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DEANING FROM THE MIDDLE

Academic Deans' Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

Article by Christy M. Tabors and Jacob F. Brewer

Abstract

As higher education changes, academic deans' roles also adapt to meet the demands of increased enrollment and serving diverse student populations. Academic deans lead from the middle of their institutions; they must report to university administration, while serving the faculty members within their respective colleges or schools (Bright & Richards, 2001; Buller, 2007; Butin, 2016; Dill, 1980; Gallos, 2002; Morris, 1981; Perlmutter, 2017). To meet these demands, academic deans must develop emotional intelligence to lead effectively. Emotional intelligence serves as a skillset for academic deans to use in navigating their administrative duties and serving as leaders for their faculty and staff. This study focused on determining whether academic deans' emotional intelligence is related to their leadership effectiveness. The researcher hypothesized that emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness were related. A survey consisting of demographic questions, the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, and the Leadership Practices Inventory were used to measure whether emotional intelligence served as a predictor for leadership effectiveness. Results indicated that emotional intelligence indeed served as an indicator of leadership effectiveness for academic deans.

Introduction

Due to economic uncertainty and growing demands from increased enrollment, higher education institutions have started to shift their practices (Blumenstyk, 2015; Bok, 2013; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; De Boer & Goedegebuure, 2009; Selingo, 2013, 2016). As a result, academic deans' roles are evolving from internally focused on their staff and faculty to externally focused on issues regarding fundraising, alumni relations, and budgeting (Arntzen, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Wepner, Henk, & Lovell, 2015). Additionally, academic deans' roles place them in a position where they must navigate between reporting to administration and serving the faculty. As such, academic deans lead from the middle of their organizations (Bright & Richards, 2001; Buller, 2007; Butin, 2016; Dill, 1980; Gallos, 2002; Morris, 1981; Perlmutter, 2017). To complicate the situation further, academic deans receive little or no training for their positions. Most academic deans start their careers as faculty, not expecting to advance

to an administrative role (Enomoto & Matsuoka, 2007; Harvey, Shaw, McPhail, & Erickson, 2013; Morris & Laipple, 2015). In addition, academic deans face a high turnover rate (Butin, 2016; Harvey et al., 2013; Wolverton, Gmelch, Montez, & Nies, 2001). According to Wolverton et al. (2001), "One-fifth of all deanships turn over each year" (p. 97). In addition, Butin (2016) claimed that on average, deans only stay in their positions for four years. These challenges that academic deans face today require them to develop specific skills in order to lead their colleges successfully.

Academic deans must develop trusting relationships with a wide variety of people inside and outside of their institutions (Butin, 2016; Gallos, 2002; Wepner, Henk, Clark-Johnson, & Lovell, 2014; Wepner et al., 2015). Unfortunately, academic deans receive little or no training regarding administrative duties and leadership (Gmelch & Buller, 2016; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Wepner et al., 2014; Wolverton et al., 2001). As such, academic deans must develop soft skills, such as emotional intelligence, to interact with constituents and perform their expected duties. Effective leaders utilize emotional intelligence to develop relationships with their constituents (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013). Therefore, emotional intelligence serves as a potential skillset to assist academic deans in their roles as middle managers.

As higher education institutions continue to face change and increasing demands with fewer resources, university administration will rely more on academic deans to perform administrative duties and interact with external constituents (Butin, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; June, 2014; Masterson, 2017; Perlmutter, 2017, 2018). This expansion of duties pulls academic deans away from the classroom, thus creating a larger divide between them and the faculty they serve (Bok, 2013; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Perlmutter, 2018). Now more than ever, academic deans need to develop relationship-building skills.

Currently, little known research has been conducted to explore a relationship between academic deans and emotional intelligence. As such, this study addressed the question of whether a relationship exists between the emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of academic deans. An extensive literature review yielded no studies exploring the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic deans' leadership effectiveness. Thus, there is a need to expand upon the existing literature regarding academic deans.

This study addressed the following research questions: 1) What is the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in academic deans at public, mid-size, four-year higher education institutions located in Texas? 2) What differences exist within academic deans' self-reported scores of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in different generational cohorts, gender, and position tenure? Based on pre-existing literature exploring a relationship between leadership effectiveness and emotional intelligence (Dabke, 2016; Goleman, 1995, 1998a, 1998b; Hayashi & Ewert, 2006; Higgs, 2002; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; McCleskey, 2014; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Parrish, 2015; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik &

Megerian, 1999; Tang, Yin, & Nelson, 2010), the H1 hypothesis followed that the emotional intelligence of academic deans, as measured by Gignac's (2010) Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, is related to their corresponding measures of leadership effectiveness, as measured by Kouzes and Posner's (2017) Leadership Practices Inventory. Additionally, the researcher hypothesized that significant differences would exist within academic deans' self-reported scores of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness based on the following demographic data: generational cohort, gender, and position duration.

Literature Review

The majority of available literature about academic deans is descriptive, concentrating primarily on the historic and current roles of academic deans within higher education (Arntzen, 2016; Feltner & Goodsell, 1972; Gmelch, Wolverton, Wolverton, & Sarros, 1999; Gould, 1964; Lasley & Haberman, 1987; Matczynski, Lasley, & Haberman, 1989; Morris, 1981; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Rosser, 2003; Tucker & Bryan, 1981). While the academic dean's role may vary slightly per institution, he or she will serve both the university administration and the faculty (Buller, 2007; Butin, 2016; Enomoto & Matsuoka, 2007; Perlmutter, 2017, 2018; Robillard, 2000). Academic deans must represent the administration and they must serve as advocates and supervisors of the faculty members within their respective colleges or schools (Buller, 2007; Perlmutter, 2017; Wolverton et al., 1999). These contrasting worldviews often cause academic deans to face role conflicts. Wolverton et al., (1999) indicated academic deans must understand the phenomenon of role conflict and take the necessary steps to minimize its occurrence. One recommendation that Wolverton et al., (1999) provided involves proper training of academic deans to address role conflict. Recent literature also provides a glimpse at academic deans' demographic profiles. According to a study in 2014–2015, 80.1% of academic deans were male and 19.9% were female (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, 2015). The average age of deans was 57 years, falling into the Generation X category. Additionally, the deans' average time in their role was 6.1 years (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, 2015). A more recent study conducted by the American Council of Education indicated that 27% of academic deans are female (Haefner, 2016).

Leading from the middle of an organization produces unique challenges and difficulties for leaders in a variety of fields (Armstrong & Woloshyn, 2017; Buller, 2018; Gabel, 2002; Thornton, Walton, Wilson, & Jones, 2018). Middle managers within various organizations face role conflicts and stress due to the duplicity of their role (Armstrong & Woloshyn, 2017) and often feel overwhelmed by dealing with competing interests and viewpoints. Leading from the middle requires leaders to reconcile these opposing worldviews. In addition, Thornton et al. (2018) identify the following tensions that leading from the middle in an educational setting entails: conflicting expectations from stakeholders, pressure to possess the leadership capabilities expected for the role, and the expectation that the leader maintain an active academic career while taking care of administrative duties. Literature on the topic of leading from the middle indicates that due to the exclusive stresses and demands of the position, leaders must develop

communication skills and conflict resolution skills (Armstrong & Woloshyn, 2017; Buller, 2018; Gabel, 2002; Thornton et al., 2018).

Leading from the middle requires academic deans to develop specific skills: ability to retain high quality faculty, communication skills, conflict resolution skills, team building skills, listening skills, and relationship building skills (Arntzen, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Lasley & Haberman, 1987; Masterson, 2017; Matczynski et al., 1989; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Robillard, 2000; Rosser, 2003; Wepner et al., 2015; Wolverton et al., 2001). Additionally, Wepner et al. (2014) identified the following as essential interpersonal skills that academic deans must develop: working closely with key people, negotiating key people's responsibilities, being responsive to criticism, and keeping key people informed to support resource needs. Overall, an analysis of existing literature reveals that successful academic deans possess the ability to work effectively with a variety of constituents and build trusting relationships (Buller, 2007; Butin, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Gallos, 2002; June, 2014; Matczynski et al., 1989; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Perlmutter, 2018; Rosser et al., 2003; Tucker & Bryan, 1981; Wepner et al., 2014; Wepner et al., 2015; Wolverton et al., 2001).

Due to the current state of higher education, academic deans' roles have evolved from internally focused to externally focused; academic deans now handle more administrative duties such as fundraising, handling interpersonal conflicts, and budgeting (Arntzen, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; Wepner et al., 2015). Today, much of the academic dean's time consists of administrative paperwork and ensuring his or her college or school provides a quality education to an increasingly diverse student group (Morris & Laipple, 2015; Perlmutter, 2017, 2018). Morris and Laipple (2015) state, "The role of an academic administrator is complex, demanding, and often far removed from the draw and intrinsic reinforcement of one's chosen disciplinary activity" (p. 110). Academic deans, particularly early-career deans, often do not possess the skills to meet the demands of the position effectively (Gmelch & Buller, 2016). Thus, high turnover rates for academic dean positions continue to exist (Butin, 2016).

The future challenges facing deanship derive from an increasing expectation to address growing enrollment, serve diverse populations, and answer calls for accountability. Essentially, academic deans must accomplish all these tasks with scarce resources (Butin, 2016; Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; June, 2014; Masterson, 2017). With fewer and fewer resources, academic deans continue to face growing demands from both administration and the faculty and students they serve (Perlmutter, 2017). As a result, fundraising serves as a major initiative and challenge for academic deans (Cleverley-Thompson, 2016; June, 2014; Masterson, 2017; Perlmutter, 2017, 2018). Additionally, academic deans lead increasingly diverse faculty groups. Often, tensions exist between tenure-track faculty, non-tenure track faculty, and adjunct faculty. This situation requires academic deans to serve as mediators within their respective colleges (Arntzen, 2016; Gehrke & Kezar, 2015; Kezar & Maxey, 2016). Both fundraising and mediation call for academic deans to develop a specific set of interpersonal skills. Academic deans will need to develop and utilize interpersonal

skills to face these future challenges; in particular, they will need social skills to continue establishing relationships with their constituents, while also meeting administrative demands (Morris & Laipple, 2015; Wepner et al., 2015).

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Although Goleman (1995, 1998a, 1998b) popularized the term, the concept of emotional intelligence originated with Salovey and Mayer's (1990) work. Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed their idea of emotional intelligence from earlier works of the late 18th century identifying the existence of multiple intelligences (Lyusin, 2006). Salovey and Mayer (1990) developed emotional intelligence as a subset of social intelligence, where they defined emotional intelligence as, "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189).

Today, three models of emotional intelligence exist. The Mayer ability model proposes that emotional intelligence is comprised of four classes or branches of emotional abilities: perception and expression of emotion, assimilating emotion in thought, understanding and analyzing emotion, and reflective regulation of emotion (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000). The concept of the mixed model of emotional intelligence derived from works by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995, 1998). The mixed model differs from the ability-based model due to its inclusion of personality characteristics that are separate from cognitive ability (Mayer et al., 2000; McCleskey, 2014). Both Bar-On's (1997) and Goleman's (1995, 1998a, 1998b) models allow an individual to explore how cognitive and personality characteristics determine success in the workplace. The most recent model of emotional intelligence, the trait-based model, was developed from Petrides and Furnham's (2000) work. Petrides and Furnham divided emotional intelligence into two different categories: emotional intelligence as an ability and emotional intelligence as a trait. They claimed that the type of measurement determines the model, instead of the theory (Petrides & Furnham, 2000). This study utilized the mixed model of emotional intelligence by analyzing seven factors of emotional intelligence identified by Gignac (2005).

Seven-factor model of emotional intelligence. Utilizing the mixed model approach to emotional intelligence, Palmer and Stough (2001) identified five emotional intelligence dimensions based on an examination of emotional intelligence inventories available at the time: (a) recognizing and expressing emotions, (b) understanding emotions (external), (c) emotions to direct cognition, (d) emotional management (self and others), and (e) emotional control. Additionally, Palmer and Stough developed the Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (SUEIT) to measure these five identified dimensions. After conducting an extensive factor analysis of the SUEIT, Gignac (2005) determined that the model should include seven emotional intelligence factors. Based on Gignac's (2005) recommendations, the SUEIT assessment transitioned into the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, which measured a new model consisting of seven positively correlated dimensions of emotional intelligence: (a) emotional self-awareness, (b) emotional expression, (c) emotional awareness of others, (d) emotional

reasoning, (e) emotional self-management, (f) emotional management of others, and (g) emotional self-control (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional self-awareness (ESA). Palmer, Stough, Harmer, and Gignac (2009) identified emotional self-awareness as the first component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional self-awareness as “the skill of perceiving and understanding your own emotions” (p. 10). Specifically, this component represents the frequency in which an individual is aware of the influence his or her emotions may have on his or her thoughts and behaviors (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional expression (EE). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional expression as the second component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional expression as “the skill of effectively expressing your own emotions” (p. 10). This component measures the frequency in which an individual expresses his or her emotions appropriately in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional awareness of others (EAO). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional awareness of others as the third component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional awareness of others as “the skill of perceiving and understanding others’ emotions” (p. 10). This component measures the frequency in which an individual can identify others’ emotions in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional reasoning (ER). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional reasoning as the fourth component of emotional intelligence. They defined emotional reasoning as “the skill of using emotional information in decision-making” (p. 10). Specifically, this component measures the frequency in which an individual utilizes emotional information in his or her problem solving or decision-making in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional self-management (ESM). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional self-management as the fifth component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional self-management as “the skill of managing your own emotions” (p. 10). This component measures the frequency in which an individual manages his or her emotions in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional management of others (EMO). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional management of others as the sixth component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional management of others as “the skill of positively influencing the emotions of others” (p. 10). This component measures the frequency in which an individual manages the emotions of others in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

Emotional self-control (ESC). Palmer et al. (2009) identified emotional self-control as the seventh component of emotional intelligence. They define emotional self-control as “the skill of effectively controlling your own emotions” (p. 10). This component measures the frequency in which an individual controls his or her emotions in an appropriate manner in the workplace (Gignac, 2010).

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The extensive nature of leadership studies creates the dilemma of developing a consensus on the definition of leadership effectiveness. Most scholars who explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness utilized the contemporary theory of transformational leadership to describe an effective leader (Dabke, 2016; Hayashi & Ewert, 2006; Palmer et al., 2001; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Tang et al., 2010). As such, this study utilized the transformational leadership model to describe leadership effectiveness.

Burns (1978) developed the concept of transformational leadership based on his research of political leaders. Burns defined transformational leadership as "...when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p. 20). In addition, Burns established transactional leadership as a second concept. Burns defined transactional leadership as "when one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things" (p. 20). Bass (1985) expanded upon Burns's (1978) work by identifying psychological mechanisms that influence transformational and transactional leadership. He established that charisma, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration serve as components of transformational leadership. Additionally, Bass indicated that the two concepts of transformational and transactional leadership were positively correlated dimensions.

Kouzes and Posner's model. Kouzes and Posner (1987) developed the five practices of exemplary leadership model from their research conducted over several years. Starting in 1983, Kouzes and Posner collected data from over 4,000 surveys, case studies, and comprehensive interviews with the intention of determining how effective leaders behave. From the collected data, Kouzes and Posner developed a transformational leadership model consisting of five effective leadership practices: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. The concepts within this model reflect the behaviors and attributes of transformational leaders (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, & Omary, 2009; Bass & Bass, 2008; Tang et al., 2010).

Modeling the way. Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified modeling the way as the first effective leadership practice. This practice involves modeling behavior that the leader would like to see his or her followers exhibit on a daily basis. Modeling the way requires leaders to find their own voice and understand their own guiding principles and values. Once the leader understands his or her values, he or she must act accordingly.

Inspiring a shared vision. Kouzes and Posner (1987) described inspiring a shared vision as the second effective leadership practice. This practice requires the leader to imagine an innovative and exciting future for the organization. In addition, effective leaders must communicate the vision in a clear manner. In creating a shared vision, the effective leader encourages his or her followers to develop a passion for achieving the vision.

Challenging the process. Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified the third effective practice as challenging the process. This practice involves the leader seeking ideas for creative and innovative pursuits outside of his or herself. Challenging the process requires listening to followers, rather than telling them what to do. Specifically, the leader must stay open to taking risks and experimenting throughout the innovative process.

Enabling others to act. Kouzes and Posner (1987) described the fourth effective leadership practice as enabling others to act. This practice requires the leader to develop strong, trusting relationships with his or her followers. The effective leader allows his or her followers to engage in the decision-making process. This practice empowers followers to work independently and become leaders themselves.

Encouraging the heart. Kouzes and Posner (1987) identified encouraging the heart as the final effective leadership practice. This practice involves leaders showing followers appreciation for their contribution. In acknowledging contributions, the effective leader creates a culture of community. Specifically, the effective leader develops relationships with his or her followers.

From the development of the five practices of exemplary leadership, Kouzes and Posner (1987) established the Leadership Practices Inventory. This assessment measures leaders based on the five practices of exemplary leadership: modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. Several researchers utilized the LPI to measure effective leadership in their studies (Herold, Fields, & Hyatt, 1993; Posner, 2016; Tang et al., 2010).

Existing literature linking emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness supports the fact that a lack of consensus exists on the definition of leadership effectiveness. For example, Sosik and Megerian (1999), Palmer et al. (2001), Hayashi and Ewert (2006), Tang et al. (2010), and Dabke (2016) approached the exploration of the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness through Bass's (1985) transformational and transactional leadership framework. Higgs (2002) approached his exploration through a change model of leadership. Additionally, scholars also studied emotional intelligence's connection to the following leadership theories and topics: organizational leadership, LMX, leadership predictors, and leadership emergence in groups (Côte, Lopes, Salovey, & Miners, 2010; Côte & Miners, 2006; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Zaccaro, 2002).

Although several scholars explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, little known research has been conducted to address academic leadership, in particular academic deans (Dabke, 2016; Hayashi & Ewert, 2006; Higgs, 2002; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Palmer et al., 2001; Parrish, 2015; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Tang et al., 2010). A gap exists regarding the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness of academic deans. This study focused on the relationship between emotional intelligence and

leadership effectiveness of academic deans, utilizing a mixed method of emotional intelligence and Kouzes and Posner's (1987) five practices of exemplary leadership model

Methods

STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Due to the large amount of public four-year institutions that exist in the state of Texas, a sample consisting of 12 public four-year institutions was selected, with a sample size target of at least eight institutions who agreed to participate in the research study. In order to utilize similar research subjects, the selected institutions included the following criteria: public higher education institution accredited by the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools Commission on Colleges (SACSCoC), with a total student enrollment between 5,500 and 15,500.

Out of the 12 selected public four-year universities in the state of Texas, eight public four-year universities agreed to participate in the study. A total of 52 academic deans serve at the eight participating institutions (Higher Education Publications, Inc., 2019). The researcher first emailed the participants on January 8, 2019. During the first week of data collection, the researcher received 16 surveys. A follow-up email was distributed on January 22, 2019. The initial follow-up email returned a total of two surveys. The researcher sent a secondary follow-up email on February 5, 2019 in a final effort to obtain more surveys. The researcher received another six returned surveys after this final attempt, resulting in a total of 24 returned surveys. Due to time and financial constraints, the researcher closed the survey on February 10, 2019, resulting in a 46% response rate. According to Gay (1987), the suggested response rate for a small sample size is 20% (Dillman, 2000). Additionally, Baruch and Holtom (2008) claim that a 35–40% response rate is acceptable and commonly seen in recently published research. Presented in Table 1 is a descriptive analysis of the demographics collected from the survey, which serve as categorical and continuous study variables. Data revealed that academic deans were predominately male and fell within the Generation X generational cohort. Additionally, many academic deans from the study possessed less than 4 years of experience in their dean position. This data aligns with recent demographic studies on academic deans (Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business, 2015; Haefner, 2016).

TABLE 1

Descriptive Analysis of Academic Deans Categorical and Continuous Variables

VARIABLE	N	%
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Gender

Male

14

66.7

Female

7

33.3

Age

Veteran

0

0.0

Baby Boomer

8

38.1

Gen X

13

61.9

Millennial

0

0.0

Position Duration

Less than 4 years	12	57.1
5-10 years	7	33.3
11-15 years	1	4.8
16-20 years	1	4.8
21 years and beyond	0	0.0

Note: $N = 21$

INSTRUMENTATION AND PILOT STUDY

The survey utilized for this study consisted of both Gignac's (2010) Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory, self-report and Kouzes and Posner's (2017) Leadership Practices Inventory, self-report, as well as a brief demographic questionnaire and was placed into SurveyMonkey™ for distribution to the study participants. Within the survey, participants rated themselves on 70 items from the Gignac's (2010) Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory that represent the seven components of emotional intelligence: (a) emotional self-awareness, (b) emotional expression, (c) emotional awareness of others, (d) emotional reasoning, (e) emotional self-management, (f) emotional management of others, and (g) emotional self-control. Additionally, participants rated themselves on 30 items from Kouzes and Posner's (2017) Leadership Practices Inventory that represent the five effective leadership practices: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart.

Both the Genos Emotional Intelligence Inventory (Genos EI) and the Leadership Practice Inventory (LPI) have proven to be valid and reliable tests (Gignac, 2010; Palmer et al., 2009; Posner, 2016). A test-retest study of the Genos EI, conducted over two different periods, revealed a good test-retest reliability of .38 after 2 months and .72

after 8 months (Gignac, 2010; Palmer et al., 2009). These scores indicated a strong amount of stability in the Genos EI scores over time. Additionally, research conducted across several samples of participants with different nationalities revealed a high level of internal consistency for the Genos EI, estimated at Cronbach alpha = .96 (Gignac, 2010; Palmer et al., 2009). For the five effective leadership practices, the LPI self-report possessed an internal reliability, as measured by Cronbach alpha coefficients, of the following: modeling the way (.81), inspiring a vision (.90), challenging the process (.84), enabling others to act (.83), and encouraging the heart (.90) (Posner, 2016). Manerikar and Manerikar (2015) claim that higher values of Cronbach alpha, ranging from .70 to .90, indicate good internal consistency. Posner (2016) reported that the Cronbach alpha scores are consistently good across a variety of sample populations and situations. In addition, several researchers have utilized the Leadership Practices Inventory to measure effective leadership within their studies (Herold, Fields, & Hyatt, 1993; Posner, 2016; Tang et al., 2010).

Ten academic deans from Hardin-Simmons University, located in Abilene, Texas, were enlisted to participate in the pilot study to determine any areas of improvement concerning the instructions, order of questions, and overall convenience. A total of four deans participated in the pilot study. Based on feedback from participants, no changes were made to the instrument. The participants took an average of 12 minutes to complete the survey. As such, a new estimated timeframe was added to the invitation letter sent to the participant deans for the large-scale study.

DATA ANALYSIS

Upon obtaining the necessary approvals, the survey was distributed via email to 52 academic deans. At the close of the survey, an Excel file from SurveyMonkey™ was downloaded, which contained responses from all participants who clicked on the email link to begin the survey. Upon reviewing the Excel file, three incomplete surveys were eliminated from the file. Next, a key was created to code responses for the demographic section of the survey. The data was independently coded three times and compared against each other to ensure researcher error did not occur. Then, the data were carefully checked for any discrepancies. This process resulted in clean, coded data imported into the SPSS, Version 25 software system.

The data analysis plan used to answer the research questions comprised of multiple phases: (1) descriptive statistical analysis presenting all study variables' means, standard deviations, and minimum/maximum values for continuous variables as well as frequencies and percentages for categorical variables; (2) bivariate analysis (Pearson's *r*) to determine if any of the components of emotional intelligence were related to the dependent variables, leadership effectiveness, and the five effective leadership practices; and (3) multivariate analysis (multiple regression) to examine if any of the independent variables—gender, age, position duration, the seven components of emotional intelligence, and total emotional intelligence—served as predictor variables related to the dependent variable, total leadership effectiveness. Additionally, an examination of all test assumptions related to parametric testing was conducted, which

included checks of normality, multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, outlier scores, and linearity. The examination revealed no significant problems with the data.

The dependent variable scores, total leadership effectiveness, were computed by averaging all valid components within the Leadership Practices Inventory scores: model the way, challenge the process, inspire a shared vision, enable others to act, and encouraging the heart. Additionally, the independent variable scores, total emotional intelligence, were computed by adding the scores from all 70 questions within the Genos EI.

Results

To test the hypotheses, a multiple regression analysis was utilized. Presented in Table 2 is a multiple linear regression analysis examining both the independent variables, comprised of gender, age, position duration, the seven components of emotional intelligence as well as total emotional intelligence, and the dependent variable of leadership effectiveness. Data indicated that Model 1—age, gender, position duration, and total emotional intelligence—was statistically significant, $F(4, 16) = 6.51, p < .01$, and explained 52% of the variance in the dependent variable, leadership effectiveness (Adjusted $R^2 = .52$). Specifically, emotional intelligence scores were statistically significant, $B = .201, SE = .05, \beta = .73, p < .01$. Additionally, each of the components of emotional intelligence were tested separately to control for multicollinearity. Data indicated that four emotional intelligence components, emotional self-awareness ($B = .658, SE = .295, \beta = .47, p < .05$), emotional awareness of others ($B = .730, SE = .331, \beta = .49, p < .05$), emotional reasoning ($B = .445, SE = .185, \beta = .52, p < .05$), and emotional self-control ($B = .545, SE = .248, \beta = .42, p < .05$) were statistically significant predictor variables. The results from the multiple regression analysis support the H1 hypothesis; the academic deans' emotional intelligence served as predictor of their leadership effectiveness. Academic deans with higher emotional intelligence were more effective leaders and applied the five effective leadership practices regularly with their direct reports. In particular, four of the seven emotional intelligence components from Gignac's (2010) model (emotional awareness, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, and emotional self-control) also served as predictors of leadership effectiveness. Academic deans should focus on developing emotional awareness of others and themselves, as well as emotional reasoning and emotional self-control, to increase their leadership effectiveness; these four components of emotional intelligence are important for relationship-building and leadership. Overall, these results from the multiple regression analysis indicated that a relationship does in fact exist between academic deans' emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness.

In addition, a Pearson's Correlation Coefficient analysis, represented in Table 3, was utilized to determine what variables showed statistical significance. Data indicated that most of the seven components of emotional intelligence (emotional self-awareness, emotional expression, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, emotional self-management, and emotional self-control) positively correlated with the five components of leadership effectiveness (model the way, inspire a shared vision,

challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart) and overall leadership effectiveness on a statistically significant level, $p < .05$ and $p < .01$. Most notably, total emotional intelligence scores correlated with all five effective leadership practices and total leadership effectiveness scores. These results also indicated that academic deans' emotional intelligence is related to their leadership effectiveness. Academic deans with high emotional intelligence were effective leaders, who applied the five effective leadership practices identified by Kouzes and Posner (1987) to their leadership approaches.

TABLE 2

Multiple Regression Analysis Results

VARIABLE	MODEL 1	MODEL 2	MODEL 3	MODEL 4	MODEL 5	MODEL 6	MODEL 7	MODEL 8
Gender	-.086	.255	.249	.002	.066	.065	-.003	.161
Age	.132	.166	.439	.299	.210	.404*	.448	.409
Position Duration	.198	.320	.427	.322	.228	.332	.390	.369
Emotional Self-Awareness	---	.465*	---	---	---	---	---	---

Emotional Expression	---	---	-.064	---	---	---	---	---
Emotional Awareness of Others	---	---	---	.486*	---	---	---	---
Emotional Reasoning	---	---	---	---	.517*	---	---	---
Emotional Self-Management	---	---	---	---	---	.429	---	---
Emotional Management of Others	---	---	---	---	---	---	.432	---

Emotional Self-Control	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	.417*
Total Emotional Intelligence	.732**	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Adjusted R ²	.52	.31	.10	.31	.33	.29	.27	.30	

Note. ** = $p < .05$, *** = $p < .01$. All numbers reported are Beta (β) coefficients.

TABLE 3

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient Analysis of Emotional Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness

VARIABLE	ESA	EE	EAO	ER	ESM	EMO	ESC	TOTAL EI
Model the Way	.590**	.306	.527*	.642**	.405	.329	3.72	.703**

Inspire a Shared Vision	.345	-.047	.340	.399	.356	.376	.441	.484*
Challenge the Process	.437*	.353	.512*	.550**	.380	.343	.465**	.667**
Enable Others to Act	.491*	.133	.491*	.551**	.495**	.358	.333	.630**
Encourage the Heart	.634**	.615**	.559**	.639**	.465**	.296	.266	.764**
Total LE	.574**	.291	.561**	.643**	.488**	.406	.454**	.753**

Note. ** = $p < .05$, *** = $p < .01$.

Discussion

The statistically significant results of the multiple regression analysis indicated that increasing academic deans' emotional intelligence increases their leadership effectiveness. This study provided insights for academic deans and university administrators regarding specific skills that academic deans must develop in order to perform the demands placed upon academic deans in the current higher education environment effectively. Several available studies explored the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, however, did not focus on academic deans specifically (Côte´ et al., 2010; Côte´ & Miners, 2006; Dabke, 2016;

Hayashi & Ewert, 2006; Higgs, 2002; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Palmer et al., 2001; Parrish, 2015; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Tang et al., 2010). A review of available literature infers that a relationship exists between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. Data derived from the current investigation confirms the relationship between these two constructs (Côte´ et al., 2010; Côte´ & Miners, 2006; Dabke, 2016; Hayashi & Ewert, 2006; Higgs, 2002; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Palmer et al., 2001; Parrish, 2015; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Tang et al., 2010). Data from the Pearson's *r* analysis indicated that several components of emotional intelligence positively correlated with components of leadership effectiveness on a statistically significant level. Most notably, total emotional intelligence scores correlated with all five effective leadership practices and total leadership effectiveness scores. Data also indicated that four emotional intelligence components, emotional self-awareness, emotional awareness of others, emotional reasoning, and emotional self-control, were statistically significant predictor variables for total leadership effectiveness. These results reflect conclusions drawn from previous researchers on the topic of emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness (Côte´ et al., 2010; Côte´ & Miners, 2006; Higgs & Aitken, 2003; Palmer et al., 2001; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Sosik & Megerian, 1999; Tang et al., 2010).

The evidence from this sample regarding the influence of emotional intelligence on leadership effectiveness calls for university administrators to provide training and development opportunities for academic deans to strengthen their emotional intelligence skills, which aligns with recommendations from previous research on academic deans (Bystydzienski et al., 2017; Morris & Laipple, 2015; Wepner et al., 2014; Wepner et al., 2015; Wolverton et al., 2001; Wolverton et al., 1999). University administrators should also focus on developing faculty who may possess the capacity to fill academic dean positions in the future based on their ability to recognize their own and others' emotions, utilize emotions in problem solving and decision-making, and control their own emotions, as the academic dean population is aging. Additionally, the data suggest that prospective academic deans focus on increasing their awareness of emotions and strengthening their overall emotional intelligence skills before pursuing an academic dean position.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Future researchers should aim to analyze a larger and more diverse sample to determine if institution size, institution type, or a larger sample size in general affects the significance or results for the hypotheses. For example, future research could include an analysis of academic deans from private or for-profit higher education institutions and compare the resulting data to academic deans at public institutions. Additionally, it is recommended that the study include academic deans' direct reports as participants in the study. By utilizing the direct reports, the researcher can gain a more comprehensive and robust perspective on academic deans' impact on their followers based on their emotional intelligence levels. The present study's results only provided a small glimpse into the relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness in higher education. By conducting more in-depth studies, researchers can better

understand the significance, or lack thereof, of emotional intelligence to higher education leadership. The significant findings in the current investigation should prompt vigorous discussion regarding the strong relationship between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness. A fruitful next step would be to discuss and implement training that would enhance emotional intelligence and subsequently academic dean leadership effectiveness in faculty who aspire to dean level positions as well as incumbents.

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