Edition* (ECI-U). While all five measured emotional intelligence, each measured it in a different way: assessing skills, abilities, or competencies.

Gowing (2001) described Reuven Bar-On, creator of the EQ-I, as “one of the pioneers in the measurement of emotional intelligence” (p. 107). As an assessment tool the EQ-I was designed to measure “an array of noncognitive...skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (*Comparison...*, n.d.). Another instrument was the MEIS designed by Peter Salovey and John Mayer. The

MEIS was a direct behavioral measure based upon Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence and was "the only measure designed as a true ability measure, tapping intellectual abilities relating to feelings and emotion" (Gowing, 2001, p. 93). Similar to the MEIS, the MSCEIT, created by Mayer, Salovey, and David Caruso, "is an ability measure of emotional intelligence designed to yield an overall emotional intelligence score as well as subscale scores for perception, facilitation, understanding, and management of emotions" (Gowing, 2001, p. 104).

Development of the ECI was done by Richard Boyatzis and Daniel Goleman to measure the competencies in Goleman's (1995, 1998c) emotional competence framework. In addition, competencies from Hay/McBer's Generic Competency Dictionary and Boyatzis's *Self-Assessment Questionnaire* (SAQ) were utilized in the creation (Sala, 2002). "The ECI is a 360-degree assessment that gathers self, subordinate, peer, and supervisory rating on...social and emotional competencies" (Gowing, 2001, p. 87). The competencies were divided into four clusters: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Self-awareness and self-management were categorized under the heading of personal competence and were similar to what Gardner (1983) described as intrapersonal intelligence. Social competence encompassed social awareness and relationship management, and was comparable to Gardner's (1983) interpersonal intelligence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002).

Later, Goleman and Boyatzis created the *Emotional Competence Inventory - University Edition* (ECI-U). "The ECI-U is the premier EI [emotional intelligence] assessment instrument designed specifically for use within academic settings"

(*Assessment Tools*, n.d.). Sixty-three items were examined within a self-assessment or multi-rater version.

There have been many different ways to define leadership effectiveness just as there have been many ways to define leadership (Yukl, 2002). Most researchers assess a leader's effectiveness by examining the "consequences of the leader's actions for followers" (Yukl, 2002, p. 8). Examining "the extent to which the leader's organizational unit performs its task successfully and attains its goals" (Yukl, 2002, p. 8) was the most common way to measure leadership effectiveness. Other ways to evaluate a leader's effectiveness was to examine follower attitudes toward the leader or evaluate the leader's contribution to the group as observed by followers or others outside the group (Yukl).

Research on effective leadership behavior began in the 1950s with the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The researchers were asked to develop questionnaires that could assess previously identified behaviors. Out of these studies two questionnaires were constructed: the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire* (LBDQ) and the *Supervisory Behavior Description* (SBD or SBDQ). A third questionnaire, the *Leader Opinion Questionnaire* (LOQ), was also created, but it was later viewed as a measure of leader attitudes. As time passed, a fourth questionnaire called the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII* (LBDQ XII) was developed. Ten additional scales were added to the LBDQ XII, and the scope of other categories were narrowed (Yukl, 2002).

During the 1980s James Kouzes and Barry Posner began researching what people looked for in a leader. When answering the question, respondents identified 225 values, traits, and characteristics which were later reduced to a list of 20 characteristics (Kouzes

& Posner, 2002a). In addition, Kouzes and Posner (2002a) examined the personal-best leadership experiences of leaders and discovered that leaders have “common patterns of action. As stated previously, “leadership is not at all about personality; it’s about practices” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a, p. 13). The practices, or common patterns of action, became the foundation of their model of leadership. Eventually, the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* (Kouzes & Posner, 2002a) were developed.

Kouzes and Posner (2001a) created the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) to assess how a leader’s behavior falls within the five leadership practices. “The LPI is a questionnaire with thirty behavioral statements – six for each of The Five Practices” (*The LPI*, n.d., p. 1). A 360-degree assessment tool, the LPI was to be completed by five to ten people in addition to the leader. The other people were respondents who had opportunities to directly observe the leader while acting as a leader (Kouzes & Posner, 2001a). The respondents and the leader (who completed a self-report form) used a ten-point rating scale to decide how frequently the leader engaged in 30 specific behaviors (Kouzes & Posner, 2001b). Results from all questionnaires were given to the leader to assist with improving leadership behaviors and, in turn, leadership effectiveness.

Summary

The concept of emotional intelligence developed over decades before Daniel Goleman wrote his first book in 1995. A second book written by Goleman (1998c) outlined emotional intelligence competencies that could be used in the workplace. Goleman believed emotional intelligence was a learned process and the determination of one’s strengths and weaknesses (competencies) could be used to assist in the learning process.

Leadership had many definitions, and there were many leadership theories from which to choose. While the need for leadership in higher education and student affairs had been noted, a very limited amount of literature addressing the need was found. A shift had occurred where the focus was on the importance of relationships rather than on the actions of people.

Utilizing emotional intelligence skills to assess a leader's effectiveness was found to be a recent activity. Intelligence, training, and expertise were still considered relevant, but the ability to assess and manage emotions was added to the list of items by which effectiveness was determined.

Over the years a large number of assessment tools had been created to assess one's emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. The *Emotional Competence Inventory – University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) were two instruments designed to measure competencies and behaviors utilized in a work setting.

The concept of a relationship between the emotional competence scores of hall directors and the leadership practice scores of hall directors was explored in this study. The possibility of predicting leadership practices based on emotional competence was also examined. The review of literature supported the fact that an insufficient amount of research existed in the area of a correlation between the emotional competence and leadership practices of hall directors. An investigation of these two variables created a foundation for determining the strength of the relationship and the possibility of utilizing emotional competence to predict effective leadership behavior.

A description of the methods used to collect the data as well as research questions and hypotheses is contained in Chapter Three. In Chapter Four quantitative data analyses are presented and related to the research questions. A summary of the findings and the implications for future research is included in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

As decades passed, the ability to develop leadership skills and the ability to develop interpersonal skills remained an essential skills for hall directors (Burkard, Cole, Ott, & Stoflet, 2005; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Newton & Richardson, 1976; Ostroth, 1981). The need for these skills was supported by examples Palmer (1995) gathered while working in residence life and student affairs: hall directors

may indeed be called upon to console the homesick, congratulate the victorious, encourage the demoralized, sympathize with the broken-hearted, arrange professional assistance for the suicidal, assist the intoxicated, confront the disruptive, mediate among the angry, and challenge the frustrated to take constructive action in addressing their concerns. In addition to helping students, some [hall directors] have been called upon to explain to irate parents why hall staff won't provide "wake-up calls" so that their sons and daughters don't sleep through their classes, deal with RAs who insist that "last year's [hall director] didn't make us come to staff meetings," communicate with building service or maintenance personnel who don't understand why residence life staff "let" students make a mess or break things, and work with overtired or overstressed supervisors who may, on occasion, seem unreasonable or even a bit cranky. (p. 6)

In their research Gardner and Stough (2001) found successful leaders were people who could manage emotions in themselves and others while also managing problems before they become too serious. After studying outstanding performers in organizations, Goleman (1998a) wrote “about two-thirds of the abilities that set apart star performers from the rest are based on emotional intelligence; only one-third of the skills that matter relate to raw intelligence and technical expertise” (p. 21).

This study, using the hall director as the unit of analysis, was intended to explore the emotional competence of these entry-level professionals and the exemplary leadership practices exhibited by said professionals. Specifically, the study compared the overall emotional competence score and the four emotional competency cluster scores with the overall leadership practices score and the five exemplary leadership practices scores of the hall directors.

Research Questions

Within the context of this study, the following research questions were addressed:

1. What was the relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores?
2. Which of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of hall directors were best predicted by the overall emotional competence scores?
3. Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the overall exemplary leadership practices scores?

4. Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart)?

Research Hypotheses

The following research hypotheses, which related to the stated research questions, were also explored in this study:

1. Higher overall emotional competence scores of hall directors predicted higher overall exemplary leadership practices scores.
2. Higher overall emotional competence scores of hall directors predicted higher exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).
3. Higher emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors predicted higher overall exemplary leadership practices scores.
4. Higher emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors predicted higher exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

Statistical Hypotheses

The following subsequent null hypotheses included:

1. There was no statistically significant relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores.
2. There was no statistically significant relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).
3. There was no statistically significant relationship between the emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices score.
4. There was no statistically significant relationship between the emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors and their exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

Population and Sample

A random sample of 300 of the approximately 378 hall directors who work at colleges and universities in the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO) served as subjects of this study. Feasibility

prevented a larger number than 300 from being selected while still providing enough data to allow for multivariate analyses to be performed. The names of hall directors were gathered from the on-line 2006-07 UMR-ACUHO Membership Directory. Hall directors selected the other raters who were randomly selected to complete the *Emotional Competence Inventory - University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) in order to create a 360-degree assessment of emotional competence and exemplary leadership practices. For the purposes of the exploratory research, only the results from the self-assessment portions of the LPI and ECI-U were used. If the findings support further research, analysis of the expanded data set will be conducted as a second phase of this research.

A sample of the entire group of hall directors was selected because “collecting data from the entire population...is impractical” (Jaeger, 1984). Sample was defined as “a subset of the population to which the researcher intends to generalize the results” (Wiersma, 2000, p. 269). “In many educational research studies, it is simply not feasible to include all members of a population. This is certainly true in survey research when large populations are concerned. Thus, a sample is used much more commonly” (Wiersma, 2000, p. 269). Based on these statements and the other factors of feasibility, convenience, administrative complexity (Jaeger), and practical reasons a random sample was utilized.

Data Collection and Instrumentation

The random sample was selected using an on-line randomizer found at www.randomizer.org and the 2006-2007 on-line membership directory published by UMR-ACUHO. An introductory letter was mailed to each person in the sample

requesting his/her participation, explaining the directions, and outlining the benefits of participation (see Appendix A). Data were obtained by having the hall director and six raters complete the ECI-U on line and complete the LPI which was included with the introductory letter. A list entitled Helpful Instructions for Participants (see Appendix B) was enclosed with the participant introductory letter. The list was sent to make the process easier for the hall directors by having the steps outlined for them.

Hall directors were instructed to complete the self-report form of the ECI-U on line by utilizing the link provided in the letter. In addition to the self-report form, hall directors were asked to complete the Demographic Questionnaire (see Appendix C). The collection of demographic information would assist in data analysis. At that point, hall directors selected a minimum of ten people that worked with them who could assess their emotional competencies. The names, addresses, and e-mail addresses were sent to the researcher (see Appendix D). Six people were randomly selected by the research to serve as raters. These raters completed their observer assessment on line as well.

The LPI was sent to the hall directors as a paper form. The LPI form, Helpful Instructions (see Appendix E), and the request for participation letter (see Appendix F). Each hall director and rater received a self-addressed, stamped envelope for all the materials to be mailed back to the researcher. Reminder e-mail messages (see Appendix G) were sent one and two weeks after the initial mailing asking for participants to return their completed materials.

Confidentiality and consent were maintained in a number of different ways. A proposal to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) was submitted and human subject approval was obtained. The consent letters sent to all participants and raters (see

Appendix H & I respectively) outlined the research project, the expected level of involvement, and the procedures to follow if a participant chose to withdraw.

Numbers were placed on each survey instrument so the researcher could send reminder messages to participants asking them to return the surveys and to aid in linking the LPI and ECI-U scores. Demographic information was gathered to allow for additional analyses of the variables and to better understand the characteristics of the subjects.

Survey instruments were used to gather data on each subject. Use of a survey has been one of the three most common forms of data collection (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). Surveys were used to gather data “when you cannot observe directly what you want to study” (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001, p. 75). Independent, or predictor, variables were the emotional competence scores from the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U), and the dependent, or criterion, variables were the exemplary leadership practices scores from the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI).

Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition (ECI-U)

The first step in the data collection process was to assess the emotional competence levels of the hall directors. The *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) was used to assess competency levels. Daniel Goleman and Richard Boyatzis developed the ECI-U (*Assessment tools*, n.d.). “The ECI-U is the premier EI [emotional intelligence] assessment instrument designed specifically for use within academic settings” (*Assessment tools*, n.d., p. 2). Serving as a foundation for the development of the ECI-U was the *Emotional Competence Inventory* (ECI) created by Daniel Goleman, Richard Boyatzis, and Kenneth Rhee (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). “The ECI is a 360-degree assessment tool that gathers self, subordinate, peer, and

supervisory ratings” (Gowing, 2001, p. 81) on eighteen competencies. The competencies were grouped into four clusters under the headings of personal and social competence. Reliability scores in terms of Cronbach’s alpha for average item scores on each competency ranged from .618 to .866 on the self-assessment form and .798 to .948 on the composite others’ assessment form (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). “The *Emotional Competence Inventory* is supported by construct validity evidence, content validity evidence, and validity generalization evidence from its predecessor instrument, the *Self-Assessment Questionnaire*” (Gowing, 2001, p. 92).

The ECI-U is also a 360-degree assessment tool. The 63-item instrument was supported by the reliability and validity evidence of its predecessor instrument, the ECI (M. Levine, personal communication, November 21, 2005). Similar to the ECI, the ECI-U assessed twenty-one competencies that were grouped into four clusters (*Assessment tools*, n.d.).

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

The second step in the collection of data was measurement of the exemplary leadership practices of the hall directors. The *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) was selected for this purpose. James Kouzes and Barry Posner created the LPI as a way to assess and to provide ratings of a leader’s behavior. “A triangulation of qualitative and quantitative research methods and studies” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 1) was used to develop the LPI. “The conceptual portion of the *Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership* framework grew out of the collection and analysis of case studies of personal-best experiences” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 2).

The LPI consisted of descriptive statements of leadership actions and behavior (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). There were thirty statements on the LPI self and observer forms. Six statements were used to measure each of the Five Exemplary leadership practices: (a) challenging the process, (b) inspiring a shared vision, (c) enabling others to act, (d) modeling the way, and (e) encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner).

Kouzes and Posner (2002b) wrote “validation studies that we, as well as other researchers, have conducted over a fifteen-year period consistently confirm the reliability and validity of the Leadership Practices Inventory” (p. 2). “Internal reliability...continues to be strong, with all scales above the .75 level. This is true for the Self version as well as for all Observers and for each Observer category” (*Psychometric properties...*, 2000, p. 1). “There is a tendency for the reliability coefficients from the LPI-Self (between .75 and .87) to be somewhat lower than those for the LPI-Observer (ranging between .88 and .92); however, this is not problematic” (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 6). Scores for test-retest reliability remained at .90 and above which was considered to be consistently strong (Kouzes & Posner).

Creators of the LPI noted that excellent face validity and concurrent validity exist (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b). “The underlying factor structure has been sustained across a variety of studies and settings, and support continues to be generated for the instrument’s construct and concurrent validity (Kouzes & Posner, 2002b, p. 18). In addition, “The LPI has both face validity and predictive validity” (Kouzes & Posner, 2001a, p. 7).

Data Analysis

The data collected from the hall director self-assessment surveys was tabulated and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13.0.

Results were determined to be statistically significant at an alpha level of .05. The Pearson product-moment correlation, or Pearson r , and multiple regression were the statistical analyses performed on the data. Selection of the Pearson r was done to determine if a relationship existed between emotional competence and leadership effectiveness. “Regression is the analysis of relationships among variables” (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999, p. 140). “A coefficient of correlation is the number that provides us with an index of the strength of the relationship between two things” (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999, p. 130). The Pearson r “can be the statistical tool of choice when the relationship between the variables is linear and when the two variables being correlated are continuous” (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999, p. 132). The overall emotional competence scores and the overall leadership practice scores were utilized in the statistical analyzing process, and the overall emotional competence scores and the five exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) were used in a second process.

Multiple regression was used to determine whether any of the emotional competence clusters (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) were predictive of the overall leadership practice scores and to determine whether any of the emotional competence clusters (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) were more predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart). A multiple regression equation “takes into account the correlation among all variables involved” (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999, p. 141).

The independent variable, emotional competence, was expressed as an overall emotional competence score. The four emotional clusters scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) were combined to create the overall score. The emotional competence scores, five in all, were derived from the *Emotional Competence Inventory - University Edition (ECI-U)* (*Assessment tools*, n.d.).

Leadership effectiveness, the dependent variable, was expressed as an overall leadership practices score. The five exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) were combined to create the overall score. The six leadership practice scores were derived from Kouzes & Posner's (2001a) *Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)*.

Summary

The review and synthesis of literature indicated a relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness may exist. "People are beginning to realize that success takes more than intellectual excellence or technical prowess" (Goleman, 1998c, p. 11). "It's the emotional intelligence abilities that matter more for superior performance" (Goleman, 1998c, p. 19). "If leaders fail in this primal task of driving emotions in the right direction, nothing they do will work as well as it could or should" (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002, p. 3). The primary focus of this research study was the possible correlation between the emotional competence of hall directors and the leadership practices exhibited by hall directors. A secondary focus was whether leadership practices could be predicted by emotional competence. The establishment of a relationship between emotional competence and leadership effectiveness of hall directors

could impact graduate preparatory programs; selection and recruitment of hall directors; and supervision, training, and development of hall directors in their professional roles.

The quantitative data and analyses of the data for each research question is contained in Chapter Four. In Chapter Five the conclusions formed as a result of analyzing the data and implications for future research are presented.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Introduction

This chapter contains the findings of the study and the statistical analyses used to answer the following research questions: (a) what was the relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores, (b) which of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of hall directors were best predicted by the overall emotional competence scores, (c) which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the overall exemplary leadership practices scores, and (d) which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart)? Simple regression (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999) and multiple regression (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999) were the statistical analyses used to determine whether relationships existed between self-assessment scores on the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI).

Data analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13.0. The Pearson product-moment correlation, or Pearson r (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999), was used to determine if a significant statistical correlation

existed between the overall emotional competence scores and the overall leadership practices scores. When analyzing the overall emotional competence scores and the five exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) the Pearson product-moment correlation was used once again.

Multiple regression (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999) was used to determine whether any of the emotional competence clusters (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) were predictive of the overall leadership practices scores and to determine whether any of the emotional competence clusters (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) were more predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart). Specifically, the stepwise method of multiple regression was selected to analyze the data. Stepwise regression is a process of selecting variables that will be used in a multiple regression model (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.). The process of forward stepwise regression begins with no variables selected. At each step in the process, “the most statistically significant [variable] (the one with the highest *F* statistic or lowest p-value)” (p. 1) is added until no variables are left to be added.

Demographics

The focus of this research study was on hall directors who work at colleges and universities in the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO). Hall directors were asked to complete the self-assessment portions of the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U)

and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI). A demographic questionnaire (see Appendix C) was also completed by each hall director. Three hundred hall directors were randomly selected from 378 names in the UMR-ACUHO on-line membership directory. A return rate of 21% was calculated after 62 people returned their self-assessments.

Over two thirds of the participants were female (N = 43; 69.4%), while only 30.6% (N = 19) were male (see Table 1). In looking at the list of randomly selected hall directors who were invited to participate, 61% (N = 183) were female and 39% (N = 117) were male. These percentages were similar to the percentages of actual participants.

Table 1

Gender of Participants in Sample Population (N = 62)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	43	69.4	69.4	69.4
Male	19	30.6	30.6	100.0

The average age of all 62 participants was calculated as 26.34 years (see Table 2). The age of the hall directors ranged from 23 years of age to 38 years. Almost half of the hall directors (N = 29; 46.8%) indicated that they were 25 years of age or younger, and nearly two-thirds (64.5%) of the participants were 26 years old or younger (see Table 3).

Table 2

Average Age of Participants in Sample Population (N = 62)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	62	23	38	26.34	3.224

Table 3

Age of Participants in Sample Population (N = 62)

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
23	11	17.7	17.7	17.7
24	9	14.5	14.5	32.3
25	9	14.5	14.5	46.8
26	11	17.7	17.7	64.5
27	7	11.3	11.3	75.8
28	4	6.5	6.5	82.3
29	3	4.8	4.8	87.1
30	1	1.6	1.6	88.7
31	1	1.6	1.6	90.3
32	1	1.6	1.6	91.9
33	2	3.2	3.2	95.2
34	2	3.2	3.2	98.4
38	1	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	62	100.0	100.0	

In regard to level of education, over half (N = 32; 51.6%) of the hall directors had completed a master’s degree (see Table 4). Nineteen people (30.6%) had completed some post-bachelor’s education, and ten people (16.1%) had earned a bachelor’s degree.

Table 4

Level of Education for Participants (N = 62)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Bachelor's	10	16.1	16.4	16.4
	Post-bachelor's	19	30.6	31.1	47.5
	Master's	32	51.6	52.5	100.0
	Total	61	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	1	1.6		
Total		62	100.0		

The number of years each participant had been working as a hall director was the final question on the questionnaire. Half of the hall directors (N = 31; 50%) had been in the hall director position for two years or less while the other half (N = 31; 50%) indicated that they had worked more than two years as a hall director. Two thirds (69.4%) of the respondents had three or fewer years of experience (see Table 5).

Table 5

Years of Experience in Hall Director Position (N = 62)

				Valid	Cumulative
		Frequency	Percent	Percent	Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	10	16.1	16.1	16.1
	One year	16	25.8	25.8	41.9
	Two years	5	8.1	8.1	50.0
	Three years	12	19.4	19.4	69.4
	Four years	5	8.1	8.1	77.4
	Five years	6	9.7	9.7	87.1
	More than five years	8	12.9	12.9	100.0
	Total	62	100.0	100.0	

Research Questions Findings

Response scores on the self-assessment portion of both surveys were entered into SPSS version 13.0. Before any analyses were begun, some calculations of subscales had to be completed. The subscale scores were created by adding together scores of all competencies and dividing by the number of competencies included under each subscale heading. Competency scores of emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self confidence were combined to create the self-awareness score. The self-management cluster score consisted of scores for the competencies of emotional self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, optimism, achievement orientation, and

initiative. Three competencies, empathy, organizational awareness, and service orientation, were utilized for the social awareness cluster score. Finally, the relationship management cluster score was created using the scores on the competencies entitled developing others, inspirational leadership, influence, communication, change catalyst, conflict management, building bonds, and teamwork and collaboration.

All four competency cluster scores were added together to create the overall emotional competence score (overall ECI score). The overall exemplary leadership practices score (overall LPI score) was calculated by combining the individual exemplary practices scores of challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart. All of the scores listed above were used to answer the research questions.

Research question 1: What was the relationship between the overall emotional competence scores of hall directors and their overall exemplary leadership practices scores?

Analysis of the Pearson correlation between the overall ECI scores and the overall LPI scores revealed a statistically significant relationship ($r = .648$; $p < .001$). Statistical significance was determined at the .001 level (see Table 6). The variance accounted for in overall LPI score by overall ECI score was 42% (R Square = .420).

Table 6

Pearson Correlation Between Overall ECI Score and Overall LPI Score (N = 62)

	<i>r</i>	<i>R</i> Square
Overall ECI & overall LPI	.648***	.420

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

Research question 2: Which of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of hall directors were best predicted by the overall emotional competence scores?

As shown in Table 7, all exemplary leadership practices (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) were found to have a statistically significant relationship with the overall ECI score. However, the practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and challenging the process had similar stronger correlations. Twenty-nine percent of the variance in modeling the way leadership behavior (R Square = .286) was accounted for by the overall ECI score. The percentage decreased to 28% for inspiring a shared vision (R Square = .284) and challenging the process (R Square = .279). The behaviors entitled encouraging the heart (R Square = .241) and enabling others to act (R Square = .221) decreased to 24% and 22% respectively.

Table 7

Pearson Correlations Between Exemplary Leadership Practices and Overall ECI Score (N = 62)

Exemplary Leadership Practices	r	R Square
Modeling the way	.535***	.286
Inspiring a shared vision	.533***	.284
Challenging the process	.529***	.279
Encouraging the heart	.491***	.241
Enabling others to act	.471***	.221

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

Research question 3: Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the overall exemplary leadership practices scores?

Utilizing stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.), relationship management was found to be the most predictive of the overall LPI score ($R = .640$; $p < .001$) (see Table 8). When self-management was added to relationship management, the predictive power increased slightly from 40.9% to 44.7% ($R = .669$; $p < .001$).

Table 8

Stepwise Regression for Exemplary Leadership Practices and Overall LPI Score (N= 62)

Predictors	<i>R</i>	<i>R</i> Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Relationship management	.640***	.409	20.454
Relationship management, self-management	.669***	.447	19.951

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

Research question 4: Which emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors were most predictive of the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart)?

Once again, stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) was used to analyze the data. Relationship management was the significant predictor for inspiring a shared vision ($R = .548$; $p < .001$) (see Table 9). The coefficient of determination, R^2 (Cohen &

Swerdlik, 1999) was .301 meaning 30% of the variance in the leadership behavior entitled inspiring a shared vision was accounted for by relationship management.

Table 9

Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Inspiring a Shared Vision (N = 62)

Predictor	R	R Square	Estimate	Std. Error of the
Relationship management	.548***	.301	7.737	

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

The significant predictor for encouraging the heart was also relationship management ($R = .556; p < .001$) (see Table 10). The variance accounted for in encouraging the heart by relationship management was 31%.

Table 10

Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Encouraging the Heart (N = 62)

Predictor	R	R Square	Estimate	Std. Error of the
Relationship management	.556***	.310	7.019	

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

There were two statistically significant predictors for modeling the way, enabling others to act, and challenging the process. Self-management was the best predictor of the exemplary leadership behavior modeling the way when looked at alone ($R = .508; p < .001$) (see Table 11); however, when social awareness was added to the model, the significance increased ($R = .576; p < .001$). The coefficient of determination, R^2 (Cohen

& Swerdlik, 1999), increased from .258 to .332 meaning 25.8% of the variance could be explained by chance in the first model compared with 33.2% in the second model.

Table 11

Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Modeling the Way (N = 62)

Predictors	R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Self-management	.508***	.258	4.695
Self-management, social awareness	.576***	.332	4.495

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

When examining the exemplary leadership practices behavior entitled enabling others to act, self-management was the strongest predictor ($R = .425$; $p < .001$). Social awareness was added to self-management to create model 2 ($R = .489$; $p < .001$) and increased the coefficient of determination from .180 in model 1 to .239 in model 2 (see Table 12).

Table 12

Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Enabling Others to Act (N = 62)

Predictors	R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Self-management	.425***	.180	3.613
Self-management, social awareness	.489***	.239	3.511

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

Lastly, self-management was the best predictor of the behavior challenging the process ($R = .537$; $p < .001$). Model 2 was created by adding relationship management ($R = .602$; $p < .001$) and thus increasing the predictive power from .288 to .363 (see Table 13).

Table 13

Stepwise Regression for Emotional Competence Clusters and Challenging the Process (N = 62)

Predictors	R	R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
Self-management	.537***	.288	5.377
Self-management, relationship management	.602***	.363	5.130

Note. Significance codes: ***0.001; **0.01; *0.05; alpha = .05.

Statement of the Research Hypotheses

The four research hypotheses testing emotional competence and leadership effectiveness of hall directors were analyzed using Pearson correlation coefficients (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999) and stepwise regression (*Stepwise Regression*, n.d.). Results of the tests were reviewed by the researcher.

Hypothesis 1: Higher overall emotional competence scores of hall directors predicted higher overall exemplary leadership practices scores.

The results of the data analyses indicated hypothesis one was supported. Correlation of the overall ECI scores with the overall LPI scores revealed a significant relationship existed ($r = .648$; $p < .001$) (see Table 6).

Hypothesis 2: Higher overall emotional competence scores of hall directors predicted higher exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

Pearson correlation data indicated hypothesis two was also supported. A significant relationship was found between all exemplary leadership practices (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) and the overall ECI score. The relationship was stronger for modeling the way ($r = .535; p < .001$), inspiring a shared vision ($r = .533; p < .001$), and challenging the process ($r = .529; p < .001$). However, the results for encouraging the heart ($r = .491; p < .001$) and enabling others to act ($r = .471; p < .001$) were also statistically significant (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 3: Higher emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors predicted higher overall exemplary leadership practices scores.

Data results obtained through stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) indicated hypothesis three was supported. The competency cluster of relationship management was a significant predictor of the overall LPI score ($R = .640; R \text{ Square} = .409$). When self-management was added to relationship management, the significance was increased ($R = .669; R \text{ Square} = .447$) (see Table 8).

Hypothesis 4: Higher emotional competence cluster scores (self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management) of hall directors predicted higher exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart).

The fourth hypothesis was supported after examining stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) data results. Relationship management was a strong predictor of the behaviors entitled inspiring a shared vision ($R = .548$; R Square = .301) (see Table 9) and encouraging the heart ($R = .556$; R Square = .310) (see Table 10). Self-management was a significant predictor of the other three behaviors (a) modeling the way ($R = .508$; R Square = .258) (see Table 11), (b) enabling others to act ($R = .425$; R Square = .180) (see Table 12), and (c) challenging the process ($R = .537$; R Square = .288) (see Table 13). The significance of the relationship was increased for each of the behaviors when another competency cluster was added. Social awareness was added to self-management to increase the results for modeling the way ($R = .576$; R Square = .332) (see Table 11). The significant results for enabling others to act ($R = .489$; R Square = .239) (see Table 12) was increased when social awareness was combined with self-management. Finally, the combination of self-management and relationship management produced increased significant results for challenging the process ($R = .602$; R Square = .363) (see Table 13).

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the emotional competence of hall directors and the exemplary leadership practices exhibited by the hall directors. The overall emotional competence scores (overall ECI score) and the four emotional competency cluster scores (self-management, social awareness, self-awareness, and relationship management) were compared with the overall leadership practices scores (overall LPI score) and the five exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the

process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) of the hall directors.

The data was first analyzed using the Pearson product moment correlation (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999). In this process, the overall ECI scores were compared to the overall LPI scores. Analysis revealed a statistically significant relationship existed. Further analysis indicated that all five exemplary leadership practices (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart) could be predicted by the overall ECI scores. While all five practices were statistically significant, the practices of modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and challenging the process could be predicted more than enabling others to act and encouraging the heart.

A second analyzing process utilized stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) to compare the emotional competency cluster scores with the overall LPI scores, and to compare the emotional competency cluster scores (self-management, social awareness, self-awareness, and relationship management) with the exemplary leadership practices scores (challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart). Results revealed that relationship management and self-management were most predictive of the overall LPI scores. When comparing the competency cluster scores and the exemplary leadership practices scores, relationship management was the best predictor of inspiring a shared vision and encouraging the heart.

Analysis on the leadership practice modeling the way revealed two models were significant predictors of this practice. Self-management was the best predictor when

examined alone, but when social awareness was added to the model, it was more predictive of modeling the way behavior. In regard to the leadership practice behavior enabling others to act, self-management was the best predictor of this behavior. When social awareness was added to create a new model, this combination was the better predictor of the behavior. Finally, self-management was also the best single predictor of the leadership practice behavior challenging the process. However, the addition of relationship management increased the predictive power.

Statistically analyses of the data and findings of the study were outlined in this chapter. Conclusions reached by analyzing the findings as well as implications for future practice and further study will be included in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

Introduction

The intent of this study was to examine the relationship between the emotional competence of hall directors and the leadership practices exhibited by the hall directors. The descriptive design allowed for the characteristics of the hall directors to be utilized when looking for a potential association between the concepts of emotional competence and leadership practices (Sherry, Archer, & Van Horn, 2003).

A random sample of 300 hall directors was selected from 378 hall directors in the Upper Midwest Region of the Association of College and University Housing Officers (UMR-ACUHO). Hall directors who chose to participate completed the self-assessment portion of the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI). The hall directors also completed a demographic questionnaire, and the data was used for descriptive statistics only.

The data collected was analyzed through use of the Pearson product-moment correlation (Cohen & Swerdlik, 1999) and stepwise regression (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) to determine if a relationship existed between emotional competence and leadership practices. Findings demonstrated a significant relationship between the overall ECI scores and the overall LPI scores. In addition, there were significant relationships between the overall ECI scores and the five exemplary leadership practices scores when the overall ECI score was used to predict leadership practices.

Stepwise regression analysis (*Stepwise regression*, n.d.) revealed the competency cluster relationship management was the most predictive of the overall LPI score. The

predictive power was increased when the cluster entitled self-management was added to relationship management. When comparing the competency cluster score with the exemplary leadership practices scores, relationship management was the most significant predictor for inspiring a shared vision and encouraging the heart. Relationship management was also combined with self-management to be the strongest predictor for challenging the process. The leadership practice modeling the way was best predicted by combining self-management and social awareness. Self-management and social awareness were combined to be the best predictors of behavior labeled enabling others to act. Statistically significant results were obtained for all results outlined above.

Following this introduction to the discussion chapter of the study is a detailed review of the conclusions reached when examining the concepts introduced in Chapter Two and the research findings. Implications for future practice and recommendations for further research will follow.

Conclusions

Results from other research studies demonstrated a correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2001; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; MacGregor & Watson, 2005; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2000; Sivanathan & Fekken, 2002). The results of this study added to the results of previous studies with the significant relationship found between the overall LPI scores and the overall ECI scores. In addition, results from this study showed the overall ECI score was a significant predictor of all five exemplary leadership practices scores. There was a slight variation in the scores with the overall ECI score being a stronger predictor of

modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and challenging the process, but the results were significant for all five which also added to the body of research on this subject.

Data gathered by other researchers (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000) led them to conclude emotional intelligence was a pre-requisite for successful leadership.

Komives, Lucas, and McMahon (1998) wrote a definition of leadership used as the foundation for this study: “a relationship process of people together attempting to accomplish change or make a difference to benefit the common good” (p. 21). The results of this study support the definition. While the outcome of the analyses was significant in regard to each research question, relationship management stood out more often than the others. Relationship management was the strongest predictor of the exemplary leadership practices inspiring a shared vision and encouraging the heart. Bass and Avolio (1994) wrote transformational leaders generated a vision or mission that members of a team could support. The data supported this characteristic of a transformational leader.

Self-management was a strong predictor when paired with another competency cluster four different times. Relationship management and self-management were noted as the strongest predictors of the overall LPI scores and the exemplary leadership practices challenging the process. Social awareness was paired with self-management to predict the leadership practices enabling others to act and modeling the way.

In Chapter Two, it was noted that Gardner (1983) developed a theory of multiple intelligences. One of the intelligences was labeled personal intelligence and had two categories called intrapersonal and interpersonal. “*Access to one’s own feeling life*” (p. 239) described intrapersonal intelligence whereas interpersonal intelligence was defined as “*the ability to notice and make distinctions among other individuals*” (p. 239).

Also noted in Chapter Two was notation of the similarities between Gardner's (1983) personal intelligences and the emotional competence headings created by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002). Personal competence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002), which included the competency clusters of self-awareness and self-management, was similar to intrapersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). Relationship management and social awareness were the competency cluster groups under social competence (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002), and had a similar description to that of interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983).

It does not matter if one uses Gardner's (1983) theory or Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee's (2002) descriptions, connections to the other can be made. The importance of emotional intelligence, whether it is a better understanding of one's own emotions or understanding relationship management with others, has a significant relationship with leadership behavior. The results of this study could be extrapolated to support the idea that emotional intelligence has a positive effect on leadership behavior. These results also add to the body of research already written on the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership (Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Condren, 2002; Gardner & Stough, 2001; MacGregor & Watson, 2005; Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2000; and Sivanathan & Fekken, 2001). The researchers in these empirical studies chose a variety of ways to study the connection between leadership and emotional intelligence, but a relationship was found in each circumstance.

Limitations Based on Study

The study focused on hall directors in the upper Midwest region of the United States which would limit extrapolating the results to other hall directors in the country.

Participants were limited to hall directors; therefore, the results could not be applied to leaders in other student affairs positions.

The response rate was 21% which may limit the strength of the results. Lastly, the data was gathered using self-reporting measures, and the hall directors selected the people who were randomly selected as raters. These factors may have affected the results.

Implications for Future Practice

Research noted in Chapter Two outlined the belief that emotional intelligence can be learned (Cooper, 1997; Goleman, 1998c; Lozar Glenn, 2002; and Maulding, 2002). If that is the case, emotional competence skills could be taught in graduate preparatory programs and through on-the-job training and development.

In an article written in 2002, Roper noted that “success as student affairs professionals is more closely tied to our ability to construct and manage essential relationships during our career than any other activity” (p. 11). Roper wrote that young professionals (hall directors are included in this group) often fail to grasp the importance of this behavior. The importance of relationships and human relation skills was echoed by others (Burhard, Cole, Ott, & Stoflet, 2005; Herdlein, 2004; Lovell & Kosten, 2000; Newton & Richardson, 1976; Ostroth, 1981). One can see these skills have been important over the past thirty years. The challenge may be determining what should be kept in a student personnel curriculum and what is eliminated. Palmer (1995) noted “I do not believe we can *add* much more to CSP [student personnel] curriculum without *subtracting* something from it...given that there are only 24 hours in a day, most [CSP students] are already functioning at their maximum limits” (p. 7). The key may be restructuring the curriculum to be more deliberate in selecting projects that fit within the

current list of courses as opposed to eliminating something else. The results of this study support inclusion of emotional intelligence training and its impact on leadership.

In addition to graduate preparation, hall directors may be able to increase their skills as they work in their jobs. “I believe that the most successful residence life professionals recognize that neither they nor CSP graduates are finished products and, consequently, have a commitment to lifelong learning and ongoing professional development for themselves” (Palmer, 1995, p. 7). Supervisors of hall directors could create training sessions directed at further development of emotional intelligence and assist them with enhancement of emotional competencies as they handle the daily responsibilities of their position.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study provided results that lead the researcher to identify a number of recommendations for further study. The data in this particular research study focused on the self-assessment data provided by the hall directors. Both instruments, the *Emotional Competence Inventory, University Edition* (ECI-U) and the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) are designed to utilize a 360 degree assessment of the participant’s skills or behavior. Exercising the option of 360 degree feedback could add more significance to the data gathered in this study or contradict it when data collected from raters is analyzed.

A second option would be an analysis of the relationship between the age and experience level of the hall directors, and their scores on the ECI-U and the LPI. If significant results are discovered, then a developmental study of hall director competencies and behaviors could be conducted. Completion of the assessment tools at various points in career of hall directors (e.g., at the beginning of graduate school, after

graduation, after the first year in the hall director position, etc.) may shed some light on the development of emotional competence skills.

Finally, studies could be conducted with graduates of specific graduate programs or hall directors working within specific residence life departments. Results may demonstrate which programs are most effective at preparing students for the hall director position or which departments are providing hall directors with appropriate professional development opportunities once they have begun working in their first professional position.

The results of this study were significant and lend support to the importance of emotional intelligence in the practice of leadership behaviors. However, the level of significance was based on self-report scores only. The true test of the relationship between emotional competence and leadership practices of hall directors will be analysis of data from people who rate the behaviors of the hall directors. A 360 degree analysis of data from raters who work with, work for, and supervise hall directors would provide a more accurate representation of a relationship if one continues to exist. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) wrote that “great leadership works through the emotions” (p. 3). A research study similar to the one described above would assist in proving or disproving the statement written by Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002).

APPENDIX A

Dear participant:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Missouri-Columbia and am currently writing a dissertation entitled, “The Relationship Between the Emotional Competence and the Leadership Effectiveness of Hall Directors.” As part of my research study, I am asking hall directors in the UMR-ACUHO region to participate. If you choose to be a part of the study, you will be able to see your emotional competence (also known as emotional intelligence) results as demonstrated by your answers and the observations of six other people.

One instrument, the *Emotional Competence Inventory – University Edition* (ECI-U), is completed on line, and the other, the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI), is included with this letter. You will need approximately 30 minutes to complete the self-assessment portion of both documents and the demographic questionnaire. You will select 10-12 people who work with you who could complete the rater form of these instruments. Please list the names, addresses, and e-mail addresses of these people on the form titled “Names and Addresses Form.” The raters will need approximately 30 minutes to complete the surveys. The results from the instruments will be compared to determine if a relationship exists between emotional competence and leadership effectiveness. If a relationship does exist, the findings can be used in graduate preparatory programs and in training sessions for hall directors.

I do hope you will choose to be a part of this study. A very limited amount of information is available on the leadership effectiveness of hall directors and nothing with regard to their emotional competence. The benefit to you, therefore, is the opportunity to see how others view your emotional competence. Confidentiality will be maintained throughout the study, and no hall director will be identified when the results are reported. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time without any penalty. Your signature on the enclosed informed consent form indicates your consent to participate in this study. Further instructions are on the enclosed sheet.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Cindy MacGregor, at (417) 836-6046 or CMacGregor@MissouriState.edu. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Denise M. Baumann
Doctoral Candidate
University of Missouri-Columbia

APPENDIX B

If you choose to participate, please select 10-12 people who work with you who could rate your performance. Please select people who have worked with you the longest as they will have had many opportunities to observe your behavior and reactions. Six people will be randomly selected from the 10-12 names to receive a letter from me asking them to participate in this research project. If these people choose to participate, they will complete rater versions of the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI) and the on-line form of the *Emotional Competence Inventory – University Edition* (ECI-U)

(1) When you have completed the demographic questionnaire, the LPI, the *Names and Addresses Form*, and signed the consent form, place them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. Please mail them back to me by September 28, 2006.

(2) In about a week, you will receive an e-mail message from Hay Resources Direct regarding the ECI-U. The message will contain your username, password, and instructions on how to complete the survey. Phone numbers will also be included if you have questions about the survey.

(3) Complete the self-assessment. You will be able to view summary results of your emotional competence after a minimum of three people have completed the rater portion of the ECI-U.

Again, thank you very much for your participation. I hope the feedback will be helpful to you. Please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu if you have questions.

APPENDIX C

1. What is your gender?

_____ Female

_____ Male

2. How old are you? _____

3. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

_____ Bachelor's degree

_____ Post-Bachelor's coursework

_____ Master's degree

4. How many years of experience do you have working as a hall director?

_____ Less than one year

_____ One year

_____ Two years

_____ Three years

_____ Four years

_____ Five years

_____ More than five years

APPENDIX D

Name	Address	E-mail Address
1.		
2.		
3.		
4.		
5.		
6.		
7.		
8.		
9.		
10.		
11.		
12.		

APPENDIX E

If you choose to participate, please sign the enclosed consent form and complete the observer form of the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI).

(1) When you have completed the LPI, place it and the signed consent form in the self-addressed, stamped envelope. Please mail them back to me by Tuesday, October 17, 2006.

(2) Within the week, you will receive an e-mail message from Hay Resources Direct regarding the ECI-U. The message will contain your username, password, and instructions on how to complete the survey. Phone numbers will also be included if you have questions about the survey.

(3) Complete the on-line assessment (ECI-U). Please complete this by Tuesday, October 17, 2006.

Again, thank you very much for your participation. I believe your responses will be helpful in preparing people for jobs as residence hall directors. Please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu if you have questions.

APPENDIX F

Dear Rater:

I am a doctoral student at the University of Missouri-Columbia and am currently writing a dissertation entitled, “The Relationship Between the Emotional Competence and the Leadership Effectiveness of Hall Directors.” As part of my research study, I am asking hall directors in the UMR-ACUHO region to participate. Each hall director selected 10-12 people who work with them who could complete the rater portion of two inventories to provide feedback on the hall director’s emotional competence and leadership practices. Six people were randomly selected from the 10-12 names to receive this letter.

One instrument, the *Emotional Competence Inventory – University Edition* (ECI-U), is completed on line, and the other, the *Leadership Practices Inventory* (LPI), is included with this letter. You will need approximately 30 minutes to complete the surveys. In a few days, you will receive an e-mail message from Hay Resources Direct regarding the ECI-U. The message will contain your username, password, and instructions on how to complete the survey. Phone numbers will also be included if you have questions about the survey. Kerry Wallaert will not see your individual responses. The results from the instruments will be compared to determine if a relationship exists between emotional competence and leadership effectiveness. If a relationship does exist, the findings can be used in graduate preparatory programs and in training sessions for hall directors.

I do hope you will choose to be a part of this study. A very limited amount of information is available on the leadership effectiveness of hall directors and nothing with regard to their emotional competence. The benefit to the hall director, therefore, is the opportunity to see how others view his/her emotional competence. Confidentiality will be maintained throughout the study, and no hall director or rater will be identified when the results are reported. Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time without any penalty. Your signature on the enclosed informed consent form indicates your consent to participate in this study. When you have completed the survey and signed the consent form, place them in the self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail it back to me.

If you have any questions about this research project, please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu. You may also contact my faculty advisor, Dr. Cindy MacGregor, at (417) 836-6046 or CMacGregor@MissouriState.edu. Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Denise M. Baumann
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX G

Dear rater name:

Recently I sent a letter requesting your participation in a doctoral research study. Directions to complete the paper instrument were enclosed with the letter and you received an e-mail message regarding the *ECI-U*. If you have already completed the surveys and sent the *LPI* back to me – thank you very much for your assistance and participation. If you have not, could you please complete them and get the *LPI* in the mail by October 9? If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or by responding to this e-mail message.

Thank you,

Denise Baumann

Dear [hall director or rater name]:

Just a reminder that a week ago I sent a letter requesting your participation in a doctoral research study. Directions to complete the on-line and paper instruments were enclosed with the letter. If you have already completed the surveys (the *ECI-U* on line and the *LPI* in paper format) and sent the *LPI* back to me – thank you very much for your assistance and participation. If you have not, could you please complete them and get the *LPI* in the mail by October 9? If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (417) 890-7342 or by responding to this e-mail message.

Thank you,

Denise Baumann

APPENDIX H

Dear research participant:

Thank you for considering participation in the study “The Relationship Between the Emotional Competence and the Leadership Effectiveness of Hall Directors.” This study is part of my doctoral studies in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri-Columbia.

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a relationship between the emotional competencies of hall directors and the leadership behaviors they practice. This information will be useful to hall directors in the practice of their leadership with staff and students. It will also help faculty in graduate programs and supervisors in residence life as they prepare and train hall directors for their positions.

Before you make a final decision about participation, please read the following about how your input will be used and how your rights as a participant will be protected:

- Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may stop participating at any point without penalty.
- You need not answer all of the questions.
- Your employment status will not be affected.
- Your answers will be kept confidential. Results will be presented to others in summary form only, without names or other identifying information.
- Your participation will take approximately fifty minutes. During this time you will answer questions about how you manage your emotions and the types of leadership behaviors you practice. In addition, you will select 10-12 other people to rate your behaviors. Six people will be randomly selected to complete the survey instruments.

This project follows ethical guidelines in the use of human subjects and adequately safeguards the subject’s privacy, welfare, civil liberties, and rights. The project is being supervised by Dr. Cindy MacGregor, Associate Professor, Educational Administration, Missouri State University (417-836-6046). If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please feel free to contact the University of Missouri-Columbia Campus IRB, 483 McReynolds Hall, Columbia, MO 65211, 573-882-9585, umcresearchcibr@missouri.edu.

If at this point you are still interested in participating and assisting with this important research project please fill out the consent form below. Keep the top of this letter for future reference. You can contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu if you have questions or concerns about your participation. Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Denise M. Baumann, Doctoral Candidate
University of Missouri-Columbia

(Please detach and return in self-addressed, stamped envelope.)

I, _____, agree to participate in the study of determining if a relationship exists between the emotional competence of hall directors and their leadership behaviors, conducted by Denise Baumann. I understand that:

- My answers will be used for educational research.
- My participation is voluntary.
- I may stop participation at any time without penalty.
- I need not answer all of the questions.
- My answers and identity will be kept confidential.

I have read the information above and any questions I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realizing that I may withdraw without prejudice at any time.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

APPENDIX I

Dear research participant:

Thank you for considering participation in the study “The Relationship Between the Emotional Competence and the Leadership Effectiveness of Hall Directors.” This study is part of my doctoral studies in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Missouri-Columbia.

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a relationship between the emotional competencies of hall directors and the leadership behaviors they practice. This information will be useful to hall directors in the practice of their leadership with staff and students. It will also help faculty in graduate programs and supervisors in residence life as they prepare and train hall directors for their positions.

Hall directors selected 10-12 people with whom they work to serve as raters. Five people, including you, were randomly selected to complete the surveys on the hall director. Each of you will complete a survey on-line and one in paper format. Summary results of the on-line survey tool will be provided to the hall director, he/she will not be able to see your individual results. The hall director has no idea who was randomly selected to complete the surveys.

Before you make a final decision about participation, please read the following about how your input will be used and how your rights as a participant will be protected:

- Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may stop participating at any point without penalty.
- You need not answer all of the questions.
- Your answers will be kept confidential. Results will be presented to others in summary form only, without names or other identifying information.
- Your participation will take approximately thirty minutes. During this time you will answer questions about how the hall director manages his/her emotions and the types of leadership behaviors practiced by the hall director.

This project follows ethical guidelines in the use of human subjects and adequately safeguards the subject’s privacy, welfare, civil liberties, and rights. The project is being supervised by Dr. Cindy MacGregor, Associate Professor, Educational Administration, Missouri State University (417-836-6046). If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, please feel free to contact the University of Missouri-Columbia Campus IRB, 483 McReynolds Hall, Columbia, MO 65211, 573-882-9585, www.umcresearchcibr@missouri.edu.

If at this point you are still interested in participating and assisting with this important research project please fill out the consent form below. Keep the top of this letter for future reference. You can contact me at (417) 890-7342 or DeniseBaumann@MissouriState.edu if you have questions or concerns about your participation. Thank you very much for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Denise M. Baumann, Doctoral Candidate
University of Missouri-Columbia

(Please detach and return in self-addressed and stamped envelope)

I, _____, agree to participate in the study of determining if a relationship exists between the emotional competence of hall directors and their leadership behaviors, conducted by Denise Baumann. I understand that:

- My answers will be used for educational research.
- My participation is voluntary.
- I may stop participation at any time without penalty.
- I need not answer all of the questions.
- My answers and identity will be kept confidential.

I have read the information above and any questions I asked have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to participate in this activity, realizing that I may withdraw without prejudice at any time.

Signed: _____ Date: _____

REFERENCE LIST

- Adventures in neuroanatomy: Parts of the nervous system.* (n.d.). Retrieved December 28, 2004, from <http://www.faculty.washington.edu/chudler/nsdivide.html>
- Assessment tools.* (n.d.). Retrieved June 24, 2004, from http://ei.haygroup.com/products_and_services/content_assessment_tools.html
- Balnaves, M., & Caputi, P. (2001). *Introduction to quantitative research methods.* London: Sage Publications.
- Barling, J., Slater, F., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 21*(3), 157-161.
- Bases of social power – French Raven.* (2005). Retrieved November 21, 2005, from http://www.valuebasedmanagement.net/methods_french_raven_bases_social_power.html
- Bass, B. M. (1960). *Leadership, psychological, and organizational behavior.* Westport, CN: Greenwood Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations.* New York: The Free Press.
- Bass B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Introduction. In B. M. Bass and B. J. Avolio (Eds.), *Improving organizational effectiveness* (pp. 1-9). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders.* New York: Harper & Row.
- Bensimon, E. M., Neumann, N., & Birnbaum, R. (1989). *Making sense of administrative leadership: The “L” word in higher education.* (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1). Washington, D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, The George Washington University.
- Blimling, G. S. (1993). New challenges and goals for residential life programs. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student Housing and Residential Life* (pp. 1-20). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1997). *Reframing organizations.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.) *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 343-362). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- Burkard, A., Cole, D. C., Ott, M., & Stoflet, T. (2005). Entry-level competencies of new student affairs professionals: A delphi study. *NASPA Journal*, 42(3), 283-309.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Cherniss, C. (1998). Social and emotional learning for leaders. *Educational Leadership*, 35(7), 26-28.
- Clement, L. M., & Rickard, S. T. (1992). *Effective leadership in student services*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Cohen, R. J., & Swerdlik, M. E. (1999). *Psychological testing and assessment*. Mountain View, CA: Mayfield Publishing Company.
- Coleman, D. D., & Johnson, J. E. (1990). The new professional. In D. D. Coleman & J. E. Johnson (Eds.), *The new professional: A resource guide for new student affairs professionals and their supervisors* (1st ed., pp. 1-16). Washington, D.C.: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, Inc.
- Comparison of different definitions and tests of "Emotional Intelligence."* (n.d). Retrieved June 20, 2004, from <http://www.emotionaliq.com/EI-Table.htm>
- Condren, T. D. (2002). *The relationship between principals' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cooper, R. K. (1997). Applying emotional intelligence in the workplace. *Training & Development*, 51(12), 31-38.
- Currie, L. (2004, April). Emotional intelligence: More than just people skills. *RA Manager*, 9, 1 & 7.
- Dalton, J. C. (2002). The art and practical wisdom of student affairs leadership. In J. C. Dalton & M. McClinton (Eds.), *The art and practical wisdom of student affairs leadership*, 98(Summer), (pp. 3-9). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Fife, J. D. (1989). Foreward. In E. M. Bensimon, A. Neumann, & R. Birnbaum, *Making sense of administrative leadership: The 'L' word in higher education*. (p. xv) ASHE-ERIC Higher education Report No. 1. Washington D.C.: School of Education and Human Development, The George Washington University.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind*. New York: Basic Books.

- Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2001). Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 23(2), 68-78.
- George, J. M. (1995). Leader positive mood and group performance: The case of customer service. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 25(9), 778-794.
- George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations*, 53(8), 1027-1055.
- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698-709.
- Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 827-844.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998a, Fall). The emotional intelligence of leaders. *Leader to Leader*, 20-26.
- Goleman, D. (1998b). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 76(6), 93-102.
- Goleman, D. (1998c). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Gowing, M. K. (2001). Measurement of individual emotional competence. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 83-131). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 219-247.
- Herdlein, R. J., III. (2004). Survey of chief student affairs officers regarding relevance of graduate preparation of new professionals. *NASPA Journal*, 42(1), p. 51-70.
- House, R. J. (1995). Leadership in the twenty-first century. In A. Howard (Ed.), *The changing nature of work* (pp. 411-450). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

- Jaeger, R. M. (1984). *Sampling in education and the social sciences*. New York: Longman.
- Kearney, P. A. (1993). Professional staffing. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student Housing and Residential Life* (pp. 269-291). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- King, D. H. (1999). *Measurement of differences in emotional intelligence of preservice educational leadership students and practicing administrators as measured by the Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, East Carolina University.
- Klenke, K. (1996). *Women and leadership*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Komives, S. R. (1991, March). Gender differences in the relationship of hall directors' transformational and transactional leadership and achieving styles. *Journal of College Student Development*, 32, 155-165.
- Komives, S. R., Lucas, N., & McMahon, T. R. (1998). *Exploring leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2001a). *Leadership practices inventory*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2001b). *Leadership practices inventory (LPI) observer*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2002a). *The leadership challenge*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2002b). *The Leadership Practices Inventory: Theory and evidence behind the five practices of exemplary leaders*. Retrieved November 15, 2005, from <http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/research/WileyCDA/Section/id-131362.html>
- Locke, E. A., & Associates. (1999). *The essence of leadership*. Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Lovell, C. D., & Kosten, L. A. (2000). Skills, knowledge, and personal traits necessary for success as a student affairs administrator: A meta-analysis of thirty years of research. *NASPA Journal*, 37(4), 553-572.
- Lozar Glenn, J. M. (2002). Rethinking leadership: An intersection of head and heart. *Business Education Forum*, 57(1), 8-13.

- MacGregor, C. J., & Watson, R. L. (2005). *Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence*. Paper presented at the Hawaii International Conference on Education, Honolulu, HI.
- Mandell, B., & Pherwani, S. (2003). Relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership style: A gender comparison. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 17*(3), 387-404.
- Maulding, W. S. (2002, October). *Emotional intelligence and successful leadership*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration, Kansas City, KS.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality, 9*(3), 185-211.
- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional Development and Emotional Intelligence* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- McDade, S. A. (1989). Leadership development: A key to the new leadership role of student affairs professionals. *NASPA Journal, 27*(1), 33-41.
- McDowelle J. O., & Bell, E. D. (1997, August). *Emotional intelligence and educational leadership at East Carolina University*. Paper presented at the 51st annual conference of the National Council for Professors of Educational Administration, Vail, CO.
- Megerian, L. E., & Sosik, J. J. (1996). An affair of the heart: Emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. *The Journal of Leadership Studies, 3*(3), 31-48.
- Monsen, E. R., & Cheney, C. L. (2003). Descriptive research designs. In E. R. Monsen (Ed.) *Research successful approaches* (2nd ed.). (pp. 3-14). American Dietetic Association.
- Newton, F. B., & Richardson, R. L. (1976). Expected entry-level competencies of student personnel workers. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 17*(5), 426-430.
- Ostroth, D. D. (1981). Competencies for entry-level professionals: What do employers look for when hiring new staff? *Journal of College Student Personnel, 22*(1), 5-11.
- Palmer, C. J. (1995). Graduate preparation of residence hall directors: The addition and subtraction dilemma. *Journal of College and University Student Housing, 25*(2), 5-8.

- Palmer, B., Walls, M., Burgess, Z., & Stough, C. (2000). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 22(1), 5-10.
- Peterson, M. W., & Mets, L. A. (1987). *Key resources on higher education governance, management, and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Pfeffer, J. (1999). The real keys to high performance. In F. Hesselbein & F. M. Cohen (Eds.), *Leader to leader* (pp. 275-286). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Psychometric properties of the Leadership Practices Inventory*. (2000). Retrieved November 14, 2005, from <http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/research/WileyCDA/Section/id-131362.html>
- Resources*. (n.d.). Retrieved June 24, 2004, from http://ei.haygroup.com/resources/content_inde.html
- Renschler, A. (1998). Forward. In D. Ryback, *Putting emotional intelligence to work* (pp. xvii-xviii). Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Roper, L. (2002). Relationships: The critical ties that bind professionals. *New Directions for Student Services*, 98, 11-26.
- Ryback, D. (1998). *Putting emotional intelligence to work*. Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Sala, F. (2002). *Emotional competence inventory (ECI) technical manual*. Boston: Hay/McBer.
- Salopek, J. J. (1998). Train your brain. *Training & Development*, 52(10), 26-33.
- Salovey P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Sandeen, A. (1993). Developing effective campus and community relationships. In M. J. Barr, & Associates, *The Handbook of Student Affairs Administration* (pp. 300-312). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sandeen, A. (2001). The senior student affairs officer in higher education. In A. Sandeen, *Making a difference: Profiles of successful student affairs leaders* (pp. 1-15). Washington D.C.: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.
- Schein, E. H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.
- Schuh, J. H. (2002). Lessons from leaders. *NASPA Journal*, 39(3), 204-216.

- Sherry, B., Archer, S., & Van Horn, L. (2003). Descriptive epidemiologic research. In E. R. Monsen (Ed.) *Research successful approaches* (2nd ed.). (pp. 109-119). American Dietetic Association.
- Sivanathan, N., & Fekken, G. C., (2002). Emotional intelligence, moral reasoning and transformational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(4), 198-204.
- Stepwise regression*. (n.d.) Retrieved October 19, 2006, from <http://www.mathworks.com/access/helpdesk/help/toolbox/stats/bqtttd86-1/html>
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership*. New York: The Free Press.
- The LPI*. (n.d.). Retrieved November 5, 2005, from <http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/WileyCDA/Sectoin/id-13109.html>
- Thompson, G. (n.d.). *Emotional intelligence*. Retrieved June 24, 2004, from http://www.Renasissancelawyer.com/emotiaonal_intelligence.htm
- Thorndike, E. L. (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Magazine*, 140, 227-235.
- Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social intelligence. *The Psychological Bulletin*, 34(5), 275-285.
- Weisinger, H, (1998). *Emotional intelligence at work*. San Francisco, Jossey-Bass.
- Weymes, E. (2003). Relationships not leadership sustain successful organisations. *Journal of Change Management*, 3(4), 319-331.
- Wheelan, S. A., & Danganan, N. B. (2003). The relationship between the internal dynamics of student affairs leadership teams and campus leaders' perceptions of the effectiveness of student affairs divisions. *NASPA Journal*, 40(3), 93-112.
- Wiersma, W. (2000). *Research methods in education* (7th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Winston, R. B., & Anchors, S, (1993). Preface. In R. B. Winston, Jr., S. Anchors, & Associates, *Student Housing and Residential Life* (pp. xix-xxvii). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Woodard D. B. Jr., Love, P., & Komives, S. R., (2000a). The changing landscape of higher education. *New Directions for Student Services*, 92, 5-16.
- Woodard D. B. Jr., Love, P., & Komives, S. R., (2000b). Competencies and perspectives for the new millennium. *New Directions for Student Services*, 92, 93-107.

Woodard D. B. Jr., Love, P., & Komives, S. R., (2000c). Leadership. *New Directions for Student Services*, 92, 81-91.

York, R. O. (1998). *Conducting social work research*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Yukl, G. (2002). *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

VITA

Denise M. Baumann was born February 20, 1966, Hutchinson, Minnesota. She attended a private elementary school and graduated from the public high school in 1984. After this, she earned the following degrees: B.S. in Political Science with an emphasis in Public Administration from Minnesota State University, Mankato in Mankato, Minnesota (1988); M.S.Ed. in Counseling Psychology with an emphasis in Student Personnel Administration from James Madison University in Harrisonburg, Virginia (1991), Ed.D in Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis from the University of Missouri-Columbia (2006).

Denise began her career in higher education at the University of Northern Iowa where she worked as a hall coordinator. From there, she accepted a position as an area coordinator at the University of Nebraska – Kearney. In 1998, Denise moved to Springfield, Missouri, after accepting the position of Assistant Director of Education and Development at Southwest Missouri State University. Denise is currently the Associate Director of Residence Life and Services at Missouri State University.