EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

AMONG HUMAN RESOURCE PROFESSIONALS:

A CORRELATIONAL STUDY

by

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Abstract

The human resource field continues to evolve as HR professionals shift their focus from operational execution to strategic business partner. As this role shifts, employee expectations for what HR should be and should do shifts simultaneously. HR professionals are spending more time facilitating change, coping with emotional employees, and guiding leaders through the perils and pitfalls of organizational transformation. As a result, more attention is now being paid to identify the skills and behaviors needed for HR professionals to be successful in this new epoch. One such skill to facilitate this evolution is emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence has garnered substantial interest over the last couple of decades as researchers have explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership, job satisfaction, firm performance, and employee engagement. What has been missing from the literature is extensive research into EI and leadership for HR professionals. This study explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals and sought to identify the EI subscale that had a significant impact on the HR professional's transformational leadership capacity. The results indicate that there is a gap between HR's ability to manage emotions and HR's effectiveness as a transformational leader. Additional research is needed to understand if there is a relationship between the EI subscales and the individual leadership behaviors in transformational leadership.

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my husband, Tom, who has been my friend, coach, greatest supporter and most honest critic. I could not have done this without you. I also dedicate this dissertation to my son, Jason, as proof that anything is possible through faith and unyielding determination. Lastly, I dedicate this dissertation to my mother who is an inspiration to so many people. I love you all and appreciate your sacrifice to make sure I could realize my dream.

Acknowledgments

I must first acknowledge God for giving me the opportunity, strength and fortitude to complete a PhD program. In my lowest moments and in my darkest nights, God always provided a calming reassurance and a still small voice of comfort. The passage that says, "I can do all things through Christ which strengthens me" (Philippians 4:13) has never been more tangible and indisputable to me than it is now. To God be the glory for all he has done.

I want to thank Dr. John Herr who guided me through the often tedious but always gratifying learner's journey. Your patience support and temperate nudging were what I needed to move forward from an endless journey to purposeful destination. Thank you for everything. I also want to thank my dissertation committee for their insight, assistance and feedback.

I want to express my appreciation to my pastor, Bishop Fisher and my entire Greater Bethel Temple church family who prayed for me, encouraged me, and urged me to finish what I started.

To my husband, Tom and my son, Jason, you were both there for the all-night papers and the all-day reading. You were my strength through every distraction, obstacle, and limitation attempting to steal my dream. You both make me want to be a better person, a better wife, a better mother, and a better leader. I will always love you.

Lastly, I want to thank my entire family and all my friends who have inspired me in more ways than I could have ever imagined.

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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Problem

As the role of the human resource function continues to evolve, there is increased focus and research in strategic human resource management as a means for organizations to achieve success (Kaifeng, Lepak, Jia & Baer, 2012). Hayton, Piperopoulos, and Welbourne (2011) note that strategic human resource management emerged to improve organizational results by responding to market and societal issues through social science research and application. Both empirical research and conventional practice are calling for human resource (HR) professionals to transform from administrative practitioners into strategic leaders in order to improve organizational capability (Soderquist, Papalexandris, Ioannou & Prastacos, 2010; Uen, Ahlstrom, Chen & Tseng, 2012). A component of this strategic human resource management transformation is the inclusion of interpersonal behavioral attributes or capabilities into HR competency models (Soderquist et al., 2010). The literature suggests that one of the necessary behavioral attributes for strategic human resource management is emotional intelligence (Domerchie, 2011). While this seems substantive, empirical research can provide the needed clarity, insight, and validation into the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and transformational leadership (TL) for HR professionals.

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Background of the Study

There have been several studies examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010; Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero & Berrios Martos, 2012; Wang & Huang, 2009); however, there is limited literature investigating the correlation specifically for HR professionals (Alston, Dastoor & Sosa-Fey, 2010) who frequently face the daunting task of supporting, engaging, and empowering emotionally distraught employees experiencing professional and personal challenges. As a common denominator of workplace distress, organizational change can trigger a range of employee emotions. Employees can make assumptions, judgments, and draw conclusions about the content and the context of change and the intentions of those leading the change. Caldwell et al. (2012) posit that "today's most effective leaders seek new solutions that require people to rethink their assumptions" (p. 176). It is incumbent upon HR professionals to drive these changes and support employees by identifying, understanding, and diffusing the emotional reactions stemming from assumptions and personal anxiety.

EI research suggests that leaders who comprehend the importance and implications of emotional intelligence are often more adept at coping with challenging situations, and they may foster the type of culture that can catapult an organization's effectiveness while driving a firm's competitive advantage (Allam, 2011; Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, & Sutton, 2011). In essence, one's emotional intelligence and leadership capacity may be the decisive factors in determining team (Wang & Huang, 2009) and organizational success.

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What is also not clearly delineated and articulated in the literature is the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for those tasked with developing and delivering the people strategies designed to improve leadership capability within organizations (Chrusciel, 2006). A concentrated investigation into the relationship between EI and TL for HR professionals could have implications for human resource academic programs and for human resource strategies (Domerchie, 2011).

Although there have been several studies which have investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership (Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010; Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012; Wang & Huang, 2009), there is limited research investigating the relationship specifically for HR professionals (Alston et al., 2010). Alston et al. state that this is a gap in the research. While their study investigated this potential relationship, the small and homogenous nature of the sample group limited the ability to generalize the findings across heterogeneous HR groups. A more expansive study is needed to explore the phenomenon of EI and transformational leadership for HR professionals across industries and companies. The authors also cited the sample size as a limitation of their research. Wright and McMahan (2011) provide additional insight into the limited research on HR professionals when they state that "strategic HRM researchers' almost exclusive focus on the practices that can acquire and develop the human capital resource has resulted in their largely ignoring the resource itself" (p. 94).

This research is critical because HR professionals regularly interact with emotional employees distressed by organizational change, poor leadership, limited growth opportunities, insufficient feedback, and peer incompetence (Kulik, Cregan,

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Metz, & Brown, 2009). These issues can be the nucleus of emotional unrest, conflict, and poor performance if HR professionals are not prepared to manage emotions with the interpersonal savvy and skill of a transformational leader focused on the delivery of improved organizational capability.

While this study draws inspiration from the Alston et al. (2010) research, there are three distinct contrasts that serve both to differentiate this study and to address some of the limitations and recommendations noted with the prior research. These research contrasts include:

- a sample frame that is derived from representation of all industries and organizations within the geographic area in which the research is conducted;

- the use of an instrument with greater validity for measuring emotional intelligence;

- the application of a different statistical analysis procedure to ensure alignment between the research questions and the methodology used.

Statement of the Problem

Alston et al.'s (2010) empirical study investigating the link between emotional intelligence and leadership provided an obligatory look into the phenomena for human resource professionals; however, the study's stated limitations offered negligible support for informing the literature about the relationship between EI and transformational leadership. There is still a need for more expansive data and insight into the relationship between EI and leadership for human resource professionals working at diverse organizations and across various industries. Additionally, the use of a more accepted

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scale for measuring EI may garner added scholarly support for the perceived linkage between EI and leadership. Walter, Cole, and Humphrey (2011) also suggest that more empirical research is needed regarding the relationship of the sub-factors or dimensions of EI's impact on leadership.

Purpose of the Study

The findings are expected to expand the body of HR knowledge concerning the particular aspects of EI that correlate to factors of transformational leadership. It is anticipated that the results of the research will provide criterion for leadership and emotional intelligence development programs that HR can use both to increase participants' social efficacy (Fambrough & Hart, 2008) and to bolster employee job satisfaction (Singh, 2013).

The purpose of this quantitative, non-experimental survey design will be to investigate the correlational relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and transformational leadership (TL) of human resource management professionals who are members of the national Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM). Emotional intelligence is defined by four factors identified in the MSCEIT instrument (Mayer et al., 2011). These factors are: the ability to perceive emotions, the ability to facilitate thought, the ability to understand emotions, and the ability to manage emotions. Transformational leadership will be defined as the ability to engage and motivate others as defined by the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

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It is anticipated that the results of the research will help to inform organizational HR strategies as well as provide a benchmark for development topics within HR programs, education, and professional certification.

Rationale

Creswell (2009) posits that a survey design can facilitate a quantifiable measure of population tendencies by investigating a sample from the population. This study proposes to replicate some components of the investigation conducted by Alston et al., (2010) because of the study's specific focus on human resources and in an effort to address some of the expressed and unstated limitations of that research. The proposed study uses a survey design to quantify the relationship of EI and transformational leadership measures for HR professionals. The correlation tests the second hypothesis and provides greater insight into the correlation of the sub-factors of EI and transformational leadership.

A cross-sectional design is proposed to increase the generalizability of the study results for larger HR populations. The instruments for this study are the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (2002) and the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Both of these instruments have acceptable reliability and validity measures. Additional information is provided about these scales in the Measurement section.

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Research Questions

This quantitative, non-experimental survey design explores the existence of a correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The subsequent questions facilitated the study:

Q1. What is the relationship between human resource professional's emotional intelligence (aggregate EI score) and transformational leadership (aggregate TL score)?

Q2. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence-perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q3. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q4. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q5. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Significance of the Study

Human resource professionals could "gain from efforts to identify an effective EI index for a wide range of developmental applications in the workplace. For example, EI indexes have been used for training and development programming, organizational development initiatives, and career development planning" (McEnrue & Groves, 2006, p. 9-10). Since HR professionals are largely responsible for these learning and development activities (Chien, 2004), it is important to ensure HR professionals possess the very skills

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they seek to develop in others. The significance of this study is that it explores EI skills for a population sample that could benefit from increased empirical research (Wright & McMahan, 2011). The findings are expected to provide insight into the relationship of EI and transformational leadership as well as the particular sub-factors of EI that correlate to transformational leadership using the Kouzes and Posner framework. It is anticipated that the results of the research will provide both criterion and content for HR development programs in both leadership and emotional intelligence.

Fambrough and Hart (2008) posit that "an area of critical importance falling within the purview of HRD professionals has been the management of workplace emotions run amok, or at least astray" (p. 742). In an era when the line between personal and professional life seems to be blurred for so many workers, HR professionals, who have the responsibility to develop and execute strategic programs and activities for individual and organizational effectiveness, must become adept at leading employees through the emotional pressures of organizational change and interpersonal relationships (Kaifeng et al., 2012; Soderquist et al., 2009). The significance of the current study is that it explores EI for a population sample that some may assume should have strong leadership and EI skills even though empirical tests are lacking to substantiate the supposition (Wright & McMahan, 2011). It is expected that the results of the quantitative study will provide additional data that can be used in the development of leadership programs.

Organizational leaders are tasked with delivering greater shareholder value and key organizational results. Krishnan and Singh (2011) posit that one of the key HR competencies is organizational leadership. Caldwell, Truong, Linh, and Tuan (2011)

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denote that a critical role for HR is "implicit leadership" (p. 171) for organizational success. In order for HR professionals to deliver superlative results, they must understand how to unleash the individual potential of the employees in their organizations. Chien (2004) posits that HR's specific role is the design and execution of programs and practices to help an organization accomplish its goals. These results are often achieved through HR's training and professional development offerings (Chien, 2004) which focus on leadership skill building.

Alston et al.'s (2010) empirical study researching the link between emotional intelligence and leadership provided a prevue into the phenomena for human resource professionals; however, the study's stated limitations offered negligible support for informing the literature about the relationship between EI and transformational leadership. There is still a need for more expansive data and insight into this relationship for human resource professionals working at diverse organizations and across various industries. Additionally, the use of a more accepted scale for measuring EI may fortify scholarly support for the perceived linkage between EI and leadership.

Definition of Terms

Emotional intelligence. The ability to perceive emotions, facilitate thought, understand emotions, and management emotions as measured by a standardized measure of EI (Goleman, 1996; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emotional intelligence, an independent variable will be measured by the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002). The MSCEIT is an ability-based assessment that tests a person's competence with emotional data. Respondents are

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provided with a total overall EI score as well core area scores for Experiential Emotional Intelligence and Strategic Emotional Intelligence. The Experiential score assesses one's ability to perceive and facilitate emotions while the Strategic score assesses one's ability to understand and manage emotions.

Facilitating thought. The ability to facilitate thought is a sub-factor of EI on a standardized measure of emotional intelligence. Sadri (2012) notes that facilitating thought is identified by skills such as reasoning in which a person determines an appropriate response.

Managing emotions. The ability to manage emotions is a sub-factor of EI on a standardized measure of emotional intelligence. Sadri (2012) posits that managing emotions addresses one's ability to control one's emotions in tense situations. This can be seen in one's ability to soothe his or herself after an intense conflict.

Perceiving emotion. The ability to perceive emotions is a sub-factor of EI on a standardized measure of emotional intelligence. According to Sadri (2012), perceiving emotion is "the ability to perceive emotion and includes skills such as recognizing facial expressions in others and interpreting what those expressions mean" (p. 536).

Transformational leadership. The ability to engage and motivate others is measured on a standardized measure of transformational leadership. Hoffman et al. (2011) posit that transformational leadership is about a leader's ability to influence others toward a shared purpose. Transformational leadership will be defined as the ability to demonstrate desired behaviors, inspire a shared vision, challenge processes, empower others, and encourage the heart toward optimal results as measured by the Leadership Practice Inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). The LPI assessment is comprised of 30

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Likert-designed questions with six questions for each of the five sub-dimensions. The

scale ranges from 1 = *almost never* to 10 = *almost always*.

   Understanding emotions. The ability to understand emotions is a sub-factor of

EI on a standardized measure of emotional intelligence. This sub-factor "involves

labeling emotions and understanding the relationships associated with shifts in emotion"

(Sadri, 2012, p. 536).

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Assumptions and Limitations

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Assumptions

   Paradigms, or theoretical perspectives, posit some underlying assumptions

regarding a researcher's epistemological beliefs and acuities about how humans acquire

knowledge (Nodoushani, 2000). From a theoretical viewpoint, the positivist perspective

espouses the existence of a set of universal truths or natural laws which are unimpeded by

social interaction or logical reasoning (Karami, Rowley & Analoui, 2006; Kim, 2003;

McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Morgan & Smircich, 1980; Nodoushani, 2000). Positivism

postulates that quantitative scientific research is the exclusive manner in which

researchers can be constructively sure that they are properly investigating and identifying

these universal truths (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). In this deduction, the assumption is

that the most accurate, feasible, and measurable means for evaluating both

transformational leadership and emotional intelligence is through quantitative research.

   From a topical or specialization perspective, emotional intelligence and leadership

are key constructs for human resources. The display of emotion in the workplace is

unavoidable as people work in organizations and manage the emotions that arise in daily

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activity. Fambrough and Hart (2008) posit that "the changing organizational backcloth has enabled emotions to emerge from the shadows to take center stage" (p. 741), and this stage becomes a platform for HR research, education, training, and advancement. The HR context of the interaction between emotions and leadership is important to understand for the development of theoretical and practical solutions.

The methodological assumption for this study is that a correlational design will answer the study's research questions and provide clarity around the relationship between EI and transformational leadership. Martin and Bridgmon (2012) note that correlational methods examine bivariate or multivariate associations with either one or multiple variables which are either dependent or independent.

Limitations

While every research design has limitations, there are four fundamental limitations to the study that warrant discussion. The first study limitation is a diminutive sample size which could result in a type II error of an undetected effect; a small sample size could also impact the generalizability of the results. Lindenbaum and Cartwright (2010) classify this type of error as a limitation concern in their study of emotional intelligence and leadership. One way the current study design addresses this limitation is by drawing a sample from a large professional organization with over 1,000 members. Although the sample derives from a professional chapter from only one state, the threat of a type II error is greatly reduced since the sample size calculation calls for a only 85 respondents. While this reduces the risk of a type II error, it does not increase the

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generalizability of the results. Subsequent studies should include participants from a broader geographic frame to increase the generalizability of the results.

The second and more critical limitation of the study design is that scholars have not yet come to agreement on the most effective and valid way to measure emotional intelligence (Farrelly & Austin, 2007). The continual debate over the essence of the construct (Fembrough & Hart, 2008) and the best method for measuring it gives rise to concern over whether emotions should be regulated or allowed to be expressed freely by individuals. These concerns are the focus of the academic debate over the trait versus ability models for emotional intelligence (Farrelly & Austin, 2007). This concern is addressed by using an instrument recognized as an ability-based model for the EI construct in order to reduce validity threats associated with the study methodology. The MSCEIT instrument is used because "to fulfill the conceptual criterion and label EI as an intelligence facet, one must provide evidence that EI is not a personality trait or a preferred way of behaving but is itself a set of abilities (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004, p. 484). This instrument is considered to be built upon an ability-based model for measuring EI.

The third limitation also deals with the instrumentation used in the study design. Schutte, Malouff, and Bhullar (2009) suggest that self-report emotional intelligence results can be biased if and when a participant perceives a need to respond based upon what may be considered socially acceptable answers. In addition, Alston, Dastoor, and Sosa-Fey (2010) indicate a limitation with self-assessments because of the inability for individuals to self-rate with unquestionable accuracy. Although the MSCEIT is ability-based, the LPI instrument is a self-report tool. The limitation of using this tool is the

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respondent potential bias or their possible lack of self-awareness as it relates to the frequency of their leadership practices measured by the tool. The concurrent and criterion validity of the tool, as previously noted, however, is a solid indication that the tool is an acceptable scale for measuring the leadership construct (Anand & UdayaSuriyan, 2010).

The fourth limitation of the study involves participant time needed to complete the surveys. It is expected that respondents will complete the surveys during normal business hours and while they are at work. Alston et al. (2010) note a similar limitation along with work-place distractions. The study invitation will be sent to all HR members in the professional association in an effort to increase overall participation and to ensure that participant time does not negatively impact the participant response rate.

Theoretical/Conceptual Framework

Emotional intelligence: Emotional intelligence is a phenomenon entrenched in the psychology field, primarily stemming from research on multiple intelligences, more specifically, social intelligence theory (Goleman, 1996; Lyusin & Favorov, 2006; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence "as the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). The notation of multiple intelligences lends itself to both singular and multiple realities from an ontological perspective (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2010). This is, perhaps, one reason researchers have not yet concurred on one definitive meaning or explanation for the construct (Cherniss, 2010). This is also the

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reason why quantitative investigation of the construct can provide more valid and reliable insight into the trends as researchers attempt to define the construct more concretely.

Transformational leadership: Transformational leadership is a construct that has been investigated in both the psychology and business fields in an effort to understand more clearly what defines a leader, what a leader does, and the impact a leader has on others. Kouzes and Posner (2012) highlighted and defined transformational leadership as the way in which "leaders mobilize others to want to get extraordinary things done. It's about the practices leaders use to transform values into actions, visions into realities, obstacles into innovations separateness into solidarity, and risks into rewards" (p. 3). From this definition, it is clear that transformational leadership is outcome driven and behaviorally based as the leader becomes synonymous with the process followed, the results produced, and the people engaged. Transformational leadership is, in essence, engaging people through the values and beliefs in order to activate their performance toward the broader good of the organization (Grant, 2012).

The ability for HR professionals to perceive emotions and facilitate emotional reactions for a desired outcome can represent a person's ability to lead others during emotionally charged situations. This would indicate a positive relationship between EI and transformational leadership for HR professionals.

The theoretical framework in *Figure 1* depicts the four sub-constructs of EI and the Leadership practice (transformational leadership) construct. As evidenced by the model, EI and related sub-constructs are hypothesized to impact an HR professional's leadership practice.

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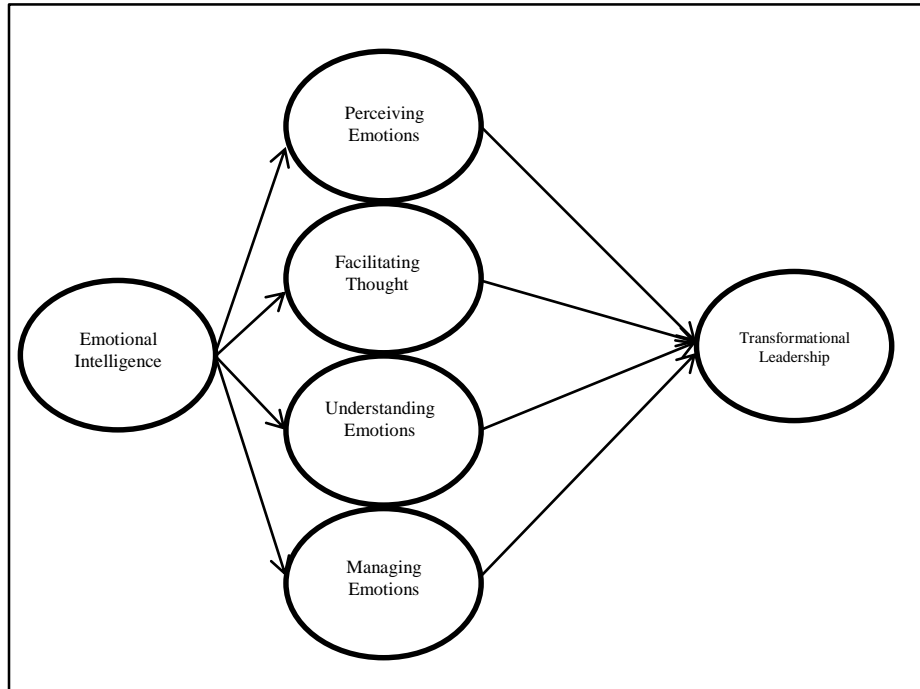
Figure 1. Theoretical framework.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

This chapter offers a general explanation of the study. Chapter 2 explores the research and literature on emotional intelligence and transformational leadership by highlighting the history of the constructs and the themes relevant for SHRM professionals. Chapter 3 provides an overview of the research methodology and study approach. Chapter 4 presents the data collected during this investigation as well as the analysis of the data gathered to address the research questions. Chapter 5 provides a summary of the data analyzed in chapter 4 and a summary of the overall research questions.

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CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Humans experience emotions at different times and in vastly different ways. Our emotions impact the way we behave, the way we perceive experiences, and the way we interact with others. While some people appear to easily identify and respond to emotional stimuli, others seem to lack the understanding required to distinguish emotional cues successfully (Mayer, Di Paolo & Salovey, 1990). Because the role of HR is often one of employee advocate, an HR worker could be confronted with emotional situations at any given time. The ability to manage those situations, as Cherniss (2010) suggests, is a critical and necessary expertise for the HR professional.

Employees in the modern-day workplace are barraged with situations and experiences that are often the impetuous for personal stress (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). As HR professionals interact with employees and attempt to foster a supportive organizational culture to reduce the emotional tension of stress, "it is necessary to view workplace stress and coping as a dynamic process that changes over time, is shaped by its context, and is politically, socially, culturally, and economically dependent" (Harkness et al., 2005, p. 123). Regardless of why employees experience stress, the basis of the stress is one's emotional wellbeing and one's emotional response to situations (Goleman, 1996; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

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Because of the changing workplace culture, emotional intelligence, referring to the ability to identify and manage emotions (Goleman, 1996; Salovey & Mayer, 1990), is becoming more of a critical skill for HR professionals as they diffuse employee conflicts and drive organizational culture (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). Brooks and Nafukho (2006) propose that HR has a two-fold purpose of stimulating business results while simultaneously safeguarding employee emotional wellbeing. Huselid (1995) points out that HR programs and policies can help to create the competitive advantage firms desire by focusing on their greatest asset – their people. For HR leaders, it is important to ensure that these programs safeguard the emotional welfare of all employees. This chapter will examine the literature on emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and their role in strategic human resource management in organizations.

Emotional Intelligence: Historical Perspectives and Current Research
Social Intelligence Theory

Both Intelligence theory and measurement of cognitive ability can be traced back to the 1800's but gained popularity with David Wechsler's research and intelligence scale (Boake, 2002). The power to measure an individual's intelligence and also compare scores between individuals led E. L. Thorndike to question man's capacity to improve the "use of man-power" in the same context that man had improved the use of "earth power" through centuries of science and research (Thorndike, 1920, p. 227). He called into question the premise of a single intelligence framework and proposed the notion of three intelligences he classified as mechanical intelligence, social intelligence, and abstract

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intelligence. He further postulated that a high level of intelligence in one area had no relation or indication of one's intelligence in another area.

E. L. Thorndike first introduced the concept of social intelligence in 1920 when he presented this idea of multiple intelligence theory and began to examine a branch of intelligence he categorized as the "ability to understand and manage people" (Thorndike & Stein, 1937, p. 275). R. L. Thorndike and Stein's discussion of social intelligence explored the construct in three segments including (a) examination of the term social, (b) the analysis of one's personality traits and preferences, and (c) the awareness of information related to cultural norms and practices. This seminal work became the foundation for future emotional intelligence theory and research.

According to Thorndike (1920), mechanical intelligence typified someone who was skilled with using or handling objects such as custodians or machine operators. Individuals with a high degree of social intelligence are able to manage people and relationships effectively. Lastly, Thorndike intimated that people with high abstract intelligence were skilled at concepts, theory, and words. Although he did not totally negate the possibility for someone to have superior intelligence in all three categories, he deliberated the unlikeliness of the occurrence.

Gilliland and Burke (1926) conducted research based upon their interpretation of E. L. Thordike's work; however, what they coined as sociability was paradoxical to Thorndike's original social intelligence framework. Gilliland and Burke's presentation of sociability underscored what is today considered extraversion (Tidwell & Sias, 2005), and whether, in their context, a participant was a "good mixer" (p. 315) rather than exploring if the participants were able to apply specific social skills to manage or

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improve situations. Additionally, one could question the construct validity of Gilliland and Burke's study. The researchers sought to examine social intelligence associated with Thorndkike's (1920) classification of the concept, but their study's focus on facial recognition and frequency of social interactions falls short of measuring Thorndike's social intelligence theory as a means to discern and process interactions.

Understanding and examining social intelligence has long been abstruse as researchers contend both over how it is defined and over how it can be measured (Allahyari, 2015; Campbell & McCord, 1996; Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Ford & Tisak, 1983; Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000; Landy, 2005; O'Sullivan & Guilford, 1996; Taylor & Cadet, 1989). Some scholars still contest if social intelligence can be delineated from cognitive intelligence as a distinct and separate construct or if social intelligence is merely a subset of traditional intelligence (Campbell & McCord, 1996; Landy, 2005; Taylor & Cadet, 1989). Taylor and Cadet (1989) suggested that social intelligence should be explored from a neuro-psychosocial perspective "as a series of dynamic, interlocking neurosystems" (p. 424). Taylor and Cadet's neuro-psychosocial perspective highlights how the brain receives, processes, integrates, and responds to all social stimuli. Their model has 10 facets, some of which include prior social interactions, environment, motivation, and family. They postulate that social intelligence is a function of general intelligence because studies often show that individuals with impaired mental capacity also experience diminished aptitude to respond to social signals.

From Social Intelligence to Emotional Intelligence

Mayer and Geher (1996) acknowledged some of the cognitive interdependencies with the various facets of intelligence, but they also recognized the importance of

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examining social intelligence as an individual construct with its own subdivisions of emotional intelligence and motivational intelligence. They noted that motivational intelligence refers to a person's accomplishments, associations, and power while they characterized emotional intelligence as a person's ability to distinguish emotions from ideas. Salovey and Mayer (1990) also identified emotional intelligence as a factor of social intelligence, but they drew attention to the negativity that was associated with early perceptions and attitudes about it. More specifically, they indicated that social intelligence was perceived as "manipulative" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 187) and used by some self-centered individuals to control others.

While there remains a great deal of academic debate subscribing to a universal definition of the construct, the rudimentary explanation is the ability to manage emotions in self and others to resolve challenges constructively. The premise of this definition is inevitably precipitated by the ability to recognize emotion before one can manage it. Although there is extensive literature and research about EI, scholars still do not subscribe to a collective definition of the construct nor do they concur on an instrument for measuring and evaluating emotional intelligence. There continues to be dissenting positions on how to define EI, but there is consonance that intelligence alone is not a predictor of success (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Goldman, 1996; Mayor, Salovey & Caruso, 2008).

Cherniss (2010) posits that the debate over EI centers around three key issues including: (a) construct definition; (b) construct measurement, and; (c) construct significance. These areas of difference are critical to future EI research and they will continue to influence the conclusions offered to practitioners. What is more concerning

is that the leading EI instruments lack the necessary correlation to suggest that they are measuring the same construct. In fact, "…the most common measures of the two models share only 4% of the variance, it is hard to argue that they are measuring the same thing" (Cherniss, 2010, p. 113).

While EI has eclipsed many of the themes within social science studies to the extent that it is recognized as conventional business jargon, there remains dissention in the academic and practitioner domains with regard to the lack of a broadly accepted definition, the differentiation between EI as opposed to emotional competence, and the validity of EI scales (Cherniss, 2010). Notwithstanding the continuing literary debate about EI, researchers and practitioners both acknowledge that "emotional processing abilities are important for effective performance and adjustment" (Cherniss, 2010, p. present 111). The challenge for scholars is developing a commonly accepted definition for emotional intelligence that can guide and inform future research. This commonality and consistency would enable meta-analytic reviews and provide better insight into instrument validity, instrument reliability, and theoretical significance of EI investigations.

Danial Goleman (1996) commercialized the term emotional intelligence to the general population and for broader application after he began to investigate Salovey and Mayer's (1990) research. Goleman, a psychologist and writer for the New York Times, was introduced to Salovey and Mayer's work when he was covering an article for the paper. His mainstream book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ* (Goleman, 1996), made emotional intelligence a household term and a business catchphrase for training and leadership programs.

Trait Versus Ability EI

As research and interest in emotional intelligence evolved over the decades, so too did the definitions and methodologies for investigating the paradigm.   In true scientific nature, how one operationally defines something will determine the best methodology and instrumentation for examination. Thorndike's (1920) original model was an ability-based framework that operationalized a person's social ability. Ability-based models focus on how effectively a person can recognize, understand, and manage emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2008). Conversely, trait-based models examine constructs as a facet of one's innate personality derived from genetic predetermination (Mayer & Caruso, 2008; Vernon, Petrides, Bratko & Schermer, 2008; Vernon, Villani, Vickers & Harris, 2008).

Contemporary challengers to the ability-based theory argue that EI is a mixed construct that coalesces facets of both trait and ability theories, and these scholars suggest that measurement techniques should account for the integration (Shutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). The variance in theoretical viewpoints continues to raise speculation about the construct and content validity of EI scales, but there is no dispute regarding the need for leaders to engage employees on more of an emotional or social level (Cartwright & Pappas, 2008; Lindebaum & Cartwright, 2010; Momeni, 2009).

One conceptual model takes a broader approach to EI by combining emotional and social intelligence resulting in the emotional-social intelligence (ESI) model (Baron, 2006). The Bar-On model "describes a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behavior, measured by self-report" (p. 14). This operational definition incorporates cognitive, emotional, and

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behavior components as the foundation for its theoretical model. The addition of behavioral attributes would seem to offer a more comprehensive framework for emotional intelligence, but the use of a self-report instrument to measure ESI calls into question its validity and the potential for rater error. Investigating ESI as both a trait and ability construct creates more complexity for researchers and necessitates that study instrumentation tests the participants in all areas of the operational definition. Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2008) argue that this mixed approach diluted the concept and caused much of the confusion around EI that continues today.

The emotional intelligence criterion validity argument converges on the trait (personality) versus ability (intelligence) contention still under scrutiny in the academic community (Brackett & Mayer, 2003). Examining emotional intelligence as an ability means that the operational definition should be strong enough that responses to a scale cannot be manipulated or feigned in order for respondents to increase their individual EI scores (Day & Carroll, 2008). This also means that there should be statistically significant correlations with other intelligence tests (Bracket & Mayer, 2003). Because there remains such discord regarding the theoretical foundation of the construct, criterion validity continues to be somewhat elusive. The EI scale used for this study was selected based upon its strong construct and criterion validity. This will be presented in more detail in the next chapter.

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Theory of EI

Mayer, Salavey, and Caruso's (2004) EI model is one of the most empirically validated instruments because it has strong correlations with cognitive intelligence and

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results are not based on self-report measures (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2004; Van Rooy, Viswesvaran & Pluta, 2005). Weinberger (2003) purports that the MSCEIT, Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso's EI instrument, is becoming the new standard for measuring emotional intelligence from an ability perspective as the instrument measures actual performance, rather than self-reported skills on emotional problem-solving tasks. Salovey and Mayer's (1990) ability-based EI model examines "how people appraise and communicate emotion, and how they use that emotion in solving problems" (p. 189-190). More specifically, as shown in Table 1, the model has four branches which include (a) perceiving emotions, (b) using emotions to facilitate thought, (c) understanding emotions, and (d) managing emotions (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001). Mayer et al. (2001) assert that, unlike the other branches, using emotions to facilitate thought actually uses emotional perception to complement and amplify cognitive activity. This ability model represents a form of intelligence transecting between emotion and cognition to enable one to resolve problems effectively (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002). It is important to take a more detailed look at the four branches of this EI model.

Table 1

Constructs, Components and Items of the MSCEIT v2

Emotional Intelligence Construct	Component		Total Items
Area Scores			
Experiential	1.	Perceiving	Branch 1 & 2
	2.	Facilitating	
Strategic	1.	Understanding	Branch 2 & 3
	2.	Managing	
Branch Scores			
Branch 1: Perceiving Emotions	1.	Faces	4 Stimuli/20 items
	2.	Pictures	6 Stimuli/30 items
Branch 2: Facilitating Thought	1.	Sensations	5 Stimuli/15 items
	2.	Facilitation	5 Stimuli/15 items
Branch 3: Understanding Emotion	1.	Changes	20 items
	2.	Blends	12 items
Branch 4: Managing Emotions	1.	Emotion Management	5 Stimuli/20 items
	2.	Emotional Relations	3 Stimuli/9 items

Note. From "An Examination of the Relationship Between Emotional Intelligence, Leadership Style and Perceived Leadership Effectiveness" by L. A. Weinberger, 2003, *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *64*(11), p. 54. Copyright [2003] by Lisa Weinberger. Reprinted with permission.

Perceiving Emotions

The lowest branch of this EI model, perceiving emotions, denotes a person's ability to identify emotion by cognitively recognizing the inputs and outputs the brain receives (Mayer et al., 2001). Like all the EI branches in this model, perceiving emotion relates to both self and others. Mayor and Salovey's (1990) early EI conceptualization classified perceiving emotion as appraisal and expression of emotion. They cascaded that into verbal and non-verbal under self and non-verbal and empathy under others, and since this is a cerebral function, some individuals may be more perceptive in distinguishing emotions than others. This could lead one to question how much of EI is dependent on sensory capability. As a result, additional research on diminished sensory skills due to injury, illness, or age could be the basis of future research.

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Facilitating Thought

Facilitating thought is one's "ability to use emotions to redirect attention to important events, to generate emotions that facilitate decision making, to use mood swings as a means to consider multiple points of view, and harness different emotions to encourage different approaches to problem solving" (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002, p. 307). In this EI branch the brain receives emotional data and uses reasoning to process and guide the brain toward resolution (George, 2000). The ability to both perceive emotion and facilitate thought can foster greater alignment between employee passion and organizational aspirations if an HR professional is able to interconnect the emotion (passion) with the necessary processes (approaches) to deliver the organization's aspirations.

Understanding Emotions

This branch deals with blended or complex emotions, the progression of emotion, emotional transitions, and emotional relativity (Mayor, Caruso & Salovey, 1999). This is an area in which HR could potentially offer the most organizational value. The ability to understand, and perhaps predict, the emotional response employees will have in situations can help HR professionals prepare and deliver messages more effectively and respond to emotional reactions more appropriately. Workplace violence has many HR professionals seeking to understand the warning signs and emotional indications they should look for in employees. What is implied in the EI instrument and literature is that there is some level of consistency or normal distribution of emotional expression and progression that enables one to be able to understand emotions with a level of accuracy.

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What is not addressed is the ability to understand someone's emotion when a person is proficient at concealing emotion even if the suppression is only transitory.

Managing Emotions

The highest EI branch is managing emotion and it is defined as one's "ability to stay aware of one's emotions, even those that are unpleasant, the ability to determine whether an emotion is clear or typical, and the ability to solve emotion-laden problems without necessarily suppressing negative emotions" (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002, p. 307). Managing emotion requires keen self-awareness and knowledge of one's positive and negative emotional and behavioral triggers (George, 2000). Concurrently, it also signifies that one can perceive, facilitate, understand, and manage others while regulating oneself. When done effectively, this can foster problem resolution while keeping employees in a positive emotional state.

<h3 style="text-align:center">Importance of Emotional Intelligence for Leaders</h3>

Leaders are tasked with developing formidable teams that deliver greater shareholder value and key organizational results. A leader's ability to drive team productivity can be encumbered if team members are not physically, mentally, and emotionally present for work. Absenteeism is often associated with stress (Harte, Mahieu, Mallet, Norville & VanderWerf, 2011). Today's employees encounter workplace stress from internal and external forces as well as personal and professional expectations. Moreover, employees are besieged by events and situations that are frequently the catalyst for personal consternation (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002). The added pressures of global competition, technological advancements, and limited resource

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allocations create a shift in working environments. It is increasingly more important for leaders to be able to perceive when employees are feeling undue or excessive stress, and more importantly, leaders must be able to respond to employee stress by mitigating or alleviating the emotions underlining workplace stressors.

A concomitant investigation examining the relationship between EI and job stress postulates that employees with higher emotional intelligence levels are able to decrease job related stress, or at a minimum, the acuity of stress, in an effort to elevate their performance (Wu, 2011). Substantiating the importance of EI with regard to job stress, Wu's (2011) study analyzes EI as a moderating variable between job stress and job performance. An incongruous inquiry by Bono, Folds, Vinson, and Muros (2007) contends that employees who suppress their emotions in order to acclimate to an organization's culture, role expectations, or a leadership style experience greater and more sustained job stress. The inconsistency in research findings reinforces the urgency for more empirical data about EI and potential associations with leadership. This dichotomy could be a result of methodological design flaws since some studies show a significant correlation between EI and transformational leadership only when the data is collected using self-report tools (Harms & Credé, 2010).

Regardless of whether EI data is gathered via self-report methods or multi-rater methods, it seems outlandish that some leaders are instinctively capable of ascertaining emotional tendencies while other leaders seem to be denuded of any discerning aptitude about emotional expression in themselves or others (Mayer, Di Paolo & Salovey, 1990). Cherniss (2010) postulates that the capacity to regulate employee emotion is an indispensable skill for leaders; moreover, further study of this topic can inform the

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leadership literature regarding the requisite knowledge, skills, and abilities a leader must possess to be effective. These deep-seeded elements help to create a comprehensive and multi-layered view of the EI construct.

A multi-layered view can help expose the issues and concerns that leaders having low levels of emotional intelligence often face. Add geographic distance and ethnic diversity to a leader's EI skill limitations and the challenges may seem insurmountable. Distance and diversity can be sources of contention and hostility if a leader is not equipped to manage a diverse team of professionals. An important role for a leader is to resolve the interpersonal challenges and emotional events that unfold in the work setting with finesse and composure (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998). When an employee responds negatively to stress or displays emotional outbursts, leaders should recognize that the source of the stress is derived from the employee's emotional welfare and the employee's predisposition to stressful events (Goleman, 1996; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

A leader's understanding and sensitivity to a team's diverse skills, experiences, and motivations can help foster team cohesion, but what happens when leaders are drastically incompetent at managing diversity and resolving their personal emotions? What if the notion of managing an altercation among employees conjures up fear and panic for a leader? These concerns and challenges provide a compelling story as to the importance and relevance of emotional intelligence for leaders.

Organizational Application of Emotional Intelligence

Momeni (2009) postulates that a leader's emotional intelligence significantly impacts an organization's culture and an employee's attitude about, opinion of, and

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engagement in an organization. Momeni (2009) asserts that "more than 70% of employees' perceptions of OC [organizational climate] are directly formed by managers' style of leadership and behavior, particularly how managers work to improve employees' performance and reward them" (p. 38). This purports that the emotional intelligence of leaders not only impacts the individual performance of team members, but it also impacts the overall culture, capability, and performance of an organization. The individual and aggregate results of leadership influence can create a profound competitive advantage when the organization's leaders subscribe to develop their EI proficiency, or the individual and aggregate results can deliver a devastating blow if even one leader behaves bereft of any EI aptitude.

There have been numerous studies that have examined the contextual application of emotional intelligence within organizations (Jorfi, Yaccob & Shah, 2011; Ravichandran, Arasu & Kumar, 2011; Samad, 2009), and additional leadership research could "gain from efforts to identify an effective EI index for a wide range of developmental applications in the workplace. For example, EI indexes have been used for training and development programming, organizational development initiatives, and career development planning" (McEnrue & Groves, 2006, p. 9-10). As employees look to advance their careers and move into leadership positions, EI training can help employees develop their overall people management skills and their ability to engage others. Organizations, that prepare succession planning strategies and plans, would likely benefit from including EI content in their development programs and employee offerings (Chopra & Kanji, 2010).

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Leadership: Historical Perspectives and Summary of Theories

Leadership is a construct that has gained popularity over the last century. Early commentary deliberated whether leaders were born with inherent characteristics or whether a desired leadership style could be broadly trained and developed (Holt & Marques, 2012). Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011) posit that the study of leadership theories began during the nineteenth century when scholars explored the intrinsic disparities between leaders and followers. Early examination of the topic progressed between trait theories versus ability theories as paradigms shifted in response to societal events (Derue et al., 2011). Contemporary behavioral-based leadership scholars argue that leadership theory is devoid of merit without an understanding of a leader's followers and the inclusive context of the leadership application (Avolio, 2007). Regardless of one's school of thought or theoretical perspective, organizations need leaders, and leaders need to know the most effective ways both to engage followers and to deliver greater organizational results.

Leadership theory has had many influences and perspectives through the years, but each model has had a viewpoint based upon a perception of, an experience with, or an expectation for leaders (Van Wart, 2013). Early leadership theories included the great man theories that hypothesized that leaders were born with intrinsic traits that made them effective and desirable leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Horner, 1997). Great man theories developed, in part, out of monarchies in which kings ruled and thrones were passed as a birth right (Stogdill, 1975). These theories eventually evolved into trait theories that examined "general characteristics, including capacities, motives, or patterns of behavior" (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991, p. 48). Research in the early to mid-1900's

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focused on identifying specific traits for leadership success, but the research yielded no definitive leadership virtues (Yukl, 1989).

Scholars later turned their focus to behavioral-based or contingency leadership theories and examined leadership within the framework of organizations. One such theory includes McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y. McGregor proposed two dichotomous theories in which the first, Theory X, posited that people are innately lazy, egocentric, and need to be led (Kopelman, Prottas & Davis, 2008; McGregor, 1966; Stone & Patterson, 2005). Conversely, Theory Y suggests that people desire to do a good job and can be self-sufficient if motivated and given general direction (Kopelman, Prottas & Davis, 2008). The Path-Goal theory moved leadership research toward a broader focus on the outcome of leadership behavior (Horner, 1997; House & Mitchell, 1975). This theory focused on employee satisfaction with a leader's ability to provide direction and motivate the employee to generate a particular result. In this model, leaders are more focused on helping followers realize their goals, develop their skills, and boost their motivation through increasing levels of autonomy (Horner, 1997).

Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory remains widely accepted in practice but not as widely putative in scholarly domains due to its lack of empirical support (Vecchio, 1987). The premise of the model is elucidated in its name. Irgens (1995) highlights that the theory does not recommend any particular leadership style, but suggests that leadership is entirely dependent upon the follower's assignment and maturescence. The leader's behavior moves along a continuum between a telling style and a supporting style as the follower matures and develops. Practitioners appreciate the

flexibility of the model, but there is limited research that expounds on the model's validity and reliability (Vecchio, 1987).

Transactional leadership theory highlights the exchange of reward or retribution for objective accomplishment or inadequacy (Bryant, 2003). Burns (1978) proposed both transactional and transformational leadership theories in response to his examination of politicians and their interactions with the others (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Although transactional and transformational models may seem contradictory at first, Bass (1999) regarded "transformational/transactional leadership paradigm as being comprised of complementary rather than polar constructs" (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996, p. 386). These models underline the leadership framework from the purpose of a task to the process of engaging followers to accomplish the task successfully.

Developing leaders requires an understanding or knowledge of the various leadership styles and how they typically operate. Mehmood and Arif (2011) refer to three major leadership styles as transactional, laissez-faire, and transformational. As Mehmood and Arif suggest, transformational leaders have higher levels of EI because they are able to impact the self-awareness of those around them, and Goleman (1996) posits, a primary element of EI is awareness of self and others. It would seem logical and almost universal that personal awareness of emotional responses and awareness of emotions in others would lead one to be an effective leader, but that is not necessarily the case. Transformational leaders are able to move from emotional discernment to emotional empowerment (Hoffman et al., 2011), and followers should then able to act or deliver results based on the transformation from awareness to empowerment.

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Foundations of Transformational Leadership

The 60's and 70's ushered in a new error of civic engagement and social

consciousness that served to spotlight a different model of leadership (Bass, 1999). Bass

noted that "the transformational leader emphasizes what you can do for your country; the

transactional leader, on what your country can do for you" (p. 9). The United States was

in the midst of the Civil Rights movement and the ideals of both equality and inclusion

were paramount for many. Scholars studied the culture and how it was quickly evolving.

What they realized was that transformational leaders imagine a future far different than

what people had experienced in the past and these leaders embolden their followers to

join them in their unparalleled quest for an audaciously new reality. Above all,

transformational leaders inspire and motive others towards a desired end state (Bass,

1999; Fitzgerald & Schutte, 2010; Singh, 2013; Wang & Huang, 2009). For

transformational leaders, the journey is just as significant as the end result and this is

embodied in Kouzes and Posner's (1990) theoretical model. Burns (1978), the father of

transformational leadership, postulated that real power is drawn from an unfeigned and

mutually-vested relationship that both challenges and influences. This is what he

described as transformational leadership.

Kouzes and Posner: Transformational Leadership

The progression of the leadership debate into extant deliberations led to Kouzes

and Posner's (1990) more decisive depiction of leadership with a focus on the

transformational leadership style. The academic pair asserted that leadership is

transformative because it is an interdependent and spasmodic development process;

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transformational leadership is as much about the development of the follower as it is the evolution of the leader (Kouzes & Posner, 1990; Avolio, 2007). The two propose that leadership is transformative because it is an interactive and iterative process with a focus on tangible results though intangible yet collaborative practices. Their theory focused more on the behaviors that leaders exhibit than on the characteristics they possess. Kouzes and Posner's (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) research resulted in the development of a widely accepted instrument for measuring a person's transformational leadership capability called the Leadership Practice Inventory.

Modeling the Way

There is an old proverb that says if you give a man a fish you feed him for a day; teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime. Modeling the way is about showing followers how to move toward a vision. It is about setting an example and planning small wins (Posner & Kouzes, 1990). Leaders who model the way demonstrate consistency in their behavior (Higgs, 2003) and they deliberately use short, regular, and measured strides to progress toward goals (Mancheno-Smoak, Endres, Polak & Athansaw, 2009). Leaders not only accomplish intermittent victories, but they also teach their followers through their example.

Inspiring a Shared Vision

Leaders who inspire a shared vision are able to engage others in their aspiration. These leaders envision the future and enlist support (Posner & Kouzes, 1990) in a way that creates harmony and establishes focus for the group. Conger and Kanungo (1987) posit that "the greater the discrepancy of the goal from the status quo, the more likely followers will attribute extraordinary vision to the leader" (p. 640). A leader's ability to

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inspire others emanates out of passion for what can be seen as the new reality and future state.

Challenging the Process

Posner & Kouzes (1990) postulate that leaders challenge the status quo by searching for new opportunities and by taking risks. Searching for opportunities involves asking questions about the organization, systems, processes, and every aspect of what is done and how things are done. Higgs (2003) labels this as a leader's openness and tenacity to ask why questions and to explore alternative paths of discovery. Challenging the process also refers to self-reflection as leaders challenge their behavior and systematically recalibrate their behavior against their vision.

Enabling Others to Act

Followers look to leaders for the vision and for a blueprint for success, but followers want to be active participants in bringing the transformation to fruition. A leader enables others to act by fostering collaboration and by strengthening others (Posner & Kouzes, 1990). A leader must intrinsically help followers unify so they can perform to their full competence and capability (Higgs, 2003). This also means that a leader must provide followers with the requisite training, development, and coaching needed for them to act upon the leader's expectations (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001). Enabling is then twofold in nature in that there is a shift in power to allow action as well as preparation phase to enable action (Chiok Foong Loke, 2001).

Encouraging the Heart

Leadership effectiveness is about relationship building and understanding people at the individual level (Burns, 1978; Higgs, 2003; Mancheno-Smoak et al., 2009). By

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establishing individual relationships, leaders can identify each person's needs, aspirations, and personality tendencies. The transformational leader encourages the heart of followers by giving individual recognition for contributions and by collectively celebrating the team's accomplishments (Higgs, 2003; Posner & Kouzes, 1990). Expressing appreciation reinforces a follower's commitment to the transformation purpose and fortifies loyalty to the transformational leader (Kouzes & Posner, 1999). A leader's ability to encourage the heart by understanding emotions and managing emotions toward a shared vision is the intersection between transformational leadership and emotional intelligence that, if employed correctly, could elevate performance for HR professionals (Alston, Dastoor & Sosa-Fey, 2010).

Human Resource Management

Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) postulate that EI is an important topic for human resources, and that a number of empirical studies on the topic have been conducted to understand the role of EI for human resources. Mishra and Mohapatra (2009) note that "people work not only for money, but also for the social and emotional benefits that working with others provide (p. 86). Since HR is the gatekeeper managing organizational entrances and departures, it is important for this group to understand the implications that EI may have for their function. Human resource professionals are often held responsible for creating the environment that makes it conducive for employees to collaborate, align perspectives, and create a competitive advantage (Stark & Jeffries, 2011). The gap between creating the desired environment and realizing the positive effect may rest with HR's emotional intelligence.

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The essence of human resource management is that as an organization shifts, adjusts, or modifies its corporate strategy that necessitates an adaption of the HR strategy for continued alignment and to drive maximum organizational performance (Delery & Doty, 1996; Huselid, Jackson & Schuler, 1997; Schuler & Walker, 1990; Wright & McMahan, 1992). Schuler and Walker (1990) posited that "HR strategy is a set of processes and activities jointly shared by human resources and line managers to solve people-related business issues" (p. 7). Baird and Meshoulam (1988) reference what some scholars categorize as an HR stage model in which HR practices and processes mature concomitantly with the organization's market strategy. The state progression includes (1) initiation, (2) functional growth, (3) controlled growth, (4) functional integration, and (5) strategic integration. Organizations experience this continuum as they grow in size, expand in market, and mature in operations (Baird & Meshoulam, 1988).

Human resource management theory emerged out of organizational and systems theories (Huselid, Jackson & Schuler, 1997). The human resource function was conventionally viewed as a means to control labor costs, but this view has veered over the last decades to position HR more strategically as a means to create financial and shareholder value (Becker & Gerhart, 1996). This expansion has led scholars to explore HR as the real source of an organization's competitive advantage within the resource-based theory of management (Barney & Wright, 1998; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Lado & Wilson, 1994). The evolution of HR was significant for both the function and the professional.

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Evolution of the HR Practitioner

The HR profession has evolved overtime from an administrative function focused on recording employee time to a strategic vocation focused on creating value through others. In part, "the increasing emphasis on strategic contribution was accompanied by a growing interest in linking HR activities to competitive performance" (Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade & Drake, 2009, p. 70). Additionally, organizations began to concentrate on creating dynamic and engaging work environments as a means to attract the best and brightest talent to drive better firm performance. Human resource departments were traditionally process-centered and segmented by functional discipline such as compensation and training (Wright & McMahan, 1992; Rogers & Wright, 1998; Wright & Snell, 1991). While this discipline specific or specialist approach still exists today, the HR competitive advantage for organizations comes from having high-level HR generalists who are able to scan and maneuver the entire organization with a comprehensive HR context (Wright & Snell, 1991) to deliver added value through people initiatives.

The HR practitioner role has metamorphosed from as administrator in the early part of the twentieth century, to disciplinarian during the industrial revolution and as labor laws increased, to business partner, and lastly, to player or strategic leader. Ferris, Hochwarter, Buckley, Harrell-Cook, and Frink (1999) noted that the first legitimate HR function was identified in 1920 which would make this field of business nearly a century old. Kaufman (2002) asserts that HR stemmed from industrial relations in the early 1910's and 1920's and later became a separate and defined practice area with increased specialization. Regardless of when HR officially formalized as an organizational

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function and as an individual profession, HR has changed and has been reinvented over the years. As the HR role evolved, so too did the requisite skills for success and optimal performance. Ulrich and Beatty (2001) note that HR players facilitate change, cultivate leadership, and coach for improvement. Emotional intelligence underscores the obligatory skills and capabilities HR professionals should exercise as they progress throughout their careers.

Role of the HR Leader

The role of the human resource leader (HRL) continues to evolve and transform into a strategic business partner for organizations and into a key driver of firm performance. For HRLs to be effective in this elevated role, their colleagues must view them as credible leaders with proven capability to deliver results and provide sound guidance. HRLs must decipher who holds power, how things get communicated, and who needs to be involved in decisions. In some regards, the HRL must be an avid politician balancing the needs of the collective organization with the individual needs of personnel in order to gain and preserve their own credibility. Fimbel (1994) posits that "politics is the actions related to power and that power is the potential of one person to change the attitudes or behavior of another person in a desired manner" (Fimbel, 1994, p. 8). HRLs can only change attitudes if and when they are able to distinguish and manage the emotions and moods of those in the organizations they lead. This underpins the importance of EI for human resources.

There are several things HRLs must consider in their attempt to build credibility with their strategic partners. Fimbel (1994) postulates that credibility derives from one's competence or ability to get things done. Credibility is about consistency in action in

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which "a reputation for competence is earned, in part, by solving routine problems efficiently. It also depends on having technical knowledge and correctly assessing how and when to use it" (Fimbel, 1994, p. 13). Competence reflects both the tangible results of what one does and the intangible manner in which the results are achieved.

Summary

People respond to conversations, interactions, events, and episodes through emotional expression. Conversely, emotions not only dictate human response to stimuli, but emotions often precipitate the initial behavior and rationale for why people do what it is they do (Goleman, 1996). It seems anomalous that while some people have an innate ability to discern emotional dispositions, other people appear to be devoid of any intuitive perception about emotional expression in themselves or others (Mayer, Di Paolo & Salovey, 1990). While human resource professionals attempt to lead organizations through these changes and bridge the gap between organizational transition and employees' emotional response to the changes, the role of the human resource (HR) leader becomes increasingly more important (Turnbull, 2002).

Goleman (1996) points out that environmental stimulus can cause emotions to surface immediately and irrepressibly with an unintended physiological reaction. Because human resource professionals are often looked to as leaders in a workplace crisis situation, HR people could be faced with emotional situations that require the ability to manage emotions effectively. Cherniss (2010) suggests that emotional intelligence is a critical and necessary expertise for the HR professional and leader. This study suggests that HR professionals are apt at managing other people's emotions, but more focus

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should be placed on understanding and managing the internal challenges HR people

experience when they are tasked with managing emotion while leading others through

change.

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CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate if there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for strategic human resource professionals. This chapter provides a comprehensive explanation and justification of the quantitative, non-experimental survey design. Chapter 3 also draws attention to the research design, sample and sample frame, study instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations for the study.

Research Design

The study design and methodological approach serves to answer the research questions. The design seeks to identify which sub-factor or dimension of EI has the strongest relationship with transformational leadership. The study design includes a single, cross-section group of human resource professionals from small, medium, and large public and private organizations in an effort to strengthen the ability to generalize the research findings beyond the limitations noted by Alston et al. (2010).

Participants completed the MSCEIT (Mayer et al., 2011) to measure EI and the LPI (Kouzes & Posner, 1987) to measure transformational leadership. A similar study conducted by Alston et al. (2010) investigated the relationship between EI and TL using a survey design; however, the researchers noted a limitation in using a sample group solely

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from one organization. This study sought to address that limitation by examining a broader group of HR professionals in order to answer the research questions.

Research Questions

> Q1. What is the relationship between human resource professional's emotional intelligence (aggregate EI score) and transformational leadership (aggregate TL score)?
>
> Q2. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence-perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?
>
> Q3. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?
>
> Q4. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?
>
> Q5. What is the relationship between emotional intelligence- managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

<div align="center">

Study Sample

</div>

Population

The larger population for this study is comprised of all members of the national professional association of the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM). The Society for Human Resource Management has over 285,000 members worldwide (SHRM, 2016). "The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) is the world's largest HR professional society, representing 285,000 members in more than 165 countries" (SHRM, 2016).

Sample Frame

The sample frame consisted of SHRM professionals who are members in a large Delaware Valley HR association in the geographic area of Philadelphia, Delaware, and New Jersey. The two inclusion criteria were those who are currently, or who have worked in human resources for a minimum of four years; and, those who are professional members as opposed to student members of a local Delaware Valley HR association. The four-year minimum professional experience was based on certification eligibility requirements (SHRM, 2014) for the Professional in Human Resources (PHR) designation. This criterion assured that participants have a minimum level of experience in the field as suggested by Lyons, Mueller, Gruys, and Meyers (2012) in support of this approach.

Instrumentation/Measures

Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT)

The MSCEIT is an ability-based assessment that tests a person's competence with emotional data. Respondents are provided with a total overall EI score as well core area scores for experiential emotional intelligence and strategic emotional intelligence. The experiential score assesses one's ability to perceive and facilitate emotions while the strategic score assesses one's ability to understand and manage emotions.

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is based on an EI ability model (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). The MSCEIT questionnaire is analogous to other cognitive intelligence instruments in that the final score is a cumulative number that is used to determine descriptive measures such as the mean, mode, and standard

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deviation. The questionnaire has a total of 141 questions with four dimensions. Previous testing revealed that scoring and data trends had demographic relevance based on gender, age, and ethnicity (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, 2002). This supports exploring, or at a minimum identifying, demographic variations in emotional intelligence. The MSCEIT investigates "Perceiving Emotions, Facilitating Thought, Understanding Emotions, and Managing Emotions" as facets of the EI construct (Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test, 2002).

Portions of the EI assessment rate a participant's ability to recognize facial expressions using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1= *no happiness* to 5 = *extreme happiness*. Another portion of the assessment asks participants to identify useful moods and emotions using a 5-point Likert-scale ranging from 1 = *not useful* to 5 = *useful*. This instrument provides an overall measure of emotional intelligence, a subset measure for experiential and strategic EI, as well as individual measures for perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions.

According to the MSCEIT administrators, "scores are reported like traditional intelligence scales so that the average score is 100 and the standard deviation is 15" (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2001, p. 3). Each of the four core ability areas are divided into two branches. Each branch has a series of task related questions. The eight-section survey ranges from section A to section H, and the survey utilizes task groupings to operationally measure the associated branches. Table 1 illustrates the branch scores that align to the research focus areas of Perceiving Emotions, Facilitating Thought, Understanding Emotions and Managing Emotions. The branches are defined based upon "social context of communication and interaction" (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, &

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Sitarenios, 2003, p. 98). The components illustrated in Table 1 identify the criteria for measurement including faces, pictures, and sensations.

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is an instrument that measures a leader's capability in five dimensions of leadership which include: challenging the heart, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). According to Mancheno-Smoak et al. (2009), the LPI is measured at the interval level. It is based on a representative model of transformational leadership. The assessment is comprised of 30 Likert-designed questions with six questions for each of the five sub-dimensions. The tool is available as an individual self-assessment as well as a multi-rater assessment with observer versions. The proposed investigation focuses on the self-assessment version of the LPI. Overall scores were generated by adding response across items by case. The overall score will then be divided by 30 to get an average LPI score.

While Likert scales are considered ordinal, "researchers treat intensity scales as interval/ratio measures when the amount of agreement or disagreement is assumed to vary in equal intervals along the points of the measure" (Nardi, 2003, p. 46). Norman (2010) also posits that Likert scales can be interval for totals amongst measures. Bertram (2007) noted that Likert scales can be used as an interval measure when all items are summed as a single unit.

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Data Collection

Participants for the study were recruited through a local HR association. An association event and management partner maintains the membership database for the professional association. The association management partner receives local membership contact information through the national professional organization based upon those who have designated a local affiliate chapter. The association management partner was provided with the selection criteria in order to identify potential participants from the database.

The association partner, on behalf of the researcher, sent an email communication to potential participants with information regarding the purpose of the study, the research questions, participant expectations, data disclosure and confidentiality procedures, and a request for members to participate in the study. When a participant clicked the button agreeing to participate in the study, they were directed to the online questionnaires. According to Combs (2010), "with relatively small samples, researchers must pay close attention to construct validity. Failure to do so reduces effect sizes, the probability of finding significant results and, consequently, the probability of publication. With large samples, however, increased statistical power means that even poorly measured constructs often will find significance" (p. 10). Combs's (2010) perspective drives the importance of statistical power for social science research, particularly the study of emotional intelligence since researchers still hotly contest a uniformed setting.

The researcher (R) structured the study procedures so that participants were guided through the completion of both the MSCEIT assessment and the LPI assessment with the use of a single communication with the study invitation. This step required

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researcher coordination between two separate testing vendors to ensure process efficiency and seamlessness for participants. The link in the email message directed participants to complete the MSCEIT. Once participants completed the MSCEIT, they automatically received a link to complete the LPI without the need for them to do any administrative activity. The invitation email provided participants with all relevant study information including the purpose of the study, the instructions for participating, the request for participant permission, the email address for participant questions, the timeline for participating in the study, and the hyperlink to complete the study assessment tools.

Data Analysis

Careful consideration was taken in the data collection and analysis phases in order to ensure the validity and reliability of the results. Pearson's r was used for H_1 through H_5 to determine if there was a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals. Additional analysis included a Scatterplot graph for visual representation of the strength of the relationship. Since Pearson's r does not account for variable dependence or independence, this study simply investigated the existence of a relationship without designation of the type of variable.

The assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity, were evaluated using the standard practices outlined by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Some data transformation was needed in order to prepare variables for analysis. Missing data was managed by removing results for assessments in which a participant did not complete both instruments. In situations when the data did not meet parametric assumptions,

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Pearson's was used to test the correlation between each specified variable in the theoretical model. SPSS 22.0 was used to code, sort, and analyze the data as well as chart the Scatterplot graphs. A .95 confidence interval was used to determine significance of the test. The data analysis served to test the study hypothesis statements.

H1– There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H1$_0$ – There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H2 – There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H2$_0$ – There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H3 – There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H3$_0$ – There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H4 – There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H4$_0$ – There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals

H5 – There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

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H5₀ – There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- managing

emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

Validity and Reliability

Both reliability and validity data are presented based on internal consistency,

predictive validity, and content validity. A parametric technique was used to study the

MSCEIT data since the variables scaled at the interval level. Reliability for the MSCEIT

was evaluated based on the split-half approach (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2014)

that internal consistency of the questions with respect to homogeneity. Factor analysis

correlations (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2014) have been conducted to ensure

instrument validity by examining whether the various questions represent the four major

EI dimensions.

Threats to validity can emerge with regard to collecting data, analyzing data, and

interpreting data. Creswell and Plano Clark (2010) provide a number of strategies for

mitigating the risks or threats involved in empirical research. One threat to validity deals

with inappropriate sample sizes; Creswell and Plano Clark suggest using a large sample

for the quantitative studies. The anticipated sample size for this study was approximately

85 respondents with an effect size of .15, a confidence level of .95, and power of .80.

This sample size was determined using G*-Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang & Buchner,

2007). The actual sample size was 80.

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Ethical Considerations

As with all research focused on human subjects, ethical considerations must be assessed to protect participants from potential harm. The implication of these considerations included securing an informed consent authorization from each participant, ensuring data confidentiality, protecting participant privacy, and maintaining participants' anonymity (National Institute of Health, 2008).

Anonymity was imperative because a researcher should not jeopardize the investigation with his or her own individual bias. Anonymity mitigated the risk of impacting the design and results of the study. Confidentiality procedures supported participant identity disclosure. Personal biases could have been more unavoidable with participants who had a relationship or previous knowledge of the researcher and vice versa. Anonymity was protected according to SHRM's association guidelines and the research approval process.

Similar to anonymity, privacy concerns were extremely problematic given that the researcher had access to not only the questionnaire results, but also other participant demographic data. The researcher ensured that the data coding process promoted anonymity in a sufficient manner. This was done by assigning participants an alpha-numeric code to use for completing the assessments. The research also considered voluntary consent as a potential issue or concern. Participants were not coerced nor threatened in any manner to participate in the study, nor was study bias created by overly compensating individuals to participate (National Institute of Health, 2008).

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CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This chapter presents and explicates the statistical analyses conducted to examine the research study questions. Chapter 4 begins with restating the research questions and displaying the inferential statistics computed for the correlational analyses including a description of the sample and the participant demographics. The analyses and data are presented in two dimensions with the first dimension focusing on the first research question using aggregate data both for EI and TL. The second dimension provides more insight by examining the remaining research questions through regression analysis. The second dimension of the analysis has been included to provide more context and rigor for the investigation into the relationship between EI subscales and transformational leadership.

Background

Inferential statistics were used to draw conclusions from the sample tested. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to code and tabulate scores collected from the survey and to provide summarized values where applicable including the mean and standard deviation. Correlation and multiple regression analyses were used to evaluate the five research questions. The research questions were:

Q1: What is the relationship between human resource professional's emotional intelligence (aggregate EI score) and transformational leadership (aggregate TL score)?

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Q2: What is the relationship between emotional intelligence-perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q3: What is the relationship between emotional intelligence - facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q4: What is the relationship between emotional intelligence - understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Q5: What is the relationship between emotional intelligence - managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals?

Prior to analyzing the five research questions, data cleaning and data screening were undertaken to ensure the variables of interest met appropriate statistical assumptions. Thus, the following analyses were assessed using an analytic strategy in which the variables were first evaluated for missing data, univariate outliers, normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity. Subsequently, correlation and multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine if there were any significant relationships between variables of interest. Displayed in Table 2 is a summary of the variables and analyses used to evaluate the five research questions.

Table 2

Variables and Statistical Tests Used to Evaluate Research Questions 1-5

Research Question	Criterion Variable	Predictor Variable	Statistical Test
RQ1	Transformational Leadership	Overall Emotional Intelligence	Correlation
RQ2-4	Transformational Leadership	Overall Emotional Subscales	Multiple Regression

Note. Emotional intelligence subscales = perceiving emotions, facilitating emotions, understanding emotions, and managing emotions

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Sample Description

Data were collected from 89 Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) professionals who are members in affiliate chapters of the HR association in the geographic areas of Philadelphia, Delaware, and New Jersey. However, nine participants who completed the MSCEIT did not complete the LPI and were removed from all analyses. Thus, a valid sample of 80 participants whose age ranged between 23 and 66 years old $M = 42.000$, $SD = 11.7882$ were used in the analyses for research questions 1-5 ($N = 80$). Specifically, 40% of the participants were male ($n = 32$) and the remaining 60% were female ($n = 48$). Furthermore, the majority of participants were White (77.5%, $n = 62$), 12.5% were Black/Afro-American ($n = 10$), 6.3% were Hispanic ($n = 5$), and three participants did not provide their ethnicity. Displayed in Table 3 are frequency and percent statistics of participants' gender and ethnicity.

Table 3

Frequency and Percent Statistics of Participants' Gender and Ethnicity

Demographic	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	32	40.0
Female	48	60.0
Total	80	100.0
Ethnicity		
Black / Afro American	10	12.5
Hispanic	5	6.3
White	62	77.5
Missing	3	3.8
Total	80	100.0

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Hypothesis Testing

Analysis of Research Question 1

Research question 1 (RQ1) was evaluated using zero-order correlation analysis to determine if a relationship existed between human resource professionals' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The criterion variable for RQ1 was participants' transformational leadership scores as measured by the 30-item Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). Response parameters were measured on a 10-point Likert-type scale where 1 = *almost never* and 10 = *almost always*. Composite scores were calculated by averaging case scores across the 30-items resulting in a possible range of scores between '1' and '10' where higher scores indicated greater levels of leadership. The composite scores were used as the criterion variable for RQ1.

The predictor variable for RQ1 was participants' overall emotional intelligence (EI) scores as measured by the 141-item Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Response parameters were measured by two similar 5-point Likert-type scales where (a) 1 = *no happiness* and 5 = *extreme happiness,* and (b) 1 = *not useful* and 5 = *useful*. Overall composite scores were calculated by averaging case scores across all 141 MSCEIT items resulting in a possible range of scores between '1' and '5' where higher scores indicated greater levels of emotional intelligence. The composite scores were used to evaluate the correlation analysis conducted for research question 1.

Data Cleaning

Data were collected from a sample of 89 SHRM professionals. Before the research questions were evaluated, the data were screened for missing data, univariate outliers, and multivariate outliers. Missing data were investigated using frequency counts

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and nine cases did not provide responses to the LPI survey. Therefore, the

aforementioned nine cases were removed from the analyses of research questions 1-5.

Additionally, five cases skipped (did not respond to) between one and three questions on

the 141-item Emotional Intelligence (EI) survey. Therefore, to retain as many

participants as possible, the missing scores were replaced with the survey item's series

mean score and the aforementioned five participants' scores were included in the

analyses.

The data were screened for univariate outliers by transforming raw scores to z-

scores and comparing z-scores to a critical value of +/- 3.29, $p < .001$ (Tabachnick &

Fidell, 2007). Z-scores that exceed this critical value are more than three standard

deviations away from the mean and thus represent outliers. The distributions were

evaluated and four cases with univariate outliers were found and were removed from the

analyses. Thus, 89 responses from participants were received and 76 were evaluated by

the correlation analysis for research question 1 ($N = 76$). Descriptive statistics of the

criterion and predictor variables are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Overall Emotional Intelligence	1.575	3.171	1.991	0.354	1.769	2.746
Transformational Leadership	4.067	9.833	7.584	1.158	-0.384	0.025

Note. Total $N = 76$

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Reliability Analysis

        Reliability analyses were run to determine if the criterion (transformational leadership) and predictor variables (EI overall) were sufficiently reliable. Reliability analysis allows one to study the properties of measurement scales and the items that compose the scales (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cronbach's alpha (α) reliability analysis procedure calculates a reliability coefficient that ranges between 0 and 1. The reliability coefficient is based on the average inter-item correlation. Scale reliability is assumed if the coefficient is $\alpha \geq .70$. Results from the tests found that the variable constructs were sufficiently reliable ($\alpha > .70$). Thus, the assumption of reliability was not violated. Displayed in Table 5 are summary statistics of the reliability analyses conducted on the criterion and predictor variables.

Table 5

Summary of Reliability Analyses Conducted on the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	# of Items	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Overall Emotional Intelligence	141	0.953
Transformational Leadership	30	0.939

Note. Total $N = 76$

Test of Normality

        Before the research questions were analyzed, basic parametric assumptions were assessed. That is, for the criterion (transformational leadership) and predictor variables (EI overall), assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity, were tested. Linearity and homoscedasticity were evaluated using scatterplots and no violations were observed. To test if the distributions were normally distributed, the skew and kurtosis coefficients were divided by the skew/kurtosis standard errors, resulting in z-skew/z-

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kurtosis coefficients. This technique was recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007). Specifically, z-skew/z-kurtosis coefficients exceeding the critical range between -3.29 and +3.29 ($p < .001$) may indicate non-normality. Thus, based on the evaluation of the z-skew/z-kurtosis coefficients, the predictor variable was found to be significantly skewed (*z-skew* = 6.409) and significantly kurtotic (*z-kurtosis* = 5.039). Consequently, in an attempt to normalize the distribution, the predictor variable was transformed using a square root transformation. However, the transformed distribution was still found to be significantly skewed and kurtotic (see Table B2 in Appendix B). Therefore, the transformed scores were not used in the correlation analysis and nonparametric Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho correlation analyses were used to evaluate research question 1. Finally, the criterion variable (transformational leadership) was found to be normally distributed and the assumption of normality was not violated. Displayed in Table 6 are skewness and kurtosis statistics of the criterion and predictor variables.

Table 6

Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics of the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	Skewness	Skew Std. Error	*z*-skew	Kurtosis	Kurtosis Std. Error	*z*-kurtosis
Overall Emotional Intelligence	1.769	0.276	6.409*	2.746	0.545	5.039*
Transformational Leadership	-0.384	0.276	-1.391	0.025	0.545	0.046

Note. *Distribution is significantly skewed and kurtotic, z-skew/z-kurtosis > 3.29. *N* = 76

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Results of Hypothesis 1

$H1_0$: There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

$H1_A$: There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

Using SPSS 23.0, hypothesis 1 was evaluated using Spearman's rho and Kendall's tau correlation analyses to determine if a significant relationship existed between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for human resource professionals. Results indicated that a significant relationship did not exist between participants' overall emotional intelligence and transformational leadership scores, *Kendall's tau* = -0.107, *p* = .175 and *Spearman's rho* = -0.159, *p* = .169, *N* = 76. Thus, the null hypothesis for research question 1 was retained. Displayed in Table 7 is a summary of the nonparametric correlation analyses conducted for hypothesis 1.

Table 7

Model Summary of the Nonparametric Analyses Conducted for Hypothesis 1

Nonparametric Test	*N*	Correlation coefficient	Sig. (*p*)
Kendall's tau	76	-0.107	0.175
Spearman's rho	76	-0.159	0.169

Note. Criterion variable = transformation leadership. Predictor variable = overall EI

Exploratory Analyses of Research Questions 2-5

Research questions 2-5 (RQ2-5) were evaluated using multiple regression analysis to determine if a significant relationship existed between human resource professionals' transformational leadership and five emotional intelligence subscales. The criterion variable for RQ2-5 was participants' transformational leadership composite

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scores, as defined in RQ1. The predictor variables for RQ2-5 were participants'

emotional intelligence (EI) subscale scores as measured by the 141-item Mayer-Salovey-

Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT). Specifically, the four EI subscales

measured by the MSCEIT included perceiving emotions (50 items), facilitating thought

(30 items), understanding emotions (32 items), and managing emotions (29-items),

respectively. Composite scores were calculated for each of the four EI subscales by

averaging case scores across each of the constructs' items. The resulting composite

scores were used to evaluate the multiple regression analysis for research questions 2-5.

All composite scores (perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions,

and managing emotions) had a possible range of scores between '1' and '5' where higher

scores indicated greater levels of emotional intelligence.

Data Cleaning

Data were collected from a sample of 89 SHRM professionals. Before the

research questions were evaluated, the data were screened for missing data, univariate

outliers, and multivariate outliers. As defined in research question 1, nine cases with

missing data and four cases with univariate outliers were found and were removed from

the analysis of research questions 2-5. Multivariate outliers were evaluated using

Mahalanobis distance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Mahalanobis distances were

computed for each variable and these scores were compared to a critical value from the

chi-square distribution table. Mahalanobis distance for four predictor variables indicates

a critical value of 18.47 and no cases were found to exceed this value. Thus, 89

responses from participants were received and 76 were evaluated by the multiple

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regression analysis for research questions 2-5 ($N = 76$). Descriptive statistics of the

criterion and predictor variables are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Emotional Intelligence (EI)						
Perceiving Emotions	1.180	3.460	1.805	0.436	1.197	1.699
Facilitating Emotions	1.400	3.667	2.160	0.446	1.349	2.575
Understanding Emotions	1.781	3.219	2.169	0.339	1.481	1.789
Managing Emotions	1.207	3.069	1.829	0.454	1.311	1.177
Transformational Leadership	4.067	9.833	7.584	1.158	-0.384	0.025

Note. Total $N = 76$

Reliability Analysis

Reliability analyses were run to determine if the criterion (transformational

leadership) and predictor variables (perceiving emotions, facilitating thought,

understanding emotions, and managing emotions) were sufficiently reliable. Results

from the tests found that all variable constructs were sufficiently reliable ($\alpha > .70$). Thus,

the assumption of reliability was not violated. Displayed in Table 9 are summary

statistics of the reliability analyses conducted on the criterion and predictor variables.

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Table 9

Summary of Reliability Analyses Conducted on the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	# of Items	Cronbach's alpha (α)
Emotional Intelligence (EI)		
Perceiving Emotions	50	0.937
Facilitating Emotions	30	0.825
Understanding Emotions	32	0.741
Managing Emotions	29	0.881
Transformational Leadership	30	0.939

Note. Total *N* = 76

Test of Normality

Before the research questions were analyzed, basic parametric assumptions were assessed. That is, for the criterion (transformational leadership) and predictor variables (perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions), assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity were tested. Linearity and homoscedasticity were evaluated using scatterplots and no violations were observed. Results based on the evaluation of the z-skew/z-kurtosis coefficients indicated that all predictor variables were found to be significantly skewed (*z-skew* > 3.29) and one predictor variable was significantly kurtotic (facilitating emotions *z-kurtosis* = 4.725). Consequently, in an attempt to normalize the distributions, the predictor variables were transformed using a square root transformation. However, the transformed distributions were still found to be significantly skewed/kurtotic (see Table B2 in Appendix B). Therefore, the transformed scores were not used in the multiple regression analysis. Inopportunely, multiple regression analysis does not have a nonparametric alternative. Therefore, to affirm results from the multiple regression analysis, nonparametric Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho correlation analyses were

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conducted for each of the four EI subscales. Finally, the criterion variable

(transformational leadership) was found to be normally distributed and the assumption of

normality was not violated. Displayed in Table 10 are skewness and kurtosis statistics of

the criterion and predictor variables.

Table 10

Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics of the Criterion and Predictor Variables

Variable	Skewness	Skew Std. Error	z-skew	Kurtosis	Kurtosis Std. Error	z-kurtosis
Emotional Intelligence (EI)						
Perceiving Emotions*	1.197	0.276	4.337*	1.699	0.545	3.117
Facilitating Emotions*	1.349	0.276	4.888*	2.575	0.545	4.725*
Understanding Emotions*	1.481	0.276	5.366*	1.789	0.545	3.283
Managing Emotions*	1.311	0.276	4.750*	1.177	0.545	2.160
Transformational Leadership	-0.384	0.276	-1.391	0.025	0.545	0.046

Note. *Distribution is significantly skewed and kurtotic, z-skew/z-kurtosis > 3.29. *N* = 76

Multicollinearity

The assumption of multicollinearity was tested by calculating correlations

between predictor variables (perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding

emotions, and managing emotions) and collinearity statistics (tolerance and variance

inflation factor). Results indicated that correlations between the four EI subscales did not

exceed the critical value of .80. Additionally, tolerance was calculated using the formula

$T = 1 - R^2$ and variance inflation factor (VIF) is the inverse of Tolerance (1 divided by

T). Commonly used cut-off points for determining the presence of multicollinearity are T

< .10 and VIF > 10. Results indicated that the EI subscales did not exceed the critical

values. Thus, since the correlation, tolerance and VIF coefficients did not exceed their

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critical values, the presence of multicollinearity was not assumed. Displayed in Table 11

is a summary of the Pearson's correlation coefficients for the four EI subscales.

Table 11

Summary of Pearson's Correlation between the Four Emotional Intelligence Subscales

	EI Subscale			
EI Subscale	1	2	3	4
Perceiving Emotions (1)	1.000	0.637	0.572	0.574
Facilitating Emotions (2)		1.000	0.590	0.659
Understanding Emotions (3)			1.000	0.686
Managing Emotions (4)				1.000

Note. N = 76

Results of Hypotheses 2-5

$H2_0$: There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-

perceived emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

$H2_A$: There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-perceived

emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

$H3_0$: There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-

facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

$H3_A$: There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-

facilitating thought and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

$H4_0$: There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-

understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource

professionals.

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H4$_A$: There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-understanding emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H5$_0$: There is not a significant correlation between emotional intelligence-managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

H5$_A$: There is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence- managing emotions and transformational leadership for human resource professionals.

Hypotheses 2-5 were evaluated using multiple regression analysis to determine if a significant relationship existed between transformational leadership and four emotional intelligence subscales (perceiving emotions, facilitating thought, understanding emotions, and managing emotions). Results indicated that a significant relationship did exist between participants' transformational leadership scores and a model containing four EI subscales, $R = .475$, $R^2 = .225$, $F(4, 71) = 5.162$, $p = .001$. That is, 22.5% ($R^2 = .225$) of the variance observed in participants' transformational leadership scores was due to a model containing four EI subscales. Displayed in Table 12 is a summary of the multiple regression analysis conducted for hypotheses 2-5.

The contribution of each predictor variable, when the variance explained by all others were controlled for, was evaluated using the standardized Beta coefficient. Results indicated that one EI subscale made a significantly unique contribution in explaining participants' transformational leadership scores (managing emotions $B = -0.435$, $p = .009$). That is, there was a significantly negative relationship between transformational leadership and the EI managing emotions subscale. No other predictor variables made a uniquely significant contribution in explaining the criterion variable (perceiving emotions

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p = .371, facilitating emotions *p* = .090, and understanding emotions *p* = .305). Similar

results were found using the nonparametric Kendall's tau and Spearman's rho correlation

analyses—see Table B3 in Appendix B for details. Therefore, the null hypothesis for

research question 5 was rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis and the null

hypotheses for research questions 2-4 were retained. Displayed in Figure 2 is a

scatterplot of participants' transformational leadership and EI subscale scores.

Table 12

Model Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 2-5

Source	R	R^2	Standard Error	F	df1	df2	Sig. (*p*)
Omnibus	0.475	0.225	1.047	5.162	4	71	0.001

Source	Unstandardized Coefficients			Standardized Coefficients			
	B	Std. Error		Beta	t	Sig. (*p*)	Part Correlation
(Constant)	9.316	0.813			11.459	< .001	
Perceiving Emotions	0.345	0.383		0.130	0.901	0.371	0.094
Facilitating Emotions	-0.690	0.401		-0.266	-1.720	0.090	-0.108
Understanding Emotions	0.537	0.520		0.157	1.034	0.305	0.108
Managing Emotions	-1.110	0.410		-0.435	-2.705	0.009	-0.283

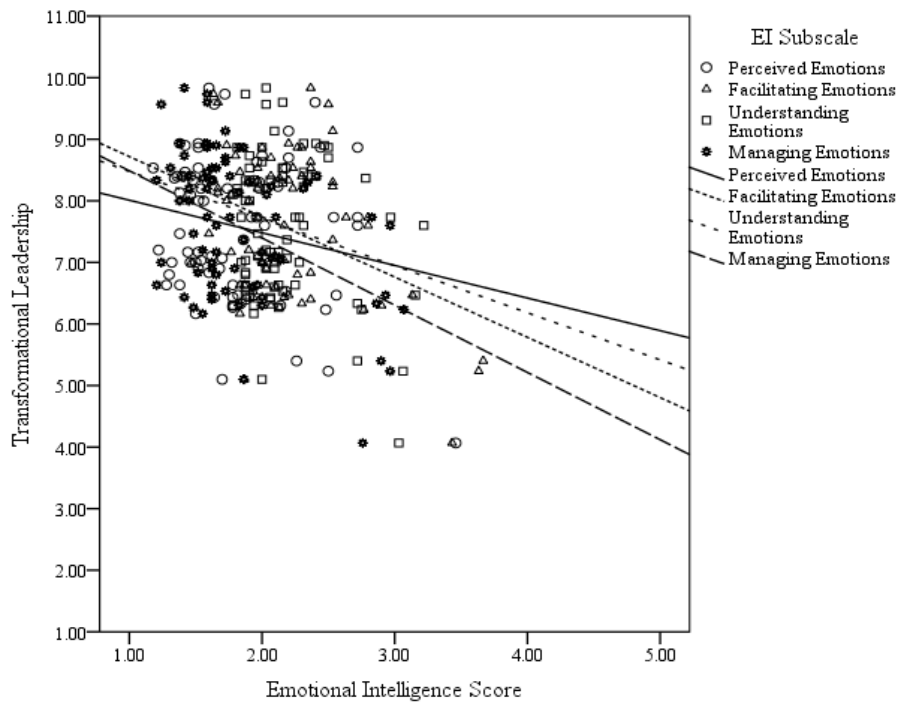*Note.* Criterion variable = transformational leadership, *N* = 76

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Figure 2. Scatterplot of participants' transformational leadership and EI subscale scores

Summary

The study outcomes and data analyses reveal less of a relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership for HR professionals than anticipated. What is more interesting is that the one significant relationship identified is a negative correlation between transformational leadership and the managing emotions EI subscale. In essence, the data indicates that as an HR professional's ability to manage emotions increases, his or her transformational leadership capability decreases. This insight may seem a bit paradoxical to the conventional HR practitioner who believes that one's capacity to manage emotions is the benchmark for transformational leaders; however, there are some underlining considerations regarding the managing emotion EI subscale presented in Chapter 5's discussion of the results that may provide additional perspective for the outcomes.

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Table 13

Summary of Results for Hypotheses 1-5

Hypothesis	Criterion Variable	Predictor Variable	Analysis	Sig. (p)
H1	Transformational Leadership	Overall Emotional Intelligence	Correlation	0.175
H2	Transformational Leadership	Perceiving Emotions	Multiple Regression	0.371
H3	Transformational Leadership	Facilitating Emotions	Multiple Regression	0.090
H4	Transformational Leadership	Understanding Emotions	Multiple Regression	0.305
H5	Transformational Leadership	Managing Emotions	Multiple Regression	0.009*

Note. $N = 76$
*Negative correlation

The initial data analysis plan discussed in Chapter 3 focused solely on correlation, but it was determined that supplementary investigation with regression analyses would offer more substantive conclusions for the assorted research questions. This notion was, in fact, valid and Table 13 displays a summary of the results for each of the study's hypotheses. A more comprehensive discussion of the analyses and the H5 results are examined in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence (EI) and transformational leadership (TL) for human resource management professionals who are members of the national Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM). The study's significance was predicated upon the notion that HR professionals would benefit from having a valid and reliable EI instrument for training, professional development, and conflict management in a business context (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). The study also underscored the scarcity of research that explores the relationship between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership specifically for human resources. Domerchie (2011) posits that EI is essential for HR professionals so a thorough investigation into EI and TL for this group is an imperative.

This study also sought to advance the Alston et al. (2010) research by addressing some of the limitations the authors referenced in their study including expanding the sample to include (a) a variety of industries and institutions, and (b) investigating which EI subscales have the greatest impact on transformational leadership. This chapter presents a summary of the study results and offers an in-depth discussion about the data analyses implications, limitations, conclusions, and recommendations for future research.

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Summary of the Results

There were five research questions posed in this empirical study which investigated the relationship between composite EI and TL scores as well as EI subscales in relation to composite TL scores. Data analyses revealed that there is no relationship between EI and TL for HR professionals when examining their respective composite scores. Additionally, there was only one correlation identified when the EI subscales were analyzed against the composite TL scores. The data for RQ5 revealed a negative relationship between the managing emotion EI subscale and transformational leadership. The hypothesis statements made no conjecture on the direction of any potential relationship but past studies have found a positive relationship between EI and TL (Alston et al., 2012; Barling, Slater, & Kelloway, 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Kerr, Garvin, Heaton, & Boyle, 2006; Lopez-Zafra et al., 2012; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Rahman, Ferdausy, & Uddin, 2012). Although not stated in the hypothesis, the researcher suspected that the results would have yielded a positive relationship.

The MSCEIT assessment has been widely accepted as one of the most tested and scientifically strong EI scales (Cherniss, 2010; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003) with appropriate reliability and validity measures, however the data analyses uncovered significant skewness and kurtosis in participant EI responses. The skewness and kurtosis purports a lack of normal distribution for the EI results. The z-skew/z-kurtosis coefficients for the predictor variable was significantly skewed (*z-skew* = 6.409) and significantly kurtotic (*z-kurtosis* = 5.039). Transformational leadership data analyses showed a normal distribution of the results.

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Discussion of the Results

The study sought to identify if there is a relationship between EI and TL for HR professionals using an ability-based EI model. Additionally, the study hypothesized that each of the four EI subscales would have a significant impact on transformational leadership. Only one of the five hypotheses was determined to be accurate and the null hypothesis was rejected for that case. The analyses confirmed that the managing emotion subscale had a significant and negative impact on transformational leadership. Mayer et al., (2004) operationalized managing emotion in the MSCEIT instrument by giving respondents situations and inquiring as to how they would emotionally respond. Participants were able to decide if they wanted to sustain their feelings or to modify their responses based upon the situation provided and based upon their desired outcome for the situation.

In this context, managing emotion denotes one's capacity to use emotion to solve problems. Salovey and Mayer's (1990) earlier conceptual EI model characterized this as utilization of emotion and included four factors which were (a) flexible planning, (b) creative thinking, (c) redirected attention, and (d) motivation. Jordan and Troth (2004) posit that managing emotion is "an individual's ability to connect or disconnect from an emotion depending on its usefulness in any given situation" (p. 198).

Jordan and Troth (2004) and Kunnanatt (2004) intimate that managing emotion necessitates an introspective progression between regulating emotions and cognitively deciding what to do with emotions in an effort to produce a preferred aftereffect. Zeidner, Roberts, and Matthews (2008) supplement this notion of introspective progression by suggesting that EI is associated with adaptation and that some people are

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more capable of adapting to social and emotional stimuli. Zeidner et al. (2008) exclude further perspective as to whether adaptation is a learned or innate competence.

It is important to note that the EI composite score was considerably lower and the TL composite score higher in this study (emotional intelligence *M = 1.991,* transformational leadership *M =7.584*) than what was reported in the Alston et al. (2010) human resources study. The Alston et al. (2010) study used a self-report instrument to measure emotional intelligence rather than an ability-based tool, and this suggests that there is a significant difference in how HR professionals rate themselves in EI versus their actual EI ability. The study was designed so that participants completed the EI instrument before completing the TL instrument to increase study participation. Participants could have unintentionally self-rated themselves higher in TL after experiencing difficulty responding to the MSCEIT.

The negative relationship between managing emotion and transformational leadership is somewhat enigmatic since conventional wisdom would argue that a person skilled at managing emotions should be able to use their emotions to (a) challenge the process, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) enable others to act, (d) model the way, and (e) encourage the heart (Posner & Kouzes, 1998) in order to lead others toward an ideal resolution. This negative correlation could signify a variety of underlining factors not considered in the study including HR's role of employee advocate juxtapose to HR's role of business partner in driving transformative change. This perspective would indicate that role conflict could be a moderating variable in the relationship between EI and TL for HR professionals.

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Advocate and Business Partner

One consideration for the negative relationship between managing emotions and transformational leadership could be the HR person's internal conflict between the employee advocate role and the strategic business partner role (Conner & Ulrich, 1996; Francis & Keegan, 2006). When an HR person is faced with an emotionally charged situation, he or she may channel all of the attention into managing the emotions while unwittingly negating the broader context of the desired transformation. Challenging processes or enabling action as functions of transformational leadership may be impeded by the HR person's goal of simply alleviating the employee's emotional state.

As an advocate, the HR professional helps to create the organization's culture and shapes the employee experience from professional development to compensation and conflict resolution (Ullah, 2012). Ullah (2012) postulates that HR's role during change is that of a transformational leader who facilitates vision creation while engaging employees in the change effort. This dichotomy between employee advocate and business partner in times of change is potentially amplified during emotional interactions or when the HR advocate needs an employee advocate for him or herself (Ulrich & Beatty, 2001).

Emotional Hijacking

Another consideration for the negative correlation between managing emotion and transformational leadership could be that some HR professionals become so ensnared by an emotional situation that they are not able to use their emotions effectively. Goleman (1996) referred to this as being emotionally hijacked. From Goleman's perspective, these are occurrences in which a person completely and instinctually

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succumbs to emotional reaction. In contrast, HR professionals may focus so intently on managing the emotion and connecting to the experience of a situation that their ability to do anything other than manage emotion is greatly diminished. In essence, they are held hostage in their attempt to manage emotions so much that all their energy converges on deescalating the situation. No longer are they able to inspire a vision, challenge the process, or enable action in their emotional state. Ballantyne (2004) notes that "reason is always at risk of being hijacked by emotion" (p. 118). In this instance, HR professionals may use their reason to address the emotion only and not go beyond emotion to resolution or problem-solving.

Limitations

It is important to identify limitations in this study in order to understand the scope and implications of the results. One of the goals of any study is to offer insight for a defined group or population based upon the constructs investigated. This study's sample size was representative to a specific geographic area so the results may lack the external validity needed to make the outcomes generalizable for larger populations such as all SHRM members or all HR professionals. Krupnikov and Levine (2014) describe external validity as the "replicability of an experimental finding across various contexts" (p. 60). While this limitation is notable, the study notwithstanding extends the Alston et al., (2010) research because participants were included from various industries and diverse organizations within the geographic parameters.

The LPI transformational leadership assessment is a self-report tool and researchers have often called into question the validity of self-report instruments. Both

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common method bias and social desirability bias (Cherniss, 2010; Kopperud, Martinsen, & Humborstad, 2014; Leising, Locke, Kurzius, & Zimmermann, 2015; Strom, Sears, & Kelly, 2014) have been cited as concerns for self-report data collection methods. Hunt and Fitzgerald (2013) also noted that common method bias can develop when respondents complete questionnaires in a way that inadvertently produces uniformity across similar items. This study attempted to mitigate some of the concern by using an ability-based instrument to collect EI data although the TL instrument is a self-report assessment tool.

Researchers (Alston et al., 2010; Groves, McEnrue, & Shen, 2008) note failure to control for demographic characteristics as a limitation in EI studies. This study captured basic participant demographic attributes; however, the data were not considered nor controlled in the analyses. It is possible that study results could have provided additional insight if the data had been dissected by age, gender, race, or HR experience.

The researcher could have also been a limitation to the study participation level. The researcher is an officer of a SHRM affiliate chapter and participants could have recognized the researcher's name. This knowledge could have impacted the decision to participate in the study for some SHRM members.

Implications of the Study Findings

This section underscores the theoretical and applied study implications to provide both scholarly and practitioner insight to advance the HR profession. The results may also serve to inform other professions such as executive coaches, organizational

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behaviorists, and change management consultants. The fundamental implication of the study findings is the identification of an improvement area for HR professionals.

Theoretical Implications

The EI literature continues to expand as scholars attempt to converge upon a uniformly accepted EI definition and model. The construct is no longer in its infancy stage given the number of empirical studies and literary reviews, but the elementary debate regarding the construct as an ability, trait, or mixed attribute continues to proliferate the journals (Cherniss, 2010; Brown, Bryant, & Reilly, 2006; Zeidner et al., 2008). Cherniss (2010) posited that "it is fine to have different models of a particular construct, but when the most common measures of the two models share only 4% of the variance, it is hard to argue that they are measuring the same thing" (p. 113). The current study's challenge with skewness and kurtosis in the MSCEIT results further substantiates this concern. The instrument design evades many of the self-report issues since scores are based on an ability model and not a self-rating model, but research would benefit from an instrument with stronger correlations with other EI ability-based instruments that have formidable reliability and validity measures.

Practitioner Implications

The study findings show a negative relationship between managing emotion and transformational leadership. This negative correlation reveals a potential gap for HR professionals as they balance their roles of employee advocate and business partner. This gap could have negative implications for HR within the context of both their advocate and business partner roles. As advocate, employees may look to HR to be more of a psycho-therapist rather than a neutral listener and problem solver. Conversely, business

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partners may brand HR as a barrier to change rather than an enabler of organizational transformation. The ability to balance these roles effectively may reside in HR's capacity to manage emotions, to reflect, and then to uncouple their emotions so they are cognitively able and available to shift into effective leadership practices outlined in the LPI model (Jordan & Troth, 2004). Closing this skill gap may require training, coaching, or other interventions to help HR professionals learn techniques and methods to help them develop and use emotion effectively rather than succumbing to emotional stimuli.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study focused on human resource professionals' emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. The data analyses provided valuable insight into the relationship between an HR person's ability to manage emotion and his or her effectiveness as a transformational leader. Further investigation into the relationship between these constructs for HR professionals could include consideration for gender, age, and race to determine if the relationship is moderated by demographic characteristics.

A recommendation is for future research to include additional regression analysis to explore the EI subscales against the five transformational leadership behaviors to determine if there is a significant relationship between any of the EI subscales and any of the individual TL practices.

Another recommendation for research is to include qualitative data to understand what happens when HR professionals deal with emotional situations. This mixed method approach could serve to strengthen the study's methodology and design while

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simultaneously providing context for what HR professionals feel and do during emotional encounters.

Another recommendation is to expand the study sample size by conducting a national call for participation. This would improve the generalizability of the results and could provide greater insight into the relationship of the constructs as well as the direction of the relationship.

Lastly, a recommendation could also be to narrow the sample and focus on HR professionals who are part of the Society for Human Resource Management's executive network of HR People + Strategy. This network is comprised of highly tenured and executive level professionals who may have more experience in leadership and more experience in dealing with challenging and emotional situations. This emphasis would help determine if career level and years of experience moderate the relationship.

Conclusion

This study uncovered a negative relationship between the EI managing emotion subscale and transformational leadership for HR professionals. The study offered important insight for both HR scholars and practitioners. The dearth of empirical research into EI and TL for HR professionals created a definitive need for contributory investigation into these constructs for this specific population. It was important to conduct this study with an ability-based EI model to mitigate self-rater concerns and to advance the Alston et al. (2010) research. The skill gap between managing emotion and TL may raise concern for practitioners struggling to balance employee emotional needs against organizational needs and for scholars pursuing solutions to help HR professionals

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use emotions to impact and improve their leadership effectiveness. It is critically important for HR professionals to identify their emotional triggers and to learn ways to help them shift their attention away from the emotion and toward problem resolution as they drive organizational transformation.

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APPENDIX A. STATEMENT OF ORIGINAL WORK
Academic Honesty Policy

Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) holds learners accountable for the integrity of work they submit, which includes but is not limited to discussion postings, assignments, comprehensive exams, and the dissertation or capstone project.

Established in the Policy are the expectations for original work, rationale for the policy, definition of terms that pertain to academic honesty and original work, and disciplinary consequences of academic dishonesty. Also stated in the Policy is the expectation that learners will follow APA rules for citing another person's ideas or works.

The following standards for original work and definition of *plagiarism* are discussed in the Policy:

> Learners are expected to be the sole authors of their work and to acknowledge the authorship of others' work through proper citation and reference. Use of another person's ideas, including another learner's, without proper reference or citation constitutes plagiarism and academic dishonesty and is prohibited conduct. (p. 1)

> Plagiarism is one example of academic dishonesty. Plagiarism is presenting someone else's ideas or work as your own. Plagiarism also includes copying verbatim or rephrasing ideas without properly acknowledging the source by author, date, and publication medium. (p. 2)

Capella University's Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06) holds learners accountable for research integrity. What constitutes research misconduct is discussed in the Policy:

> Research misconduct includes but is not limited to falsification, fabrication, plagiarism, misappropriation, or other practices that seriously deviate from those that are commonly accepted within the academic community for proposing, conducting, or reviewing research, or in reporting research results. (p. 1)

Learners failing to abide by these policies are subject to consequences, including but not limited to dismissal or revocation of the degree.

Statement of Original Work and Signature

I have read, understood, and abided by Capella University's Academic Honesty Policy (3.01.01) and Research Misconduct Policy (3.03.06), including the Policy Statements, Rationale, and Definitions.

I attest that this dissertation or capstone project is my own work. Where I have used the ideas or words of others, I have paraphrased, summarized, or used direct quotes following the guidelines set forth in the APA *Publication Manual*.

Learner name
and date _____Charity Harps   10/7/2016_____

Mentor name
and school   John Herr PhD, School of Business and Technology

APPENDIX B. TRANSFORMED VARIABLES

Table B1

Descriptive Statistics of the Transformed Predictor Variables

Predictor Variable	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Transformed Emotional Intelligence						
Perceiving Emotions	1.477	2.112	1.670	0.126	0.986	0.912
Facilitating Emotions	1.549	2.160	1.774	0.121	1.098	1.844
Understanding Emotions	1.668	2.054	1.778	0.092	1.369	1.440
Managing Emotions	1.486	2.017	1.677	0.130	1.152	0.843
Overall EI	1.605	2.042	1.727	0.098	1.645	2.331

Note. $N = 76$

Table B2

Skewness and Kurtosis Statistics of the Transformed Predictor Variables

Transformed EI Scores	Skewness	Skew Std. Error	z-skew	Kurtosis	Kurtosis Std. Error	z-kurtosis
Perceiving Emotions	0.986	0.276	3.572	0.912	0.545	1.673
Facilitating Emotions	1.098	0.276	3.978	1.844	0.545	3.383
Understanding Emotions	1.369	0.276	4.960	1.440	0.545	2.642
Managing Emotions	1.152	0.276	4.174	0.843	0.545	1.547
Overall EI	1.645	0.276	5.960	2.331	0.545	4.277

Note. $N = 76$

Table B3

Model Summary Statistics for the Nonparametric Analyses Conducted for Hypotheses 2-5

	Kendall's tau			Spearman's rho	
EI Subscale	Coefficient	Sig. (p)		Coefficient	Sig. (p)
Perceiving Emotions	-0.075	3646.000		-0.111	0.340
Facilitating Emotions	-0.135	0.090		-0.176	0.129
Understanding Emotions	-0.005	0.953		-0.013	0.914
Managing Emotions*	-0.237	0.003		-0.344	0.002

Note. * Significant at $\alpha < .05$ level. Criterion variable = transformational leadership, $N = 76$