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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF LEADERS IN HIGHER EDUCATION AND ITS IMPACT ON EMPLOYEES

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Emotional Intelligence of Leaders in Higher Education and Its Impact on Employees

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Dedication

I want to dedicate this dissertation to my husband Orlando and my boys Chrystian and Alexandro. Orlando, you are an amazing partner, and I thank God for you every day; you have been my help and support during this journey. You have always been by my side and have offered your unconditional support helping me achieve my dreams and goals. Thank you for helping me check this one off my list. I could not have done it without you, Mil Gracias. To my boys, Chrystian and Alexandro, you have been patient in allowing me time to follow and chase down this dream along with working a full-time job, and for that, I will always be grateful. I hope that the ups and downs you saw me go through to complete this dream inspire you to chase your dreams, as this is a testimony that with God, anything and everything is possible.

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First, I want to honor God for bringing me through this program. I want to echo what Jude 1: 24–25 notes, "Now to him that is able to keep us from falling, and to present us faultless before the presence of his glory with exceeding joy, to the only wise God our Savior, be glory and majesty, dominion and power, both now and ever."

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Abstract

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. Higher education institutions have a history of high employee turnover. There is a lack in the hiring process within higher education, and the lack of a hiring process causes difficulties when leaders go from faculty or staff roles to administrative and supervisory roles with little training on managing their emotions and employees' emotions, hindering leaders from thriving in their leadership positions. The sampling was leaders from traditional 4-year state institutions in Texas. The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT™) were used to measure the emotional intelligence of leaders. A total of 489 participants were contacted via email, and 124 attempts were made to complete the survey; 54 surveys were fully completed and used for this study. The statistical analyses used included descriptive statistics, correlation coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA), *t* test. No statistically significant differences or relationships among variables were found, and the descriptive statistics found the mean score for overall emotional intelligence score was 91.5, which was slightly over the standard score. The consider developing level of the MSCEIT™ has a standard score range ending at 89. The raw data showed that 20 of the 54 participants had levels of emotional intelligence below the competent level. Therefore, these leaders should consider enhancing these skills as interacting and leading employees is essential to being a leader.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, higher education, employee turnover, employee satisfaction

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction

Higher education institutions are dependent on their employees to be successful (Parrish, 2015). The process of training and developing the workforce in higher education is essential and a significant factor in the success of these organizations (Pham, 2021). Most universities do not have an official process in place for finding, selecting, and training academic leaders, and fewer offer training on administrative roles (Wang & Frederick, 2018).

Effective leadership is connected to and correlated with higher education institutions' long-term well-being and strength (Watson et al., 2019). Employee development is a critical element of institutional advancement and growth (Bryan et al., 2009). This development of higher education institutions is the inescapable path toward the development of employees (Pham, 2021). Researchers found employee behavior is connected to and driven by their emotional intelligence (Hussein & Yesiltas, 2020).

Background

Academic staff who have had limited involvement and experience in administration or leadership positions and responsibilities often fill leadership roles (Parrish, 2015). These leaders do not necessarily intend to fill administrative roles since their initial goal was to become a tenured faculty member, and, as such, they may have insufficient management preparation (Parrish, 2015).

Anderson and Johnson (2006) supported this view, stating there is a lack of leadership development in higher education and most of the leadership developed in these institutions results from individuals learning on the job. This way of filling positions in higher education causes a significant gap in leadership knowledge and professional skills (Anderson & Johnson, 2006; Parrish, 2015). This gap in knowledge and professional skills can negatively influence

one's ability to work well with others (Parrish, 2015). The efficiency with which the leader can identify with the team depends on their level of emotional intelligence (Anderson & Johnson, 2006; Parrish, 2015). Parrish (2015) indicated that increasing evidence connects emotional intelligence to effective leadership in higher education. Parrish (2015) also asserted that despite the recognized benefits of emotional intelligence for higher education leadership, there is still a lack of emotional intelligence among higher education leaders.

Understanding this issue is critical as researchers have demonstrated that leaders play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions (Parrish, 2015). Drigas and Papoutsi (2019) showed a positive correlation between emotional intelligence, leaders, and employees. They asserted that emotional intelligence in the leadership of an organization directly affects the conservation of high-quality employees, organizational productivity, and employee satisfaction, and it creates a healthier work environment. Leaders must be aware of their emotions as they can substantially affect employee turnover, job satisfaction, and productivity (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019).

Statement of Problem

Higher education institutions depend on their leaders to succeed (Parrish, 2015). Researchers found employee behavior is connected to and driven by their emotional intelligence (Hussein & Yesiltas, 2020). Emotional intelligence is defined as one's ability to "regulate, perceive and understand one's own emotions and the emotions of others" (Zeidner et al., 2004, p. 385). Despite the recognized benefits of emotional intelligence in higher education leadership, there is still a lack of emotional intelligence among higher education leaders, and a leader's negative behavior due to a lack of emotional intelligence can cause organizational problems such

as an increase in turnover and employee job dissatisfaction (Hussein & Yesiltas, 2020; Parrish, 2015).

Higher education institutions have a history of high employee turnover (Figueroa, 2015). Researchers in higher education suggested low engagement, low organizational commitment, reduced sense of value, a void of development, heavy workload, and poor communication were significant contributors to turnover (Figueroa, 2015). Turnover is also a financial burden to organizations and negatively affects the bottom line leading to substantial time and money spent recruiting, hiring, and training new employees (Allen, 2017; Chang et al., 2013). Turnover can also have social consequences, as employee turnover can compromise student services (Giao et al., 2020).

Educational leaders play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions as the emotional intelligence of educational leaders affects those they are leading, and emotional intelligence in the leadership of an organization directly affects organizational success (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019; Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). Researchers found that academic staff with limited experience in management roles often fill leadership roles, and most are selected based on their reputation as scholars and professors (Figueroa, 2015). The lack of training has led to a substantial gap in knowledge and professional skills in these leaders, negatively impacting a leader's ability to work well with others and causing administrative and employee turnover to become a cultural norm in higher education (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018).

Most universities do not have an official hiring process to find, select, and train academic leaders (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). The lack of a hiring process is causing universities to face difficulties when leaders go from faculty roles to administrative roles with

little training on managing their emotions and employees' emotions, hindering leaders from thriving in their leadership positions (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative research study was to understand better the emotional intelligence levels of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions and to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs.

Research Questions

RQ1. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities?

RQ2. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from the ranks of faculty?

RQ3. Does the level of emotional intelligence vary between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those who are not selected from the ranks of faculty?

RQ4. What is the relationship between the number of years of experience of the leader and their level of emotional intelligence?

RQ5. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders?

RQ6. Is age correlated with emotional intelligence?

RQ7. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline?

A quantitative research approach was the best method to use for this study. This study's intent was to understand better how the emotional intelligence levels of leaders in the higher education industry, specifically in academic affairs divisions, and how that impacts employees.

This quantitative study measured aspects of emotional intelligence to understand the relationship of emotional intelligence to other variables. The sample subjects were academic leaders from higher education institutions in Texas. The data collection method was an emotional intelligence survey, which consisted of closed-ended questions, communicative attributes, and other aspects held by the participants or their relationships (Allen, 2017). The questions that guided the research consisted of descriptive, comparative, and correlational questions. The SPSS statistical software was used to export, manipulate, and decipher the survey data. Using a quantitative research approach allowed for data analysis using statistics and a mathematical representation of the data collected to compare the significance between the variables and make predictions (Allen, 2017).

Theoretical Framework

This study was influenced by the research of Mayer, Salovey, and Goleman on emotional intelligence. Mayer, Salovey, and Goleman popularized the emotional intelligence theory. In Goleman's (2020) book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*, Goleman presented emotions as a cooperative instrument that could be used to direct decisions and choices (Maxim, 2021). Mayer and Salovey (1993) suggested that individuals with emotional intelligence abilities respond adequately to workplace stress and the emotional conduct of coworkers; therefore, emotional intelligence abilities can significantly enhance job satisfaction (Brou Fossier, 2022). Mayer and Salovey (1993) created a model of emotional intelligence that includes four branches; the first is was managing emotions to achieve and accomplish specific goals; the second is perceiving emotions, consisting of accurately perceiving the emotions within oneself and others. The third branch is understanding emotions and the signal conveyed by the emotions, and the last, using emotions to facilitate thinking (Brou Fossier, 2022).

Further, Goleman (2004) connected the concept of emotional intelligence with the education system, something one can study, learn, and increase through continual exercise and education (Maxim, 2021). Goleman (2004) asserted that emotional intelligence comprises two components: cognitive, intellectual factors and noncognitive, which consist of emotional, social, and personal characteristics. This leads to the notion that emotional intelligence is the ability to generate, identify, and access emotions. In addition, understanding and controlling one's emotions can stimulate intellectual and emotional development (Maxim, 2021).

Emotional intelligence is also rooted in the concept of social intelligence. Thorndike introduced this concept of social intelligence in the 1930s and defined it as the awareness and ability of individuals to manage behaviors, act intelligently in interpersonal relationships, and get along with different individuals (Maxim, 2021; Thorndike & Stein, 1937, p. 275). Ellis, in 1955, proposed that individuals could cogently acquire the ability to govern their emotions (as cited in Maxim, 2021). Further, in 1950, Maslow (as cited in Maxim, 2021) asserted that individuals could build emotional connections from human needs, the need for love, respect, association, and friendship. Additionally, Maslow noted that this way of organizing relationships is a fundamental component of forming attitudes toward individuals (Goleman, 2006a; Maxim, 2021). These concepts will guide and focus this study.

Definitions of Key Terms

Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is how well a person handles oneself and their relationships. Emotional intelligence is generally defined as the "ability to perceive, understand, and regulate one's own emotions and the emotions of others" (Goleman, 2012; Zeidner et al., 2004, p. 385).

Empathy. The ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and find common ground (Goleman, 2004).

Employee productivity. Employee productivity is the notion universally defined as the relation between output or production and input or effort and participation (Knox, 2020).

Employee turnover. Turnover is the actual quantity of employees that exit the organization in a specified time period (Jaramillo et al., 2013).

Faculty. Faculty are individuals who are hired with the responsibility of doing the teaching, research, and service to the institution and the community around them. The time spent on these three responsibilities depends on the institution's mission (Helms et al., 2019).

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is how an employee feels about their job and how much they like their work; it is how much employees are satisfied with their work and working environment (Dayal & Verma, 2021).

Relationship management. Deals with the "awareness of one's emotions and the emotions of others to manage interactions successfully" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 44).

Self-awareness. The ability to continuously and precisely recognize one's own emotions and responses while also understanding one's inclination and predispositions across various situations (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Self-management. The flexibility and awareness of emotions to steer one's behavior to a positive conclusion and to withstand eruptive or problematic behavior (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Social awareness. The ability to stay in tune to pick up information on others' emotions and understand what is really going on with them (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009).

Chapter Summary

Higher education institutions continue to evolve due to new challenges in reducing turnover and increasing productivity and job satisfaction within the organization. Leaders must understand how their emotions and actions affect the individuals around them to be effective. The key asset in an organization is not a product or service. The most central part of an organization, its driving force, is its human capital, and the higher education industry is no exception.

Parrish (2015) indicated that increasing evidence connects emotional intelligence to effective leadership in higher education. Parrish (2015) also asserted that despite the recognized benefits of emotional intelligence for higher education leadership, there was still a lack of emotional intelligence among higher education leaders.

The lack of a hiring process causes difficulties when leaders go from faculty or staff roles to administrative and supervisory roles with little training on managing their emotions and employees' emotions, hindering leaders from thriving in their leadership positions (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018).

The remedying or addressing of these issues in higher education institutions will help advance strategies to develop leaders. Exploring this problem could result in developing target training for leaders moving from within faculty ranks to leadership positions in higher education administration. Addressing these issues could also benefit organizations by increasing employee satisfaction and productivity and decreasing employee turnover.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Higher education institutions are dependent on their employees to be successful (Parrish, 2015). The process of training and developing the workforce in higher education is essential and a significant factor in the success of these organizations (Pham, 2021). Most universities do not have an official hiring process to find, select, and train academic leaders (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). The lack of a hiring process causes universities to face difficulties when leaders go from faculty or staff roles to administrative and supervisory roles with little training on managing their emotions and employees' emotions, hindering leaders from thriving in their leadership positions (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). The purpose of this quantitative research study was to understand better the emotional intelligence levels of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions by further understanding the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved. The research objective was to add to the existing body of emotional intelligence research within the parameters of higher education.

Uniqueness of Higher Education

Higher education institutions are unique organizations as their product is ideas that are not easy to measure, and resources are spread thin among the needs of students and faculty (Foote, 1988; Kim & Rehg, 2018). Power in these higher education institutions is shared among university boards, administrators, faculty, students, and administrators (Foote, 1988; Kim & Rehg, 2018). Universities also answer to public sector leaders and other external boards, which pressure them to increase their efficiency (Blankenberger & Williams, 2020). Effective leadership is required to navigate the various structures and changes connected to these academic institutions (Watson et al., 2019).

Effective leadership relates to the well-being of higher education institutions (Watson et al., 2019). There is an acknowledged limitation in hiring influential and effective leaders in the educational field (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). Fernandez and Shaw (2020) demonstrated that influential academic leaders who are successful when facing adaptive challenges are those with emotional intelligence, as they place the welfare and needs of others above their own. Understanding how these institutions are structured and how leaders influence the organization can help produce knowledge to better support these institutions.

The System of Higher Education in the United States

In the United States, the higher education system is broken down into two parts: junior colleges and community colleges that provide 2 years of education. The second component is traditional universities, where students who enroll intend to complete 4 years of study for a bachelor's degree (Helms et al., 2019; Nolen, n.d.). These traditional universities also provide the option of graduate school, where a student can obtain a master's degree or doctorate.

The United States government plays a limited role in education nationwide. These universities can be either privately funded by foundations, the colleges depend primarily on the student tuition to function, or the state government finances them; these institutions rely heavily on the state government for financial support (Helms et al., 2019; Nolen, n.d.). When funded by the state government, most states develop a system of state universities to ensure that funding and access to higher education are provided to the vast majority of individuals wanting to attend to receive such instruction (Helms et al., 2019; Nolen, n.d.). This study focused on state government-funded universities.

Challenges Facing Higher Education Institutions

In the United States, higher education institutions are facing challenges and financial difficulties due to enrollment obstacles, increased competition, demographic changes, and a decrease in high school graduates (Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017). This is compounded by the need to evolve and operate as a business pushing higher education institutions to become more relentless due to unregulated competition, causing them to become leaner (Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017). The novel coronavirus created another level of challenges (Fernandez & Shaw, 2020). Administrators' response to this crisis was to close campuses and residence halls, moving all their educational programming and activities online to limit the spread of the virus, adding another layer of crisis management skills needed for leaders (Fernandez & Shaw, 2020).

These challenges place pressure on academic leaders to evolve and acquire the skills needed to meet the challenges of this competitive environment (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017). Ruben and Gigliotti (2017) suggested there were defining characteristics influencing academic leaders unique to the higher education sector. Some characteristics consisted of differing core values within the staff, academics, and administration. Some of these characteristics of academic leaders are that they operate with a faint financial bottom line and multiple purposes or missions throughout the organization (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017).

These leaders also encounter an array of different cultures and stakeholders and shadow systems created by individual departments and units who develop their own structures and services, like technology and accounting functions, to function outside of the typical structure (Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017). A qualitative study by Hempsall (2014) on leadership in higher education suggested that leaders face difficulty due to the public funding these organizations

receive. Leaders tend to have a highly visible role that plays out on the front page of local media and newspapers, influencing leaders and changing the way leaders approach and do their job (Hempsall, 2014).

To succeed, higher education institutions need to increase their flexibility to manage and support these challenges via developing leaders and a workforce that can connect key areas by creating strategies used for development and coaching to address the gaps within the workforce and leaders (Filho et al., 2020).

Higher Education Leadership Hierarchy

Administrators in higher education fill different roles; according to Beytekin (2021), leaders in higher education must carry out their duties, influence and build relationships, and stay committed to achieving organizational goals. In a study conducted by Hempsall (2014) in the higher education industry, when asked what makes a good leader, the view of these participants was the need for establishing good relationships, trust-building, and emotional competencies. These are the key to good leadership, suggesting that these skills set leaders apart from each other (Hempsall, 2014). Influential leaders can lead individuals successfully and put the organizational process and goals into action (Beytekin, 2021). Successful leaders can examine and control their emotions and the emotions of others and can persuade individuals; this requires leadership skills at a high level (Beytekin, 2021; Goleman, 2006b).

In higher education, structures and titles vary by institution. The president or chancellor of the institution has the highest rank, and in their role, they focus on strategic and financial planning and sustainability (Helms et al., 2019). The president is responsible for the institution's standards, position, quality, and overall performance. The president and chancellor typically report back to the board or system presidents (Helms et al., 2019).

The following leadership position was the provost or vice president of academic affairs; the individuals in these roles acted as the chief academic officer. This leadership position oversees all educational issues within the institution, including curriculum, faculty, and research (Helms et al., 2019). This role, in general, is selected from the ranks of tenured faculty. Vice presidents are the subsequent vital roles within higher education leadership and administration (Helms et al., 2019). Individuals in these roles oversee various divisions such as human resources, business affairs or finances, student affairs, technology, and development offices; usually, there is a vice president for each division within the institution.

Dean is another title used in higher education (Helms et al., 2019). A dean serves as the chief administrator of a unit; they lead the institution's academic division. Deans are usually appointed from within the faculty ranks and are facilitators and liaisons between the faculty, students, chairs, staff, and other university administrators (Helms et al., 2019). Lastly are the department chairs or program directors or coordinators. The department chairs are appointed from the faculty ranks and are most commonly grouped around a discipline or field; the department chairs are considered the base unit of the academic organization and are the connection between the dean and the department faculty members (Helms et al., 2019).

Faculty are individuals who are hired with the responsibility of doing the teaching, research, and service to the institution and the surrounding community. The time spent on these three responsibilities depends on the institution's mission (Helms et al., 2019). Tenure is a critical component of the faculty's appointment. Academic tenure is a way to defend the principle of academic freedom, has a long history, and is a time-honored tradition in the U.S. higher education system (Helms et al., 2019). Tenure is the individual's indefinite appointment, which can only be terminated or ended under extraordinary circumstances (Helms et al., 2019).

Faculty rank and titles vary by track; for example, for tenured or tenure-track faculty, professor, associate professor, and assistant professor are commonly used. For a nontenure track, lecturer, instructor, professor of practice, research professor, adjunct professor, lecturer, and instructor are widely used (Helms et al., 2019).

Supervision of Faculty

Department chairs are appointed from the faculty ranks and are most commonly the connection between the dean and the department faculty members. The department chairs are tasked with supervising the faculty members to provide substantive and meaningful guidance to the faculty in areas of teaching, research, and service. A survey deployed in the University of Wisconsin system to gather information regarding issues of faculty supervision showed some chairs' concerns about providing meaningful leadership (Rettig et al., 2000). Noting a one-size-fits-all model when dealing with tenured, nontenured, and challenging faculty is meaningless and unsuitable (Rettig et al., 2000). The chairs surveyed acknowledged that oversight of faculty members is often done haphazardly, if at all (Rettig et al., 2000).

Higher Education Leadership and Administration

In higher education, a significant gap has been found when academic staff like faculty who have had limited involvement and experience in administration or leadership positions and responsibilities often are promoted to leadership roles (Parrish, 2015). These leaders do not necessarily intend to fill administrative roles since their goal is to become tenured faculty, and, as such, they may have insufficient management preparation (Parrish, 2015).

Most universities do not have an official process in place for finding, selecting, and training academic leaders, and fewer offer training on administrative roles like program directors, chairs, and deanship (Wang & Frederick, 2018). Most of these administrators are

selected based on their reputation as scholars and professors. Wang and Frederick (2018) noted that one's reputation as a scholar and professor is an essential academic talent, but it does not always translate into effective leadership. Individuals like faculty and administrators might be highly trained and proficient in their field; however, this proficiency does not automatically convert to skills that form a good leader or skills that will lead teams to success. Anderson and Johnson (2006) supported this view stating there is a lack of leadership development in higher education, and most of the leadership developed in these institutions is a result of individuals learning on the job.

Kutchner and Kleschick (2016) suggested hiring talent within higher education is challenging as the institutions grow and new needs arise. Evaluating the demands for more diverse programs and individuals to fill and support these programs is leaving leaders to decide whether to develop talent with internal mentoring, outsource or use temporary consulting, or recruit new talent (Kutchner & Kleschick, 2016). This way of filling positions where leaders do not necessarily intend to fill administrative roles, coupled with universities not having an official process to find, select, and train academic leaders, has caused a significant knowledge gap (Parrish, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). This lack of professional skills can negatively influence one's ability to work well with others and the efficiency with which a leader can identify with the team; emotional intelligence is a professional skill that can help increase efficiency and help the leader connect with the team (Parrish, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018).

Boyatzis and McKee's (2005) research on leadership and emotional intelligence showed how leaders could impact their surroundings and create deep and reverberating relationships with their teams and organizations. They noted that leaders who stood out above others had high levels of emotional intelligence and were attuned and aware of their emotions, the emotion of

others, and the world around them (Alam, 2009; Goleman et al., 2002). Parrish (2015) indicated increasing evidence connecting emotional intelligence to effective leadership in higher education. Parrish (2015) also asserted that despite the recognized benefits of emotional intelligence for higher education leadership, higher education leaders still lack emotional intelligence. Comprehending the hiring process for leaders within higher education and how their emotional intelligence is connected is critical as researchers show leaders play a vital role in the success of higher education institutions (Parrish, 2015).

Emotional Intelligence

In today's environment, higher education establishments face new challenges in reducing turnover and increasing organizational productivity and job satisfaction (Tilden et al., 2012). Masango and Mpofu (2013) stated that retention is central to institutional or organizational survival, growth, and prosperity. Tilden et al. (2012) noted that high staff turnover, increased workload, and demands on existing staff members negatively affect institutions.

Leaders communicate with people daily and have different responsibilities. Some of these multiple responsibilities can be stressful in nature and can take an emotional toll on the leaders (Finnigan et al., 2018). A part of the job of an educational leader is to deal with frustrated and unhappy students, parents, employees, and community members (Finnigan et al., 2018). Leaders are always at the forefront and in the spotlight, and a leader's emotions can positively or negatively influence those around them (Finnigan et al., 2018).

Emotions are a crucial aspect of leadership and play a key role in managing people, as leaders must inspire and motivate employees to achieve shared goals (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Leithwood et al. (2020) asserted that leaders' emotions affect those around them if they are not managed positively, thus affecting performance. A leader's emotions can also influence team

dynamics and hinder communication, which is critical for building strong relationships (Aldawsari, 2020). Unmanaged emotions can interfere with building employee trust and negatively affect the organization (Hejase et al., 2017).

Maulding et al. (2012) found that emotional intelligence plays an essential and profound role in educational leaders. They note that a leader's emotional intelligence is strongly connected with their level of resilience, capacity to recover quickly from difficulties, and ability to succeed as educational leaders. When broken down into interpersonal skill sets and intrapersonal skill sets, which are both facets of emotional intelligence, Labby et al. (2012) asserted that educational administrators prioritize the demands and requirements of the school ahead of their own emotional experience.

Organizational success is dependent on its human capital and its competitive advantage for sustainability (Hussein & Yesiltas, 2020). Comprehending what drives employee behavior is essential. Grobler and van Rensburg (2019) asserted that shared employee perceptions of their workplace impact how employees view their work environment impacting their attitudes and behaviors. Employee behavior is connected to and driven by their emotional intelligence. When employees are confronted with a leader's negative behavior, it can cause issues and strain within the organization (Zeidner et al., 2004).

Emotional Intelligence Theory and Components

There have been numerous theoretical contributions to the field of emotional intelligence. In the 1920s, Thorndike framed emotional intelligence as the ability to comprehend and manage other individuals wisely when in the process of human interactions (as cited in Wood, 2020). Emotional intelligence is also rooted in the concept of social intelligence. Thorndike introduced the concept of social intelligence in the 1930s and defined it as the awareness and ability of

individuals to manage behaviors, act intelligently in interpersonal relationships and get along with different individuals (Maxim, 2021; Thorndike & Stein, 1937, p. 275). Later, in the 1940s, Wechsler labeled it a skill necessary for people to succeed in life (as cited in Wood, 2020). Ellis, in 1955, proposed that individuals could cogently acquire the ability to govern their emotions (as cited in Maxim, 2021). Further, in 1950, Maslow (as cited in Maxim, 2021) asserted that individuals could build emotional connections from human needs, the need for love, respect, association, and friendship. Additionally, Maslow notes that this way of organizing relationships is a fundamental component of forming attitudes toward individuals (Goleman, 2006a; Maxim, 2021).

Only in the last 30 years has emotional intelligence been used as a valid form of aptitude. In 1983, Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences created the foundation underpinning emotional intelligence theory as an accepted phenomenon (as cited in Wood, 2020). The theory laid down a foundation of interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence for contemporary theories of emotional intelligence (Wood, 2020). In 1993, Mayer and Salovey defined emotional intelligence as grasping, demonstrating, understanding, controlling, and managing emotional responses internally and in others. Suggesting that individuals with emotional intelligence abilities respond adequately to workplace stress and the emotional conduct of coworkers; therefore, emotional intelligence abilities can anticipate enhancing job satisfaction significantly. Mayer and Salovey (1993) created a model of emotional intelligence that included four branches: the first was managing emotions to achieve and accomplish specific goals; the second was perceiving emotions, which would consist of accurately perceiving the emotions within ourselves and others; the third was understanding emotions and the signal conveyed by the emotions; and the fourth was using emotions to facilitate thinking (Brou Fossier, 2022).

Goleman (2004) presented emotions as a cooperative instrument that can be used to direct decisions and choices (Maxim, 2021). Further, Goleman (2004) connected the concept of emotional intelligence with the education system, something one can study, learn, and increase through continual exercise and education (Maxim, 2021). Goleman (2012) defined emotional intelligence as how well people handle themselves and their relationships. Emotional intelligence is generally defined as the "ability to perceive, understand, and regulate one's own emotions and the emotions of others" (Zeidner et al., 2004, p. 385). Emotional intelligence comprises two components: cognitive containing intellectual factors, and noncognitive, which consists of emotional, social, and personal characteristics. Leading to the notion that emotional intelligence is the ability to generate, identify, and access emotions. In addition, understanding and controlling one's emotions can stimulate intellectual and emotional development (Maxim, 2021).

Goleman (2004) categorized emotional intelligence into four categories: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Browne, 2019). The first is personal competence, which involves self-awareness and self-management (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Self-awareness is the ability to continuously and precisely recognize one's own emotions and responses while also understanding one's inclinations and predispositions across various situations (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Goleman (2004) defined motivation as the passion for working and the propensity to pursue goals with energy and persistence, asserting that motivation necessitates self-management. Self-management requires flexibility and awareness of emotions to steer one's behavior to a positive conclusion and to withstand eruptive or problematic behavior (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). This involves self-regulation, managing, controlling, or redirecting undisciplined compulsions and moods to think before acting (Goleman, 2004).

The second component, social competence, comprises social awareness and relationship management. Social awareness is the ability to stay tuned to pick up information on others' emotions and understand what is really happening with them (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Relationship management deals with the "awareness of one's emotions and the emotions of others to manage interactions successfully" (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009, p. 44). It provides the skills needed to make the most of every interaction one has with other individuals. Empathy is the ability to understand the emotional makeup of other people and find common ground; therefore, building rapport is essential to the success of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2004).

Emotional intelligence is involved in every aspect of life and is the foundation for a host of critical skills (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Emotional intelligence is not a natural process and requires commitment (Goleman, 2004). This process is unclear to most. As stated by Bradberry and Greaves (2009), "Two-thirds of individuals are typically controlled by their emotions and are not yet skilled at spotting them and using them to our benefit" (p. 13). According to Bradberry and Greaves (2009), "nearly 58 percent of all performance in all job types is impacted by emotional intelligence" (p. 20). Neck et al. (2017) suggested a well-developed emotional intelligence positively affects the individual as well as the organization and, as suggested by Goleman (2004), "the most effective leaders are alike in one crucial way: They all have a high degree of what has come to be known as emotional intelligence" (Goleman, 2004, p. 84). Being an effective leader requires self-examination; in addition, individuals with high self-leadership proficiency and those with high emotional intelligence can also be expected to have self-regulation preparedness (Furtner et al., 2010; Neck et al., 2017). Houghton et al. (2012) stated that individuals require an understanding of the emotional state of themselves and others, asserting that the ability to perceive and understand one's emotions and those of others is a

necessary prerequisite for managing one's emotional processes. Individuals with high levels of emotional intelligence recognize what their emotions mean and how they impact those around them (Houghton et al., 2012).

Emotional intelligence is essential; as Furtner et al. (2010) noted, the better a leader connects and works with others, the more influential the leader. Leaders' emotional intelligence levels can influence employee motivation, job satisfaction, and performance. It can also influence the overall performance and success of the organization (Ljungholm, 2014). Therefore, emotional intelligence is an essential skill that leaders should acquire and develop. Leaders must understand how their emotions and actions affect the individuals around them to be effective. Parrish (2015) asserted that emotional intelligence is connected to effective leadership in higher education. The most critical asset in an organization is not a product or service. The most central part of an organization is its human capital. If one desires the organization to succeed and move forward, one must find strategies to develop leaders (Furtner et al., 2010). Mendelson and Stabile (2019) asserted that leaders in educational institutions are pursuing leadership with certain traits and characteristics with not just training, technical skills, and knowledge in the field; although important, institutions are looking for leaders who incorporate emotional intelligence.

The Hiring Process in Higher Education

Higher education institutions are large and complex. They require a substantial number of positions to enable their operations (Bauman, 2021). Knowing the pivotal role professional staff play, the need for effective hiring and staffing practices is essential (Tolman & Calhoun, 2019). As learning organizations, higher education institutions are expected to surpass the principles of business and industry and are anticipated to go beyond effective human resources practices (Conley et al., 2017). This has been exacerbated due to the coronavirus pandemic of 2020, where

institutions of higher education shed a net total of about 570,000 employees (Bauman, 2021). Higher education institutions struggle to find ways to select qualified individuals (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019).

Hiring Practices

Currently, hiring practices in higher education take a step-by-step approach, which begins with posting the position to try to recruit qualified applicants (Flannigan et al., 2004; Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). Typically, the next step is forming an ad-hoc hiring committee to screen the applications; this process has not changed much since the 1960s (Flannigan et al., 2004; Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). The selection process is limited to reviewing resumes and applications (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). The second component is the interview process, where a series of questions are asked, and a determination is made based on the impressions of those performing the interviews (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). Researchers show that intellect and personality are not enough to form an opinion of an individual and that other skills should be taken into consideration as educational leaders play a vital role in the institution, and the emotional intelligence of educational leaders affects their faculty (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019).

Mendelson and Stabile (2019) suggested that the process for selecting educational staff is in dire need of restructuring and that other components, like emotional intelligence, should be considered. The educational work setting can be highly stressful, and higher education systems should take cues from other fields regarding how they govern themselves (Labby et al., 2012; Mendelson & Stabile, 2019). Researchers cited that there is a need in higher education to find a way to select qualified individuals to form cooperative teams to facilitate and cultivate a collegial atmosphere that builds productive and effective teams within the educational setting (Mendelson & Stabile, 2019).

Productivity

Low emotional intelligence negatively impacts productivity within institutions (Drigas &
Papoutsi, 2019). Employee productivity is a measurement of employee efficiency and a
component that directly affects the organization's profit (Hanaysha, 2016). Unproductive
workers typically jeopardize the organization's cohesiveness and financial bottom line. If
employees are not doing their jobs or completing their tasks, the likelihood of these tasks falling
through the cracks is high (Hanaysha, 2016).

The impact of low productivity at work can result from leaders who lack the direction to
motivate followers and keep them performing efficiently (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019). Emotional
intelligence can significantly influence the quality of work put forward and the degree of
productivity the team can achieve. Drigas and Papoutsi (2019) noted that emotional intelligence
in the leadership of an organization directly affects overall productivity, and Hanaysha (2016)
affirmed that employee productivity is a crucial determinant of organizational profitability and
success.

Drigas and Papoutsi (2019) demonstrated a positive correlation between emotional
intelligence, leaders, and employees. They asserted that emotional intelligence in the leadership
of an organization directly affects the conservation of high-quality employees, organizational
productivity, and employee satisfaction, and it creates a healthier work environment. Leaders
must be aware of their emotions as they can substantially affect employee productivity.
Understanding the implications of a leader's emotional intelligence can help with the
development of approaches aimed at improving the skills and knowledge base of leaders and
followers so they can become productive members of the organization. Consequently, this could
reduce organizational turnover (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019).

Job Satisfaction

An adverse effect of low emotional intelligence is low job satisfaction. Faculty and administrative staff make up a substantial part of academic institutions. In higher education, teaching, research, contribution, and event engagement are impacted by job satisfaction (Khan et al., 2021). The quality of the education provided and the achievement of organizational goals within and outside the organization depends heavily on employees' job contentment and satisfaction (Khan et al., 2021). In today's working environment, leaders must build strong, good working relationships with all employees and colleagues to ensure they remain engaged and committed to their organization (Khan et al., 2021; Salam, 2017). In higher education, academic staff significantly impacts the quality of education and the maturation in which students learn (Khan et al., 2021)—making job satisfaction in academic staff critical to the success of higher education institutions (Khan et al., 2021).

Job satisfaction is associated with emotional intelligence; researchers have found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and job satisfaction (Naderi, 2012). Salam (2017) stated that the employee's experience could profoundly influence job satisfaction. If employees are unhappy with their jobs, several parts of their work are affected, and their performance can affect other employees. Mayer and Salovey (1993) asserted that employees with high emotional intelligence could respond adequately to workplace stress and the emotional conduct of coworkers; therefore, emotional intelligence abilities can enhance job satisfaction significantly. Feyerabend et al. (2018) suggested emotional intelligence has a significant indirect consequence on turnover intentions via job satisfaction. Feyerabend et al. (2018) supported other studies claiming that emotional intelligence positively relates to job satisfaction. Previous research suggests that higher levels of emotional intelligence are associated with higher levels of

job satisfaction among employees, and job satisfaction is critical in sustaining the growth of an organization (Feyerabend et al., 2018). The study by Alam (2009) in a university setting indicated a correlation between job satisfaction and the three components of emotional intelligence.

Salam (2017) asserted that job satisfaction could measure employee turnover, and increased job satisfaction is linked to decreased employee turnover. Furthermore, there is a strong relationship between employee turnover, job satisfaction, and increased emotional intelligence. Goldstein (2014) indicated that as total emotional intelligence increases, so does job satisfaction. There is a significant and positive effect on total emotional intelligence. Increased emotional intelligence traits are essential in supervisor effectiveness and can result in better treatment of employees, therefore increasing employee job satisfaction and, consequently, reducing turnover.

Turnover

A negative effect of low emotional intelligence is turnover. Successful organizations recognize that the retention of employees is integral to their success (Grobler & van Rensburg, 2019). Retaining employees in higher education encourages improved academic services, enhances the quality of curriculum programs, and reduces turnover costs (Grobler & van Rensburg, 2019). Higher education institutions have a history of employee turnover. According to Figueroa (2015), higher education institutions experience high turnover among administrators and faculty, allowing turnover to become a cultural norm. In 2020, the national average annual turnover rate was 57.3% (Ariella, 2021). In 2018, the overall cost of employee turnover amounted to $617 billion in the education field. The average turnover rate was 44.8% in 2020

(Ariella, 2021). The effect is not limited to just some educational institutions. This issue stems across institution types, disciplines, genders, races, and ethnicities (Figueroa, 2015).

Employee turnover is a financial burden to organizations. Institutions must invest substantial time and money in recruiting, hiring, and training new employees (Chang et al., 2013). It can cost more than a year's salary to recruit, train, onboard, and replace an individual, negatively influencing the organization (Allen, 2017). Boushey and Glynn (2012) from the Center for American Progress studied the cost of worker turnover to organizations. These researchers showed that the value of employee turnover was 21% of an employee's annual salary. The study by Carter et al. (2016) acknowledged that employee turnover cost is challenging for organizations. The part of the job that is most impacted is the relationship workers have with supervisors (Carter et al., 2016). It also validated the argument that the quality of supervisors affects employee turnover (Carter et al., 2016). Figueroa (2015) showed the reasons for administrators' turnover are low engagement, low organizational commitment, reduced sense of value, few growth opportunities, a void of staff development, and inadequate compensation.

The challenges for higher education faculty were disparities in income between genders, work conflicts, time constraints, heavy workload, and poor communication with the institution's administration (Feyerabend et al., 2018). More importantly, Feyerabend et al. (2018) suggested that increased emotional intelligence is associated with lower employee turnover intentions. The issue of turnover has not only financial impacts but also social consequences. Turnover can also compromise services offered to external customers, causing organizations to look at turnover intention to understand better the employee's emotions and feelings toward the organization to try to lessen turnover (Giao et al., 2020; Hausknecht & Trevor, 2011).

Summary of Literature Review

In today's environment, higher education establishments are faced with challenges in how to mitigate turnover and increase productivity and job satisfaction within the organization, as retention of employees is of central importance for the sake of institutional or organizational survival, growth, and prosperity (Masango & Mpofu, 2013; Tilden et al., 2012). The lack of a hiring process causes universities to face difficulties when leaders go from faculty or staff roles to administrative and supervisory positions with little training in managing their emotions (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018).

This quantitative research study aimed to understand better the emotional intelligence levels of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions and to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. Mayer and Salovey (1993) defined emotional intelligence as grasping, demonstrating, understanding, controlling, and managing emotional responses internally and in others, suggesting that individuals with emotional intelligence abilities respond adequately to workplace stress and the emotional conduct of coworkers; therefore, emotional intelligence abilities can anticipate enhancing job satisfaction significantly.

Goleman (2004) presented emotions as a cooperative instrument that can be used to direct decisions and choices (Maxim, 2021). Further, he connected the concept of emotional intelligence with the education system, something one can study, learn, and increase through continual exercise and education (Goleman, 2004; Maxim, 2021). Educational leaders have a crucial role in the success of higher education institutions as the emotional intelligence of educational leaders affects those they are leading, and emotional intelligence in the leadership of

an organization directly affects organizational success (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019; Mendelson &

Stabile, 2019).

Chapter 3: Research Method

My research goal for this quantitative research study was to understand better the emotional intelligence levels of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions and to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. I measured aspects of emotional intelligence to understand the relationship of emotional intelligence to other variables. The questions that guided the research consisted of descriptive, comparative, and correlational questions. Using quantitative methods allowed for objectivity to test the theory and claims to support or reject them. A drawback when using a quantitative research method is that it is highly focused on numbers; thereby, one can miss the broader scope of the information it is trying to convey. Collecting quantitative data using statistical tests provided findings that are less open to error and personal feelings and opinions. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) noted that using a quantitative method was appropriate, as it is a scientific method used when wanting to find a connection or relationship; it serves as a way to determine effects and outcomes in a social world. This positivist framework allowed the data retrieved to be translated into numbers and analyzed using statistics and reporting modes (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

This chapter includes the methodology and research design conducted in the study. It outlines the instruments used, the data collection process and procedures, and the data analysis method. This chapter also includes the limitations, assumptions, and ethical considerations carried out to perform this study.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided this study:

RQ1. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities?

RQ2. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from the ranks of faculty?

RQ3. Does the level of emotional intelligence vary between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those who are not selected from the ranks of faculty?

RQ4. What is the relationship between the number of years of experience of the leader and their level of emotional intelligence?

RQ5. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders?

RQ6. Is age correlated with emotional intelligence?

RQ7. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline?

Research Design and Methodology

The research design included descriptive, correlational, and comparative components. The emphasis of this research was on leaders who supervise academic faculty and staff appointed from faculty ranks and those leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from faculty ranks. This design allowed for testing relationships and differences in the mean for one or more variables (Locke, 2009).

Population and Setting

The target population for this research study was academic leaders from state public higher education institutions in Texas. As of 2016, Texas's public higher education institutions comprised 37 public educational institutions, 12 health-related institutions, and 50 community and junior colleges. The sample came from the 37 general public institutions as accessibility to

faculty contact information was readily available on websites, and the pull of faculty in public institutions was more expansive, allowing for surveys to cast a wider net.

Probability sampling was used as the selected sample was generated using random methods, dealing with a narrow population, allowing for robust statistical conclusions and the confidential generalization of the results to the general population (Berndt, 2020). Using simple random sampling was appropriate as the selection of participants was from the target population of interest, in this case, higher education institutions creating a sample pool of all members. Then, participants were selected from the comprehensive list allowing for randomization and high internal and external validity. The comprehensive list was generated by visiting the academic affairs websites of each of the 37 public universities and compiling the names, titles, and contact information into an Excel workbook.

The inclusion criteria were individuals who were leaders within that division and included chairs, directors, and managers. Participation in this study was strictly voluntary, and a request email was drafted and sent to participants in the targeted universities and colleges (see Appendix A).

The criteria for the research population for this study were leaders and supervisors within an academic affairs division. The academic affairs division is an essential part of a university; it provides faculty support, implements policies and procedures regarding academic matters and student learning, and creates new programs and program initiatives (Helms et al., 2019). For example, the academic affairs division typically starts with the provost or vice president of academic affairs who oversees all aspects of academia, including the academic colleges and all academic support divisions. The academic colleges are led by deans who oversee the colleges that award degrees, like a college of business, education, engineering, science and engineering,

etc. Within these colleges, faculty members teach different subjects and courses. The academic support division or academic operations units can encompass student affairs, strategic enrollment, faculty success, the libraries, graduate and postdoctoral studies, and global initiatives. These support division leaders are not necessary appointments from the faculty ranks; nonfaculty personnel hold some of these appointments. I included all these groups in this study.

For this research study, I searched for leaders within the academic affairs division with an administrative or executive title or who currently serve as faculty members and administrators. Examples included department chairs, program directors, managers, coordinators, or other leaders working within the academic affairs division. The sample size was an essential component of this research study to make precise and accurate inferences. The Statistics Kingdom (n.d.) tool was used to assist with computing the effect size calculations; this power analysis resulted in $N = 48$, making this the set goal of participants to conduct this study. The effect size calculation of $N = 48$ was based on the research question with the most variables, Research Question (RQ) 7: Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline?

Materials and Instruments

A survey approach was used to collect data. According to Leavy (2017), survey research is commonly used in quantitative designs allowing researchers to collect a large amount of data from a comprehensive sample, allowing for generalizations to be made about populations. The survey allowed for the collection of experiences and behaviors to understand better how the emotional intelligence of academic leaders in higher education impacts employees. The survey method used included questionnaires that were distributed online. Using questionnaires guaranteed anonymity and allowed the participants to feel comfortable and candid when replying

(Leavy, 2017). The survey included closed questions to limit opinions and allow for consistency among the data being collected from the participants (Leavy, 2017). The administration time was anticipated to be 30 to 45 minutes, and the format was online using Qualtrics to deploy the survey and the multi-health system (MHS) portal for the survey scoring.

Emotional Intelligence Survey

I used the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT™) to measure the emotional intelligence of leaders. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso developed the MSCEIT™ (Mayer et al., 2002; O'Connor et al., 2019). The performance-based assessment assesses emotional intelligence using impersonal ability-type questions that provide a base measure and adequately gauge an individual's ability to recognize and acknowledge emotions and how they work; it tests their ability (Mayer et al., 2002; O'Connor et al., 2019). It tests the individual's ability to understand, perceive, and regulate emotions, and instead of having individuals provide their own subjective assessment of their emotional skills, it measures how well they perform tasks and solve emotional problems. The survey is a self-report instrument consisting of 141 items and it tests four ability branches of emotional intelligence: perceiving and identifying emotions, using emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding emotions, and managing emotions and emotional regulation. The survey takes approximately 30–45 minutes to complete. The survey uses a Likert-type scale from 1, noting not *at all present/not at all effective*, to 5, *very much present/effective*. The MSCEIT™ is designed to test an individual's emotional ability and uses various test sections for each ability.

For perceiving and identifying emotions, the test sections use faces and pictures to help ask the surveyor to identify the subtle emotion. An example of the MSCEIT™ Branch 1, perceiving and identifying emotions, is noted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Branch 1: Perceiving and Identifying Emotions

Note. Example of Branch 1: Perceiving and Identifying Emotions. From "MSCEIT 1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test," by M. Gosling, 2010 (https://mikegosling.com/pdf/MSCEITDescription.pdf). Copyright 2002–2010 Dr. Mike Gosling. All Rights Reserved. Permission granted (see Appendix B).

This task asks the individual to identify how another person feels using facial expressions. Individuals who score low on this branch are not very capable of reading people (Gosling, 2010). This also translates to one's ability to self-manage; individuals who score low on identifying emotions often score low on self-management as their inability to read people often also means a lack in managing emotional situations (Gosling, 2010).

For using emotions to facilitate thinking, the test sections use facilitation and sensations to know how moods impact one's thinking and ask surveyors to relate various feelings and sensations to emotions (Gosling, 2010). An example of the MSCEIT™ Branch 2, using emotions to facilitate thinking, is noted in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Branch 2: Using Emotions to Facilitate Thinking

What mood(s) might be helpful to feel when meeting in-laws for the very first time?

	Not Useful				*Useful*
Tension	1	2	3	4	5
Surprise	1	2	3	4	5
Joy	1	2	3	4	5

Note. Example of Branch 2: Using Emotions to Facilitate Thinking. From "MSCEIT 1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test," by M. Gosling, 2010 (https://mikegosling.com/pdf/MSCEITDescription.pdf). Copyright 2002–2010 Dr. Mike Gosling. All Rights Reserved. Permission granted (see Appendix B).

This branch has two components: sensing empathy and facilitation of mood tasks. It measures how one compares different emotions to different situations, such as temperature, color, and light (Gosling, 2010). A high score in this area indicates one can generate certain emotions and then compare them to sensory modalities in a task (Gosling, 2010). For example, one does not have a strong ability to empathize with someone who is feeling sad because they did not win a senior position at work (Gosling, 2010).

For understanding emotions, the test section asks multiple-choice questions about how emotions change over time and about emotion vocabulary definitions (Papadogiannis et al., 2009). For the ability to manage emotions, the survey asks to indicate the effectiveness of various solutions to internal problems (Gosling, 2010). An example of MSCEIT™ Branch 3, understanding emotions, is depicted in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Branch 3: Understanding Emotions

Example of MSCEIT Branch 3 – Understanding Emotions

Tom felt anxious, and became a bit stressed when he thought about all the work he needed to do. When his supervisor brought him an additional project, he felt _____. (Select the best choice.)

a) Overwhelmed

b) Depressed

c) Ashamed

d) Self Conscious

e) Jittery

Note. Example of Branch 3: Understanding Emotions. From "MSCEIT 1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test," by M. Gosling, 2010 (https://mikegosling.com/pdf/MSCEITDescription.pdf). Copyright 2002–2010 Dr. Mike Gosling. All Rights Reserved. Permission granted (see Appendix B).

This task asks the individual to analyze various emotions and convene simple emotions into compound emotions (Gosling, 2010). For example, it evaluates what emotions are combined to form the feeling of contempt (Gosling, 2010). It assesses one's knowledge of how emotions transition from one to another, for instance, how anger can change to rage (Gosling, 2010).

Branch 4, managing emotions and emotional regulation, asks the participant to indicate the effectiveness of various solutions to problems involving other people. An example of this task is noted in Figure 4.

Figure 4

Branch 4: Managing Emotions and Emotional Regulation

Debbie just came back from vacation. She was feeling peaceful and content. How well would each action preserve her mood?

Action 1: She started to make a list of things at home that she needed to do.

 Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 2: She began thinking about where and when she would go on her next vacation.

 Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Action 3: She decided it was best to ignore the feeling since it wouldn't last anyway.

 Very Ineffective..1.....2.....3.....4.....5..Very Effective

Note. Example of Branch 4: Managing Emotions and Emotional Regulation. From "MSCEIT 1 Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test," by M. Gosling, 2010 (https://mikegosling.com/pdf/MSCEITDescription.pdf). Copyright 2002–2010 Dr. Mike Gosling. All Rights Reserved. Permission granted (see Appendix B).

This task measures the ability to regulate emotions in decision-making and incorporate one's feelings and the emotions of others when making decisions that impact others (Gosling, 2010). It combines the components of managing emotions in self and others. Individuals who score low in self-management tend to misread situations, blame others, or feel like victims. Those with high scores in self-management take responsibility for their feelings and try to see the events from different perspectives. Individuals who score low in social management might lack the skill to identify and empathize with others' situations and emotions. Individuals who score high in social management can understand and empathize with the feelings of others, allowing others to have negative emotions and not take them personally (Gosling, 2010).

MSCEIT™ Scoring, Reliability, and Validity

Mayer et al. (2002) provided two answer keys for the MSCEIT™ survey. According to Papadogiannis et al. (2009), the first scoring is based on the consensus that a significant number of participants have converged upon better and worse answers; for example, if 70% of the normative sample selected "A" for a particular item, an individual who chooses option "A" would receive a score of 0.70 for that item. If 21% selected "B," a response of "B" would yield a score of 0.21; the scoring is titled general council survey. The second is the expert scoring, based on a panel of emotion experts drawn from the International Society of Research in Emotions. The process was similar to the method used for the standard IQ tests. The pool consisted of 21 experts, 10 men and 11 women. The ages ranged from 30 to 52 years, with a mean age of 39.4 years (SD = 6.40). For example, if 18 of the 21 experts chose "D" as the correct response for a given item, a response of "D" was assigned a score of 0.86 (18 divided by 21; Papadogiannis et al., 2009). According to Mayer et al. (2002), the general consensus-based and expert-based correlation ranged from r = 0.93 to 0.99 for task scores, branch, area, and total; therefore, the frequency is high.

The MSCEIT™ was developed in 2002, its most recent version was published in 2003, and the reliability and validity evidence is readily available. Mayer et al. (2002) reported the overall score of reliability to be greater than 0.90; the reliability for the internal consistency of the four branches ranges from 0.76 to 0.91. The MSCEIT™ content was designed to align with the four-branch ability theory of emotional intelligence and has been refined based on decades of research on emotional intelligence. Thus, it has face validity as it has been proven to measure what it is supposed to measure, in this case, levels of emotional intelligence. The MSCEIT™ has proven to have construct validity, demonstrating both discriminant and convergent validity,

providing specific and distinctive information, and is not redundant compared to other tests

measuring emotional intelligence (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). According to McEnrue and

Groves (2006), the MSCEIT™ has been shown to have more content validity when compared to

other instruments measuring emotional intelligence like the ECI, EQ-i, and the EIQ. The

MSCEIT™ has factorial validity; using a sample of over 2,112 individuals, a four-factor model

showed a norm fit index with an array from 0.98 to 0.99 across models (Papadogiannis et al.,

2009).

For this study, participants took the MSCEIT™ online via a link provided. After the

administration was completed, the MHS Talent Assessment Portal was used to score the survey

and receive the scored data set reports. The expert scoring was used to obtain an overall total

emotional intelligence score. The MSCEIT™ survey also collected data about the individual's

gender, age, ethnicity, and level of education.

Data Collection and Analysis

The survey administration tool used was Qualtrics. Qualtrics is an online program to

create surveys distributed to various participants to collect information and analyze survey data.

Qualtrics allowed for the creation, distribution, collection, and ability to do a preliminary

analysis of the data. The demographic information collected was gender, ethnicity, age, title,

education, type of institution, and the number of years in the current title. The sampling was a

combination of male and female leaders. For the MSCEIT™, the emotional intelligence

instrument, the MHS portal was used to score and retrieve the raw data results. The expert

scoring was used to score the participants' total emotional intelligence score.

The goal of research and science is to understand and uncover relationships between

different phenomena (Locke, 2009). The independent variable is believed to impact or influence

the dependent variable; in this study, the independent variable was emotional intelligence. The statistical analyses used included descriptive statistics, correlation coefficient, analysis of variance (ANOVA), *t* test, and regression analysis.

Descriptive

A descriptive approach was used to observe and measure the variable without manipulating it. This approach was used for RQ1, What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities; and RQ2, What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from the ranks of faculty.

For RQ1: to find the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities, a histogram was produced to display the data distribution and look for outliers. Descriptive statistics were generated to find the mean, range, and standard deviation. For RQ2: to find the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from faculty ranks, descriptive statistics were generated to find the mean, range, and standard deviation.

Correlation

This research study also included correlation questions to examine the relationships between variables such as emotional intelligence and years of experience, age, and gender. The research questions in this category were as follows: RQ4, What is the relationship between the number of years of experience of the leader and their level of emotional intelligence; and RQ6, Is age correlated positively with emotional intelligence?

For RQ4, inferential statistics were used; a Pearson correlation coefficient was run to see if there was a significant relationship between the years of experience and the level of emotional intelligence.

For RQ6: to find if age is correlated positively with emotional intelligence, a Pearson correlation was used to determine if there was a significant relationship between age and emotional intelligence. The Pearson correlation coefficient was used to compare and measure the strength of the linear association and how far away all the data points were from the line.

The data produced by the correlation tests if there was a possible linear association between the two continuous variables and developed a coefficient that will indicate the strength of the relationship. A scatter plot was generated to show the relationship between emotional intelligence and these variables.

Comparison

Comparative questions were used to examine differences between groups. The following research questions fall into this category: RQ3, Does the level of emotional intelligence vary between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not selected from the faculty ranks?; RQ5, Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders; and RQ7, Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline?

For RQ3, a histogram was generated to help summarize the data and to show distributions of the data. Then a *t* test was calculated to determine if there was a significant difference between the levels of emotional intelligence of academic leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not selected from the faculty ranks.

For RQ5, a histogram was generated to help summarize the data and to show distributions of the data. To find if there was a difference between genders, a *t* test was calculated as there were two groups.

For RQ7, an ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were significant differences in emotional intelligence based on discipline. The data depicted on the frequency distribution tables helped determine if there was a difference in emotional intelligence and discipline. A Tukey post hoc test was planned if the overall *F* test was significant.

Researcher's Role

My role as the researcher was to establish the most effective, systematic, and logical way to gather the data from the selected group and input it into the SPSS software. I analyzed the data looking for various aspects of the correlational component. I tested whether variables were related and, if so, how strong these variables were without manipulating them. There was also a descriptive element to define and illustrate characteristics, averages, and trends without manipulating them and a comparison component to examine the difference between the two groups being tested. Lastly, I reported the findings and made generalizations about the data.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical considerations that guided this study were scientific integrity, dignity, and the conservation of human rights. All the data collected was confidential. The privacy of all the participants in this study was protected. This included the removal of participant names and replacement with identifiers, saving data on encrypted drives, and placing any data printing results in locked cabinets. All methods for handling and storing data, including personal computers and portable storage devices, also complied with Abilene Christian University's policies. Only adults were solicited, and research participants' protection was at the forefront.

To ensure human research is conducted ethically and morally, the institutional review board (IRB) acts as a governing body guiding and ensuring the studies conducted by researchers are free of possible abuses and meet ethical standards. The IRB assessed the levels of risk to research participants by reviewing the questions and research design. For this research plan, I submitted the research questions and noted what the participants were asked to do, ensuring it was understandable to the participant and removing all jargon that could cause confusion. The survey instrument was also submitted and included the reliability and validity information. The participants in the study volunteered to participate. Participants were able to make informed decisions.

The survey instrument included a statement informing the participant of their confidentiality. As the researcher, it was vital to implement safeguards to protect participants. The survey was deployed online; therefore, technical safeguards were set in place, and the electronic data was password protected. Identifying information collected was only used for tracking purposes; all identifiable information was removed, and responses were separated from personally identifiable information. Participants were able to withdraw from the online survey at any time without consequences.

The information related to the questionnaire only retrieved information regarding the individual's measure of emotional intelligence within the competencies in four branches: perceiving and identifying emotions, using emotions, understanding emotions to facilitate thinking, and managing emotions and emotional regulation. The application to the IRB was submitted for review and approval as human subjects were used; Abilene Christian University's IRB approved the study and provided the approval to move forward on August 29, 2022 (see Appendix C).

Limitations, Delimitations, and Assumptions

Assumptions in this study were that participants would answer the questionnaire truthfully, confidentiality would be safeguarded as surveys were conducted online, and no identifying information would be collected.

A limitation of this research study was the use of the quantitative research approach and the use of closed-ended questions. Participants could not explain their answers as the questionnaire used a 5-point scale. The study's generalizability was also limited, as only individuals working in a leadership position in the academic affairs division of a Texas state university were requested to complete the survey. Another limitation was that the questionnaire was self-reported, which can be susceptible to misleading responses as participants might answer questions strategically or in a socially desirable manner. According to Tett et al. (2012), participants are less likely to misrepresent or fake their answers when the response is used for research or self-development.

A delimitation was that only Texas college and university participants were considered. The group was narrowed further as they also were required to work as an academic affairs leader. Thus, the results of the study could be generalized to administrators who (a) work in higher education institutions, (b) in the state of Texas, (c) who started as faculty and transitioned to administration, and (d) employees within academic affairs.

Summary of Research Method

In higher education, the lack of a hiring process causes universities to face difficulties when leaders go from faculty or staff roles to administrative and supervisory roles with little training on managing their emotions and employees' emotions, hindering leaders from thriving in their leadership positions (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). The purpose of this

research study was to understand better the emotional intelligence levels of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions by further understanding the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs.

The criteria for the research population for this study were leaders and supervisors within the academic affairs division in a Texas state 4-year university. The instrument used was the MSCEIT™, a questionnaire designed to measure the emotional intelligence of individuals. The MSCEIT™ content was designed to align with the four-branch ability theory of emotional intelligence and has been refined based on decades of research on emotional intelligence.

With this study, I aimed to test the relationships between variables and make predictions to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. The research objective was to add to the existing body of emotional intelligence research within the parameters of higher education.

Chapter 4: Results

The results of the data analysis are presented in this chapter. This quantitative research examination was a study to understand the emotional intelligence levels of leaders in the higher education industry and to further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within the academic affairs units. A quantitative research approach was the best method to use for this study.

The emphasis of this research was to explore aspects of emotional intelligence to identify the relationship of emotional intelligence to other variables. The research design consisted of descriptive, correlational, and comparative relationships between academic leaders' emotional intelligence in higher education within academic affairs. The research design centered on leaders who supervise academic faculty and staff appointed from faculty ranks and those leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from faculty ranks. Locke (2009) suggested that this type of design allows for testing relationships and differences in the mean for one or more variables.

The survey administration tool used was Qualtrics for the creation, distribution, collection, and ability to do a preliminary analysis of the data. The demographic information collected was gender, ethnicity, age, title, education, type of institution, and the number of years in the current title. The sampling was a combination of male and female leaders in traditional 4-year institutions in Texas. The MSCEIT™ was used to measure the emotional intelligence of leaders. The performance-based assessment assesses emotional intelligence using impersonal ability-type questions that provide a base measure and adequately gauge an individual's ability to recognize and acknowledge emotions and how they work. The link to the questionnaire was

embedded within the Qualtrics survey and sent to participants using the student email via Abilene Christian University. The email with the Qualtrics link was sent to 489 participants, and 124 attempts were made to complete the survey. Fifty-four surveys (11%) were fully completed and used for this study. The MHS portal was used to score and retrieve the raw data results. The expert scoring method was used to score the participants' total emotional intelligence score.

The goal of research and science is to understand and uncover relationships between different phenomena where the independent variable is believed to impact or influence the dependent variable; in this study, the independent variable was emotional intelligence (Locke, 2009). The statistical analyses used included descriptive statistics, correlation coefficient, ANOVA, t test, and regression analysis.

The following questions guided the study:

RQ1. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities?

RQ2. What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from the ranks of faculty?

RQ3. Does the level of emotional intelligence vary between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those who are not selected from the ranks of faculty?

The hypotheses developed for this data set are as follows:

H_0: There is no difference in emotional intelligence levels among leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not appointed from the faculty ranks.

H_1: Leaders who were not selected within faculty ranks have higher levels of emotional intelligence than leaders who were appointed from faculty ranks.

RQ4. What is the relationship between the number of years of a leader's experience and their level of emotional intelligence?

The hypotheses developed for this data set are as follows:

H_0: There is no difference in emotional intelligence in the relationship between the number of years of leaders' experience and their level of emotional intelligence.

H_1: Individuals with more years of experience have higher levels of emotional intelligence.

RQ5. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders?

The hypotheses developed for this data set are as follows:

H_0: There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence levels and genders.

H_1: There is a significant difference between genders.

RQ6. Is age correlated with emotional intelligence?

The hypotheses developed for this data set are as follows:

H_0: There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence levels and age.

H_1: The older an individual, the higher the levels of emotional intelligence.

RQ7. Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline?

The hypotheses developed for this data set are as follows:

H_0: There is no significant difference among disciplines.

H_1: There is a significant difference among different disciplines.

Demographic Information

The sample of participants used for this research study was leaders within the academic affairs division with an administrative or executive title or who currently serve as faculty

members and administrators. Examples included assistant vice provost, department chairs, program directors, managers, coordinators, or any other leaders who worked within the academic affairs division. Tables 1, 2, and 3 depict demographic information about the participants. Table 1 shows the levels of education of the participants. The data illustrates a highly educated group where 68% have a doctoral degree. The data in Table 2 provides the gender breakdown, 61% (33) of the participants were female, and 39% (21) were male. The results in Table 3 show that the largest groups of participants fell within the 45–54 age group, making up 39%, followed by the 35–44 age group, which comprised 26% of the sample.

Table 1

Highest Level of Education for Participants

Highest Level of Education	Number of Participants	%
Bachelors	10	19
Masters	6	11
Doctorate	37	68
Undisclosed	1	2
Total	54	100

Table 2

Gender Distribution for Participants

Gender	Number of Participants	%
Male	21	39
Female	33	61
Total	54	100

Table 3

Age Distribution for Participants

Age	Number of participants	%
25–34	3	6
35–44	14	26
45–54	21	39
55–64	12	22
65–74	3	6
75 and Older	1	1
Total	54	100

Results for Descriptive Research Questions

Research Questions 1 and 2 are descriptive questions. RQ1 examined levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities; a histogram was produced to display the data distribution and to seek outliers. Descriptive statistics were used to find the mean, range, and standard deviation. For RQ2: to find the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from faculty ranks, descriptive statistics were generated to find the mean, range, and standard deviation.

The MSCEIT™ score range captures an estimate of one's actual ability. The ranges are defined as follows:

Improve: standard score range 69 or less: For this score range, a person might struggle in this area, depicting the need for one to enhance their skills and knowledge (Gosling, 2010, p. 11).

Consider developing: standard score range 70–89: This scoring range portrays the need for enhancing one skill since this might not be a strength and is important in one's daily life (Gosling, 2010, p. 11).

Competent: standard score range 90–109: The individual has sufficient skill to perform in this area with some degree of success (Gosling, 2010, p. 11).

Skilled: standard score range 110–129: This is an area of strength (Gosling, 2010, p. 11).

Expert: standard score range 130+: This scoring range depicts an individual with a high level of expertise in this area, suggesting one may have great capacity and ability (Gosling, 2010, p. 11).

For RQ1, the levels of emotional intelligence for the 54 participants can be seen in Table 4 and Figure 5. The overall mean for leaders was 91.94, with a standard deviation of 10.56. Most leaders fell within the competent range noted in Table 5, for which scores range from 90–109. Individuals surveyed have sufficient skills in emotional intelligence and perform in this area with some degree of success. As seen in Table 4, the kurtosis was 2.016. According to Kallner (2018), a kurtosis of 3 is recognized as a mesokurtic or normal distribution. The skewness, as depicted in Table 4, was -.534. Kallner (2018) suggested that a result between -.5 and +.5 is approximately symmetric, and the data is fairly symmetrical. The *t* test and correlation tests used in this research study are robust and can handle the skewness and kurtosis depicted in Table 4.

Table 4

Levels of Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education Leaders Descriptive Statistics

Source	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Kurtosis	Skewness
Faculty	54	91.95	10.56	2.016	-.534

Figure 5

Levels of Emotional Intelligence for Higher Education Leaders
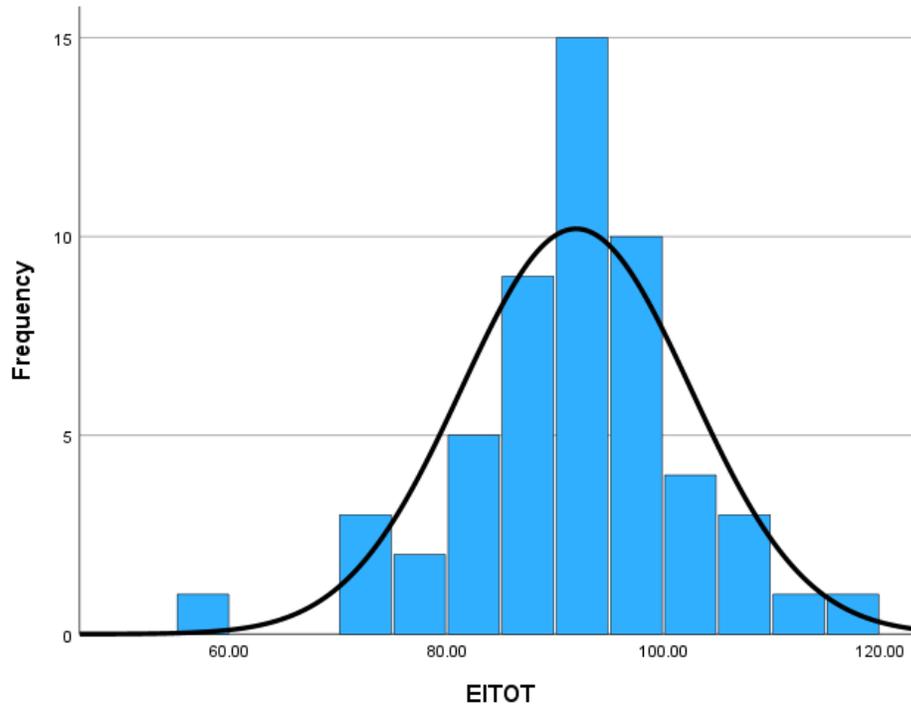
Note. M = 91.95; *SD* = 10.57; *N* = 54

Table 5

Levels of Emotional Intelligence in Higher Education Leaders MSCEIT Category

MSCEIT category	Standard score	Participant score ranges
Improve	69 or less	1
Consider Developing	70–89	19
Competent	90–109	32
Skilled	110–129	2
Expert	130+	0
Total Participants		54

For RQ2, What are the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who were not appointed from faculty ranks, descriptive statistics were used to find the mean, range, and standard deviation. The data shown in Table 6 and Figure 6 displays that for faculty ($n = 33$), the mean was 91.91, and the standard division was 8.16. For the nonfaculty ($n = 21$), the mean was 92, and the standard deviation was 13.75.

Table 6

Levels of Emotional Intelligence for Faculty and Nonfaculty Descriptive Statistics: RQ2

Source	N	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Faculty	33	91.91	8.16	74.30	108.64
Not Faculty	21	92.00	13.75	55.33	117.91
Total	54	91.94	10.56	55.33	117.91

Figure 6

Levels of Emotional Intelligence for Faculty and Nonfaculty: RQ2
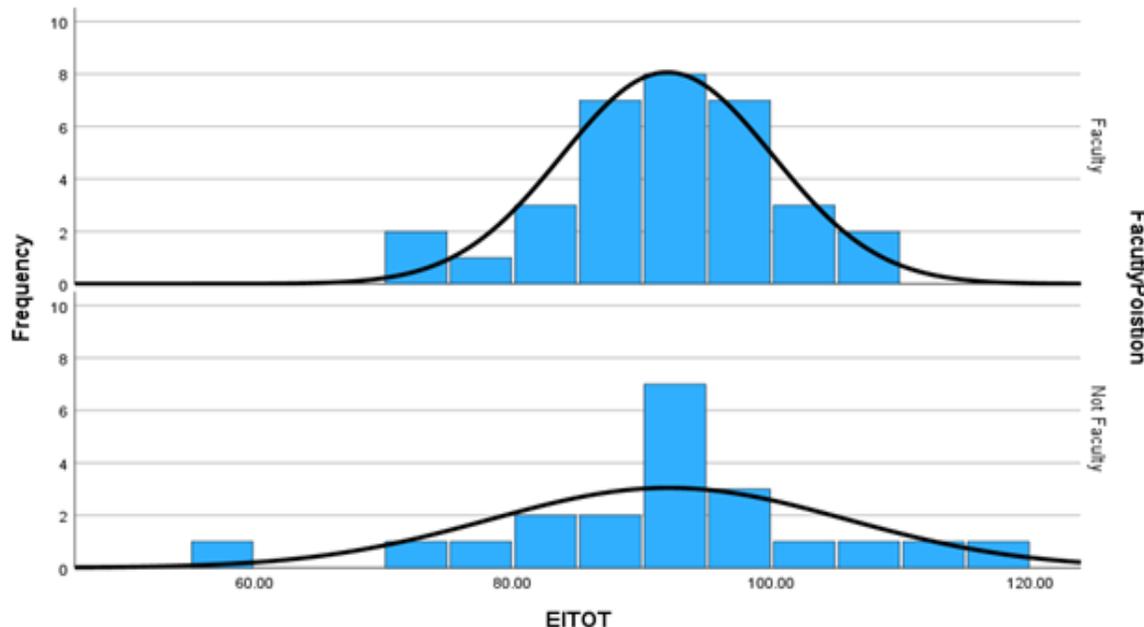
Results for Comparison Research Questions

Research Questions 3, 5, and 7 are comparison questions. For RQ3, a histogram was generated to help summarize the data and show distributions. Then a *t* test was calculated to determine if there was a significant difference between the levels of emotional intelligence of academic leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not selected from the faculty ranks. For RQ5, to find if there was a difference between genders, a *t* test was run. For RQ7, a one-way ANOVA test was conducted to determine the relationship between the variables to find if there were significant differences in emotional intelligence based on discipline.

The results for RQ3, Does the level of emotional intelligence vary between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those who are not selected from the ranks of faculty, can be seen in Table 7 and Figure 7.

Table 7

Levels of Emotional Intelligence for Faculty and Nonfaculty Descriptive Statistics: RQ3

Source	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Faculty	33	91.91	8.16	74.30	108.64
Not Faculty	21	92.00	13.75	55.33	117.91
Total	54	91.94	10.56	55.33	117.91

Figure 7

Levels of Emotional Intelligence for Faculty and Nonfaculty: RQ3
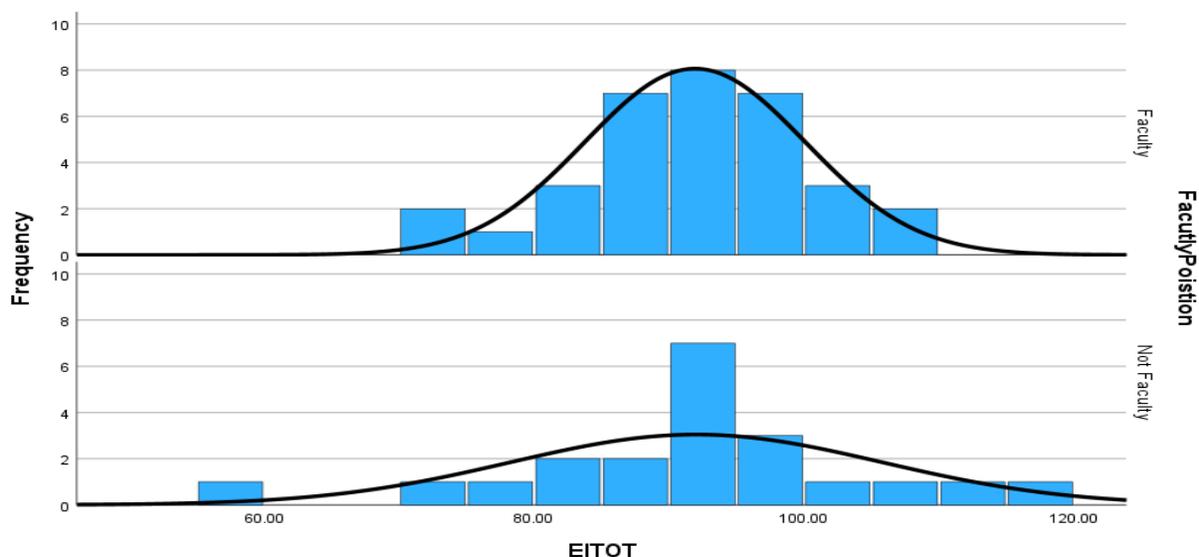
The hypotheses developed for this data set were as follows:

H_0: There is no difference in emotional intelligence levels among leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not appointed from the faculty ranks.

H_1: Leaders who were not selected within faculty ranks have higher levels of emotional intelligence than leaders who were appointed from faculty ranks.

When comparing the 33 participants who were from faculty ranks ($M = 91.91$; $SD = 8.16$) to the 21 participants who were nonfaculty ($M = 92$; $SD = 13.75$), there was no significant difference, $t(52) = -.562$, $p = .075$. Table 7 and Figure 7 results show no significant variance in emotional intelligence between academic-level leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not selected from the faculty ranks. Therefore, hypothesis H_1 was rejected, and H_0, there is no difference in emotional intelligence levels among leaders appointed from the faculty ranks and those not appointed from the faculty ranks, was supported. Those from nonfaculty titles had a slightly higher mean at 92.

The results for RQ5, Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders, can be seen in Table 8 and Figure 8.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence and Genders

Source	N	M	SD
Male	21	90.92	13.40
Female	33	92.59	8.45
Total	54		

Figure 8

Levels of Emotional Intelligence by Gender: Male (1) and Female (2)
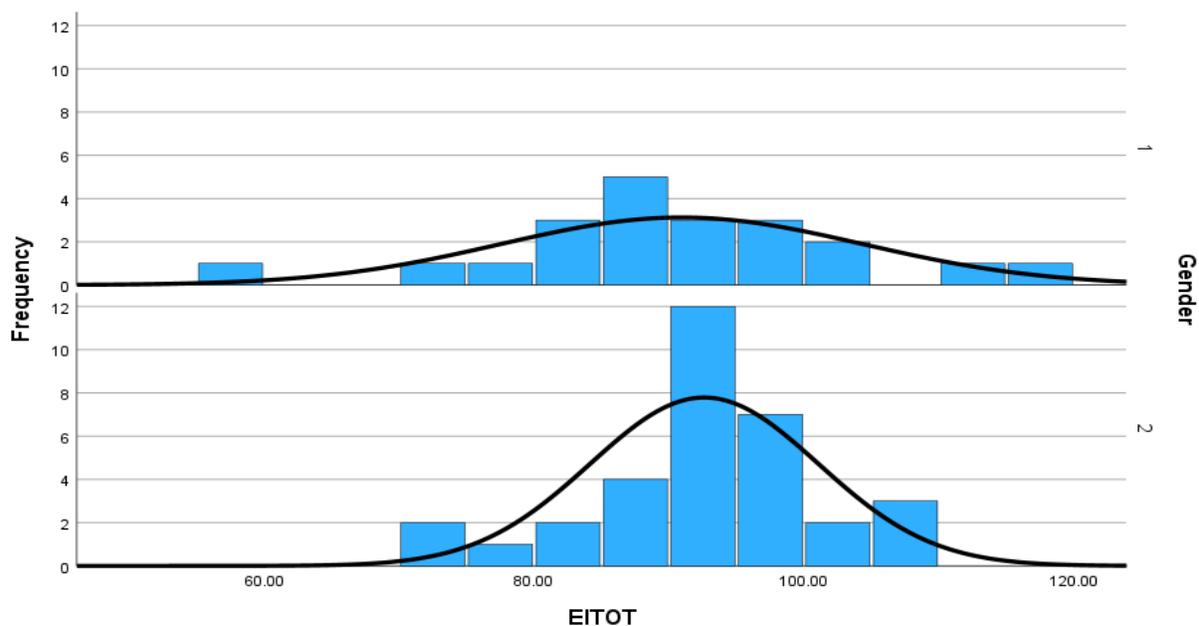
There were no meaningful differences found between male ($n = 21$; $M = 90.92$, $SD = 13.40$) and female ($n = 33$; $M = 92.59$, $SD = 8.45$) leaders (see Table 8).

The hypotheses developed for this research question were as follows:

H$_0$: There is no significant difference in emotional intelligence levels and genders.

H$_1$: There is a significant difference between genders.

For RQ5, H$_1$ was rejected, and H$_0$ was supported, as there was no statically significant difference between genders.

For RQ7, Are there significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the discipline; can be seen in Tables 9 and 10 and Figure 9.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics for Emotional Intelligence and Disciplines

Discipline	*N*	*M*	*SD*	Minimum	Maximum
Business	15	92.81	8.02	79.53	108.31
Humanities	9	91.09	6.52	81.15	100.11
Natural and Applied Sciences	9	90.72	7.05	78.90	98.64
Social Sciences	21	92.22	14.56	55.33	117.91
Total	54	91.94	10.56	55.33	117.91

Table 10

Comparison of Groups Between Disciplines

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*P*
Between Groups	31.81	3	10.93	.093	.964
Within Groups	5884.60	50	117.69		
Total	5917.41	53			

Figure 9

Levels of Emotional Intelligence by Discipline: Business (1); Humanities (2); Natural and Applied Sciences (3); and Social Sciences (4)
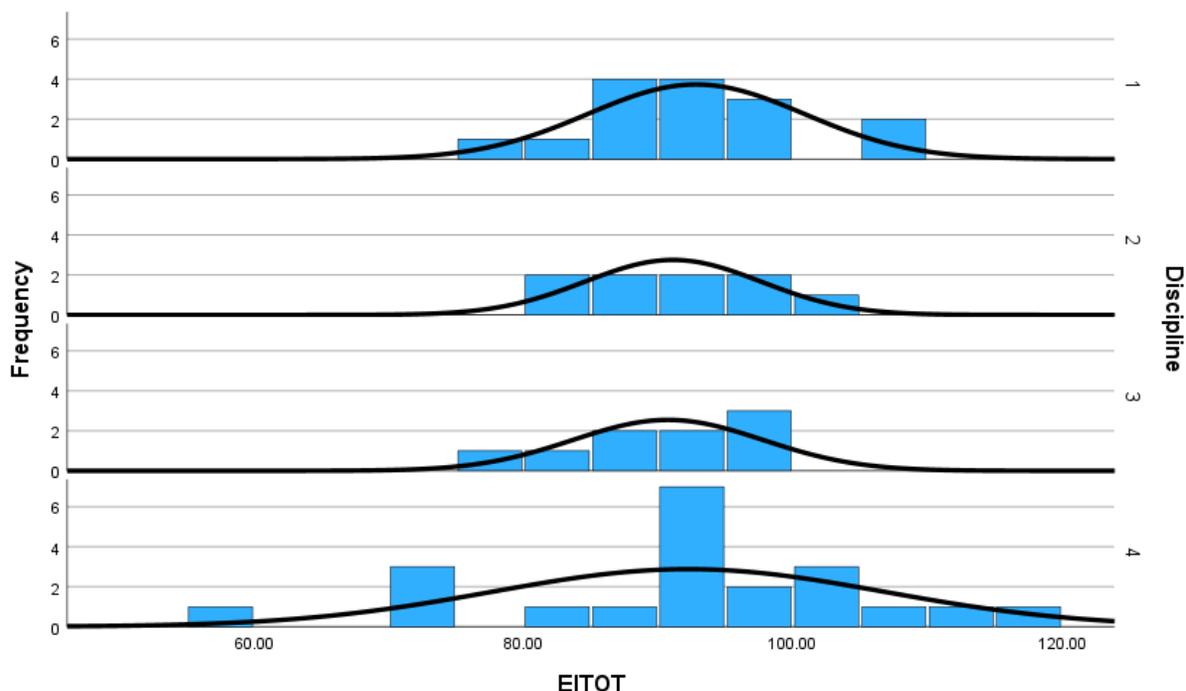
In Table 9, the results are processed and analyzed for individuals in the business discipline with a mean of 92.81; for humanities, the mean was 91.09; for natural and applied sciences, the mean was 90.72; and for social sciences, the mean was 92.22. A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the effects of one's academic discipline on emotional intelligence. The one-way ANOVA results depicted there was no statistically significant difference in emotional intelligence between at least two groups .093 (between groups, $df = 3$; within groups, $df = 50$). Even though the mean for the business discipline is higher than the other groups, the difference among the groups, as seen in Table 10, is not considered statistically significant since the significance p is .96 (which is greater than the .05 α level). A Tukey's HSD (honestly significant difference) test for multiple comparisons was not needed as the mean value of

emotional intelligence was not significantly different among the disciplines ($p = .96$), noting that means for groups were homogeneous. The hypotheses developed for this data set were as follows:

H_0: There is no significant difference among disciplines.

H_1: There is a significant difference among different disciplines.

The difference among the groups was not considered statistically significant since the significance p is .96 (which is greater than the .05 α level). Therefore, H_1 was rejected, and H_0 was supported.

Results for Correlation Research Questions

Research Questions 4 and 6 were correlation questions. Inferential statistics were used for RQ4, What is the relationship between the number of years of the leader's experience and their level of emotional intelligence, and for RQ6, Is age correlated with emotional intelligence? A Pearson correlation coefficient was run to examine if there were significant relationships between the years of experience, the level of emotional intelligence, and age.

For RQ4, What is the relationship between the number of years of the leader's experience and their level of emotional intelligence? a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between emotional intelligence and years of experience. A positive correlation between the two variables was not found as the *r*-value was $r(1) = .17$, $p = .107$; because the *p*-value (.107) is greater than the .05 α level, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between emotional intelligence and years of experience. The hypotheses for this data set were as follows:

H_0: There is no relationship in emotional intelligence in the relationship between the number of years of leaders' experience and their level of emotional intelligence.

H_1: Individuals with more years of experience have higher levels of emotional intelligence.

Hypothesis H_1 was rejected, and H_0 was supported, as there was no significant relationship between the number of years of leaders' experience and their level of emotional intelligence.

For RQ6, Is age correlated with emotional intelligence, to find if age is correlated positively with emotional intelligence, a Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between emotional intelligence and age. There was not a significant correlation between the two variables, $r(1) = .185$, $p = .090$. Because the p-value (.090) is greater than the .05 α level, it can be concluded that there is no statistically significant correlation between emotional intelligence and age. The hypotheses developed for this data set were as follows:

H_0: There are no significant relationships between emotional intelligence levels and age.

H_1: There is a significant relationship between emotional intelligence levels and age.

Hypothesis H_1 was rejected, and H_0 was supported, as there was no significant relationship between emotional intelligence levels and age.

Summary of Results

In this quantitative research study, I focused on aspects of emotional intelligence to identify the relationship of emotional intelligence to other variables by further understanding the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. Consequently, the research objective was to add to the existing body of emotional intelligence research within the parameters of higher education. The sampling was a combination of male and

female leaders in traditional 4-year state institutions in Texas. The MSCEIT™ was used to measure the emotional intelligence of leaders. The performance-based assessment assesses emotional intelligence using impersonal ability-type questions that provide a base measure and adequately gauge an individual's ability to recognize and acknowledge emotions and how they work.

The Statistics Kingdom (n.d.) tool was used to assist with computing the effect size calculations; this power analysis resulted in $n = 48$, making this the set goal of participants to conduct this study. A total of 489 participants were contacted via email, and 124 attempts were made to complete the survey; only 54 surveys were fully completed and used for this study. The effect size calculation of $n = 48$ was met. The statistical analyses included descriptive statistics, correlation coefficient, ANOVA, t test, and regression analysis.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This quantitative research study was used to understand the levels of emotional intelligence of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions. I focused on understanding the relationship and comparing the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within university academic affairs. The research objective was to add to the existing body of emotional intelligence research within the parameters of higher education. The findings of this study should be interpreted within a specific context of higher education. The research design consisted of descriptive, correlational, and comparative relationships between academic leaders' emotional intelligence in higher education within academic affairs.

Research Questions 1 and 2

When finding the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff in colleges and universities, the mean for leaders was 91.95, with a standard deviation of 10.56. When finding the levels of emotional intelligence of leaders appointed from faculty ranks and nonfaculty ranks, for faculty, $n = 33$, the mean was 91.91, and for nonfaculty, $n = 21$, the mean was 92. Few studies have been conducted in organized higher education, and fewer have measured the emotional intelligence of faculty leaders; these research findings add to the body of research.

The participants surveyed in this study ranged in titles from assistant vice provost, deans, chairs, directors, and managers, and 68% of the participants had a doctorate, revealing that the survey pool was highly educated. The MSCEIT™ has five levels of competency. Yet, participants fell within level three, the competent range showing sufficient skill to achieve some degree of success. The mean for this group was 91.5, which is slightly over the standard score.

The consider developing level of the MSCEIT™ has a standard score range ending at 89. When examining the data, 20 of the 54 participants had levels of emotional intelligence below the competent level. These leaders should consider enhancing these skills as interacting and leading employees is essential to being a leader. Mayer and Salovey (1993) defined emotional intelligence as grasping, demonstrating, understanding, controlling, and managing emotional responses internally and in others, suggesting that individuals with emotional intelligence abilities respond adequately to workplace stress and the emotional conduct of coworkers; therefore, emotional intelligence abilities can anticipate enhancing job satisfaction significantly.

Goleman (2004) presented emotions as a cooperative instrument that can be used to direct decisions and choices (Maxim, 2021). Further, Goleman (2004) connected the concept of emotional intelligence with the education system, something one can study, learn and increase through continual exercise and education (Goleman, 2004; Maxim, 2021). Educational leaders have a crucial role in the success of higher education institutions as the emotional intelligence of educational leaders affects those they are leading, and emotional intelligence in the leadership of an organization directly affects organizational success (Drigas & Papoutsi, 2019; Mendelson & Stabile, 2019).

The following two ranges in the MSCEIT™ are skilled, with a standard score range of 110–129, noting an area of strength, and expert, with a standard score range from 130+, signifying an individual has a highly developed area of expertise, showing there is room for leader development.

Research Question 3

When finding if the levels of emotional intelligence varied among faculty ($n = 33$) and nonfaculty ($n = 21$), the results suggested no significant relationship between the two variables.

The results did indicate that the nonfaculty ($M = 92$, $SD = 13.75$) participants had a slightly higher mean than faculty participants ($M = 91.91$, $SD = 8.16$). Few studies have been conducted measuring and comparing emotional intelligence among faculty and nonfaculty, adding new data for future examination. Beytekin (2021) asserted that there is a need for leaders in higher education to increase levels of emotional intelligence due to the diverse roles these leaders fill. Higher education leaders must carry out multiple duties, must influence their employees, and build relationships, to stay committed to achieving organizational goals (Beytekin, 2021).

In a study conducted by Hempsall (2014) in the higher education industry, when asked what makes a good leader, the view of these participants was the need for establishing good relationships, trust-building, and emotional competencies. These are the keys to good leadership, suggesting that these skills set leaders apart from each other (Hempsall, 2014). Influential leaders can lead individuals successfully and implement the organizational process and goals (Beytekin, 2021). Successful leaders can examine and control their emotions and the emotions of others and can persuade individuals; this requires leadership skills at a high level (Beytekin, 2021; Goleman, 2006b).

Research Question 4

When testing the relationship between the number of years of experience of the leader and their level of emotional intelligence, a positive correlation was found between the two variables, the *p*-value (.107) was greater than the .05 α level, concluding no statistically significant connection between emotional intelligence and years of experience. This research is consistent with other findings depicting a positive correlation between these two variables. Shipley et al. (2010) suggested there is research noting a positive relationship between emotional

intelligence and years of experience; however, there is a limited amount of research examining this relationship; more empirical research is needed to test this hypothesis.

Research Question 5

To find if there were significant differences in emotional intelligence between identified genders, the analysis suggested no meaningful difference between females ($n = 21$, $M = 92.59$) and males ($n = 33$, $M = 90.92$). Though there was no significant difference, females did have a slightly higher mean than males. There have been mixed findings on gender and emotional intelligence. A study conducted by Parker (2022) and Quader (2011) found that women scored higher than males and that women are ranked higher than men in perceiving emotions. A study investigating the differences in emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness by Hopkins and Bilimoria (2008) showed no significant differences among genders. The study's findings are consistent with other research, which finds no significant differences between male and female leaders in their demonstration of emotional intelligence competency (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003; Singh, 2006; Tagoe & Quarshie, 2017; Van Genderen, 2012). The mixed findings warrant further research. The MSCEIT™ survey used in this study tests four ability branches of emotional intelligence: perceiving and identifying emotions, using emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding emotions, and managing emotions and emotional regulation. The survey provides a total score for each of these branches. Further research could be done to demonstrate if there are any significant differences between genders within each of these branches.

Research Question 6

When testing if age was correlated with emotional intelligence, the results showed a positive correlation between age and emotional intelligence. However, the data showed no statistically significant correlation. These findings were consistent with the body of research on

emotional intelligence. Goleman (1998) and Salovey and Mayer (1990) found a positive

relationship between emotional intelligence and age. Salovey and Mayer (1990) found that older

people scored higher than younger ones. Sharma (2017) performed a study to find a pattern of

change in emotional intelligence and its components with age. Sharma (2017) found that the

pattern of competency is different and decreases from young adult to middle age and then

increases from middle age to mature age, noting there is a need to support developing specific

competencies via training.

Research Question 7

When finding if there were significant differences in emotional intelligence based on the

discipline, the results showed that the individuals in the business discipline had a mean of 92.81;

for humanities, the mean was 91.09; for natural and applied sciences, the mean was 90.72; and

for social sciences, the mean was 92.22. No statistically significant difference between emotional

intelligence and at least two groups was found. Few researchers examined the differences in

emotional intelligence based on discipline; this study adds new data for further examination. The

outcome of this research can be used to create a development program that strategically targets

and embeds the concepts of emotional intelligence within the curriculum in low-scoring

disciplines. Brou Fossier (2022) indicated that emotional intelligence is a skill and attribute that

can be taught and developed. The development of emotional intelligence could ensure that

graduates enter the workforce with the capacity to control their emotions and positively influence

the emotions of those around them.

Implications for Practice

I have concluded that the implication of this research study contributes to the existing

body of knowledge, thus offering additional context on emotional intelligence in leaders in

higher education at the division level. Little research has been conducted on the potential impact of promoting academic leaders within the ranks of faculty and those who are hired from the industry to take leadership positions within the division of academic affairs. Due to the limited research offered in this context, this is meaningful information for this setting and background. The process of training and developing the workforce in higher education is essential and a significant factor in the success of these organizations (Pham, 2021). Most universities do not have an official hiring process to find, select, and train academic leaders (Figueroa, 2015; Wang & Frederick, 2018). The data collected in this study adds to the body of knowledge and areas of further exploration.

A possible policy implication is the development of a more structured method to advance and develop higher education leaders. When finding the levels of emotional intelligence in higher education leaders within academic affairs who supervise academic faculty and staff, the mean for leaders was 91.95, with a standard deviation of 10.56. The MSCEIT™ has five levels of competency, the mean among the participants was slightly over the consider developing standard score. Beytekin (2021) and Goleman (2006b) suggested that successful leaders could examine and control their emotions and the emotions of others and can persuade individuals. Asserting this requires leadership skills at a high level, increasing the levels of emotional intelligence among higher education leaders will help foster and develop highly skilled leaders.

Limitations

There were several limitations within this research study. The first limitation was using the quantitative research approach, which uses closed-ended questions. This approach did not allow participants to explain their answers as the questionnaire used scales. Another limitation was the instrument itself. The MSCEIT™ was used to capture participants' levels of emotional

intelligence and is a self-reporting tool that can be susceptible to misleading responses as participants might answer questions strategically or in a socially desirable manner. However, according to Tett et al. (2012), participants are less likely to misrepresent or fake their answers when the response is used for research or self-development. Also, the confines set for the sample population limited the study's generalizability as only individuals working in a leadership position in the academic affairs division of a Texas state university were requested to complete the survey.

A delimitation was that only Texas college and university participants were considered. The group was further narrowed as they also were required to work as academic affairs leaders. Thus, the results of the study could only be generalized to administrators who met the following criteria:

a. worked in higher education institutions;

b. were in the state of Texas;

c. who started as faculty and transitioned to administration; and

d. were employees within academic affairs.

Recommendations for Future Study

Based on the results and the literature review, the following recommendations for further research are presented regarding the emotional intelligence of academic affairs leaders in higher education institutions.

a. Replicating the study with a broader participant pool that would include other universities in the United States and opening it up to private institutions. This research study took participants only from 4-year public schools in the state of Texas.

b. Increase the participation pool to have more balance numbers when looking at gender, age, and type of academic discipline.

c. Replicating the study testing leaders of academic affairs and those of other divisions like the business affairs division. This would provide a holistic view of educational leaders within higher education.

d. The MSCEIT™ survey consists of 141 items, and it tests four ability branches of emotional intelligence: perceiving and identifying emotions, using emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding emotions, and managing emotions and emotional regulation. The survey provides a total score for each of these branches. Further research could be done to demonstrate if there are any significant differences between faculty and nonfaculty leaders within each of these branches to generate training to help increase these areas strategically.

Summary of Discussion

Higher education institutions continue to evolve due to increasing challenges in reducing turnover and increasing productivity and job satisfaction within the organization. Leaders must understand how their emotions and actions affect the individuals around them to be effective. The key asset in an organization is not a product or service. The most central part of an organization's driving force is its human capital, and the higher education industry is no exception. Parrish (2015) indicated increasing evidence connects emotional intelligence to effective leadership in higher education. Parrish (2015) also asserted that despite the recognized benefits of emotional intelligence for higher education leadership, there is still a lack of emotional intelligence among higher education leaders.

Though this research study did not show any statistically significant differences among the variables tested, it is one of the few studies to test emotional intelligence among leaders in the framework of higher education, specifically among the division of academic affairs in Texas. This is one of the earliest studies that test the levels of emotional intelligence among nonfaculty and faculty ranks and compares them to see if there are any significant differences. Maulding et al. (2012) found that emotional intelligence plays an essential and profound role in educational leaders. They noted that a leader's emotional intelligence was strongly connected with their level of resilience, capacity to recover quickly from difficulties, and ability to succeed as educational leaders.

Examining these types of organizations is essential to help advance strategies to develop leaders within higher education. Further exploring this problem could result in developing target training for leaders moving from within faculty ranks to leadership positions in higher education administration, benefiting higher education institutions. As noted earlier, emotional intelligence is a skill that can be developed and learned; thus, training that includes skills like increased self-motivation, self-management, empathy, and instinct and impulse control can assist with increasing the emotional intelligence of leaders (Goleman, 1998). Further, articles stated emotions play a crucial role in changing individuals' thinking; this is key when organizations focus on increasing diversity, equity, and inclusion. According to Moore (2021), the use of a blend of both unconscious bias and emotional intelligence training is needed to change and move the indicator concerning an all-encompassing work environment; additional research is needed to test this theory. Addressing these issues could also benefit organizations by increasing employee satisfaction and productivity and decreasing employee turnover.

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Appendix A: Example of Solicitation Email

Good xxxx,

My name is Jenny De Los Santos. I am a graduate student in the education department at Abilene Christian University. This email is a request for you to participate in my research study. The purpose of this research study is to understand the levels of emotional intelligence of leaders in the higher education industry. To further understand the relationship between the emotional intelligence of faculty who have moved up into administrative positions and nonfaculty leaders within the academic affairs units. To help with the development of strategies aimed at improving the skill set and knowledge base of leaders.

Participation is voluntary. If you choose to participate in the study, it will take approximately 30 to 45 minutes of your time. You will be asked to complete a survey. The survey method used will be a questionnaire and will be distributed to you online via Qualtrics. Qualtrics is an online program used to create surveys and distribute these surveys to various participants. The survey used to measure emotional intelligence will be the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Tests (MSCEIT™) developed by John D. Mayer, Peter Salovey, and David R. Caruso, academics from Yale and the University of New Hampshire. The minimum age to participate is 18 years of age.

You were selected to participate in this study because you are a leader and supervisor within the academic affairs division, which is the target population of this research study. There is no penalty for not participating or for withdrawing from the study. If you have questions about the research study, the lead researcher is Jenny R. De Los Santos, a doctoral candidate, and can be contacted at xxx-xxx-xxxx or at xxxx@acu.edu or Dr. Andrew Lumpe at xxxx@acu.edu. To participate in this study, please click on the link below: xxxxxx.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me in this research.

Appendix B: MHS Permission to Use the Examples

Jenny De Los Santos ▬▬▬▬
to Betty ▾

Hi Betty-

I dont know if you saw my email below. I have attached the document where I found the examples of the types of items in the MSCEIT. What I need is examples of the types of items not the actual MSCEIT items.

Jenny

•••

One attachment · Scanned by Gmail ⓘ

PDF MSCEITDescripti...

Betty Mangos ▬▬▬▬
to me ▾

Hello Jenny,

Thank you for following up.
I apologize for the delay.

MHS can allow you to use these MSCEIT items that you have attached, in your dissertation.

•••

[Thank you!] [Thank you very much.] [Great.]

Appendix C: IRB Approval

ABILENE CHRISTIAN UNIVERSITY
Educating Students for Christian Service and Leadership Throughout the World

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs
328 Hardin Administration Building, ACU Box 29145, Abilene, Texas 79699-9145
325-674-2885

August 29, 2022

Jenny R. De Los Santos
Department of Education
Abilene Christian University

Dear Jenny,

On behalf of the Institutional Review Board, I am pleased to inform you that your project titled
"Emotional Intelligence of Leaders in Higher Education and its Impact on Employees",

(IRB# 22-101   ) is exempt from review under Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects. If at any time the details of this project change, please advise our office of the change(s) by email, so that the committee can determine whether or not the exempt status is still applicable.

I wish you well with your work!

Sincerely,

Qi Hang
Qi Hang (Aug 29, 2022 10:01 CDT)
ACU Executive Director of Research

Additional Approvals/Instructions:
WAIVER OF DOCUMENTATION OF CONSENT, based on the following justification:

* The research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

The following are all responsibilities of the Primary Investigator (PI). Violation of these responsibilities may result in suspension or termination of research by the Institutional Review Board. If the Primary Investigator is a student and fails to fulfil any of these responsibilities, the Faculty Advisor then becomes responsible for completing or upholding any and all of the following:

• If there are any changes in the research (including but not limited to change in location, members of the research team, research procedures, number of participants, target population of participants, compensation, or risk), these changes must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation.
• Report any protocol deviations or unanticipated problems to the IRB promptly according to IRB policy.
• Should the research continue past the expiration date, submit a Continuing Review Form, along with a copy of the current consent form and a new Signature Assurance Form approximately 30 days before the expiration date.
• When the research is completed, inform the Office of Research and Sponsored Programs. If your study is Expedited or Full Board, submit an Inactivation Request Form and a new Signature Assurance Form. If your study is Exempt, Non-Research, or Non-Human Research, email orsp@acu.edu to indicate that the research has finished.
• According to ACU policy, research data must be stored on ACU campus (or electronically) for 3 years from inactivation of the study, in a manner that is secure but accessible should the IRB request access.
• It is the Investigator's responsibility to maintain a general environment of safety for all research participants and all members of the research team. All risks to physical, mental, and emotional well-being as well as any risks to confidentiality should be minimized.

For additional information on the policies and procedures above, please visit the IRB website
https://cdn01.acu.edu/community/offices/academic/orsp/human-research/overview.html
or email orsp@acu.edu with your questions.

Our Promise: ACU is a vibrant, innovative, Christ-centered community that engages students in authentic spiritual and intellectual growth, equipping them to make a real difference in the world.