

Running Head: STUDY OF EI AND NONPROFIT PROJECT SUCCESS

STUDY OF THE CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)
AND PROJECT SUCCESS IN NONPROFITS

by

Celene M. Kalivoda

Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Business Administration

Liberty University, School of Business
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Abstract

Project managers use both hard and soft skills to manage projects and people. When a project manager lacks the necessary competencies, there is a risk of project failure. The purpose of projects in nonprofit organizations is to increase the efficiencies of the organization or gain additional funding through fundraising, friendraising, and image enhancement efforts. The soft skill of emotional intelligence is linked to enhanced leadership in project management. This quantitative correlation study examined the relationship between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their nonprofit project success. The analysis determined there is not a significant correlation between project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success in the nonprofit sector. Additional research is needed to explore the perceived higher level of emotional intelligence of the nonprofit project managers when compared to others utilizing the same instrument. Additional research is also needed to explore the perceived higher nonprofit project success when compared to other projects utilizing the same instrument.

Key words: project management, emotional intelligence, nonprofit

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Dr. Scott Burch, Dissertation Chair

Dr. Arnetra Arrington, Dissertation Committee Member

Dr. Anita Satterlee, DBA Director

Dr. David Calland, Dean, School of Business

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Project managers need both hard and soft skills to manage projects and people efficiently (Lee, Park, & Lee, 2013). When a project manager lacks the needed competencies, either hard or soft skills, there is a risk of project failure. When a project fails, it utilizes resources without achieving the planned success in any sector. In the nonprofit sector, when a development project has failed, donors have potentially turned away with reductions in the amount of giving, or there is a cut in government funding. This reduction in funds can significantly threaten the success of the nonprofit organization in the fulfillment of their mission. The problem to be addressed is that soft skills, specifically the emotional intelligence of project managers, are linked to project success rates, the construct remaining mostly unexplored in the nonprofit sector (Muzio, Fisher, Thomas, & Peters, 2007; Trejo, 2016). This study is a quantitative, non-experimental study to examine the relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and project success. The correlation design suggests a relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence and project success.

Background of the Problem

Over 1.4 million nonprofit organizations are located in the United States and employ over 11.9 million workers, making nonprofits the third largest workforce ("Number of nonprofit organizations in the United States, 2003 - 2013," 2013; Salamon, 2018; Salamon, Sokolowski, & Geller, 2012). The revenues of nonprofits come primarily from a combination of government funding, charitable giving, and patron fees for services (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). In 2014, over 32% of nonprofit revenues were government funded, and almost 13% were charitable giving (McKeever & Pettijohn, 2014). The 2013 nonprofit and government survey indicated a decrease in government funding that coincided with reduced resources from other sources. To

balance budgets, 40% of nonprofits utilized reserves, 25% reduced the number of employees, 14% reduced the number of clients served, and 11% cut programs (Pettijohn, Boris, DeVita, & Fyffe, 2013). This trend is expected to continue as federal and state budgets are continuing to be cut, forcing cuts to the nonprofit agencies (Chandler, 2017).

Charitable giving has decreased for organizations that raise less than \$500,000 annually compared to growing 10.6% for organizations over \$500,000 (Levis, Miller, & Williams, 2016). The most significant losses in gift dollars came from lapsed repeat and downgraded gifts, particularly in the organizations with less than \$500,000 annually (Levis et al., 2016). A lapsed repeat gift is a previously repeat donor who has since stopped their consistent giving. The average donor retention rate in 2015 was 46% (Levis et al., 2016). With an overall decrease in charitable giving and significant loss in lapsed and downgraded donors, development projects need to yield optimal success. Projects aid the organization in raising funds and friends and providing public image management for the continued support of the organization. Nonprofit friends include those who donate their time, treasures, and talents to the organization.

The generalization of performance in the nonprofit sector is an issue because nonprofit organizations are supposed to create a form of common good with goals in immeasurable units (Čačija, 2014). Nonprofits have no owner with an equity stake, no bottom line of profitability, and no consistency of accountability systems (Frumkin & Keating, 2010). Projects utilize resources that are a cost to the organization. Volunteer project managers and participants also have an opportunity cost within the organization. Considering the opportunity cost is important because the volunteers must be oriented to the nonprofit, could be working on a variety of different projects within the nonprofit, and if not felt utilized, could choose to use their time elsewhere. The success of projects can enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of the

operations within the organization. Nonprofit project success goes beyond the traditional view of Barnes' Iron Triangle of time, cost, and quality, to include success factors of stakeholder involvement with short-term and long-term considerations (PMI, 2017).

Nonprofit and for-profit project managers rely on many core competencies to achieve project success. Leadership, teamwork, planning, communication, knowledge, and project management are some of the core competencies of project managers (Sohmen & Dimitriou, 2015). Most of the identified core competencies are described as soft skills. One company estimated that 90-95 percent of its project management issues were related to soft skills, with the remaining 5-10 percent being technical or ability-related (Muzio et al., 2007).

High levels of emotional intelligence improved senior managers' job performance compared to peers with lower emotional intelligence (Carmeli, 2003). In project management, there is a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and project outcomes of timeliness, budget, and scope creep (Trejo, 2016). In the construction industry, project managers with high emotional intelligence performed better than their lower counterparts (Maqbool, Sudong, Manzoor, & Rashid, 2017). The critical soft skill of emotional intelligence has not been explicitly linked to nonprofit project managers.

In the nonprofit sector, projects are performed for multiple reasons. One reason is to improve the efficiencies of the operation. Another reason is to raise funds, friends, and public image management for the continued support of the organization. Support comes in financial support through donors and volunteers donating their time to the organization. Each project has a project manager. According to Sawhill and Williamson (2001), the ultimate indicator of nonprofit success is the realization of mission objectives. Most nonprofits cannot attempt to realize their mission without proper funding from the government and donations from the public

to fund their operations. The project managers could use their emotional intelligence to improve the performance of the individual projects, yielding efficient use of resources and additional funds, friends and raised public image. By understanding the relationship between the nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success, the emotional intelligence skills can be developed to maximize the project success and ultimately the organizational mission.

Problem Statement

The general problem to be addressed is the reduction in government and donor funds in the nonprofit sector (Lasby & Barr, 2010; Levis et al., 2016; Marts & Lundy, 2017; Pettijohn et al., 2013). According to Pettijohn et al. (2013), government funding of nonprofits are reduced each year. According to Levis et al. (2016), donor funding is decreasing, especially in lapsed repeat and downgraded gifts. The average rates of change for total giving in the US was significantly lower between 2007 and 2017 at 1.2% than it was in the previous four decades, no doubt as a result of the recession (Marts & Lundy, 2017). In Canada, almost half of the organizations reported having difficulty fulfilling the organizational mission and more than one in five reported that their existence was at risk (Lasby & Barr, 2010). Donor funds are generated through projects that contain elements of fundraising, friend-raising, and image creation. Fundraising success can be measured by the funds raised but, from a broader perspective, an issue in measuring nonprofit project success lies in the fact that nonprofits are to create a form of common good with goals sometimes expressed in immeasurable units (Čačija, 2014).

All revenues received by a nonprofit organization need to be used wisely to provide as much common good as possible with limited resources. Nonprofit projects are performed to enhance efficiencies within the operations of the organization and to attain additional donor

funds. Project success in improved efficiencies relies on the success of the project to improve operations. Project success in fundraising relies on the charitable contributions of the donors. An additional aspect of fundraising that nonprofit organizations must consider is the shifting loyalty of individuals. Nonprofits must work hard to retain active donors, recruit new donors, and re-engage those who have lapsed (Jackson, 2015). Project success in friend-raising and image creation is more difficult to measure, but is still an essential element in the success of a nonprofit organization. Willems, Boenigk, and Jegers (2014), identified financial performance, stakeholder performance, market performance, and mission performance as the four areas of interest when measuring nonprofit performance. Market performance includes nonprofit image and reputation, both of which are the core responsibility of the development office and development director (Willems et al., 2014).

Project success is related to soft skills, with a statistically significant relationship between emotional intelligence competencies and project outcomes (Maqbool et al., 2017). Project outcomes and success are commonly measured using the work of Müller and Turner (2010) including dimensions of time, budget, quality, and stakeholder satisfaction. The specific problem to be addressed is that soft skills, such as emotional intelligence, of project managers are linked to project success, a construct that remains unexplored in the nonprofit sector.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative, correlation study is to examine the relationship between the levels of project managers' emotional intelligence and the perceived success of their nonprofit projects. The independent variables will be measured using a 33-item measure developed by Schutte et al. (1998) called the Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). The dependent variable is defined as nonprofit project success. Perceived nonprofit

project success will be measured using the Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ), a self-reported survey of the perceived success in the areas of overall project success and specific success in fundraising, friend-raising, and public image enhancement (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

The variables of certifications and education, age, gender, and formal position within the nonprofit organization are defined as moderating variables that may influence the success of nonprofit projects. The most recent study by Majeski, Stover, Valais, and Ronch (2017), found that emotional intelligence can be taught and should be built into the college curriculum. The literature does not agree on the influence of age or years experience on emotional intelligence making it a moderating variable. Gender is a moderating variable because females tend to have a higher level of emotional intelligence over men (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). This study addresses the gap in the project management literature by exploring the relationship between nonprofit project success and emotional intelligence.

Nature of the Study

Discussion of method. This study is a quantitative, correlation study to examine the relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and project success. A quantitative method will be used because this study will work to establish the relationship between variables measured numerically (Black, 1999). Quantitative methods are based on the use of statistical analysis of numeric data to explain phenomena (Mustafa, 2011). Numerical data refers to surveys, analysis of previously collected data or official statistics (Silverman, 2000). This study gathers quantitative data from a survey for analysis. The quantitative method used in this study will allow inferences of the relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence and project success. Additionally, the study is designed to examine a sample that represents a larger population. The population for this study is nonprofit project managers

within the United States, both employees and volunteers. The use of a quantitative design will enable the findings to be generalized so that more detailed research can then be performed in the future (Vogt, 2007).

A qualitative method was not chosen because qualitative data cannot be used to determine the relationship between variables (Vogt, 2007). Qualitative researchers seek to use social phenomenology to focus on the aggregation of individual subjective experiences (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Examples of qualitative research are narrative, phenomenology, grounded theory, case study, and ethnography. Narrative design is the retelling of individual stories that provides a way of integrating the experience into meaningful learning by incorporating a context (McAlpine, 2016). Appropriate use of narratives in organizations is the retelling of stories of the past to aid newcomers in understanding the cultural norms (Martin, 2016). Another appropriate use of narrative methods is to understand people's spiritual and religious experiences using structural tools available for the analysis of language that create another layer of meaning (Gockel, 2013). Phenomenological research focuses on the lived meaning of the phenomena it investigates (Garza, 2007). Phenomenological research is used to describe ordinary everyday existence to provide the researcher with the opportunity to inductively find common meaning (Horrigan-Kelly, Millar, & Dowling, 2016).

Grounded theory design generates a theory relating to a particular situation with a particular group of people (Mellion & Tovin, 2002) and illustrates a fundamental social process of the participants in a particular setting (Jacelon & Dell, 2005). In this design, there is more emphasis on the underlying theoretical studies in psychological and social settings (Akbar, Elahi, Mohammadi, & Khoshknab, 2017). Case studies investigate a phenomenon in its real-world context within set bounds (Yin, 2014). A case study design is preferred when the research

question is “how” or “why,” the researcher has little control over behavioral events, and the focus is a contemporary phenomenon (Yin, 2014). Ethnographic researchers spend time in the setting they are studying, understanding the culture in-depth (MacLeod, 2016) and living in the communities of people to observe the cultural practices and beliefs that may be different from their own (Okamura, 2009). The researcher collects information directly from the sources via observations, interviews, and document analysis to become immersed in the culture of study (MacLeod, 2016). Each of these qualitative methods studies experience and not the relationship between variables.

Mixed method is the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods within a study for a better understanding of the research question. This method is used when one type of data and analysis is not enough, and a secondary method is needed to enhance the results of the primary method (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The mixed-method convergent parallel design involves collecting and analyzing two independent datasets from the same time and attempting to find a convergence of two sources of data. A mixed-method side-by-side comparison of two different data sources will not enhance the study or provide data for the relationship between needed variables.

Discussion of design. The forms of quantitative design are descriptive, correlation, and causal-comparative/quasi-experimental. Descriptive research seeks to describe the current state of a single variable, which is inappropriate for this study (Vogt, 2007). The correlation design is a type of non-experimental research where two variables are measured, and the statistical relationship is assessed. This research is non-experimental because no intervention is introduced to the participants and no variables were manipulated (Vogt, 2007). A limitation of correlation design is that the findings only suggest a relationship between variables and cannot determine the

cause and effect. Causal-comparative/quasi-experimental attempts to establish cause-effect relationships among variables. The focus on the relationship, not the effects of the variables, is why the correlation design is the most appropriate.

Research Questions

Q1. Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

Q2. Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

Q3. Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported friend-raising project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

Q4. Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

Hypotheses

This research study is to examine whether significant relationships existed between the two sets of identified variables (Salkind, 2008). The hypotheses were tested to provide information about the variables, the null and alternative hypotheses were:

H₁₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H1_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H2₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H2_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H3₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported friend-raising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H3_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported friend-raising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H4₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H4_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

Theoretical Framework

This theoretical framework is synthesized using the elements of emotional intelligence and aspects of the nonprofit project success literature. This study aims to identify the relationship between the project manager's emotional intelligence and their project's success within the nonprofit sector.

Elements of emotional intelligence. The primary theory planned for this research is the Schutte et al. (1998) emotional intelligence theory. There are multiple theoretical frameworks for the conceptualization of the emotional intelligence construct. While each model does not contradict any other, each model does take a different perspective on the nature of emotional intelligence. Gardner (1983) and Sternberg (1988) both suggested approaches to understanding intelligence beyond the adaptive use of cognition. Salovey and Mayer (1990) first used the term emotional intelligence and suggested that it consists of three categories of adaptive abilities including appraisal and expression of emotion, regulation of emotion, and utilization of emotions in solving problems. Schutte et al. (1998) tested the model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) for internal consistency and test-retest reliability and is a valid self-reporting measure of emotional intelligence.

Project success. The traditional definition of project success includes the triple constraints of project scope, budget, and time. This perspective assumes all projects to work in a linear sequence using common tools for all project types (Davis, 2016). However as J. R. Turner, Huemann, Anbari, and Bredillet (2010) observed that projects are unique and therefore need a specific set of tools that are adapted for each project, the measurement for project success has some alternative frameworks. Patrick (2004) attributes project success to be consistent with the delivery of a final product at the right time, proper cost, and with an emphasis on quality. Ali

and Kamaruzzaman (2010) focus on four issues as vital to project success: scope, cost, time, and quality. The stakeholder theory developed by Freeman (1984) states that the value of a project is from the perspective of the stakeholder and meeting their expectations.

Nonprofit project success. Many of the tools and models for performance management were developed in the for-profit and public sectors, resulting in challenges when trying to adapt these models for nonprofit use (Ospina, Diaz, & O'Sullivan, 2002). Boateng, Akamavi, and Ngoro (2016) developed a factor analysis of five broad measures of the performance of nonprofits, including financial measures, client satisfaction, management effectiveness, stakeholder involvement, and benchmarking. Success is best measured by a set of factors that reflect the diverse stakeholders associated with the nonprofit organization (Boateng et al., 2016).

Utilizing Freeman's (1984) stakeholder theory, the stakeholders of nonprofit organizations include the benefactors, donors, employees and volunteers, community, and government administration due to regulations (Cacamis & El Asmar, 2014). The employees and volunteers working as project managers are utilizing the organizational resources to best benefit the organization's stakeholders. Operational projects improve the efficiencies of the organization, therefore benefiting multiple stakeholders. Donations received through the development office and government funding contributes to the operating budget, also benefiting multiple stakeholders. The friends brought in through outreach events are additional sources of donors and assist in the spreading of the organizational mission. Public image management maintains the current donors and influences potential donors. The vast variety of nonprofit projects, in theory, are implemented to benefit one or more stakeholder groups.

Emotional intelligence and nonprofit project success. The role of emotion is a central factor in how successful leaders manage on a day-to-day basis (Jordan & Lindebaum, 2015).

Hess and Bacigalupo (2013) studied the emotional intelligence in nonprofit leaders concerning their decision-making abilities. The nonprofit leaders who are self-aware and can accurately and honestly assess their strengths in comparison to others in the organization have the advantage of leveraging the attributes of others in the decision-making process (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013). Emotional Intelligence Theory (Goleman, 1998), which is also called Primal Leadership Theory, predicts that the level of emotional intelligence is tied to the performance of the project manager. The Emotional Intelligence Theory may imply that the emotional intelligence construct of the project manager would help predict their project success.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework in Figure 1 outlines the relationship between the variables of the study. The independent variable for this study is the project managers' levels of emotional intelligence, and the dependent variable is the project managers' project success. This study is to determine if there is a relationship between the emotional intelligence of project managers and their project success. Additionally, the figure shows the moderating, control, and confounding variables. All the variables are within the context of the nonprofit sector. The moderating variables of project management certifications, education, gender, and position, within the nonprofit organization, may influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. The confounding, or intervening, variable of nonprofit size can influence the dependent variable.

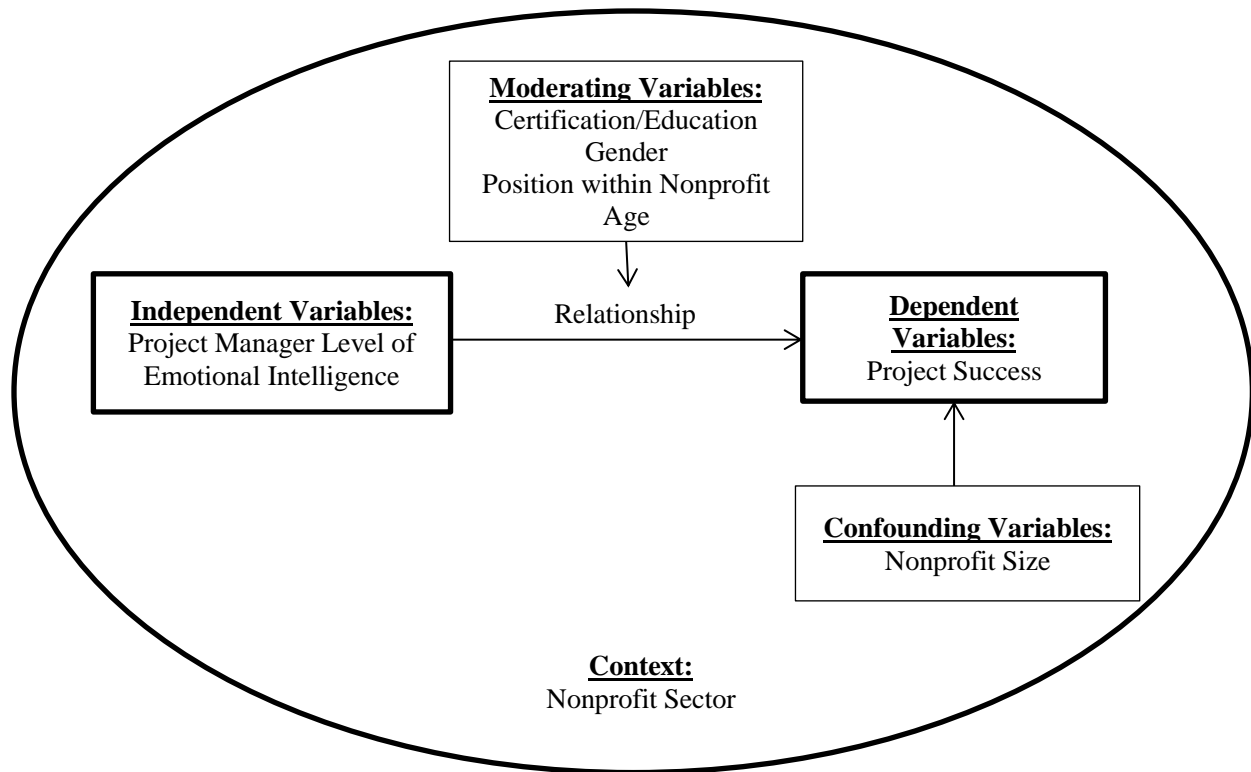


Figure 1. Conceptual framework relationships between variables.

Definition of Terms

The following terms provide the basis and context for this research study.

Developmental project. In a nonprofit setting, a developmental project is one that is aimed to gain funds, friends, or enhance the image of the nonprofit.

Emotional intelligence (EI). Emotional intelligence can be defined as the ability to perceive, regulate, and use one's emotions to harness emotions and to manage the resulting behavior (Goleman, 1995).

Nonprofit project success. Nonprofit project success can be defined as the projects' efficiency, impact on the customer, impact on the team, business and direct success, and preparation for the future (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

Project manager. A project manager is defined as a person put in charge by the organization to achieve the project goals and objectives (PMI, 2017).

Self reported. A survey or instrument that is evaluated and completed by oneself.

Soft skills. Also called people skills, soft skills are typically hard to observe, quantify, and measure. Soft skills have to do with how people relate to each other through communication, including active listening, and relationship building with cooperation, trust, social influence, and conflict resolution (Matteson, Anderson, & Boyden, 2016).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

This section includes the assumptions, limitations, and delimitations for this study. Assumptions are facts considered truthful, but not verified. Limitations are potential weaknesses, and delimitations provide the study boundaries.

Assumptions. The central assumption of this study is that emotional intelligence can be applied to project management to assist nonprofit project managers in improving project success. Research supports this claim by the findings of Skudiene, Auruskeviciene, Reardon, and Stangej's (2001) study that emotional intelligence components affect project outcomes. Another assumption is that the population of nonprofit project managers who participate in the study are willing to participate and will answer the questions honestly based on their experiences. It is assumed that the sample size will be adequate, and the statistical analysis and tests are appropriate. Lastly, it is assumed that researcher bias is minimized by performing a formal and unbiased research study.

Limitations. The first potential limitation of this study is related to the generalizability of the results. The localized population of this study may not accurately represent a larger population. For instance, while several nonprofits were represented, the population of the three participating foundations is a limitation. Although the Executive Director from the Nonprofit

Partnership stated that charitable giving is proportional in Erie, PA compared to other locations, the median annual income is 15% less than that of the United States (Bureau, 2015).

Additionally, the medium of foundation members may exclude other qualified and experienced nonprofit project managers. The awareness of these potential study limitations provides areas for future research. The honesty of the participants, and whether or not they completed the survey fully, is unknown and out of the researcher's control. This study required that participants take the full survey, including elements from both the SSEIT and PSAQ. If a survey was incomplete or only partially completed, then the survey data was not included in the study.

An additional limitation is the use of non-experimental design with correlation analysis. This type of analysis can suggest a relationship between dependent and independent variables but is not appropriate to establish a cause and effect relationship. Correlation studies suggest whether a positive, negative or no relationship exists but the method cannot prove a variable causes another variable to change (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Delimitations. Delimitations are aspects of the study that limit the scope and define the boundaries of the study (Simon & Goes, 2013). The research study was limited to studying the emotional intelligence competencies of nonprofit project managers and their project success in nonprofits within the participating foundations. The study was designed to focus on the relationship of emotional intelligence competencies, as measured with the SSEIT, to nonprofit project success, as measured with the PSAQ. The results of this study can be generalized to project managers who work in the nonprofit sector. The research study sample included only project managers in the nonprofit sector, which could limit the generalizability of the results to other sectors. An inherent delimitation was the possibility that participants may not have

responded to the surveys accurately or objectively, yielding to the desire to be perceived positively.

Significance of the Study

This section includes the reduction of gaps, implications for biblical integration, and the relationship to the field of study. This study aims to reduce the gap in knowledge within the nonprofit sector while building upon God's purpose for employees on earth. The focus is to have a better understanding of emotional intelligence and the potential impact to the success of projects in the nonprofit sector.

Reduction of gaps. Much of the literature has focused on the theoretical aspects of emotional intelligence. There is a significant gap in the practical application of these skills to nonprofit project success. Hess and Bacigalupo (2013) studied the emotional intelligence of nonprofit leaders and their decision-making abilities. Their recommendation was for additional research to provide clarity on the impact of the behaviors associated with emotional intelligence on successful outcomes within the nonprofit setting (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013). The results from this dissertation research may indicate whether nonprofit project managers with a high emotional intelligence are more successful in project success than those with lower emotional intelligence, a current gap in the research. If emotional intelligence is found to have a significant relationship with project success, nonprofit leaders may respond to the findings of the study by developing specific training programs to build the emotional intelligence of their project managers. These results may have positive effects on the policies and practices associated with the hiring and training of project managers in nonprofits. The results may be useful in enabling an executive director and a board of directors of nonprofits to hire more effective project managers so that all projects, including operations, fundraising, friend-raising, and public image

management efforts do not lack in performance. To date, the level of emotional intelligence in nonprofit project managers as it relates to project success has not been studied.

Implications for biblical integration. In Matthew 5: 13-14, Jesus tells His followers to be the salt and the light of the earth. Salt is used as a flavoring, purifier, and preservative. To be flavorful, one is to have a zest for the Lord and have his Gospel messages flow through them. One's vocation can mirror the Gospel and advance God's purpose for organizations on earth. Organizations, including nonprofits, are typically run in a secular manner, but as Christians, humans can purify secular events. By living out the Gospel in the secular world, others see the actions, which can continue to spread God's messages. Organizations can assist in the purification of their employees by engaging the whole person, utilizing their levels of emotional intelligence to assist them in seeing their higher calling, and guiding them down the path of the righteousness. Lastly, one is called to preserve God's messages. Knowing the level of emotional intelligence aids the organization in the identification of the employees' purpose and mission on earth. These actions are preserving the message of God and helping it continue for generations to come.

According to Van Duzer (2010), all employees have skills and abilities from God that demonstrate a particular undertaking. By understanding these talents and utilizing them in the workplace, an employee can glorify God in the way in which the Creator intended. By understanding their level of emotional intelligence ability, the employee can be placed in the best position to support the organization, and best be utilized for the glory of God.

Relationship to field of study. The role of the project manager is to facilitate the work of the project team members while having effective project management skills and leadership capabilities and competencies. Mir and Pinnington (2014) found a positive relationship between

project manager performance and their contributing variables on project success. According to the literature, the role of the project manager is becoming less dictatorial and more social which results in a growing need for understanding and use of soft skills, including emotional intelligence (Smith, 2010). Examining the relationship between project success and the project managers' emotional intelligence can lead to specific training programs to build the project managers' emotional intelligence and their projects' improved success.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

This literature review draws a line from the elements of project failure and success to the lack of research on how project managers' emotional intelligence affects nonprofit project success. Drawing from the understanding of what is project success, the components of the project managers' competencies that lead to project success are identified. One of those components is the project managers' emotional intelligence. The nonprofit sector projects and their success are researched, and there is an identifiable gap in the literature on how the project managers' emotional intelligence affects nonprofit project success.

This literature utilized two central databases through the Liberty University library's access to EBSCOHost entitled Academic Search Complete and Business Source Complete. The Academic Search Complete database is a multi-discipline, full-text database with more than 8,500 periodicals and more than 7,300 peer-reviewed journals. The Business Source Complete database includes more than 1,300 business journals dated as far back as 1886.

Project failure and success. The traditional view of project failure and success is the golden or iron triangle of project budget, time, and scope. A project that remains within the targeted values of each is considered a success. A project that goes beyond the planned values is regarded as a failure. Additionally, project success and project failure are not necessarily

opposite or contradictory notions (Fincham, 2002). Project failure and success is an essential field of study because projects drive business innovation and change, and are used to implement a strategy, innovation, or gain a competitive advantage. Projects are the “engine that drives innovation from idea to commercialization” and “drives that make organizations better, stronger, and more efficient” (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007, p. 4). This section of the literature review included keyword searches on “project success,” “project failure,” and “project success factors.” Included in the project success factors section is also the measurement of project success factors.

Project failure results in a loss of money, as well as associated time, a loss of reputation, and a decrease in the morale of the workforce. Project failure is increasing according to the KPMG (2013) survey when compared to the results of their 2010 study. The percentage of on-budget projects dropped from 48% to 33%, the percentage of on-time projects decreased from 36% to 29%, and the percentage of projects completed to scope fell from 59% to 35% (KPMG, 2013). Project failures can have a significant impact, for example in the Los Angeles Unified School District’s e-enabled learning tools project in 2015; the project failure resulted in more than \$1.3 billion over expenditures. This failure was attributed to a lack of stakeholder support, missing requirements, and quality related issues. Pinto (2013) argues that even ‘successful’ project examples typically run over budget and behind schedule.

Project failure factors can be grouped into three main categories of people factors, project process factors, and project communication factors (Discenza & Forman, 2007). Pinto (2013) identified the seven deadly sins of projects to be optimism bias, massaging the plan, creating project death marches, date-driven schedules, lack of relevant project management training, poor change control, and superficial risk management. The Standish group identified project failure characteristics as incomplete specifications and milestones, lack of a message from leadership,

technical incompetence, lack of management support, and continuous change of project requirements (Toader, Brad, Adamov, Main, & Moisa, 2010).

The basis of nearly all approaches to project success is Barnes' Iron Triangle developed in the 1970s included time, cost, and quality. Barnes found the connection between production, engineers, and financial managers and the potential for improvements (as cited in Albert, Balve, & Spang, 2017). This simplistic view has its limitations, as it tends to result in an optimistic view of running a project by disregarding the soft criteria, so-call human factors (Morris, 2013; Pinto, Rouhiainen, & Trailer, 2000). Albert et al. (2017) assessed the literature on project success in different fields of application and found the hard criteria of success to be cost, time, and performance, but also added economic success and quality.

Atkinson (1999) divides project success into three categories: doing the process right, getting the system right, and getting the benefits right. According to Shenhar and Dvir (2007), project success must reflect the strategic intent of the company and its business objectives for the following three reasons. First, the project must serve the organization, or there is no need to initiate the project. Second, measuring success cannot only happen at the end of the project, but must also include milestone successes. Finally, success measures should reflect the interests of all stakeholders who will be affected by the outcome of the project. Ika (2009) illustrated the shifting criteria for assessment of project success from 1986 to 2004 found in Figure 2.

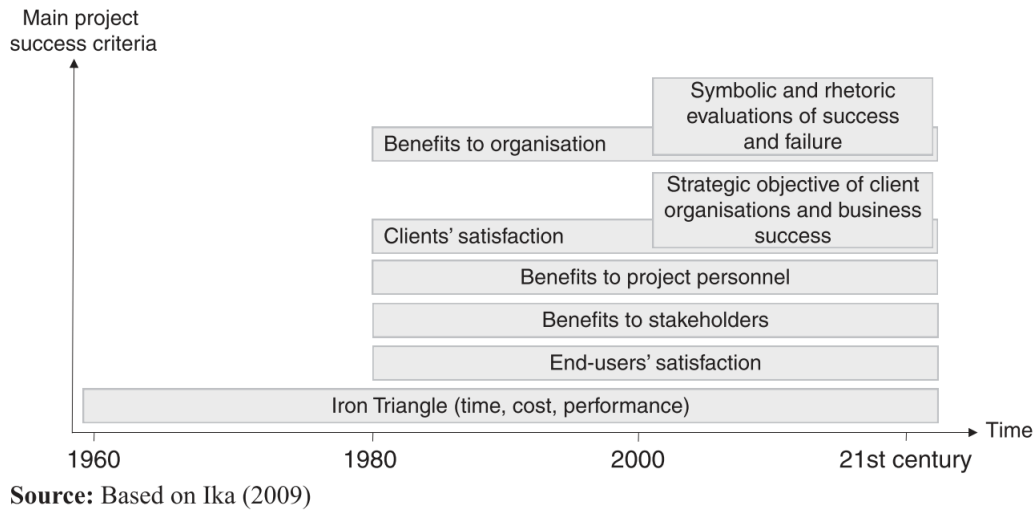


Figure 2. The shifting criteria for project success over time (Ika, 2009).

Soft criteria are connected to the human factor (Chiocchio & Hobbs, 2014) and are somewhat subjective and difficult to evaluate (Pinto & Slevin, 2006). Included in soft criteria are company satisfaction, line-manager satisfaction, project-member satisfaction, customer satisfaction, end-user satisfaction, and supplier satisfaction; each is an example of the previously used term of stakeholder (Albert et al., 2017). Hard criteria, also called quantifiable assessment criteria, are relatively objective and measurable with comparatively little expenditure (Baccarini, 1999). According to Müller and Jugdev (2012), hard criteria account for nearly 50% of project success, while soft criteria make up the other 50%. Davis (2016) created a set of three new success dimensions which include the benefits to the stakeholders, the client or customer specific issues, and the traditional time, cost, and quality dimensions.

Measuring project success factors. The measurement of project success factors is continuing to evolve with no standard method. Each industry defines the term “project success” differently. Collins and Baccarini (2004) researched the meaning of project success in different industries and found that many based project success on the traditional iron triangle and the

additional criterion of customer satisfaction. Below is a chronological summary of the significant measures of project success factors which reveals the evolution of the topic.

Slevin and Pinto (1986) were the first to develop a project success instrument in 1986. They asked project managers with recent projects to record how they would improve project success and created ten success factors to form the basis of a questionnaire. The success factors are categorized into strategic and tactical frameworks to assess project error and offer solutions for a range of project types. The strategic framework includes the mission, top management support, and project schedule and planning factors. The tactical framework consists of client consultation, personnel management, technical tasks, client acceptance, monitoring and feedback, communication, and troubleshooting factors. An example of a framework for assessing project error is when an action not taken has caused a negative impact on the project, or the wrong problem is solved.

According to Morris and Hough (1987), there are seven influencing forces for project success. The forces include the external contact and influences, attitudes and support of the project, set objectives and how they are achieved, people, systems, and relationships. The people force includes the leadership skills of the project manager and the teamwork of all members. Systems include the methods of planning, reporting, and controlling the project steps and outcomes. The relationships necessary for project success include those within the different roles of the team members and ensuring responsibilities are understood.

Through their empirical study, Shenhar, Levy, and Dvir (1997) identified the dimensions of success as the project's efficiency, impact on the customers, business and direct success, and strategic potential in preparing for the future. The traditional measure of time and cost were included or are considered resources while quality is discussed in relation to customer

satisfaction. (Shenhar et al., 1997). Short-term measures are the project efficiency, with long-term measures being the business success and strategic potential (Shenhar et al., 1997). In further research, Shenhar, Dvir, Levy, and Maltz (2001) added that the above dimensions are dependent on time and should be assessed as both short-term and long-term project objectives.

Lim and Mohamed (1999) created frameworks of macro and micro success. Their findings are grounded on the literature of previous construction project studies and were tested on 40 project professionals in Kuala Lumpur. The micro success criteria included time, cost, quality, performance and safety, and the macro standards included the operational benefits achieved. The macro view looked at stakeholder satisfaction with the overall results. They also argued that each industry would have their own unique set of success factors (Lim & Mohamed, 1999).

Drawing from the balanced scorecard knowledge, Atkinson (1999) created the square route framework for project success criteria that encompasses the traditional cost, quality, and time, the information system, organizational benefits, and stakeholder and community benefits. The information system includes maintainability, reliability, validity, information quality, and use. Organizational benefits include improved efficiency and effectiveness, increased profit, meeting strategic goals, and a continuation of organizational learning. The stakeholder and community benefits include the satisfaction of users, social and environmental impact, personal development and learning, contractor profits, and having an economic impact on the surrounding community.

J. R. Turner (2004) summarized the work of two doctoral students on project success to conclude that accountability for the project's success resides with the project owner and their level of engagement. The students found that the success criteria must be agreed upon by the

stakeholders before the start of the project and continually reviewed throughout. Both the project owner and manager need to create a good working partnership, the project manager should be empowered with the flexibility to handle unforeseen events, and the owner should take an interest in the project (J. R. Turner, 2004).

In a summary of the prior 40 years of research, Jugdev and Müller (2005) recognized that project management success research is in the period of strategic project management. Project success measures have both objective and subjective components which causes each stakeholder group to define success differently (Jugdev & Müller, 2005). Müller and Jugdev (2012) later reviewed the literature on project success that stemmed from the work of the seminal authors Pinto, Slevin, and Prescott in the 1980s. Their findings revealed that modern project success measures are thought of more broadly and more strategically with a focus on the business' long-term objectives (Müller & Jugdev, 2012). In their most recent publication, seminal authors Pinto and Slevin (2006) developed the ten project-critical success factors list in Table 1.

Table 1

Ten Project-Critical Success Factors

Success Factor	Description
Mission	Initial clarity of goals and general directions
Top-management support	The willingness of top management to provide the necessary resources and authority/power for project success
Project schedule/plans	A detailed specification of the individual action steps required for project implementation
Client consultation	Communication, consultation, and active listening to all affected parties
Personnel	Selection, recruitment, and training of the necessary personnel for the project team
Technical tasks	Availability of the required technology and expertise to accomplish the specific technical actions
Client acceptance	The effect of “selling” the final project to its ultimate intended users
Monitoring and feedback	Timely provision of comprehensive control information at each stage in the implementation process
Communication	The provision of an appropriate network and necessary data to all key actors in the project implementation
Troubleshooting	The ability to handle unexpected crises and deviations from the plan

Note. Summarized from Pinto and Slevin (2006).

Two additional measures of project success as identified by Davis (2016) is the use of a balanced scorecard and key performance indicators. A balanced scorecard is a tool used to measure the project goals against the four components of impact on the organization. Utilizing a balanced scorecard requires planning and discussion to agree on the criteria in each of the four areas of financial, internal business processes, learning and growth, and customer satisfaction, and must refer to the overall organizational strategy. The key performance indicators are quantifiable critical success factors to fulfill the organizational goals and strategies.

Continuing from the work of Pinto and Slevin (2006), Shenhar and Dvir (2007) identified the shifting transition from traditional to adaptive project management. The adaptive approach has a project goal of getting business results and meeting multiple criteria with an adaptive

management style, versus the traditional target of the triangle of time, budget, and meeting requirements and a one-size-fits-all management style (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

Shenhar and Dvir (2007) amended their 1997 framework of project success to include five dimensions of project efficiency which included impact on customer, impact on team, direct organizational and business success and preparing for the future. This model is strategic and tactical in both the short and long-term while considering multiple points of view from different project stakeholders. Figure 3 details the specific success measures.

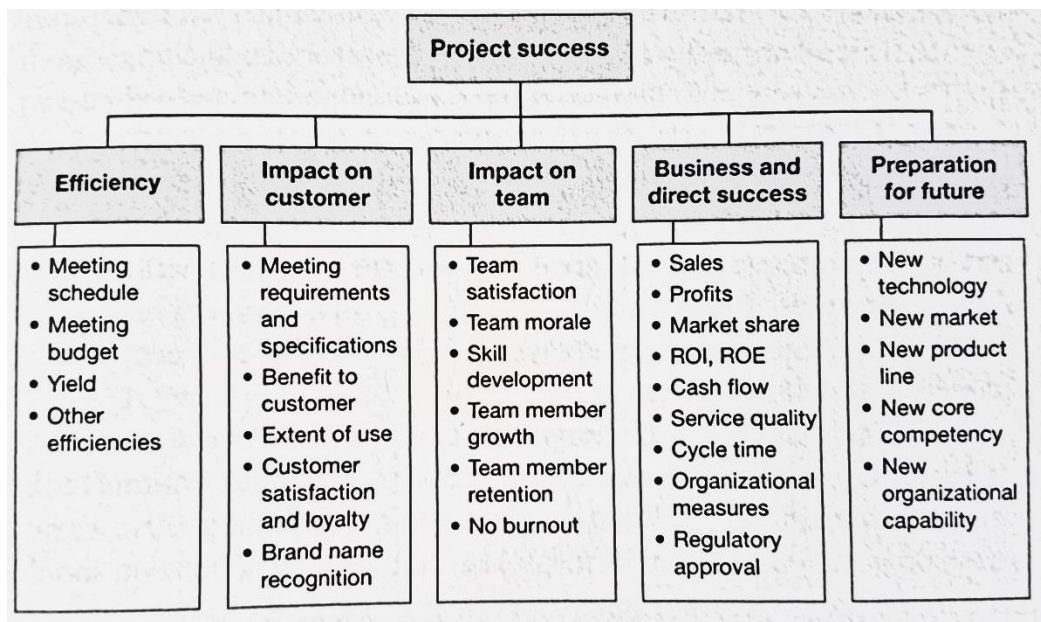


Figure 3. The shifting criteria for project success over time (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

Project efficiency measures the performance of the budget, schedule, and other project efficiencies. This dimension evaluates the completion of the project on time, within budget, and with only minor changes. The impact on the customer measures the improvements to the performance, customer satisfaction, and the meeting of the customer requirements through the functional requirements and technical specifications. This dimension measures the key stakeholder that is significant in the evaluation of the project success. The third dimension is the impact on the team members that are an investment by the organization on the project. This

dimension is measured by satisfaction, motivation, loyalty, morale, energy, experience of personal growth, and desire to stay in the organization by the project team members. The fourth dimension is the business and direct organizational success of the project that measures the economic business success, increased profitability, positive return on investment, and increased market share. This dimension also measures the project's contribution to the organization's direct performance. Preparing for the future addresses the long-term benefits of contributing to future projects and creating new products, markets, technologies, and business processes. An additional aspect of the Shenhar and Dvir (2007) project success assessment questionnaire (PSAQ) is the ability to measure other success dimensions that are relevant to the project and the measure of overall success. This measure was used in a study by Ahmed, Mohamad, and Shakil (2014) to assess the effects of multidimensional top management support on project success.

Each of the five success dimensions identified by Shenhar and Dvir (2007) are significant, but the relative importance shifts depending on the short or long-term duration of the project. During short term projects, project efficiency is most critical. After project completion, the other dimensions are measured, and project efficiencies become irrelevant. Figure 4 shows the periods of success dimensions (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007). At the conclusion of the project, each dimension of success can be assessed.

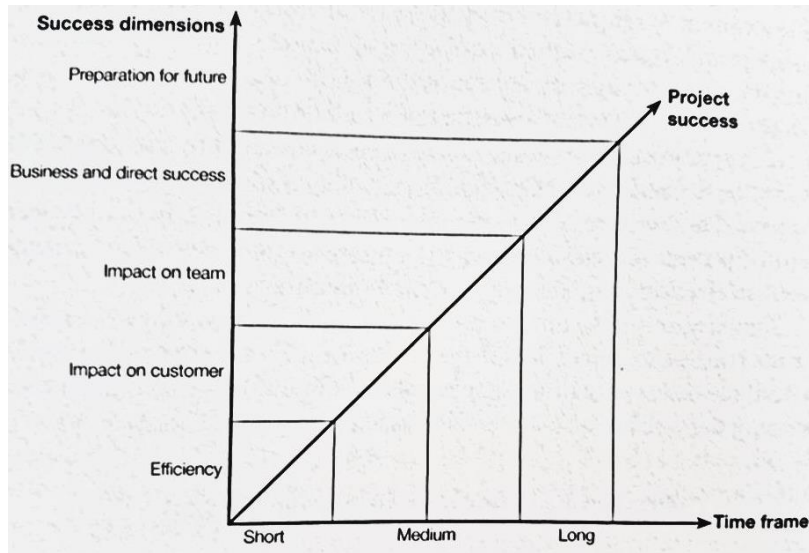


Figure 4. Time frames of success dimensions (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007).

Project manager core competencies. This section of the literature review utilized the same two databases, Academic Search Complete and Business Source Complete. It included keyword searches on “project management AND core competencies,” “project management AND hard skills,” and “project management AND soft skills.” A competency is having knowledge, skills, personal qualities, and experience (Milošević, Martinelli, & Waddell, 2007).

Project manager competencies are a crucial component for project success (Müller & Turner, 2010), and a project’s success or failure is influenced by who manages the project (Patanakul, 2011). It is essential for project managers to develop project leadership competencies to lead projects to success (Lee et al., 2013). Project management skills and leadership skills may be the most critical determinants of successful project outcomes (Kaulio, 2008; Müller, Geraldi, & Turner, 2012). Pinto and Slevin (1989) argued that a project’s success or failure is dependent on who is selected to manage the project. The most crucial competency found by Starkweather and Stevenson (2011) in a study of project manager core competencies is leadership.

Leadership within a project manager produces a project leader. According to Gallagher (2015), “a project leader must simply augment tactical skills with the ability to think and act strategically”. The elements of thinking and acting strategically involve the use of soft skills. New project managers have leadership skills to better influence and motivate (Wills, 2010). Milosevic and Patanakul (2005) stated, “Project managers with standardized project leadership skills sets are likely to be more successful, thus influencing project success”. A project leader will have the necessary skills to handle conflict as people with different personalities, agendas, backgrounds, values, work styles, and convictions come together (Wills, 2010).

The competency of leadership falls under both the hard and soft skills of knowledge, expertise, personal qualities, and experience. In a study by L. Geoghegan and Dulewicz (2008), ten leadership dimensions were developed to include five management competencies, four social/emotional competencies, and one intellectual competency. These dimensions showed the balance needed between both hard and soft skills. According to Ravindranath (2016), hard skills are the processes, tools, and techniques applied to a project. Soft skills are managing and working with people to form a favorable atmosphere for project teams to deliver high-quality outcomes within budget, on time, and going beyond the expectations of the stakeholders (Ravindranath, 2016). Belzer (2004) defined the hard skills as the science, and the soft skills as the art.

The hard skills of project management and leadership are not just essential skills, but are also considered a prerequisite for project leadership (Gillard, 2009; Pandya, 2014). Cheng, Dainty, and Moore (2005) found that job-task competencies are highly specific to the industry, resulting in different hard skills required for various job tasks. Starkweather and Stevenson (2011) tested the valuation of the Project Management Professional (PMP) certification as a core

competency within the IT industry. He found that PMP certification was the least valued core competency measured and that there was no difference in the project success rates between certified and uncertified project managers (Starkweather & Stevenson, 2011). Project manager competencies develop through the hard skills of education, but the execution of competencies is through experience and behavior, the soft side of project management (Mishra, Dangayach, & Mittal, 2011).

Effective project management includes not only technical or hard skills but also capabilities related to emotions (Fisher, 2011). The project manager must deal with a variety of constraints relating to human and behavior issues, which results in behavioral and emotional competencies being essential for project success (Pandya, 2014). An alternative to the hard skills, Cheng et al. (2005) found that behavioral competencies of project managers are mostly generic and apply to a range of management positions. Successful project managers had a wide range of strengths in behavioral, managerial, and emotional abilities, including social awareness (Trivellas & Drimoussis, 2013). The ability to develop good relationships and satisfy critical external factors and strategic constituencies in their environment appears essential to an organization's survival and performance (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2013). Specifically, in the risk management of projects, unforeseeable uncertainties require soft skills to positively impact the hard side decisions and the overall project success (Carvalho & Rabechini Junior, 2014). The most successful leaders were determined to have high emotional intelligence, as well as being conscientious and sensitivity (Muller & Turner, 2007).

Figure 5 explains the hard and soft skills of Maslow's hierarchy of needs and Fisher's hierarchy of skills as developed by Muzio and Fisher (2009). Muzio and Fisher (2009) based their hierarchy of skills off Maslow's hierarchy of need, paralleling the top level of self-

actualization with emotional intelligence. Muzio and Fisher (2009) identified six layers of skills that summarize a human being. The bottom levels are the hard skills learned through education and training. The top levels represent soft skills of human interactions. Soft skills can be taught and learned, although some believe they are innate or genetic skills (Gillard, 2009). A study by A. Zhang (2012) found value in educators promoting soft-skill training in the learning environment.

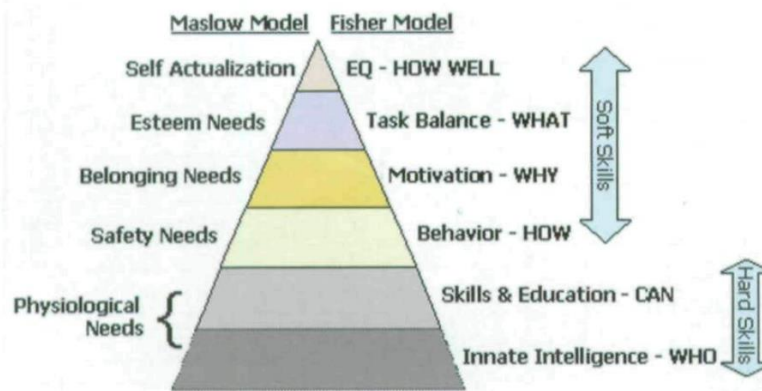


Figure 5. Fisher's hierarchy of skills (Muzio & Fisher, 2009).

For project success, the project manager should have maximum project manager efficacy, the sweet spot that integrates factors that influence the project outcomes, processes, and the best people needed for the project (Millhollan & Kaarst-Brown, 2016). Hard skills must match the needs of the specific project while the soft skills draw upon the necessary skills and knowledge needed to achieve the desired outcome as it evolves over time and with the unique context and stakeholder combination (Millhollan & Kaarst-Brown, 2016). In Larson and Gray's (2014) book, *Project management: The managerial process*, a set of eight core traits are described that can lead toward success in project management, one of which is having high emotional intelligence. With the growing field of project management, the need for both hard and soft skills for success has become more evident.

Emotional intelligence. This section of the literature review utilized the same two databases, Academic Search Complete and Business Source Complete. Emotional intelligence is reviewed in two distinct parts relating to the background of emotional intelligence and how it relates explicitly to project success.

Emotional intelligence background. This section includes a history of emotional intelligence theories, different ways to model and measure emotional intelligence, and how gender, education, and age affect emotional intelligence. The keyword searches for this section include keyword searches on “emotional intelligence theory” and “emotional intelligence tests.”

History of emotional intelligence theory development. Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as an “ability to monitor one's and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions” (p. 189). Epstein (1994) created the cognitive-experiential self-theory that combined both Freud's psychodynamic unconscious and the evidence of a rational cognitive system. Continuing on this path, Nelson and Low (2003) agreed that humans think with both a rational and experimental mind. The book *Emotional Intelligence* by Goleman (1995) was based on the initial work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) and added components of zeal, persistence, and social skills. From this new definition and approach to emotional intelligence, additional work was developed.

According to Goleman (2000), emotional intelligence is comprised of four fundamental capabilities of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills. Each capability is composed of specific sets of competencies. Self-awareness includes the ability to read and understand one's own emotions, recognize their impact on work performance and relationships, and accurately self-assess a realistic evaluation of one's strengths and limitations (Benjamin, Gulliya, & Crispo, 2012). Self-management is having the ability to control

disturbing emotions and impulses, show initiative, and continually display honesty and integrity, even during or throughout times of change (Benjamin et al., 2012). Social awareness includes empathy, listening and sensing others emotions, and the ability to recognize and meet customers' needs (Benjamin et al., 2012). Lastly, social skills can take charge and inspire others by influence, excellent communication skills, conflict management, and teamwork (Benjamin et al., 2012). Each of these fundamental capabilities of emotional intelligence is also an essential characteristic of a leader.

Modeling and assessing emotional intelligence. Most of the literature defining emotional intelligence in one of three models: (1) ability model; (2) trait model; and (3) mixed model. The ability models suggest that individuals have varied abilities to process and react to emotions and as a result develop adaptive behaviors to deal with social situations (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). The four abilities are cognitive in nature, developed from early childhood, and arranged in a hierarchical fashion in the following order: (1) the ability to perceive emotion; (2) the ability to integrate emotion to facilitate thought; (3) the ability to understand emotions; and (4) the ability to manage emotions (Salovey & Grewal, 2005). Ability models resemble intelligence testing, although Austin (2010) found that ability measures show a reverse pattern of positive correlation with intelligence test scores and low correlation with personality.

The trait model is the idea that emotional intelligence represents a self-perception at the lower level of personality relying heavily on self-measures (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). Trait measures are more often self-reported and show medium to large correlations with the major five-factor model personality dimensions, and are generally uncorrelated with intelligence (Austin, 2010). The primary trait models are Goleman's four-dimensional trait model of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills (1995; 1998); Bar-On's five-

dimensional trait model of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptation, stress management, and general mood (1997); and Dulewicz and Higgs's seven-dimensional trait model of self-awareness, emotional resilience, motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, influence, intuitiveness, and conscientiousness (1999, 2000). The mixed model, many times categorized with the trait model, describes emotional intelligence as an array of competencies and skills that are learned, developed, and improved (Goleman, 1995; Kluemper, 2008).

Assessment models of emotional intelligence follow a self-reported personality-based approach, an informant approach, or an ability-based assessment procedure (Conte, 2005). Some tests have one assessment approach, where others offer multiple approaches. Well-established self-reported measures have adequate reliability relating to personality dimensions (Daus & Ashkanasy, 2003; Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998). Self-report measures show satisfactory internal consistency reliability and a decent level of test-retest reliability over one and four month periods (Bar-On, 1997, 2000). Christiansen, Janovics, and Siers (2010) performed a study that indicated self-report measures are more vulnerable to distortion than performance-based measures. Conversely, Choi, Kluemper, and Sauley (2011) found that participants of self-reported measures of emotional intelligence can fake an answer to be more socially acceptable, but to a degree smaller than expected. Fumham, Petrides, and Spencer-Bowdage (2002) found that although there can be distortion; it was the individuals with high emotional intelligence who were suppressing their negative emotions, resulting in an increasingly positively biased self-report. Informant approaches are those measures that managers or peers assess the individual.

Ability, also called performance, measures show a higher correlation with the general mental ability than self-report measures do (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). In another study by Christiansen et al. (2010), the performance-based test was more related to cognitive ability

than personality, and the self-report emotional intelligence measure was more related to personality than cognitive ability. Matthews, Roberts, and Zeidner (2004) found that performance-based measures suffer from many problems of reliability. The ability measures predict criteria related to adjustments and adaptations, but correlations are more modest than self-report measures (Matthews et al., 2004).

Measures of emotional intelligence. There are many different measurement tools for emotional intelligence. This section outlines several of the more well-known tools, including an explanation of how the tool measures emotional intelligence and the tools' definition of emotional intelligence. The measures are listed in alphabetical order, not to place one higher than another in the list.

The Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) developed by Boyatzis, Goleman, and Rhee (2000) is an observer (peer and superior) and a self-reported measure of emotional intelligence that is based on the notion that emotional competence is learned and results in outstanding performance at work. The inventory has 110 items that assess 20 competencies organized into four clusters: (1) Self-Awareness, (2) Social Awareness, (3) Self-Management, and (4) Social Skills (Conte, 2005). Due to proprietary reasons, the developer of ECI is reluctant to provide details to researchers. Researchers who have examined the ECI competencies have concluded that they overlap with four of the big five personality dimensions including conscientiousness, emotional stability, extraversion, and openness (Matthews et al., 2004; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). The big five personality dimensions, also known as the Five-Factor Model, were developed by Robert McCrae and Paul Costa to describe personality in terms of five broad factors.

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) developed by Bar-On (1996) is a mixed model, self-reported test. This measure incorporates an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence the ability to cope with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1996). The measure yields an overall EQ score as well as scores for five individual scales: (1) intrapersonal, (2) interpersonal, (3) adaptability, (4) general mood, and (5) stress management, however, it is not clear how each of these composites is related conceptually to emotional intelligence and the big five personality dimensions (Conte, 2005).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) is an ability measure that examines the capacity to perceive emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thought, understand emotions, and regulate emotions (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2001). This measure additionally assesses the ability to access and generate feelings when facilitating thought, the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge, and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer et al., 2001). The self-reported test consists of 141 items, takes 30-45 minutes to complete, and provides 15 principal scores: total emotional intelligence score, two area scores, four branch scores, and eight task scores (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). The MSCEIT V.2 provides a total emotional intelligence score and four branch scores: (1) perception of emotion, (2) integration and assimilation of emotion, (3) knowledge about emotions, and (4) management of emotions (Conte, 2005). MSCEIT V.2 is shorter and quicker to administer than its predecessor (MEIS), and it provides both consensus and expert scores for all branches. In a study by McEnrue and Groves (2006) that evaluated four of the conventional emotional intelligence measures for use in human resource development, MSCEIT scored highest in test fidelity and lowest bandwidth.

The Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) is a 33-item scale derived from the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990). The one-number output from the self-assessment represents the appraisal, expression, and regulation of emotions in oneself and others, and the utilization of emotions in solving problems (Schutte et al., 1998). The Schutte et al. (1998) trait model of emotional intelligence provides a self-reported current level of emotional intelligence that was tested for reliability and validity. The SSEIT is found to have excellent psychometric properties with Cronbach's alpha of 0.87 and two-week test-retest reliability of 0.78 (Schutte et al., 1998).

Table 2 summarizes the four most well-known tools for measuring emotional intelligence. The SSEIT was chosen for this study due to its assessment method of self-reporting and because it is a trait model used to measure self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and social skills (Goleman, 1995; 1998). Compared to the Bar-On (1997) EQ-i test, the SSEIT has fewer questions yet still results in a reliable and valid measure of emotional intelligence.

Table 2

Summary of Measures of Emotional Intelligence

Test	Model	Number of Questions	Assessment
ECI	Mixed	110	Mixed
EQ-i	Mixed/Trait	133	Self-Report
MSCEIT	Ability	141	Self-Report
SSEIT	Trait	33	Self-Report

Note. Boyatzis et al. (2000), Bar-On (1996), Mayer et al. (2001), Schutte et al. (1998).

Emotional intelligence and gender. Around the globe, there have been numerous studies on the differences in emotional intelligence between men and women. The studies result in vastly different findings varying from women being more emotionally intelligent than men and

vice-versa. No documented conclusion can be found for all scenarios or additional constructs that may be present in the specific study. The following studies provide examples of each gender having a higher emotional intelligence in the university or managerial setting, with discussion as to the reasoning for each conclusion.

Men have higher emotional intelligence. In a sample of 100 university students from the University of Karachi, Shahzad and Bagum (2012) found that men participants demonstrated a significantly higher level of emotional intelligence. They found that the reasons for this difference are that men perceive themselves more emotionally intelligent and feel more able to manage and express their emotions and social skills (Shahzad & Bagum, 2012). In western Maharashtra, Honmore and Jadhav (2017) studied 120 students where the men scored higher on total emotional intelligence, self-awareness, motivating oneself, empathy and handling relations, yet women were more elevated in managing their own emotions (Honmore & Jadhav, 2017). The studies that show males with a higher emotional intelligence than women are from regions of the world where there is not gender equality, which may explain these results. Waghmare (2015) found mixed results from 80 Indian college students on the different emotional intelligence elements.

Women have higher emotional intelligence. Gulabovska and Leeson (2014) studied 86 undergraduate students and found the women scored a significantly higher score in emotional intelligence than men. In the decoding of nonverbal communication, gender was not a factor, instead the study concluded that emotional intelligence is a prominent factor (Gulabovska & Leeson, 2014). Fischer, Kret, and Broekens (2018) found that men score lower on self-perceived emotional intelligence because they are less confident in perceiving, understanding, and regulating emotions. Utilizing the Bar-On EQi test on 140 managers in Mumbai, Patel and

Kumar (2016) found that women managers have a significantly higher mean emotional intelligence score and a higher managerial effectiveness score compared to men managers. In a study of 32 managers with a variety of experience, education, and age, the women scored significantly higher than men suggesting that women are better at managing their emotions and the emotions of others (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). An example with mixed results is Vallabhaneni and Jasti (2015) where women scored higher on self-awareness and empathy but showed no difference in other elements in a Bangalore university study of 97 students.

After the summation of much literature, Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero, and Martos (2012) concluded that women could be viewed as more supportive and effective with characteristics involving the management of emotions, thus generalizing the perception that women are more emotionally intelligent. Additionally, Lopez-Zafra and Gartzia (2014) considered women more competent in emotional attention, emotional clarity, self-emotion appraisal, others' emotion appraisal, regulation of emotions, interpersonal orientation, adaptability, and stress management in a study of 260 Spanish undergraduates. The men participants were better at intra-personal based competencies, such as avoidance of hurt and emotional independence (Lopez-Zafra & Gartzia, 2014).

Men and women the same. In a survey of 90 managers over 30 years old with at least five years as a manager, Ahmad and Zadeh (2016) utilized the SSEIS to reveal an insignificant difference between men and women managers on emotional intelligence, creative potential, and job satisfaction. Waghmare (2015) found a significant difference in some aspects of emotional intelligence, but no significant difference in the empathy, self-motivation, managing of relationships, integrity, self-development, value orientation, and commitment between men and

women in a study of 80 college students. Due to this literature on gender and emotional intelligence, gender is a moderating variable in this study.

Emotional intelligence and education. Emotional intelligence can be learned and can be influenced by training. Majeski et al. (2017) outlined the importance of having emotional intelligence theories built into the core curriculum of university classes. By providing a basic understanding of emotional intelligence, the college students can learn to appreciate the often controversial, complex issues to which there are usually no specific right or wrong answer and around which are often different yet equally valid perspectives (Majeski et al., 2017). Similar findings by Fall, Kelly, MacDonald, Primm, and Holmes (2013) identified emotional intelligence in higher education could prepare students for intercultural communication. Consistent with Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, and Hooper (2002), Ashkanasy and Dasborough (2003) found teaching about emotions and emotional intelligence in undergraduate leadership courses can affect team performance. Utilizing emotional intelligence modules in accounting classes at a university, Machera and Machera (2017) found that the modules assisted the students in correcting their negative behaviors and attitudes. In a study of MBA students, Boyatzis, Stubbs, and Taylor (2002) found that emotional intelligence can be developed through the curriculum. Due to this literature on education and emotional intelligence, education is a moderating variable in this study.

Emotional intelligence and age. After reviewing the literature on emotional intelligence and age, Gaitniece-Putāne (2006) found emotional intelligence increases, decreases, or shows no correlation with age. Van Rooy, Alexander Alonso, and Viswesvaran (2005) found that emotional intelligence increases with age. They utilized Schutte's 33-item emotional intelligence scale with 275 undergraduate psychology students in the United States with ages

ranging from 18 to 44 (Van Rooy et al., 2005). In a study of 527 public and private employees in India, Singh and Srivastava (2012) found there was variation in the emotional intelligence of managers with varying age. They did not see a linear relationship as the participants aged, but found increases and decreases among the different age categories (Singh & Srivastava, 2012). In their study of 414 participants ranging from 20 to 35 years old in different economic, education, and income levels, Gaitniece-Putāne (2006) found no significant difference in age and emotional intelligence. Due to this literature on age, years experience, and emotional intelligence, age is a moderating variable in this study.

Emotional intelligence and project success. This section of the literature review utilized the same two databases, Academic Search Complete and Business Source Complete. It included keyword searches on “emotional intelligence AND project management” and “emotional intelligence AND leadership.” There has been a shift in focus from the traditional task-oriented project manager to a more people-based, emotional, approach (Gonzalez, 2012). Research shows that soft skills, specifically emotional intelligence, are critical for project managers, specifically, the emotional intelligence of project managers (Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). The project managers’ emotional intelligence will determine how they apply emotions to motivate and manage project team members (Hess & Bacigalupo, 2011). The importance of emotional intelligence has been studied in the project management literature (Adams & Anantatmula, 2010; Clarke, 2010b; L. Geoghegan & Dulewicz, 2008; Othman, Abdulah, & Ahmad, 2009).

Authors have linked emotional intelligence to positive leadership. The general assumption of these authors is that leaders with high emotional intelligence are better able to manage employees’ emotions to facilitate employee performance effectively (Ashkanasy, Hartel,

& Daus, 2002; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; George, 2000; D. Goleman, 1998). Humphrey (2002) claimed that leadership is an emotional process where leaders recognize the employees' emotional states, attempt to evoke emotions in employees, and then seek to manage employees' emotional states. A majority of people naturally fall into either a task-oriented leadership style or a relationship-oriented leader (Humphrey, 2002). Bales (1950) argued that few leaders rate highly on both task and relationship dimensions because time spent on one reduces the time spent on the other. The transformational leaders provide both task and emotional leadership (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). Project manager competencies include behavioral, managerial, emotional abilities, conscientiousness, sensitivity, and social awareness. Each of these are part of the emotional awareness of self and others (Muller & Turner, 2007; Trivellas & Drimoussis, 2013).

Project managers who demonstrate a higher level of emotional intelligence should perform better in a leadership position and be more effective leaders (L. Geoghegan & Dulewicz, 2008; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011). The project managers' combine emotional self-awareness with self-control and self-confidence (Fisher, 2011; Hur, Van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2011). In a Malaysian leadership study, Badri-Harun, Zainol, Amar, and Shaari (2016) found that emotional intelligence acts as a mediator between leadership styles and leadership effectiveness. Studying a group of executives, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) determined there to be a significant relationship between the leader's emotional intelligence and effectiveness. Based on a sample of 67 United Kingdom project managers from one organization from both the art and business sectors, Clarke (2010b) found that emotional intelligence is associated with the project manager's traits of teamwork and managing conflict, emphasizing communication and attentiveness.

Kellett, Humphrey, and Sleeth (2002) found that empathy is a route to leadership, and that empathy is a good predictor of leadership. Wolff, Pescosolido, and Druskat (2002) also found that empathy is an essential element in the growth of leaders. In their model, empathy was an important trait that produced both task and relationship-oriented skills, and that these skills led to leadership growth (Wolff et al., 2002). Leaders that are high in empathy are more likely to engage in the management of emotions and emerge as leaders (Pescosolido, 2002). According to Dulewicz and Higgs (1999), empathy is an interpersonal sensitivity element of emotional intelligence that shows compassion towards others.

Part of leadership is managing the emotions of the group. Many studies confirmed that managing group emotions are a primary influencer of group performance (McCull-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pescosolido, 2002; Pirola-Merloa, Hartelb, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). Pescosolido (2002) argued that the leader conveys appropriate emotions during times of ambiguity and creates a shared passion for increasing solidarity and morale. Providing empowering support inspires the group members to achieve their goals (Harms & Credé, 2010). In a study of 54 research and development project leaders in Australia, Pirola-Merloa et al. (2002) found that leaders must concentrate on developing their emotional management skills and demonstrate emotional awareness to extract superior performance from their teams.

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) showed that emotional intelligence accounts for 36% of leader success. Novo, Landis, and Haley (2017) summarized the work of L. Geoghegan and Dulewicz (2008) and Jiang (2014) to illustrate the evidence that leadership traits in behavioral, emotional, and managerial competencies are a contributing factor in project success. A project manager's most desired outcome is the success of the project. A variety of research has been completed on emotional intelligence and project success with many different contexts and

measures. Below is a review of this literature focusing on a full measure of emotional intelligence or an element of emotional intelligence, including self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, or relationship management. Each study provides the method used to ground both the measure of emotional intelligence and project success. The studies are arranged in chronological order.

In testing for project type differences in the leadership competency of successful project managers, Müller and Turner (2010) found that the emotional intelligence sub-dimensions of influence, motivation, and conscientiousness are correlated with a successful manager in all different types of projects. This study included 400 worldwide participants in the sectors of engineering and construction, information and telecommunication technology, and organizational change (Müller & Turner, 2010). The emotional intelligence was measured through the Leadership Development Questionnaire which was developed by Dulewicz and Higgs (2003) and consists of 189 questions that cover 15 competency dimensions. Project success was judged by the respondents rating the success of their last project against a set of 10 dimensions developed from a previous study by Muller and Turner (2007).

Mishra et al. (2011) performed a study of both public and private sector organizations in India with 137 project management firms responding to the survey. The findings show that communication is the most critical success factor in project-based organizations, as well as the project managers' emotional quotient (Mishra et al., 2011). The survey instrument was developed using the work of Fortune and White (2006) and Hyväri (2006).

In a study by Skudiene et al. (2011), 363 project managers from Lithuania, Poland, and the United States completed web questionnaires to determine the emotional intelligence components that are highly correlated to the functional success of projects. Both the project

outcome and emotional intelligence measures were created by the authors and were grounded on the work of J. R. Turner and Müller (2006) for project outcome and Dulewicz and Higgs (2004) for emotional intelligence (Skudiene et al., 2011). Self-awareness, emotional resilience, intuitiveness, motivation, and conscientiousness were highly correlated across the entire study, but the degree varied between countries (Skudiene et al., 2011). Self-awareness, intuitiveness, and conscientiousness were higher in the United States when compared to the other countries in the study (Skudiene et al., 2011).

Founded using Goleman's model, Trivellas and Drimoussis (2013) found that emotional intelligence has a significant relationship with project success, specifically social awareness while relationship management had the most substantial relationship. They developed their own project success measure that was validated by other researchers. The 97 respondents were from the consulting, construction, and engineering industries in the country of Greece.

L. Zhang and Fan (2013) also identified social awareness as a strong predictor of project success. Their Chinese based study included 112 project managers in the construction contracting industry for both Chinese and international companies (L. Zhang & Fan, 2013). Drawing on Muller and Turner (2007) for project outcome and D. Goleman (1998) for emotional intelligence, the authors created both the project outcomes and emotional intelligence measures (L. Zhang & Fan, 2013). They also found that international involvement and contract type moderate the relationship between some of the emotional intelligence factors and project performance (L. Zhang & Fan, 2013).

Mazur, Pisarski, Chang, and Ashkanasy (2014) developed and tested a model of the associations between project managers' attributes and project success in the Australian Defense industry. The emotional intelligence measure developed by Wong and Law (2002) is a 16 item

survey specifically designed for use in leadership and management research. The Wong and Law (2002) measure are grounded by the participants level of ability against the four items of Mayer and Salovey (1997). The project success measure, Project Implementation Profile scale, was developed by Pinto (1990) based on the ten factors earlier identified by Pinto and Slevin (1989) as being critical project implementation success factors. The Pinto (1990) scale measures the respondents' technical and people related factors of project success. Through an online survey of 373 major project managers, their model identified that emotional intelligence is related to the development, quality, and effectiveness of major project managers' relationships with stakeholders; and in turn has an association with the project success (Mazur et al., 2014).

In a study by Rezvani et al. (2016) tested the mediating effects of project managers' job satisfaction and trust on the relationship of project managers' emotional intelligence to project success, the results indicated a positive impact on project success, job satisfaction, and trust in the Australian Defense industry. The results also indicated that job satisfaction and trust are mediating variables between emotional intelligence and project success, suggesting that top management should be aware of the importance of both the manager's job satisfaction and trust to boost the project success rate (Rezvani et al., 2016). This study included 373 Australian defense workers and utilized a 16-item self-report measured based on the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) for emotional intelligence and a 20-item measure based on the work of Pinto (1990) against the four factors of communication, trouble-shooting, mission clarity, and top management support.

Trejo (2016) studied the correlation between the emotional intelligence competencies and project outcomes of Hispanic teams in the technology sector of the United States with a survey of 88 people. Their results indicated a significant relationship between emotional intelligence

competencies and project outcomes (Trejo, 2016). Emotional intelligence was assessed using the 70 question Genos EI score that is best suited when evaluating the overall social and personal competencies (Gignac, 2010). A self-created 25-question survey measured project outcome.

Maqbool et al. (2017) studied the construction industry in Pakistan to determine the impact of emotional intelligence, project managers' competencies, and transformational leadership on project success. The emotional intelligence scale was developed from the Goleman (1998) model to measure the four dimensions of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. A nine-item questionnaire developed by Müller and Turner (2010) utilized the aspects of time, budget, quality and stakeholder satisfaction measured project success. The results showed that emotional intelligence, project manager competencies, and transformational leadership all have a positive impact on project success.

Two qualitative studies also determined that emotional intelligence contributed to project success. R. Turner and Lloyd-Walker (2008) performed a case study with a pre- and post-training survey of 42 participants to analyze the effects of training on the emotional intelligence competencies. Included in the study was the impact of the increase on employee satisfaction and project success. The results indicated that by developing managers emotional intelligence capabilities, a contribution is made to the increased project management success (R. Turner & Lloyd-Walker, 2008). Interpersonal skills, personal abilities, and leadership change are critical behavioral competencies for project success found by Pandya (2014) through a qualitative study with four semi-structured interviews of senior-level managers in the corporate sector with a minimum of 15 years of experience.

Nonprofit project success. A nonprofit project is any project completed in the nonprofit sector. The projects can be to improve the efficiencies of the operations, developmental as a

fundraiser, or any other type of project similar to the for-profit sector. The major difference between for-profit and nonprofit organization is that nonprofits rely on government funding, donations, or fees for service to fund their operations and projects (Trentim, 2016). Additionally, hierarchies tend to be less structured, forcing project managers to rely much more on influence and leadership (Trentim, 2016). Kaplan (2001) believed that the strategy and performance measurement should focus on what output and outcomes the organization intends to achieve, not what programs and initiatives are being implemented. Nonprofits have to focus their limited resources on a limited set of objectives and constituents because attempting to be everything for everyone leads to organizational ineffectiveness (Kaplan, 2001).

Although the organizational success of a nonprofit organization is different from that of a for-profit organization, nonprofit organizations are becoming more businesslike (Maier, Meyer, & Steinbereithner, 2014). A result of nonprofits becoming more businesslike is the level of professionalism necessary and expected of the nonprofit workers (Lundstrom, 2001). Consequences range from raising volunteers' qualification levels to employing more paid staff and placing a stronger emphasis on formal educational credentials (Lundstrom, 2001). Results in the project success factors remain relatively consistent. One study by Rusare and Jay (2015) utilized the 10 success factors developed by Slevin and Pinto (1986) for the use in a Project Implementation Profile (PIP) tool in managing nonprofit projects. Looking beyond the traditional view of project success of Barnes' Iron Triangle of time, cost, and quality, nonprofits include similar success factors of stakeholder involvement with short-term and long-term considerations.

Utilizing Shenhar and Dvir (2007) framework of project success, which included efficiency, impact on the customer, impact on the team, business and direct success, and

preparation for the future, each element can be utilized in the nonprofit sector for project success analysis. Project efficiency, which includes meeting schedules and budgets, is crucial in the nonprofit sector for project success. Nonprofit organizations have increasingly turned to traditional business models to improve their effectiveness and efficiency, in areas such as strategic planning, marketing, finance, information systems, and organizational development (Sawhill & Williamson, 2001).

When measuring the overall performance of a nonprofit organization, the impact on the customer or client is arguably the most crucial measure (Boateng et al., 2016). The impact on the customer element of project success differs for nonprofit projects because the customer may be a client receiving the services for free or at a cost. In the for-profit sector, the customers have significant power because they can either accept or reject the project product (Rusare & Jay, 2015). In the nonprofit sector, the client is less powerful because they may be too poor to have a voice or are grateful for any interventions that are targeted at changing their circumstances (Rusare & Jay, 2015).

The team members in a nonprofit project may comprise of paid employees and volunteers. Working with a volunteer team can lead to different conflicts than those in a full paid employee team (Kreutzer & Jäger, 2011). Nonprofit organizations often consider volunteers important for community building (Maier et al., 2014). According to M. Geoghegan and Powell (2006), commercialization and professionalization have increased the use of paid employees for central tasks and an unchanged amount of volunteer workers for the ancillary tasks. The shift is also due to the volunteers developing less expansive skills than the employees (Sobieraj, 2006). Volunteers are stakeholders when satisfaction with the project and organization is essential for nonprofit performance (Willems et al., 2014). Some volunteer

positions in the early stages of the nonprofit become paid employee positions as the organization grows (Scaife, Williamson, & McDonald, 2014). Teamwork impacts the success and failure of the organization with 27.9 % of teamwork literature consider human resource management crucial for success (Helmig, Ingerfurth, & Pinz, 2013). Additional teamwork elements that influence success are volunteers (McHargue, 2003), staff motivation (Packard, 2010), and management team diversity (Perkins & Fields, 2010).

From the researchers' experience, the volunteer role is still extensive within nonprofit organizations. Working alongside the paid employees can lead to animosity between the team members as time, dedication, and decision-making are questioned. Regardless of the volunteer or employee status, the motivational skills and emotional intelligence of the project manager is critical for an effective team.

The business and direct success measures differ for nonprofit projects due to the measures of success being different. For example, sales and profits are not success factors for nonprofits, but market share and ROI may both be success measures depending on the type of project. Some form of measuring business and direct organizational success is important because, as many nonprofit funds come from the government, the funding must be tied to results and performance (Laforest & Smith, 2017).

Preparation for the future and ensuring the longevity of the nonprofit organization are project success factors. For-profit measures include new technology and product lines where a nonprofit organization will want to safeguard funds to provide the needed services to their clients. Funds come from the government and donors with a recent focus on donors due to the reduction of government funding (Gottlieb, 2006). Generating donors relies on the brand strength identified as familiarity, remarkability, and attitude (Wymer, Gross, & Helmig, 2015).

Accountability is also essential for nonprofit organizations to maintain their legitimacy in the eyes of the public (Ospina et al., 2002). They are dependent on board members, donors, institutional supporters, and staff and volunteers who self-identify with the goals of the organization (Ospina et al., 2002).

Emotional intelligence and nonprofit project success. Nonprofit projects have similar characteristics to projects in other sectors but remain diverse due to the goals of nonprofit organizations. The nonprofit project manager may require a different set of soft skills to achieve nonprofit project success. Working as or with volunteers in a setting mixed with paid employees requires a project manager to have an ability to read and influence the emotions of the team members. There is a significant gap in the current literature that combines the topics of emotional intelligence and nonprofit project success. Each topic is covered in the literature in depth individually, but the joining of the two topics and the relationship of them is mostly unexplored.

Summary of the literature review. Although a gap in the research was identified when examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and nonprofit project success, the literature supports the hypothesis that the emotional intelligence of the nonprofit project manager will have a positive relationship with nonprofit project success. Additionally, the literature showed that project success and leadership are positively correlated, and leadership performance and emotional intelligence are positively correlated. Therefore, a conclusion can be drawn from the literature that emotional intelligence should be examined as it relates to the success of nonprofit projects.

The pioneers and significant contributors to the emotional intelligence literature are Salovey and Mayer. The Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was

developed based on their work and is used for this study. Pioneers and significant contributors to project success are Pinto, Slevin, Shenhar, and Dvir. The ten project critical success factors developed by Pinto and Slevin (2006), originating from their previous work (Slevin & Pinto, 1986), and identified by Jugdev and Müller (2005) as a widely recognized and used measurement of project success factors was utilized to create the PSAQ measure of project success (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007) employed for this study.

Transition and Summary of Section 1

Section 1 detailed the foundation of the study and included the background of the problem, problem statement, purpose statement, nature of the study, research questions and hypotheses, theoretical and contextual frameworks, assumptions, limitations and delimitations, and the significance of the study. The literature review explored the professional and academic literature focusing on nonprofit problems, core competencies for project managers, emotional intelligence, and emotional intelligence paired with project management, project success, and specifically nonprofit project success. The investigation of nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence has a basis within the context of the problem statement.

Section 2: The Project

Section 2 focuses on the research methods and design, the role of the researcher, the population and sampling, and the study participants. Included in the data collection are the instruments, collection, and organization techniques. An explanation of the data analysis, collection, reliability, and validity is discussed. This quantitative correlation study uses survey questions to explore the project managers' levels of emotional intelligence and the success of their projects.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlation study is to examine the relationship between the levels of project managers emotional intelligence and the perceived success of their nonprofit projects. The independent variables will be measured using the 33-item measure developed by Schutte et al. (1998) called the Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). The dependent variable is defined as the components of nonprofit project success. The dependent variable will be measured using the Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ) developed by Shenhar and Dvir (2007). The survey measures perceived success in the areas of overall project success and specific success in fundraising, friend-raising, and public image enhancement.

The variables of certifications and education, years of experience, and gender are defined as moderating variables that may influence the success of nonprofit projects that are not caused by the emotional intelligence of the project manager. The most recent study by Majeski et al. (2017) found that emotional intelligence can be taught and should be built into the college curriculum. The literature does not agree on the influence of age or years of experience in emotional intelligence making it a moderating variable. Gender is a moderating variable because

women tend to have a higher level of emotional intelligence over men (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). This study addresses the gap in the project management literature by exploring the relationship between nonprofit project success and emotional intelligence.

Role of the Researcher

For this quantitative correlation research study, the researcher collected, organized, and analyzed the survey data. For the sample of the study, the researcher contacted the executive directors of Nonprofit Partnerships and Community Foundations throughout the United States to obtain approval to use their members. The survey instruments were intact instruments developed by someone else. The researcher transferred the questions from a paper survey into an electronic survey for ease of distribution, collection, and analysis. The researcher, with the endorsement of the executive director, distributed an email to the members of the participating organizations requesting their participation in this study. The data was collected and analyzed by the researcher to present the overall study findings.

Participants

The participants of this quantitative correlation study are project managers who work with nonprofits. The participating organizations are The Nonprofit Partnership in Erie, PA, The Community Foundation of Central Blue Ridge in Staunton, VA, and The Community Foundation for Loudoun and Northern Fauquier Counties in Middleburg, VA. The Nonprofit Partnership is an organization dedicated to enhancing the capacity and effectiveness of their over 350 members. The executive director of the Nonprofit Partnership in Erie, PA gave the research access to their approximate 2500 email addresses of members and educational participants for the study (see Appendix A). The Community Foundation of Central Blue Ridge is an organization dedicated to helping individual and corporate donors and nonprofit organizations fulfill their hopes and

dreams for the community through charitable giving. The Chief Operating Officer of the Community Foundation in Staunton, VA approved the use of their approximately 1000 email addresses of members for the study (see Appendix B). The Community Foundation for Loudoun and Northern Fauquier Counties is an organization dedicated to building local endowment by fostering a community of grantmakers, promoting strategic local leadership, and investing in partnerships for the benefit of the community. The President of the Community Foundation in Middleburg, VA approved the use of their approximately 500 email address of members for the study (see Appendix C).

Research study methods and designs have an ethical component that requires the creation of an adherence to a set of prescriptive standards (White & Fitzgerald, 2010). These standards include a participant informed consent process and agreement (see Appendix D). The informed consent process addresses a participant's right to privacy, right to refuse, and right to discontinue participation at any time. This study did not include any vulnerable populations such as minors under the age of 18, mentally or emotionally disabled persons, subordinates or persons under the researcher's direct supervision, or potential or current clients. Data protection plans include an anonymous survey and data storage on both a password protected computer and University cloud backup. Additionally, the researcher will secure all study data for five years before destroying the data.

Research Method and Design

The research method and design were selected to investigate the four research questions. The researcher gathered data through an online survey of the Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) and Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ). A

quantitative analysis of the completed surveys was completed. The specific details of the research method and design are in the following sections.

Discussion of method. In this study, the researcher examined the relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and project success using a quantitative method of inquiry. The application of the quantitative method supported the establishment of a relationship between variables measured numerically (Black, 1999) and the use of statistical analysis of numeric data to explain a phenomenon (Mustafa, 2011). An advantage to the quantitative method is the identification of an attribute of a large population from a small group of individuals (Fowler, 2009).

Discussion of design. This study is a survey design that provides a quantitative description of the nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success by researching a sample of that population. A survey design was the preferred type of data collection procedure for this research since the SSEIT and PSAQ allowed the researcher to collect data from a large number of respondents, discussed in the population and sampling section, and provide the necessary quantitative data to perform correlation analysis. This study is a non-experimental correlation design where two variables are measured, the statistical relationship is assessed with no intervention introduced to the participants, and no variable is manipulated (Vogt, 2007). The survey design was also cross-sectional with data collected at one point in time (Creswell, 2014).

Population and Sampling

Although measuring data from the full population is the most accurate and ideal method, it is not always the most practical and cost-effective method. The researcher did not measure data from all members of the population but instead utilized sampling from the total population

of interest. This section discusses the population size, sampling method, sample size, and relevant participant characteristics.

Discussion of population. Asiamah, Mensah, and Oteng-Abayie (2017) referred to a population as a group of individuals having one or more characteristics of interest. The targeted population for the research study included U.S. project managers who worked or volunteered in the nonprofit sector and are a minimum of 18 years of age. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, approximately 25% of the population volunteered through or for an organization at least once in 2016 (Patterson, 2018), resulting in approximately 62.6 million volunteers. The nonprofit sector employed over 14.4 million people in 2013 (McKeever & Gaddy, 2016). These numbers result in approximately 77 million people working and volunteering in the nonprofit sector. According to the Project Management Institute, there are approximately 800,000 project managers in the United States (Sims, 2016) where there is a workforce of 156 million, resulting in 0.5% of the workforce employed as project managers. The estimated population of U.S. nonprofit project managers is approximately 390,000.

Discussion of sampling. According to Gentles, Charles, Ploeg, and McKibbon (2015), sampling are defined as the act, process, or technique of selecting a representative portion of a population to determine characteristics of the whole population. Random sampling is the preferred method for choosing a sample from a given population for survey research (Creswell, 2014). Drawing a random sample relies on the researcher being able to identify and access the research population. The sample used by the researcher is best described as a convenience sample because the entire population was not identifiable. There was no inclusive list of all nonprofit workers and volunteers, and organizational policy would not allow the release of the complete email list to a third party. Additionally, creating such a list would be prohibitive as not

every nonprofit maintains an accurate list of all volunteer workers. According to Remler and Ryzin (2011), a convenience sample is considered sampling the most readily available participants and may produce results that are less representative and generalizable.

Fricker (2008) noted that both probability and non-probability surveys could introduce non-participant bias, but the potential is higher for convenience samples. The potential participants who opt to participate are often not representative of the general population, which leads to a lack of information on those who choose not to participate and makes it impossible to assess the significance of the bias (Fricker, 2008). Kothari (2004) suggests that if the researcher is impartial, works without bias, and uses sound judgment, the convenience sample results may be considered reliable, even though sampling errors cannot be reliably estimated.

According to Jager, Putnick, and Bornstein (2017), the similar characteristics of participants will make the survey results more generalizable than a broader convenience sample. When group characteristics are expected to be similar, a homogeneous sample provides a suitable alternative to random sampling (Jager et al., 2017). Additionally, Kitchenham and Pfleeger (2002) suggested that a convenience sample is used when the target population is hard to identify, the target population is specific and has limited availability, or the sample is for a pilot study. This research includes a target population that is hard to identify because no comprehensive list of all nonprofit workers and volunteers is available.

Sample size. A Likert-type scale is debatably ordinal data but can be treated as scale data, because there is more depth discussion in the data processing section (Norman, 2010). Assuming scale data and utilizing a standard 95% confidence level with a 5% confidence interval, the required sample size is 384. The researcher utilized the work of Park and Jung (2009) to determine the sample size appropriate for this study. The confidence level, relative

tolerable error, the coefficient of variation of the population and a pairwise correlation coefficient are set, along with the number of items on the Likert scale. It is recommended to use 0.5 for the coefficient of variation and the pairwise correlation coefficient when estimating an appropriate sample size (Park & Jung, 2009). With a 5-point Likert scale and a confidence level of 5%, there is a need for 231 samples. This method by Park and Jung (2009) reduces the sample size by about 30% to 40% compared with other conventional methods. The target sample size is between 231-384 based on the calculations above. If the target sample size is not achieved, the actual confidence level and confidence interval will be calculated to determine the acceptable use of the data.

Relevant participant characteristics. The sampling frame for this research includes workers and volunteers for nonprofit organizations that are affiliated with a member of the participating partnership organization. Although all nonprofit organizations are in the population, the sampling frame is limited to those that are identifiable from the participating partnership organizations. A qualifying study participant is a nonprofit project manager that is over 18 years of age and has completed a nonprofit project within the last 12 months. This characteristic was chosen because it aligns directly with the study's research questions, includes only adults, and allows for recent recollection of the project success and current emotional intelligence. There were no additional screening criteria such as volunteers versus paid, gender, education, certifications, or ethnicity. An essential characteristic and requirement of the selected sample was the individual must have been working with a nonprofit organization in a project manager capacity within the last year. Project manager capacity is defined in the participant letter as leading a unique project (i.e. fundraising event, retreat, system overhaul, etc.).

Data Collection

Instruments. Two instruments were used for this study. The first instrument measured emotional intelligence utilizing the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). The second instrument measured project success utilizing the Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ). Both instruments were merged into one survey accessed via SurveyMonkey that also included demographic questions. See Appendix E for the full survey, Appendix F for the SSEIT approval, and Appendix G for the PSAQ approval.

The first instrument, SSEIT, measured emotional intelligence, which refers to the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Goleman, 2000). The SSEIT is a 33-question survey to measure the respondents' emotional intelligence using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The emotional intelligence scores were calculated by averaging all answers to the 33 items. A higher score indicated a higher emotional intelligence.

The Cronbach's alpha value is 0.90 for the reliability of the SSEIT. Items that have a Cronbach's alpha value between 0.70 and 0.95 are said to be acceptably reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The creators of the SSEIT analyzed the validity by studying the correlation with other theoretically related constructs and found that higher scores on the 33-item emotional intelligence scale were associated with less alexithymia, greater attention to feelings, greater clarity of feelings, more mood repair, greater optimization, less pessimism, less depression, and less impulsivity as measured by a variety of published scales and test (Schutte et al., 1998). Assessing the validity, the crosscheck of internal consistency showed a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87 for 32 participants and the test-retest reliability was 0.78 after a two-week interval with 28 participants.

The second instrument, PSAQ, measures project success, which refers to the short and long-term dimensions of business success, efficiency, and consideration of different stakeholders (Shenhar & Dvir, 2007). The PSAQ is a 28-question survey that measures seven different constructs of project success using a 4-point Likert-type scale and an option for N/A, which was treated as missing data. Shenhar and Dvir (2007) explained that over fifteen years of development and research went into the creation of the questionnaire. Some of these constructs were not necessary to measure for this research, leading the researcher to reduce the survey to 12 questions. The reduction is an acceptable practice for the PSAQ per studies by Nwagbogwu (2011) and Mullins (2013). Shorter surveys reduce the chance of fatigue and increase the chances of more complete and accurate survey results (Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009). The project success scores were calculated by averaging the answers to questions based on the specific sub-construct being measured. A higher score indicated greater project success.

The PSAQ showed reliable with Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranging from 0.70 to 0.92. Items that have a Cronbach's alpha value between 0.70 and 0.95 are said to be acceptably reliable (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). The work of Barnes (2017), MacNeil (2016), Mullins (2013), and Nwagbogwu (2011) each confirmed the validity and reliability of the PSAQ instrument.

Data collection techniques. Before the collection of data, permission to conduct the study was sought from Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB approval 3421.081418, dated August 14, 2018). See appendix H for IRB approval. An email explaining the participant criteria and expectations was sent to approximately 4,000 potential participants. The potential participants were on the email distribution lists from the Nonprofit Partnership of Erie, PA, Community Foundation of Blue Ridge and the Community Foundation for Loudoun

and Northern Fauquier Counties. After the potential participant self-identified as meeting the criteria and agreeing to participate, they followed the link provided to the survey on SurveyMonkey. To help minimize costs and the time required to collect data and ensure that each participant was asked the same questions in the same order, the research data was collected from the web-based survey. The initial webpage screen explained the consent information, and upon agreement, the participant completed the survey. A follow-up email was sent to encourage a higher response rate from participants and to maximize the sample size. The raw data exported from SurveyMonkey is available by request from the researcher.

Data processing techniques. Responses were reviewed for missing and incomplete data, including not answering all 33 items on the SSEIT or answering N/A for all project success questions. Incomplete responses were considered nonresponsive and discarded. The emotional intelligence score is calculated using the average of all 33 items on the SSEIT. The SSEIT is a Likert-type scale that is arguably ordinal data but can be treated as scale data (Norman, 2010). While the data from the survey questions were ordinal by nature with a specific order for responses, the summed means were used to transform the scores to represent a scale, which can be interpreted with equal intervals. This practice is recommended when researchers are attempting to measure less concrete concepts, such as trainee motivation, patient satisfaction, and physician confidence, where a single survey item is unlikely to be capable of fully capturing the concept being assessed (Rickards, Magee, & Artino, 2012). When combining items from a Likert scale to generate a composite score of a set of items for different participants, then the assigned scale will be an interval scale (Joshi, Kale, Chandel, & Pal, 2015). Four or more Likert-type items combined into a single composite score during the data analysis process creates a Likert scale and provides a quantitative measure (Boone & Boone, 2012).

The mean data were used to conduct parametric testing to determine if the data were approximately normally distributed. In these cases, experts suggest using the Cronbach alpha to provide evidence that the components of the scale are sufficiently inter-correlated and that the grouped items measure the underlying variable (Sullivan & Artino, 2013). Norman (2010) indicated that it is appropriate to calculate parametric statistics, regardless of small sample sizes, unequal variances, and non-normal distributions. This practice has been utilized in similar studies of emotional intelligence and project success, such as in dissertation work from Dunbar (2017) and Haddad (2017), who both utilized parametric statistics.

The PSAQ is also a Likert-type scale that is ordinal and can be treated as scale data per the discussion above. Utilizing the constructs of the tool itself, questions 1-3 measure the project efficiency, questions 4-7 measure the business and direct organizational success derived from the project, questions 8-9 measure the projects' preparation for the future, and questions 10-12 were additional criteria added outside the original constructs of the instrument. See Appendix E for questions. The capability for additional questions is part of the instrument to allow the researcher to customize questions specific to the project environments. The research questions for this study include the overall project success, but also aspects of fundraising, friend-raising, and public image awareness. All questions were utilized for the overall project success. Specifically, questions 4-7 were used to assess fundraising success, questions 9 and 11 for fundraising success, and question 10 for public image awareness success.

The demographics questions include gender, age, education level, and project management certification, each a potential moderating variable of the study. Gender and certifications are both nominal data with age and education level being ordinal data. The position within the nonprofit is also a nominal and potential moderating variable. The options

include an executive director or equivalent, development or fundraising employee, another nonprofit employee, or volunteer. The size of the nonprofit was measured using ordinal data with numerical ranges. The annual donations and the number of staff both allowed for different analysis of this confounding variable.

Data Analysis

In this study, emotional intelligence was the independent variable for all research questions. Dependent variables were the dimensions of project success defined as overall project success, fundraising project success, friendraising project success, and public image enhancement project success. The moderating variables were identified as gender, age, education level, project management certification, and position within the nonprofit. A confounding variable is the size of the nonprofit organization. Following are the definitions of the independent and dependent variables used in this study.

Variables used in the study. Emotional intelligence was the independent variable for all research questions. The SSEIT is a Likert-type scale that is arguably ordinal data but can be treated as scale data (Norman, 2010). Norman (2010) indicated that it is appropriate to calculate parametric statistics, regardless of small sample sizes, unequal variances, and non-normal distributions. Table 3 summarizes the variables used in the study.

Table 3

Variables Used in the Study

Independent Variable	Emotional intelligence - EI
Dependent Variables	Overall project success – S1 Fundraising project success – S2 Friendraising project success – S3 Public image enhancement project success – S4
Moderating Variables / Covariates	Gender – M1 Age – M2 Education – M3 Certification – M4 Position within nonprofit – M5
Confounding Variable / Covariates	Size of the nonprofit organization: Annual Donations – M6 Size of the nonprofit organization: Number of staff – M7

Demographics. Data was compiled in Microsoft Excel, processed, and analyzed using SPSS statistical software. Demographic variables were summarized using frequency and percentages for nominal and ordinal variables. The use of tables and graphs aided summarization and clarification of the data.

Correlation coefficient. The Pearson correlation coefficient is used when the data is considered normally distributed. The Spearman's rho is used for correlation analysis when the data is not normally distributed. The correlation coefficient indicates whether a statistically significant linear relationship exists between two continuous variables including the strength and the direction of the relationship. Cohen (1988)'s standard was used to evaluate the correlation coefficients, where coefficients between 0.10 and 0.29 represent a small association, coefficients between 0.30 and 0.49 represent a medium association, and coefficients above 0.50 represent a large association or relationship. All the analyses were two-tailed significance tests with a 5% alpha level.

Hypotheses 1. Overall project success was the dependent variable for the research question and hypothesis 1. The PSAQ is a Likert-type scale that can be treated as scale data. The measures for the overall project success were the mean score for all items on the project success portion of the survey, which included 12 questions. Shenhar and Dvir (2007) spent over 15 years of development and research into the creation of the questionnaire that measures project success across a variety of proven constructs.

Hypotheses 2. Fundraising success was the dependent variable for the research question and hypothesis 2. PSAQ questions 4-7 were utilized for calculating the fundraising success of the project. These questions were in Shenhar and Dvir (2007) original construct of business and direct organizational success. Measuring business and direct organizational success is important because many nonprofit funds come from the government. Government agencies have been clear that in exchange they want to tie funding to results and performance (Laforest & Smith, 2017). Levis et al.'s (2016) report emphasized the need to have growth in overall giving by maximizing gains and minimizing losses. Understanding the overall state of fundraising allows management and boards to make intelligent, informed, growth-oriented planning and budgetary decisions (Levis et al., 2016).

Hypotheses 3. Friendraising was the dependent variable for the research question and hypothesis 3. Friendraising was defined as a measure of building strong relationships with donors or potential donors (Gottlieb, 2006). PSAQ questions 9 and 11 were utilized for calculating the friendraising success of the project. Question 9 was in Shenhar and Dvir's (2007) original construct of preparing for the future and question 11 is researcher added within the same construct but with appropriate contextual wording. According to Gottlieb (2006), friends are more than mere donors in that they will volunteer, provide in-kind gifts, introduce the

organization to others who might want to be friends as well, sit on advisory panels regarding the mission and counsel on programs.

Hypotheses 4. Public image enhancement was the dependent variable for the research question and hypothesis 4. Public image enhancement was defined as a measure of increasing the brand strength (Wymer et al., 2015). PSAQ question 10 was utilized for calculating the public image enhancement success of the project. Question 10 was researcher added within the similar construct of preparing for the future but with appropriate contextual wording. Wymer et al. (2015) identified familiarity, remarkability, and attitude as the three dimensions of nonprofit brand strength, where donors will channel their support to the strongest brand. Brand strength is an evaluation among peer nonprofits resulting in shifting donors as another brand becomes comparatively stronger.

Reliability and Validity

The reliability of an instrument is the consistency of an instrument, and the validity of an instrument refers to an instrument measuring what it is supposed to measure (Salkind, 2008). No instrument or study is perfect in every way (Remler & Ryzin, 2011). The reliability and validity of a study and the instruments used address the credibility, accuracy, and legitimacy of a study. The following section addresses the reliability and validity of this study and the instruments used in this study.

Reliability. The reliability of the research was based on the reliability coefficients of the instruments used. According to Schutte et al. (1998), the reliability of the SSEIT has a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.90. The PSAQ showed sufficient reliability with Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranging from 0.70 to 0.92 according to the work of Barnes (2017), MacNeil (2016), Mullins (2013), and Nwagbogwu (2011). Based upon these facts, the SSEIT and PSAQ can be

considered sufficiently reliable for performing a statistical analysis, which is consistent with Tavakol and Dennick's (2011) claim that alpha scores of 0.70 and above should be regarded as acceptable reliability scores for any quantitative study.

To evaluate the reliability of both instruments, the Cronbach alpha was calculated for both instruments. The results revealed a value of 0.833 for the SSEIT instrument and 0.985 for PSAQ. These results indicate reliable instruments in the application of this study.

Validity. To ensure the validity of the study findings, the design of the SSEIT and the PSAQ was based upon the effectiveness of emotional intelligence and project success variables described in the literature review. Venkatraman and Grant (1986) claimed that construct validity is achieved through the internal consistency of the implementation of the variables. The validity of each survey instrument has been historically measured (Barnes, 2017; MacNeil, 2016; Mullins, 2013; Nwagbogwu, 2011; Schutte et al., 1998).

Shenhar et al. (2001) tested and validated the PSAQ instrument. Additionally, in a quantitative study conducted by Nwagbogwu (2011), the researcher recorded Cronbach alpha ranges between 0.78 and 0.93 indicating sufficient reliability values for the PSAQ. Barnes (2017) conducted a Cronbach alpha test resulting in a value of 0.949. The SSEIT assessed the validity by testing the crosscheck of internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.87 for 32 participants and test-retest reliability of 0.78 after a two-week interval with 28 participants (Schutte et al., 1998).

The researcher minimized internal validity threats to the instruments used in this study by not utilizing a control group or pretest and posttest measures (Creswell, 2014). Additionally, the researcher administered the same survey to all participants within the same timeframe (Creswell, 2014). Threats to external validity were mitigated by requiring participants to confirm they met

the study criteria before allowing them to complete the survey. This allowed the researcher to draw suitable conclusions from the data regarding the population and generalize the findings to a larger population (Creswell, 2014). Non-response bias was mitigated by sending email reminders to participants to encourage a higher completion rate.

Transition and Summary of Section 2

The research method and design for this study were explained in Section 2. The researcher employed a quantitative, correlation research design and web-based tools to collect the data and conduct the Pearson correlation analysis of the variables. Over 3000 nonprofit members were invited to participate. The study sample comprised those who identified as project managers, who agreed to participate, and who agreed to the informed consent. The link to the surveys was distributed to the potential participants from the participating organizations. Section 3 reports on the application to professional practice and implications for choice. The section also includes quantitative data analysis and recommendations for further study.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

Section 3 focuses on the presentation of the findings, application to business, and a personal reflection of the study. Included in the application are how business can utilize the findings and how the research adds to the current literature on nonprofit project success and emotional intelligence. Also included in the application section are recommendations for future research to further explore other areas of nonprofit project success, emotional intelligence, and the nonprofit sector.

Overview of the Study

This study was completed to address the unexplored relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. The relationship was examined to address the need for greater project success in a nonprofit environment that must use resources wisely to utilize funding and volunteer time best. Additionally, by examining this relationship, the effectiveness of various business practices of training in emotional intelligence or hiring project managers with a higher level of emotional intelligence is assessed

This study was completed by conducting a quantitative correlation study of the relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. The study reviewed the four research questions: Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall, fundraising, friend-raising, and public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

The findings suggest that there is not a significant relationship between the nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. Although the project success literature suggested that soft skills such as emotional intelligence would enhance leadership

abilities, and therefore increase the project success. This was not found to be true in the nonprofit section and thus filled a gap in the literature. The emotional intelligence of the nonprofit project managers was significantly higher than the emotional intelligence of participants in other studies utilizing the same measurement instrument, closing the gap in the emotional intelligence literature.

Presentation of the Findings

The presentation of the findings includes the description of the response rate and demographic data with tables detailing each of the demographic questions. There is an explanation of hypothesis testing with analysis on each of the four sets of hypothesis statements. There is also a description of the relationship of the hypotheses to the research questions.

Description of response rate. A list of nonprofit partnerships and foundations was obtained from GuideStar via their online search tool at www.guidestar.org/search, resulting in approximately 100 organizations nationwide. Of those approached, three agreed to participate by distributing the survey to their membership via emails. The Nonprofit Partnership in Erie, PA sent the survey to approximately 2500 email addresses. The Community Foundation of Central Blue Ridge in Staunton, VA sent the survey to approximately 1000 email addresses. The Community Foundation for Loudoun and Northern Fauquier in Middleburg, VA sent the survey to approximately 500 email addresses. An invitation letter was sent by email two times to each of the distribution lists that included a description of the study and invited potential participants to view the informed consent and participate. A link to the web survey was included in the letter, which was hosted at www.surveymonkey.com. Ninety-six responses were received for a final response rate of approximately 2.4%. The response was lower than the anticipated response rate of 15%, which was on the low end of the typical range for email surveys. The 96 survey results

indicated a mean of 3.45 for overall project success with a standard deviation of 0.38. Using the margin of error formula, this is a sufficient amount of surveys to reach the 95% confidence interval with a margin of error of 2.2%. A discussion on the low responses rate is located in the limitations section.

Demographic data. The survey included questions used to identify characteristics of the participants. These data were used as moderating variables in the analysis. Percentages for each of the variables are listed in Tables 4-10, which can be found below.

Table 4

Distribution of Demographic Variable: Gender

Gender	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Male	27	28%
Female	68	72%
TOTAL	95	

Table 5

Distribution of Demographic Variable: Age

Age	Frequency	Relative Frequency
18-25	8	8%
26-35	7	7%
36-45	29	31%
46-55	26	27%
56-65	17	18%
Over65	8	8%
TOTAL	95	

Table 6

Distribution of Demographic Variable: Education

Education	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Less than High School	0	0%
High School Diploma	8	8%
Associates Degree	13	14%
Bachelors Degree	34	36%
Masters Degree	28	29%
Doctoral Degree	12	13%
TOTAL	95	

Table 7

Distribution of Demographic Variable: PMP Certification

PMP Certification	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Yes	2	2%
No	93	98%
TOTAL	95	

Table 8

Distribution of Demographic Variable: Formal Position within Nonprofit

Position within Nonprofit	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Executive Director	35	37%
Development/Fundraising Employee	11	12%
Other Employee	22	23%
Volunteer	27	28%
TOTAL	95	

Table 9

Distribution of Demographic Variable: Annual Donations of Nonprofit

Annual Donations	Frequency	Relative Frequency
Less than \$100k	45	47%
\$100k to \$500k	31	33%
More than \$500k	19	20%
TOTAL	95	

Table 12

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for Independent and Dependent Variables

		EI	Success
N		95	95
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	4.06353	3.45408
	Std. Deviation	.334303	.380668
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.077	.100
	Positive	.037	.084
	Negative	-.077	-.100
Test Statistic		.077	.100
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.200 ^{c,d}	.020 ^c

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

c. Lilliefors Significance Correction.

d. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 1 focuses on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager and their overall project success.

H1₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H1_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

The overall project success hypothesis was measured using Spearman rho's correlation coefficient between the emotional intelligence and the overall project success utilizing all project success questions. Ninety-five responses were used to calculate a p-value of 0.162 as shown in Table 13, which is not less than 0.05 so the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 13

Correlation of Emotional Intelligence and Overall Project Success

Correlations			EI	Success
Spearman's rho	EI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.145
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.162
		N	95	95
	Success	Correlation Coefficient	.145	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.162	.
		N	95	95

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 focuses on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager and their fundraising project success.

H₂₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H_{2a}: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

The fundraising project success hypothesis was measured using Spearman rho's correlation coefficient between the emotional intelligence and the fundraising project success utilizing questions 4-7 of the PSAQ tool. Forty-three responses were used to calculate a p-value of 0.430 as shown in Table 14, which is not less than 0.05 so the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 14

Correlation of Emotional Intelligence and Fundraising Project Success

			Correlations	
			EI	SuFundONLY
Spearman's rho	EI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.124
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.430
		N	95	43
	SuFundONLY	Correlation Coefficient	.124	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.430	.
		N	43	43

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 focuses on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager and their fundraising project success.

H₃₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H_{3a}: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported fundraising project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

The fundraising project success hypothesis was measured using Spearman rho's correlation coefficient between the emotional intelligence and the fundraising project success utilizing questions 9 and 11 of the PSAQ tool. Twenty-three responses were used to calculate a p-value of 0.726 as shown in Table 15, which is not less than 0.05 so the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 15

Correlation of Emotional Intelligence and Friendraising Project Success

			Correlations	
			EI	SuFriendONLY
Spearman's rho	EI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	-.077
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.726
		N	95	23
	SuFriendONLY	Correlation Coefficient	-.077	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.726	.
		N	23	23

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis 4 focuses on the relationship between the emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager and their image enhancement project success.

H4₀: There is no significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

H4_a: There is a significant relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ.

The image enhancement project success hypothesis was measured using Spearman rho's correlation coefficient between the emotional intelligence and the image enhancement project success utilizing question 10 of the PSAQ tool. Forty-seven responses were used to calculate a p-value of 0.366 as shown in Table 16, which is not less than 0.05 so the null hypothesis is not rejected.

Table 16

Correlation of Emotional Intelligence and Image Enhancement Project Success

			Correlations	
			EI	SulmageONLY
Spearman's rho	EI	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.135
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.366
		N	95	47
	SulmageONLY	Correlation Coefficient	.135	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.366	.
		N	47	47

Relationship of hypotheses to research questions. Each of the four pairs of hypotheses corresponded to four research questions. Each research question asked if there is a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of a nonprofit project manager and the self-reported overall, fundraising, friendraising, or public image enhancement project success. By failing to reject any of the null hypothesis, it is determined that there is no relationship for each of the research question statements.

Summary of the findings. After reviewing the data for normalcy, the appropriate Spearman rho correlation coefficient was calculated for each of the research questions and hypothesis test. Each of the null hypothesis statements was not rejected, resulting in no relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

Applications to Professional Practice

This research added additional data and understanding to the body of knowledge surrounding the effect of emotional intelligence on project success in nonprofit organizations in the United States. The study investigated the relationship between nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. Project success was measured with the PSAQ, a self-reported assessment completed by the project manager that evaluates how successfully the

project met its scope, schedule, cost, and other goals of the project. Emotional intelligence was measured using the Schutte model of emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 1998). The target population was nonprofit project managers who have at least one year of project management experience. The sample was selected from three nonprofit partnership organizations. This study was conducted under the theoretical framework of emotional intelligence theory and project management theory. Emotional intelligence has been linked to leadership and work performance and, in this study, the researcher wanted to investigate its link to project management success for nonprofit projects.

This research identified that the nonprofit project manager's emotional intelligence does not have a statistically significant relationship with their project success. Utilizing the findings from previous studies of emotional intelligence and project success, the anticipated findings were that there would be a statistically significant positive correlation. Nigaglioni (2016) found a positive correlation between construction project manager's emotional intelligence and their construction project success. Nguyen (2015) found a positive correlation between IT project manager's emotional intelligence and their IT project success.

The conceptual framework for this study was framed by the context of the nonprofit sector. Other studies with similar independent and dependent values were performed in different contexts (Nguyen, 2015; Nigaglioni, 2016). According to (Fall et al., 2013; Machera & Machera, 2017); Majeski et al. (2017), emotional intelligence can be learned. Working in a nonprofit sector may lead to a higher learned emotional intelligence through the nature of their work than those in other sectors. This suggests that the nonprofit sector may not follow the same norms as other sectors previously studied.

Moderating variables of gender, age, education, certification, and formal position within the nonprofit and confounding variables of nonprofit size were pre-identified. Post hoc analysis determined that there are significant findings with the moderating variables of position within the nonprofit organization and size of the nonprofit as measured with annual donations. There is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.009$) in the project success for the different positions elected on the survey instrument. The development and fundraising employee has the highest level of project success with the other employees having the lowest. The finding may be due to the participants being largely in the development and fundraising areas. Additional research specifically studying development and fundraising areas or specifically studying other areas needs to be completed to verify these results. There is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.009$) in the project success for the size of the nonprofit for donations. The larger nonprofits, based on annual donations, had higher project success than the smaller nonprofits. The finding may be due to the budgets available for the projects, a variable not studied. Tables 17 and 18 show the mean project success scores for the different formal positions within and size of the nonprofit in annual donations of the nonprofit organization. Further research with larger sample sizes needs to be completed to support these claims.

Table 17

Mean Project Success Scores for Different Formal Positions within the Nonprofit

Position	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Executive Director	3.524	35	.3937
Development/Fundraising Employee	3.604	11	.4408
Other Employee	3.459	22	.3141
Volunteer	3.298	27	.3543

Table 18

Mean Project Success Scores for Size of Organization in Annual Donations

Donations	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
<\$100k	3.344	45	.3389
\$100k-\$500k	3.562	31	.4352
Over \$500k	3.537	19	.3205

There were no differences found in the moderating variables of gender, age, education, or certification, which is consistent with the literature.

Biblical Application

The biblical implications of these findings are identified in the gospel-centered strategy of the organization where all are called to love God and neighbor. The project manager is there to unite the team members where all are called to be one part of the body of Christ for maximum output and productivity. Lastly, the project manager helps aid in the work-life balance of the team members and empowers job enrichment for their growth.

Gospel-centered strategy. The gospel teaches us that the meaning of life is to love God and love our neighbor. Keller and Alsdorf (2012) reveal that a worldview or story line contains a plan, a problem, and a solution. Majority of nonprofit organizations have a business plan that includes serving others while serving a purpose in a way that reflects God's plan for the world. This does not have a problem in need of a solution. Gospel-centered organizations serve stakeholders in some unique way that is not adversarial or exploitive, has quality products, and an ethical environment throughout (Keller & Alsdorf, 2012). The problem arises when the developed plan seeks profit or personal gain without a Godly purpose. In a nonprofit organization, an individual can have ungodly purposes. This question is posed to us in Matthew 16:26, "What good will it be for someone to gain the whole world, yet forfeit their soul?"

Organizations must set a mission, vision, culture, and values that all detail the Godly purpose for the firm. Although there is not a correlation between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success, project managers' are expected to use their emotional intelligence to understand themselves and their team members to stay focused on the Gospel-centered strategy. The post-hoc finding of this study shows that nonprofit project managers' have a naturally higher level of emotional intelligence yielding the ability to preserve the team focus on the Gospel-centered strategy.

Productivity. In John 15:5, Jesus tells us that apart from him we can do nothing. This statement summarizes why having a relationship with Jesus is critical for all work. The worker who does not honor Jesus will not bear fruit. People may strive for teamwork and productivity in the secular world, but apart from Jesus, it will not have eternal significance. Productivity is a way of increasing the utilization of our teams and precious resources. Humankind needs to be wise with their resources, human and natural, including time and opportunities. When humankind keeps God as the central focus of their daily lives, as Paul reminds us in Colossians 3: 23-24, the work will be meaningful, and quality and productivity will increase in a way that glorifies God.

Work-life balance. Balance is needed to spend adequate resources in work, family, church, education, politics, and leisure, each of which is a part of Christian vocation (Hardy, 1990). A project manager must recognize the team members need for work-life balance (Mello, 2015). Many experience the need to make trade-offs between activities within their life. Hardy (1990) poses the question of making the right priorities and proper balance in life activities and time utilization. Providing team members with a work-life balance allow them time for other parts of their Christian vocation.

Job enrichment. A project manager who is attuned to their own emotions in addition to those of their team members emotions can ensure that the team members are working to their full potential. In the Gospel of Matthew, we are given the beatitudes, which explain the way humans are to live on the Earth. Also, in Matthew 5: 13-14, Jesus tell us that we are to be the salt and the light of the earth. Salt is used as a flavoring, purifier, and preservative. To be flavorful, we are to have a zest for the Lord and have his Gospel messages flow through us. One's employment can mirror the Gospel and advance God's purpose for businesses on earth. Businesses are typically run in a secular manner, but as a Christian, humans can purify secular events. By living out the Gospel in the secular business world, others see the actions, which can continue to spread God's messages. Project managers can assist in the purification of the employees by engaging the whole person, assisting them in seeing their higher calling, and guiding them down the path of the righteousness. Lastly, we are called to be a preservative of God's messages. Project managers can help in identifying the employees' purpose and mission on earth. These actions are preserving the message of God and helping it continue for generations to come.

Recommendations for Further Study

This research identified there is not a statistically significant relationship between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success without explaining why. The literature suggested a relationship between emotional intelligence and project success that would lead to the expectation that a positive relationship would exist in a nonprofit setting. This research raises more questions than it answers. The independent variable of emotional intelligence, the dependent variable of project success, and some specific moderating variables open additional areas of further study. Additionally, several topics were not addressed by this research. The population of nonprofit project managers is difficult to quantify. The

generalization of the findings across a larger population geographically and a variety of nonprofit organizations is difficult.

The independent variable of emotional intelligence was measured with SSEIT. It was found that this study's sample of nonprofit project managers had a statistically significantly higher level of emotional intelligence than other studies. The mean of the sum for the emotional intelligence of this study utilizing the SSEIT is 133.84 (S.D. = 11.09). The finding is similar to the emotional intelligence score of therapists when validating the measure with a mean score of 134.92 (S.D. = 20.25, $n = 37$) (Schutte et al., 1998). Ahmad and Zadeh (2016) researched managers of age 30 years and above having 16 years of education (master's degree) or having 14 years of education (bachelor's degree) with a professional diploma in business/public administration and five years as a manager in Pakistan. Their emotional intelligence scores were significantly lower for both male (Mean = 126.21, S.D. = 10.52, $n = 57$, $p < 0.00001$) and female (Mean = 121.30, S.D. = 14.40, $n = 33$, $p < 0.00001$) than the nonprofit project managers in this research. When testing for the differences in male and female, Clarke (2010a) found the emotional intelligence means were significantly lower for both male (Mean = 118.42, S.D. = 15.09, $n = 123$, $p < 0.00001$) and female (Mean = 130.29, S.D. = 14.36, $n = 207$, $p < 0.02$) than the nonprofit project managers in this research. Van Rooy et al. (2005) studied undergraduate psychology students whose emotional intelligence means were significantly lower (Mean = 129.46, S.D. = 14.21, $n = 275$, $p < 0.003$) than the nonprofit project managers in this research. Lastly, Nigaglioni (2016) who studied the relationship between construction project manager's emotional intelligence and their construction project success also had a significantly lower (Mean = 3.8125, S.D. = 0.3925, $n = 74$, $p < 0.0001$) emotional intelligence than the nonprofit project managers in this research. Through these findings, the research suggests that nonprofit

project managers have an inherently higher level of emotional intelligence than other populations. Further research needs to be completed to support this claim.

The independent variable of emotional intelligence was self-reported. Self-reporting could be biased because the results are the perceptions of one individual. However, the potential for bias was minimized by choosing an emotional intelligence measure that was created for self-reporting and had high levels of internal consistency and discriminant, incremental, and convergent validity.

The dependent variable of project success is a difficult concept to quantify and subjective to bias by self-reporting. It was found that this study's sample had a statistically significantly higher level of project success than other studies utilizing the same survey instrument. The mean for the project success of this study utilizing the PSAQ is 3.45 (S.D. = 0.38). When studying the project success of IT projects, Barnes (2017) found the project success means were significantly lower (Mean = 2.96, S.D. = 0.50, $n = 49$, $p < 0.00001$) than the nonprofit projects in this research. The project success of enterprise resource planning implementation projects was statistically significantly lower (Mean = 3.04, S.D. = 0.72, $n = 51$, $p < 0.00001$) than the nonprofit projects in this research Mullins (2013). The project success of a sample of project managers from the North Carolina Piedmont Triad Project Management Institute and Carolina's Association of General Contractors was statistically significantly lower (Mean = 3.16, S.D. = 0.47, $n = 210$, $p < 0.00001$) than the nonprofit projects in this research (Taylor, 2018). Through these findings, the research suggests that nonprofit projects have an inherently higher level of success than other populations. Further research needs to be completed to support this claim.

The dependent variable of project success was self-reported. Self-reporting could be biased because the results are the perceptions of one individual. A recommendation for further

study is to utilize a secondary measurement of project success where the project sponsor or customers' level of satisfaction with the project outcomes is used. In Nguyen (2015), the self-reported assessment did not result in a significant finding, whereas the second approach did.

The moderating variables of position within the nonprofit organization and size of the nonprofit as measured with both the annual donation and the number of staff or volunteers are statistically significant, suggesting additional research into the effects these moderating variables have on the relationship between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success is needed. There is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.021$) in the emotional intelligence for the different positions elected on the survey instrument. There is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.032$) in the emotional intelligence for the size of the nonprofit in the amount of annual donations. There is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.008$) in the emotional intelligence for the size of the nonprofit in the number of staff or volunteers.

Tables 19, 20, and 21 show the mean emotional intelligence scores for the different positions within and size of the nonprofit in both annual donations and number of staff or volunteers of the nonprofit organization. Further research with larger sample sizes needs to be completed to support these claims.

Table 19

Mean Emotional Intelligence Scores for Different Formal Positions within the Nonprofit

Position	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Executive Director	4.09786	35	.303625
Development/Fundraising Employee	4.12672	11	.334109
Other Employee	4.17540	22	.352497
Volunteer	3.90212	27	.315089
Total	4.06353	95	.334303

Table 20

Mean Emotional Intelligence Scores for Size of Organization in Annual Donations

Donations	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
<\$100k	3.97105	45	.376738
\$100k-\$500k	4.12918	31	.265826
Over \$500k	4.17544	19	.277287
Total	4.06353	95	.334303

Table 21

Mean Emotional Intelligence Scores for Size of Organization in Staff or Volunteers

Staff	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
<50	4.00036	69	.313331
51-250	4.23282	21	.345446
>251	4.22424	5	.330289
Total	4.06353	95	.334303

An additional moderating variable may be the team members themselves. The success of the project may be due to the work of the team members not influenced by the emotional intelligence level of the project manager. This may be true for nonprofit and for-profit organizations and is in need of further research.

A limitation of the current study for the generalization of the results to a greater population and an area of further study is in the sample frame. There was no defined and documented population of nonprofit employees or volunteer project managers. This leaves the researcher with limited options for data regarding participants in nonprofit organizations. Research quantifying nonprofit organizations in the U.S. and project management personnel in those organizations would significantly increase the researcher's ability to study nonprofit organizations. Additionally, by limiting the population to members of nonprofit partnership organizations, the population was limited. Two of the three partnerships were located in Virginia

and one in Pennsylvania. The locations of the partnerships created a sample that was not evenly distributed throughout the entire United States and was completely focused on the eastern United States. The study would need to be run with a sample that includes nonprofit organizations from other regions within the United States to generalize to the results to the entire United States.

Another extension to this research project is to address if these results generalize across a larger population of the United States, and internationally, based on the variety of cultures. Previous studies have shown that emotional intelligence varies by culture (Lin, Chen, & Song, 2012) and nonprofits can differ by culture (Casey, 2016). In order to generalize the results from this study, the study would need to be repeated in not only other geographical locations but also different cultures to determine if there is a significant difference.

It should not be assumed that these results apply equally to all different nonprofit organizations. Research comparing faith-based, healthcare, youth, and other organizations could shed additional light on the impact of emotional intelligence on project success. An additional area of further study is specifically researching one type of nonprofit project at a time. The finding for this study was inconclusive when reviewing the different projects of fundraising, friendraising, image creation, and other. There continues to be a need for further research regarding emotional intelligence and nonprofit project success.

Finally, more information could be gathered to understand the relationship between project managers emotional intelligence and their project success through a qualitative case study. Interviewing project managers who tested low for emotional intelligence versus the ones who tested high may determine common themes as to why the results of this study were insignificant. A case study focused on the team members who have project managers with

different levels of emotional intelligence and high project success could investigate what makes the team members perform regardless of their project manager.

Reflections

The DBA process was a demanding and at times frustrating and overwhelming. It required a discipline that has carried the researcher to this stage of education. Throughout the DBA process, the researcher reinforced her biblical understanding and enjoyed the challenge of applying the biblical principles to the application of work in the secular world.

Exhibiting emotional intelligence in the project management role is a core competency for project managers. The researcher had a strong desire to understand the nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. By presenting this correlation study, the researcher aimed to provide a resource for nonprofit leaders who desire to hire the most qualified people for the project management position. Having served in nonprofit organizations for over 20 years, the researcher has been involved in many projects within nonprofit organizations. The researcher has also experienced differing levels of emotional intelligence in project managers with differing outcomes of project success. The results of the study validated, to a certain degree, the researcher's experience of varying levels of emotional intelligence and project outcomes that do not necessarily line up as normally anticipated.

Researchers have an ethical duty to outline the limitations of studies and account for potential sources of bias. The researcher did not have any possible effects on the participants. The participants were voluntary and unknown to the researcher. When analyzing the data, the researcher made efforts to avoid analysis bias. The researcher did not search for data that confirmed the study's hypotheses or personal experience.

Summary and Study Conclusions

Presented in this section were the findings, applications, and recommendations associated with the quantitative analysis of the data collected from a survey measuring the emotional intelligence and project success of project managers. The findings addressed the four research questions: Is there a relationship between the self-reported emotional intelligence of nonprofit project managers, as measured with the SSEIT, and self-reported overall, fundraising, friend-raising, and public image management project success, as measured with the PSAQ?

The specific problem addressed was the soft skills, such as emotional intelligence, of project managers may be linked to project success, a construct that remains unexplored in the nonprofit sector. The researcher conducted a quantitative correlation study to examine the relationship between the levels of project managers' emotional intelligence and the perceived success of their nonprofit projects. Emotional intelligence was measured using a 33-item instrument developed by Schutte et al. (1998) called the Schutte Self-Reported Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT). Project success was measured using the Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ), a self-reported survey of the perceived success in the areas of overall project success and specific success in fundraising, friend-raising, and public image enhancement.

The study was conducted using participants from nonprofit organizations that were members of nonprofit partnerships and foundations. The findings suggest that there is not a significant relationship between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. The project success literature suggested that soft skills such as emotional intelligence would enhance the leadership abilities, and therefore increase the project success. The average

emotional intelligence of the nonprofit project managers was significantly higher than the emotional intelligence of participants in other studies utilizing the same measurement instrument.

In summary, this study revealed that there is not a significant correlation between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success. It closes a gap in the project management literature by focusing specifically on the nonprofit sector, a topic vastly unexplored. It additionally closed the gap in the emotional intelligence literature by suggesting that nonprofit project managers have a higher level of emotional intelligence than others.

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Appendix A: Nonprofit Partnership of Erie, PA Authorization**Kalivoda, Celene M**

From: Adam Bratton <abratton@youmpp.org>
Sent: Monday, June 04, 2018 1:56 PM
To: Kalivoda, Celene M
Subject: RE: Doctoral Project Permission Request

Celene Kalivoda
Doctor of Business Administration Candidate
Liberty University

Dear Celene Kalivoda:

After careful review of your research proposal entitled "Study of the Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Project Success in Nonprofits," we have decided to grant you permission to access our members.

We will email the survey link directly to our members and send reminders. We would like to request a copy of the results upon study completion and/or publication.

Sincerely,

Adam C. Bratton
Executive Director
The Nonprofit Partnership

Appendix B: Community Foundation of Central Blue Ridge Authorization

7/2/2018

Mail - ckalivoda@liberty.edu

RE: Doctoral Research

Community Foundation of the Central Blue Ridge <info@cfcbr.org>

Mon 7/2/2018 1:35 PM

To: Kalivoda, Celene <ckalivoda@liberty.edu>;

Dear Celene Kalivoda:

After careful review of your research proposal entitled "Study of the Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Project Success in Nonprofits," we grant you permission to access individuals in our database that are over the age of 18 and work for or with a nonprofit in a project management role.

- We will email the survey link directly to those individuals and send reminders
- We are requesting a copy of the results upon study completion and/or publication.

Sincerely,

Menieka Garber
Chief Operating Officer
117 S. Lewis Street, P.O. Box 815 | Staunton, VA 24402
540-213-2150 (office) | 540-242-3387 (fax) | www.CFCBR.org



Appendix C: Community Foundation for Loudoun and Northern Fauquier Counties**Authorization**

7/11/2018

Mail - ckalivoda@liberty.edu

Re: Doctoral Research

Amy Owen <amy@communityfoundationlf.org>

Wed 7/11/2018 5:17 PM

To: Kalivoda, Celene <ckalivoda@liberty.edu>;

We will email the survey link directly to our members and send reminders

We are requesting a copy of the results upon study completion and/or publication.

You'll have to prompt me to send the reminders!

Amy

On Jul 9, 2018, at 4:05 PM, Kalivoda, Celene <ckalivoda@liberty.edu> wrote:

We will email the survey link directly to our members and send reminders

We are requesting a copy of the results upon study completion and/or publication.

Amy E. Owen, President

**Mailing Addresses**

PO Box 342 Leesburg, VA 20178
PO Box 402 Middleburg, VA 20118

Physical Offices

Healthworks Building, First Floor
163 Fort Evans Road, NE
Suite 130
Leesburg, VA 20176

Phone, FAX, and Web

(703) 779-3505
FAX (888) 624-5455
CommunityFoundationLF.org

Appendix D: Informed Consent**CONSENT FORM**

Study of the Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Project Success in Nonprofits
Celene M. Kalivoda
Liberty University
School of Business

You are invited to be in a research study on the relationship between emotional intelligence and project success. You were selected as a possible participant because you work with a nonprofit in a project management capacity within the last 12 months and are at least 18 years of age. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Celene M. Kalivoda, a doctoral candidate in the School of Business at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between a nonprofit project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

1. Complete an anonymous survey via SurveyMonkey about your emotional intelligence and your recent project. This survey should take you approximately 10 minutes.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from taking part in this study.

Benefits to society include an understanding of the relationship between a project manager's emotional intelligence and their project success in the nonprofit sector. This information can influence the hiring and training processes of nonprofit organizations.

Compensation: Participants will not be compensated for participating in this study.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records. Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University or a nonprofit. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Celene M. Kalivoda. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at ckalivoda@liberty.edu. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, Dr. Scott Burch, at vsburch@liberty.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 2845, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: By clicking "Take My Survey", you have read and understood the above information. You have asked questions and have received answers. You consent to participate in the study.

Appendix E: Survey

Thank you for participating in this survey. There are 3 parts: Emotional Intelligence, Project Success, and Demographics. Please complete all questions.

Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT)

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotional or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale shown below to respond to the statement. Answer the first choice that comes to mind without over thinking. There are no right or wrong answers.

- 1.
2. Survey removed to comply with copyright.
- 3.
- 4.
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- 32.
- 33.

Project Success Assessment Questionnaire (PSAQ)

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your last project completed for a nonprofit. After deciding whether a statement is generally true, use the 4-point scale shown below to respond to the statement. If the statement does not fit for your project, please answer N/A. There are no right or wrong answers.

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.
- 11.
- 12.

Survey removed to comply with copyright.

Demographics

1. Was this last project completed for the nonprofit meant to: Fundraise, Friendraise, Increase public image, Other (check all that apply)
2. Gender: (Male / Female)
3. Age (18-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55, 56-65, over 65)
4. Education (less than high school, high school diploma, associate degree, bachelor's degree, master's degree, doctoral degree)
5. Project Management Institute (PMI), Project Management Professional (PMP) Certifications (Yes/No)
6. Position within nonprofit (Executive Director or equivalent, Development/Fundraising employee, Other nonprofit employee, Volunteer)
7. Nonprofit size:
 - a. Approximate annual donations (under \$100k, \$100k-\$500k, over \$500k)
 - b. Approximate number of staff (including full time, part time, volunteer) (under 50, 51-250, 251-500, over 500)

Appendix F: SSEIT Authorization

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*N. S. Schutte et al./Personality and Individual Differences 25 (1998) 167–177***Table 1****The 33-item emotional intelligence scale**

Survey removed to comply with copyright.

Note: The authors permit free use of the scale for research and clinical purposes.

*These items are reverse scored.

Appendix G: PSAQ Authorization

6/12/2018

Mail - ckalivoda@liberty.edu

[Harvard Business Publishing] Re: APPROVED: Permission Request -
Project Success Assessment Questionnaire

Tim Cannon (Harvard Business Publishing - Permissions Team)

Tue 6/12/2018 1:40 PM

To: Kalivoda, Celene <ckalivoda@liberty.edu>;

##- Please type your reply above this line -##

Conversation CCs (if any):

Your request (737915) has been updated. To add additional comments, reply to this email.



Tim Cannon (Harvard Business Publishing)

Jun 12, 1:39 PM EDT

Dear Celene M. Kalivoda ,

Doctor of Business Administration Candidate

Thank you for your email. As long as the requested HBP material is only being used to fulfill the class assignment in the pursuit of your degree, permission would be granted at no charge for use of the HBP Press book excerpt as long as the material is fully cited.

If the thesis/dissertation is later published or distributed as training material, however, then there may be a royalty charge for use of the requested HBP Press book material excerpt that would be based on how much material is used and the print run.

Regards,

Tim Cannon
Permissions Coordinator
HARVARD BUSINESS PUBLISHING
20 Guest St, Suite 700 | Brighton, MA 02135
phone: 617 783 7587
Fax: 617 783 7556
hbr.org |
harvardbusiness.org | hbsp.harvard.edu

Kalivoda, Celene

6/12/2018

Mail - ckalivoda@liberty.edu



Jun 12, 1:16 PM EDT

June 12, 2018

Harvard Business School Publishing

Permissions Department:

As a graduate student in the School of Business at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a Doctor of Business Administration degree. The title of my research project is "Study of the Correlation between Emotional Intelligence and Project Success in Nonprofits" and the purpose of my research is to examine the relationship between the project managers' emotional intelligence and their project success in the nonprofit sector.

I am writing to request your permission to utilize the Project Success Assessment Questionnaire that is part of the book by Aaron J. Shenhar and Dov Dvir titled Reinventing project management: The diamond approach to successful growth and innovation (ISBN: 978-1-59139-800-4). The project managers will complete the PSAQ survey via SurveyMonkey. Appropriate APA citations will be utilized.

Thank you for considering my request. If you choose to grant permission, please respond by email.

Sincerely,

Celene M. Kalivoda
Doctor of Business Administration Candidate

Conversation CCs (if any):Visit our FAQ: <https://hbp-help.zendesk.com/hc/en-us>

This email is a service from Harvard Business Publishing. Delivered by [Zendesk](#)

[L7D3WL-EYG7]

Appendix H: IRB Approval**LIBERTY UNIVERSITY.**
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

August 14, 2018

Celene M. Kalivoda
IRB Exemption 3421.081418: Study of the Correlation Between Emotional Intelligence and Project Success in Nonprofits

Dear Celene M. Kalivoda,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

- (2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
- (i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and
 - (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
The Graduate School

LIBERTY
UNIVERSITY.
Liberty University | Training Champions for Christ since 1971