1-1-2014

An Exploration Of Emotional Intelligence And Its Relationship To Higher Education Effective Leadership Practices Of Leaders In A Community College Environment

Vicki Golden
Wayne State University,

AN EXPLORATION OF EMOTIVIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO HIGHER EDUCATION EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF LEADERS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

by

VICKI A. GOLDEN

DESSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2015

INSTRUCTIONAL TECHNOLOGY

Advisor	Date

DEDICATION

The dissertation is dedicated to my family: mother, Barbara, aunt, Mother Page, brothers, Lonnie and Donald; my four girls, LaKisha, Ashley, Char-Vae, and Micah; and, my grandchildren, Dalonte, Kita, Jalen; and, Anayah. You all have been my source of valuable motivation to live my dreams. To my "Golden Girls" and Grand Sons, I look forward to seeing you all do great things because I've set the pace as your role model. God has allowed me to obtain my dreams! God will assist you to accomplish your dreams and aspirations as well.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First and foremost, it is to God be the glory that I obtained this wonderful accomplishment! I am so grateful that my faith was strong and it was one of the driving forces that allowed me to earn my education. Without a doubt, the support of numerous individuals from various walks of life made this dissertation possible.

To my mother, Barbara, thank you for all of your support and encouragement. You always did the very best that you could for me and I appreciate that from my heart. To my four girls, (Lakisha, Ashley, Char-vae, and Micah) and my grand children, (Dalonte, Kita, Jaylen, and Anayah), thank you for your unwavering love, support and understanding when I couldn't be at your functions, or events at times when you may have wanted me to be there. You all knew that I had to study and/or work. I missed a lot of those times, but my heart and spirit has been with you all always. When I was challenged by my health, you all pitched in to make things better for me. Also, thanks daughters and grandchildren for always telling me, that I am a "Great Mom" and "Grand Mother". Without your love and support, I would not have been able to walk this long journey to obtain my education. To my brother, Donald, thank you for your encouragement. I am very proud of you. I want you to know that you are successful and will continue to be even through your life has been challenging. Through it all, it has made you the wonderful person that you are today. To our extended family members, Nora and Mary, thanks for your many years of encouragement that you both gave me to continue my education as you both have always offered motivational words of wisdom about how it was going to happen and you both were absolutely correct.

Deep sincere appreciation and thanks to the members of my dissertation committee, Dr. Ingrid, Guerra-Lopez, Dr. Monica, Tracey, Dr. Timothy, Spannaus, and Dr. Judith, Gold. Thank you all for providing your support over the years as you all were very helpful and understanding. To my dissertation chair, Dr. Guerra-Lopez, I really appreciate your sincere advice that has helped me along the way. I am thankful for your willingness to extend yourself personally and professionally to advise me and serve as chair of my committee. Because of you, I've learned a great deal as I traveled this academic journey. To Dr. Timothy Spannaus, thanks for serving on my committee. It's easy to think about how your wisdom and sense of humor has helped me to learn and made me smile! I will never forget you allowing and welcoming me to be emotionally excited in your multi-media classes, especially, when my animations worked successfully.

To Dr. Monica Tracy you are an unique and wise scholar. I really appreciate you serving on my committee and expressing excitement to me about my endeavor to study the subject "Emotional Intelligence". Because you have experienced some of the same difficulties as I have in researching the subject of intelligence, you knew it was not going to be an easy road for me to travel. It was you who initiated efforts to study the subject of intelligence in our department. Your extensive examination of the subject of "Multiple Intelligence" was uniquely conducted and served as a motivating factor for me to complete my study.

To Dr. Gold, you are a scholar who has a down to earth attitude and is on task of getting the job done correctly. Thanks Dr. Gold for believing in me and for your

willingness to serve on committee. From the first day in your class many years ago, Dr. Gold you have extended me your friendship and gave me professional and personal advice that I will always remember. To Michelle, thanks for assisting me to stay abreast and meet my requirements. You have extended your friendship to me and I appreciate all that you have done for me over the years. Lastly, but not least, Dr. Moseley, thank you for listing the subject of emotional intelligence as one of the topics for me to explore in an assignment that you gave me many years ago. I was fortunate to be a graduate student in several of your classes. It was this scholarly investigation that helped me to develop my passion for studying the subject of "Emotional Intelligence". Thanks for all your advice that you have given me over the many years both professionally and personally. Your tutelage and friendship is greatly appreciated.

Specially, Pastor, Dr. Selma and Pastor, Jeffery, thank you both for your spiritual words and advice that kept me filled with the Word of God and focused on God's unchanging supportive hands. Jill, you are the best example of unconditional friendship as you have always supported me and pushed me to rise to the occasion. Our spiritual connection travels over the highways and byways. Thanks for being there for me. Hobbes will always be our special connection with those big beautiful eyes that are adorable. You are the ram in the brush to me that was God sent! Lee, thanks for always being yourself from day one when we first met. Lee are a gem and there is no other like you.

To Skipper, from the beginning when I met you, you didn't have a problem jumping right in to support me in this endeavor and I will always appreciate you for doing and giving of yourself. Skipper, don't ever stop giving to others as you enjoy that

so much! Also, please remember to take good care of yourself first. Sharon, our friendship is like no other and from day one many years ago, I felt your heart-felted friendship and it is priceless to me. Thanks for being my friend for many years.

Although, I may have not mention some of your names, I thank all of you for contributing your special gifts to make my travels easier whenever you could and for that I am grateful. May God bless everyone of you that has helped me along the way. I have arrived. Ultimately, without God, my life would be nothing. I will move forward and spread the good news about God's goodness and mercy!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Emotional intelligence involves the ability "to motivate oneself and persist in face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize; and to hope" (Goleman, 1995, p. 34). Emotional intelligence (EI) has been shown to directly relate to the enhancement of successful leadership attributes (Goleman, 2011b; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002a; Hughes, Patterson, & Terrell, 2005; Neale, Spencer-Arnell, & Wilson, 2009; Riggio, 2010). Goleman (1998b) found effective leaders possess high degrees of EI, and EI has been repeatedly shown to be an effective platform for leadership performance and development (Goleman, 1998a; Goleman et al., 2002a; Goleman, 2005; Kruml & Yockey, 2011; Lewis, 2000; Lykins, 2011; Wong & Law, 2002).

Although the positive effects of EI on leadership in business have been repeatedly demonstrated (Abraham, 2006; Lykins, 2011; Nadler, 2011); there is a lack of information on the impact of EI in educational leaders (Kalargyrou, Pescosolido, & Kalargiros, 2012; Kreitz, 2009; Scott, Bell, Coates, & Grebennikov, 2010; Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008). It is this author's contention that community college leadership should embrace EI because it affects individual, group, and organizational success (Goleman, 2001a; Goleman et al.,2002a; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002b; Hughes et al., 2009). Indeed, Goleman (2001a) stated, "we should be helping...people master these competencies as essential life skills" (p. 44). This clearly implies the importance of

increased EI in educational leaders (Abraham, 2006). Goleman (2001a) also speculated that forward thinking educators will "recognize EI's importance in higher education, not just for the students, not just for the students' employers, but for the vitality of an economy—and society—as a whole" (p.44); however, it is unclear whether education leaders recognize the importance of and implement EI skills (Kreitz, 2009; Landau, Meirovich, 2011; Vanderoort, 2006).

Emotional Intelligence in Education

Although there is some research on EI as it relates to student growth in primary education, there is a paucity of empirical research on the EI implementation in higher education (Kreitz, 2009;Landau, Meirovich, 2011; Vanderoort, 2006) . Durlak, Dymnicki, Taylor, Weissberg, and Schelliger (2011) used a meta-analysis to investigate the relationship between EI and student outcomes in elementary through high school grades and found increased levels of EI resulted in reductions of problematic schools issues such as emotional and behavioral issues. Their research involved the analysis of 213 school-based social and emotional learning programs with 270,034 students from the grades of kindergarten through high school.

Vandervoort (2006) advocated the importance of incorporating emotional intelligence into the domain of higher education, and noted the impact of EI classes may be similar to primary and secondary school outcomes; however there is no empirical evidence to support this claim (Landau & Meirovich, 2011). It is also currently unknown whether or not higher education leadership recognizes the importance of EI skill

inclusion in their curriculum (Jones & Abraham, 2009; Kiel et al., 2009; Landau & Meirovich, 2011; Manring, 2012).

Community Colleges

Community colleges are instrumental to the United States' ability to address its level of economic hardship (American, Association of Community Colleges, AACC, 2013b; Boggs, 2011; Duncan & Ball, 2011; Roach, 2009), are the most affordable and responsive segment in American higher education (Boggs, 2011; Kolesnikova 2009,). By 2020, President Barack Obama challenged community colleges across this nation to produce an increase of 5 million program completers (AACC, 2012a; AACC, 2012b; Boggs, 2011; Duncan & Ball, 2011). Community colleges may attribute their success to open access to higher education, quick adaptation to community issues, innovative and strategic student-centered learning, and having the means to serve a large diverse student population (Boggs, 2011; Fitzpatrick, 2009; Hicks & Jones, 2011; Holstein, 2011; Kolesnikova 2009; Roach, 2009).

Duncan and Ball (2011), Romano, Gallagher, and Shugart, (2010), Felix and Pope (2010), and Holstein (2011), noted community colleges are important players in the realm of American higher education, especially when it comes to training and retaining the workforce. Holstein (2011) suggested there may be a mismatch between educational offerings and workplace needs, however, as nearly 15 million people are seeking employment; yet companies claim they cannot find qualified individuals with appropriate skills to fill the jobs presently available and futuristically expect to create (Holstein, 2011). AACC (2012b) asserts that nearly two thirds of all jobs in America, by 2018, will

require workers to have a postsecondary degree and/or certificate and it claims that community colleges play a critical role in taking advantage of this opportunity. American community colleges are the primary engine that drives the overall economy economic growth (AACC, 2013a)

Spencer-Thomas (2009) suggested key educational players (i.e., leaders, faculty, advisers, etc.) should model EI both for their institutions and their students, however there is no research on whether or not EI behaviors are being modeled in higher education (Bay & McKeage, 2006; Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011) . Liptak (2005) analogously wrote that higher education leaders can advise students to use EI to help them be more successful in the workplace upon graduation (Abstract section, para.4). Subsequently, higher education leaders can help persuade college students to maintain mental resiliency while dealing with hardships in the midst of these economically demanding times via increased EI (Spencer-Thomas, 2009).

Although there has been a call to action for leadership in higher education to implement EI as a driver to improve institutional performance (Kruml & Yockey, 2011; Manring, 2012), the awareness level of leadership within higher education of the importance of EI in educational outcomes is unknown (Bay and McKeage, 2006; Landau & Meirovich, 2011; Manring, 2012; Peterson, 2012)). There is also a paucity of empirical evidence on the degree of EI reported by leadership in community college settings and the effects of such behaviors on subordinate interactions (Basham, Mathur, 2010;Yoder 200) .

Leadership Behaviors in Community College Settings

Although the relationship between EI and leadership efficacy has been established in business settings (Walter, Humphrey, & Cole, 2012), there is a lack of information on this relationship in higher education settings (Lillis, 2011; Kreitz, 2009). Furthermore, there is lack and need for this information as it is related to a community college setting (Ullman, 2010). Boggs (2011) and AACC (2005) maintained how community college leaders handle their emotions is important. To add, AACC (2005) asserted that effective community college leaders must competent in understanding the impact of their emotions as well as the emotions of others. Community college leaders are charged with organizing services for large numbers of students returning back to school, closing the learning gap for economically disadvantaged and minority students, and developing strategies to overcome barriers to graduation for transfer and graduate students (AACC, 2012b, Boggs, 2011). AACC (2011) also put forth a call to acquire proposals to help community college leaders increase their level of emotional intelligence through methods of professional development as it values the need for community colleges leaders to be emotional intelligent which implies there is a distinctive need for community college leaders to learn to be emotional intelligent. Clearly, there is a lack and need for community college leaders to address issues relative to emotional intelligence (AACC, 2005, 2011).

Some researchers indicated if community college leaders are unable to cope gracefully with stress and hardship, their subordinates could likely perceive them as being ineffective (Basham & Mahur, 2010; Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011; Yoder, 2004). Such

attitudes may ultimately impact student services and outcomes. Indeed, how leaders cope with their emotions (specifically in the educational context) is important (AACC, 2005), and such skills may leverage optimal leadership by providing emotionally intelligent leadership exemplars for their subordinates (Rajah et al. 2011; Ullman, 2010; Yoder, 2004). Goleman et al. (2002b) argued that effective leaders can set an emotional tone for their team and they can foster an emotional environment that could increase the team's ability to be productive as well as successful.

According to Goleman (2011a) "The leader acts as the group's emotional guide" (p. 69). In education, Basham and Mathur (2010) asserted that a leader may use EI to manage emotions and moods, and may also use *academic* intelligence to properly apply knowledge, intellect, and technical skills to produce a high level of performance. The relationship between emotional intelligence and academic intelligence is clearly an important one (Giesecke, 2008a). Although the educational knowledge base has increased exponentially via technological media and due to an increased interest in EI (Emo, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2006), there is a lack of information about the implementation of EI by leadership in higher education and how such behaviors are related to leadership efficacy. The current investigation adds to the literature on this topic.

Performance Technology

Brethower (2012) described that performance technology as a field of study that encompasses all matters and concerns related to improving performance in the workplace within an organization or institution as it deviates from focusing on any one specific technique, process and/or intervention used to improve performance. The study of

performance improvement employs a systematic approach to increasing organizational/institutional performance (Brethower, 2012). To add, Ferond (2006) contended that human performance technology's core existence centers on the creation of tools to measure the effectiveness of performance of human inputs as it centers on developing an alignment with interrelated elements of the process of human performance.

Pershing (2006) proclaimed that performance technology was developed from the notion that only the deployment instructional interventions to improve performance failed to bring about needed improvement that addressed the organizational and/or the individual needs to improve performance. Van Tiem, Moseley, Dessinger (2012) posited that the terms of performance improvement, human performance technology and performance technology are used interchangeably as they all represent the notion of performance improvement. Van Tiem et al. (2012) also contended that performance improvement is defined as elements relative to employing the art and science of focusing on the improvement of individuals, organizations, processes, and performances as well as the improvement of societal issues and concerns. This research study is directly related to the leadership component in the process of performance and improvement as it centers on examining community college leaders' ability to perform as effective emotional intelligent leaders who are aware their emotions and the impact of their emotional behaviors on the results of their leadership performance.

Problem Statement

While the benefits of EI on outcomes have been demonstrated in the areas of leadership in business (Goleman, 2005; Druskat, Sala, & Mount, 2006) and student

outcomes in K-12 grades (Durlak, Dymnicki, Taylor, Weissberg, & Schelliger, 2011); there is little research on the application of EI in higher education (Matthews, Emo, Roberts, & Zeidner, 2006; Murphy, 2006). There is currently a gap in the research literature on whether or not leadership in higher education are implementing EI skills, is aware of the importance of EI in education (Greenockle, 2010; Kreitz, 2009; Kruml & Yockey, 2011) and if there is a relationship between EI and leadership efficacy in a community college sample (Campbell, Syed, & Morris, 2010; Yoder, 2004). This information is vital (Kreitz, 2009) as community colleges are charged with educating community residents to prepare them for employment and other educational opportunities (AACC, 2012b); however, as Holstein (2011) suggested, employers are not able to find qualified candidates even though more than 15 million people are seeking employment. Moreover, some researchers noted community college leaders who are unable to cope gracefully with stress and hardship may impact their subordinates negatively (Rajah, Song, & Arvey, 2011), and such attitudes may ultimately impact student services and outcomes.

If community college leadership is unaware of the benefits of EI on leadership and educational outcomes (Lillis, 2011), and are not currently implementing EI behaviors, perhaps information on this relationship can be promulgated to this group (Greenockle, 2010). Such information may impact future curriculum development plans, foster successful interactions with subordinates, and lead to social change. The current proposed research will add to the literature on EI and leadership and will address three core issues to help fill the theoretical gap in emotional intelligence research: (a) the

degree of EI behaviors reported by leaders in the community college setting, (b) the level understanding of the importance of EI skills on leadership (Druskat, Sala, & Mount, 2006; Greenockle,2010), and educational outcomes (Goleman 2001a) and (c) the relationship between leader's EI attributes and leadership efficacy (Goleman et al., 2002b). In addition, if community college leadership is not effective as it could be, this is a problem that needs to be addressed, as the role of leadership is a vital component within the domain of the standard practice of performance and improvement (Flumerfelt & Banachowski, 2011). This research adds to literature on effective leadership, particularly, it will provide information on the link between EI and effective leadership as it is related to community colleges leaders capabilities to be successful in leading their educational institutions.

To add, if leadership in any organization including the domain of higher education is not effective, it would definitely impact its level of performance and improvement (Enos, 2007). Flumerfelt and Banachowski (2011) proclaimed that leadership behavioral paradigms present specific mindsets and/or mental styles of leaders as they are drivers of performance behaviors directly related to leadership and they influence institutional improvement outcomes within the realm of higher education. Chevalier (2006) proclaimed that effective leadership is a major concern as the nature of leadership is a chief component of the systematic process of performance improvement . Moreover as, Flumerfelt & Banachowski (2011) maintained leadership behaviors are major contributors as they overseers of impactful elements within the organizational system in terms of inputs and outputs relative to performance and improvement The

apparent notions of leadership commitment and interaction are the most important elements that directly influence the initiation and results of successful performance efforts as leaders are the decision makers who determine motives for performance improvement.

Ultimately, there was a need for the study of leadership effectiveness as it is relative to leader's effective behaviors (Yukl, 2012). Specifically, there a lack of empirical research related to leadership effectiveness as it is relative to the improvement of leaders' performance in the domain of higher education (Bryman, 2007; Scott et al., 2008). Just importantly, there a lack and need for research of leadership effective behaviors specifically in the environment of higher education (Bryman 2007). In addition, there has been an express competency requirement for community college leaders to be emotional intelligent (AACC, 2005). As Van Teim et al.(2012) argued, EI is a critical contributor to the foundation of effective leadership. This proposed research adds to the literature related to performance and improvement as it will address the critical relative issues of higher educational leadership effectiveness in terms of institutional performance and improvement. Specifically, this study directly addressed the need for community college leaders to be effective emotional intelligent leaders as it is a competency requirement of leadership performance within their higher education institutional environment (AACC, 2005).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the current quantitative correlational study was to (a) determine the self-reported degree of EI reported by senior leaders; (b) examine the self-reported

frequency level of senior leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices; and (c) to explore the possible relationship between their self-reported levels of EI and degree of self-reported frequency level of engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college located within the Midwest Region Two Division Three, namely, the East North Central Division which is inclusive of the following five states: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan and Wisconsin. The results of the investigation may provide new data that could advance post secondary educational leadership to improve institutional performance (Scott, Coates, & Anderson, 2008).

Giesecke (2008a) and Hernon (2008b) maintained a key element of the EI/leadership link is related to the issue of how leaders influence the emotions of others. One leader can easily transmit emotions among group members, and a group can easily mirror the leader's toxic emotional behavior, thereby causing anxiety among the group members and reinforcement of the toxic environment (Giesecke, 2008a). Conversely, successful leaders are aware of their emotional impact on others and can facilitate the achievement of tasks and emotionally intelligent leaders facilitate work environments that promote excellence (Giesecke, 2008a; Goleman, 2011b; Hernon, 2008).

Some suggest emotional intelligence is one of the most valuable qualities needed for organizations to reach optimal success (Goleman, 2011b; Greenockle, 2010). What is unclear is the degree of EI reported by leaders in a community college setting and the understanding of the importance of such behaviors on leadership and educational outcomes. Accordingly, Scott et al. (2008) and Vandervoort (2006) concluded that the investigation of EI in higher education is of upmost importance.

Rationale for Study

Yukl (2012) argued that there is a gap in the leadership literature pertaining to performance and it has been a call to require that community leaders be competent in addressing their emotions and those of others within their institution (AACC, 2005). The results from the current investigation will fill a gap in both the literature of performance improvement and higher education environment relative to EI. By providing reliable and valid EI data within the context of higher education relative to community college leaders, a platform for effective EI professional leadership training and development may be recommended. Ultimately, this may also lead to institutionalizing EI training and leadership development within the community college system to improve institutional performance and beyond.

Nevarez and Wood (2010) and Adams (2010) reported that in the near future, community colleges will experience an unprecedented turnover of its senior leadership: Indeed, 84%of chief executive officers in community colleges anticipate retiring by 2016. Other researchers asserted that community college leaders face major obstacles including the every-evolving mission of the community college (AACC, 2012b; Dassance, 2011; Felix & Pope, 2010; Zeidenberg, 2008) the constantly changing student demographic, and societal pressure (Strom, Sanchz, & Downey-Schilling, 2011). In order to find the next generation of successful community colleges information on ways to properly train and develop, the next cohort of potential leaders must be identified (AACC, 2012b). It is anticipated that the current research may provide information on the development of effective leadership programs in the community college system.

The results from the study provide information about the relationship between community college leaders' EI behaviors and leadership efficacy. Although this relationship has been established in business settings it is unclear whether or not such a relationship exists in a higher education setting (Greenockle, 2010). Such information is important according to Giesecke (2008a) who emphasized that EI may help leaders extend themselves beyond focusing on improving their "people skills" to comprehending how their reactions and feelings impact their perception by others. Goleman (2011b) and Gieseck (2008a) also proclaim that ideally, leaders need to be knowledgeable about their own emotions as well as competent in recognizing and understanding the emotions others. If deficits exist in this area then information can be disseminated to highlight the importance of this relationship.

In general, the study results can be used to inform the link between EI and leadership efficacy in college leaders and the understanding of the importance of manifesting EI skills. Giesecke (2008), Greenockle (2010), and Goleman (2011b) stressed the importance EI skills because these practices help promote positive and engaging work environments. What was unclear is whether or not this relationship is understood as important and whether or not leaders in higher education are implementing EI behaviors and if such behaviors are related to leadership efficacy (Allen et al., 2012; Vandervoot, 2006). Although some maintain educational leaders *must* be emotionally intelligent (Greenockle, 2010; Goleman,2011b; Riggo, 2010), it was unknown if educational leaders are practicing EI (Kreitz, 2009; Jones & Abraham, 2009), especially in the community college setting (Campbell et al., 2010; Ullman, 2010; Yoder 2004).

Ultimately, Chevalier (2006) proclaimed that the entire notion of leadership is important due to the fact that leadership in its entirety represents an essential role in the process of performance improvement. As Snyder (1999) and Kaiser, McGinnis and Overfield (2012) posited, two essential elements of performance and improvement are leaders" leadership that reflect their ability to be knowledgeable in deploying strategic leading techniques that lead to performance and skillful in influencing their human resources to successfully improve performance. Specifically, Kaiser et al. (2012) contended that effective leadership is involved substantially impacting performance by utilizing an interpersonal approach which is focus on how to impact performance and organizational strategic approach which centers on what performance must be accomplished. Vijayaragavan (2008) argued that high performance leadership is an influential leadership process in which leaders have the key role in shaping, regulating, and controlling the performance of individuals as well as having the influential ability to modify individuals attitudes, behaviors, and performances. In sum, the notion of this study in grounded in providing a source of relative empirical research that could be instrumental in addressing the leadership aspect of performance improvement within realm of higher education by addressing the crucial factors relative to effective leadership in higher education as it address the emotional needs of the human element of performance improvement.

Research Questions

The following four research questions guided the investigation:

1. What is the self- reported level of emotional intelligence displayed by leaders in a

community college setting?

2. What is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting?

3. Is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency level of engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices?

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study was based on the theoretical link between emotional intelligence and leadership as it is relative to human performance. The current investigation adds to this framework by describing how EI and leadership efficacy are related in a higher education community college sample. In the following sections, a review of the major foundation of this study, theoretical links of emotional intelligence leadership and performance improvement as it encompass the relevance of leadership and emotional intelligence will be reviewed.

Emotional Intelligence

For more than twenty years, the emergence of significant efforts of research marks the revolutionary examination of EI and it has generated an era that is centered on individual differences that may improve one's life outcomes (Parker, Stone, & Wood, 2009). As a result, today, there exist various definitions, models and measurements of EI (Goleman, 1995, 2005). According to Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts (2012), Druskat Sala, & Mount (2006), and Zeidner, Matthews, & Roberts (2009), the research efforts and works of Salovey, and Mayer (1990) and Mayer and Salovey (1997), Goleman (1995,

1998b) and Bar-On's (1997, 2006) are primarily connected to EI and its progressive growth. In fact, Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts (2002) claims in their book, *Emotional Intelligence: Science and Myth*, that Daniel Goleman, Jack Mayer and Peter Salovey as well as Reuven Bar-On are creators of EI's major conceptualizations as their scholarly works of them and their associates are the most prevalent the literature.

In short, some researchers argued that despite EI's revolutionary growth, there are controversial issues and concerns that directly related to its existence, meaning and applications (Emo et al., 2006; Landy, 2005, 2006; Zeidner et al., 2009). In the same notion, other researchers contended that although it is not clear about EI's future destiny, it has potentials for continuous growth and grounds for critical further examination of its value and worth (Fernandez-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006; Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2002; Murphy, 2006). Still other researchers who asserted the notion of its worth and value and maintained that EI is a worthwhile new construct that shows signs of being instrumental in helping individuals to handle their emotions scientifically, personally and professionally (Greenockle, 2010; Matthews et al., 2002; Matthews,et al., 2012). In the following sections, information on EI will be addressed and examined as it is the primary conceptual underpinning for this study.

The genius of EI. The initial effort to study EI systematically began in 1990 when Salovey and Mayer's published their seminal article, *Emotional Intelligence* and presented their argument to the field of study of psychology (Druskat et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2012; Parker et al., 2011; Zeidner et al., 2009). In this article, they coined and defined the term of EI as they argued that framework for EI resided as a

subset of "social intelligence" and posited that it consisted of a specific set of skills that allowed individuals to better handle their emotions as well as others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2011). Later, in 1990, these researchers and their associates published a companion article that presented deliberations to sustain the first ability scale to measure elements of EI (Mayer, DiPaolo, & Salovey, 1990; Mayer et al., 2011). Thereafter, in 1993, Mayer and Salovey argued specifics about EI such as: what it means, why it is important, and why it makes sense, in addition, they challenged others to conduct additional research to investigate EI and its various issues and concerns (Mayer & Salovey, 1993; Mayer etl, 2011). As a result of Mayer and Salovey's original EI research, many researchers began to conduct empirical investigations on the topic and offered other conceptualizations' of EI and its related issues and concerns (Druskat, et al., 2006).

Subsequently, Goleman maintained that after he read the first formation of the concept of EI in Mayer and Solvey's 1990 article, he was electrified by the notion that EI presented a new element that could be advantageous for life success (Goleman, 1995, 2005). Later, in 1995, Goleman published his book, *Emotional Intelligence* and presented an examination that supported his contentions about EI which included its meaning, effects, possible benefits and advantages. Consequently, his book propelled enormous worldwide interest in EI (Emo et al., 2006; Matthews et al., 2012; McCann, 2009; Zeidner et al., 2009). Zeidner et al. (2009) and Mattehews, Zeidner and Roberts (2002) proclaimed that Goleman's book was responsible for the generated broad popularity of EI. The major interest in the topic of EI is reflected in both lay and scientific circles of

interactions (Bar-On, 2006). Matthews et al. (2012) noted that Goleman's *Emotional Intelligence,* book, has been translated into an array of languages as well as it has earned the position of being the best selling psychology book that has ever been published.

Subsequently, in (1998), Goleman presented his second book, Working with Emotional Intelligence. He defined emotional competencies as "a learned capability based on emotional intelligence that results in outstanding performance at work" (p. 24). He defended his proposal that EI and work performance was directly related and the advantages of being an emotional intelligent worker are significant (Goleman, 1998). In addition, Goleman (1998) presented a detailed argument that EI was an especially important tool to use in the workplace realm and could be a sole determinant of an individual rising to the top or blandly failing within an organization. He stressed that IQ was useful in addressing the technical requirements of work, but less effective in determining non-technical work requirements (Goleman, 1998). As he argued, Goleman (1998) stress that EI's framework explicitly consisted of these five domains: "self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and adeptness in relationships" (p.24). Ideally, as Goleman (1998) stressed, one must learn the skills of being emotional competent in order to be successful in executing the skills of emotional competency. To add, he also contended that allocation of 25 emotional competencies directly correlated with each appropriate domain (Goleman, 1998).

Meanwhile, Druskat et al. (2006), proclaimed that in 1985, Bar-On was recognized for coining the term emotional quotient (EQ) and describing and sustaining his argument that EI has elements that relate to socially and emotionally behaviors.

Goleman (1995, 2005) contended that Bar-On's concept of EI differed from both he and Mayer and Salovey's concept of EI because his focus was on EI attributes that led to individual well-being. Regardless of these differences, Druskat, et al. (2006) contended that Bar-On was acknowledged as an expert in EI and is known internationally for developing a definition, measurement and a variety of EI applications. In addition, Goleman (1995, 2005) contended that, Bar-On has provided a major source of rich academic finding about EI and instrumental in developing the critical mass of the field by editing significant EI literature such as books and related articles.

The Leadership Platform

Northouse (2009) and Newman (2008) proclaimed that the term of leadership has many different definitions. For instance, Hernon (2008a) confirmed that leadership was defined differently to include various factors and perspectives in which focus on motivating and inspiring individuals to reach particular goals of organizational approaches that center on constructing platforms to produce advancements of change. To add, Burnes and Rodnem (2012) argued that leadership was defined as a function and process whereas individuals' wills and needs are collectively connected and dynamic results are accomplished as a result of this connectivity. Converse (2012) argued that the definition of leadership primarily refers to leaders' traits, behaviors, abilities, skills, relationships and/or attributes. Hence, Rickards (2012) contended that one's efforts to define the term leadership is immediately faced with numerous meanings and confirms that the challenge of defining the extraordinary meaning of leadership is a major dilemma.

To further elaborate and describe its complex phenomenon, Sheldon (2010) maintained that the concept of leadership is examined and argued from various perspectives that present specific conceptual factors. For instance, beginning many centuries ago, Bass (1990) argued that the term leadership historically has linked to issues of group orientation, personality and its effects; influence and guidance; and, ultimately, it was associated with concerns of personal power and goal achievement. Whereas, Northouse (2012) contented that leadership approaches in 1900s such as the "Great Man" theories presented qualities and traits of great leaders and the behavioral leadership approach addressed the ability of leaders to assess and address the situation in which they lead. On the other hand, Northouse (2012) noted that the relational leadership approach explores the relationship between the leaders and followers. Accordingly, Friedman (2010) confirmed that there was a growing interest in the subject of leadership and a multidisciplinary approach is now in demand.

To add to the challenge of the leadership phenomenon, the broad and complex differentiation and meaning of leadership can be illustrated through classifications, associations, taxonomies and/or theories (Bass, 1990). For example, Northouse (2010) alleged that leadership mainly has two unique classifications with different perspectives: trait leadership and process leadership. The trait leadership perspective categorizes theories or approaches to leadership as it relates to leaders' characteristics or qualities such as innate behaviors, intelligence, integrity, self-confidence, determination, and/or sociability (Northouse, 2010). On the other hand, a process leadership perspective categorizes theories or approaches to leadership as it relates to the leader's observed

and/or learned behaviors such as the skills, style and situational approaches (Northouse, 2010). From a different perspective, Pinnow (2011) argued that the meaning of leadership is heavily based upon the leader's personality which is directly connected to the leader's style, roles, character traits, and duties as he maintains that leaders are directly connected to the nature, quality and success of the leadership. Ultimately, Parrish (2011) contended that leadership principles, competencies, and attributes are factors that constitute the foundational issues and debates relating directly to the effectiveness of its complex subject matter.

To add, Northouse (2012) argued that progressive contemporary leadership approaches offer various leadership perspectives. He contended that leadership theories such as transformational (centered on changes within an organization); authentic (focused the authentically interest of the leader); spiritual (directed at the values sense of calling of the leader), and servant (centered on the leader's ability to care for the followers) reflect modern leadership approaches (Northouse, 2012). Similarly, Pinnow (2011) maintained that emerging 21st leadership approaches offers distinctive efforts to interface with different markets, environments, people, struggles, challenges and goal setting approaches that are much different those twenty years ago. Likewise, to avoid numerous risks, Nohria and Khurana (2010) argued that as the body of knowledge of leadership continues to grow, efforts of addressing leadership should extend beyond traditional defined frameworks of the past.

Despite the evidence that suggests that the field of leadership is constantly changing as it is examined in various disciplines and educational arenas, the study of

leadership continues to be broad with unlimited boundaries and unclear directions as societies search the prescription for superior leadership (Nohria & Khurana, 2010). Barr and Dowding (2012) argued that two important elements contribute to the ever changing studies of elements related to the development of effective leadership that consider it being a source of an art and a science. They contended that leadership is a form of an art due to the fact that numerous leadership skills and talents cannot be learned as well as it is a science because its growing body of knowledge struggles to scientifically develop the process of leadership (Barr & Dowding, 2012). To put it succinctly, Glyn and DeJordy (2010) argued that over the years and currently, the concept of leadership remains to be an exclusive construct that must be addressed as it is essential to successful organizational behavior.

Previous research has indicated that effective leadership is facilitated by EI. Goleman, et al. (2002b) suggested emotional intelligent leaders are aware of the emotional environment of their organization. First, the emotional intelligent leader takes a reality scan of the emotional status of their entire organization rather than just focusing on accomplishing the organization vision and mission (Goleman, et al., 2002b). In accomplishing this task, the emotional intelligent leader can began to promote emotional well-being and motivation and help to diffuse groups rivalry, and/or power struggles (Goleman, et al., 2002b). Most important, "when it comes to getting results, the competencies that distinguish the best leaders operate in well-orchestrated unison, becoming distinctive leadership styles" (Goleman, et al., 2002, p. 52).

On the whole, Goleman (1998b) declared that along with required IQ and practical abilities, emotional intelligent leaders have the great potential to be effective and outstanding leaders. As Cavallo and Brienza's (2006) concur, they attest to favorable results from their study of fourteen hundred employees who were select from three hundred and fifty-eight mangers employed at the Johnson & Johnson Consumer & Personal Care Group who participated in the leadership emotional intelligence assessment. The results detected that high performing managers were significantly more emotionally competent that those who were not high performers (Cavallo and Brienza, 2006). Goleman (1998a) stated that his "research, along with other recent studies, clearly shows that emotional intelligence is the sine qua non of leadership. Without it, a person can have the best training in the world… but he still won't make a great leader" (P.2)

In general, Bar-On (2007) asserts that effective leaders must be visionaries and not just focus on being reactive to situations as they occur. Ideally, as Bar-On (2007) posit successful leaders are competent cognitive system thinkers with specific EI related intrapersonal skills grounded in sound abilities of adaptability as well as interpersonal relationship management skills enhanced with effective networking talents. To add, Nadler (2011) contest that the missing EI link is needed to produce star performing leaders who are focused on managing their emotions related to their personal needs of being successful and how their emotional leadership ability impact their employees. Overall, Bar-On (2007) argues that "ultimately emotionally intelligent people are able to effectively manage personal social and environmental change by realistically and flexibly coping with the immediate situation and solving problems of an interpersonal nature. " (p.

2). In sum, although leaders are the essential component that help produce notable performance, leaders are only one significant part of the required equation of effective leadership which includes the leaders, the context within the they lead, and the followers with whom the lead (Shankman & Allen, 2008).

Based on the current investigation's predicted results, higher educational community college leaders may eventually be prepared to educate their staff, adjunct instructors, and student populations to be emotional intelligent (Vandervoort, 2006; Yoder, 2006). To reiterate, Allen, Shankman, and Miguel (2012) maintain that the key assumption is that senior leaders are the key players in the broader dissemination of EI in higher education. The current investigation will provide a clear snapshot of present levels of emotional intelligence, self-assessments of their EI/Leadership qualities and leadership efficacy, and level of understanding of the importance of EI in education. If the results demonstrate a relationship between EI and leadership efficacy in higher education then such information will extend current theoretical understanding to a new population.

Leadership, Emotional Intelligence, and Performance Improvement

The relevance of leadership and performance. As previously, mentioned, the essence of leadership is essential to the process and the conceptual context of performance improvement (Chevalier, 2006; Vijayaragavan, 2008). As Enos (2007) argued, the efforts of leadership are most important factors that determine if performance improvement will be successful or not. To add, as Vijayaragavan (2008) proclaimed, the nature of leadership is present in organizational groups despite their size or number of individuals present within the groups. Primarily, Enos (2007) firmly argued that

leadership is centered on leaders' ability to provide clear directives of the organization's goals as well as to motivate people to accomplish these goals within a team, group, department, and/or organization in its totality. Ultimately, Yukl (2012) maintains that leaders are influential in employing effective processes that actually produce the results of performance. Effective leadership behaviors lead to improved performance (YukL, 2012). This study will focus on both the leadership effectiveness relative to the environment of higher education and those of community college leaders with a specific ' concentrate on the effectiveness of leadership as it is related to emotional intelligence.

Performance improvement relative to emotional intelligence. The notion of performance improvement relative to elements that point to the consideration of others emotions and their emotional states is not new to the concept of performance improvement (Gilbert, 1996; Rummler, 1999). As Thomas E. Gilbert, the founder of the field of human performance technology (Van Tiem et al., 2012) argues, the emotional attention to the others in the workforce relating to their performance is significant (Gilbert, 1996). As Gilbert (1996), specifically proclaimed, the emotional factor of love is significant and as he linked it to the element of trust in individuals and argued that it can have an impact on their behaviors related to their performance. Gilbert (1996) contends that performance engineers should consider viewing the notion of performance through the vantage point of the emotional state of love and considering individuals as human being whose feeling are just important when focuses on utilizing human being to increase performance. To add, when Rummler (1999), described his three level model for organizational performance, he directly maintain that the third level, job/performer level,

should include attention to performers' mental and emotional capacities as it is relative to their ability to deploy their skills and knowledge sets to perform effectively.

Currently, as it has previously been mentioned, Van Tiem et al. (2012) argued that emotional intelligence is a impactful element of effective leadership as it is directly relative to leaders ability to be influential to others on an emotional platform that centers on leadership relating to others emotional state. It is this platform that this study was grounded upon as it is designed to examine and explore the effectiveness of leaders' leadership in higher education as well as the community college environment with direct focus on elements of emotional intelligence.

Assumptions

There were several assumptions implicit in this research investigation. It was assumed that invited participants would be willing to participate. The participants completed the self-report emotional intelligence and leadership efficacy instrument. It was also assumed that such an assessment of EI in community college administrative leaders would provide valuable insight eventually leading to EI as an exclusive element for professional development and ultimately for broader educational dissemination. Also, it was assumed that the findings of this study will serve as a platform inspiring staff, faculty, and students to utilize emotional intelligence to further accomplish their scholastic and workplace goals. This researcher was optimistic about obtaining a high rate of participation in this study.

In regards to focus of this study, this study was based on key assumptions that aligned with the foundational premise of examining emotional factors relating enhancing

leaders' leadership effectiveness as it could improve performance in higher education as well as in the environment of community colleges. This premise rested upon several arguments. First, leadership is an essential element of the process of performance improvement (Chevalier, 2006; Enos, 2007), secondly, leaders' behaviors are drivers to improve performance of their followers (Enos, 2007; Vijayaragavanb, 2008; Yukl, 2012); and emotional intelligence is a key component to that can enable leaders to effectively connect, interact and influence others to increase their performance.

Scope of This Study

Although there are many components that surround the need to address issues relative to effective community college leadership in the realm of higher education, this study focused on first the EI awareness levels of community college leaders, second, the effectiveness of their leadership practices will explored as well as thirdly, the correlation between the effective leaders' leadership practices and found levels of leaders' EI was analyzed. Information on these variables should motivate a discussion about the primary factors relating to the proper development of EI professional development programs for community college leaders.

Limitations of Study

There were several limitations of the study. The instruments used in this study were self-report assessments and some participants may not have demonstrated complete honesty, but this is a core difficulty in most social science research. Some participants might have also found it challenging to complete the assessments due to time constraints.

The study was delimited to senior leaders from community college as it only assesses higher rank administrators excluding administrative staff, faculty, and/or students, but the data will ultimately be used to inform these areas.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that no other investigation with the proposed research variables has been conducted. Furthermore, there was a gap in the literature on the relationship between EI and leadership efficacy in higher education (Allen et al., 2012; Indoo et al., 2012; Kreitz, 2009; Landau & Meiroveich, 2011), and there has been a call for the community college leadership to be competent in addressing emotional issues both personally and professionally which can be related to EI (AACC, 2005; AACC, 2011) and the current research results fill this gap. The results of the study may assist community college leaders to meet the requirements of the professionalism component of AACC's (2005) competencies for community colleges leaders as well as to inform community college leaders on the importance of EI in their relationships as well as in curriculum development. This information may facilitate future educational outcomes within the community college setting. The results may also be important for the rapidly growing body of EI educational practical and research literature.

Based on previous research, it is assumed that community college leaders need to be conscious, knowledgeable, and competent about EI due to its broader educational significance (AACC, 2005); however, there was no empirical evidence to support this assumption. The current investigation results provide information on leaders' understanding of the importance of EI in educational and leadership outcomes and may

stimulate additional research on this topic. If it is determined that there is a lack of EI behaviors being reported by leaders, or a lack of understanding of the importance of EI, perhaps information on these topics can be promulgated. Such information may impact future practice as well as curriculum development and may impact social change.

Additionally, the results of this study are expected to generalize to the performance of community colleges and their expected ability to effectively educate students to be major contributors to the U.S. economic growth (Kolesnikova, 2009). Liptak (2005) suggested community college leaders' influence and educate their entire organization, faculty, administration, and students. Therefore, EI-educated community college leaders may assist their students to be emotionally intelligent productive (Liptak, 2005). In sum, this study provides information about the EI/Leadership theoretical link and the current degree of EI manifested by community college leaders as well as their understanding level of EI's importance. Based on the information from this study, community colleges may eventually be able to more effectively play an important role in educating students to successfully obtain and retain jobs (Kolesnikova, 2009; Nevarez & Wood, 2010)

To add, as this study moves forward, it addresses the argument of Yukl (2012) that successful effort of engineering performance improvement is directly relative to employing effective leadership behaviors to properly navigate the resources of human capital in matters that will increase performance. As Gilbert (1996) posited, the issue of giving attention to the emotional sense of love relative to performance engineering is significant as it includes the need to be sensitive to people and their feeling. In this light,

Gilbert (1996) contended that the concept of performance engineering should be extended beyond the notion of using the human labor factor as means to the ends of obtaining products and productivity.

As Kaiser, McGinnis and Overfield's (2012) firmly argued, there is a need for leadership to be addressed as a key influence to improve organizational performance. Kaiser et al. (2012) argued that many leaders tend to make a distinction between interpersonal (the how to) and organizational (the what to do) approach to improve performance. However, Kaiser et al. (2012) contended effective leadership is inclusive of both the *how* and the *what*; however, the *how* which reflects working and influencing people to perform, has a larger percentage of research focus than the *what* which focus on what the organization should do to increase performance. Aligned with working with and influencing people to perform, Van Tiem et al. (2012) proclaimed that EI is essential attribute to leaders' leadership abilities as it is instrumental in influencing, connecting and tapping in on being sensitive to people and their feeling which can be powerful in persuading people to improve performance. This research addressed the human factor of effective leadership in regards to the emotional element of successful leadership related to performance improvement and emotional intelligence.

In sum, Enos (2007) maintained that the efforts to improve performance are everywhere as they can be detected in goals to improve organizations, teams, and individuals. Ultimately, there are two important components of performance improvement such as the people within organizations (Van Tiem, Moseley & Dessinger, 2012) and leaders who are significantly influential to the substantial nature of

performance and improvement (Enos, 2007; Yukl, 2012). Van Tiem et al. (2012) argued that successful organizations value their people due to the fact that people and their skills, knowledge, and talents can be instrumental in assisting them to obtain various levels of success. Enos (2007) posited that leaders are the primary element that guides the entire process of performance and improvement as they are prompted to seek improvement for various reasons such as to be competitive, address customer's needs, align with changes in technology, address stakeholders' needs and to improve the development of their human resources. In terms of performance and improvement, this research primarily focused on elements relating to these two components: leaders' leadership and people within in the institution of higher and community colleges as they are related to emotional intelligence.

Definition of Terms

Community College: A 2-year government-supported college that offers an associate's degree.

Emotional Competence: A learned skill-set based on emotional intelligence that leads to results of improved performance in the work environment (Goleman, 1998b).

Emotional Intelligence: "The abilities to motivate oneself and persist in face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope (Goleman, 1995, p. 34).

Social Intelligence: The ability to work well with others to accomplish mutual goals as one is conscious of the needs of others as well as the needs of oneself (Van Tiem et al., 2012) .

Higher Education: Education beyond the secondary level; especially education provided by a college or university.

Intelligence: The biopsychological potential to process information activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture.

Leaders: Leaders set strategy; they motivate; they create a mission; and build culture.

Leadership: The motivation and inspiration to create and carryout a shared vision to guide future actions of an organization and is a critical factor in the process to (Vjiayaragavan, 2008).

Performance: The core meaning of performance is what organizations or institutions do financially and non-financially to increase produce improved performance (Enos, 2007).

Performance Improvement: The actual results of systematically improving performance (Van Tiem et al., 2012).

Performance Improvement Interventions: The focus of planned efforts to designed developed, and/or acquired tools strategies conceptions, methods and/or techniques used to improve performance aliened with the results of an performance analysis (Van Tiem et al., 2012).

Performance Technology: The systematic process deployed by the use of processes, techniques, methods, strategies and tools to increase performance (Van Tiem et al., 2012).

Personal Development Interventions: A planned work-related set of activities that contribute to the personal professional development of employees as they are aligned with work related needs (Van Tiem et al., 2012).

Professional Development: The process of obtaining the skills, qualifications, and experiences that can employed to improve one's professional career.

Organization of the Remainder of the Research Study

The remainder of this research report provides information on four chapters, which is inclusive of chapter 2, The Literature Review; chapter 3, Methodology; chapter 4, The Results; and chapter 5, Discussion, Implications, and Recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

In this chapter, the focus is on the examination of essential pertinent literature and research to synthesize information relating to the (a) historical evolution of the conceptual theory of emotional intelligence; (b) effective leadership in higher education, (c) emotional intelligence relative to leadership in higher education, performance improvement in terms of transformational leadership relative to EI; and, (e) the relevance of emotional intelligence and community college leadership in higher education will be explored in order to provide a solid foundation to recognize and identify the importance of this study.

The Evolution of EI Theory

In order to understand the historical perspective of the concept of emotional intelligence it is essential to explore the two elements of the term, intelligence and emotion (Mayer, & Salovey, 1997). Giesecke (2008a) argued that the subject matter of intelligence and emotions are significantly related to the term of emotional intelligence as they are important and not in conflict with each other. A through relevance examination of the subject matters of emotions and intelligence is presented in the proceeding sections.

The concept of emotional intelligence has emerged from roots of past dissatisfaction with traditional theories of intelligence related to psychological beliefs, explorations, and practices (Zeidner et al., 2009). Arguments that addressed early detections of conventional theories of intelligence mostly related to issues of individual

differences (Brody, 2000). The issues and debates relating to emotions and intelligence were considered to be separate; then, integrated and explored (Mayer et al, 2011). Eventually, a major concern was identified concerning the distinct subject matter of intelligence that centered on its meaning and uses of cognitive and/or non-cognitive faculties (Hergenhahn, 2009). Without a doubt, the debates relating to assessing, measuring, and testing intelligence (particularly, issues related to IQ), has had a major influence on the growth and momentum of studies related to intelligence and intelligence testing (Fletcher & Hattie, 2011).

The complexity of the psychological concept of intelligence is reflected in conceptualizations that may consist of debates that address similarities, contrasting and sometimes conflicting views of researchers and theorists alike (Fletcher and Hattie, 2011). In direct relations to this complexity, the concept of EI has moved beyond its state of infancy due to efforts of those theorists and researchers who maintain that an individual's intellectual potential should not be determined only by using the results of IQ testing (Zeidner et al., 2009). To grasp an understanding about EI, a selective discussion about its historical underpinnings, theories and issues, concerns, and developmental opportunities will be presented in the sections below.

Although there are many others, Hergenhahn (2009) reported that Darwin was one of the most influential psychologists who studied issues relating to individual differences. Darwin (2003) examined human evolution relating to individual differences and the reproduction of different human races. As it relates to these studies, Hergenhahn (2009) emphasized that Darwin stirred a significant controversy that related to the

creation versus the evolution of the human race and he inspired others to investigate the differences in individuals. In Darwin's (1998) efforts to investigate animals' emotions related to individuals' emotions, Bar-On (2006) contended that Darwin stressed the significant of emotions related to behaviors of adaptation is important. In addition, Hergenhahn (2009) argued that, Darwin led the path to studies of human comparative and animal psychology that posited people's behaviors can be derived from studying the behaviors of animals. Moreover, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruson (2011) contended that, Darwin influenced efforts to systematically study the relations between emotions and thought. Above all, Hergenhahn (2009) maintained that, Darwin was influential in promoting psychological examination of individuals' differences, emotions, learning, tests and measurements of intelligence among many other issues of psychology.

In the areas of emotions, Mayer et al., (2011) claimed that early examinations of emotions centrally addressed the issue of whether the mental reaction preceded the act of emotion or vice versa. For instance, with an aim to investigate sequential aspects of the emotional life, William James (James, 1884/1922) claimed that one's mental emotional response is activated by personal experiences and he argued that people's belief about the sequence of reactions to emotions were wrong due to the notion that we do not *"feel sorry because we cry, angry because we strike, afraid because we tremble….[instead] we, cry, strike ,or tremble because we are sorry, angry, or fearful"* (p.13).   Whereas, Lange contended that, human being's reactions to emotional experiences should be first examined and classified as they related to an emotional mode such as love, fear, angry and so forth (Lange, 1985). With regard to studying emotions in a separate matter from

studying intelligence, Dunlap (1922) declared that Darwin's book, *The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals,* inspired both Carl Georg Lange and William to create the now known *James—Lange Theory of Emotions* which is named after both theorists who both were interested in the sequential effects of emotions and the human experiences.

The twentieth century marked an era when most of the developmental research in psychology focused on the differentiation between cognitive mental processes such as memory, judgment, reasoning and non-cognitive intelligence such as any other mental processes aside from the cognitive focus (Cherniss, 2000; Mayer, et al., 2011). Hence, Zeidner et al. (2009) argued that, when E. L. Thorndike (1920) suggested that intelligence consisted of three separate entities: mechanical, social and abstract and he proclaimed that *"no man is equally intelligent for all sorts of problems"* (p.228), Thorndike made a distinction of the difference between non-cognitive intelligence and cognitive abstract factor of intelligence.

Likewise, Wechsler (1958) claimed that the act of using only the retentive memory will not suffice in helping individuals successfully cope with life many different situations; thus, he suggested that a focus on "non-intellective" elements to resolve this issue. Sequentially, Sternberg (1996) declared that intelligence relates to people living their everyday lives and proposes the term "successful intelligence" centers on the differentiation of individual's intelligently using their skills to succeed in their environment versus those who are not capable doing the same. In sum, researchers in the field psychology directly argued that the level of human intellect was not only based on

cognitive elements of intelligence and non-cognitive elements contribute to an individual's level of intelligence (Hergenehahn, 2009).

Furthermore, during this time period, researchers claimed that non-cognitive aspects of intelligence were related to human social interactions in which it was called "social intelligence (Cherniss, 2000; Landy, 2006). Thorndike (1920) made the distinction of "social intelligence" as he is noted for describing it as the act of being wise when it relates to understanding and managing people. In addition, most modern day researchers and theorists in this area of study pointed to Thorndike as the theorist who made the distinction of "social intelligence" (Kihlstrom & Cantor; 2000 Landy, 2006; Salovey & Mayer, 1990); however, Dewey is noted for explicitly using the term "social intelligence" in 1909 (Landy, 2006). Dewey (1909) was concerned about the development of school curriculums and contended that, "social intelligence" was related to moral motives of handling one's social environment. In efforts to further, write about "social intelligence," in 1937, E. L. Thorndike's son, R. L. Thorndike and his associate evaluated the attempts to measurement of social intelligence (Thorndike & Stein, 1937; Thorndike, 1990) and they claimed that the issue of "social intelligence" was complex and had not been measured effectively.

Looking through the lens of intelligence relative to learning, the field of psychology has spurred some impactful results in the field of education that are related to the distinction between individuals and their differences, and cognitive and non-cognitive (Hergenehahn, 2009). E. L. Thorndike is considered to be one of the greatest learning theorists who have ever lived in this world (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1993) and is

recognized for the development of psychology's first major theory of learning in which he termed the "*Theory of Effect.*" This theory rests on the notion of connectionism, meaning that an association between a sense expression and impulses bring about an action (Hergenehahn, 2009). Thorndike's approach to learning behaviors was mostly influenced by Darwin and his theory can be viewed as the results of the combination of associationism and Darwinism (Hergenhahn & Olson, 1993). E.L. Throndike also created the "Theory of Transfer" that suggested something learned in one situation can be transferred to another situation (Hergenehahn, 2009). Clearly, one can see how these learning theories can be related to individuals and their differences as well as efforts to focus on non-cognitive issues.

In general, the notion of learning and intelligence, in the field of education, can also be related to the creation of learning situations that address and focus on specific elements of individuals' differences and cognitive and non-cognitive (affective) learning outcomes. For example, Tyler (1949) suggested that schools develop students' attitudes through the use of emotional non-cognitive learning experiences and cognitive intellectual processes. To add, Tyler (1957) posited Dewey and others projected the evidence that learning is based upon what the learners does and Thorndike influence centered on providing learners with particular situations with conditions for learning. On the other hand, Dale (1954) proclaimed that a rich learning experience is developed by using emotional teaching approaches and concrete experiences to motivate students to learn (both focused on non-cognitive aspects of learning). To add, Bloom (1956) created an educational taxonomy of three domains (cognitive, affective, and psychomotor) that

focused on separate mode of individuals' learning both cognitive and non-cognitive as well (Bloom, 1956). Clearly, the field of education has experienced the important impact of theorists' differentiating learning outcomes (both cognitive and non-cognitive) as they were related to intelligence and learners' individual differences (Seels & Richey, 1994).

To add, during this historical period of the twentieth century, Richey, Klein and Tracey (2011) argued that one of Gagne's astonishing contributions to the field of education was his development of both cognitive and non-cognitive learning objectives that created meaningful learning experiences for learners and their individual differences in learning. Specifically, Gagne who was a profound educator, theorist and researcher, demonstrated his ability to identify, classify, and design instructional approaches that differentiate between cognitive and non-cognitive learning abilities (Gage, 1985). For example, Gagne (1985) created five categories of capabilities that included aspects of affective and intellectual elements: intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, verbal information learning, motor skills and attitudes. Today, the deliberation of theorists to address the distinction between learners' individual differences of cognitive and non-cognitive learning abilities rests upon Gagne's theories for the development of educational learning objectives and outcomes (Seels & Richey, 1994).

In sum, the study of the human intellect has been prevalent for many centuries as it provided means for people to evaluate their and others levels of intelligence as well as to assist scientific investigators to provide intellectual guidance (Sternberg, 2000). For example, for over 100 years, the intellectual conditions of individuals have been a primary focus of psychologists and their research efforts (Brody, 2000). In the same

vein, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) contended that during the industrial revolution scientists were mostly concerned with the human capacity and studied individual differences of people and their ability to perform particular tasks. In addition, Gottfredson and Saklofske (2009) posited that historically, the study of individual's differences and their characteristics provided a platform for the study of human behaviors, including intelligence and cognitive factors. Ultimately, the current-day concepts of intelligence and its various levels of testing rest on distinctive scientific investigations (Fletcher & Hattie, 2011).

The Measurement of Intelligence

The notion that intelligence could be measured is not new and solely contributed to by Darwin (Hergenehahn, 2009). Darwin's cousin, Francis Galton, was also intensely involved with the measurement of the human intelligence and in 1869, Galton explored human factors of innate inheritance and generational effects related to intelligence of the society as a whole and he claimed that high reputation individuals represented high performance individuals (Hergenehahn, 2009).   Kaufman (2009) contended that regardless of Galton's passion with the issue of heredity, Galton was influential and the world considered his definition of intelligence valid because his tests were scientific, objective, and reliable. According to Hergenehahn (2009), Galton's work showed traces related to Darwin's theory of evolution as it is related to individual differences and their measurement. Despite his affluent work, Galton's ideas stimulated notable debates and he was later discredited for using simplistic measurements for complex issues of intelligence (Fletcher & Hattie, 2011). Among many of his contributions to psychology, Galton is

acknowledge for his impact on the study of psychology by having a significant amounts of firsts such as the first to: utilized correlation techniques, used word association mental tests, created intelligence testing of individuals, twin studies, and he was the first to develop methods to analyzed imagery (Hergenehahn, 2009).

Additionally, Cattell (1890) presented advanced research that measured 10 types of mental functions and suggested that effective research consist of experiments and measurements of large amount of people. As a result, Cattell is recognized as the one who coined the term "mental test" (Brody, 2000; Kaufman, 2009). Accordingly, Gottfredson and Saklofske (2009) confirmed that Cattell (1890) was influential in the development testing of differences in individuals; he is recognized for developing the first contemporary intelligence test (Kaufman, 2009). Ideally, Gottfredson and Saklofske (2009) declared that Galton and Cattell propelled the research community to pursue interests in the measurement of intelligence.

In France, Alfred Binet (Binet, 1916), tested children's mental capacity as he partnered with Theodore Simon (intern for a retarded colony) to create the Binet and Simon intelligence scale to distinguish normal children from retarded children. Binet and Simon were displeased with specialists using different terms to categorize children's mental states such as: imbecile, idiot, and feeble-mind, so they established a scientific structure to diagnosis children and to help them better perform in school (Binet, 1916). The German psychologist, William Stern challenged and argued that the Binet-Simion scale should reflect the division of the mental age divided by the actual age to produce a "mental quotient;" but, later, Lewis Terman multiplied it by 100 to simplified this process

and named it "intellectual quotient" (IQ) (Fletcher & Hattie, 2011). The interest in measuring intelligence continued.

In the United States Henry Herbert Goddard was one of the first people to translate and use the Binet-Simon scale (Kaufman, 2009; Fletcher & Hattie, 2011). Goddard (1920) maintained that his efforts to solve problems of crime and social evils could be resolve by investigating and testing different people's grades of responsibility aligned with their levels of mental intelligence as it related to their state of "feeble-mindedness." After Goddard had translated the Binet-Simon scale, he was faced with debates about its ethical worth and issues of the test being compromised and lack of its worth (Fletcher & Hattie, 2011). Despite researchers' skepticism, research efforts continued and Goddard is considered as a significant contributor as he displayed a spirit of boldness in his efforts to identify the unfit population (Kaufman, 2009). To add, Flectcher and Hattie (2011) also argued that Goddard's mental testing efforts were recognized for being instrumental in establishing one of the first state laws requiring specific accommodations for special education classes.

About the same time period, in 1916, Lewis Terman revised and renamed the Binet-Simon scale and called it the Standford-Binet scale in his efforts to represent Stanford University and honored Binet (Terman, 1916). His primary aim was to create and present usable book that could be understood by lay persons and scientific investigators (Terman, 1916). In sum, Terman (1916) concluded that after testing hundreds of students he found that different levels of intelligence exists and he suggested that students should be treated accordingly. Consequently, Kaufman (2009) posited that

Terman did more than revise the Binet-Simon scale; instead, he directly related it to the American culture and used the state-of-the-art methodology to do so. To add, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) claimed that Terman's involvement in IQ testing had an enormous impact because he set the benchmark by which all proceeding tests came be compared and evaluated. Both Flectcher and Hattie (2011) and Kaufman (2009) attested that Terman's Stanford-Binet scale has been the American IQ test for many years and remains the most used IQ testing instrument in today mental testing environment.

Central to group IQ testing efforts, World War I provided the testing grounds for the masses. In light of their skill sets, Goddard and Terman were actively involved in conducting IQ testing for the army recruits (Kaufman, 2009; Fletcher & Hattie, 2011). According to Yoakum and Yerkes (1920), IQ testing was administered to at least 1, 726, 966 army men and of these at least 41,000 were army officers. The test results indicated that 1, 556, 011 men were found to be illiterate as they could not even write or read letter from their family members. Yoakum and Yerkes (1920) defended the use of army IQ testing and mandated IQ testing as a requirement and routine procedure for new recruits (Yoakum and Yerkes, 1920). However, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) claimed that it was unclear whether the results of these testing efforts met the expectations of the military in its aim to be more effective. To add, they contended that, many officers were skeptical about the use of IQ testing and did not take advantage utilizing the data yielded from the IQ testing phenomenal. On the other hand, Kaufman (2009) agreed that IQ testing was very helpful in assisting the army during World War I; but, posited that the testing results

of the army IQ testing lead to major data misinterpretation and controversies about the value of the IQ tests as well as the social connotation of experiences.

The debates regarding the use and the validity of IQ tests were intense and examples of various deliberations addressing numerous issues can be discussed from various perspectives. For instance, in 1920, as previously mention, E. L. Thorndike questioned the narrowed view of IQ testing suggesting that researchers examine other types of intelligences. Likewise, Wechsler (1943) declared that IQ testing only measured portions of the human capacities; and, claimed that intelligence is a multifaceted complex concept (Wechsler, 1975). Sternberg (1996) proclaimed IQ as a weak predictor and only accounted for 10% variation of differences related to actual performance. Moreover, Kaufman (2009) declared the controversies about IQ testing are centered on racial bias IQ questioning relative to American minorities not being capable of understanding the IQ testing due to their lack of knowledge and educational preparation compared to American majorities who were more educationally prepared to successfully pass IQ testing.

From another standpoint, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) maintained that IQ testing still have an appealing zest despite the fact that they had been losing their popularity for the past 40 years. Kaufman (2009) contended that today's IQ tests are exceptional as they are more sophisticated, and theory based as he projects that by 2015, computerized IQ tests will exceed current methods of individualized administered IQ testing. Ultimately, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) contended that IQ tests have transformed into various forms as they exist among many theoretical psychological constructs that address

uses in domains such as education, business and healthcare industries, In sum, both Fletcher and Hattie (2011) and Kaufman (2009) agreed that IQ tests still exist and are considered as one of the most used methods to measure and individual's intelligence in light of their controversial issues.

Perhaps the most unsurpassed instance of extreme argument pertaining to IQ and its inability to effectively access the human intelligence is addressed in Gardner's seminal 1983 book, Frames of Mind. In 1983, Gardner expressed his disagreement with the belief that intelligence can be represented as a single analogy and suggested that there is independent levels of intelligences in which could not be measured by standard measurements using IQ testing (Gardner, 1983/1993). Gardner (1983/1993) presented seven different types of intelligences, including: (1) linguistic, (2) logical-mathematical, (3) musical, (4) bodily-kinesthetic, (5) spatial, (6) intrapersonal, and (7) interpersonal. In sum, Stern (2007) argued that it was Gardner who refueled the debate about how to effectively measure intelligence as it relates to only using the measurement of IQ. Gardner (1983/1993) posited that there are several types of intelligences and IQ testing lack the ability to address and measure them effectively as Stern (2007) proclaims that this debate still remain alive today.

In sum, after reviewing historical literature related to several relative factors and events, some conclusions can be established. For instance, it can be said that theorists investigated the issue of individual's differences decades ago (Dawin, 2003; Galton, 1869). Furthermore, it is clear that the study of emotions is not new due to the fact that theorists explored how people handled their emotions over several centuries ago (Dawin,

1998; Dunlap, 1922; James, 1884/1922). Additionally, many years ago, a theory of emotion was established that reflected theorists' interest in investigating the human experience related to emotional states as was concerned as a specific concern (Dunlap, 1922; James, 1884/1922). Obviously, a scientific interest in individual's differences and emotions has been of great interest to researchers for many years (Dawin, 1998; Dunlap, 1922; James, 1884/1922).

To add, there are other conclusions that can be entertained. For example, in the past, it could be posited that psychologists did not settle for just accepting single score IQ measurements to represent the level of an individuals' intelligence (Wechsler, 1958). In addition, it is evident that researchers made the distinction between non-cognitive and cognitive elements of intelligence (Thornkdike, 1920; Wechsler, 1943). In addition, clearly, the literature confirms that the subject of "social intelligence "is significant as it has been addressed (Dewey, 1909; Thorndike,E L., 1920; Thorndike, R. M., 1990; Thorndike & Stein, 1937). Additionally, it has been acknowledged that issues relating to individuals possibly having different types of intelligences have been explored (Gardner, 1983/1993). In sum, the exploration of these issues has led to the understanding that the developmental and revolutionary theory of emotional intelligence (EI) rest upon this dynamic platform. In the following sections, the examination of the conceptualization of effective leadership in higher education will be conducted.

EI Abilities, Definitions, and Models

    A Scientific EI Model: Jack Mayer, Peter Salovey and Associates. Matthews et al. (2002) maintain that Mayer, Salovey and associates are acknowledged as initially

publishing the first articles in the realm of scholarly scientific peer-reviewed journals and are noted as presenting the most scientific perspectives of the concepts of EI since its conceptualization. To create a foundation for research development of EI, Salovey and Mayer's (1990,) contended that EI's definition, model and scale of measurement should rest on a platform of research that is centered on meaning of intelligence in terms of a set of abilities.

Although Salovey and Mayer's (1990) definition of EI included other factors, they specially posited that their definition of EI was based on elements of social intelligence that reflected a subset of Howard Gardner's (1983) perspectives of his domains of personal intelligences (interpersonal and intrapersonal). Specially, Salovey and Mayer (1990) pointed to Gardner's (1983) area of focus that address the notion of one being able to detect one own's emotional feels and affects. Gardner's (1983) asserts that examples of this type of intrapersonal intelligence detection reflects situations like a novelist writing introspectively about his or her feelings, a patient and /or therapist who address his or her own feeling about life and acquired knowledge, and/or an wise mature person who reflects on his or her own repertoire of knowledge to address his or her own needs.

Initially, in 1990, Salovey and Mayer defined EI as "the ability to monitor one's own and other' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and action" (p. 189). Later in 1997, Mayer and Salovey revised this original definition due to their need to include elements that reflects

individuals thinking about feeling. As a result, Mayer and Salovey's 1997 revised definition was the following:

Emotional intelligence involves the ability of perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (p.10)

In addition, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) maintained that their four-Branch Model of EI consist of four areas of concentration such as: (1) perceiving, (2) facilitating, (3) understanding, and (4) managing emotions. Mayer et al. (2011) contends that the Mayer-Salovery-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, (MSCEIT) was designed to test their four branch model. A full detail description of the MSCEIT is presented in chapter 3 as it is the primary EI instrument used in this study.

A mixed EI model: Daniel Goleman and associates. As Matthews et al. (2002) proclaimed, Goleman's work is clearly recognized as the vehicle that popularized the conceptualization of EI. Goleman (1995) contended that EI is directly aligned with essential competencies that can be learned and enhanced upon. Goleman (1995) argued that EI was defined as the "*abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to emphasize and to hope.*"(p. 34). Most noteworthy, Goleman (1995) stressed that the human experience of dealing emotions entailed the prediction that people have two minds (two brains) such as a (logical- rational and ill rational-emotional). Equally important, he proclaimed that a

significant event could cause the emotional mind to supersede the rational mind and he defines this occurrence as emotional hijacking, which causes several brain related actions to occur (Goleman, 1995).

In addition, Goleman (1995) distinctly made several claims related to EI. For instance, he argued that IQ only accounts for at best 20% of factors that can establish one's ability to be successful; while, the other 80% involves other elements inclusive of EI. In addition, as they reflected on their 15 year historical review of EI, Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) speculated that this argument related to IQ set an optimistic tone for educational and business sectors to generate massive amounts of proposals that focused on elements (including EI) other than IQ to improve work performance. Goleman (1995) relates EI to be a tool that can be used as a means to increase productivity and addressed several other issues relating to emotions and abilities such as being smart and emotionally dumb, knowing yourself, slaves of passion, aptitude, empathy, managing the heart, emotional illiteracy and trauma and so forth.

Accordingly, to effectively measure the elements of competency, Boyatzis, and Sala (2004) argued that a measurement tool must address the behavior and intent of individuals. At the outset, Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000) reformulated the EI definition to encompass the integration of Goleman's (1995) definition of EI and his (1998) definition of EI competency along with the work of his associate. Boyatzis et al. (2000) claimed emotional intelligence related to a person's competencies relative to managing one's self and capabilities of social interactions. Consequently, these authors contended that the Emotional Competence Inventory (ECI) effectively measures the

competency model that Goleman (1998b) established and later revised in Goleman (2001a). The ECI is a multi-rater instrument that employs a "360" methodology that includes participation of management and their subordinates as well as their peers rating feedback. (Zeidner, et al. 2009). As Boyatzis, and Sala (2004) maintained, the ECI was revised to create the current ECI-2 version due the need to create a shorter version of the test due to time constraints .

Currently, Boyatzis and Sala (2004) contented that the descriptive characteristics of the ECI-2 consists of 72 items that represent eighteen scales of competency with four items to address each scale. In addition, they concur that it is particularly developed to use in the business realm. However, the ECI-U (the university version) was designed to be used in the college and/or university environment (Boyatzis, and Sala, 2004).

In light of ECI-2's validity, there were several debates that are currently presented, however, the ECI remains in use as a well-known EI testing instrument. Zeidner, et al. (2009) argued that more research is needed to substanian the validity of the ECI. However, Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) maintained that this methodology was substantially easier and faster than actually interviewing individuals individually. In sum, Boyatzis and Sala (2004 contend that the competency scales are indeed reliable, however, they maintain that much more research is needed to effectively understand the elements involved in analyzing ECI competencies that affects life and work.

A wellbeing EI model: Bar-On. Bar-On's (1997) theory and model are not new to the field of the study of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995, 2005). Bar-On was

acknowledged as an international emotional intelligence expert and pioneer in the field of emotional intelligence (Druskat et al., 2006). Bar-On (2006) argued that his studies and definition of EI was built on the foundation that influenced by the work of Darwin as itt centered on the specific importance of expressions of emotions related to factors of life and Thorndike's (1920) descriptions of social intelligence revelative to one's performance as well as s EI Wechsler's (1943) conception of "nonintellective" elements. BarOn (1997) stated the following:

> Emotional intelligence is defined ....as an array of non-cognitive capabilities,
> competences, and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with
> environmental demands and pressures. As such, one's emotional intelligence is
> an important factor in determining one's ability to succeed in life and directly
> influences one's general psychological well-being (i.e., one's present mental
> condition or overall degree of emotional health). (p. 14)

Bar-On (2006) argued that his EQ-i model was based on the factors of one's emotional and social state. Bar-On's (2000) focal point of his to address one's emotional state as it examined various factors relative to the effects of emotional and social interactions. Ultimately, Bar-On (2000, 2006) advocated the importance of EI and argued that psychologists as well as lay people are trying to understand the concept; however, he argued that the term emotional-social intelligence was more appropriate than social intelligence or emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006).

Bar-On (2006) argued that his ESI model process was operationalized through the implementation of the Emotional Quotient Inventory (the EQ-i). Druskat et al. (2006)

(EQ-i) is recognized as being the first emotional intelligence test published by a psychological testing publisher (Bar-On, 2000). Druskat et al. (2006) contended that Bar-On's work in the field was extensive as it included: his efforts to co-edited major books and articles (Goleman,1995/2005), assisted in the development of the EQ-360 Assessment and the EQ Interview (two additional testing instrument used to assess emotional intelligent behaviors), and was used to conduct major research projects. For a period of over 17 years, as Bar-On (2006) maintained, his research had been used in analyzing aspects of his model. The EQ-I has been used to collect data in various cultural setting that includes more than fifteen countries across the world and has been translated into more than 30 different languages to accommodated its implementation (Bar-On, 2000, 2006). In short, Bar-On (2006) argued that this rigorous investigation has contributed to the validation of the robustness of his model.

Bar-On began his development of the EQ-i model and argues his effort to mold its conceptualization has been continuous as it maintains an empirical based theory. The EQ-I has 133 test items that are presented in short sentences that correlates with a 5-point response scale with a variable textual response format (Bar-On2000; 2006). The EQ-I was designed for participants from the age of 17 years of age to older adults and takes about 40 minutes to compile the test (Bar-On, 2006). Hughes and Terrel, 2012) noted the following undated report given by Multi-Health Systems (MHS) regarding Bar-On's current status of testing instruments:

The updated report is knowm as the EQ-i. The EQ360 is a multi-rater format, also supported by the new normative research. The EQ-I and EQ360 utilize a 1-5-15 method

of scoring in which there is a single overall emotional intelligence score called the "Total EQ." This is broken down into the five composites scales: Self-Perception, Self-Epression, Interpersonal, Decision Making, Stress Management. These five scales are each made up of three specific skills, for a total of fifteen competencies. (p.18)

Bar-On's scientific work is focused on human well-being (Goleman, 1995, 2005). Currently, Hughes and Terrell (2012) argued that the EQ-i is recognized as a well-research self-reporting instrument that has measures aspects of social and emotional intelligence for the time-period of thirty years. In regards to EI, well-being, and life success, Day (2004) maintained that some evidence existed to suggest that EI traits were related to factors of well-being and the reduction of self-reported issues such as depression, stress, and other related factors of well-beings. In sum, Bar-On (2006) argued that the continued use of ESI (emotional-social intelligence) approaches could eventually lead to new ways to map out elements of this construct and suggested that future researchers should create a comprehensive model that can capture more elements of emotional and social factors which could prove more effective in addressing the inclusive issues of emotional-social intelligence for individuals' well-being and life time success.

EI Issues and Concerns

The popularity of EI. Mayer (1999) cautioned individuals to be careful to not stretch the meaning EI out of its context. Although, as Mayer (1999) claims that the popularity of the concept of EI was mostly inspired by Daniel Goleman's 1995, book Emotional Intelligence, he argued that EI had developed into two different worlds. As Mayer (1999) stressed, one world of EI is based on popular worldly literature such as

books, newspapers and magazines and the other world of EI is centered of scientific examination. To add, Zeidner et al. (2009) proclaimed that Goleman's (1995), book increased people's interest to learn more about emotions due to the lack of the American culture to address issues of people related emotions as it mainly focuses on academic qualifications and standardize testing. Furthermore, Matthews et al. (2011) declared that Goleman (1995) made connections with people about controlling their emotions due to the fact many people can relate to a time when they or someone that they know failed victim to their emotions and was lead astray to do something that they regret doing. In sum, Goleman's 1995, book challenged people about thinking about their emotions, according to Zeidner et al. (2009) and Matthews, et al. (2011). However, Mayer (1999) invited serious researchers to address the issue of EI.

In spite of the issue concerning possible negative effects inspired by the increased massive awareness of EI (Mayer, 1999), Mattehews et al. (2011) proclaimed that the notion of EI has gone viral. Zeidner et al. (2009) posited that Goleman's 1995 book, *Emotional intelligence*, gained favor as it has made powerful connections with the general public, professional groups as well as the academic arena. In fact, Goleman (2001a, 2005) argues that his 1995 book, *Emotional Intelligence*, has received attention and interest across this world in more than fifty countries as it has been translated into their languages and it has sold more than five million print copies worldwide. Matthews et al. (2011) asserts that Goleman's (1995) book, *Emotional Intelligence*, is acknowledge as the bestselling psychology book that has be ever published.

To add, Matthews et al. (2002) argue, while Goleman's efforts seems to have had an extremely powerful impact on the popularization of the conceptualization of EI, Goleman (2005) maintains specifically that Jack Mayer and Peter Salovey's seminal 1990 article, Emotional intelligence, was extremely impactful in persuading him to develop interest the field of EI. In addition, Matthews et al. (2002) stressed that Mayer, Salovey's and their associates have been the most influential in the scientific development of EI. Goleman (1995, 2005), and Matthews et al. (2002, 2011) concurred that Mayer and Salovey's (1997) popular research was important and their useful scholarly writing are well noted by researchers that their work, from the onset, has lead the way in grounding the study of EI in a sound structural scientific matter.

In addition, as Goleman (2005, 2011), Druskat et al. (2006), Matthews et al. (2002) and, Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) contended that Bar-On is well-known for his (1997) writing that was focused on EI related research as it is ommonly acknowledged for being a significant contribution to the field of EI. Goleman (2005) also proclaimed that Bar-On is well-known for his research efforts and they are of significant as well as worthy to be acknowledged. Bar-On's (1997) focus on issues relating to individuals' well-being and ability to be successful as it is relative to emotional intelligence.   In addition, Bar-On is recognized for producing the first effective commercialized EI testing instrument (Druskat et al. 2006; Fernandez-Berrocal &Extremera, 2006). Ultimately, Goleman (2005) specifically, asserted that Bar-On is a source of a wealth of academic knowledge due to the fact his work has be instrumental in

providing structure for the mass accumulated knowledge related to EI by editing and writing numerous books and articles directly related to the field of EI.

The meaning of intelligence as it is relative to EI. In Mayer, Caruso et al. (2000a.) and Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) stressed their disapproval of EI being defined as a list of attributes, abilities and/or personality traits and it not being centered on only factors relating the traditional conceptualization of emotions and intelligence. They suggested that researchers such as Goleman (1995) and Bar-On (1997) appeared to claim that EI included a multitude of factors. Goleman (1995) was also challenged about his EI framework. Goleman's (1995) EI framework focused on 25 emotional competencies and BarOn's (1997) of EI platform included an array of capabilities, skills, and competencies. Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) claimed that it is inappropriate to relabeled elements of personality traits and presents them as elements of emotional intelligence competencies. Zeidner et al. (2009) specifically, presented a critical review of factors relating to EI and its possible factors as they are related to the realm of intelligence.

Nevertheless, Goleman (2001b) contended that on one hand, he agreed with Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) who suggested that a person who has a nature of being warm and fuzzy towards others may be displaying a personality trait. However, Goleman (2001b) maintained that if the person is showing the ability to act positive when interacting with others, it could be a form of EI competency. Matthews, Zeidner and Roberts (2011) maintained that Goleman's intent was to alert people about the importance of handling their emotions and was intended to assist people to have better relationships and to perform better at work.

Notwithstanding, Goleman (2001a) argued that all emotional competencies require people to effectively use skills that require the use of cognitive and emotional domains. The most substantial issue related to Goleman's (1998) argument is that people who are emotional competent have to effectively use skills that combine cognitive and emotional competences. In addition, Goleman (1998) argued that when people wanted to present a convincing and persuasive argument; they speak to the heart as well as the head. Goleman (2000) argued that emotional intelligence competency consisted of clusters of factors relating to behaviors and gave account for various EI factors. To add, Matthews, et al. (2011) contended that organizations often assume that EI skills are easier to learn than cognitive skills and they can be a means to increase employee morale and development.

Furthermore, in Goleman (2001a), he argued from a more refined perspective of EI as he directly focused on performance and presents a revised performance competency model. According Goleman (2001a), this current revised framework for EI competencies improved designed is derived from data from an internal research of that analyzed undreds of top performers of various corporation and organizations. As a result, this emotional competency framework focused on performance model that consisted on distintive clusters of competencies that centers on the awareness and management of one's emotional self and the awareness of one's social interactions as well as attention to how one develops and manage relationships (Goleman, 2001a). In essence, these competencies were consolidation from twenty-five present in the 1998 framework to twenty competences that centered on two primary sectors of emotional intelligence:

recognition and regulation (Goleman, 2001a). Zeidner, et al. (2009) claimed that due to the expressed concern that Goleman received from Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) that related to Goleman (1995) him of using every possible trait of personalities in his EI framework, Goleman's (2001a) new efforts were more direct and he created a more systematized approach to define competences of EI.

The definition of EI. Issues and concerns regarding the definition of EI presents a controversial issue (Murphy, 2006). For example, Emo et al. (2006), and Matthews, at el. (2006) stressed that, a formal single definition for EI has not been developed to explain what it is and what it should address. According to Murphy (2006), there needs to be at least a defensible working definition of EI; so, a scientific research process can be conducted and it can be systematically test. Moreover, Matthews, at el. (2012) also noted the lack of present of a sound definition of EI and they note that in the study of psychology, the task of defining terms and creating reliable and valid measurements is a necessity for the science of EI. On the other hand, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) raised an interesting point of concern; they argue that it is useless to determine a single definition for a given term concerning the fact the dictionary often present more than one definition for a given term/concept. Accordingly, considering the multiple issues that must be addressed relating to EI (Zeidner et al., 2009) this is an issue that should be considered.

The domain of EI. Although there maybe others, two major myths will be addressed in this discussion. First, Goleman (2005) argued that the myth that conveys the point that IQ only accounting for 20% of one's potential for success with the remaining 80% to be determined by EI is not true. To give clarification, he stressed the fact that the

80% left include many other variables as well as those that include factors of EI. Secondly, the myth that EI is the only element that measurement to determine one's success and elements of IQ can be exempt is not true. In fact, IQ tests are still considered as one of the most use effective instruments to determined individuals levels of success (Flecther, & Hattie, 2011; Zeidner et al. 2009). However, it still can be argued that the issues of using only IQ tests to effectively evaluate one's potential to be successful still remains (Flecther, & Hattie, 2011; Zeidner et al. 2009) .

From another perspective, the concern relating to the focus of EI as it is viewed as a form of traditional intelligence is prevalent. Consequently, Mayer, Caruso et al. (2000a) and Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) and Zeidner (2009) pointed out that Goleman's writings conflicts with traditional meaning of intelligence. For instance, Although there are others, Zeidner et al. (2009) maintained that Goleman (1995) thesis conflicted with several traditional principles of psychology such as: (1) he claimed that EI could be learned and increased anytime over a person's life span, but traditional intelligence is viewed as a more stable development over a fairly stable time period, and (2) his definition reflects personality and not ability that is generally found in traditional intelligence. Similarly, Mayer et al.(2000b) argued that theorists such as Goleman (1995) who included a broad list emotional competencies as well as theories such as Bar-On's who included an array of capacities and competencies in method of assessments namely the EQ-I do not appear to hold up effectively. Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) contended that traditional intelligence does not normally reflect components of personality such as self-control, optimism, and/or elements relating to these various capabilities and/or

competencies. Whereas, Goleman (2001b) argued that Mayer, Salovey et al. (2000b) already confirmed that EI met all the needed criterion to sustain itself as an intelligence, but at the same time, he suggested that Gardner' s (1983) writing showed that the inclusion of non-traditional faculties is warranted and it validated that the meaning of intelligence can be extended beyond its traditional scope to include non-traditional human faculties (Goleman, 2001b).

Different models and approaches. In addition, the different approaches of EI models and measurements represented two major conflicting forms: ability based and mixed base (MacCann, Matthews, Zeidner, and Roberts, 2004). The ability based approach reflects the concept of measuring mental abilities by utilizing various objective tasks to determine intelligence (Mayer, et al., 2000). On the contrary, the mixed base model approach reflected a broader scope that includes both abilities and qualities that may be inclusive of both aspects of personality and motivational traits (Zeidner, et al., 2009). However, Geher, et al., (2004) maintained there were some consensuses among researchers who mainly agreed that the level of EI is determined by individuals differences and is display as an ability(s) or competency(s) as EI cultivates with an individuals' ages. Furthermore, Geher, et al., (2004) contended that most researchers believe that it is important to related EI to both personal and interpersonal qualities. Consequently, Zeidner, et al (2009) declared that, these conflicts mostly exist because various psychologists forecast differently what EI should represent and they direct their investigation towards the desired results that they are seeking to obtain.

Historical issues relative to EI. Furthermore, there are issues related to researchers' discussion of the historical origin of EI (Landy, 2005) that should be addressed. For instance, Landy (2005) claimed that EI researchers such as (Mayer& Salovey, 1993; Goleman, 1995, 2005) mostly linked to E. L. Thorndike's comments that he made in the Harper's Magazine regarding the existence of the term of "social intelligence" to establish traces of EI's origin, however, he argued that this is not a valid strategy. Landy (2005) claimed that perhaps Thorndike's only meant to clarify and made this distinction to help laypersons better understand intelligence by showing that its meaning is complex and did not focus on one element of intelligence. Whereas, Fiedeldey-VanDijk, (2009) declared that a "social" element is present in nearly all EI/EQ models or assessment in which seems to be highlighted to bring attention to the importance of intelligence regarding relationships with others. In addition, Goleman (1995/2005) maintained that Bar-On's focal point focuses on and individual's social well-being. In sum, Landy's (2005) final comments suggested that future EI research should be well focused on elements of sound research efforts.

The growth of EI. Moving forward, although, the previous mention issues and concerns are valid, there are convincing reasons that supports why these issues and concerns has occurred, as Druskat et al. (2006) maintain. Consequently, Kram (2006) suspected that these issues and concerns of definitions, measurements, and testing arecommon and is expected in the developmental stages of new constructs such as EI. She argued that researchers have made notable efforts of advancement to define EI and create measurements of validity and reliability (Kram, 2006). By same token, Matthews

et al. (2012) affirmed that researchers have endeavored to create EI tests and measurements to determine emotionally intelligent individuals from those who are emotionally challenged. Likewise, Mayer et al. (2011) maintained that the current study of EI is in an era that leans itself for clarification and empirical examination. Druskat et al (2006) also contended that, the study of EI has existed for over a decade and researchers are accustom to studies that address concepts like EI as it is in its state of infancy.

The state of EI. Above all, 20 years plus later, EI in its current state is well acknowledged (Zeidner, et al., 2009). In Goleman's (2005) famous book , *Emotional Intelligence* (*10th year Anniversary Edition)* he proclaimed that the conceptual theory of EI has proliferated across this planet and the word EI (EQ in some countries) is recognized in different languages (as previously mentioned). Mayer et al. (2011) maintained that EI has generated popularity in well-know media and scientific academic environments as it has established its meaning and applications. Zeidner, et al. (2009) noted that EI is present almost everywhere and people of all walks of life such as educators, life-style gurus, and business administrators recognize its importance. Futhermore, Fletcher and Hattie (2011) argued that the momentum of researchers exploring other measures, besides IQ, to determine individual levels of intelligence is still progressing. In add, Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) proclaimed that, a notable factor is that researchers have develop an exemplarity amount of research instruments for the measurement and assessment of the EI concepts when compare to other concepts of its kind such as the Theory of Multiple Intelligences in which should be observed. Finally, Fernandez-Berrocal and Extremera (2006) argued that years of

research have examined the relationship between emotion and reasoning; whereas, the years in the 90's mostly involved the development of the EI's conceptualizations and assessment instruments and the 21st century brought about an explosive amount of empirical research that can contribute to EI's (as well as other constructs) development for the good of all people.

Effective Leadership in Higher Education

Leadership Compared to Management in Higher Education

Parrish (2011) presented a compelling argument regarding the issue of differences in the roles of leadership opposed to management in higher education. This argument denoted the existence of two different cultures with significant paradigms—leadership and management—that were directly related to the environment of higher education and its ability to be successful (Parrish, 2011). Along this same line, as Kuiper (2005) argued, the higher education domain has two cultures — management and academic—that simply communicate indirectly and at a minimum. He claimed that the management culture centered around managing resources with goals of generating revenue and the academic culture focuses one scholastic issues of reading, teaching, and learning, in which leadership's primary focus of success is to be a resource to the community instead of being a mean of sustaining in the midst of the environment (Kuiper, 2005). Whereas, Kalargyrou, Pescosolido, and Kalargiros (2012) maintained that historically academic leadership in higher education refers to elements of personal traits and management proficiencies—related to management of financials, materials, and general management capabilities— as both are concerned as needed business skills. In contrast, Scott et al.

(2008) contended that management referred to operational matters and leadership as strategic functions.

Both, Scott et al. (2008) and Kalargyrou et al. (2012) investigated the issue of management versus leadership capabilities in their research studies. In their study, Scott et al. (2008) argued that collectively, 513 leaders from various Australian educational institutions made notable distinctions between leadership and management in the higher education context. Scott et al. (2008) concluded that these leaders suggested that management centered on operational day to day issues, focused on the present, efficiently and effectively functions of managers doing the right things and was considered as a more formal position that managers asked how things were done and was skill based. On the other hand, Scott et al. (2008)posited that leadership was projected as a strategic function that focused on the future of directing the vision to achieve with leaders doing the right thing and their position could be formal or informal as these leaders asked why questions with a diagnostic tone. In this study, the difference between management and leadership was significant as management was seen as a subset of leadership (Scott et al., 2008). However, the participants viewed successful leadership as leaders with requisite management skills (Scott et al., 2008).

Kalargyrou et al.'s (2012) study was a component of a larger study with a focused sample use. As a pilot study, the participants included eight experts (four faculty and four administrators). An email questionnaire instrument was used and it rendered questions to the participants in the form of semi-open and open-ended questions that focused on capabilities of leaders in higher education and their needed particular behaviors in order

to be effective leaders (Kalargyrou et al., 2012). The finding suggested that both faculty and administrators participants ranked the needed skills set as requisite in effective leadership, and such skills consisted of business related skills and those that were interpersonally, cognitively and strategically focused; however, their results considered business skills—considered   all facets of management that included fundamental management skills, personnel operational skills, financial, and materials skills – were perceived as the most important capabilities needed for effective leadership (Kalargyrou et al., 2012).

As Parrish (2011) maintained, the arguments concerning the scope and conceptualization of management and leadership in the field of higher education are debatable. Parrish (2011) contended it was apparent that they are both important components of successful leadership and the debate concerning their value will continue. In reference to this challenge, Cooper and Boice-Pardee (2011) asserted higher educational institutions are demanding organizations with multifaceted competing goals and resources; therefore, they are faced with inevitable conflicts that require leaders to have numerous skills to address these issues. However, as Northouse (2010) declared, leadership and management are different, and noted that leadership is more focus of direction and vision and aligning and motivating people to obtain the vision. Whereas, Northouse (2010) claimed management involved the function of planning and organizing controlling issues, challenges, and problems of effective accomplish leadership visions. Overall, as Northouse (2010) maintained, effective leadership without effective management could yield ineffective and/or misdirected outcomes as well as the potential

success of an organization is centered on its ability to foster both effective leadership skills and management functions. Other researchers supported the notion that successful leadership understands that leaders must be prepared to address change using leadership and management capabilities (Drew, 2010; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Nevarz & Wood, 2010).

Change and Effective Leadership in Higher Education

As Fullan and Scott (2009) contended, effective leadership in HE recognizes and identifies the need to address issues relating to continuous change. They firmly argued that it is not only critical for HE leadership to understand the full scope and need of addressing issues of change , but it is most important that leaders in HE recognize the value of evolving and changing within the context of its environment (Fullan and Scott, 2009). Nevarez and Wood (2010) maintained and emphasized the need for HE leadership to realize and understand the bases of changes as they are related to both individuals and their institutions. In general, Drew (2010) argued the importance, now more than ever before of the role of HE leadership in promoting change by engaging productivity and collaboration of others from various industries that have some of the same challenges and concerns. Ideally, Fullan and Scott (2009) maintained that leadership of HE must embrace external changes and direct internal changes, accordingly.

Fullan and Scott (2009) posited that external environmental forces are growing rapidly and intensively. Fullan and Scott (2009) claimed the primary external factors that must be addressed are: globalization (world requirements), world competition (world players), baby boomers (retiree and recruitment issues), revolution of IT (informational

technology issues), and testy requirements of societal divisions (requirements of social, generation, and political classes). challenging the field of higher education to embrace change. Drew's (2010) argument supported this notion by stressing the need for HE to prepare different form of strategies of engagement to effectively address various compelling existing external challenges. Over all, Bolden, Petrov, Gosling and, Bryman, (2009) emphasized the issue of leadership in higher education institutions need to be prepared to meet address challenging societal expectations related to change.

In terms of the internal platform of higher education, c advocated that the HE institutions must be change-capable and prepared to embrace external change factors by taking action when needed. As Fullan and Scott (2009) posit, HE leadership is essential, and in order for HE to be change-capable and change-ready it is imperative that HE leadership foster team collaboration constructively and productively to create strategies that will address change effectively and efficiently. Scott et al. (2008) concur by stressing that effective HE leadership plays an important role in assisting institutions to effectively mange change successfully. As Scott et al. (2008) maintained, leadership must acquirer new skills needed to address rapid changes as well as to be prepared to properly direct their institutions to new directions when needed. From another perspective argument, Shamsuddin, Chee-Ming, Wahab, and Kassim (2012) address the issue of HE institutions and change as they strongly supported the argument that HE institutions must stay connected with external environmental changes and successfully address them as they stress it is the only way it can survive and meet the ever changes expectations of this society.

According to Scott (2008), it is evident that there is a broad range of relevant concerns regarding the need of leadership in higher education to orchestrate and accommodate change externally and internally as it strategizes to focus on continuous improvement. Shaw (2012) agreed by illuminating the fact that the nature and platform of higher education is obviously changing and argues that 21st century leadership is the catalyze for change and movement within higher educational institutions. As Fullan and Scott (2010) contended, the ultimate challenge for leadership in higher education is to promote constant growth and prosperity by not only attracting and enrolling students, but retaining and assisting them to move forward and graduate. By graduating more individuals, Fullan and Scott (2010) argued that institutions in HE could have a moral impact as they could help elevate individuals' quality of life which could increase our nation's population's level of skills and could cause individuals to be more productive and innovative as they improve this nation's level of productivity.

Importance of Effective Leaders' Leadership in Higher Education

Scott, Bell, Coates, and Grebennikov (2010) posited that effective leaders in higher education leaders play a critical role in ensuring that their leadership stabilizes and positions their institutions to accomplish and exceed its potentials to be successful. In contrast, Bryman (2007) proclaimed, effective leadership in higher education is different from the tradition sense of leadership and must be a carefully approached with a subtle focus on leading higher educational professionals and direct attention to supporting and directing the educational cause is most of importance. Bryman (2007) argued that due to the impactful results derived from leadership in higher education, it could be more

feasible that effective leadership centered on what it should avoid doing versus what it should being doing. Whereas, Scott et al. (2008) maintained that effective leaders in higher education make listening, linking, and leading a process that serves as a platform for the development of practical strategies to successfully achieve leadership goals. Ultimately, Fullan and Scott (2009) strongly argued that effective leadership in higher education can connect, motivate, and inspires people to work together to successfully accomplish results that have never been obtained before. Ideally, as Siddique, Aslam, Khan, and Fatima (2011) asserted, effective leadership in higher education can be instrumental in motivating people to successfully work toward reaching goals and objectives as well as to face challenges and engage in opportunities.

In higher education, Hollander (2013) contended that success is determined by various elements. These elements, according to Hollander (2013) include: both precisely measureable factors such as student enrollment and completion, rates for intuitions, faculty turnovers as well as complex measureable components such as faculty's productivity and reputation. To add, Scott et al. (2008) proclaimed that the field of higher education also relies on other difficult to measure outcomes to provide significant indicators of success such as: more knowledgeable citizens, better prepared professionals, and individuals with increased skill-sets to address various industries and subject matters. Whereas, Bolden et al. (2009) argued that those who are concerned with effective leadership should understand the great responsibility and privilege of higher educational institutions as they must focus on educating the present and future generations and

embark upon the challenge and opportunity of create resources that are based upon theory and research.

According to the argument of Scott et al. (2008), effective HE leaders' leadership must address important complexities in an educational environment that are different from an enterprising business setting. Scott et al. (2008) claims this difference is due to three primary issues directly related to HE as it need to: (1) gain followership, (2) meet government expectations to some degree, and (3) address goals of teaching and learning. Ong's (2012) contention confirmed this notion and argues that corporate leadership centers on performance skill-sets and profitability as well as return on investment; whereas, educational leadership is concerned with motivating others to obtain and apply knowledge and skills as well as to increase technical expertise. To add, Greenockle's (2010) argument was aligned with this notion as well as he claimed that HE leadership's perspective is different from that of corporate leadership in that it often encompasses the responsibility of teaching and producing scholarly development. However, Greenockle (2010) firmly maintained that both leadership of business and education have observed a modification in the deployment of leadership practices as they are moving toward a mentoring leadership component that inclusively includes a team-orientation and collaborative approach.

Empirical Investigation of Effective Leadership in Higher Education

As it is relative to a comprehensive empirical examination, Scott et al. (2008) maintain that little empirical investigation has been conducted to address elements relating to leadership effectiveness as it is relative to defining specific factors related to

leaders' behaviors needed in higher education. As previously argued, the approach of effective leadership in higher education should be directed from a different stance than that of traditional leadership in other business like forums (Greenockle, 2010; Ong, 2012; Scott et al., 2008). In efforts to gather information regarding leadership effectiveness in higher education, it has been revealed through the review and synthesis of the literature, several researchers specifically argue and point to essential factors and needs that could be deployed to promote effective leadership in the domain of higher education (Bolden et al., 2009; Drew, 2010; Parrish, 2011; Shaw, 2012).

For example, as concerns regarding effective leadership in higher education relating to departmental leaders mounted, Bryman (2007) argued that more empirical research related to effective leadership behaviors and leadership styles in higher education was needed and contended that a thorough literature review could rendered notable results that could be considered. Although there was an issue of lack of research that addressed effective leadership behaviors in higher education, Bryman's (2008) ventured to conduct a scholarly review by creating a criterion that systematically investigate the literature to identify effective leadership behaviors that could increase leadership performance in higher education. A criteria for this literature was structure in order to provide quality research information and it was based upon such requirements to only included scholarly articles that where derived from primary research sources with at least secondary data analysis, clearly stated research goals of research, and the research had to been conducted in a systematic matter with methodology directed related to the goals at hand (Bryman, 2007).

After conducting a thorough literature review from three different countries (Australia, UK, and USA) and hundreds of articles, Bryman (2008) only selected 20 of these articles that met the required criteria. As result of this examination, Bryman (2008, p. 697) identified 13 types of behaviors that could be present in effective leadership in higher education and they consisted of:

1. Setting clear sense of direction and /or strategic forecast;

2. Organizing structural arrangements to give a sense of facilitation and direction;

3. Having consideration for others;

4. Addressing academic staff with fairness and integrity;

5. Displaying a sense of trustworthiness and personal levels of integrity;

6. Promoting open communication and the opportunity for participation in key decision making;

7. Proving clear directions about the goals of the department;

8. Being a role model ad establishing credibility;

9. Developing a positive/scholastic work environment;

10. Creating a sense of proactive and creative visionary approach to address the goals of the institution with respect internal requirements;

11. Proving performance feedback;

12. Offering resources to adjust workloads as needed to stimulate scholastic research; and

13. Ensuring academic advancements to enhance the reputation of the department.

According to Parrish's (2011) argument and investigative study, these behaviors could be applicable at not only the departmental leadership level; but the institutional levels as well.

Whereas Scott et al., (2010) examined senior leaders' performance in higher education as they reflected on leadership during these changes times and argues that the finding from this study could be used to address current issues relating to the crisis of succession for leaders in significant senior roles. The study consisted of the participation of 31 senior leaders (Pro Vice-Chancellors and Deputy Vice-Chancellors) who were participants also involved in a larger study with more than 500 senior educational leaders in 20 higher educational institutions located in Australia. These senior leaders were asked to participant age give their input to identify key senior leadership practices in domain of higher education.

The goals of this study focused on highlighting a criterion for leaders to judge their level of effective performance and outlined the impactful influences pertaining to their work environment. In addition, the issues of how these seniors viewed their work experience in these leadership roles were explored and the effort to identify leadership capabilities to effectively manage the context of their environment was investigated. Scott et al. (2010) revealed 57 capabilities reflecting both cognitive and EI factors that addressed effective leadership. However, only the top ranked15 high order capabilities were presented as being essential, these included:

1. The ability to be transparent and honest when interacting with others;

2. Being knowledgeable of how higher educational institutions operate;

3. Maintaining personal values as well as ethics;

4. having the willingness to accept a hard decision;

5. Having the desire to achieve the best possible outcome;

6. Being mindful to motivate others to accomplish positive outcomes;

7. being calm in the mist of situations that may unexpectedly and/or render unwanted impactful pressure;

8. Being able to effectively influence others' behaviors as well as their decisions;

9. Having the capability to effectively present to a diverse group of people;

10. Being able to be organize and employ time manage skills effectively;

11. Being able to thoroughly understand leadership responsibilities and required achievable goals;

12. Having the ability to effectively chair various meeting;

13. Having perseverance when it is needed in challenging times;

14. Being able to accept responsibility the outcomes of projects/programs; and,

15. Capable of seeing a positive and best effective way to respond to challenging and, situations. (p.407)

Scott et al. (2010) maintained that overall the finding in this study confirmed the significance of higher educational leaders' roles in promoting the success of their institutions is notable.

The Assessment of Effective Leadership Capabilities in Higher Education

In this study, the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) will be used to assess community college higher educational leaders' leadership capabilities. The LPI rests upon

an evidence-based foundation with a track record of over 1.3 million research surveys employed and analyzed (Kouzes & Posner, n.d.). To add, it has been used in over 500 research projects and dissertations that addressed various industries including higher education (Kouzes & Posner, n.d.) . Through the examination of thousands of LPI surveys, Kouzes and Posner (2002) posit that the conceptual focus of the LPI manifested from the collected of data rendered through the exploration of the responses to the questionnaires and case studies as they address issues regarding leadership best principles and practices. The fundamental framework and foundation for LPI is grounded on what Kouzes and Posner's (2012) refer to as, "The Leadership Challenge", five practices and 10 extraordinary commitments for effective leadership (See Appendix A) . The five practices include: 1) Modeling the way, 2) Inspiring a shared vision, 3.) Challenging the process, 4.) Enabling others to take action, 5.) Encouraging the heart of others.

In examining the research results of Bryman's (2007) top ranked effective leadership behaviors and Scott et al. 's (2010) effective leadership capabilities, one can connect, map and align them with Kouzes and Posner's (2012) elements of effective leadership namely, "The Leadership Challenge". With the mind sight to illustrate the alignment of these valuable resources, Table 1 was developed by the researcher to give an visual presentation of their similarities. As of the results, it is revealed that the higher educational research finding of Byman's (2007) and Scott et al.'s, (2010) are parallel with Kouzes and Posner's (2012) effective leadership practices, namely, "The Leadership Challenge". This implies that the deployment of Kouzes and Posner's (2012) LPI

assessment tool is a likely to be a valid fit for assessing senior educational community college leaders' leadership practices that will be addressed in this study.

The alignment of effective leadership behaviors and capabilities created by Bryman (2007) and Scott, Bell, Coates, and Grebennikov (2010) with Kouzes and Posner's (2012) elements of effective leadership, "The Leadership Challenge" is presented in Table 1 and it proves to show similarities among the various variables.

Table 1

The Leadership Challenge and the

Five Elements of Effective Leadership

(Kouzes And Posner, 2012)

		Modeling the Way	Inspiring the Shared Vision	Challenging the Process	Enabling Others to Act	Encouraging others' heart
		1. Clarify values 2. Set the example	3.Envision the future 4. Enlist t others	5. Search for opportunities 6. Experiment and take risks	7. Foster collaboration 8. Strengthen others	9. Recognize contributions 10. Celebrate the values and victories
Effective Leadership behaviors, and/or Capabilities	Bryman (2007)	1.- Setting clear sense of direction and strategic forecast; 5.- Displaying a sense of trustworthiness and personal levels of integrity; 7.- Providing clear directions about the goals of the department 8.-Being a role model and establishing credibility.	6. - Promoting open communication and the opportunity for participation in key decision making; 10.-Creating a sense of proactive and creative visionary approach to address the goals of the institution with respect for internal requirements.	2.- organizing structural arrangements to give a sense of facilitation and direction.	9.- Developing a positive/ scholastic work Environment; 11.- Providing performance feedback; 12.- Offering resources to adjust workloads as needed to stimulate scholastic research; 13.-Ensuring academic advancements to enhance the reputation of the department.	3. - Having consideration for others; 4. - Addressing academic staff with fairness and integrity.

cott, Bell, Coates & Grebennikov (2010)	1. -Transparent and honest when interacting with others; 2.- knowledgeable of how higher educational institutions operate; 3.- Maintaining personal values as well as ethics; 4.- The willingness to accept a hard decision; 11.-Understand responsibilities and goals.	5. - Having the desire to achieve the best outcome; 8. -Effectively influencing others' behaviors as well as their decisions; 12.- Effectively able to chair meeting	13.-Able to perseverance when it is needed to challenging times; 14.- Able to accept responsibility for outcomes and projects.	6.- Being mindful to motivate others to accomplish positive outcomes; 9.- Effectively presenting to a diverse group of people; 10.- Able to organize and employ time management skills.	15.-Able to see a positive and vest effective way to responding to challenging and situations.

The Significance of Emotional Intelligence Related To

Leadership in Higher Education

The rapidly growing robust theory of Emotional Intelligence (EI) is a fairly new concept (Faguy, 2012).   Salovey and Mayer (1990) initially conceptualized it. It was broadly publicized by the work of Goleman in 1995 (Labby, Lunenburg & Slate, 2012). Greenockle (2010) declared that the comprehension of EI's relevance and importance to today's leadership in higher education is an essential key to the success and the progression of educating and effectively leading individuals during this new millennium. In addition, specifically, the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) proclaimed that it is imperative for the development and success of their leaders that a selective component of professionalism in its six-leadership competencies framework focused on community colleges leaders understanding the impact of their emotions personally and professionally (American Association of Community Colleges, 2005).

This is an significant issue as Roach (2009) asserted, community colleges were

viewed by the presidential administration of President Obama as being predominant players within the landscape of higher education and they are expected to be instrumental in confronting and recovering from the recession of the United States. However, although there has been an array of research that addressed various factors relating to EI in the business sector, as both, Parrish (2011) and Kreitz (2009) argued, there is a gap in the body of knowledge as well as evidence of empirical studies that address specific elements related to effective emotional intelligent leadership in higher education.

The current study attempts to fill that void by conducting an in-depth examination of the relevance of factors related to effective emotional intelligent leadership in higher education. Thereby, an investigation of the literature related to issues related to the association of higher education, leadership and emotional intelligence is essential. Progressing to the clarification of the competencies and/or abilities of emotional intelligent leadership in higher education and the relevance of EI for community college leaders' leadership is presented, exclusively.

Factors Related to Effective Emotional Intelligent Leadership in Higher Education

Northouse (2010) argued that the importance of the derived conceptualization of emotional intelligence points to the concept of effective leaders' leadership centering on leaders having an awareness of their emotions and addressing how these emotions impact their leadership. Comparatively, Goleman et al. (2002a) argued that whatever leaders sought to realize as feasible results from their leadership, their means of *how* they accomplish these goals are most important and should focus on steering followers'

emotions in a positive direction. Newman (2008) contended that now more than ever before there is an increased interest in the importance of the relationship between EI and leadership and it's identified distinctive characteristics of outstanding leaders. Consequently, Nadler (2011) proclaimed that leaders who center their leadership on leading with emotional intelligence are generally star performers; therefore, leaders should be competent in applying EI and prepared to exclusively practice leadership that inclusively includes emotional intelligence. Clearly, the literature offers ample scholarly writing reflecting the significance of emotional intelligence related to effective leadership (Barr & Dowding, 2012; Goleman, 1998a, 1998b, 2001, 2011a. 2011b; Kite, & Kay, 2012; Nadler, 2011).

Scott et al. (2008) contended that essential aspects of emotional intelligent leadership were critical to effective leadership and were directly related to effective performance across all leadership roles in higher education. Accordingly, Greenockle (2010) argued leadership in higher education must understand the conceptualization of EI and how it can promote emotional intelligent leadership. Furthermore, Kreitz (2009) posited that the relevance of EI traits and leadership in higher education is significant and can be impactful on leadership implications regarding recruitment, hiring, planning of leadership succession and retention in addition to being used as tools to determine pre-training skills and post-training outcomes.

On the other hand, Jdaitawi, Ishak, and Mustafa (2011) declared that EI training should be prevalent to leadership due to the implications that fostering EI in the community of higher education students could increase social and academic

modifications. Ideally, Greenockle (2010) proclaimed that leaders in academic leadership positions will benefit from becoming skillful in understanding and utilizing elements of EI skills that can assist them to become better coaches and mentors for individuals and team-members as they strive to provide effective emotional intelligent leadership in higher education.

Studies related to effective higher education leadership and EI. In a comprehensive study using both qualitative and quantitative methodologies, Parrish (2011) conducted a case study research examination of 11 participants from three Australian universities who consisted of full time employed academic leadership professionals to explore the relevance of the leadership in higher education being competent emotional intelligent leaders. In utilizing this unique form of mix methodology to bring about an in-depth understanding, Parrish (2011) employed a twofold approach: (1) used a quantitative the MSCEIT to assess and measure the participants' level of emotional intelligence and created a self-designed job satisfaction survey questionnaire to gauge participants personal and profession level of job satisfaction, and (2) collected qualitative data by conducting interviews of participants during a pre and post application of EI development program to investigate the participants' level of job satisfaction.

Parrish (2010) contended that the results revealed that all leadership participants who participated in the 11 comprehensive case studies identified emotional intelligence as a needed requirement for effective emotional intelligent leadership in higher education. Parrish (2011) argued that two significant discoveries are worthy to be noted: (1) leader's

leadership performance and capability can be improved by the awareness of emotional intelligence, and (2) effective EI development is effectively rendered when it is based upon strong, dependable, ongoing and affordable EI training.

On the other hand, Kreitz (2009) attested that most leadership research of university libraries tended to only address the issue the effectiveness of the directors related to their level of EI and not address the EI needs of other senior librarian management leaders. He argued that there is gap in EI's body of knowledge and research that address the EI needs of librarians related to all members of its leadership management team within the realm of higher education (Kreitz, 2009). In an effort to fill this gap, Kreitz (2009) conducted a study that surveyed leadership members of the Association of Research Libraries throughout the Western United States. This exploratory study identified the top ten most valued EI traits needed by their senior leadership (Kreitz, 2009). With eight out of 13 libraries participating that render 47 potential possible respondents, there was a 60% response rate that supported this study. According to Kreitz (2009) the most valued elements relating to competencies of emotional intelligent leadership were integrity, effective judgment, listening, working people, change agent leadership, and self- awareness and the least value trait was the settled level of "narcissism" meaning a leader being self-observed.

In sum, Greenockle, 2010) maintained that to be effective, leadership in higher education must embrace and establish new approaches that move its leadership beyond the focus of traditional leadership and address the paramount issues related to emotional

intelligent leadership that embrace dynamic challenges and opportunities in the world of today. Correspondingly, it has been argued that the relevance of effective leadership in higher education addressing the issue of their institutions being instrumental in assisting students to be emotional intelligent is significant and must be effectively adopted (Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Lillis, 2011; Liptak, 2005; Vandervoort, 2006). In fact, there were sound arguments that pointed to the importance of leadership in higher education need to prepare students to exhibit effective EI skills that could assist them to be successful personally and academically as well professionally in workplace (Bay, & Mckeage, 2006; Greenockle, 2010; Liptak, 2005). The factors that addressed the need for higher education to develop and enhance students' EI in the academic setting and professionally in the workplace environment will be addressed below.

The Enhancement of EI for Students in Higher Education

Bay and Mckeage (2006) specifically, argued that leadership was obligated to establish EI curricular requirements at all levels of higher education to prepare, develop and enhance its students' levels of EI. In fact, they argue that higher education should embrace the conceptualization of EI even though academia has not agreed upon its various concepts and applications (Bay & Mckeage, 2006). Along these lines, both Brackett, Rivers, and Salovey (2011) and Goleman (2011b) attested that although EI research is yet in its developing phases, it is well acknowledged that EI can be objectively measured and has been directly connected to significant life achievements as well as its associated skills can be learned. Above all, Greenockle, argued that it was imperative that academia recognize and identify the value of EI as an impeccable contrivance for

effective emotional intelligent leadership as well as a beneficial component that can help students become successful.

Just as importantly, Attiq-Ur-Rehman, Kousar, and Rahman (2012) argued that the contributions of higher education are recognized as major drivers of this country's economic and social development and maintains that leadership in higher education has the responsibility of providing students with cutting edge knowledge advances to be successful in businesses, and other professions. To put it succinctly, although it is underestimated, Labby, Lunenburg, and Slate (2012) argued that effective leadership in higher education is paramount to student achievement and maintains its impact has a great influence. Indeed, it is highly likely that Greenockle's (2010) argument about the requirements of effective leadership in higher education to understand and address EI issues related to themselves and the enhancement of their students as a source of empowerment to be successful in this changing global economy is valid.

Admittedly, Osiemo (2012) posited that leadership in higher education must be the catalyst for developing students to be future leaders of this county. However, with the criticisms of leadership programs not producing productive leaders who can face current issues and concerns, Benjamin and O'Reilly (2011) asserts that it would be beneficial if leaders were prepared to lead early in their careers especially if they acquire leadership skills early in academic preparation. Today, there is a imperative need for higher education to specifically focus on developing effectively leaders (Benjamin and O'Reilly, 2011). As Morris (2012) claimed, higher education is more concern with handling daily issues than effectively training new leaders. Patterson (2012) pointed to the argument that

leadership education should distinctly focus on the link to relational skills that promote leaders to establish successful relationships with others in their personal and professional life. Chopra and Kanji (2010) contended that the development of EI skills is a central need of leadership that must be addressed as tomorrow's leaders will most likely need EI skills to effectively influence others in efforts to develop their own leadership skills. To add, Goleman (2011b) strongly argued that today, EI is accepted as an essential element of outstanding leadership and model for leadership education as it provides a venue for social and emotional learning as well as a significant ingredient for having a fulfilling life.

Studies related to enhancing students' EI in higher education. In light of these arguments, the examination of research related to EI and students in higher education is relevant. Below, specifics and elements regarding research concerning enhancing students' EI in academia will be explored.

Lillis (2011) examined the interaction link between the relationship of students and faculty leaders related to the dropout intentions of students. With an initial sample of 111 undergraduate students, participants were asked to complete a 148 question survey that centered on the identification of the importance of mentoring outcomes centered on being satisfied with their personal mentoring experience (Lillis, 2011). In addition, mentees and faculty mentors' level of emotional intelligence was assessing via an Emotional Competence Inventory. The purpose of this study was to examine faculty' level of EI as it related their relational interactions with students and the mentoring process related to students' retention(Lillis, 2011). The results yielded that the frequency

of interactions between students and faculty impacted attrition issues as the results indicated that faculty mentors level of EI had a major impact on their ability to influence students' attrition intentions; however, students' intentions of attrition only was affected when the communication between students and faculty was low (Lillis, 2011). This served as an indication that more was gained from the students' interaction with faculty would be applicable if there were more communication between the two. The researchers argued that although this study seemed to not support a direct connection between faculty's EI and their mentoring abilities related to students' EI, the study results indicated that the impact of faculty who had a high level of emotional intelligence was positive given that they were better able to detect their students' levels of emotions and able to recognize negative emotional condition that could possibly initiate issues of student attrition (Lillis, 2011). Consequently, the study results suggested that faculty who were emotionally intelligent were in a better position to effectively service students as they can possibly support efforts to increase levels of student retention (Lillis, 2011).

Landau and Meirovich (2011) conducted a study that centered on EI interactive elements related to students in participative classrooms that encouraged and supported interactive activities such as debates, open discussions, student teamwork, group assignments and simulations as well as role playing. Landau and Meirovich (2011) focused on examining whether the role of these participative conditions had an impact of the development of students in higher education as well as if EI can be connected to academic achievement. The study subjects consisted of upperclassmen that were given an opportunity to participate in an online survey and/or in class participative environment.

Of those 265, 137 students who completed surveys online 265 surveys were completed in-class (Landau and Meirovich, 2011). The results rendered positive results regarding the participative environment related to EI in being that the results suggest that a supportive environment could be related to EI. More, specifically, students who were considered emotional intelligent perceived that faculty as well peers were more supportive in participative environment lass (Landau and Meirovich, 201).

Jdaitawi et al. (2011) focused their study on examining the impact of EI training to enhance students' EI as it could possibly increase social and academic adjustments. In the study 289 first year volunteer higher education students were the participants. The training consisted of a 10 day time period and the instructional methods of training included instructional-led lectures, participant discussions, demonstrations and role plays (Jdaitawi, Ishak, & Mustafa, 2011). Each session of training focused on different subject matter issues such as defining EI, understanding one's emotions and building self confidence, building self concept and autonomy, recognizing and identifying emotional situations, setting personal goals, cooperative learning, relationship building, enhancing social skills, and valuing teamwork and working with group effectively (Jdaitawi et al., 2011). The results were significant and indicated an interaction between age and the experimental group relating to emotional intelligence, social and academic adjustment. The researchers reported that after the first year student participated in the EI training program, these students' social, and academic adjustment scores increased (Jdaitawi et al., 2011). As it related to the findings, Jdaitaw et al. (2011) argued that academia can use their finding to help create ways to foster EI among students in higher education by the

addressing the following subject matters: increasing self awareness, developing sills to manage self emotions, handling relational issues with others, methods to develop skills to create social relationships and to create good relationships among students and lecturers.

Peterson (2012) identified the need for leadership in higher education to address the issue of group emotional intelligence and argues that the enhancement of students' individual levels of EI is significant to the success of the over group work assignments. The purpose of this study was to examine each student's level of EI as well as their type of personality, strengths and weaknesses in light the deployment of instructional methods to address EI issues to improve their ability to work collectively toward a common goal (Peterson, 2012). The results revealed that it could possibly be beneficial to instruct on related EI norms as it may lead to more empathic, social and structural ground rules group behaviors (Peterson, 2012)..

Manring (2012) addressed the issue of students' service learning experiences and noted promoting the growth of EI skills and posits that the incorporation of service learning experiences in the learning requirements of higher education may prove to be advantageous. This study involved student participants participating in service activities such as feeding hungry families, caring for the elderly, and helping the youth (Manring, 2012). The results of the study demonstrated that the service learning experience method is effective in that it can assist students in gaining stronger expression and development of EI skills by becoming more caring, and having more understanding for others, fostering both intrapersonal ad interpersonal EI skills (Manring, 2012). Information on EI in the workplace with respect to higher education will be presented next.

EI and the Workplace Related to Higher Education

Landau and Meirovich (2011) proclaimed that employers were concerned about the predominant gap between needed and actual levels of EI of their employees and they stressed that this issue should make be important to educational leadership in higher education to address the need for students to receive the enhancement of EI in regards to the goals of higher education. As it relates to the aim of higher education, Attiq-Ur-Rehman et al. (2012) made a case asserting that it is important that the leadership in higher education realize that higher education is a key source to develop a qualified workforce that met the needs of the economy as it is essential for the nations' economic growth. Miller and Slocombe (2012) were in agreement and argued that if this country's higher education system does not successfully prepare students to competently participate in the workforce by being effectively prepared, there could be negative consequences for this economy. It is clear, as Khalili (2012) specifically, argued that EI is a essential component in the workplace and there has been an increased amount of research confirming the need for an emotional intelligent workforce.

Ideally, Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, and Njoroge (2011) contended that the evidence of professionals employing EI as a tool to train and recruit confirmed their perceptions of its importance; and therefore, it should be important to leadership higher education. For instance, as Feather (2009) attested the need for the health care profession to address factors relating to a most massive shortage of nurses in its history, the nursing profession is concerned about the development of training and programs that could increase the level of EI in its leaders due to the impact that they have on their employees

related to job satisfaction. In the same notion, Feather (2009) claimed that the gap in the academic research relating to EI and leadership in the nursing profession is substantial and it requires more investigation as it would assist to better understand performance in the workplace. To add, Brandenburg, Zhou, Bell, and Skipper (2011) contended that the workforce has change from using only the criterion of professional expertise to evaluate college graduates, particular in the field of engineering and is now focusing on skills like EI to promote potential star-performers. In addition, Brandenburg et al. (2011) declared that higher education leadership could serve as an ideal venue to develop programs that could increase EI in engineering graduate students. As the argument by Cartwright and Pappas (2008) suggested, the domain readerships of both academically and publically has had an explosive growth of literature and it naturally seems that an increase level of research with more assorted samples concerning the field of EI could be beneficial.

Zeidner et al. (2009) posited that today, due to the evolving world of various business platforms, individuals need numerous skills to succeed in the workplace such as: cognitive, technical, social and emotional skills. Inasmuch, Cartwright and Pappas (2008) proclaimed that the connection between EI and increased work performance is most appealing to organizations, specifically those who conduct business in the service industry. Similarly, Kite and Kay (2012) contended that the competitive world of organizations are concerned about recruiting, retaining and developing a pool of highly talented individuals and they argue that EI is rapidly recognized by Fortune 500 companies as the means to identify and select top performers. Cook et al. (2011) argued that higher education must include EI as one of its needed skills that it must foster in

order to prepare students to effectively perform in their professions, especially accounting students. However, Cook et al.(2011) stressed that before leadership in higher education can approach the undertaking the of development EI of students, it must thoroughly examine EI's processes and current status of EI as it related to relevant issues and concerns.

Kite and Kay (2012) contended that the development of emotional intelligent attributes will provide a solid platform for personal and professional productivity and increased effectiveness. They claimed that emotional intelligent attributes in workplace are centered on elements such as: personal development, supporting others, clear intentions, positive values, observing and listening, being objective, challenging the norm, looking at a longer view, converting the negative into the positive, and valuing the team. Whereas, Zeidner et al. (2009) proclaimed that in general competencies/attributes in the workplace include: assertiveness, service-focused, and using initiative as they posit that ultimately, these characteristics should be aligned with the employment position. As mention previously, Goleman (2011) posited that in the workplace required competencies of EI include, self awareness, self- management, empathy, and social skills. Although, there is some evidence of research related to EI and workplace related issues, the argument that there is a gap in the existing knowledge base regarding EI and the workplace is valid (Bay & Mckeage, 2006; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Landau, & Meirovich, 2011).

Studies of EI, workplace and higher education related issues. In their research study that examined the relevance of EI related to accounting and liberal arts education in

the higher education domain related to work experience, Cook et al. (2011) attested that it appeared that their results revealed a possible need for educators in higher education to implement specific EI educational interventions to support the required EI development for accounting students. Cook et al. (2011) examined 433 first and forth-year students in accounting and liberal programs at three universities (one university per country: Canada, South Africa and the United States). The participants completed a Mayer-Salovey-Caruso-Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and the Self-Report Psychopath-III. In addition, each participant provided information related to their work experience.

In general, it has been found that accounting students have specific challenges with being competent in EI within the realm of higher education (Edmond-Kiger, Tucker, & Yost, 2006; Cook et al., 2011). Edmond-Kiger, Tucker, and Yost (2006) in their study of accounting and business students related to EI found that the accounting student participants had lower EI scores than their counterparts. Cook et al. (2011) posited that these finding should raise alarm with HE accounting educational leaders as they indicated accounting students could be deficit in EI as it is believed to be essential by accounting practitioners and various other potential employment positions. Also, Cook et al. (2011) maintained that higher education should be concerned about addressing students needs for "soft skills" namely EI skills or they might be sending a message that higher education is just focused on academic decision making skills and not those related to emotional personal and professional related abilities. This type of message, according to Cook et al. (2010), could cause students to not address the value and potential benefits

of understanding the significant of the others' emotions as well as their own as it relates to obtaining their levels of success.

In another study, Fernandez, Salamonson, ans Griffiths (2012) examined the link between emotional intelligence traits and strategies of learning and its influential impact on first-year accelerated nursing students ' academic performance. With a sample size of 81 students and a rate response of 100%, Fernandez et al. (2012) assessed the students EI levels with a EI 144- item questionnaire that measured participants' levels of motivation, learning from peer, and critical thinking as well as their grade point average score was occurred at the end of a time frame of six months period (Fernandez, Salamonson, & Griffiths, 2012). The results were significant in that they demonstrated a direct correlation between EI scores and critical thinking, peer learning help seeking; but, there were no correlations with goal orientation (Fernandez et al., 2012). Most importantly, EI showed a noteworthy predictor of academic achievement. Implications and relevance to the nursing profession were purported and suggested that EI was essential to nurses' work related practice as it would beneficial that they are knowledgeable about how to handle their own emotions, support and patients as well as their families (Fernandez et al., 2012). Ideally, Fernandez et al. (2012) stressed the need for academic development of EI among nursing students.

Brandenburg et al. (2011) investigated the correlation link of EI between civil engineering and construction management students' academic performance and emotional intelligence. The criterion used was based upon the students' grade point ratio (GPR) of measurement. The premise was that students who earned high GPRs would

obtain significant measures of emotional intelligence than those who did not. After surveying 140 participants, it appeared that EI increased parallel to GPR as well as it was found that EI was positively aligned with work experience (Brandenburg, Zhou, Bell, & Skipper, 2011). In general, it was found that engineering programs were challenged with generating students with acceptable EI levels due to the fact that their programs are highly technical and qualitative. To add, it was determined that the rigor of engineering program prevents students from working while attending classes which posed a problem for those who needed employment to work their way through the program (Brandenburg et al., 2011). Based upon these results, Brandenburg et al. (2011) recommended that special attention should be given to co-op and supplementary programs to assist in the development of EI skills for students in higher education.

Inclusively, the literature supports the argument that the significance of emotional intelligence related to leadership in higher education is of importance (Greenocckle, 2010;Kreitz, 2009; Parrish, 2011; Scott et at., 2008). To add, the contention that points to the need for higher education leadership to address issues related to the enhancement of students in higher education levels of EI is significant as it is reflected in the literature as well (Bay & McKeage, 2006; Osiemo, 2012). In the same notion, the debate relating to the need for leadership in higher education to consider and give attention to including the education of EI related to the workplace in its goals for educational excellence is warranted for direct consideration as the need is echoed in various related literature (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Cook, et al., 2011; Kite & Kay, 2012; Landau & Meirovich, 2011; Zeidner et al., 2009). Over all, and of most importance, various previous mention

factors and concerns relevant to the impact of EI and elements directed at the importance of EI to effective leadership in higher education is substantially grounded in the literature and suggests there needs to be attention to these matters (Cook, et al., 2011; Keritz, 2009; Scott et al., 2008;Vandervoort, 2006).

Higher Education, Leadership, and Emotional Intelligence

In general, Zeidner et al. (2009) proclaimed that academic education may be enhanced by way of emotional skills that inspirer motivation and self -control. Similarly, Brackett, et al. (2011) declared that how educators and students feel and interact with each other as well as how they employ and/or respond to their feeling has a impact on the educational environment and it can be supportive of learning and developmental growth. In general, Vandervoort (2006) argued that if leadership in higher education incorporates emotional intelligence into the imperatives of its curricular, several benefits could be obtained: it could render positive results concerning the growth of students personally and in their careers, there could be an improvement of social interactions with others, and ultimately, these factors could possibly lead to the improvement of society as a whole.

Chopra and Kanji's (2010) primary argument directly claimed that emotional intelligent skills, abilities, attributes, and capacities are increasingly becoming acknowledge as primary components connected to success in nearly all areas of work of life such as: leadership, teams work, globe networking, social skills, both personally and professionally. However, Cook et al. (2011) argued that although students in higher education need EI skills to be successful, they found students have limited EI skills and

higher education has few standards to address this deficiency. Beard (2009) attested that leadership in higher education must be concerned with offering educational value to students as well as addressing their needs to be successful.

Ultimately, Cook et al. (2011) contended that at the least, leaders in higher education may consider evaluating how the present curricula is addressing the needs of students to develop EI as well as to examine efforts to value and address softer skills as well as traditional academic abilities. Research supports the argument that there are possible needs for academia to address and/or enhance students' abilities and skills related to EI (Bay, & Mckeage, 2006; Cook et al.; Greenockle, 2010; Jdaitawi, Ishak, & Mustafa, 2011; Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Vandervoort, 2006). Bay and Mckeage (2006) specially stressed that as it is apparent that students are ill prepared as they need EI as a predominate factor that most likely be influential of their ability to be successful. Ultimately, Brandnburg (2011) maintained that leadership in higher education could consider the venue of higher education as a mean to offer training in EI to increase EI levels in students which could better prepare them to be successful in life personally and professionally.

Evidence of significant concerns relevant to the impact of EI. Concerns inclusive of an in-depth examination, Table 2 as it was created by the researcher, presents evidence of supported literature that directly correlates with significant expressed concerns about EI and leadership in higher education. For instance, there is ample literature that signifies an uneasiness felt by scholarly researchers relating to a gap in the

body of knowledge and/or lack of empirical research concerning effective leadership and

EI in higher education (Cook, et al., 2011; Kreitz, 2009; Mckeage, & Bay, 2006;

Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Lillis, M. 2011; Parrish, 2011; Scott, Coates, & Anderson,

2008; Vandervoort, 2006).

 Table 2

 Concerns About EI And Leadership in Higher Education (Table Created by Researcher

Concerns about EI and leadership in Higher Education	Primary Literature Supporting These Concerns
Unease about the gap in the body of knowledge and/or lack of empirical research concerning effective leadership and EI in higher education	Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Nijoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Mckeage, & Bay (2006);Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Lillis, M. 2011; Parrish, 2011; Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)
Concerned about higher education providing venues to create awareness, educate and develop EI in individuals	Bay, & Mckeage, (2006); Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Nijoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009) Lillis, M. 2011; Parrish, 2011; Vandervoort , (2006)
Dismayed about the valued possible benefits of EI being effectively used to develop and strengthen institutions, workplace, individuals and/or society	Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Nijoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Lillis, M. 2011; V Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort , (2006)
Consternation concerning effective fostering of EI skills for students in higher education	Bay, & Mckeage, (2006); Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Nijoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Vandervoort , (2006)
Trepidation of EI being instrumental in increasing the rate of students' success personally and/or professionally	Bay, & Mckeage, (2006); Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Nijoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Lillis, M. 2011; Vandervoort , (2006)

Furthermore, there is a sense of an agreement that is communicated in the literature relating to an expressed concerned about higher education providing venues to create awareness, education and the development of EI in individuals (Bay, & Mckeage, 2006; Cook, et al., 2011; Kreitz, 2009; Lillis, M. 2011; Parrish, 2011; Vandervoort , 2006). To add, there is an apparent apprehensive mode that represents a concerns about individuals involved in leadership positions ability to better understand and apply EI skills for themselves and others Bay and Mckeage (2006); Cook, et al. (2011); Kreitz, (2009) Scott, et. al. (2008); Lillis (2011); Vandervoort (2006). Inasmuch, it is clear that there is a form of dismay about the conceptualization of EI being successfully used to develop and strengthen institutions, workplace, individuals and/or society (Cook, et al., 2011; Indoo & Ajeya, 2012; Kreitz , 2009; Lillis, M., 2011; Scott, et al., 2008; Vandervoort , 2006). Also, it appears that there is a consternation concerning the effectiveness of fostering EI skills for students in higher education that is argued by Cook et. al (2011); Kreitz (2009); Lillis (2011); Scott et al. (2008); and Vandervoort (2006). Finally, the trepidation of EI being instrumental in increasing the rate of students' success personally and/or professionally is of great concern, according to Cartwright, and Pappas, (2008); Cook et al. (2011); Jones, & Abraham (2009); Kreitz (2009); Lillis (2011); Scott et al. (2008); Vandervoort (2006).

Evidence of significant perceived benefits relevant to the impact of EI. In addition to the previous concerns expressed in the literature regarding the impact of EI in higher education, the Table 2 (created by the researcher) presents the results of a detailed exploration of the literature as it relates to the evidence of perceived benefits relevant to

the impact of EI on leaders' leadership in higher education in which will be discussed in more details. As an illustration, Cartwright and Pappas (2008); Kreitz (2009); Nadler, (2012); Lillis 2011); Parrish (2011); Scott, Coates, and Anderson (2008); Vandervoort (2006) are in agreement that EI could help leaders to improve personally and professionally by assisting them to provide more effective leadership. To put it another way, researchers Cartwright and Pappas (2008); Kreitz (2009); Lillis (2011); Nadler (2012); Parrish (2011); Scott et al. 2008); and Vandervoort (2006) contended that EI could assist in improving organizational positive development for individuals, team and department members. While other researchers, Bay and Mckeage (2006); Kreitz (2009); Lillis (2011); Scott et al. (2008); Vandervoort (2006) posited EI could help individuals involved in leadership to better understand and apply EI skills. From another perspective, the argument that EI could assist in fostering EI skills for students in higher education was valid according to Bay & Mckeage, (2006); Brandenburg et al. (2011); Jdaitawi et al. (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Lillis (2011); Peterson (2012); Scott et al. (2008); Vandervoort (2006); and Flumerfelt & Banachowski (2011) Finally, Bay and Mckeage, (2006); Brandenburg et al. (2011); Cook et al. (2011); Kreitz (2009); Lillis (2011); Scott et al. (2008); and Vandervoort (2006) contended that EI could improve socialite/workplace interactions .

Table 3

Benefits Related to EI And Leaders' Leadership in Higher Education

Evidence of Significant Perceived Benefits Relevant to the Impact of Emotional Intelligence in Higher	Primary Literature Supporting These Perceptions

Education	
EI could help leaders to improve personally and professionally by assisting them to provide more effective leadership	Kreitz, (2009); Nadler, (2012); Lillis, (2011); Parrish, (2011); Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)
EI could assist in improving organizational positive development for individuals, team and department members	Kreitz, (2009); Lillis, (2011); Nadler, (2012); Parrish, (2011); Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)
EI could help all individuals involved in leadership to better understand and apply EI skills	Bay & Mckeage, (2006); Kreitz, (2009); Lillis, (2011); Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)
EI could assist in fostering EI skills for students in higher education	Bay & Mckeage, (2006); Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh,& Njoroge, (2011); Kreitz, (2009); Lillis, (2011); Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)
EI could be instrumental in increasing the rate of student s' success academically, socially and personally.	Bay & Mckeage, (2006); Kreitz, (2009); Bay & Mckeage, (2006); Lillis, (2011); Scott, Coates, & Anderson, (2008); Vandervoort, (2006)

In sum, Balwin, Bensimon, Dowd, and Kleiman (2011) argued that in higher education both the effectiveness and overall institutional mission to promote student success is at the heart of educational institutions. Osiemo (2012) proclaimed that educational institutions must represent itself as a model for students to emulate and learn because students ideally learn from what they observe rather than what they are taught in the environment of higher education. As argued by Scott, et al. (2008), leaders in higher education need EI to be high performing leaders in higher education and students need EI to enhance their ability to be successful personally and professionally. Consequently, as Cook et al (2011) argued, higher education should foster students' EI within their

institutions to assist them in their efforts to become successful in their personal and professional life. Ideally, Scott, et al. (2008) contends that leaders in higher education need EI to be high performing effective leaders in higher education as well. Whereas, Greenockle (2012) claimed that it is now acknowledged that everyone can benefit from the phenomenon of EI; yet, it is apparent that EI is needed more so by senior leadership as their level of responsibility increases such as the advancement from a faculty position to a chair of a department to a dean of a college and so on. To further this exploration, issues relating to emotional intelligent leadership and higher education are presented below.

Viewing Emotional Intelligent Leadership through the Lens of Higher Education

Emotional intelligent leadership is a multidimensional focused, according to the claim of Allen et al. (2012), claimed it is centered on the deployment of relevant leadership theoretical tenets blended with the conceptual dynamics of emotional intelligence. Along this same notion, Hernon (2008a) proclaimed that the perspective of linking EI with leadership aimed to address effective performance and encompass the management of the aura of an organization is related to emotional intelligent leadership. Whereas, Shankman and Allen (2008) contended that emotional intelligent leadership is the result of synthesizing the body of theoretical research related to leadership and emotional intelligence. Ultimately, Nadler (2011) declared that as it relates to the deployment of the conceptualization of EI coupled with the theory of leadership, it is essential and imperative to lead today's organizations with emotional intelligence in order for them to be successful in these current challenging times.

Although, the theory of leadership, emotional intelligence, and higher education have advanced mostly independently from each other, Allen et al. (2012) proclaimed their theoretical conceptualization complements each other and provide a meaningful platform for scholastically focused researchers and practitioners alike. As it relates to the relationship between the constructs of emotional intelligence, leadership and higher education, Allen et al. (2012), Fullan and Scott (2009), and Shankman and Allen (2008) presented different EIL conceptual perspectives. Mostly importantly, these scholarly researchers proclaim that there is significant value in the concept of emotional intelligent leadership as it relates to higher education (Allen et al., 2012; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Shankman & Allen, 2008). Each of their arguments is presented below to provide a closer insight on their prospective of the importance of EIL to the field of higher education.

EIL deployed in the field of higher education

Allen et al. (2012) contended that their concept of EIL was supported by a blended significant, multifaceted, and process-directed theory base as they posit it is of great importance to the field higher education. Their EIL construct encompasses the interaction of four notable components: personality behaviors, traits, and competencies as well as elements of cognitive processes. Allen et al. (2012) maintained that their definition of the EIL theory primarily means that with a purposeful aim of considerations for variables such as context, self and other individuals, desired outcomes are facilitated by emotionally intelligent leaders. This definition was based on the assumption that leaders and their followers as well as the context in which they operate are of significant

worth as they interactive with one another. Ideally, Allen et al. (2012) argued that EIL is applicable for deployment in various domains especially, higher education.

Allen et al. (2012) maintained that there are two primary reasons they have these perspectives which soundly support their argument. First, the focus on leadership development studies is growing and it will be a value-add to the growth of the field to provide a sound framework for further research related to conceptualization and integration of this value subject at hand. Second, as there is a need for leadership development as well as there is a need to practice, increase skills, knowledge, abilities and various other characteristics to successfully deploy EIL, the higher education arena could provide an excellent resource to accomplish these tasks. Overall, due to the limited amount of research on this subject, Allen et al. (2012) argued that their EIL provides a sound foundation for the development of further research to be developed pertaining to EIL.

Effective leadership enhanced by emotional intelligent leadership to turnaround the field of higher education

Fullan and Scott (2009) attested that there are commonalities between factors of emotional intelligence and their framework for effective academic leadership capabilities that they maintain are needed to turnaround and improve leadership in the field of higher education. They posited that their theory illustrated a capability framework for effective academic leadership to accomplish this task. This framework encompasses a capability factor that focus on three important components: personal, interpersonal and cognitive capabilities (Fullan & Scott, 2009) attested. The personal and interpersonal components

directly mirror elements of emotional intelligence according to Goleman (2011a) and Goleman, Boyatzis, McKee (2002a). The other competency factor element of their framework for academic leadership capability refers to competency components relating to role-specific and generic competencies which are not pertaining to this discussion.

In their empirical research study which is inclusively presented in Scottet al. (2008), Fullan and Scott (2009) made reference to EI and its prevalence to their framework. Scott's et al. (2008) study consisted of 513 higher educational leaders from 20 educational Australian institutions. In addition, in Australia and internationally from the time period between 2007 and 2008, they conducted workshops and a total of 600 staff members engaged as participants. The need supporting the quest for conducting this study was based on various issues facing the field of higher learning, namely, the urgency to embrace factors of change decrease in funding, increase competition; need to produce income; diverse student population with diverse needs; governmental scrutinizing and so on and the need to conduct a reassessment of the goals for higher education. In addition, the factors relating to the growing pressure to embrace new methods of learning and teaching in the realm of the 21st century were also important elements of concern (Scott et al., 2008). When participants were asked to ranked capability and/or competency factors that they considered of importance in leadership the leaders ranked 12 out of 57 assessment items as most important and the 12 that selected directly related to factors of emotional intelligence. In general, Scott et al. (2008) and Fullan and Scott (2009) argued that EI is identified as a significant element related to the successful performance of effective leadership for higher education.

An emotional intelligence leadership (EIL) model with three primary facets.

As Shankman and Allen (2008) claimed that the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership is significant. As they maintained that there is an interactive synergy between EI and leadership, Shankman and Allen (2008) presented a EIL conceptual model that is based upon the notion that a leaders should be consciousness of their capabilities, and how to they develop and maintain relationships with others as well as how they manage and connect with to their leadership environment. In general, the premise that Shankman and Allen (2008) suggested that EIL reflects the ability of the leaders to be consciousness of their self, others, and their context.

According to Shankman and Allen (2008), EIL model is built on the notion that effective leadership is rooted and grounded in the leaders' capability to be conscious about themselves in terms of one knowing the their strengths and weaknesses, their emotion and how they impact on one's behaviors. There is also a focus competent of this EIL that focus on leaders being consciousness of others in the scope of their leadership meaning that leaders should consider how others are connected in a relationship with their leadership and how others feel as well (Shankman & Allen, 2008).

Leaders are prompt to be consciousness of their contextual environment such as the context of the situation and/ or the organization, culture, goals and the key people involved in the organization (Shankman & Allen, 2008). Ultimately, they argued that if a leader desire to be successful in implementing the EIL model, the leader must deploy a balance approach in addressing each of these areas by being conscious of self, others and the leadership environment (Shankman & Allen, 2008).

Overall, clearly, there is a growing body of knowledge that claimed that the concept of emotional intelligent leadership is a valuable tool as it is also imperative for the growth and potential success of leaders meeting today's challenges and that the environment of higher education could be a reliable source for their preparation (Allen et al., 2012; Fullan & Scott, 2009; Shankman & Allen, 2008). Ideally, Shankman & Allen (2008) declared that EIL is centered on leaders combing one's innate abilities with dedicated relentless work and it involves intentional consciousness of the leaders exercising their behaviors.

In sum, Allen et al. (2012) concur that the implementation of EIL situates the leaders as one who intentionally facilitating EIL with a mindset to be conscious of self, others and the context in which they lead. Fullan and Scott (2009) posited that emotional intelligence directly connect with effective leadership capabilities and are imperative for successful leadership. In general, Giesecke (2008) declared that leadership that perform and utilize emotional competencies in their leadership could promote and create a positive focused environment to help people be inspired and loyal to their leadership as well as being productive in accomplishing and exceeding organizational expectations. At any rate, it is a consensus that emotional intelligent leaders are key players in emotional intelligent leadership (Allen et al., 2012; Fullan and Scott, 2009; Shankman and Allen, 2008). The essence regarding elements concerning emotional intelligent leaders in higher education is discussed in the following section.

Emotional Intelligent Leaders for Higher Educational Leadership Matters

Scott et al. (2008) proclaimed that emotional intelligence play a critical role in higher educational leaders' leadership as it impacts their thinking and deployment of diagnostic strategies for effective leadership. Allen et al. (2012) specially, maintained that emotional intelligent leaders are needed to effectively implement emotional intelligent leadership and they highly recommends EIL to be position in the field of higher education which implies that leaders in higher education need to be emotional intelligent to address this task. Fullan and Scott (2009) consistently, argued that leaders that are needed to assist in the turnaround for the field of higher education, specially, need to be emotional intelligent using capabilities that directly align with personal and interpersonal components of EI.

To add, there are several other arguments that solidify the reasons why leaders in higher education need to be emotional intelligent (Scott et al, 2008). For instance, Kreitz (2009) argued research has addressed senior higher educational senior leaders, but there is a lack of research that address other team members leaders and this issue needs to be address in order to address their EI needs as well. Bay and Mckeage (2006) argued that the responsibility of higher education to prepared students to be emotional intelligent calls for leaders to be emotional intelligent. Landau and Meirovich (2011) confirmed the argument that the workplace requires that higher education prepare their graduates to be emotional intelligent in order for them to be successful. As the emerging body of knowledge point to the need for leaders in higher education to be emotional intelligent, it matters that higher educational leaders become emotional intelligent (Allen et al., 2012;

Bay & Mckeage, 2006; Fullan, & Scott, 2009; Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Kreitz, 2009; Parrish, 2011; Scott et al., 2008).

The essence of leaders is essential. In general, the literature provided reliable indications that leaders' contributions are essential elements in the conceptual process and equation of successful leadership (Bass, 1990; Endersbe, Therrien, & Wortmann, 2012; Lyman, 2011; Sheldon, 2010; Wall, 2007). However, Ultimately, Northouse (2010) argued that the relationship between leaders and followers is significant due the fact that leaders must interact with followers in order to promote change in their behaviors. In the same notion, Reese (2011) contended that leaders' involvement provide the primary source to determine the results of the leadership as it is used to inspire people to dream, learn, do and become more.

The upshot of all this is that Krause, & Weekley (2005) maintained that the core link connection between the leaders and leadership is the essentially based upon how others are influenced by the efforts of leaders to exercise the notion of leadership. Basically, Lyman (2011) argued that leaders can be an influential force that can either support or destroy an organization; thus, they can cause the business to be successful or not. Kaye (2010) contended that leaders are not only influential; but, they set the stride and movement in an organization and they must exhibit their performance in the way they expect others to perform. In fact, Hesselbein (2010) argued that leaders of today's organizations must be led by a diverse team of leaders with a rich set of diverse skills to address richly diverse organizations. The literature provides evidence that suggests that effective leadership is directly related to leaders' skill-sets and abilities (Endersbe et al.,

Hesselbein, 2010; Kaye, 2010; Nadler, 2011; Northouse, 2012). Ideally, Colfax, Rivera, Gaum, and Perez (2010) posited that research concerning the success of leaders has increased and is centering more attention on leaders understanding the humanistic side of leadership. Colfax et al. (2010) specifically argued that leaders must understand themselves in order for them to understand others which has a great deal to do with emotion intelligence. Emotional intelligent leaders lead with emotional intelligent skill sets (Nadler, 2011), in which will be address in the next session.

The focus of emotional intelligent leaders. Nadler (2011) proclaimed that in order for leaders to be top performers as well as they strive to produce outstanding performance, leaders need to be emotional intelligent leaders who lead by applying emotional intelligence skills. As he defines emotional intelligent leaders, Nadler (2011) argued they are leaders who understand the meaning of EI and are competent in its skill sets as well as they are knowledgeable about how to applied EI skills at the opportune time and situation. In being emotional intelligent leaders, Giesecke (2008a) declared that successful leaders need identify with their own emotions and be mindful of the emotions of others who are around them. To add, Giesecke (2008a) maintained that leaders should also be aware of how other emotions have an impact their feeling. Lykins (2011) declared that emotional intelligent professionals are in tune with who they are and relate to their gut feeling often.

Mikolajczak, Balon, Ruosi, and Kotsou (2011) maintained that emotional intelligent leaders are different kind of leaders. As Mikolajczk et al. (2011) posited that being emotional intelligent leaders means more than just being nicer leaders attuned to

their and others feelings ,it also means emotional intelligent leaders are so able to put aside feelings when it is necessary to lead effectively. On another note, as Palethorpe (2006) contended, effective emotionally intelligent leaders benefit by increasing their awareness about themselves and others by being more able to evaluate how they manage themselves and others. Ultimately, as Goleman et al. (2002a) alleged that major factors that influence effective leaders is primarily based upon the fundamental commission of leaders' ability to promote good emotional feeling that resonate in the people that they lead.

The Relevance of Performance to Leadership Styles, Transformational and

> **Transactional Leadership in Higher Education as it is Relative Emotional**

> **Intelligence**

Rehman and Pakistan (2012) proclaimed that levels of performance are derived from leadership decisions about what is needed to be accomplished as their behaviors influence people to achieve the goals that they deem accomplishable. As Rehman and Waheed (2012) argued, leaders 'chosen leadership styles are based on several elements such as leaders expertise, the importance of decision making, commitment, and the level of knowledge relating to team and group dynamics . As Vijayaragavan (2012) posited leaders who use transformational leadership styles center on transforming the environment in an impactful matter by inspiring others to perform. Transformational leaders employ decisions that align with their specific values and beliefs as they are passionate and committed to achieving various missions and visions (Rehman and Waheed, 2012; Vijayaragavan, 2012). Chang, Sy and Choi (2012) maintain that

leadership has a great deal to do with leaders involvement with team dynamics and Vijayaragavan (2012) proclaimed that effective transformational leaders have characteristics that get people (groups or individuals) motivated emotionally and mentally to go beyond their interest to collective perform to reach organizational goals.

Styles of leadership, as Parrish (2011) posited, set the foundation for the essence and effectiveness of leaders' leadership. Northouse (2010) claimed that leaders' behaviors directly represent their style approach to leadership as they use these behaviors to influence followers perform and to accomplish targeted goals. Specially, Northouse (2010) pointed out that the leadership styles approach reflects on leaders' actions and how they behave in performing these actions. On the other hand, Iqbal, Inayat, Ijaz, and Zahid (2012) specifically contended that leaders styles are based on their different beliefs, and values as well as their ideals. As Bhatti, Ahmad, Aslam, Nadeem, and Ramzan (2012) posited their argument, they claimed that leadership styles are more profoundly defined in extensively large structured organizational environments than with smaller organizations with less structured leadership.

As it relates to the science of behaviors, Rehman (2011) proclaimed that transformational and transactional leadership are the most extensively leadership styles studied. To add, Yunus and Anuar (2012) maintained that transformational leadership styles have been broadly connected to positive results concerning individuals and organizational factors. Furthermore, as Pounder (2008) declared that transformational leadership is one of the most acknowledged central concepts identified in management; he noted that research has directly related transformational leadership to desirable

leadership outcomes.   In Pounder's (2008) study that examined transformational leadership related to teaching management in the classroom of higher education, he focused on one undergraduate management course with a total of 876 cohort students in three year program. The survey procedure involved 18 classroom sections with an average of 24 students and five instructor-led instructors. The survey was distributed to the entire student body of the cohort and it yielded 217 applicable responses which was equivalent to 76 percent (Pounder, 2008). The results were positive and confirmed that the transformational leadership style of the instructors had a significant and positive impact on the student's perception of leadership in the classroom and reveal that leadership was perceived as being motivational, effective, and satisfactory (Pounder, 2008). This study points to the issue that the transformation leadership style of leadership can present positive outcomes in the field of higher education (Pounder, 2008).

Higher education relative transformational and transactional Leadership . In terms of the academic examination of leadership styles, as Parrish (2011) maintained, transformational and transactional leadership styles are among the most acknowledged styles of leadership that are considered as generally suitable for leadership in higher education.   Parrish (2011) contended that transformational leadership is focused on establishing a sense inspiration that promote followers to be engaged based upon the synergy to obtain a shared optimistic and futuristic vision. Bhatti et al. (2012) proclaimed transformational leadership formulates significant transformations in the vision of the institution through strategic and cultural changes that promoted technological innovations.   To add, Middlehurst, Goreham, and Woodfield (2009) contented that

transformational leadership can be instrumental in creating an alignment of institutional policies and strategic applications at various levels of within the realm of higher education. Ideally, as Giesecke (2008b) claimed, transformational leaders' leadership in higher education reflects the notion of leadership that shows compassion about their work and how their compassion is extended to others. Overall, Pounder (2001) declared that transformational leadership' core existence relates to a commitment to a shared vision as it is a leadership style that is most fitting for academic leadership.

Parrish (2011) posited that transactional leadership is significant as it links obedience with compliance meaning that followers who are in compliance with leadership are obedient and those who disobedient are non-c compliance. As Parrish (2011) agued, those who are in compliance are usually rewarded with some type of reward and those who are non-compliance receive some type of disciplinary action. Giesecke (2008b) argued that the transactional leadership style is a self-centered approach whereas the followers are inspired to meet the institutions' goals according to what they get in return, namely, rewards, compensation and/or benefits. In general, Giesecke (2008b) posited that this relationship between the leaders and the followers reflects a transactional exchange that could produce great institutions as long as the goals are being met. To add, Rehman (2011) proclaimed that transactional leaders need to learn about and attend to the followers' needs and in doing so, the leaders can better give directives to present followers with clarity on how f organizational goals can be met. In sum, Pounder (2001) proclaimed that effective leadership mostly likely will deploy both

transformational and transactional leadership styles to b e successful in dealing with the complexity of the competing elements leadership.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Related to Emotional Intelligence. Accordingly, Giesecke (2008b) maintained transformational leadership directly encompasses the significant skill of emotional intelligence that successful leader must maintain. As Giesecke (2008b) argued, transformational leaders' potential level of success is greatly increased as leaders are better skilled to be aware of their emotions as well as able to handle their emotions and the emotions of others. Brown and Moshavi (2005) supported this notion as they argue that emotional intelligence is related to transformational leadership as well. They claim that perhaps as leaders with high levels of EI can better understand others emotional state; they could be better able to make effective transformational leadership decisions that could lead to desired transformational outcomes. Ireland (2008) declared that emotional intelligent supports transformational leadership as EI relates to the perception of the leaders' emotional self and the issue of understanding, regulating and managing emotions in terms of self and others as well as the facilitation of thought that embraces the emotional state of leadership. Rehman (2011) argued that the results of a thorough examination of the literature regarding the impact of emotional intelligence related to transformational and transactional leadership styles, decision making styles and elements of organizational performance yielded evidence that emotional intelligence provides a substantial impact that is noteworthy.

In addition, Giesecke (2008b) argued that transactional leadership is directly linked to emotional intelligence due to the fact that leaders need to become

knowledgeable of emotions related to the relationship and/or transaction between their transactional leadership and their followers. As Giesecke (2008a) posited that as leaders become knowledgeable about their emotions and how to manage their emotions and those of their followers—leaders become emotional intelligent—on a transactional bases, their potential to be successful will increase. Rehman (2011) claimed that transactional/ and transformation leadership is attached to the leaders being able to use emotional intelligence skills to detect opportunities and/or problems related to people's emotions and are better prepared to make decisions to address each situation accordingly.

However, Quader (2011) pointed out that transactional style of leadership can have the potential to be more connected to specific elements of emotional intelligence than transformational leadership. For instance, transactional is directly connected to the self awareness and self-motivational components of EI—the essence of dealing with only one's self verse dealing with the broad scope the others— mainly because these components are task related and focus on task participation (Quader, 2011).

Inclusively, the literature supports the argument that the significance of emotional intelligence related to leadership in higher education is of importance (Greenocckle, 2010; Kreitz, 2009; Parrish, 2011; Scott et at., 2008). To add, the contention that points to the need for higher education leadership to address issues related to the enhancement of students in higher education levels of EI was significant as it is reflected in the literature as well (Bay & McKeage, 2006; Osiemo, 2012). In the same notion, the debate relating to the need for leadership in higher education to consider and give attention to including the education of EI related to the workplace in its goals for educational excellence is

warranted for direct consideration as the need was echoed in various related literature (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Cook, Bay, Visser, Myburgh, & Njoroge, 2011; Kit & Kay, 2012; Landau & Meirovich, 2011; Zeidner et al., 2009). In addition, the issue of EI relative to transformational and transactional leadership is valid (Giesecke, 2008b; Rehman, 2011). Overall, and of most importance, various previous researchers mentioned factors and concerns relevant to the impact of EI and elements directed at the importance of EI in effective leadership as it is related to perfromance in higher education that are substantially grounded in the literature and suggests there needs to be attention to these matters Chang, Sy, & Choi, 2012; (Cook, et al., 2011; Kreitz, 2009; Scott et al., 2008; Rehman & Waheed, 2012; Vandervoort, 2006).

The Relevance of Emotional Intelligence Related Community
College Leadership in Higher Education

As Alfred, Shults, Jaquette and Strickland (2009) contended, the American institutional system of community colleges and its leadership has had notable levels of successes as it must embrace significant challenges and opportunities that relate directly to its role in the system of higher education. As America change drastically and the entire world reshapes itself, American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (2012b) proclaimed that community colleges in America have successfully served as the people's educational choice to seek the America Dream and now it is imperative that they embrace their challenges and opportunities. To add, Nevarez and Wood (2010) argued that leadership in community colleges are challenged and must address dynamic and complex issues relating to needs of students, faculty, stakeholders, and administrators as

well as federal and state requirements. Despite the challenges that community colleges face, Hicks and Jones (2011) proclaimed that they are opportunist that have positive characteristics such as: atmosphere of transparency, effective lines of communication, engaging student-focused mission, non-complacency energy, and a mind-set to quickly adapt to change as needed. Viewing community colleges' presence in the landscape of higher education from a selective set of lens, this section examines the literature that centers on the essence of its successes, challenges and opportunities as well as the relevance of its leadership connection to emotional intelligence.

Successes of Community Colleges

Educational entities known as "community colleges" have experienced successes that are expressed in the literature by researchers with various perspectives and points of views (Boggs, 2011; Brown, King, & Stanley, 2011; Nevarez, & Woods, 2010). For instance, Brown, King, and Stanley (2011) maintained that despite the size or location many community colleges, they are successful in proving effective first-year college programs that foster student success. Without any reservations, Roueche, Richardson, Neal, and Roueche (2008) posited that community colleges are successful instruments that help build relationships with students, parents, politicians, business leaders, and school officials. Boggs (2011) claimed community colleges are valued as assets and offer substantial contributions to the American platform of higher education as it is argued by Levin and Montero-Hernandez (2009) that they are the ideal venue for addressing the needs of a distinctive student population. Over all, as Mellow and Katopes (2009) posited that the system of American community colleges not only provides effective

educational services for individuals, it is noted that by design and its nature, community colleges support the economy by being the predominate source of customized training for the workforce as it is helpful in enchaining business and economic prosperity.

Successful Evolution of the Community Colleges

With a purposeful focus, Navarez and Wood (2010) contended that the historical evolution of community colleges has distinctive beginnings as well as distinguished growth. As Felix and Pope (2010) point out, early as 1800s, the conceptualization of community colleges offered signs of notable worth and contributions to this nation's educational system and the communities they serve. From a conceptual perspective, Navarez and Wood (2010) posited that the concept of community colleges has progressed from being an extension of the high schools to an extended division of universities unto a sound educational platform. To add, Levin and Montero-Hernandez (2009) asserted that visionary leaders as well as policymakers have been influential in shaping its beginnings as a junior two-year college educational institution as well as its present day focus and educational status. Inclusively, Boroch, et al. (2010) asserted that community colleges have successfully developed students educationally across this nation using practicing related to organizational and administrative structural applications, program concentrations, instructional methods and procedural strategies, student support services, and related professional learning and developmental learning principles and practices. Overall, the American Association of community Colleges (AACC, n.d.,b) contended that community colleges are excited about celebrating their centennial of a 100 years of service in which their success is evident in their rapid growth and development. The

AACC claimed that community colleges have grew to have 1,166 communities in the United States and have educated about 100 million people who have at least attended since the year of 1901(n.d.,b) . Today, AACC (n.d., c) asserted that it represents about 1,200 two-year institutions as it embodies well over 13 million students and it continues to grow by adding more international members from various countries such as: Puerto, Korea, Japan and other countries in the United Arab Emirates.

The Important Contribution of Community Colleges

In terms of segments of the United States of America higher educational system, Boggs (2008) proclaimed that community colleges are the segment that is the most accommodating and educationally responsive to students and their needs as well as creative in using scare resources to accomplish their educational goals and missions. Boggs (2011) contended that community are important distinctive educational institutions that make significant contributions to higher education as they are vehicles that allow a large amount of individuals to obtain their educational goals. As community colleges offer an "open door" policy which allow individuals to attend college who may have not been able to attend universities, Boggs (2011) maintained that individuals from various walks of life benefit from community colleges as they provide an opportunity to access higher education despite their age, ethnicities, disabilities, learning abilities and/or goals, preparedness and previous educational knowledge. As a support to this notion, Dassance (2011) asserted that community colleges are recognized as being extremely effective educational providers that effective serve the unprepared student population to achieve their educational goals. Furthermore, by being economically affordable, Mellow

and Katopes (2009) proclaimed that community colleges specifically appeal to low-incomes students in doing so they have triple amount enrollment of their low-income students compared to their counter-parts, universities, who only have doubled enrollment numbers of their economical disadvantage students.

Kolesnikova (2009) maintained that the American community colleges are changing their roles as they reach out to be significant players in the field of higher education. Returning to the original task of being an educational extension to public schools, Roueche et al (2008) maintained that community colleges assist public high schools their efforts to prepare their students to obtain a college education by providing dual enrollment programs. As Boggs (2011a) proclaimed, community colleges efforts to reach out to communities and organizations to provide numerous serves such as training and re-training individuals to improve their skills to better participate in the workforce, provide on-demand focused career specific programs (credit and non credit) and maintain partnerships with businesses and community service programs that directly serve their communities is a beneficial role that is noteworthy. Academically, the argument of Wang (2012) claims that community colleges play an essential role in providing a prominent avenue for disadvantage minorities to transfer into four-year institutions to further their educational goals which has a positive impact on student enrollment in United State's post-secondary level of education is prevalent.

Boggs (2011) argued that due to the accessibility provided by community colleges, they are important entities as they enroll the richest diverse demographical pool of students in higher education. As AACC (Who We Are, 2013c) assert, today, about

1,200 two-year community colleges educational institutions serve over 13 million students as well as a significant amount of international students steadily seek service to meet their educational needs. Kolesnikova maintained that the importance of community colleges' services can be arguably supported by the demographics of the distinctive student population serves. For instance, According to AACC (Fast Facts, n.d., c) in fall of 2009, individuals of 28 years old were the average age of community college students and they represented 57% of the student population; whereas, 39% of students were less than 21 years of age. On the other hand, 45% of community college students were between the age range of 22 to 39 years of age represented 45% of the student population and 40 years plus of age old represented 15% of the student body who evidently find the accessibility to a college education provided by community colleges significant.

To add, Felix and Pope's (2010) argument advocated that the significance of student enrollment in community colleges displays evidence of its value and importance to its student population. For instance, in Fall of 2009, the AACC (Fast Facts, n.d., c) asserted that of the entire United States higher educational system, in 2009, community college students represented 44% of its undergraduate students. In 2009, specifically, 43% of first-time freshmen, 54% of native Americans, 51% of Hispanic, 45% of Asian/pacific Islander and 44% of Black Americans represented 44% of the undergraduate segment of higher education in the United States. McClenney and Oriano (2012) contested that community colleges are steadily experiencing increased enrollment as they seek to effectively service their growing student population.

In particular, Zeidenberg (2008) claimed that clearly, the importance services that community colleges offer attracts a diverse student population which also, can be examined by indicators of their notable enrollment. For instance, the year, 2009, yielded significant gender related diversity in the enrollment of student s who attended community colleges which resulted in being 57% women and 43% men. A reflection of the student population's ethnicity revealed that 54% were Whites, 16% were Hispanic, 16% were Black, 14% , 6% were Asian/Pacific Islander, 1% were Native American and with 10% represented the unknown (AACC, Fast Facts, n.d., c). In addition, there were other significant demographics worthy of note such as: first-generation students represents the most significant percentage of 42% of colleges students, single parents represented 13%, Non-U.S. citizens was 6%, veterans and students with disabilities was 12% (AACC, Fast Facts, n.d., c) In addition, 47% of the students were part-time students while employed part-time, 40% were part-time student while employed full-time. Mostly importantly to note is that almost 59% of the students were full-time students while employed part-time. Boggs (2011) contended that community colleges provide important resources for students are who are attending classes despite the fact that they have multiple commitments relating to family and employment needs.

Overall, the argument that sustains the important role that community colleges play in the American higher education system is significant (Boggs, 2011; Felix & Pope, 2010; Hicks & Jones, 2011; Kolesnikova, 2009; Mellow & Katopes 2009; Roach, 2009; Wang, 2012). As Wang (2012) contended, the existence of community colleges in higher education has propelled a substantial increase in the access to avenues to higher

education. As one examines the significant percentage of students who attend community colleges, (Fast Facts, n.d., c) it is evident that the argument that supports the need for their survival is valid (Hicks & Jones). Furthermore, as the AACC (2012a) clearly posited, a fundamentals component to this nation's economic growth centers around a population that is significantly educated and the role of community colleges is vital to ensure that Americans have educational resources to ensure the American dream.

Challenges for Community Colleges

Despite the significant successes of community colleges, Alfred et al. (2009) claimed that community colleges are forced to contend with complex revolutionary challenges. As Felix and Pope (2010) contended, during recessions such as the one that American are now recovering from, community colleges face difficult challenges such as educating a massive amount of students without massive amount of funding, increased demands for community colleges services to train the workforce with new skills and the need to creatively create technology training for employers to meet their workforce needs. On the same note, Boggs (2011) concurred that the devastating economic recession that was mainly initiated between late 2000s has been a influential impact that has attracted a great deal of attention to community colleges. Boggs (2011a) maintained that the layoff and closures of major manufacturing companies has caused displace workers and the unemployed to seek resources to improve their employability skills.

Institutional System Challenges for Community Colleges

Felix and Pope (2010) claimed that in response to the impact of this recession, the essence of community colleges' ability to train and/or retaining the American workforce

is a major challenged that they must take on. Without a doubt, the argument that centers on President Obama's belief in the power of education and it being the key to training and preparing Americans for jobs of the 21st century is echoed as it supported by President Obama's American Gradation Initiative (AGI), according to White House (2009). On major premise of the AGI is focused on strengthening and utilizing the nation's system of community colleges to play an important role in accomplishing the goals of the AGI (White House, 2009). With this challenge, Zeidenberg (2008) posited that community colleges are under stress as it relates the challenge of providing the level of effective education needed to be successful in educating the student population of the American community colleges.

In 2009, White House (2009) asserted that President Obama values education and advocate that community colleges are key educational providers in higher education that have the vital educational components and the ability to meet the challenge to strengthen this nation's workforce as well as its economy. White House (2009) maintained that the AGI plan also challenges Americans to increase their level of education by going back college for a least one more year of higher education. The White House (2009) posited that by year 2020, community colleges are challenged to accomplish the task of educating a projected additional 5 million American graduates .To strength community colleges, the White House (2009) maintained that over the next decade an estimated of 12 billion dollars will be extent to assist community colleges to assist in helping them obtain this goal. Boggs (2011a) proclaimed that indeed community colleges are in the spotlight and are looked at as an entity that is up for the challenge of being a prime contributor in the

recovery of this nation. McClenney and Oriano (2012) maintained that the new goal of community colleges is to focus on not only access but more so on student success as well.

The New 21st Century Initiative Challenge

The AACC (n.d. a) asserted that its new *21st Century Initiative* provides an valuable response to the challenge of President Obama's call to effectively and efficiently enroll, education and successfully graduation some 5 million students with earned degrees, certifications and/or some other type of credentials by the projected year of 2020. The AACC (n.d.a) to meet the goal of prepare the nation to propel toward prosperity as well as to effectively compete globally. To add, on April 21, 2013, the AACC (2012 a) avow that summit's press released an announcement of AACC *'s Reclaiming the American Dream: A Report from the 21st Century Commission on the Future of Community College* that centered on issues relating to the transformation of the community college system. AACC's new aspiration, as the AACC (2012 a) maintains, embraces redesigning, reinventing and resetting the goals of community colleges whereas, redesigning will targeted the recreation of students' learning experiences, reinventing specially, will focus on improving the institution's roles, and the resetting component will incorporate the endeavor to develop networking partnerships for both the institution and its student population. Community colleges are the gateway for individuals to fulfill, as Crawford and Jervis (2011) confirmed the American dream. AACC (2012b) echo the claim that the America Dream is imperiled and the American people must prepare to face this challenge and visionary dream.

Community Colleges Are Challenged with Increasing Student Success

As the AACC (2012b) proclaimed, the United States is challenged with increasing the American people's level of higher education. In the past generations, the United States represented the world leader in realm of higher education; however, currently, it ranks the 16th position in the world in terms of degree completion, as it is proclaimed by AACC (2012b). In fact, the AACC (2012b) claimed that the United States people's level postsecondary graduates have been declining since around 1980. As Boroch et al. (2010) advocated community colleges must seek to improve student success by addressing challenges in five areas: administrative and organizational factors, components related to program development, instructional method and strategies, and the professional development of administrators, faculty and staff. Zeidenberg (2008) stressed that community colleges' challenges are valid as they reflect the need to address important factors relating to increasing the rate of student success by addressing various issues such as: remedial education, financial support, and college readiness preparation.

All in all, with a focus on growth of the nation's economy related to educational attainment and students' success, McClenney and Oriano (2012) asserted that the challenge of increasing student success is imperative. They contended that the American economy as well as its people's quality of life is impacted by its level of educational attainment. Felix & Pope (2010) affirmed that it can be argued that community colleges must be aware the specific educational needs of its diverse student population. As Boggs (2011) concurred, community colleges' low-income and underachieving students must have their needs addressed. As mentioned earlier, the AACC (n.d. c) posited, the

community college student population is unique with a large percentage of students who may be a minorities, first-generation citizens, single parents, and full and/or part-time employed.

With these factors in mind, Boggs (2011) posited that community colleges are challenged with closing the gap of student achievement, increasing the completion rate of academic courses and programs, providing proof that their students are learning, preparing students to successfully embrace the global economic society, and increasing the success rate of student transfer. Additionally, Roueche et al. (2008) declared that student-success and developmental educational support programs, academic advising, as well individual personal and family counseling need to be directly tailored to meet the community colleges student population as well. Above all, as Duncan and Ball (2011) proclaimed, the primary challenges for community colleges are directly related to accountability by showing evidence of effectiveness as it relates to increasing student educational attainment and being a key player in the betterment of our economy on a national and global level.

The Community College Leadership Challenge

The argument that community colleges' leadership face detrimental challenges directly related to its deteriorating pool of leaders, as Solis, Kupczynski, Mundy (2010) contended is substantial. Fullan and Scott (2009) maintained that the exiting of the baby boomers generation presents a dramatic and impactful imprint on the institutional system of higher education as it relates to its needs for effective human resources. Solis et al. (2010) stressed that community colleges are challenged with enduring the process of

recruiting and selecting qualified candidates to replace their seasoned and knowledgeable leaders. Reille and Kezar (2010) concurred by stating that the massive departure of senior leader retirees are exiting with valuable knowledge that could leave the institution in a fragile position in terms of it having a lack of required experienced and knowledgeable leaders needed to provide effective leadership. Strom, Sanchez, and Downey-Schilling (2011) proclaimed that the challenge is to create exclusive processes and procedures to ensure that effective prospective leaders are adequately identified and developed. As Adams (2010) asserted, in general, the notion of the anticipated massive retirements of community college leaders presents changes and challenges that they have not endured since the 1960s when they had to embrace the changes and challenges related to large expansion of their educational landscape. Over all, it is clear, according to the argument of Nevarz and Wood (2010), that there were massive numbers of leaders as well as senior administrators that were retiring and exiting for the community colleges institution and the system of community colleges is challenged with the need to prepared successive leaders to advance its vision and mission in order to sustain and acquirer their desired level of success.

Boggs (2011) proclaimed that community colleges leaders must undertake numerous systemic complex challenges within their current and foreseen future environmental platform. As Boggs (2011) posited, community colleges leaders' specific challenges include: modeling integrity, demonstrating level of honesty and ethical values, being open to new approaches, using fair and equitable judgment as well as being student focus as in ensuring students are respected and protected while obtaining their

educational experience. Adams (2010) claimed that in addition to leaders of community colleges facing challenges relating to student access, keeping the cost of education economical, and providing pathways to obtain higher education for the disadvantage, their primary challenge centers on balancing all their various missions and functionalities to ultimately meet the needs of this nation's locally, and nationally. This challenge requires leaders of community colleges to be in tune to applicable local and national changes as well as being alert to the needs of the corporate environment while at the same time meeting the needs of their student population, as Adams (2010) proclaimed. Therefore, Nevarz and Wood (2010) asserted that leaders of community colleges, consequently, faced challenges due to the complex external and internal environment of their existence in which requires them to embrace the challenges, to multitask, to utilize effective leadership skills and to cope with various stresses that community colleges leaders must endure. Ultimately, as community college leaders address their challenges, Boggs (2011) maintained the significance of today's community college leadership is to directly focus on the challenge to position and prepare them to be futuristic leaders who will drive their momentum of success.

Opportunities for Community Colleges

As the AACC(2012b) argued, despite, the challenges that community colleges must embrace, they are considered as one of the most valued asset of this nation that can ultimately turnaround its current economic state and create a more enriched future for Americans in the United States of America and challenges and opportunities are at hand. Community colleges' challenges, as Nevarz and Wood (2010) posited, should be thought

of as opportunities for improvement. For instance, as Nevarz and Wood (2010) maintained that the so called phenomenon of leadership crisis due to the retirement of the generational baby boomers phase can be viewed as an opportunity to address and improve leadership effectiveness. In addition, Strom et al. (2011) contended the lack of leadership concern faced by community colleges provides internal opportunities to prepare and effectively train potential leaders who are already within its instructional environment to be leaders of tomorrow. Holstein (2011) advocated for the argument that community colleges, despite their challenges, have an opportunity to demonstrate and model how governmental municipalities such as state and local governments can interact with employers to develop an educational support system that can serve as a link between the two as it provides an avenue to train and retrain the American people.

With all of these challenges that community colleges must face, Duncan and Ball (2011) asserted that they present the prime opportunity to give a voice of advocacy for the need of community colleges as well as to echo the need for support of their continued existence and growth. Duncan and Ball (2011) argued that community colleges now have the opportunity to show that they can be accountable and present evidence in terms of results that can be validated by students telling their about their successes and companies confirming their responsive support to corporate educational employment training needs. Fitzpatrick (2009) maintained how the opportunity is ripe for community colleges to confirm that four-year university maybe financially equip to attract top-level faculty and students; but, they are innately slow to embrace change; on the other hand, community colleges are smaller in nature as well as they are able to response quickly to needed

economical changes within our society. Romano, Gallagher, and Shugart (2010) argued that community colleges now have the opportunity to response to their challenges by taking a different approach such as looking at the bigger picture; seeking to develop other funding sources by providing community services for single parents, senior citizens and/or the K-12 environments.

On the whole, as it has been argued, this nation's institutional system of community colleges has had significant levels of successes, (AACC, 2012b, Alfred et al., 2009; Boggs, 2011; Nevarez & Woods, 2010) as well as it must face important challenges, (AACC, 2012b; Felix and Pope, 2010; White House, 2009; Boroch et al., 2010); however, it is in a position to take advantage of numerous opportunities (AACC, 2012b; Nevarz & Wood, 2010; Strom et al., 2011). In addition, as it can be argued and as Boggs (2011) posited, the nations across this world envy the American institutional system of community colleges. As the AACC (2012b) asserted, its leadership that is directly connected its leaders play an important role in its ability to continue to maintain as well as advance its levels of success as it is a guiding source in our dynamic changing society.

AACC Leadership Competencies

Wallin (2012) pointed out that American Association of Community Colleges' major component of its declaration concentrates on development of leadership. Historically, as AACC (2005) specifically argued, it has strategically focused on providing insightful leadership development that can advance leaders' ability to successfully lead their educational institutions The AACC maintained its central

organizational principles centers on the notion that effective skillfully-prepared leaders are critical to the institutional success of community colleges and their students (AACC, 2005). To ensure diversity exists in the midst of potential leaders of community colleges, Boggs (2011) proclaimed among its multiple goals, AACC promotes its leadership members to value diversity. To add, Nevarez and Wood (2010) maintained in efforts to provide community colleges leadership with means to develop and create meaningful networks, the AACC sponsors Future Leaders Institutes that offer various leadership specialized focus seminars to prepare community college leaders for advancement into higher level leadership positions. Shannon and Smith (2005) argued as an advocacy and support organization, AACC must continue to increase its efforts to support community colleges as they are valuable vehicles that can fulfill society's need to create an educated and first-class workforce. Overall, Adams (2010) asserted that AACC has emerged to support leaders within the educational sector of community colleges and believes that leaders can learn effective leadership as it is committed to support their growth and development.

The AACC (2005) argued that the data results from the research conducted to address the needs of community colleges leaders funded by a W.K. Kellogg Foundation grant, in, 2003, was impactful. As the AACC (2005) outlined its research efforts, it contended that a thorough investigation using a qualitative analysis was conducted with community college leadership between the year of 2003 and 2004. The research data findings from this study provided a solid base for the development of the AACC's framework of its six core leadership competencies (AACC, 2005). Ultimately, the AACC

(2005) asserted that this newly developed proposed leadership competency framework was submitted to the AACC Board of Directors, who unanimously approved it on April, 9 2005. AACC's defined community colleges leaders' six competencies which center on organizational strategies, managing resources, effectively communicating, collaboration, advocacy and professionalism See Appendix B for a complete list community colleges leaders' six competencies

In terms of leadership development interventions in forms of development programs and institutes, Boggs (2011) proclaimed that AACC's leadership competencies have often been used as a frame reference. For instance, Boyle (2011) used AACC's six leadership competencies as a frame of reference and aligned them with the published competencies for instructional designers mandated by the International Board of Standards for Training, Performance and Instruction to make a case for instructional designers. Ultimately, Boyle (2011) argued that in light of instructional designers and presidents of community colleges having comparable educational preparation and competency requirements as well as similar skill-sets, instructional designers should be considered for future community college leadership positions. Ultimately, as Adams (2010) maintained, the AACC is hopeful that its six leadership competencies platform will serve aspiring leaders to use it as a framework that will guide their professional development and preparation for executive leadership positions within the community colleges educational sector.

From this perspective, scholarly researchers have employed the AACC's six leadership competency framework to validate arguments related to their educational

research studies (Hassan, Dellow and Jackson, 2009; McNair, 2009; McNair, Duree, & Ebbers, 2011). The following discussion explores several research studies that used AACC's six leadership competencies a frame of reference.

For example, McNair (2009) used the AACC leadership competency framework to guide a study conducted with California community college leaders that analyzed the perceptions of their value of these competencies. In additional, the California community college leaders' perceptions pertaining to their belief about the addition leadership competencies that could be instrumental in development of future leaders as it could be addressed doctoral leadership studies was investigated by McNair (2009). Overall, as it relates to AACC's leadership competencies, the study's finding offered promising results such as: the respondents collectively supported the need for core organizational management competency; they also agreed that the resource management and communication competencies are essential; additionally, there were high agreement on the value of key collaboration and community college advocacy competencies (McNair, 2009) . However, the study did reveal that respondents had some differences in their responses in regard to elements relating to AACC's professionalism competency. The respondents agreed that it was essential to have a professionalism competency, but some respondents indicated that some administrator should include the expression of solid history, philosophy and culture as well as they felt that their college should contribute to their professional development. In general, the AACC's six leadership competencies were considered valuable for enhance the effectiveness in their administrative performances.

Similarly, Hassan, Dellow, and Jackson (2009) investigated how New York and Florida community college presidents and their board of trustee chairperson viewed the valued of AACC's six leadership competency framework. The participants were 59 presidents and trustees, respondents, who were asked to participate in a quantitative research procedure that consisted of completing a surveys instrument liker-type scale based upon questions relating to whether or not the respondent thought AACC competencies were essential or not (Hassan et al., 2009). In addition, as Hassan et al. (2009) claimed, the respondents were examined in relationship to how they felt about various experiences and if these related experiences would help them develop each of AACC competencies more in depth. The research study's finding clearly indicated, as Hassan et al. (2009) claimed, that the respondents found AACC's leadership competencies of importance and they felt that the study brought a unique perspective as it related that respondents held different leadership position responsibilities in different geographical locations. Hassan et al. (2009) argued that these finding could indicate that AACC's leadership competencies could be implemented in a broad spectrum.

Along the same line, McNair et al. (2011) employed the AACC's six competency leadership framework as a guide to discuss the finding from their study. McNair et al. (2011) examined issues related to community colleges president's belief about what they think is the gap in their leadership training. These senior leaders gave narratives answers about various questions regarding leadership preparation and issues at hand as to what they would have done differently if they had another opportunity to address the issues at hand (McNair et al.,2011). Each of the questions centered on element relating to AACC's

six competency framework. McNair et al. (2011) argued that the results of their finding indicates that AACC's six competency framework was rated by respondents as being of substantially valuable. To add, respondents suggested that possible development of new competencies such as fundraising, project management and/or bonding management maybe of applicable as well as meaningful (McNair et al., 2011). In the same light, respondents suggested that it may not be feasible or realistic to expect the community college leader to perform all of the six competencies within the AACC leadership competency framework. Ultimately, McNair et al. (2011) posited that leaders can employ and recruit others to perform skills that they may be weak in performing, thus a team of leaders can be develop to mask the leadership issues at hand.

Overall, the argument that AACC's six competency leadership framework is acknowledge as a valuable leadership tool that can be employed as a guide and framework for leadership growth and development valid (Boggs, 2011; Hassan et al., 2009; McNair, 2009; McNair et al., 2011). The AACC's six competency leadership framework is essentially well respected and used by the community of the instructional system of the American community colleges leadership community.

AACC's Leadership Competences Aligned With EI

This researcher contends that elements of the professionalism leadership competency of AACC's (2005) six competency leadership framework can be directly aligned with elements of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) the four-branch model of emotional intelligence. This observation was a key driver that promoted the researcher to address the need of community college leaders to understand their emotions and the emotions of

others. Table 4 displays an perceived alignment between Mayer and Salovey's (1997) four-branch model of emotional intelligence and Elements of AACC's (2005) Competency of Professionalism. As Wallin (2012), McNair et al. (2011), and Hassan et al. (2009) agued, the validity of AACC's (2005) six competency framework is widely supported and it can be used as a guide for development of research of community college leaders across this country. Therefore, Table 4 was created by the researcher to explore and show a possible alignment between these two importance components in which is presented below.

Table 4

Comparison of Four Branch Model of E I (Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011)

and AACC's Competency of Professionalism (AACC, 2005)

Association of Community Colleges Competencies for Community College Leaders (Related Elements of the Competency of Professionalism) AACC's (2005)	Overview of the Four- Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer Salovey, 1997) (Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011)
-Self-access performance regularly using feedback, reflection, goal setting, and evaluation. -Demonstrate the courage to take risks, make difficult decisions, and accept responsibility. -Promote and maintain high standards for personal and organizational integrity, honest, and respect for people (AACC, 2005).	(Branch 1)Emotional Perception The ability to perceive emotions in oneself and other, as well as in objects, art, stories, music and other stimuli (Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011).
-Demonstrate transformational leadership through authenticity, creativity and vision. - Understand and endorse the history, philosophy, and culture of the community college. - Weigh short-term and long-term goals in decision Making (AACC, 2005).	(Branch2) Facilitating Thought The ability to generate, use, and feel emotion as necessary to communicate feeling, or employ them in other cognitive processes (Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011).

-Understand the impact of perceptions, world views and emotions on self and others. - Contribute to the profession through professional development profession through professional development programs, professional organizational leadership, and research/publication (AACC, 2005).	**(Branch3) Understanding Emotions** The ability to understand emotional information, how emotions combine and progress through relationship transitions, and to appreciate such emotional meanings(Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011).
- Manage stress through self-care, balance, adaptability, flexibility, and humor. - Understand the impact of perceptions, world views, and emotions on self and others. - Support lifelong learning for self and others. - Use influence and power wisely to facilitating the teaching-learning process and the exchange of knowledge(AACC, 2005).	(Branch 4) Managing Emotions The ability to be open to feeling, and to modulate them in oneself and others so as to promote personal understanding and growth, emotions, express and model emotions to others, as one reflect on these experiences to increase personal growth (Mayer-Salovey, &Caruson, 2011).

The Relationship between Community College Leaders and Emotional Intelligence

As it relates to the relevance of emotional intelligence and community college leaders, Ullman (2010) precisely argued that emotional intelligence is one of today's key skill-sets needed for community college leaders to reach their levels of success. To add, Basham and Mathur (2010) posited that although, community college leaders can be creative with great ideas, undergo quality leadership training and have an open incisive mind set, they need to give attention to the value of obtaining soft skills as they are related to emotional intelligence. Basham and Mathur (2010) specifically argued community leaders will not be successful without emotional intelligence as it differentiates great leaders from good competent leaders.

Campbell, Syed, and Morris (2010) stressed the importance of community college leaders being emotional intelligent as it would be helpful in their leadership practices. Campbell, et al. (2010) advocated that community college leaders should complete a comprehensive emotional intelligence educational program versus a partial

basic training workshop. Yoder (2004) maintained in the past, the notions of emotions were viewed as an inappropriate element for the workplace; however, today, Yoder (2004) maintained it was evident that emotional intelligence is a valuable leadership skill-set needed to assist community colleges to accomplish it target objectives inclusively and beyond the focus of their mission and vision.

Basham and Mathur (2010) maintained that the dynamic platform of community colleges which include impactful factors such as: economic chaos, limited funding, deteriorating facilities and high employee turnover are directly related to the need for emotional intelligent community college leaders. Ullman's (2010) argument was based on the premise that community colleges leaders need to understand that their skill sets are constantly changing and they include the vital skills of emotional intelligence. Ideally, Yoder (2004) posited that community colleges leaders must manage themselves as well others individually while still managing their institution ability to invite and, ultimately, engage in the powerful energy and means created by elements of the emotional. Overall, it was posited in the literature that community college leaders play a key role in higher education (AACC, 2005; Boggs, 2011; Felix & Pope, 2010) and emotional intelligence is seen as an essential skill that they must master (Campbell et al., 2010; Ullman, 2010).

The Importance of the Research Literature Related to This Study

This chapter has examined the current relevant literature associated with the historical evolutionary conceptualization of emotional intelligence, elements of effective leadership in higher education and its relationship with emotional intelligence as well as the notion of performance and improvement as it relates to leadership styles,

transformational and transactional leadership styles as it is relative to leadership effectiveness, and emotional intelligence. Along these same lines, the environment related to the importance of community colleges and their leaders need to embrace the theory of emotional intelligence has be investigated and presented. Among a number of important points, the results from this literature review identifies specific gaps in the knowledge as relating to effective leadership and how it relates to emotional intelligence in realm of higher education as well as information relating to emotional intelligence and leaders in higher educational institutions of community colleges .

It has been well documented that effective leadership in higher education has notable significance (Parrish, 2011; Scott et al. 2008; Scott et al., 2010; Shaw, 2012; Siddique, Aslam, Khan, & Fatima, 2011). To add, the literature echoed that there is a lack of research addressing subject matter of effective leadership in higher education (Kalargyrou et al., 2012; Scott et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2010; Shaw, 2012; Siddique et al., 2011). In addition, the literature supported the notion that emotional intelligence is perceived as an important component of successful leadership in higher education (Abraham, 2006; Greenockle, 2010;Kreitz, 2009; Landau, & Meirovich, 2011; Jones, & Abraham, 2009;Scott et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2010; Vandervoort, 2006). Moreover, this review of the literature also supported the point of view that emotional intelligence can be related to community college leaders in their realm of higher education (Basham & Mathur, 2010; Campbell, Syed, & Morris, 2010; Ullman 2010, Yoder, 2006).

To add, the psychological and leadership literature, clearly, confirmed there is rapid growth of interest and research pertaining to emotional intelligence from various

points of interest (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Hughes, Patterson, & Terrell, 2005; Neale, Spencer-Arnell, & Wilson, 2009). In addition, the research resonated that there is a lack of research relating to the significant notion of emotional intelligence in the realm of higher education (Kreitz, 2009; Landau & Meiroich, 2011). In addition, in the workplace, EI is considered as a valuable leadership trait (Goleman, 2011; Lykins, 2011; Palethorpe, 2006; Walter, Humphrey, & Cole, 2012). In higher education, Mortiboys, (2012) acknowledged that EI is an important factor related to student success and it could be an essential element to promote their completion of the educational endeavors.

It is clear that the literature reflects the known fact that community colleges play a significant role in the U.S. higher educational system as well as they are essential for work force training and retraining (AACC, 2005; AACC, 2012b; Boggs, 2011; Holstein, 2011; Kolesnikova, 2009). As it relates to the work force, the corporate business environment find the link between EI and work force development an attractive key strategy to improve workplace performance and it has significant interest in its workforce being emotional intelligent (Catwright & Pappas, 2008; Cook, et al., 2011; Lykins,, 2011; Landau & Meirovich, 2011) . Consequently, Bay and Mckeage (2006) asserted that educators in higher education should consider the importance of EI (both personally and professionally), and researchers are recommending that educators include emotional intelligence education within their educational program (Abraham, 2006). Clearly, there is a need to provide more empirical research regarding the ability of community college leaders as it relates to emotional intelligence (Basham & Mathur, 2010; Campbell, Syed, & Morris, 2010; Ullman 2010, Yoder, 2006).

Conclusions

Overall, as the literature reveals, performance improvement is significantly related to leadership effectiveness (Chevalier, 2006; Enos, 2007; Vijayaragava, 2008) and emotional intelligence (Farth, Seo, & Tesluk, 2012; Irend, 2008; Kaiser et al., 2012) . Effective leadership is inclusively and directly related to leaders having the ability to utilize interpersonal skills successfully to motivate and influence individuals, teams, and organizations to increase performance (Kaiser et al., 2012; Yukl, 2012). Clearly, successful leaders must motivate and inspire others to perform if high levels of performance are achieved (Vijayaragavan, 2008). Enos (2007) firmly argued that the most powerful leaders of any organization are incapable of reaching success alone without assistance from others in terms of teams or individuals performance. People are one of the most valuable non-tangible organizational tools as they represent the human capital that actually performs any type of performance improvement (Iacob & Andrei, 2011; Van Tiem et al., 2012). Just as importantly, performance improvement process is driven by effective leadership (Cassidy & Cassidy, 2006; Enos, 2007; Van Tiem et al., 2012; Vijayaragavan, 2008; Yukl, 2012).

Despite, the enormous research conducted on factors relative to effective leadership, Yukl (2012) argued that more research is still needed to actually reveal taxonomies for effective leadership. Just as significantly, the environment of higher education echoes the same need to produce more research pertaining to effective leadership (Bolden et al., 2009; Drew, 2010; Scott et al., 2008). In order to strategically compete, performance improvement is a requirement that must be addressed in order for

an organization/institution to survive in this rapidly growing economy (Enos, 2007) and effective leadership can be the key factort that can improve performance to meet this demanding task at hand (Yukl, 2012). This study addresses these needs and concerns.

In the same lines, emotional intelligence is an essential skill that is linked leadership and effective leaders (Hahn, Sabou, Toader, & Rădulescu, 2012; Iuscu, Neagu, & Neagu, 2012; Van Teim et al., 2012). Leaders with effective emotional intelligence skills encompass emotional capabilities that centers on successful deploying interpersonal abilities that can encourage, motivate and inspirer to increase performance (Chang et al. 2012; Goleman, 2011; Mayer et al. 2011; Yukl, 2012)). On this same note, Iuscu, Neagu, & Neagu, (2012) posited that the pure essence of emotional intelligence can assist leaders to handle everyday and difficult challenge they must endure. Ideally, Iusc et al. (2012 argued, emotional intelligence is recognized for being instrumental in directly providing leaders with the capabilities to performance with excellence when faced with the need to execute leadership skills applicable to solving complex and difficult tasks. No matter what the domain and/or business environment, the literature clearly speaks to the valuable partnership of emotional and intelligence as it relates to leaders being more efficiently equipped to perform more effectively (Hahn et al., 2012; Iuscu et al. 2012).

Chapter Summary

In sum, this study ventures to address these issues of lack of EI ,higher education leadership, community college leadership with specific regards to EI research and it is hopeful that it will provide a meaningful research source and contribution to the studies of EI as well as to leadership in higher education, with specific focus on leaders of

community colleges. As the purpose of this study is to examine where EI theory can be extended to the community college environment to potentially affect its leaders' EI levels that could eventually lead to the its leaders addressing the need to increase their levels of emotional intelligence; thereafter, the educational means to extend EI education could be extended to faculty, staff and students. To explore the awareness and ability related to emotional intelligence of community college leaders, Michigan community college leaders' EI levels will obtain by way of EI testing and a correlation as well as an evaluation of their leaders' individual leadership practices will conducted using self-rated leadership practices inventories. Ideally, as Kaufman and Guerra-Lopez (2013) argued, in order for organizational success, first, the focus should be on determining the results that are needed and desired before attempting to improve performance. This study can be instrumental in providing means to determine the needed results that could lead to improve leadership effectiveness in higher education as well as community college leadership relative to emotional intelligence. The next chapter, Chapter 3, will discuss the methodology of this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

While the benefits of EI on outcomes have been demonstrated in the areas of leadership in business (Druskat et al, 2006; Goleman, 2005) and student outcomes in K-12 grades (Durlak et al., 2011); there is little research on the application of EI in higher education (Matthews et al., 2006; Murphy, 2006). There is currently a gap in the research literature on whether or not leadership in higher education are implementing EI skills, is aware of the importance of EI and effective leadership practices in the realm of higher education, and if there is a relationship between EI and leadership efficacy in a community college sample. This information is vital to ascertain as community colleges are charged with educating community residents to prepare them for employment and other educational opportunities. However, as Holstein (2011) suggested, employers are not able to find qualified candidates even though more than 15 million people are seeking employment. Moreover, some researchers noted community college leaders who are unable to cope gracefully with stress and hardship may impact their subordinates negatively (Rajah et al., 2011), and such attitudes may ultimately impact student services and outcomes.

If community college leadership is unaware of the benefits of EI on leadership and educational outcomes, and are not currently implementing EI behaviors, perhaps information on this relationship can be promulgated to this group. Such information may impact future curriculum development plans, foster successful interactions with subordinates, and lead to social change. The current proposed research adds to the

literature on EI and leadership and will address three core issues to help fill the theoretical gap in emotional intelligence research. Accordingly, the purpose of the current quantitative correlation study was to (a) determine community college leaders' self reported levels of EI , (b) examine community college leaders' degree of self-reported levels of engaging and performing effective leadership behaviors and practices within the domain of higher education; and (c) explore the correlation relationship between community college leaders' self-reported levels of EI and their self-reported level engaging and performing effective leadership behaviors and practices within the domain of higher education . The results of the investigation provide new data that could advance post secondary educational leadership to improve institutional performance. This chapter provides a description of the proposed research approach and design, sample, instruments, data collection, data analysis, and role of the researcher.

Research Approach and Design

A quantitative research approach and a correlation research design were conducted. Quantitative research is based on statistical methods that examine social relationships and patterns through the expression of numbers (Rudestam, & Newton, 2001). Descriptive and inferential statistics are used in quantitative research to support probabilistic arguments (Rudestam, & Newton, 2001). This research approach is centered on the creation of generalized of generalized results of empirical evidence based on samples to develop specific generalities that could apply to a targeted populations in specific situations (Rudestam, & Newton, 2001).

In this study, two research instruments were used to collect empirical research data: The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) developed by Schutte et al., (1998) and the Leader Practices Inventory (Leadership Practices Inventory, n.d.). Kun, Balazs, Kapitany, Urban, and Demetrovics (2010) noted that multiple names for the AES exist as the authors of the publication in which the instrument was published did not stipulate a specific name for the instrument. Later, Schutte, Malouff and Bhullar (2009) declared that in some literature, the AES is identified as the Emotional Intelligence Scale, the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, and the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test. In addition, the Leader Practices Inventory (LPI) is a self-reporting quantitative instrument test that can collect empirical data to create inferential statistics about leaders' level of frequency relating to engaging, exhibiting, and performing effective leadership practices and behaviors used (Leadership Practices Inventory, n.d.).

Sample and Setting

The study population sample will be senior leaders from selective community colleges located within the United States' region two Midwest's division three, namely the East North Central Division which is inclusive of the following five states: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and, Wisconsin (The United States Census Bureau, n.d. a). In the United States, the entire Midwest Region consist of twelve states inclusive of the above mention states and seven additional other states which are following: Minnesota, Lowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska and Kansas (The United States Census Bureau, n.d. a). As reported by the United States Census Bureau in 2010, out of 308.7 million people in United States, a total of 64, 392, 776 million people are located in

the Midwest Region (The United States Census Bureau, n.d. a). Within the Midwest Region's East North Central Division Three, each state has a significant amount of community colleges that leaders may be selected from to be a participant in the study population.

Specially, the participants of this study will be senior leaders in a community college environment that consisted of presidents, vice-presidents and deans. There are a total of 153 community colleges located in the Midwest Region North Central Division Three of the United States which includes five states, namely, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. Only 115(75% 153) community colleges listed as members of the American Association of Community Colleges will be contacted (the College Finder, n.d.) and invited to participate in this study. Inclusively, after inspection of these 115 AACC member community colleges, it was revealed that there were 19 technical two-year colleges considered as community colleges with their states. Due to their membership of AACC, these 19 technical two-year colleges will be invited to participate in this study as well.

As community colleges provide a dynamic stage for this study, they are acknowledged as key players in higher education, specifically, pertaining to their ability to educate students from all walks of life (Dassance, 2011; Felix & Pope, 2010; Holstein, 2011; Kolesnikova, 2009). Community colleges serve as a primary channel for 13 million students across this country to obtain higher education, personal and corporate training as as workforce (Joint Legislative Agenda for the 113th Congress, n.d.). In addition to their general goals and forecasts, community colleges' leaders are charge with,

by 2020, the goal of educating 5 million additional students with degrees, certifications, and/or other skilled credentials (AACC, n.a.b). Community colleges are crucial education providers to a diverse student population (Boggs, 2011; Dassance, 2011; Felix & Pope, 2010; Zeidenberg, 2008). As a prime gateway to higher education, community colleges are deemed as primary source for the most diverse student body in history to have an increased opportunity for a better life (Boggs, 2011).

To add, the community college environment provide a dynamic platform for this study being that it has an influential role in the well-being of today's United States' economy (Boggs, 2011; AACC 2012b). Community colleges have received substantial attention from policy makers (AACC 2012b), the employers in the workforce (Holsten, 2011), and students alike (Dassance, 2011). President Barack Obama has acknowledged that community colleges are key players directly connected to the economic growth and success of the United States (Boggs, 2011). One of important role that Community colleges play in our economy is to assist the United States in returning to the position of the world's leader in higher education (Joint Legislative Agenda for the 113th Congress, n.d.). In addition, employers are looking to community colleges and their leaders to provide a rich resource for effectively training and retaining the workforce (Boggs, 2011; Holstein, 2011). Along this same line, community colleges' current and potential students are examining strategies for community colleges to assist them in increasing their skill-sets that could lead economic growth and prosperity (AACC, 2012b; Boggs, 2011; Holstein, 2011; Zeidenberg, 2008).

Materials and Instruments

The proposed instruments in this study included the Assessing

Emotions Scale (AES) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Both of these

instruments are unique and have a proven track-record for providing valuable research

data that has been adequately documented in research studies alike as it will be explained

below.

Assessing Emotions Scale (AES). This researcher's contention to employ the

AES in this research study was inspired by its structural scheme, which was strategically

derived from aspects of EI's formulation in its earliest stage of development (Ciarrochi,

Chan, & Bajgar, 2001). The AES's self-report questionnaire is based directly on Salovey

and Mayer's (1990) original three-branch conceptual model of EI and their approach to

the assessment of EI (Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2009). As previously addressed,

Goleman (2011a) argued that Peter Salovey and John Mayer were on the forefront in EI's

conceptual developmental stages as they were the first to propose its conceptualization in

their 1990 seminal article and presented the first efforts to assess EI in 1993 (Mayer &

Salovey, 1993; Zeider, 2009). Not only does the literature reveal that the development of

AES was based upon Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model (Kun, Balazs, Kapitany, Urban,

& Demetrovics, 2010; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al, 2009), more recently, it was

argued and acknowledged that AES is considered as an assessment that operationalizes

Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original model as well (Ponterotto, Ruckdeschel, Joseph, &

Tennenbaum, 2011).

Various theorists and researchers (Bhullar, Schutte & Malouff, 2012; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Kun et al., 2010;) have acknowledged the AES as a valued EI assessment instrument. Kun et al. (2010) asserted that the AES is a common and widely used research instrument to assess and examined all factors of EI. As King, Mara, and DeCicco (2012) claimed, the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) is among the popular self-reporting EI measures. Schutte, Malouff and Bhullar (2009) confirmed the AES' resourcefulness in measuring the personal traits related individuals' levels of EI.

Initially, Schutte et al. (1998) used a factor analysis and developed a three sub-factor categorical model of the 33 items questionnaire that focused on areas such as: (1) appraisal ad expression, (2) regulation, and (3) utilization of one's emotions. Due to various research evidence concerns, more recently, Schutte et al. (2009) attested to a more widely used structure of the AES and identified four sub-scales relating to individuals: (1) perceptions of their emotions, (2) management their emotions, (3) management other's emotions, and (4) the utilization which will be used here in this study. The AES provides participants with a five-point likert scale: *strongly disagree* is represented by point one, *somewhat agree* is represented by point two, *neither agree nor disagree* is represented by point three, *somewhat agree* is represented by point four, and *strongly agree* is represented by point five (Schutte et al., 2009). It generally requires participants on average of five minutes to complete the entire scale.

Researchers began to examine AES' EI measurably (Ciarrochi, Chan & Bajgar, 2001; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Saklofske, Austin & Minski, 2003). Ciarrochi et al., (2001) supported AES' structural platform claiming its usefulness and distinctness as a

valid EI measure and suggested that AES three sub-factor scale could be broken down into a four sub-scale and recommended further research regarding self-reporting EI measures such as AES. Although, Petrides and Furnham (2000) and Saklofske et al. (2003) questioned the AES's scientific structure as they examined it through exploratory and confirmatory factorial analyses, they supported the AES construct's reliability, distinctiveness, and ability to have predictive and discriminative validities.

As one examines the historical development of the AES, it is clear that both Schutte et al. (1998) and Schutte et al. (2009) provided foundational records of extant data relative to AES' embryonic and developmental stages of growth. Schutte et al. (1998) contended that Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model was a better fit to base AES' structural design upon due to it could be use to address an individual's state of emotional intelligence; whereas, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model centered more on a process-oriented approach relative to emotional intelligent developmental and intellectual growth. Moreover, Schutte et al. (2009) addressed more recent developments and issues relating to the implementation of AES's structural design according a host of empirical and scientific studies from various researchers (Brackett, & Mayer, 2003; Ciarrochi et al., 2001; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Saklofske et al., 2003). Clearly, as Schutte et al. (1998) and Schutte et al. (2009) both argued, the AES has been acknowledged as a creditable EI model that provides a sound and theoretical platform for the measurement of EI.

Foundationally, Schutte et al. (2009) asserted that the AES seeks to assess individuals' EI characteristics and/or traits. Petrides and Furnham (2001) firmly argued that there are primarily two main types of EI models: the trait and ability model.

MacCann et al. (2004) maintained that EI trait/mixed models identify a set of traits/characteristics to predict levels of emotional intelligent behaviors; whereas, ability models identify particular performance/behaviors to determine the level of emotional intelligence. Early on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model referred to both EI traits and abilities which is considered as a mix model (MacCann et al., 2004); however, Mayer and Salovey's (1997) refined model argued EI from solely an ability perspective (MacCann et al., 2004; Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2009). As a result of employing the AES in their study of factors relating life's psychological distress and elements of satisfaction, Bhullar et al. (2012) contested individuals with higher traits of EI could have a increased ability to overcome negative challenges related o psychological distress aligned with issues of satisfaction concerning matters of everyday living. As Schutte et al. (2009) contended that the AES is focused on assessing individuals EI traits and/or characteristics, they stressed the issue of employing EI trait self-reports and/or other report assessments to obtain information concerning individuals using EI in their everyday living situations.

The ASE has been evaluated for reliability and validity and has been shown to have high internal consistency reliability (Schutte et al., 1998; Schutte et al., 2009). That is, calculations of internal consistency Cronbach's alpha of .87 as reported by Schutte et al. (1998) as a result of testing college students. Previously, internal reliability scale that responded to the AES. reliability revealed a full scale reliability score of .84, an experiential reliability of .80, and a strategic reliability of .85 (Mayer et al.,). Test-retest reliability was reported at .78 for the full scale (Schutte et al. 1998). The instrument has

also been shown to have good incremental validity (Brackett, & Mayer, 2003) and good content validity (Schutte,et al. 1998). Factor analysis has demonstrated the instrument measures general EI, and the instrument has also been shown to have good discriminant and predictive validity, and excellent construct validity (Schutte et al. 1998; Schutte et al., 2009). A copy of the AES (Schutte et al., 2009) is located in Appendix C and Appendix D presents a copy of the email providing a permission statement allowing the AES instrument to be used in this study.

Kun et al. (2010) and Ponterotto, Ruckdeschel, Joseph, and Tennenbaum (2011) concurred and noted that the AES is broadly used and has received extensive scientific attraction based on its theoretical structural design and ease of application. Brackett and Mayer (2003) contended that today there are a variety of EI tests and AES is one of the best-known and used EI test available. Austin, Saklofske, Huang and McKenney (2004) and Kim, Wang, and Ng (2010) noted that researchers' increased interest in employing the AES is partly due to its notable brevity and availability when compared with commercialized EI trait research instruments. King et al. (2012) maintained that the AES has the ability to accurately address the inclusive gamut of factors relative to the measurement of EI. Overall, Kim et al. (2010) found the ASE to be a highly reliable EI testing instrument.

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Due to its solid foundational platform, the LPI assessment was selected to generate data for the quantitative analysis of the community college senior leader participants' leadership behavioral practices. This leadership behavior data collection tool is well-acknowledged for being an effective

quantitative data collection tool (The leadership challenge, 2002). The authors, Jim Kouzes and Barry Posner, proclaimed that the LPI has been tested by themselves and other researchers as it was administered to well over 350,000 leaders and non-leaders in the contextual environment of business and educational organizations which suggests its validation (The leadership challenge, 2002).

The LPI's conceptualization is based on the Five Practices of Exemplary Leaders framework presented by the leadership challenge created by James Kouzes and Barry Posner (The Leadership Challenge, n.d.). As these authors argued, the LPI's five practice framework was generated by using data from in-depth interviews as well as written case studies from leaders' personal-best leadership practices and experiences (The Leadership Challenge, 2002). According to The Leadership Challenge (2002), the LPI is available in several forms of assessments: (1) the LPI 360 version provides a comprehensive assessment that allows the leadership to have leaders and observers (selected by the leaders) to assess the leaders' leadership behaviors and practices, (2) LPI Self version allows the individual leader to assess his or her leadership behaviors by using a 10-point frequency behavioral scale, and (3) the student LPI presents a version that specifically focuses on high school or college students.

The LPI Self is a research instrument that offers a leader an engaging leadership self-evaluation experience targeting five components (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.). The questionnaire takes approximately 10 to 20 minutes to complete and is based upon their ability to engage in the thirty targeted leadership behavior practices (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.). The LPI rests upon an evidence-based foundation with a track record of

over 1.3 million research surveys employed and analyzed (Kouzes & Posner, n.d.). Additionally, it has been used in over 500 research projects and dissertations that addressed various industries including higher education (Kouzes & Posner, n.d.). Through the examination of thousands of LPI surveys, Kouzes and Posner (2002) posited that the conceptual focus of the LPI manifested from the collected data rendered through the exploration of the responses to the questionnaires and case studies as they addressed issues regarding leadership best principles and practices. As mentioned earlier, the fundamental framework and foundation for LPI was grounded on what Kouzes and Posner (2012, p. 69) referred to as "The Leadership Challenge," five practices and 10 extraordinary commitments for effective leadership, which include: (1) Modeling the way, (2) Inspiring a shared vision, (3) Challenging the process, (4) Enabling others to take action, and (5) Encouraging the heart of others.

The LPI Self has been shown to have acceptable reliability and validity estimates. For example, reliability indices from the LPI Self range between .75 and .87 across numerous populations (Kouzes, & Posner, 2002). Moreover, test-retest reliability estimates suggest that the scores on the instrument are relatively stable over time (Kouzes, & Posner, 2002). Additionally, an evaluation of validity estimates demonstrated that the LPI has excellent face validity and construct validity and is effective in assessing capabilities of leaders (Kouzes, & Posner, 2002). Finally, the LPI has been demonstrated to have structural and concurrent validity (Leong, 1995). A copy of the Leadership Practice Inventory is located in Appendix E and Appendix F has a copy of LPI permission letter of copyright, while Appendix G includes a copy of the email that gives

permission to create a Survey Monkey version of the LPI for the purposes of research distribution.

Procedure Data collection. Following approval from the IRB, the researcher obtained community college senior leaders' (presidents, vice-presidents, and senior deans) email addresses from the public roster of the selected community colleges that will be included in the sample study population. Senior community college leaders participants were invited to participate in the study by letter invitation via an electronic email with the Survey Monkey data collection system. The invitation letter described the study inclusively and provide informed consent information. Potential participants were told their decision to participate is completely voluntary, and if they participate they can decide to quit at any time. Study participates were advised that through the use Survey Monkey's data collection system their responses on the AES and LPI remain completely confidential and not even the researcher (the principle investigator) will not be able to identify those who choose to participate in the study. Participants were asked to indicate consent by clicking on the online survey link before they are allowed to participate. Then, the participants were instructed to complete the online Survey Monkey version of the AES and LPI.

The data design of this study was centered on allowing participants to remain anonymous. Participants who take the AES and/or the LPI assessments will not be required to provide any other identifiers such as their name, instructional location and/or any other demographic information. After participants completed the study questionnaires, the data were downloaded into SPSS.

Data analysis. Descriptive and inferential analyses were used to analyze the study data. Descriptive statistics were used to address research questions 1 and 2 and a correlation coefficient will be used to address research question 3 to determine the relationship between EI leadership attributes and leadership efficacy. All analyses were conducted using SPSS.

A series of statistical analyses were used to examine the study data that will be collected. As descriptive statistics summarized and describes the research data collected (Triola, 1997), several descriptive statistical examinations were conducted to determine central tendency of the data results such as the mean, median, and mode. A standard deviation and normal curve of distribution will be calculated to determine how spread out the data numbers are within the data results collected from this study (Triola, 1997). Since, the data that were collected in this study was of ordinal nature (Triola, 1997), the spearman correlation was used to determine the relationship between the two test variable results obtain from the AES and LPI will be used. In addition, Cronbach's alpha analyses were used to calculate internal consistency reliability for all scales included in this study. Specifically, a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 or above served to indicate that an acceptable level of reliability existed.

In order to answer research question one (*what is the self reported level of emotional intelligence displayed by leaders in a community college setting?*), data obtained from utilizing the Assessing Emotions Scale, is reported in the results chapter. Table 5 displays research question one and its sub-scales.

Table 5

Research Question 1		
What is the self-reported level of emotional intelligence displayed by leaders in a community college setting?		

Four Sub-Scales	Brief Description	Characteristic Assessment Item
Perception of Emotion (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	How individuals perceive emotions within themselves and others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, and 33 (Schutte et al., 2009)
Managing Own Emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	How individuals regulate their emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, and 31,
Managing other Emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	How individuals adjust, react and embrace the emotions of others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	1, 4, 11, 134, 16, 24, 26, and 30 (Schutte et al., 2009)
Utilization of Emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	How individuals have the ability to use their emotions to solve problems (Salovey & Mayer, 1990)	6, 7, 8, 17, 20, and 27 (Schutte et al., 2009)

In order to answer research question two (*what is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting?*), data results obtained from employing the LPI were analyzed. Table 6 displays research two and its sub-scales.

Table 6

Research Question 2

What is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting?		
Four Sub-Scales	Brief Description	Characteristic Assessment Item
Modeling the Way (The Leadership Challenge.	Leaders establish values, their voice, and shared values	1, 6, 11, 16, 21, and 26 (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)

n.d.)	(The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	
Inspiring a Shared Vision (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Leaders create and maintain excitement and possibilities of the future (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	2, 7, 12, 17, 22, and 27 (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)
Challenging the Process (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Leaders challenge the process by searching for opportunities and innovative methods for improvement (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	3, 8, 11, 13, 18, 23, and 28 (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)
Enabling Others to Act (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Leaders create collaboration through trust, and sound relationships (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	4, 9, 14, 19, 24, and 29 (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)
Encouraging the Heart (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Leaders acknowledge others contributions by showing individuals appreciation for their work, and create a community environment that celebrate values and accomplishments (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	5, 10, 15, 20, 25, and 30 (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)

In order to answer research question three (*is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency level of engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices?*), a spearman correlation analysis was conducted using the emotional the community college leaders' emotional intelligence score from the AES and the leadership score from the LPI. Table 7 displays research question three and its sub-scales.

Table 7

Research Question 3

Is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices?

Variable 1	Variable 2	Correlation Factor of the Potential Outcome
Overall EI Detected Level of :Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, and Senior Deans	Modeling the Way (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Correlation results between Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, Senior Deans and Modeling the Way
Overall EI Detected Level of: Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, and Senior Deans	Inspiring a shared vision (The Leadership Challe n.d.)	Correlation results between Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, Senior Deans and Inspiring a shared vision
Overall EI Detected Level of :Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, and Senior Deans	Challenging the process (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Correlation results between Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, Senior Deans and Challenging the process
Overall EI Detected Level of :Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, and Senior Deans	Enabling others of act (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Correlation results between Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, Senior Deans and Enabling others to act
Overall EI Detected Level of :Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, and Senior Deans	Encouraging the heart (The Leadership Challenge. n.d.)	Correlation results between Community College Presidents, Vice Presidents, Senior Deans and Encouraging the heart

Table 8 presents a summary of the three research questions included in this study and the

statistical assessment proposed for each of these research questions.

Table 8

Research Question	Instrument(s)	Scale Type	Sample Size	Proposed Test(s)
1. What is the self-reported level of	The Assessing	- Ordinal - Self- Reported	Selective community	Descriptive Statistics

emotional intelligence displayed by leaders in a community college setting?	Emotions Scale (AES)	- 5 pointed, Likert Rating Scale	colleges within: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin	
2. What is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting?	The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)	- Ordinal - Self-Reported - 10 pointed, Likert Rating Scale	Selective community colleges within: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin	Descriptive Statistics
3. Is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices?	N/A	N/A	Selective community colleges : Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin	Spearman Correlation

The researcher expected to find relatively high average levels of self-reported emotional intelligence, as well as level of leadership among leaders in a community college setting, while some differences are expected on the basis of occupational group. Additionally, a positive, significant correlation was predicted between emotional intelligence and leadership within this same setting.

Summary

This chapter presented a description of the research study methodology that was deployed in the study. Information about the research approach, the sample and setting,

the study instruments was provided. Additionally, the procedural approach, which includes the data collection and data analysis process, has been explained. The next chapter, Chapter 4, presents information about the results of the statistical examination used in this study to acquire meaningful empirical data.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

This human performance quantitative research study was conducted to assess and explore leaders' self-reported levels of EI and frequency levels of engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college environment. Additionally, the study sought to determine if there was a correlation between the aforementioned leaders' assessments of their self-reported level of EI and their self-reported frequency of effective leadership behaviors. The present chapter provides the results of the study and is arranged as follows. Focal points about the study sample are discussed. The data collection process is explained. Along the same lines, the results for each research question are presented and the chapter concludes with a summary of the study finding.

Study Sample Focal Points

The participants in this study were senior community college leaders, including school presidents, academic vice presidents, and senior deans. Inclusively, these senior community college leaders represented targeted community colleges located within five states of the United States' Region Two Midwest' Division Three: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. Specifically, each community college was selected from *The American Association of Community Colleges' membership listing* (Community College Finder, n.d.).

The *American Association of Community Colleges* (AACC) was a reputable source that provided a comprehensive list of community colleges located in the five states

addressed in this study (AACC, Who Are We, 2014). For over forty years, AACC has been the most recognized voice that has represented community colleges across this country (AACC, Who Are We, 2014). With this being the case, the researcher was confident that the approach of selecting the study sample would be inclusive of inviting all possible participants to participate.

The process that was used to select the targeted study sample of community colleges was unique. The researcher contacted a representative of the American Association of Community Colleges to verify that the list of community colleges provided on their website was inclusive of all of the community colleges located in the states of Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin as they are addressed in study. As of results of this investigation, a total of 153 community colleges were identified as being located in these states. Of these 153 community colleges, 115 (75% of the 153) community colleges were listed as members of the AACC. Inclusive of these 115 community colleges who were members of AACC, there were 19 technical two-year colleges that were considered as community colleges as well. Aligned with AACC's membership roster, sample consisted of 115 community colleges that were members of AACC. Figure 1 provides an illustration of the process of identifying community colleges to be used as institutions to participate in this study.

Figure 1 The Process of Identifying Community Colleges
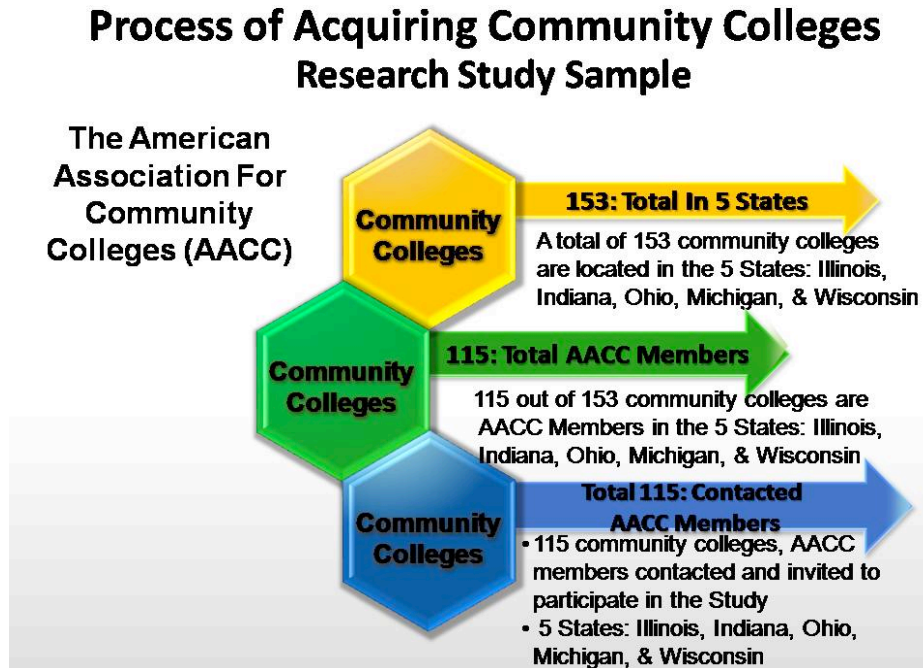
Data Collection Process

    Approval procedures. Prior to data collection, approval to conduct the study from the Wayne State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained and permission to use the study instruments was granted. Because both the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) were the specific data collection instruments posited to be used in this research study, the researcher contacted their representatives. In the following sections, a detailed discussion

that explains the processes and procedures to gain approval for the deployment of both LPI and AES as data collection instruments to be used in this study will be presented.

In order to be granted permission to utilize the LPI as a research data collecting instrument, the researcher was given a specific process to follow. Exclusively, the LPI representative required the researcher to complete the following steps: 1) complete and submit the LPI's research application that allows it to be utilized only for research purposes, 2) submit a copy of dissertation proposal, 3) purchase the current LPI facilitator manual and a copy of the self LPI assessment; and, 4) pay licensing fees for the permission to distribute LPI electronically to research participants. In addition, the researcher was required to sign a commitment agreement which specified that the findings of this research study upon completion would be submitted to the LPI representative. The researcher agreed to give the LPI representative permission to publically publish the results of this research on the LPI web-site along with other applicable research findings. After meeting these requirements, the researcher was given full permission to employ the LPI for research purposes only and it is one of the primary data collection instruments used in this study.

To gain permission to utilize the AES as a research data collection tool, the researcher followed a different and more simplistic procedure. Via email, the researcher contacted the co-creator of the AES, Dr. Nicola Schutte (Schutte al et., 1998; Kun, Balazs, Kapitny, Urbanm, & Demetrovics, 2010) who is located in London, Europe. In this email, the purpose and structural format of this research as well as a description of the targeted participants were presented. In addition, a request for permission to utilize

the AES as the one of the primary research data collection tools used in this research study was proposed. In turn, Dr. Nicola Schutte replied to an email and extended permission for the researcher to utilize the AES for only research purposes in this study. Hence, copies of approval documentation to utilize both the LPI and AES as research data collection instruments are provided in the appendix (See Appendix D and E).

Thereafter submitting documentation that indicated approval to deploy the LPI and AES as research data collection instruments to Wayne State University IRB, the researcher had to address the next IRB requirement. At this point, IRB required the researcher to contact the potential research participants to validate the level interest of the potential research participants' willingness to participate in this study. To complete this task, the researcher directly contacted each of the 115 community colleges that were located within the five states. In doing so, an email that extended a personal invitation to participate in this study was sent to each of the 115 community college presidents' administrative assistants. Appendix J provides a copy of the personal invitation to the community college presidents

The email explained the purpose of the research and asked permission to obtain their institutions' senior leaders email addresses for the purpose of inviting them to participate in this research study. The email also explained that the leaders' identities and responses to the assessments would be anonymously obtained. If permission was given to participate in the study, each president's administrative assistant was requested to forward a list of their institution's senior leaders' email addresses so that they could be emailed an invitation to participate.

Additionally, the researcher used other means to increase the level of participants' interest to participate in this study. For instance, after sending each of the 115 community colleges the aforementioned email, the researcher made a personal follow-up phone call to speak with each president's administrative assistant. A follow-up email was also sent out and Appendix K provides a copy to be reviewed. . The purpose of this call was to: 1) alert the administrative assistants that the email was sent to them, 2) explain the research study's purpose in person via phone conversation and invite their educational institution to participate, 3) answer any questions that might be need to be answered. In sum, the researcher asked each of the administrative assistants who represented the 115 community colleges if they had any questions or concerns pertaining to the study. After receiving 25 emailed responses from the community colleges and completing all other required documentations, the researcher, collectively, submitted this documentation to the IRB for approval. Thereafter, the researcher was granted permission to conduct this research study.

Sample identification process. After analyzing the email responses from each of the 115 community colleges, the results were as follows. Of the 115 targeted community colleges, 38 (33%) of them did not respond. Of these 115 community colleges, 2 (2%) chose not to participate in the research study. Additionally, 9(8%) out of the 115 community colleges required the researcher to complete a lengthy and timely IRB application process that could take months to complete and was not feasible to complete due to specific time restraints of this study. To sum up, 66 (57%) out of the 115 targeted

community colleges agreed to participate in this research study, as seen in Figure 2 below.

Figure 2 Sample Description
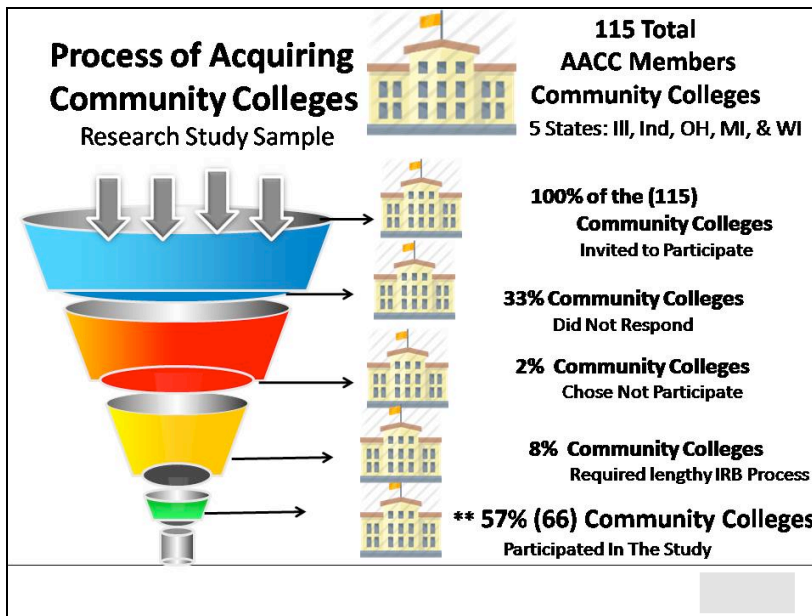
After the 66 (57%) out of the 115 community colleges presidents gave their assistants permission for their institution to participate in this study, the researcher received emails of confirmations from each prospective community college. Out the 66 community colleges, 47 (72%) of the community colleges assistants emailed the researcher a list of their senior leaders' email addresses. Likewise, out of the 66 community colleges, 14 (21%) of the community colleges assistants emailed the researcher directions on how to obtain their senior leaders' email addresses from the public institution's website. In sum, out of the 66 community colleges, 5 (7%) of the community colleges assistants emailed the researcher instructions to contact their staff

administrator to obtain an IRB application to be completed. Below, Figure 3 illustrates

the results of extending an invitation to 154 colleges to participate in this study.

Figure 3 *Results of Extending an Invitation to Participants*

Process of Acquiring 423 Community College Senior Leaders For The Study Sample

Per Approval of the (66) Community College Presidents: 423 Senior Leaders email addresses were obtained

72% out the 66 Community College President Assistances sent their senior leaders' email addresses to researcher,

21 % out the 66 Community College President Assistance directed the researcher to their website to obtain their senior leaders' email addresses

7 % out of the 66 Community College President Assistances directed the researcher to their staf administrator who required an I RB application to be completed.

Community College President Assistances (CCPA)

Of these 423 senior leaders who were contacted via email and extended an

invitation to participate, 165 (39 %) senior leaders elected to participate and completed at

least one of the research assessments, and 258 (61%) elected not to participate and did

not complete either of the research assessments. In addition, of the 423 senior leaders

who received an invitation to participate in the study, 125 (30%) senior leaders choose to

complete both assessments.   Explicitly, out of the 423 study sample participants

contacted, 147 (35%) study sample participants completed the Leadership Practice

Inventory assessment and 138 (33%) study sample participants completed the Assessing

Emotion Scale. Figure 4 illustrates these results..

Figure 4 *Survey Completion Rates*

Senior Community Colleges Leaders
Levels of Research Participation

147 out 423 (37%) Senior Leaders Completed LPI Assessment

Leaders Practice Inventory (LPI) (online)

258
60% 258 out 423
Did Not Participate

Senior Leaders

165 out 423 (40%) Senior Leaders Completed At Least One AES & LPI

138 out 423 (33%) Senior Leaders Completed AES Assessment

Assessing Emotional Scale (AES) (online)

A Total 423 Potential Community College leaders

Senior Leaders

125 out of 423 (30%) Senior Leaders Completed Both AES & LPI

Online survey administration. Several factors were involved in administering the research assessment online. In order to effectively collect and analyze the assessment data, the researcher paid the associated fees where necessary. First, the after obtaining the 423 senior community college leaders' email addresses, the researcher acquired the service of Survey Monkey, a renowned online data collection service. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) and the Assessing Emotions Scale's (AES) were formatted to be distributed on the Survey Monkey website portal. In doing so, Survey Monkey allowed participants to complete assessments in a manner that their identity would not be linked to their responses.

State sample distribution. Data was collected to attempt to identify the level of participants' participation regarding the state in which their institution resided. Participants' were only requested to answer one demographic question that asked that he or she select the state location where their community college was located in order to ensure anonymity. After analyzing the results of the participants' responses to this demographic question, the results were obtained. The results regarding the overall study sample of 165 participants who completed at least one assessment was used to explore the level of participation in each targeted state. This demographic data revealed that levels of participation per state are as follows: Illinois, 44 (27%), Indiana, 8(5%), Michigan, 41(25%), Ohio, 36(22%), and Wisconsin 22 (13%). Additionally, 14 participants (8%) failed to select a state. An illustration of these results is presented in Figure 5.

Figure 5 Participation by State

Study Sample Participants' Selection of the State Where Their Community College is Located

Legend:
- Illinois
- Indiana
- Michigan
- Ohio
- Wisconsin
- State Not Selected

Illinois 27%
Indiana 5%
Michigan 25%
Ohio 22%
Wisconsin 13%
State Not Selected 8%
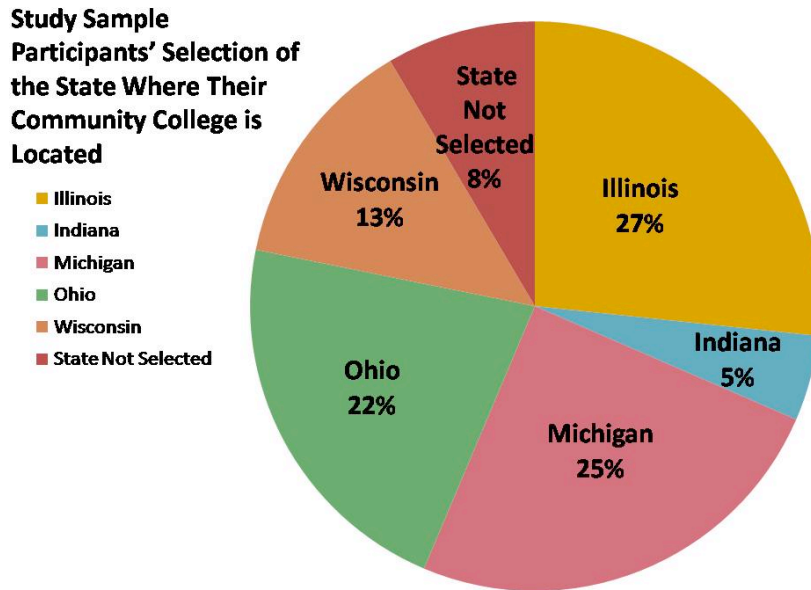
Results by Research Questions

Descriptive and inferential analyses were conducted to address the three research questions of the study.

Research question one. Research Question one asked What is the self-reported level of emotional intelligence of leaders in a community college setting? Descriptive analyses were used to address this research question.

Research Question one sought to determine the self-reported level of emotional intelligence of leaders in a community college setting. The specific data obtained from the results of the 138 study sample participants who completed the AES will be explored to provide answers to research question one. The mean score for the full AES was fairly high ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 0.33$). Subscores for the individual AES dimensions were all close

to this, with Managing Own Emotions being the highest (M = 4.15, SD = 0.36), followed by Perception of Emotion (M = 4.05, SD = 0.44), Managing Others' Emotions (M = 3.95, SD = 0.42), and Utilization of Emotions (M = 3.82, SD = 0.49). These and other descriptive statistics are shown in Table 1 (Overall AES) and Table 2 (AES Subscores). Overall these statistics consistently show that these community colleges leaders are relatively high in emotional intelligence.

Table 9 *Descriptive Statistics for AES*

		Assessing Emotions Scale Score
N	Valid	138
	Missing	27
Mean		4.01
Median		4
Mode		3.94[a]
Std. Deviation		0.33
Range		1.7
Minimum		3.06
Maximum		4.76

Note.[a]Multiple modes exist. The smallest

value is shown.

Table 10 Descriptive Statistics for AES Subscores

		Perception of Emotion	Managing Own Emotions	Managing Others' Emotions	Utilization of Emotions
N	Valid	138	138	138	138

Missing	27	27	27	27
Mean	4.05	4.15	3.95	3.82
Median	4.1	4.22	4	3.83
Mode	3.90[a]	4.00[a]	3.88[a]	3.67
Std. Deviation	0.44	0.36	0.42	0.49
Range	2.3	2.11	1.88	2.67
Minimum	2.6	2.78	2.88	2.33
Maximum	4.9	4.89	4.75	5

Note.[a]Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

Research question two. Research Question 2 asked What is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting? Descriptive analyses were used to address this research question.

Similar to the previous question, Research Question 2 explored the leaders' leadership behaviors as assessed by the LPI. The mean score for the 147 participants that answered the LPI ($M = 8.00$, $SD = 0.83$) was effectively quite close to that for the AES ($M = 4.01$, $SD = 0.33$), given that the LPI was on a 1 to 10 scale instead of a 1 to 5 like the AES. Subscores for the individual LPI dimensions were again clustering near this mean, with Model the Way being the highest ($M = 8.11$, $SD = 0.93$), followed by Encourage the Heart ($M = 8.06$, $SD = 1.17$), Challenge the Process ($M = 8.02$, $SD = 1.01$), Enable Other to Act ($M = 7.90$, $SD = 0.72$), and Inspire Shared Vision ($M = 7.89$, $SD =$

1.24).   Descriptive statistics are displayed in Table 3 (Overall LPI) and Table 4 (LPI Subscores). Overall, this analysis supports the idea that these community colleges leaders have moderately high level of using effective leadership behaviors and practices.

Table 11 *Descriptive Statistics for LPI*

		LPI Overall Score
N	Valid	147
	Missing	18
Mean		8.00
Median		8.13
Mode		8.40
Std. Deviation		0.83
Range		4.20
Minimum		5.47
Maximum		9.67

Table 12 *Descriptive Statistics for LPI Scale Subscores*

Model	Inspire	Challenge	Enable	Encourage

	the Way Subscore	Shared Vision Subscore	the Process Subscore	Others to Act Subscore	the Heart Subscore
N Valid	147	147	147	147	147
Missing	18	18	18	18	18
Mean	8.11	7.89	8.02	7.90	8.06
Median	8.33	8.17	8.17	7.83	8.33
Mode	8.33	8.33	8.33	7.67	9.17
Std. Deviation	0.93	1.24	1.01	0.72	1.17
Range	4.50	7.33	5.33	3.50	5.00
Minimum	5.50	2.67	4.67	6.00	5.00
Maximum	10.00	10.00	10.00	9.50	10.00

Research question three. Research Question three asked Is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency levels of effective leader leadership behavioral practices? An inferential analysis was used to evaluate the third research question that explored the strength and direction of the relationship between participants' AES and LPI scores.

Assumption tests. Prior to implementing the analysis, assumption tests for correlation were carried out and it was deemed most appropriate to use a Spearman's Rank Order correlation analysis. One reason that guided this decision was that the study

variables were considered ordinal, not continuous. In addition, while no clear outliers were found in the data, the distributions were not all normal, most notably the overall AES scores. However, this is not an issue for Spearman's correlation analysis as it potentially would be if Pearson's correlations were used. For illustration, histograms of the overall AES and LPI scores can be seen in Figures 6 and 7, respectively.

The only other concern before examining the correlations in the current data was whether the relationship in question was monotonic. In order to address this assumption, scatterplots of the data should show that as scores on one variable increase, scores on the other consistently increase or decrease. Scatterplots were checked for the overall scores along with those for the relationships between LPI and AES dimensions, and this assumption was met in all cases. As the overall correlation is the one most directly related to Research Question three, the associated scatterplot is displayed in Figure 8.

Figure 6 Distribution of AES Scores

Figure 7 *Distribution of LPI Scores*
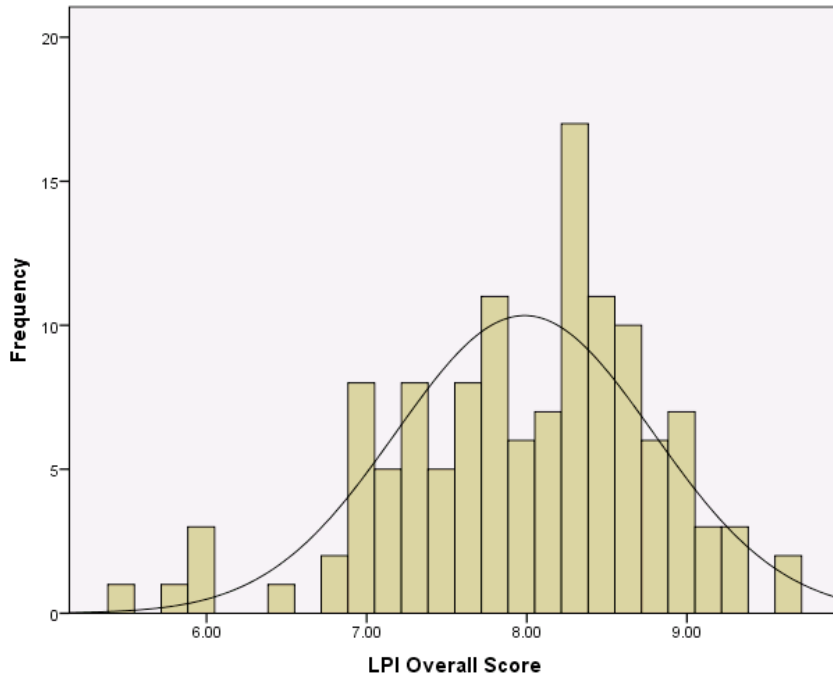
Figure 8 . *Scatterplot of Correlation between AES and LPI*
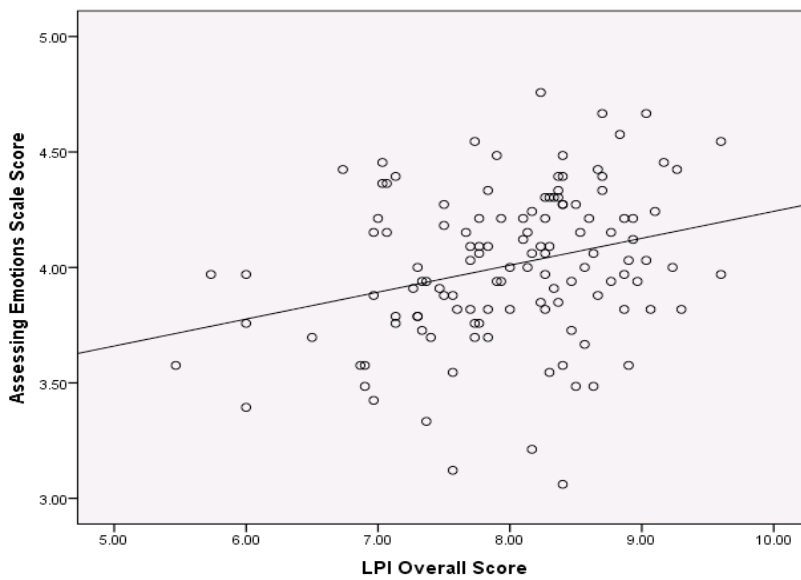
Results of correlation analysis. Analysis of the study data showed that the correlation between the overall LPI and AES scores was significant ($r_s = .28$, $p = .001$), suggesting that there was a moderate positive relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership behavior frequency. Overall, the results of the analysis supported the idea that emotional intelligence and leader effective behavior and practices are related.

In addition, while no specific research questions about the subscales were made, all correlations of the AES subscales were substantially positively related to the LPI subscales . Notably, the Perception of Emotion subscore from the AES was found to have a positive significant relationship to the Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .18$, $p = .050$) and Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .28$, $p = .002$) dimensions of the LPI. In addition, Managing Own Emotions was found to have a positive significant relationship to the Model the Way ($r_s = .19$, $p = .037$), Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .30$, $p = .001$), Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .24$, $p = .008$), and Encourage the Heart ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$) dimensions of the LPI. Also, Managing Others' Emotions was found to have a positive important relationship to the Model the Way ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$), Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .26$, $p = .003$), Challenge the Process ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$) Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .19$, $p = .037$), and Encourage the Heart ($r_s = .23$, $p = .010$) dimensions. Finally, Utilization of Emotion was found to have a positive noteworthy relationship to the Model the Way ($r_s = .18$, $p = .040$), Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .19$, $p = .030$), Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .21$, $p = .020$), and Encourage the Heart ($r_s = .18$, $p = .040$) dimensions. All correlations are shown in Table 5, along with alpha reliabilities for each of the measures. Each subsection individual

questions for AES is located in Appendix H and subsection individual questions for the

LPI is located in appendix I.

Figure 9 *Spearman Correlations between LPI and AES Scores and Subscores*

	LPI	AES	Model the Way	Inspire Shared Vision	Challenge the Process	Enable Others to Act	Encourage the Heart	PoE	MowE	MothE	UoE
LPI	(.95)										
AES	.28**	(.86)									
Model the Way	.89**	.22*	(.71)								
Inspire Shared Vision	.87**	.29**	.73**	(.86)							
Challenge the Process	.82**	.15	.68**	.73**	(.78)						
Enable Others to Act	.59**	.29**	.42**	.39**	.37**	(.66)					
Encourage the Heart	.83**	.22*	.75**	.59**	.55**	.40**	(.88)				
PoE	.16	.76**	.10	.18*	.04	.27**	.06	(.77)			
MowE	.27**	.75**	.19*	.30**	.16	.30**	.18*	.45**	(.66)		
MothE	.25**	.80**	.18*	.26**	.18*	.17	.23*	.43**	.51**	(.62)	
UoE	.21*	.72**	.18*	.19*	.12	.20*	.18*	.32**	.45**	.54**	(.66)

Note. **$p < .01$; * $p < .05$; N = 125-147. LPI = Leadership Practices Inventory overall score, AES = Assessing Emotions Scale overall score, PoE = Perception of Emotion, MowE = Managing Own Emotions, MothE = Managing Others' Emotions, UoE = Utilization of Emotion. Scores along the diagonal are reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha values).

Summary

This chapter presented information about the descriptive and inferential analyses used in the current research. Information about the sample was presented and the results of the analyses by research question was also presented.

The results of the current study provided information about community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency levels of effective leader leadership behavioral practices. Specifically, information was sought to determine the level of self-reported emotional intelligence of leaders in a community college setting. The results suggested that these community college leaders are high in emotional intelligence. Information was also sought to determine the level of self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting. The results suggested that these community college leaders use a higher level of effective leadership behaviors and practices.

Another purpose of the research was to determine whether or not a relationship existed between emotional intelligence and levels of effective leadership behavioral practices. The results of a Spearman correlation analysis revealed a moderate positive relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership behavior frequency. The results of this analysis supported the idea that emotional intelligence and leaders effective behaviors and practices have a positive relationship. In addition, the analysis of the specific subscales demonstrated other significant positive correlations between the two variables as well. A discussion of the current findings is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS,

CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter provides explanatory summaries relative to the study and its implications. In addition, a discussion of the limitations are presented. The chapter concludes with recommendations that focus on performance and improvement practices for community college senior leaders and future research possibilities Finally, a conclusions is presented.

Research Findings, Implications, and Conclusions

Several findings from the statistical exploration of the collected data were revealed base upon the three research questions as they guided the direction of this study and they are presented in the following section. The implications of the research findings will be discussed within the perspective context of the each particular research question. The presented implications are provided for the review of individuals interested in how the research finding compares with the current literature. In addition, the implications are presented to show how the research results extend the literature on EI in the community college as it is relative to human performance.

Research Findings

      Research question one. What is the self-reported level of emotional intelligence of leaders in a community college setting?

      The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) was used to assess senior community college leaders' self-reported measurement of emotional intelligence. To clarify the scoring procedure for the AES and help the reader to better examine the research finding, the scoring procedure will be re-explained here. The Assessing Emotions Scale (AES) yields an average score that reflects the measurement of emotional intelligence. It makes use of 33 questions and a Likert-type response scale with *1* being the lowest and *5* being the highest (Schutte, et al., 2009). Possible total scores without being averaged range from 33 to 165 points. When converted into an average score, the higher score of 5 indicates a presence of more potential traits of emotional intelligence and a lower score of 1 indicates a presence of more potential traits of emotional intelligence (Schutte, et al., 2009).

      Based on the current finding in this study, it can be concluded that the study sample of community college senior leader participants' scores on the AES indicates that they had a somewhat high level of emotional intelligence. This study sample's EI score findings of an indicated high level of EI compares with the score averages and norms of several other researcher's EI score findings as well. These college senior leader participants' EI scoring had an overall mean score of 4.01 with standard deviation of 0.33 are similar to those that were obtained by Schutte, et al. (1998). When averaged and compared to this study sample, Schutte, et al. (1998) reported similar somewhat high

levels of EI finding in two study groups: 1) a group sample of psychotherapists scored somewhat high levels of EI indicated by an overall mean score of 4.09 with a standard deviation of 20.25; and, 2) a study group sample of prisoners with a mean of 3.64 and a standard deviation of 17.71. In addition, Ciarrochi, (2001) reported similar somewhat high levels of EI finding a group of 131 adolescents students who where between the ages of 13 to 15 years old. Their EI scores that represented the somewhat high level of EI was represented by an overall mean of 3.65 and standard deviation of 0.42. Clearly, this sample group of community college leaders' EI overall mean scores that indicate that their EI level was significantly high is aligned with previous researchers scores obtained from their sample groups scores.

In addition, although, a research question pertaining to the sub dimensions of the AES was not generated, an analyses of the four individual AES dimensions were also calculated. These four sub-scores for the AES dimensions were fairly high as well, suggesting that the current sample of senior community college leaders were high in EI dimensions as well as their EI overall total score.

Specifically, based on the finding in this study, among the four dimensions of the AES assessment, the sample participants' levels of emotional intelligence rated among are as follows. In the Managing Own Emotions AES' dimension, the participants rated the highest levels of EI among the four sub-sets dimensions with a average mean of 4.15 and 0.36. Followed by the AES dimension of the Perception of Emotion, the participants rated the second highest levels of EI among the four sub-sets dimensions with a average mean of 4.05 and standard deviation of 0.44 . In the Managing Others' Emotions, the

participants rated the third highest levels of EI among the four sub-sets dimensions with a average mean of 3.95 and standard deviation of 0.42. Lastly, for the AES dimension of the Utilization of Emotions, the sample's mean was 3.82, and the standard of 0.49.

In comparing the similarities, Ciarrochi's et al. (2001) sample 131 adolescents', this sample study of adolescents was concerned to have significantly high EI scores in the four dimensions of the AES represented by means and standard deviations and they were as follows. In the Perception of Emotions dimension, they had a mean of 3.57 and a standard deviations of 0.58. In the Managing Own Emotions dimension, they had a mean of 3.71 and the standard deviations of 0.52. In the Managing Others' Emotion dimension of the AES, they had an average score of a mean of 3.63 and a standard deviations of 0.58. Finally, in the Utilizing Emotions dimension, they had a mean of 3.69 and the standard deviations of 0.66. These EI scores of Ciarrochi's et al. (2001) sample study of adolescents indicated that they had a relatively high level of EI and are comparable to this study' sample of community colleges leaders EI scores of significantly high levels of EI.

Implications of research question one. The results of the analyses for research question number one indicates that the community college senior leaders in this sample have a moderately/substantially high level of EI as it is measured by the AES. The current findings add to the literature about EI and seniors leaders' performance overall, and extend the literature to a new population of leaders in a community college sample, as no current research with this population existed.

Moreover, the current finding that leaders in the sample had a substantially high level of IE contributes to the literature in the following four areas: (1) EI and leaders' personal perspectives; (2) EI and leaders' prospective related to other individuals; (3) EI and leaders' prospective related to the workplace: and (4) EI and the prospective related to senior leaders and the community college landscape.

The implications of these research finding are relevant to the literature that addresses effective leaders' performance and their levels personal perspectives with reference to noteworthy supportive literature point to subject matters such as self awareness and self control, personal, and professional development (Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013; Murray, 2014; Palethorp, 2006). Self awareness is essential to leaders with high levels of EI and it must be on the forefront of leaders who aim to be successful .in their leadership (Goleman, 2013). Self-awareness assists leaders to know and understand their emotions (Emelander, 2014). Self-control is directly aligned with self-awareness as it relates to EI, in that it can assist leaders to be knowledgeable about of their emotional reactions and responses (Emelander, 2014; Murray, 2014). Whereas personal development allows the leaders to target and develop tenets of EI such as empathy and self-control which in turn are helpful to increase their level of success (Goleman, 2013). It has been well acknowledged that increased EI skills offer personal growth and increased personal development for effective leadership performance (Murray, 2014) as it relates to self inspiration, motivation and self-control (Zeidner, 2009). Finally, professional development allows leaders to specially train and learn how to be increase their level of EI because EI is a learnable skill that can be enhanced (Sadri,

2013). The results of the current research suggested EI is very high among a sample of senior leaders and corroborates the literature about its relative importance, and as being beneficial to effective leadership performance as can be shown in the additional analyses of the study.

The results suggesting senior leaders' self-reported levels of EI to be high also have implications that may lead to the improvement of leadership performance, specifically as it relates to a leaders' need to be emotionally connected to other individuals. This notion of leader connection is well noted and supported by other research. For example, the positivity implications of the connectivity of leaders with high levels of EI to matters of relationships are paramount to effective leadership performance (Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013; Keating et al., 2013). The associated performance of leaders who are high in emotional intelligence, with their need to be effective in orchestrating emotions as a mean to manage relationships, could provide notable beneficial results. These related beneficial results could include leaders being savvy at cultivating and sustaining meaningful relationships, having effective communication, being successful in encouraging and influencing others. To add, these results could also assist leaders to create well developed optimistic emotional relationships and inclusively provide means to effectively perform with teams as well as to be successful in the area of conflict management.

Indeed, the results of the finding of a high EI in the study sample offers notable implications to the demand for leaders' effectiveness in workplace (Abraham, 2006; Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013 Keating et al., 2013) that can be supported as well as

grounded with meaningful literature from researchers, theorists, and organizational leaders alike. There are three primary areas of concern pertaining to leaders being emotional intelligent are related to: EI and leadership being recognized, the usefulness of leaders and EI, and their joint ability to increase the effectiveness of the workplace (Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013; Keating et al., 2013; Murray, 2014).The increased focus on EI and leaders is directly linked to current issues of emotions being considered as an important role in the workplace today (Emelander, 2013). The value and usefulness of giving attention to leaders being high in EI focus on leaders using EI to assist them to first focus their attention, so they can be effective in directing the attention of others (Goleman, 2013). In general, the joint effectiveness of leaders and their EI can be a significant contributor to increased productivity (Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013; Keating et al., 2013; Murray, 2014).

Implications of a high EI to this new population of in senior community college leaders participants, as measured by the AES, are substantial. Information about how community colleges leaders are able to perform effectively, as it is linked to EI, can impact future outcomes in this group. Accordingly, community college leaders should to give attention to the subject matters of EI coupled with associated factors as EI appears to be a salient feature of this group and may be used to increase performance.   Although this research was the first to explore EI in community college leaders, the current findings support other research about EI in other populations as it relates to responsibility, expectations, and advantages (AACC, 2012b; Goleman, 2013; Landau, & Meirovich, 2011;Manring, 2012).

The current findings support the research of Manring (2012) who noted that community college leaders have the responsibility to meet their obligations to students, society, and our economy and should possibly consider EI to achieve this responsibility. Moreover, the AACC (2012b) noted that community college leaders are responsible for educating students on more than traditional academics as they must be kept abreast to changing issues and requirements of workplace and society at large, which is inclusive of being knowledgeable about EI and leadership. As it is relative to community college leaders meeting their expectations, community college leaders are expected to serve their communities, organization, workplace, and students effectively (AACC, 2012b). Ideally, it could be beneficial to address, learn, and explore the elements of EI, as community leaders will benefit from using EI to prepare their staff to rise to the occasion of being preparing to meet their expectations and responsibilities (Goleman, 2013). The current finding of high EI in a sample of community college leaders supports previously recorded suggestions that community college leaders who are emotionally intelligent may impact their constituents positively with increased responsibility that will have numerous advantages.

Implications of the AES'sub-scores. The findings of the scores on the four dimensions of the AES are also noteworthy. Community college leaders in the current sample had highest scores on the Managing Own Emotions' dimension of the AES. This finding is relevant to literature about effective leadership performance within the subject of leadership in general, higher education, and leadership in the environment of community college leaders (Bryman, 2007; Emelander, 2013; Goleman, 2013;

Greenockle, 2010; Scott, et al., 2010; Murray, 2014). The current finding suggests that community college leaders in the current sample exhibit the act of being aware of their emotional behaviors, which has been shown to be an essential act of effective leadership (Goleman, 2013; Murray, 2010). Specifically, for community college leaders, the skill of managing one's emotions as an act of effective leadership has been called for and was emphasized by the AACC (AACC, 2005; Campbell, 2010; Eddy, 2010).

When, it comes to the management of emotions, leaders must address several areas (Goleman, 2013; Emelander, 2013; Keating, 2013; Murray 2014). According to Murray (2014), there are several important leadership skills that are centered around the management of emotions, including self-control; reframing of behaviors; reflecting on behaviors; aligning trustworthiness with integrity; rehearsing the skill; being conscientious and having a sense adaptability, and finally, achieve the actual act of managing the emotion. Goleman (2013) posited that self-control/management is exercised when leaders give and keep their attention to their emotions when they decide to despite of any situations or challenges that may occur. As it relates to community colleges, the AACC (2005) stressed that a needed competency in the domain of professionalism, and community college leaders were expected to be cognizant of the impact of their emotions on self-behaviors. Clearly, the need for the management of emotions is well noted (Goleman, 2013; Emelander, 2013; Keating, 2013;Murray 2014) and the current findings suggest that community college leaders are meeting an important competency requirement of effective leadership (AACC, 2005; Campbell, 2010; Eddy, 2010).

The current sample scored the second highest in the Perception of Emotion dimension of the AES. The Perception of Emotion dimension is centered on the participants' ability to appraise emotions and identify the expression of emotions (Schutte et al., 1978). This dimension was created to reflect Salovey and Mayer's (1990) initial EI model. In this model, Salovey and Mayer(1990) referred to the perception of emotions as the ability to determine and identify numerous expressions of emotion.

Others referred to the perception of emotion differently. Emelander (2013) posited that the perception of emotion is achieved by people who are s sensitive to emotion as well as those who have a nature ability to understand and handle emotion. Cartwright and Pappas added that the perception of emotion is a mental process. Esmond-Kiger, Tucker, and Yost (2006) claimed that the perception of emotion requires three actions, including the perception, appraisal and expression of an emotion.

Because the leaders in this sample scored high on the Perception of Emotion subscale of the AES, it can be surmised that the leaders are skilled in the perception of emotions. This finding is important to the higher education leadership and community college literature because it suggests that seniors community colleges leaders are effective in being emotionally sensitive and have the requisite skills to handle emotion. McNair (2010) noted, the community college environment is like no other educational platform as it calls for distinctive leadership with distinctive skills. Moreover, Greenockle (2010) suggested that leaders in academic positions must be knowledgeable in EI and able to identify emotion because these skills are required for effective educational leaders. The current findings provide information about the current status of senior

community college leaders and suggest that both Greenockle's (2010) and McNair's (2010) requisites are being enacted.

The dimensions of the AES that received the lowest scores in the current sample were the Managing Others' Emotions and the Utilization of Emotions dimensions. These findings are important as well because they suggest that this group might benefit from training in these areas. Sadri (2014) noted that the Unitization of Emotions dimension is important and represents a leaders' skill in managing themselves and the emotions of others. For example, following a conflict, effective leaders demonstrate a calm demeanor to reduce tension and conflict for the other person (Sadri, 2014). It is also important for leadersto be competent in the area of emotion utilization (AACC' 2005; Campbell, 2010; Eddy, 2010). For example, Sadri (2014) suggested that effective leaders need to recognize facial expressions and they should use EI to interpret the meaning of the expressions they see.

General implications of the AES. The results rendered from the AES prompted the researcher to review two additional studies about the notion of self-reporting measurements. Ciarrochi et al. (2001) conducted a study to examine whether or not a group of 131 adolescents from the ages of 13 to 15 years old could effectively utilize a self-reported measure of EI. The overall mean score for this group was 3.65 with a standard deviation of 0.42 (M = 3.65, SD = 0.42) which indicate the this sample level of EI rates somewhat high (Schutte, et al., 2009). The purpose of the Ciarrochi et al. study was to determine whether or not an EI self-reporting measure instrument could be reliable and valid with adolescents (Ciarrochi, et al., 2001). The current findings corroborated the

findings of Ciarrochi et al. and suggest that a self-reporting EI measurement instrument such as AES can be an effective EI measure for adolescents and adults.

The implications derived from analyzing the self-reporting results from both of these studies is notable. The results from these different sample types appear to be reliable and favorable in offering the measurement of EI. As one compares the EI mean measurement results from this study sample of adult senior community college leaders with the Ciarrochi's et al. (2001) sample, there are observable similarities (see Table 6). The means for both samples was very similar. Indeed, the overall mean for the 13 to 15 year old adolescents was 3.65 and the overall mean result of the adult senior community college leaders was 4.01. This suggests that the AES self-reporting EI measurement could be reliable and valid in measuring EI effectively. The current findings add to the literature and suggest the notion about self-reporting instruments not being able to produce reliable results should possibly be re-assessed.

Another observation could be noted as well as a support for the using self reporting measurements of EI. The perception of emotions (M =3.57) for the adolescents and (M = 4.05) of the adult senior leaders and those of managing others' emotions scores of (M = 3.71) and (M = 4.15) obtained from both groups are closely represented Ciarrochi's et al. (2001). Although, the EI mean score measurements of the adult leaders are somewhat higher than those of the adolescents, this could be due to several factors. For example, the adults senior leaders may have the ability to rate themselves more effectively because of their level of maturity and familiarity of their self behaviors. To add, they may be able to rate others' emotions more effective because they have more

experience of interfacing with others due to the adult age than those of children. These comparative results could support the use AES assessment instrument's ability to provide reliable data relate to the measurement of EI from a different populations. This would prove to beneficial in that the AES could be diversified useful to measure EI in different populations with different levels of cognition.

The current findings do support research by Schutte (2009) and Schutte(1998) that suggests self-reporting AES EI measuring instrument could be deployed if the study population was committed to obtaining their EI level for the purpose of self improvement. The range was from the minimum score mean of 3.06 to 4.76 which displays the minimum score still can be considered as a satisfactory score and suggests that participants in the current sample were aware of EI behaviors and characteristics that could possibly be facilitating them in their leadership positions.

Table 6

Means Comparison of Adolescents and Adult Leaders

Table 13

Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)	Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)	Assessing Emotions Scale (AES)
Dimensions	Scores for Adolescents N =131, Ages ranges from 13 to 15 years	Scores of Adult Senior Community College Leaders N = 138

Overall Score	M = 3.65	M = 4.01
Perception of Emotions	M = 3.57	M = 4.05
Managing Own Emotions	M = 3.63	M = 4.15
Managing Others' Emotions	M = 3.71	M = 3.95
Utilization of Emotions	M = 3.69	M = 3.67

In another study where the participants consist of 24 students from a southeastern university in the United States, the reported the total score was 126.88 with a standard deviation of 12.18 (Schutte et al., 2001). To obtain the average mean score that can be more readily compared to the other mean scores, this total mean score can be converted to a mean score of 3.84. The mean score for this sample of students was also considered high, but not as high as in the current sample.

Two of the researchers (Schutte, and Malouff) from the Schutte et al. (2001) study were key players in the creation and the development of the AES assessment tool. The researcher was particularly interested in this study because of this reason. Schutte et al also evaluated the relationship between EI and empathy and self-monitoring. Additional instruments were used to evaluate empathy and self-monitoring and a relationship was obtained. The results from the current study are consistent with Schutte et al and suggest that the self-reporting AES instrument can provide meaning and valid results that can be used to assist senior leaders to be successful in improving their performance.

Overall, these finding of senior community colleges leaders responses to the AES are positive and imply that the senior leaders were moderately high in EI. In fact, the two

lowest dimension subscores were still considered satisfactory. The finding that senior community college leaders are modernly high in EI add to the literature on this topic and satisfy a call to research. Such information suggests that as a group the leaders may be aware of the importance of EI and is hopeful that they will apply these EI skills their perspective institutions to increase human performance and improvement Overall, these statistics consistently show that these community colleges leaders are relatively high in emotional intelligence.

Research question two. What is the self-reported frequency level of leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting.

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was used to assess the self-reported frequency levels of senior community college leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting . The LPI depicts the average scores that reflects the frequency levels of leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices in a community college setting, a scale from 1 to 10 is used. It employs 1 being the lowest and 10 being the highest when scoring is determined on a average bases. In the current sample the mean score for 147 of senior community college leaders participants that answered the LPI was 8.00 and standard deviation was 0.83. Based on this finding, it can be concluded that the study sample of community college senior leader participants' frequency levels of leaders engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices were fairly high. In addition, the subscore ratings showed a significantly high rates as well, including, Model the Way being the highest ($M = 8.11$, $SD = 0.93$), followed by Encourage the Heart ($M = 8.06$, $SD = 1.17$), Challenge the Process ($M = 8.02$, $SD = 1.01$),

Enable Other to Act (*M* = 7.90, *SD* = 0.72), and Inspire Shared Vision (*M* = 7.89, *SD* = 1.24).

Implications of research question two. Overall, this analysis confirms the idea the community college senior leaders in this study sample have moderately high level of using effective leadership behavioral and practices. This indicates that the sample of senior community college leaders have a moderately high level of engaging in effective leadership behavioral practices and that these leaders utilize the effective practices as measured by the LPI. Based on these findings it can be surmised that the benefits to their institutions will be rewarding providing that these senior community college leaders are actually deploying effective leadership behavioral practices regularly and consistently. Research has indicated that leaders with high LPI scores are leaders who inspires people and influence them to perform and do extraordinary things for their organizations (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Douzes and Posner (2012) also noted that despite changing times and challenges' that may are faced with, effective leaders endure and stay fast as they influence their people to performance and produce.

The results of the scores on the five dimensions of the LPI are also noteworthy. As suggested by Kouzes and Posner (2012) a highest score on the Model the Way subscale is significant. The Model the Way dimension focuses on leaders clarifying values and exemplifying examples of effective leadership. This suggests that the current sample of senior community college leaders are leaders who are employing effective leadership practices that provide sound and effective examples within their prospective institutions. This finding adds to the literature as such behaviors have not been assessed

in this population. Based on this finding it can be surmised that leaders community college provide their institutions with beneficial leadership that offer observable valuable leadership behaviors. These leadership behaviors are likely inclusive of leaders providing clear goals that affirm standards and represent examples of leadership that align with institutional values. The finding of a high Model the Way dimension also supports leadership elements offered by Bryman (2008) who suggested effective higher educational leaders deploy and implement. As Bryman (2008) suggested, aligning with the LPI Modeling the Way, effective higher educational leadership practices center on setting clear directions and deploying exemplary examples of acceptable remodels for their institutions.

The second highest score on the LPI subscales in the current research was on the Encourage the Heart dimension. The Encourage the Heart dimension focuses on leaders recognizing and appreciating the efforts of others. A high score on this dimension in this study population was noteworthy and has suggests that the study sample of seniors community colleges leaders deploy effective leadership behaviors that appreciate and recognize individuals for their performance. In doing so, these individuals may be willing to perform and improve their institutions (Kouzes, & Posner, 2012). The findings are also aligned with Bryman (2008) who suggested effective behaviors of higher education leaders that promote open communication for individuals to openly communicate to be involved key decisions making efforts to improve performance of their institutions.

The third highest LIP subscale dimension score was on the Challenge the Process dimension. The Challenge the Process dimensions of the LPI is centered on effective

leaders seeking innovative methods and providing opportunities for others to have the environment to assist in this area as well (Kouzes, & Posner, 2012). The current finding of a high Challenge the Process score in this sample of senior community college leaders suggests the use and promotion of others to create new methods and possibly new procedures to increase the grown of others and their institutions. Based on this finding it is likely that the sample leaders are effective in promoting a win situation for individuals to improve their performance of their institutions.

Leaders in the current sample scored lower on the dimensions of Enable Other to Act and Inspire Shared Vision suggesting these are two areas that may need to be strengthened. Because the dimension of Enable Others to Act is focused on encouraging and fostering meaningful relationships with their people, these elements of effective leadership are important and the low scores on this subscale in the current sample suggest that seniors community college leaders may benefit from increasing their skills in this area. In addition, because the dimension of the Inspire Vision focuses on inspiring individuals to share the excitement of creating new opportunities and possibilities within their institutions could be beneficial in a community college setting it may be valuable to recommend leaders increase their skills and effectiveness in this area of leadership. Overall, the current findings support the general literature about LPI rates and also extend the literature to describe LIP rates in a community college leadership population. The findings indicated that community colleges senior leaders have moderately high levels of the LPI scores and suggested that these leaders have a high frequency of engaging in effective behavioral leadership practices.

During this time when the ever changing societal landscape of higher education is facing challenges, its s paramount that community colleges maintained their position of being the official drivers of this economy (AACC, 2012b). Community college senior leaders are challenged with serving a diverse student population. Due to the urgent need to effectively develop community college leadership in light of the massive retirement of key leaders, community college leaders are faced with the task to train and retain the workforce and must be effectively practicing leadership skills that will enable them to meet this challenge (Campbell et al. 2010; Lilis, 2011). Leaders in higher education need different leadership skills than those leaders in a corporation setting due to the need of a focus on the human factors related to communicating and influencing of their workforce (Kalargyrou et al., 2012; Ong, 2012; Siddique et al., 2011).

Research question three. Is there a correlation between community college leaders' self reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported frequency levels of effective leader leadership behavioral practices?

An Spearman inferential analysis was used to examine the third research question that explored the strength and direction of the relationship between participants' AES and LPI scores. The results of a Spearman correlation analysis revealed a significant moderate positive relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence and leadership behavior frequency. While, a favorable correlation was found, it alone was not enough to explain or confirm the elements involved in the relationships in this associated positive relationship. Although a significant correlation does not imply causation, the results of

this analysis supported the idea that emotional intelligence and leader effective behavior and practices are related.

Implications of research question three. The significant and positive relationship between community college leaders' self-reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported levels of effective leadership behavioral practices has important implications. This finding suggests that increases in one area (possibly through professional development) may result in an increase in the other area.

This finding of a positive and significant correlation between self-reported level of emotional intelligence and their self-reported levels of effective leadership behavioral practices also contributes to literature directed to the development leaders in the environment of community colleges. Specifically, the implications center around three associated elements related the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership practices, including self- improvement of leaders, improved dynamic leadership, and satisfying improvement of leaders in the workplace.

 The finding of a significant relationship between EI and leader practices supports previous research on effective leadership and self-improvement (Goleman, 2013; Hayashi & Ewert, 2013; Keating, et al., 2013; Sadri, 2014). Hayashi and Ewert (2013) attested that there is a rapid and popular increase in the acknowledgement of the importance of EI as a tool to develop effective leaders. Hayashi and Ewert had 72 students participate in an outdoor leaders program and found that participants' levels of EI directly correlated the efficacy of the outdoor leadership program. Moreover, the self-improvement generalized to other situations and was observed by the instructors and researchers to positively

impact participants' level of intrapersonal skills, stress management skills, and their ability to be more adaptive to various leadership situations (Hayashi & Ewert, 2013).

Others have also demonstrated a beneficial relationship between EI and effective leadership relative to self-improvement (Goleman, 2013; Hayashi & Ewert, 2013; Keating, et al., 2013; Murray, 2014; Sadri, 2014). When leaders accept responsibility for the way they feel, they gain tools that are supported with emotional intelligence to help achieve higher levels of success such as improved self-control, trustworthiness, emotional conscientiousness, adaptability, focused orientation of achievement, and imitative (Murray, 2014). Sadri (2014) confirmed that a positive relationship between EI and leadership behaviors exists and suggested that such a relationship led to an increase in education and performance, an increase in leaders' ability to understand themselves and others, and improved leaders' ability to regulate their emotions that will be useable in the workplace. Keating et al. (2013) suggested that all organizations could benefit from approaches that focus on EI to improve their leaders, even organizations with older leadership models that make use of analytical and rational approaches. .

Many researchers maintained effective leadership is facilitated by EI (Goleman, 2013; Hayashi & Ewert, 2013; Keating, et al., 2013; Murray, 2014;Sadri, 2014). Goleman (2013) reported EI related to improved dynamic leadership and leaders' level of EI, and maintained that effective leadership is focused on EI, with a primary emphasis on self-awareness and a secondary focus on others (in terms of leaders giving individuals directives). Goleman (2013) stressed that effective leaders need EI to: examine themselves and learn how they can know themselves and what directions of leadership

are best, so they can direct others. In doing so, Goleman (2013) suggested leaders could have a profound impact on their constituents by having a different level of empathy, referred to as the empathy triad. This empathy triad considers the subject of empathy in four approaches: (1) empathy related to cognitive thinking about others perspectives; (2) empathy emotional thinking that is about how others feel; and (3) empathy concern in that leaders think about what others need from them (Goleman, 2013). Keating et al. (2013) also reported that EI is connected to effective leadership behaviors as leaders become socially intelligent leaders and acquire skills to have: empathy to care for others; experience attunement to foster listening skills; acquire a sense of organizational awareness; become more influential, have more skills to develop others through coaching and mentorship; be more inspired to perform; and to increase their teamwork skills.

It is well note that there exists and relationship between a leader's ability to improve the workplace related to their level of EI, satisfying improvement of leaders in the workplace (Hayashi & Ewert, 2013; Keating, et al., 2013; Murray, 2014; Palethorpe, 2010; Sadri, 2014). Palethorpe (2010) reported that the relationship between improved leaders' team building skills in the workplace rests upon their EI skills that allow leaders to: assess and address the climate and cultural elements of a team through efforts to: increase motivation and commitment; improve the handling of conflict; expand elements of a team climate; elevate self management skills; increase productive levels of relationships; develop means to open the connection of communication; and improve leaders' tolerance level to endure and address differences. Goleman (2013) contended that EI could assist leaders to build sound and productive relationships by helping leaders to

have a shift in attention to the organization and its people. Keating et al. (2013) suggested using EI to assist leaders in extinguishing non productive toxicity that causes emotional pain for individuals who have been emotionally hurt in the workplace by providing new energy and caring for people by inspiring them emotionally.

The current findings about the relationship between EI and leadership behaviors add to the growing body of knowledge about human performance related to leaders, leadership, emotional intelligence, higher education, community colleges, and effective leadership behavioral practices. The findings answer a call for research and suggest that EI and effective leadership behaviors are indeed correlated.

Implications of research question three subscale relationships. The current findings indicated that many of the AES subscales were also significantly and positively related to the LPI subscales. While no specific research question about the subscale correlations were made, all correlations are shown in Table 5, along with alpha reliabilities for each of the measures. Notably, the Perception of Emotion subscore from the AES was significantly related to the Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .18$, $p = .050$) and Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .28$, $p = .002$) dimensions of the LPI. Managing Own Emotions was significantly related to the Model the Way ($r_s = .19$, $p = .037$), Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .30$, $p = .001$), Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .24$, $p = .008$), and Encourage the Heart ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$) dimensions. Managing Others' Emotions was significantly related to the Model the Way ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$), Inspire Shared Vision ($r_s = .26$, $p = .003$), Challenge the Process ($r_s = .18$, $p = .044$) Enable Others to Act ($r_s = .19$, $p = .037$), and Encourage the Heart ($r_s = .23$, $p = .010$) dimensions. Finally,

Utilization of Emotion was significantly related to the Model the Way (r_s = .18, p = .040), Inspire Shared Vision (r_s = .19, p = .030), Enable Others to Act (r_s = .21, p = .020), and Encourage the Heart (r_s = .18, p = .040) dimensions.

Overall Study Implications

State location implications. There are several implications that is reflected regarding the moderately high results of colleges from various states who elected to participate in this study. There were five states that were invited to participate in this study. The overall percentage of the community college senior leaders per state implies senior community college leaders in the prospective state level of interest. It is clear that the level of participation is noteworthy as it offers assistance to add to the pool of empirical research to extends the body of knowledge regarding the performance of community college leadership and EI . With Illinois being the highest at 27% . followed by Michigan with a percentage of 25% , Ohio at a 22%, Wisconsin at 13% and finally, Indiana at 8%. All of the participation at this significant rate indicated an exceptional rate of interest the growth and development of the senior community college leaders' frenqucy of using effective leadership practices and emotional intelligence skills.

As the researcher who personally made phone calls to speak with community college president assistances, I felt a sincere rate of concern and willingness from administration to participate in this opportunity to further this country higher education systems. The desire to improve their institution's performance through leadership development opportunities was obvious. There was no form of incentive given to the participants to participate in this study which implies that participants participated

because of their interest, level of commitment, ability and willingness to be assistance to make improvement within the American higher education system.

From another perspective, the results from this study could offer implications that could support the notion that self-reporting EI instruments could be reliable and valuable when the participant is focused on being honest when responding to the self-reporting instruments such as AES. The reason may be because the participants wants to use the results of AES to set goals that could help he or she improve his or her level of performance by improving his or her level of EI. It appeared to be such a case in this research study.

Both Schutte al. (2009) and Schutte et al. (1998) discussed the issue of the AES being considered as a valuable instrument when participants give a valid appraisal of their EI in order to ultimately determine how to increase their EI. For instance, it could be suggested that the senior leaders in this study are those of this type. This could be true and supported by the high level of participation observed from this sample group. There was a 57% level of participation out the 66 community colleges who selected to participant in this study. With 66 (57%) of the 153 colleges sent 423 email address for their senior college leaders which 37% of the 423 potential participants selected to take the LPI assessments and 33% out 423 potential participants selected to complete the AES. There were no incentives given to these senior leaders to enhance them to participant. When one considers that these seniors leaders had to take time out of their busy schedule to participate in this study, it could be suggested that they were really interested in learning more about EI. Both, Schutte et al. (2009) and Schutte et al. (1998)

states that this situation could occur if the participants desired to understand their own selective character.

Lastly, the implications of the results of this study were positive and could be impactful to extend the body of knowledge concerning EI and senior community college leaders. The relationship between EI and senior community college leaders frequency behaviors practices was significant and provides an extension to the existing literature. These obtained results speak to the lack of research about leadership within the landscape of higher education and could encourage other researchers to conduct additional research on EI and community college leaders' leadership behaviors.

Limitations of the Study

There were several imitations in this study which need to be noted. The primary limitation relates to the participants' self-rating elements which must be taken into consideration. Because the AES and LPI are both self-rating assessments, there was an opportunity for participants to be inaccurate in their assessment. Because of the subjective nature of the assessments, there still was a possibility of response distortions. Although, there appeared to be significant participant interest in participating in this research for none other than to increase the level of research to assist in improving this country's. education system. One must keep in mind that some answers could have fabricated.

In regard to the distribution, there were several related issues of concerns. For instance, due to the feedback from some participants who sent me emails saying he or she didn't see the second assessment, I feel that the response rate would have be greater for

the AES. I believe that this is the reason that there was an uneven amount of completion for the AES assessments when compare to the completion on the LPI. However, there was no way that I could have resolved this issue due to the electronic data system setting that could not be edited. It is also noted that question number 27 (When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas) of the AES had the option of (strongly agree) was missing in the onset of the of the first distribution of this assessment. This issue was brought my attention by a participant's email saying that it was missing. In addition, due to time restrictions and focus limitations of this study, the distributions of the invitations were only offered to senior community college leaders to participate in this study. The leaders from other departments were not offered an invitation to participate in this study and submit their input because it was out of the scope of this study.

Recommendations

  Recommendations for practice. This study centrally examined the performance relationship between senior community college leaders' frequency levels of effective behavioral practices and their levels of EI within five selected United States: Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin. With a focus on human improvement, this study includes a thorough examination of the literature pertaining to above mention subjects at hand. Therefore, it is understandable that these recommendations derived from this study would be directly relative to increasing effective leadership behaviors in higher education, particularly, the performance of senior leaders in a community college environment as it relates to EI.

Based upon the finding from this research study, to assist senior leaders both at a local and national level to improve their performance both personally and professionally, leaders such as chancellors, presidents, vice-presidents, and deans are recommend to assess, measure, develop and improve their levels of EI. The reasons for this recommendation are as follows.

In the literature, the notion of emotional intelligence (EI) has been acknowledged as a direct contributing factor that enables leaders to be successful in increasing human performance and improvement within the business world (Goleman,2013, 2011a, 2011b; Nadler, 2011). EI has been repeatedly credited for being one of the most influential elements resulting in phenomenal impact in assisting leaders to become high performers (Hughes et al., 2005; Lykins, 2011; Nadler, 2011). The beneficial impact of EI's ability to develop star performing leaders that produce high performing organizations has been well endorsed and exemplified by many authors, theorists, and researchers alike (Goleman, 2013; Hughes et al, 2009; Keating, Harper, Glew & Emelander, 2013, 2011a; Neale, et al., 2009). It was revealed that the literature posits several concerns related to issues of EI and community college leadership, leaders, and student leadership development (AACC, 2012b; Campbell, et al., 2010; Greenockle, 2010; Hassan et al., 2009; Lillis, 2011; Sypawka et al., 2010; Yoder, 2004). Clearly, this recommendation rests upon a sound foundation of research that supports the need for leaders to assess, measure, develop and improve their levels of EI as well as to stay abreast of its rapid and growing development.

Specially, it is recommended that community colleges and their leaders embrace the subject of EI as it is related to the academic focus. There is a solid rationale for this recommendation based upon several elements that were reveal in this research study. The literature addresses EI concerns relative to the performance of community colleges as they are the core drivers of the United States higher education system and its economy (AACC, 2013; Boggs, 2011; Duncan & Ball; Holstein, 2011). Accordingly, leadership in community colleges have been charged with effectively educating, training, and developing the workforce (AACC, 2013; Goleman, 2011b; Greenockle, 2010) and its own leadership (AACC, 2013; Basham & Mathur, 2010; Nevarez & Wood, 2010;Wallin, 2012). Effective EI leadership is vital to the development of performance and improvement in individuals as well as organizational institutions (Goleman, 2013;Chevalier, 2006; Vijayaragavan, 2008). Thereby, it is highly recommended that leaders in community colleges examine the impact of EI in the environment of community colleges as it relates to their responsibility to meet the academic needs of its students, communities, and society at as whole.

As it relates to performance improvement technologists, higher educational leadership and community college leaders who are interested in improving the human performance within realm of higher education inclusively in the environment community colleges as it is related to EI, there are several recommendations that could prove to be beneficial. Because EI has established as a valuable element that could enhance the success in individuals both personally and professionally, it is recommended that the

interested individuals consider exploring the notion of implementing four levels of needs assessments with a EI perspective.

According to Kaufman and Guerra-Lopez (2013) these four levels of needs assessments are as follows. The first level would be to conduct a mega assessment of the institution's needs which would include a strategic systemic approach that would be inclusive of an alignment of the institution, society, and the gap/s in obtaining its productive results (Kaufman & Guerra-Lopez, 2013). The second level would be to conduct a macro assessment of the institutions' needs which would be a deliberate concentration on the institution's gaps in desired results (Kaufman & Guerra-Lopez, 2013). Following with a micro assessment of the institution's needs which would include micro level needs assessment that centers on examining the operational elements related to the gaps in the desired results that focus on individuals inclusive of teams and specific departments (Kaufman & Guerra-Lopez, 2013). Lastly, but not least, a quasi assessment that centers on identifying means needed to address the gaps in the desired performance such as training and curricula development etc(Kaufman & Guerra-Lopez, 2013). Ideally, this systematic approach could prove beneficial. Also, one could utilize Guerra's (2003) general wide-ranging performance improvement process approach which include elements of: assessment, analysis, design, development, implementation and evaluations (AADDIE). Guerra's (2003) AADDIE approach expands the traditional ADDIE foundational structure to embrace a more responsive approach in that it eliminates the assumption that individuals are knowledgeable about what to examine and

seeks to assess what direction that an institution/organization should take in its efforts to improve performance.

Recommendations for future research. Although researchers agree about the value of EI in many areas of leadership, there was a lack of EI evidence-based performance and improvement solutions, resources, and information about the influence of EI in higher educational leaders (Bryman, 2008; Greenockle, 2010; Kalargiros, 2012; Kreitz, 2009; Perterson , 2012; Scott et al., 2010; Scott et al., 2008; Walter, 2012). In addition, the literature provided information about EI's beneficial impact on the performance growth of the primary education platform inclusive of its students and leadership, it also reflected a scarcity of EI information concerning higher education leadership and student centered solutions (Bay & Mckeage, 2006; Kalargyrou et al., 2012; Ong, 2012; Scott et al., 2010; Shamsuddin, 2012; Shaw, 2012). It is recommended that more research be conducted to address the lack of EI evidence-based performance and improvement solutions which could focus on subjects such as EI related to leadership development interventions, departmental leaders' prospective, curricula development for both leadership development programs and students, and students educational needs to be successful students. In addition, it is recommended that research be conducted on the relationship between EI and the needs of the workforce. This research could possibly provide direct insights on the needs to develop educational courses to align with the needs of organizations/businesses' needs in the workplace.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the purpose of this study was obtained. Of the 423 potential senior community college leader participants invited to participate in this study, 165 (40%) completed at least one of the two assessments. This research revealed that the study sample had a noteworthy level of interest in EI and leadership performance and improvement practices as it was indicated by their level of participation in this study. A key observation was recognized and documented about willingness of the sample study seniors leadership to apply a significant level of commitment and time to participate in this study without receiving any form of incentives. The results suggesting that senior community college leaders had some what high EI scores contributes to the EI literature and extends it to a new population.

Finally, the results also demonstrated a significant and positive correlation between the community college leaders' levels of EI and their levels of effective leadership behavioral practices in this study sample. The current findings add to the literature on this topic of performance and improvement within the realm of higher education with specific focus on the community college environment, leadership in higher education as well as leaders in community colleges and its leadership. The current research answered the call for increased empirical research in this population of educational leaders and performance.

In sum, Goleman (2001a) posited that futuristic educators are aware of the importance of EI's impact in higher education not only because of the need to promote success in students, support increased performance in organizations, but for the rapid

growth and prosperity of the economy and the society inclusively. People are one of the most valued ingredient in our society. Van Tiem, Moseley and Dessinger (2012) asserted that the knowledge, skill-sets, dreams, values, aspirations, motivations of people provide essential elements for performance and improvement. Colfax et al. (2010) clearly, stated that researchers now recognize the importance of the human factor, namely, people and this is acknowledged both nationally and international in this global society.

Goleman (2013) stated that leaders' primary responsibility is to direct the attention of their people, but they first must learn how to address their own attention. Colfax, et al. (2010) stressed that a leader must first know and understand him or herself before he or she can effectively be a leader of others as they suggest that a leader can utilize the robust and rapidly growing tools of EI to accomplish this goal. Finally, as the President Obama stressed that community college leaders are essential to reach the goals for growth and development in this country (AACC, 2012a), he challenged community colleges across this entire nation to produce an significant increase of 5 million graduate program completers by the year of 2020 (AACC, 2012a). The results in this research revealed that the study sample of community college leaders are on track of meeting this extensive goal of performance improvement. Their measured EI and effective leadership behavioral practices assessments' scores indicated that they have reasonably high levels of EI and effective behavioral leadership practices suggests that they are focus on improving performance. The current findings provide empirical evidence that supports these claims in a sample of senior community college leaders.

APPENDIX A

THE LEADERSHIP CHALLENGE

From "The leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen in organizations" Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z. (2012). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass

1. Modeling the way: Clarifying values through finding the leader's voice and affirming standard values; Setting the example through alignment of actions with standard values;

2. Inspiring a shared vision: Envisioning the future through imagination, and exciting possibilities; Enlisting others to have a common vision through appealing to mutual aspirations;

3. Challenging the process: Searching for opportunities through using imagination and innovational methods to increase improvement; Experimenting and taking risks through generating wins and significant learning experiences;

4. Enabling others to take action: Fostering collaboration through trust and relationships; Strengthening others through increasing determination and competency; and,

5. Encouraging the heart of others: Recognizing the contributions of others by through showing individuals appreciation for their individual contribution of excellence performance; Celebrating the values and accomplishments by creating a rich and willing community.

APPENDIX B

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of

Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

Competencies of Community Colleges Leaders

Organizational Strategy. "An effective community college leader strategically improves

the quality of the institution, protects the long-term health of the organization, promotes

the success of the all students, and sustains, the community college mission, based on

knowledge of the organization, its environment, and future trends" (American

Association of Community Colleges, 2005, p.3) .

Illustrations:

Assess, develop, implement, ad evaluate strategies regularly to monitor and improve the

quality of education and the long-term health of the organization.

Use data-driven evidence and proven practices from internal and external stakeholders to

solve problems, make decisions, and plan strategically.

Use a systems perspective to assess and respond to the e culture of the organization to

changing demographics, and to the economic political, and public health needs of

students and the community.

Develop a positive environment that supports innovation, teamwork and successful

outcomes.

Align organizational mission, structures, and resources with the college master plan. (p.3)

APPENDIX B (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of

Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

    Resource Management. "An effective community college leader equitably and

ethically sustains people, processes, and information as well as physical and financial

assets to fulfill the mission, vision, and goals of the community college" (American

Association of Community Colleges, 2005, p.3).

  Illustrations:

Ensure accountability in reporting.

    Support operational decisions by managing information resources and ensuring

the integrity and integration of reporting systems and databases.

Develop and manage resource assessment, planning, budgeting, acquisition and location

process consistent with the college master plan and local, state, and national polices

Take an entrepreneurial stance in stance in seeking ethical alternative funding sources.

Implement a human resource system that includes recruitment, hiring, reward, and

performance management systemic and that fosters the professional development and

advancement for all staff.

Employ organizational, time management, planning, and delegation skills,

APPENDIX B (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Manage conflict and change in ways that contribute to the long-term viability to organization. (p.3)

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

Communication. "An effective community college leader uses clear listening speaking and writing skills to engage in honest, open dialogue at all levels of the college and its surrounding community, to promote the success of all students, and to sustain the community college mission" (American Association of Community Colleges, 2005, p.4).

Illustrations:

Articulate and champion shared mission vision, and values to internal and external audiences, appropriately matching message to audience.

Disseminate and support policies and strategies.

Create and maintain open communications regarding resources, priorities, and expectations.

Convey ideas and information succinctly frequently and inclusively through media and verbal and nonverbal means to the board and other constituencies and stakeholders.

Listen actively to understand comprehend analyze, engage, and act. Project confidence and respond responsibly and tactfully. (p.4)

APPENDIX A (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETEENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Collaboration. "An effective community college leader develops and maintains

responsive, cooperative, mutually beneficial, and ethical internal and external

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of

Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

relationships that nurture diversity, promote the success of all students, and

sustain the community college mission" (American Association of Community Colleges,

2005, p.4).

Illustrations:

Embrace and employ the diversity of individuals, cultures, values, ideas, and

communication styles.

Demonstrate cultural competence relative to a global society.

Catalyze involvement and commitment of student, faculty, staff, and community

members to work for the common good.

'Build and leverage networks and partnerships to advance the mission, vision and goals of

the community college.

Work effectively and diplomatically with unique constituent groups such as

legislators, board members, business leader, accreditation organizations, and others.

Manage conflict and change by building and maintaining productive relationships.

APPENDIX B (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETEENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Develop, enhance, and sustain teamwork and cooperation.

Facilitate shared problem solving and decision making. (p.4)

Community College Advocacy." An effective community college leader understands,

commits to, and advocates for the mission, vision, and goals of the community college"

(American Association of Community Colleges, 2005, p.5) .

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of

Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

 Illustrations:

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of

Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

Value and promote diversity, inclusion, equity, and academic excellence.

Demonstrate a passion for and commitment to the mission of community colleges and

student success through the scholarship of teaching and learning.

Promote equity, open access, teaching, learning, and innovation as primary goals for the

college, seeking to understand how these change over time and facilitating discussion

with all stakeholders.

Advocate the community college mission to all constituents and empower them to do the

same.

APPENDIX B (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETEENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Advance lifelong learning and support a learner-centered and learning-centered environment.

Represent the community college in the local community, in the broader educational community, at various levels of government, and as a model o higher education that can be replicated in international settings. (p.5)

Professionalism. "An effective community college leader works ethically to set high standards for self and others, continuously improve self and surroundings,

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

demonstrate accountability to and for the institution, and ensure the long-term viability of the college and community" (American Association of Community Colleges, 2005, p.5) .

Illustrations:

Demonstrate transformational leadership through authenticity, creativity, and vision.

Understand and endorse the history, philosophy, and culture of the community college.

From "American Association of Community Colleges" American Association of Community Colleges, (2005) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

APPENDIX B (continued)

AACC LEADERSHIP COMPETEENCIES OF COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Self-assess performance regularly using feedback, reflection, goal setting and evaluation.

Support lifelong learning for self and others. Manage stress through

self-care, balance, adaptability, flexibility, and humor. Demonstrate the courage to take

risks, make difficult decisions, and accept responsibility. Understand the impact of

perceptions, world views, and [**emotions**]on self and others. Promote and maintain high

standards for personal and organizational integrity, honesty, and respect for people. Use

influence and power wisely in facilitating the teaching-learning process and the exchange

of knowledge. Weigh short-term and long-term goals in decision making. Contribute to

the profession through professional development programs, professional organizational

leadership, and research/publication (p.5).

APPENDIX C

THE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M, Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, H. T , Golden,

Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence.

pp.167-177). Page 1

Table 1

The Assessing Emotions Scale

<u>Directions</u>: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the "1" if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the "2" if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, "3" if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the "4" if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the "5" if you strongly agree that this is like you.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = somewhat disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = somewhat agree
5 = strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.　　1 2 3 4 5

2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.　　1 2 3 4 5

3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.　　1 2 3 4 5

4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.　　1 2 3 4 5

5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.　　1 2 3 4 5

6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.　　1 2 3 4 5

7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.　　1 2 3 4 5

8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.　　1 2 3 4 5

9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.　　1 2 3 4 5

10. I expect good things to happen.　　1 2 3 4 5

11. I like to share my emotions with others.　　1 2 3 4 5

12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.　　1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C (continued)

THE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M, Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, H. T , Golden,

Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence.

p.167-177). Page 2

13. I arrange events others enjoy.   1 2 3 4 5

14. I seek out activities that make me happy.   1 2 3 4 5

15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.   1 2 3 4 5

16.   I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.   1 2 3 4 5

17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.   1 2 3 4 5

18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the
emotions people are experiencing.   1 2 3 4 5

19. I know why my emotions change.   1 2 3 4 5

20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with
new ideas.   1 2 3 4 5

21. I have control over my emotions.   1 2 3 4 5

22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.   1 2 3 4 5

23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to
tasks I take on.   1 2 3 4 5

24. I compliment others when they have done something well.   1 2 3 4 5

25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.   1 2 3 4 5

26. When another person tells me about an important event in
his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this
event myself.   1 2 3 4 5

27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up
with new ideas.   1 2 3 4 5

28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because
I believe I will fail.   1 2 3 4 5

29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.   1 2 3 4 5

30. I help other people feel better when they are down.   1 2 3 4 5

31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of
obstacles.   1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C (continued)

THE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE

THE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M, Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, H. T , Golden, Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. pp.167-177). Page 3

32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.   1 2 3 4 5

33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.   1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION TO USE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE

A copy of the email that gives the researcher permission to use the Assessing Emotion

Scale from Dr. Nicola, S. Schutte.

APPENDIX E

THE LEADERSHIP PARACTICES INVENTORY

From "Kouzes &Posner: Leadership Practices Inventory", (4rd. Edition). By James M.

Kouzes and Barry Z Posner (2013). Copyright © (2013) by James M. Kouzes and Barry

Z. Posner (2013). Publisher, Jossey-Bass, an imprint of Wiley. Reprinted with

permission. Page 1.

LPI LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY   BY JAMES M. KOUZES & BARRY Z. POSNER

INSTRUCTIONS

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

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

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

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

The Rating Scale runs from 1 to 10. Choose the number that best applies to each statement.

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

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

_____

_____

_____

Thank you.

LPI: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY SELF

APPENDIX E (continued)

THE LEADERSHIP PARACTICES INVENTORY

From "Kouzes &Posner: Leadership Practices Inventory", (4rd. Edition). By James M. Kouzes and Barry Z Posner (2013). Copyright © (2013) by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner (2013). Publisher, Jossey-Bass, an imprint of Wiley. Reprinted with permission. page 2

Your name: _____

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

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

LPI: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY SELF

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION TO USE LPI

The permission letter from Publisher Jossey-Bass to use the "Kouzes &Posner:

Leadership Practices Inventory", (4rd. Edition).. Reprinted with permission.

JB JOSSEY-BASS™
An Imprint of WILEY

News

April 29, 2013

Vicki Golden
27232 Shiawassee
Southfield,MI 48033

Dear Ms. Golden:

Thank you for your request to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) in your dissertation. We are willing to allow you to *reproduce* the instrument in written form, as outlined in your request, at no charge. If you prefer to use our electronic distribution of the LPI (vs. making copies of the print materials) you will need to separately contact Lisa Shannon (lshannon@wiley.com) directly for instructions and payment. Permission to use either the written or electronic versions requires the following agreement:

(1) That the LPI is used only for research purposes and is not sold or used in conjunction with any compensated management development activities;
(2) That copyright of the LPI, or any derivation of the instrument, is retained by Kouzes Posner International, and that the following copyright statement is included on all copies of the instrument; "Copyright 8 2003 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. All rights reserved. Used with permission",
(3) That one (1) **electronic** copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data be sent **promptly** to our attention; and,
(4) That you agree to allow us to include an abstract of your study and any other published papers utilizing the LPI on our various websites.
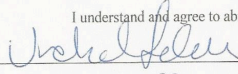
If the terms outlined above are acceptable, would you indicate so by signing one (1) copy of this letter and returning it to me either via email or by post to; 1548 Camino Monde San Jose, CA 95125. Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,

Ellen Peterson
Permissions Editor
Epeterson4@gmail.com

I understand and agree to abide by these conditions:

(Signed) _Vicki Golden_ Date: _4/30/2013_

Expected Date of Completion is: _May 2014_

WILEY 989 Market Street, Fifth Floor • San Francisco, CA 94103-1741

www.manaraa.com

APPENDIX G

PERMISSION TO USE LPI AND SURVEY MONKEY

The permission letter from Publisher Jossey-Bass to use the "Kouzes &Posner:

Leadership Practices Inventory. Reprinted with permission

Gmail
by Google

Hello

Tue, Apr 30, 2013 at 2:04 PM

To: "vgolden2008@gmail.com" <vgolden2008@gmail.com>

Vicki,

Hello and good afternoon to you! Lisa has asked me to assist you with getting set up for the permissions letter needed in order to utilize the LPI through Survey Monkey. Thanks so much for your interest! There are two final steps that you need to take.

1) Please make out a check ▬▬▬▬▬ John Wiley & Sons. In the memo section of the check, you can indicate that this is the fee for LPI use through Survey Monkey. This check can be mailed to the address below in my signature line, atten: Ryan Noll.

2) Once I receive that check, I will contact Debbie in our legal department to draft and send to you your permissions letter that will allow you to utilize the LPI through Survey Monkey.

Thanks again for your interest, and please don't hesitate to reach out to me with any questions. Have a wonderful rest of the day!

Respectfully,

▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬

Wiley

One Montgomery, Suite 1200

San Francisco, CA 94104

U.S.

www.wiley.com

APPENDIX H

SUB-DIMENSION OF THE ASSESSING EMOTION SCALE

Perception of Emotion
5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people. 9. I am aware of emotions as I experience them. 15. am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others. 18.By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing. 19. I know why my emotions change. 22.I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them. 25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send. 29. I know who other people are feeling just by looking at them. 32.I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice 33. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.
Managing Own emotions
2.When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them. 3.I expect that I will do well on most things I try. 10. I expect good things to happen. 12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last. 14.I seek out activities that make me happy. 21. I have control over my emotions. 23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on. 28.When I am faced with a challenge, I give because I believe I will fail. 31.I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles
Managing Others' emotions
1.I know when to speak about my personal problems to others. 4. Other people find it easy to confide in me. 11. I like to share my emotions with others 13.I arrange events others enjoy. 16.I present myself in a way that makes a goo impression on others. 24.I compliment others when they have done something well. 26. When another person tells about person an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself. 30. I help other people feel better when they are down
Utilization of emotion
6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important. 7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities. 8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living. 17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me. 20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come with new ideas. 27. When I feel a change in emotions I tend to come up with new ideas

APPENDIX I

SUB-DIMENSION OF THE LEADERSHIP PRACTICE INVENTORY

Model the Way
1. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others. 6. Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on. 11. Follows through on promises and commitments he /she makes. 16. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance 21. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization. 26. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership. Inspire a Shared Vision
2. Talks about future trends that will I that will influence how our work gets done. 7. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like. 12. Appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future. 17. shows others how their long-tem interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision. 22. Paints the "big picture" of what of what we aspire to accomplish. 27. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.
Challenge the Process
3. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities. 8. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work. 13. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovations to improve what we do. 18. Asks "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected. 23. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs than we work on. 28. Experiments and takes risks, even when there is a chance of failure.
Enable Others to Act
4. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works 9. Actively listens to divers points to view. 14. Treats others with dignity and respect. 19. Supports the decisions that people make on their own. 24. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work. 29. Ensures that people grow in their jobs b learning new skills and developing themselves.
Encourage the Heart
5.Praises people for a job well done. 10. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities. 15. Makes sure that people are creatively reward for their contributions to the success of projects. 20. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commit to shared values. 25. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments 30. Give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.

APPENDIX J

INVITATION EMAIL TO COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Introduction Letter to Participants
Dear [participant's name]:

My name is Vicki Golden, a PhD candidate in the Department of Instructional Technology at Wayne State University. I would like to invite you to participate in my dissertation research study exploring the relationship between community college senior leaders' level of emotional intelligence and its relation to leadership practices. You and your fellow-senior leaders, by participating in this study, will have an opportunity to assist in creating group empirical data relating to emotional intelligence (EI) testing and effective leadership behavioral practices within the United States' Region Two Midwest's Division Three which include 147 community colleges within the following states: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. By providing new empirical data regarding emotional intelligence and leadership practices, these results will likely serve as a platform for possible performance improvement in leadership as well as in your educational institution.

I would like to request about 20 to 30 minutes of your time to complete two research surveys. One survey is the Survey Monkey on-line version of the Assessing Emotions Scale that is focused of measuring the participant's level of emotional intelligence and it could take up to 10 to 15 minutes to complete. The other survey is the Survey Monkey on-line version of the Leadership Practice Inventory that is centered on measuring leaders' level of frequency and engagement in effective leadership behaviors as it could only takes about 10 to 15 minutes to complete as well. There are no known risks involved. To insure confidentiality and anonymity, all testing will be conducted in a highly secure password-protected environment and participants will input responses in a matter that will render them as unidentified by Survey Monkey services. To add, no one at your place of employment will be privy to any survey responses and only I, the researcher, will have access to the participant's unidentified study data, which will be password, protected and kept in my home.

Senior leaders participants can take these assessments for free. Generally, there would be a significant cost for participants to take both, the "Assessing Emotions Scale" and the Leadership Practice Inventory. The cost has been reduced for research purposes and the principal investigator will pay the remaining associated costs.

In the event the dissertation is published, all data will be presented as anonymous, unidentifiable group data with a level of total confidentiality. Study participation is, of course, voluntary. You may also choose to withdraw from the study at any time. By completing the online surveys, you are agreeing to participate in this study. If you choose to participate and have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, Wayne State University Institutional Review Board ~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~. If you have any other further questions or ~~~~~~ Wayne State ~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~.

Thank you for your time, consideration and participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Vicki Golden, Principal Investigator

APPROVED

MAR 2 1 2014

WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

APPENDIX K

FOLLOW- UP INVITATION EMAIL TO COMMUNITY COLLEGES

Follow-up Letter to Participants
Dear [participant's name]:

This is a friendly reminder to request that you participant in my research study. My name is Vicki Golden, a PhD candidate in the Department of Instructional Technology at Wayne State University. I would like to invite you to participate in my dissertation research study exploring the relationship between community college senior leaders' level of emotional intelligence and its relation to leadership practices. You and your fellow-senior leaders, by participating in this study, will have an opportunity to assist in creating group empirical data relating to emotional intelligence (EI) testing and effective leadership behavioral practices within the United States' Region Two Midwest's Division Three which include 147 community colleges within the following states: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin. By providing new empirical data regarding emotional intelligence and leadership practices, these results will likely serve as a platform for possible performance improvement in leadership as well as in your educational institution.

I would like to request about 20 to 30 minutes of your time to complete two research surveys. One survey is the Survey Monkey on-line version of the Assessing Emotions Scale that is focused of measuring the participant's level of emotional intelligence and it could take up to 10 to 15 minutes to complete. The other survey is the Survey Monkey on-line version of the Leadership Practice Inventory that is centered on measuring leaders' level of frequency and engagement in effective leadership behaviors as it could only takes about 10 to 15 minutes to complete as well. There are no known risks involved. To insure confidentiality and anonymity, all testing will be conducted in a highly secure password-protected environment and participants will input responses in a matter that will render them as unidentified by Survey Monkey services. To add, no one at your place of employment will be privy to any survey responses and only I, the researcher, will have access to the participant's unidentified study data, which will be password, protected and kept in my home.

Senior leaders participants can take these assessments for free. Generally, there would be a significant cost for participants to take both, the "Assessing Emotions Scale" and the Leadership Practice Inventory. The cost has been reduced for research purposes and the principal investigator will pay the remaining associated costs.

In the event the dissertation is published, all data will be presented as anonymous, unidentifiable group data with a level of total confidentiality. Study participation is, of course, voluntary. You may also choose to withdraw from the study at any time. By completing the online surveys, you are agreeing to participate in this study. If you choose to participate and have questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant, Wayne State University Institutional Review Board can be contacted at ████████████. If you have any other further questions or comments, ██

Thank you for your time, consideration and participation in this study.

Sincerely,

Vicki Golden, Principal Investigator

APPROVED

MAR 2 1 2014

WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

REFERENCES

Abraham, A. (2006). The need for the integration of emotional intelligence skills in business Education. *Business Renaissance Quarterly*, *1*(3), 65-79.

Adams. J. Q. (2010). Tthe need to re-envision community college leadership. In P. Eddy (Ed.), Community college leadership : multidimensional model for leading change. Sterling, Virginia: Stylus Publishing.

Alfred, R., Shults, C., Jaquette, O. & Strickland, S. (2009). *Community colleges on the horizon: Challenge, choice, or abundance*. Lanham, Maryland: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc

Allen, S. J., Shankman, M., & Miguel, R. F. (2012). Emotionally intelligent q leadership: An integrative, process-oriented theory of studentlLeadership. *Journal Of Leadership Education*, *11*(1), 177-203.

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (n.d.a). *21st Century Initiative.* Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/21st_century/Pages/default.aspx

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (n.d.b*). Community Colleges Past to Present* . Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/history/Pages/pasttopresent.aspx

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (n.d.c*). Fast Facts* . Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/Pages/fastfacts.aspx

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2005). *Competencies   for community colleges leaders* .Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/leadership/ Documents/compentenciesforleaders.pdf

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2011). *2011 Request for proposals. Retrieved from* http://www.aacc.nche.edu/newsevents/Events/leadershipsuite/Pages/2011flirfp.as px

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2012a, April). 21st Century Report Press Release: Transforming Community College System Key to U.S. Competitiveness Milestone Report Outlines 7 Specific Recommendations for the Future. Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/21st_century/Documents/AACC_Report_Pre ss_Rel ease.pdf

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2012b). *American Association of Community Colleges: 21st-Century Commission and Reclaiming the American Dream FAQ* Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/21st_century/Documents/AACC_FAQ.pdf

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2013a*). Community college contributions:Executive summary.* Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Publications/Briefs/Documents/ES_Contributions_13.p df

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2013b). *It's a mattr of time: Low-income students and commuity colleges.*Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Publications/Briefs/Pages/pb04162012.aspx

American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). (2013c). *Who We Are.*

Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/AboutCC/Pages/fastfacts.aspx

Attiq-Ur-Rehman, Kousar, N., & Rahman, F. (2012). Role of distance education   in

promotion higher education. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary*

Research In Business, *4*(5), 1032-1038.

Austin, E. J., Beaton, L., Mastoras, S. M., Osborne, S. E., & Saklofske, D. H. (2012).

Relationships of personality, affect, emotional intelligence and coping with

student stress and academic success: Different patterns of association for stress

and success. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *22*(2), 251+. Retrieved from

http://go.galegroup.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA280515403

&v=2.1&u=lom_waynesu&it=r&p=AONE&sw=w

Austin, E. J., Saklofske, D. H., Huang, D. M. (2004). Measurement of trait emotional

intelligence: Testing and cross-validating a modified version of Schutte et

al.'s(1998) measure. Personality and Individual Differences, 36, (pp.555-562).

Baldwin, C., Bensimon, E., Dowd, A. C., & Kleiman, L. (2011). Measuring student

success. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (153), 75-88.

Bar-On, R. (1997).Bar-On emotional quotient inventory: A measure of emotional

intelligence. Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems Inc.

Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the emotional

    quotient inventory. In R. Bar-On and James D. A. Parkers (Eds.), The handbook

    of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at

    home, school, and in the workplace (pp. 363-388). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-

    Bass Inc.

Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI).

    Psicothema, *18*(Suppl), 13-25.

Bar-On, R. (2007*).*How important is it to educate people to be emotionally intelligent,

    and can it be done? In R. Bar-On, J. G. Maree & J. M. Elias (Eds.). *Educating*

Barr, J. & Dowding L. (2012). Leadership in health. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage

    Publications.

Basham, M. J., & Mathur, R. P. (2010). Dynamic leadership development in community

    college administration: Theories, applications, and implications. *New*

    Directions For Community Colleges, (149), 25-32.

Bass, M. B. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory reach, and

    managerial applications. (3rd. ed., pp. 2-20). New, York, NY: The Free Press.

Bay, D., & McKeage, K. (2006). Emotional intelligence in undergraduate accounting

    students: Preliminary assessment. *Accounting Education*, *15*(4), 439-454.

    doi:10.1080/09639280601011131

Benjamin, B., & O'reilly, C. (2011). Becoming a Leader: Early Career Challenges Faced

    by MBA Graduates. *Academy Of Management Learning & Education*, *10*(3), 452-

    472.

Beard, D. F. (2009). Successful applications of the balanced scorecard in Higher education. *Journal Of Education For Business*, *84*(5), 275-282. Retrieved from: Wileyonlinelibrary.com. DOI:101002/cc.438

Bhatti,, Z. A., Ahmad, H. G., Aslam, A., Nadeem, U.,7 Ramzan, M. (2012). Leadership styles and behaviors in institutional context. Interdisciplinary Journal of Contemporary resarch in Business, 4(2), 77-762.

Bhullar, N., Schutte, N., & Malouff, J. (2012). Trait Emotional Intelligence as a moderator of the relationship between psychological distress and satisfaction with life. *Individual Differences Research*, *10*(1), (pp.19-26).

Binet, A., & Simon, T. (1916). *The development of intelligence in children (the Binet-Simon scale)*. Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins company. Retrieved f romhttp://books.google.com.

Bloom, B. S. (Ed,). (1956). Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive domain. New York: David McKay Company.

Boggs, G. R. (2011). Community colleges in the spotlight and under the microscope. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (156), 3-22.

Boggs, G.R. (2008). Foreword. In J. E. Roueche, M.M. Richardson, P.W. Neal, & S. Roueche (Eds), The creative community college: Leading change though innovation.   Washington, DC: The American Association of Community Colleges.

Bolden, R., Petrov, G., Gosling, J. & Bryman, A. (2009). Leadership in Higher Education: Facts, Fictions and Futures - Introduction to the Special Issue. *Leadership (17427150)*, *5*(3), 291. doi:10.1177/1742715009337761

Boroch, D. Hope, L., Smith, B., Gabriner, R., Mery, P., Kpjstpme. R/. & Asera, R. (2010).

Boyatzis, R.E. (1982). The competent manager: A model for effective performance. New York, NY: Wiley.

Boyatzis, R. E., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. S. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the emotional competence inventory. In R. Bar-On & J. D. A. Parker (Eds.), Handbook of emotional intelligence (pp. 343-362). San Fransisco: Jossey-Bass.

Boyatzis, R. E., & Sala, S. (2004). The emotional competence inventory (ECI). In Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy, (pp. 147-1 80). Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Brackett, M. A., & Mayer, J. D. (2003). Convergent, discriminant, and incremental validity of competing measures of emotional intelligence. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *29*(9), 1147-1158.

Brackett, M. A., Rivers, S. E. and Salovey, P. (2011), Emotional intelligence: implications for personal, social, academic, and workplace success. Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 5: 88–103. doi: 10.1111/j.1751-9004.2010.00334.x

Brandenburg, S., Zhou, X., Bell, L., & Skipper, C. (2011). Emotional Intelligence and Academic Performance of Engineering Students. *Proceedings Editor*.

Brethower, D. (2012). Forward. In Forward. In D. M., Van Tiem, J. L. Moseley, & J. C. Dessinger, Fundamentals of Performance Improvement : A Guide to Improving People, Process, and Performance (pp. xxix-xxxi). Retrieved from http://www.wayne.eblib.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=821 765

Brody, N. (2000). History of theories and measurements of intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence (16-33). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.*

Brown, F., & Moshavi, D. (2005). Transformational leadership and emotional intelligence: A potential pathway for an increased understanding of interpersonal influence. *Journal Of Organizational Behavior*, *26*(7), 867-871. doi:10.1002/job.334

Brown, T., King, M., C., & Stanley, P.(Eds.). (2011). *Fulfilling the promise of the community college: Increasing first-year student engagement and success* (Monograph No. 56). Columbia, SC: University of South Carolina, National Resource Center for the First-Year Experience & Students in Transition.

Bryman, A. (2007). Effective leadership in higher education: a literature review. a literature review, Studies in Higher Education, 32(6), 693-710.

Burnes, B., & Rodnem, R. (2012). Leadership and change: The case for greater ethical clarity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, (108), 239-252. doi: 10.1007/s10551-011-1088-2

Campbell, D. F., Syed, S., & Morris, P. A. (2010). Minding the gap: Filling a void in community College leadership development. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (149), 33-39.

Cartwright, S., & Pappas, C. (2008). Emotional intelligence, its measurement and implications for the workplace. *International Journal Of Management Reviews*, *10*(2), 149-171. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2370.2007.00220.x

Cassidy, M. R, & Cassidy, M. M (2006).Principles and practics of work-group performance. In J. A. Pershing (Ed.), Handbook of human performance technology (3th ed.), (pp. 516-538). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Cattel, J. M. (1890). V-mental tests and measurements. Mind, 15, 373-381.

Cavallo, K. & Brienza, D. (2004). Cavallo, Kathleen, and Dottie Brienza. "Emotional competence and leadership excellence at Johnson & Johnson." *Europe's Journal of Psychology* 2.1 (2006).

Chang, J., Sy, T., & Choi, J. (2012). Team emotional intelligence and performance: Interactive dynamics between leaders and members. *Small Group Research*, *43*(1), 75-104. doi:10.1177/1046496411415692

Cherniss, C. (2000). *Emotional intelligence: What it is and why it maters.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA . Retrieved from http://www.eiconsortium.org

Chevalier, R. (2006). Leadership in performance consulting. In J. A. Pershing (Ed.), Handbook of human performance technology (3th ed.), (pp. 964-985). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Chopra, P. K., & Kanji, G. K. (2010). Emotional intelligence: A catalyst for inspirational leadership and management excellence. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, *21*(10), 971-1004. doi:10.1080/14783363.2010.48770

Ciarrochi, J. Chan, A. Y. C. & Bajgar, J. (2001). Measuring emotional intelligence in adolescents. Personality and Individual Differences, 3, pp. 1105-1119.

Colfax, R. S., Rivera, J., Gaum, Perez, K. T. (2010). Applying emotional intelligence (equ-i) in the workplace: Vital to global business success. *Journal of International Business Research*, 9, Special Issue , 89-98.

Community College. (n.d*.). Merriam-Webster's online dictfionary*. Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/community%20college

Community College Finder (n.d.). The American Association of Community Colleges. Retrieved from http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Pages/CCFinder.aspx

Cook, G., Bay, D., Visser, B., Myburgh, J. E., & Njoroge, J. (2011). Emotional Intelligence: The Role of Accounting Education and Work Experience. *Issues In Accounting Education*, *26*(2), 267-286. doi:10.2308/iace-10001

Cooper, M., & Boice-Pardee, H. (2011). Managing conflict from the middle. *New Directions For Student Services*, (136), 35-42.

Crawford, C., & Jervis, A. (2011). Community colleges today. *Contemporary Issues In Education Research*, *4*(8), 29. Retrieved from

    http://search.proquest.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/docview/892678870

Dale, E.(Revised Ed.). (1954). Audio-visual method in teaching. NScranton, Pa.: The

    Dryden Press, Inc.

Dassance, C. R. (2011). The next community college movement?. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (156), 31-39.

Dawin, C (1998). The expressions of emotions in man and animals. Oxford, New York:

    Oxford University Press.

Dawin, C. (2003). On the origin of species by means of natural selection. Peterborough,

    Ont.: Broadview Press Ltd.

Day, A. L.(2004). The measurement of emotional intelligence: The good, the bad, and

    the ugly. In Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy.

    (Ed.) Glenn Geher.Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Dewey, J, (1909). Moral Principles in education . Retrieved from

    http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/books

Drew, G. (2010). Issues and challenges in higher education leadership: Engaging for

    change. *Australian Educational Researcher*, *37*(3), 57-76.

Druskat, V. U., Sala, F. & Mount, G. (Eds.). (2006). Introduction. In V. U., Druskat, F.

    Sala, & G., Mount (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work: Current research evidence with individuals and groups* (pp. ix-xxiv).

    Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Duncan, M. E., and Ball, C. (2011). Giving voice: Advocating for the community college. *New Directions For Community Colleges* 156, 61-72.

Dunlap, K. (1922). Preface. In K. Dunlap (Ed.), *The Emotions by Carl Georg Lange (1834-1900), and William James (1842-1900)(pp. 5-7)*.Retrieved from: http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu

Durlak, J. A., Dymnicki, A. B., Taylor, R. D., Weissberg, R. P., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The impact of enhancing students' social and emotional learning: A meta-analysis of school-based universal   interventions. *Child Development*, (1), 405. doi:10.2307/29782838

Edmond-Kiger, C., Tucker, M. L., & Yost, C. A. (2006). Emotional intelligence: From the classroom to the workplace. *Management Accounting Quarterly*, *7*(2), 35-42.

Emelander, S. (2013, March-April). On the job with emotional intelligence. *Defense AT&L*, 42, 51-54.

Emo, A. K., Roberts, R. D. , & Zeidner, M. (2006). What is this thing called emotional intelligence?. In K. R. Murphy (Eds.), *A critique of emotional intelligence: What are the problems and how can they be fixed?* (pp. 3-36). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Endersbe, T., Therrien, J., & Wortmann, J. (2012). Three commitments of leadership: How clarity, stability, and rhythm create great leaders. The United States of America: The McGraw-Hill Companies.

Enos, D. D. (2007). Performance improvement: Making it happen (2nd. ed.). B aca, Raton, FI:Auerbach Publications. Retrieved from http://www.crcnetbase.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/ISBN/978-1-57444-282-3

Faguy, K. (2012). Emotional intelligence in health care. *Radiologic Technology*, *83*(3), 237-253.

Farh, C., Seo, M., & Tesluk, P. E. (2012). Emotional intelligence, teamwork effectiveness, and job performance: The moderating role of job context. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, *97*(4), 890-900. doi:10.1037/a0027377

Feather, R. (2009). Emotional intelligence in relation to nursing leadership: does it matter?. *Journal Of Nursing Management*, *17*(3), 376-382. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2834.2008.00931.x

Felix, A., & Pope, A. (2010). The importance of community colleges to the tenth district economy. In *The importance of community colleges to the Tenth District economy* Kansas City: Federal Reserve Bank of Kansas City. doi:www.kansascityfed.org.

Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2006). Emotional intelligence: A theoretical and empirical review of its first 15 years of history. *Psicothema*, *18*(Suplemento), 7-12.

Fernandez, R., Salamonson, Y., & Griffiths, R. (2012). Emotional intelligence as a predictor of academic performance in first-year accelerated graduate entry nursing students. *Journal Of Clinical Nursing*, *21*(23/24), 3485-3492. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2702.2012.04199.x

Ferond, C. (2006). The origins and evolution of human performance technology. In J. A. Pershing (Ed.), Handbook of human performance technology (3th ed.), (pp. 155-187). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Fiedeldey-VanDijk, C. (2009). Practical perspective on the "social" within emotional intelligence. In M. Hughes, H. L., Thompson, J. Brandford Terrel (Eds.), The *Handbook for developing emotional and social intelligence* (pp.301- 326). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Fletcher, R. B. & Hattie, J. (2011). *Intelligence and intelligence testing.* New York, NY: Routledge.

Flumerfelt, S., & Banachowski, M. (2011). Understanding leadership paradigms for improvement in higher education. *Quality Assurance in Education, 19*(3), 224-247. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09684881111158045

Fitzpatrick, L. (2009). Can Community Colleges Save the U.S. Economy?. *Time*, *174*(2), 48-51.

Friedman, W. A. (2010). Leadership and history. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.), Handbook of leadership theory and practice (291-304). Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Fullan, M. & Scott, G. (2009). Turnaround leaership for higher education.San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Gagne, R. M. (1985). *The conditions of learning and theory of instruction*. (4th ed.). Orlando, Florida: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Galton, F (1869) Hereditary genius: It's laws and consequences. New York: D Appleton

and Company. Retrieved from:

http://books.google.com/books?id=tdi0eNp3Uv0C&printsec=frontcover&dq=galt

on&hl=en&sa=X&ei=-

13eT__zKojc2gWThqmuCw&ved=0CEEQ6AEwAg#v=onepage&q=galton&f=fa

lse

Gardner, H. (1983). Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences: Ten

anniversary edition with a new introduction by the Howard Gardner. New York,

NY: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (1983/1993). Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice, (the 10th-

Anniversary Ed.). New York, NY: Basic Books Inc.

Geher, G., & Renstrom, K. L. (2004). Measurement Issues in Emotional Intelligence

Research. In G. Geher, *Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and*

controversy (3-19). Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Gilbert, T. F. (1996). Human Competence: Engineering worthy performance (Tribute

Edition). Washington, D.C.: The international Society for Performance

Improvement, HRD Press, Inc. Amherst, Massachusetts.

Giesecke, J. (2008a). Emotional intelligence. In P. Hernon, J. Giesecke, & C. A. Alire (

Eds.), *Academic librarians as emotionally intelligent leaders* (pp. 11-29).

Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Giesecke, J. (2008b). Emotional intelligence and organizational and leadership theories. In P. Hernon, J. Giesecke, & C. A. Alire (Eds.), *Academic librarians as emotionally intelligent leaders*(pp. 75-86)*. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Glynn, M. A. & DeJordy, R. (2010). Leadership through an organization behavior lens: A look at the last half-century of research. In N. Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.), Handbook of leadership theory and practice (119-157). Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Goddard, H. H. (1920). Feeble-mindedness: Its causes and consequences. New York, NY: The Macmillan Company.

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence.* New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (1998a). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review, 76* (6), 93-104.

Goleman, D. (1998b). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.

Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *The Harvard Business Review*. 78-90.

Goleman, D. (2001a). An ei-based theory of performance. In C. Cherniss, & D. Goleman (Eds.). The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations (pp. 27-44). San Francisco Jossey Bass: Jossey Bass.

Goleman, D. (2001b). Emotional intelligence: Issues in paradigm building. In Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (Eds.). The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations (pp. 13-26). San Francisco Jossey Bass: Jossey Bass.

Goleman, D. (2005). Emotional intelligence: The tenth anniversary edition. New York, NY: Bantam Dell.

Goleman, D. (2011a). The brain and emotional intelligence: New insights. Northampton, MA: More Than Sound LLC.

Goleman, D. (2011b). Leadership: The power of emotional intelligence selected writings. Northampton, MA: More Than Sound LLC.

Goleman, D. (2013). The focused leader: how effective executives direct their own - and their organizations' - attention.. *Harvard Business Review*, (12), 50.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002a). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence.* Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Goleman, D., Boyatzia, R., & McKee, A. (2002b). The Emotional reality of teams. *Journal of Organizational Excellence*, 55-65.doi:10.1002/npr.10020

Gottfredson, L., & Saklofske, D. H. (2009). Intelligence: foundations and issues in assessment. Canadin Psychological, 50(3), 183-195.

Greenockle, K., M. (2010). The new face in leadership: Emotional intelligence. Auest, , 62(3), 260-267.

Hahn, R., Sabou, S., Toader, R., & Rădulescu, C. (2012). About intelligence and leadership. *Annals Of The University Of Oradea, Economic Science Series*, *21*(2), 744-749. Hartas, D. (2010). Educational research and inquiry: Qualitative and quantitative   approaches. New York, NY: Continuum International, Corp.

Hassan, A. M., Dellow, D.A., & Jackson, R.J. (2009). the AACC leadership

    competencies: Parallel views from the top. *Community College Journal of*

    Research and Practice, 34(1- 2), 180-198.

Hesselbein, Frances (2010). Diversity: The imperative for today's leaders. In M.

    Goldsmith, J. Baldoni, & S. McArthur (Eds), The AMA handbook of leadership

    (pp. 9-13). New York, NY: American Management Association.

Hergenhahn, B. R. (2009). An introduction to the history of psychology. Belmont, CA:

    Cengage Learning.

Hergenhahn, B. R., & Olson, M. H. (1993). *An introduction to theories of learning* (4th

    ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Hernon, P. (2008a). Preface. In P. Hernon, J. Giesecke, & C. A. Alire (Eds.), *Academic*

    librarians as emotionally intelligent leaders. Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Hernon, P. (2008b). Review of relevant literature. In P. Hernon, J. Giesecke, & C. A.

    Alire (Eds.), *Academic librarians as emotionally intelligent leaders.* Westport,

    CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Hicks, C., & Jones, S. (2011). At Issue: survival tactics for small, rural-serving

community colleges. *Community College Enterprise*, *17*(2), 28-45.

Higher Education. (n.d.). Merriam-Webster's online dictionary. Retrieved from

    http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/higher%20education

Hollander, E. P. (2013). Leadership in Higher Education. M. G. Rumsey (Ed.), *The*

    Oxford Handbook of Leadership (pp. 311-326). New York, NY: Oxford

    University Press.

Holstein, W. J. (2011). Community colleges to the rescue. *Mworld*, *10*(4), 18-21.

Hughes, M., & Patterson, L. B., & Terrell, J. B. (2005). *Emotional intelligence in action: Training and coaching activities for leaders, managers, and teams.* San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer An Imprint of Wiley.

Hughes, M., & Patterson, L. B., & Terrell, J. B. (2012). Emotional intelligence in action: Training and coaching activities for leaders, managers, and teams. (2nd ed,). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer An Imprint of Wiley.

Hughes, M., Thompson, H. L., & Terrell, J. B. (2009). Handbook for developing emotional and social Intelligence : Best practices, case Studies, and strategies. Pfeiffer. Retrieved June 14, 2012, from Ebook Library

Indoo, S., & Ajeya, J., (2012). Emotional Intelligence and Occupational Stress among the Faculty Members of Private Medical and Engineering Colleges of Uttar Pradesh: A Comparative Study. *Advances In Management*, *5*(7), 52-57.

Iqbal, J., Inayat, S., Ijaz, M., & Zahid, A. (2012). Leadership styles: Identifying approaches and dimensions of leaders. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary Research In Business*, *4*(3), 641-659.

Iuscu, S., Neagu, C., & Neagu, L. (2012). Emotional intelligence essential component of leadership.*Global Conference On Business & Finance Proceedings*, *7*(2), 213-217.

Ireland, V. (2008). Leadership: the role of transformational leadership and emotional intelligence. *Australian Journal of Civil Engineering*, *5*(1), 7+. Retrieved from

http://go.galegroup.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA213958345
&v=2.1&u=lom_waynesu&it=r&p=AONE&sw=w

Iacob, A., & Andrei, A. (2011). Human capital and organiational performance.

Managerial Challenges Of   The Contemporary Society, (2), 130-136.

James, W. (1884/1922). William James (1842-1900). In K. Dunlap (Ed.) The Emotions

by Carl Georg Lange (1834-1900) and William James (1842-1900) (pp.13-32).

Retrieved from: http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu

Jdaitawi, M., Ishak, N., & Mustafa, F. (2011). Emotional intelligence in modifying social

nd academic adjustment among first year university students in north Jordan.

International Journal Of Psychological Studies, *3*(2), 135-141.

Joint legislative agenda for the 113th Congress. (n.d.) Retrieved from

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Advocacy/Documents/2013LegAgenda_Sheet.pdf

Jones, G., & Abraham, A. (2009). The Value of incorporating emotional intelligence

skills in the education of accounting students. *Australasian Accounting Business
& Finance Journal*, *3*(2), 48-60.

Kalamazoo Valley Community College. (n.d.). *History of institution.* Retrieved on May

8, 2011 from http://www.kvcc.edu/welcome.htm#History1

Kalargyrou, V., Pescosolido, A. T., & Kalargiros, E. A. (2012). Leadership skills in

management education. *Academy Of Educational Leadership Journal*, *16*(4), 39-

63.

Kaiser, R. B., McGinnis, J., & Overfield, D. V. (2012). The how and the what of leadership. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice And Research*, *64*(2), 119-135. doi:10.1037/a0029331

Kaufman, A. S. (2009). *IQ testing 101*. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.

Kaufman, R. & Guerra-Lopez, I. (2013). Needs assessment for organizational succss. Alexandria, VA: ASTD Press.

Kaye, B. (2010). The leader's role in growing new leaders. In M. Goldsmith, J. Baldoni, & S. McArthur (Eds), The AMA handbook of leadership (pp. 75-81). New York, NY: American Management Association.

Keating, R., Harper, S., & Glew, D. (2013). Emotional intelligence dilutes the toxins. (cover story). *Industrial Engineer: IE*, *45*(6), 30-35.

Khalili, A. (2012). The role of emotional intelligence in the workplace: A literature Rreview. *International Journal Of Management*, *29*(3), 355-370.

Kiel, L., Bezboruah, K., & Oyun, G. (2009). Developing leaders in public affairs and administration: Incorporating emotional intelligence training into the core doctoral leadership course. *Journal Of Public Affairs Education*, (1), 87. doi:10.2307/40215839

Kihlstrom, J. F., & Cantor, N. (2000). Social Intelligence. In R. Sternberg (Ed.), The handbook of intelligence (359-379).New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Kim, D. H., Wang, C., & Ng, K. M. (2010). A rasch rating scale modeling of the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale in a sample of international Students. *Assessment*.

King, D. B., Mara C. A, & DeCicco T. L. (2012). Connecting the spiritual and emotional

    intelligence confirming an intelligence criterion and assessing the role of

    empathy. International Journal of Transpersonal Studies, 31(1). (pp. 11-20).

Kite, N. & Kay, F. (2012). Understanding emotional intelligence: Strategies for boosting

    your eq and sing it in the workplace. Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page Limited.

Kolesnikova, N. (2009), The changing role of community colleges. *Bridges*, 5-7.

Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z. (n.d). About page. Retrieved from

    http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/about.aspx

Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z. (2012). The leadership challenge: How to make

    extraordinary things happen in organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z. (2002). The leadership practices inventory: theory and

    evidence behind the five practices of exemplary leaders. Retrieved from

    http://www.leadershipchallenge.com/Research-section-Our-Authors-Research-

    Detail/the-leadership-practices-inventory-theory-and-evidence-behind-the-five-

    practices-of-exemplary-leaders.aspx

Kouzes, J. M., Posner, B. Z., Biech, E.(2010). A coach's guide to developing exemplary

    leaders : Making the most of the leadership challenge and the leadership practices

    inventory (LPI). Retrieved from

    http://reader.eblib.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/%28S%2822ek0qlfjsftmu1eorcphb3g

    %29%29/Reader.aspx?p=547045&o=634&u=PJa9XokDSwg%3d&t=135818636

    4&h=D72BA3D003045D708B1EE449A53B576558E85BA5&s=15466438&ut=

    1951&pg=1&r=img&c=-1&pat=n

Kram, K. E. (2006). Foreword. In V. U., Druskat, F., Sala & G., Mount, G. (Eds.), *Linking emotional intelligence and performance at work: Current research evidence with individuals and groups (pp.vii-viii).* Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Krause, T. R. & Weekley, T. (2005). Safety leadership: A four-factor model for establishing a high-functioning organization. Professional safety, 50(11), pp.34-41.

Kreitz, P. A. (2009). Leadership and Emotional Intelligence: A Study of University Library Directors and Their Senior Management Teams. *College & Research Libraries*, *70*(6), 531-554.

Kruml, S. M., and Yockey, M. D.(2011). Developing the emotionally intelligent leader: Instructional issues. *Journal Of Leadership & Organizational Studies (Sage Publications Inc.)* 18(2), 207-215.

Kuiper, K. (2005). The growth of the two cultures: How did academic become change leaders in university administration. HERDSA News, December, 13-14.

Kun, B., Balazs, H., Kapitany, M., Urban, R., & Demetrovics, Z. (2010). Confirmation of the three-factor model of the Assessing Emotions Scale (AES): Verification of the theoretical starting point. *Behavior Research Methods*, *42*(2), 596. doi:10.3758/BRM.42.2.596

Labby, S., Lunenburg, F. C., & Slate, J. R. (2012). Emotional intelligence and academic success: A conceptual analysis for educational leaders. *International Journal Of Educational Leadership Preparation*, *7*(1),

Landau, J. & Meirovich, G. (2011). Development of students' emotional intelligence: Participative classroom environments in higher education. Academy of Educational Leadership journal, 15(3), 89-104.

Landy, F. J. (2005). Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26, 411-424.

Landy, F. J. (2006). The long, frustrating, and fruitless search for social intelligence: A cautionary tale. In K. R. Murphy, (ed.), *Critique of emotional intelligence: What are the problems and how can they be fixed?* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum, ppl 81-123.

Lange, C. G. (1885). Carl Georg Lange (1834-1900)). In K. Dunlap (Ed.) The Emotions by Carl Georg Lange (1834-1900) and William James (1842-1900) (pp.13-32). Retrieved from: http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu

Leader. (n.d*.). Merriam-Webster's online dictfionary*. Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/leader

Leadership Practices Inventory. (n.d.). Retrieved from http://www.pfeiffer.com/WileyCDA/Section/id-811879.html

Leong, F. R. (1995). Review of the leadership practices inventory In J. C. Conoley & J. C. Impara (eds.), The twelfth mental measurements yearbook. Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

Levin, J. S, & Montero-Hernandez, V. (2009). Community colleges and their students : Co-construction and organizational identity. Retrieved from http://www.wayne.eblib.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=578 833

Lewis, K. M., (2000). When leaders display emotion: How followers respond to negative

emotional expression of male and female leaders. *Journal of Organizational*

Behavior, 21(2), 221-234. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/3100307

Lillis, M. (2011). Faculty emotional intelligence and student-faculty interactions:

Implications for student retention. J. College Student Retention, 12(2), 155-178.

Liptak, J.J. (2005). Using emotional intelligence to help college students succeed in the

workplace. *The Journal of Employment Counseling 42*(4), 171-8.

Lopes, , P. N., Grewal, D., Kadis, J., Gall, M., & Salovey, P. (2006). Evidence that

emotionation intelligence is related to job performance and affect and attitudes at work.

Psicothema, *18*, 132-138.

Lykins, L. (2011). Companies need emotionally intelligent leaders. *Journal Of*

Corporate Recruiting Leadership, *6*(3), 6-8.

Lyman, A. (2011). The trustworthy leader : leveraging the power of trust to transform

your organization. San, Francisco, CA: Josse- Bass.

MacCann, C., Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2004) In G. Geher,

Measuring emotional intelligence: Common ground and controversy (3-19).

Hauppauge, New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Manring, S. L. (2012). Tapping and fostering students' emotional intelligence through

service-learning experiences. *Journal Of Behavioral & Applied Management*,

13(3), 168-185.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2011). *Emotional intelligence 101*.

New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company LLC.

Matthews, G., Emo, A. K, Roberts, R. D., & Zeidner, M. (2006). What is this thing called emotional intelligence?. In K. R. Murphy (Eds.), *A critique of emotional intelligence: What are the problems and how can they be fixed?* (pp. 3-36). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Inc.

Matthews, G., Roberts, R.D., Zeidner, M. (2002). Seven myths about emotional intelligence. *Psychological Inquiry, 15*(3),179-196.

Matthews, G. Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R., D. (2012). Emotional intelligence 101. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company.

Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. D. (2004). *Emotional Intelligence: Science & myth.* New Baskerville: Asco Typesetters, Hong Kong.

Mayer, J. D. (1990). "Perceiving Affective Content in Ambiguous Visual Stimuli: A Component of Emotional Intelligence". Journal of personality assessment (0022-3891), 54 (3-4), p. 772.DOI: 10.1080/00223891.1990.9674037

Mayer, J. D. (1999). Emotional intelligence: popular or scientific psychology. *APA Monitor*, *30*(8), 50.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R., & Salovey, P. (2000a). Emotional intelligence meets traditonal standards for intelligence. Elsevier Science Inc., 27(4), 267-268.

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1993). The intelligence of emotional intelligence. Intelligence, 17, 433-442.

Mayer, J.D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey &D. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational

implications (pp.3-31). Retrieved from

http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/books

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P. & Caruso, D. R. (2000b). Emotional intelligence as zeitgeist, s

personality, and as a mental ability: In R. Bar-On, and J. D. A. Parkers (Eds), The

handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and

application at home, school, and in the workplace (pp. 92-117).San Francisco,

CA: Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D., R. (2011). *Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emitonal*

*intelligence test (MSCEIT); User's manual.*Toronto, ON: Multi-Health Systems

Inc.

Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., Caruso, D. R., & Sitrenios, G. (2003). Measuring emotional

intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. American Psychological Association, Inc.,

3(1), 97-105. doi: 10.1037/1528-3542.3.1.97

McClenney, K., & Oriano, A. (2012). From promising to high-impact. *Community*

College Journal, *82*(5), 38-45.

McNair, D.E. (2009). Preparing community college leaders: The AACC core

competencies for   effective leadership & doctoral education. *Community*

College Journal of Research and Practice, 43(1-2), 199-217.

McNair, D. E., Duree, C. A., & Ebbers, L. (2011). If I knew then what I know now:

Using the leadership competencies developed by the American Association

of Community Colleges to prepare community college presidents. *Community*

College Review, 39(1), 3-25.

McNay, W. R. (2012). A Re-Interpretation of leadership aligns human capital and business objectives. *Journal Of Executive Education*, *11*(1), 79-95.

Mellow, G. O., & Katopes, P. (2009). A prescription for the emerging world: The global potential of the community college model. *Change*, *41*(5), 55-59.

Middlehurst, R., Goreham, H., & Woodfield, S. (2009). Why research leadership in higher education? Exploring contributions from the UK's Leadership Foundation for Higher Education. *Leadership*, *5*(3), 311-329. doi:10.1177/1742715009337763

Michigan Community Colleges Association. (2012) *Fast Facts*. Retrieved from http://www.mcca.org/content.cfm?m=87&id=87&startRow=1&mm=0

Michigan.gov. (n.d*.). Michigan, workforce are at a crossroads*. Retrieved from http://www.michigan.gov/mdcd/0,4611,7-122-1678_43625_43744-180556--,00.html

Mikolajczak, M. , Balon, N. , Ruosi, M., & Kotsou I. (2011) Sensitive but not sentimental: Emotionally intelligent people can put their emotions aside when necessary. *Personality And Individual Differences*, *52*537-540.

Miller, D., & Slocombe, T. (2012). Preparing students for the new reality. *College Student Journal*, *46*(1), 18-25.

Morris, A. (2012). Perspectives and thoughts on leadership development in higher education. *E Journal Of Organizational Learning & Leadership*, *10*(1), 33-36.

Mortiboys, A. (2012). *Teaching with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Routledge

Murphy, K. R. (Ed.). (2006). Four conclusions about emotional intelligence. In K. R.

Murphy (Ed.) . *A critique of emotional intelligence: What are the problems and*

how can they be fixed? (pp. 345-354).Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum

Associates. Inc.

Murray, Norman. (2012). Managing your emotions. *Training Journal* , 20-4. *ProQuest.*

Retrieved from

http://search.proquest.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/docview/928207552?accountid=

14925

Neale, S., & Spencer-Arnell, L., & Wilson, L. (2009). *Emotional intelligence coaching:*

Improving performance for leaders, coaches and the individual. London, United

Kingdom Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page Limited.

Nadler, R. (2011). Leading with emotional intelligence: Hans-on strategies for building

confident and collaborative star performers. New York, NY: McGraw, Hill.

Neale, S., Spencer-Arnell, L., & Wilson, L. (2009). Emotional intelligence coaching:

Improving performance for leaders, coachers and the individual. Philadelphia,

PA: Kogan Page Limited.

Nevarez, C., & Wood, J. L. (2010). Community college leadership and administration:

Theory, practice, and change. New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishing, Inc.

Newman, M. (2008). Emotional capitalists the new leaders: Essential strategies for

building your emotional intelligence and leadership success. San Francisco,

CA: Jossey-Bass.

Ng, K.M., Wang, C., Kim, D.H., & Bodenhorn, N. (2010). Factor Structure Analysis of

the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Scale on International Students.

Educational and Psychological Measurement. 70 (4), pp. 695-709.

Nohria, N. & Khurana, R. (2010). Advancing leadership theory and practice. In N.

Nohria & R. Khurana (Eds.), Handbook of leadership theory and practice (3-25).

Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Publishing.

Northouse, P. G. (2009). *Introduction to leadership concepts and practice*. Thousand

Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Northouse, P. G. (2010). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. (5th ed.). LA, CA: Sage.

Northouse, P. G. (2012). *Introduction to leadership concepts and practice*. (2nd ed.).

Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications, Inc.

Ong, V. Y. (2012). Complexities of multiple paradigms in higher education leadership

today. *Journal Of Global Management*, *4*(1), 91-100.

Osiemo, L. (2012). Developing responsible leaders: The university at the service of the

person. *Journal Of Business Ethics*, *108*(2), 131-143.

Palethorpe, M. (2006). Are you emotional but intelligent - or are you emotionally

intelligent?. *Engineering Management*, *16*(1), 11-13.

doi:10.1049/em:20060101

Parker, J. D. A., Stone, H. E. & Wood, L. M. (2009). Emotional intelligence leadership,

and the school administrator. In M. Hughes, H. L., Thompson, and J. Bradford

Terrel(Eds.), Handbook for developing emotional and social intelligence (pp. 379-

397). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Parrish, D. (2011). Developing emotionally intelligent leadership in higher education. Bern, Switzerlnd: Peter Lang AG, International Academic Publishers.

Patterson, B. (2012). Influences of Student Organizational Leadership Experiences in College Students Leadership Behaviors. *E Journal Of Organizational Learning & Leadership*, *10*(1), 1-12.

Pershing, J. A. (2006). Human performance technology fundamentals. In J. A. Pershing (Ed.), Handbook of human performance technology (3th ed.), (pp. 5-34). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

Peterson, C. H. (2012). Building the emotional intelligence and effective functioning of student work groups: evaluation of an instructional program. *College teaching* , 60 (3), p. 112-121.

Petrides, K. V., & Furnham, A. (2000). On the dimensional structure of emotional intelligence. *Personality and individual differences*, *29*(2), 313-320. Saklofske, D. H., Austin, E. J., & Minski, P. S. (2003). Factor structure and validity of a trait emotional intelligence measure. *Personality and Individual Differences*, *34*(4), 707-721.

Pinnow, D. (2011). Leadership-what really matters: A handbook on systemic leadership. London, New York: Springer Fachmedien.

Pounder, J.S. (2001). New leadership and university organisational effectiveness: Exploring the relationship. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal Analysis, (22)6. 281-290.*

Ponterotto, J. G., Ruckdeschel, D. E., Joseph, A. C., Tennenbaum, E. A., & Bruno, A. (2011). Multicultural personality dispositions and trait emotional intelligence: An exploratory study. *Journal Of Social Psychology*, *151*(5), 556-576. doi:10.1080/00224545.2010.

Pounder, J. S. (2008). Transformational leadership: Practicing what we teach in the management   classroom. *Journal Of Education For Business*, *84*(1), 2-6.

Professional Development, (n.d.). Macmillan's online dictionary. Retrieved from http://www.macmillandictionary.com/dictionary/british/professional-development

Quader, M. (2011). Leadership style and emotional intelligence: A gender comparison. *Annamalai International Journal Of Business Studies & Research*, *3*(1), 1-23.

Rajah, R., Song, Z., & Arvey, R. D. (2011). Emotionality and leadership: Taking stock of the past decade of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(6), 1107-1119. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.09.006

Reese, S. (2011). Creating the leaders of tomorrow today. Techniques, 16-21. Retrieved from http://bluetoad.com/publication/?i=68172&p=8

Rehman, R. (2011). Role of Emotional Intelligence on the Relationship among Leadership Styles, Decision Making Styles and Organizational Performance: A Review. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary Research In Business*, *3*(1), 409-416

Rashid Rehman, R., & Waheed, A. (2012). Transformational leadership syle as predictor

of decision making styles: Moderating role of emotional intelligence. *Pakistan Journal Of Commerce & Social Sciences*, *6*(2), 257-268.

Reille, A., & Kezar, A. (2010). Balancing the pros and cons of community college "grow-your-   own" leadership programs. *Community College Review*, *38*(1), 59-81.

Richey, R. C., Klein, J. D., & Tracey, M.W. (2011). The instructional design knowledge base: Theory, research, and practice. New York, NY: Routledge.

Rickards, T. (2012). *Dilemmas of leadership*. (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Riggio, R. (2010). Emotional intelligence and interpersonal competencies. In M.G. Rothstein and R. J. Burke (Eds.), Self-Management and Leadership Development (pp.160-182). Northampton, Massachusetts Edward Elgar Publishing, Inc.

Roach, R. (2009). A new deal for higher education? Obama's higher education agenda has the potential to expand federal role, experts say. Diverse Issues Higher Education,   26 aaaa923), 12-14.

Romano, J. C., Gallagher, G., & Shugart, S. C. (2010). More than an open door: Deploying philanthropy to student access and success in American community colleges. *New Directions For Student Services*, (130), 55.   doi:10.1002/ss.360

Roueche, J. E., Richardson, M. M., Neal, P. W., & Roueche, S. (2008). From challenges to opportunities. In J. E. Roueche, M. M. Richardson, P. W. Neal, & S. Roueche (Eds.), *The creative community college: Leading change through innovation.* Washington, DC: The American Association of Community colleges.

Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2001). Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process, (2nd Ed). Thusand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Rummler, G. (1999). Transforming organization through human performance technology. In H. D. Stolvitch, & E. J. Keeps, Handbook of human performance technology: Improving individual and organizational performance worldwide , (2nd ed.) (pp.47-66).

Sadri, G. (2013, January-February). Improving emotional intelligence. *Industrial Management*, *55*(1), 18. Retrieved from http://go.galegroup.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/ps/i.do?id=GALE%7CA375634820 &v=2.1&u=lom_waynesu&it=r&p=ITOF&sw=w&asid=fa2b5e85a8d14f058260c a0ab940e42a

Saklofske, D. H., Austin, E. J., & Minski, P. S. (2003). Factor structure and validity of a trait emotional intelligence measure. *Personality And Individual Differences*, *34*(4), 707-721. doi:10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00056-9

Salovey, P., & Grewal, D. (2005). The science of emotional intelligence. *Current directions in psychological science*, *14*(6), 281-285.

Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, *9*(3), 185-211.

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M, Hall, L. E., Haggerty, D. J., Cooper, H. T , Golden, C. J., & Dornheim, L. (1998). Development and validation of a measure of emotional intelligence. 25 (pp.167-177).

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., & Bhullar, Navjot. (2009). The assessing emotions scale. In J. D. A.,Parker, Saklofske, D. H., & C. Stough, C. (Eds). Assessing Emotional Intelligence (119-134). In Retrieved from http://www.eblib.com

Schutte, N. S., Malouff, J. M., Bobik, T. D., Coston, T.D., Greeson, C., Jedlicka, C., Rhodes, E., Wendorf, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence and interpersonal relations. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 141*(4), 523-36. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/docview/199837598?accountid =14925

Scott, G., Coates, H, & Anderson. (2008). Learning leaders in times of change: Academic leadership capabilities for Australian higher education. Retrieved from http://research.acer.edu.au/higher_education/3

Scott, G., Bell, S., Coates, H., & Grebennikov, L. (2010). Australian higher education leaders in times of change: the role of Pro Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor. *Journal Of Higher Education Policy & Management*, *32*(4), 401-418. doi:10.1080/1360080X.2010.491113

Seels B. B., & Richey, R. C. (1994). Instructional technology: The definition and domains of the field. Bloomington, In: Association for Educational Communication and technology.

Shamsuddin, A., Chee-Ming, C., Wahab, E., & Kassim, A. (2012). Leadership management as an integral part of succession planning in HEIs: A Malaysian perspective. *International Journal Of Business & Social Science*, *3*(3), 151-158.

Shankman, M. L. & Allen, S. J. (2008). Emotionally intelligent leadership: A guide for *college students*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Shannon, H. D., & Smith, R. C. (2006). A Case for the community college's open access mission. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (136), 15-21.

Shaw, K. (2012). Leadership through instructional design in higher education. (English). *Online Journal Of Distance Learning Administration*, *15*(3), 1.

Sheldon, B. E. (2010). Interpersonal skills, theory and practice: The librarian's guide to becoming a leader. Santa Barbara, CA: Libraries Unlimited.

Shepard, R., Fasko, D., & Osborne, F. H. (1999). Intrapersonal intelligence: Affective factors in thinking. *Education, 119*(4), 633-42.

Siddique, A., Aslam, H., Khan, M., & Fatima, U. (2011). Impact of academic leadership on faculty's motivation, and organizational effectiveness in higher education S system. *International Journal Of Business & Social Science*, *2*(8), 184-191.

Snyder, G. (1999). Leading performance. *Performance Management Magazine, 17*(2), 18-18. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/docview/204394119?accountid=1 4925

Solis, F., Kupczynski, L., & Mundy, M. (2011). A Profile of Faculty Leadership Behavior at One South Texas Community College. *International Journal Of Educational Leadership Preparation*, *6*(4),

Spencer-Thomas, S. (2009). Top 10 strategies for bolstering students' mental resilience. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, (55), 36.

Stern, S. (2007). Mental building blocks for the next century: Book review five minds for

the future. Retrieved from: http://www.ft.com/intl/cms/s/1/0190cf16-dc74-11db-

a21d-000b5df10621.html#axzz2OGIuyv6N

Sternberg, R. J. (1996). IQ Counts, but what really Counts is successful intelligence.

NASSP Bulletin, *80*(583), 18-23.

Sternberg, R. J. (Ed.). (2000). *Handbook of intelligence.* New York, NY: Cambridge

University Press.

Strom, S. L., Sanchez, A. A., & Downey-Schilling, J. (2011). Inside-outside: Finding

future community college leaders. *Community College Enterprise*, *17*(1), 9-21.

Terman, L. (1916). The measurement of intelligence : An explanation of and a complete

guide for the use of the standford revision and extension of the binet-simon

intelligence scale. New York, NY: Houghton Mifflin Company. Retrieved from

http://books.google.com/books?id=A7YNAAAAYAAJ&printsec=frontcover&dq

=lewis+Terman&hl=en&sa=X&ei=OdztT4lHivjyBOGurIcN&ved=0CDMQ6AE

wAA#v=onepage&q=lewis%20Terman&f=false

The Leadership Challenge.(n.d.). Retrieved from

www.leadershipchallenge.com/Professionals-section-LPI.aspx

The Leadership Practice Inventory. (n.d.). Retrieved from

shttp://www.leadershipchallenge.com/Professionals-section-LPI.aspx

The United Census Bureau. (n.d.b.). Statistical groupings of states and counties.

Retrieved from

http://www.census.gov/geo/reference/pdfs/GARM/Ch6GARM.pdfs

The United Census Bureau. (n.d.b.). Statistical groupings of states and counties.

Retrieved from

http://www.census.gov/geo/reference/pdfs/GARM/Ch6GARM.pdfs

Thorndike, E. L., (1920). Intelligence and its uses. *Harper's Monthly Magazine,* 140,

227-235.

Thorndike, R. L., & Stein, S. S. (1937). An evaluation of the attempts to measure social

intelligence. *Psychological Bulletin*, *34*(5), 275-285. doi:10.1037/h0053850

Thorndike, R. M. (1990). Origins of intelligence and its measurement. Journal of

Psychoeductional Assesment, 8, 223-2230.

Tucker, M., Sojka, J., Barone, F., & McCarthy, A. (2000). Training tomorrow's

Leaders: Enhancing the Emotional Intelligence of Business Graduates*. Journal

of Education for Business, 75*(6), 331-37.

Tyler, R. W. (1949). Basic principles of curriculum and instruction. Chicago, IL: The

University of Chicago Press.

Tyler, R. W. (1957). The curriculum : Then and now. The Elementary School Journal,

Ullman, E. (2010). Learning for today's leader: The changing state of community college

training programs. *Community College Journal*, *80*(6), 20-22. Ussahawanitchakit,

P., & Sriboonlue, P. (2011). Transformation leadership, strategic flexibility, learning

capability, continuous improvement, and firm performance: Evidence from

Thaliand. *International Journal Of Business Strategy*, *11*(1), 162-172.

Vandervoort, D. (2006). The importance of emotional intelligence in higher

education. Current psychology, 25 (1), p.4-9.

Van Tiem, D., Moseley, J. L., & Dessinger, J. C. (2012). Fundamentals of

performance improvement: A Guide to Improving People, Process, and

Performance Retrieved from

http://www.wayne.eblib.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/patron/FullRecord.aspx?p=821

765

Vijayaragavan, I. G. (2008) High performance leadership. Mumbai, IND: Global Media.

Retrieved from

http://site.ebrary.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/lib/wayne/docDetail.action?docID=10

416254

Wall, B. (2007). Being smart only takes you so far: The most successful leaders are

masers of emotional intelligence but sometime they need coaching. *Training and

Develop,ent*, *611*, 64-68.

Wallin, D. L. (2012). Future leaders institute: Rising leaders and the AACC

competencies. *New Directions For Community Colleges*, (159), 19-28.

Walter, F., Humphrey, R. H. & Cole, M. S. (2012). Unleashing leadership potential:.

Toward an evidence-based management of emotional intelligence.

Organizational Dynamics, *41,* 212-219. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2012.03.002

Wang, X. (2012). Factors Contributing to the Upward Transfer of Baccalaureate

Aspirants Beginning at Community Colleges. *Journal Of Higher Education*,

83(6), 851-875.

Wechsler, D. (1943). Non-intellective factors in general intelligence. *The Journal Of

Abnormal And Social Psychology*, *38*(1), 101-103. doi:10.1037/h0060613

Wechsler, D.(1958). The measurement and appraisal of adult intelligence. (4th ed.).

Baltimore, MD: The Willams & Wilkins Company.

Wechsler, D. (1975). Intelligence defined and undefined. *American Psychologist*, *30*135-

139.

White House. (2009). The American Graduation Initiative: Stronger American skills

through community colleges [Fact sheet]. Available from

http://www.whitehouse.gov/the-press-office/excerpts-presidents-remarkswarren-

michigan-and-fact-sheet-american-graduation-init

http://www.aacc.nche.edu/Resources/competencies/Pages/partc.aspx

Wong, C., & Law, K. S., (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional i

ntelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership*

Quarterly, 13, 243-274.

Yoakum, C. S. & Yerkes, R. M. (1920). Army mental tests. New York, NY: Henry Holt

and company. Retrieved:

http://books.google.com.proxy.lib.wayne.edu/books?hl=en&lr=&id=9-

vH_TaykJ8C&oi=fnd&pg=PR7&dq=army+mental+tests&ots=HyjMk-

FOY4&sig=aOz4cTCjBk6HrwR9nx7qPeD-

7Sk#v=onepage&q=army%20mental%20tests&f=false

Yoder, D. M. (2004). Organizational climate and emotional intelligence: An appreciative

inquiry into a "leaderful" community college. *Community College Journal of*

Research & Practice, *29*(1), 45-62.

Yukl, G. (2012). Effective Leadership Behavior: What We Know and What Questions Need More Attention. *Academy Of Management Perspectives*, *26*(4), 66-85. doi:10.5465/amp.2012.0088

Yunus, N. j., & Anuar, S. (2012). Trust as moderating effect between emotional intelligence and leadership styles. *Interdisciplinary Journal Of Contemporary Research In Business*, *3*(10), 650-663.

Zeidenberg, M. (2008). Community colleges under stress. *Issues In Science & Technology*, *24*(4), 53-58

Zeidner, M., Matthews, G. and Roberts, R. D. (2009). What we know about emotional intelligence: How it affects, learning, work , relationships, and our mental health. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

ABSTRACT
AN EXPLORATION OF EMOTIVIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO HIGHER EDUCATION EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF LEADERS IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENVIRONMENT

by

VICKI A. GOLDEN

May 2015

Advisor: Dr. Ingrid Guerra-Lopez

Major: Performance Improvement

Degree: Doctor of Philosophy

Emotional intelligence (EI) has been shown to directly relate to the enhancement of successful leadership attributes (Giesecke, 2008a, 2008b; Goleman, 2011a; Kruml & Yockey, 2010; Nadler, 2011; Riggio, 2010) and effective leaders have been found to possess significant degrees of EI in business settings (Lykins, 2011; Allen, Shankman, & Miguel, 2012; Rehman, 2011)). Although the positive effects of EI on leadership in business have been repeatedly demonstrated (Abraham, 2006; Goleman, 2011a; Hughes, Tompson, & Terrel; 2009), there is a lack of information on the impact of EI in higher educational leaders (Indoo & Ajeya, 2012; Kreitz, 2009; Landau & Meiroveich, 2011).There is also a need for EI to be implemented in the curricula of higher education (Abraham, 2006; Bay & Mckeage, 2006; Jones & Abraham, 2009; Kiel, Bezboruah, & Oyun, 2009; Manring, 2012; Tucker, Sojka, & Barone, McCarthy, 2000) and there has been a call for the establishment of community college leadership competencies related to of EI (American Association of Community colleges (AACC), 2005). The purpose of

the current study is to fill a gap in the current performance improvement literature as it is relative to community college senior leadership, EI, and frequency levels of leaders engaging and performing effective leadership behavioral practices. A quantitative research approach and a correlation research design are proposed. The study population sample is senior leaders from selective community colleges located within the United States' Region Two Midwest's division three, namely the East North Central Division which is inclusive of the following five states: Indiana, Illinois, Ohio, Michigan, and, Wisconsin (The United States Census Bureau, n.d. a). Senior leaders participates will be invited to participate in this study by completing the Assessing Emotions Scale, AES (Schutte et al., 1998) to measure EI and the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) to measure leadership efficacy. Descriptive statistics will be used to provide information on senior community college leaders' self-reported degree of EI and their level of self-reported of frequency of standing relative to effective leadership practices in the domain of higher education. Inferential statistics consisting of a Spearman moment correlation analysis will be used to determine the relationship between EI leadership attributes and leadership efficacy. The results of the investigation may provide new data that could advance post secondary educational leadership to improve institutional performance and provide information on whether EI theory can be extended to the community college. This information may encourage community colleges to acknowledge the vital need for their leaders, faculty, and students to become emotional intelligent by their leaders participating in effective professional development EI programs who could impact and

improve their performance as EI may also be included in their curriculum for their students who could substantially impact social change.

AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STATEMENT

From a young child until now, I've found life to be meaningful. With a tenacious attitude, I've remained self-motivated to focus on personal development and living my dreams throughout my life. Similar to others, I endured many challenges and times to weather the storms. For me, the essence of living my dreams has required that I had to face, tolerate and overcome health, financial and family challenges. With a direct reflection, my autobiographical statement will center on the discussion of my life from personal, professional, educational, philosophical and spiritual perspectives.

Personally, my family life has some interesting aspects that have developed over the years. As a single mother of four lovely young ladies and proud grandmother of four, my life is fill with love, joy, peace, passion and sometimes oppositions. I am always busy with either advising, coaching, teaching, loving, counseling, and/or enjoying my wonderfully busy family.

Professionally, my employment experience is extremely diversified. From the age of 15 years olds as a customer service representative for the Urban League, I've been employed in various industries. These industries include education, telecommunications, home entrainment and security systems, office equipment, and energy consumption. During my employment tenures, inclusively, I obtained well over 20 plus years experience in different positions such as a sales residential and/or business to business consultant, an instructional designer and/or performance improvement specialist, an adjunct faculty, a community college and/or a technical school recruiter, a leadership and work first trainer, a national energy presenter, account and/or project manager. These employment experiences have enrich my life and has enable me develop extensive and varied skill sets.

Educationally, I enjoy learning and finding education interesting and exciting. I am a life-long learner. My educational roots stem from being a GED and community college graduate which persuaded me to further my education. I hold the following degrees: Education Specialist Degree, from Wayne State University, a Master of Arts and Master of Science in Administration from Central Michigan University, a Bachelor of Business Administration from Western Michigan University, and an Associate in Applied Science from Kalamazoo Valley Community College. Respectfully, my areas of study include: instructional, and performance improvement technology, corporate training, adult learning, international administration, marketing and general business. Soon, I will complete the requirements to obtain my PhD in Performance Improvement and Instructional Technology with a cognate in Curriculum Development.

My philosophical life perspective is guided by my spiritual perspective that God's grace has blessed me to live and do his will. As far back as I remember, I learned to help others and treat them as I want to be treated. Philosophically, I have a positive perspective about life that allows me to find something positive in my life challenges that could assist me to be successful in life.