

Lindenwood University

Digital Commons@Lindenwood University

Dissertations

Theses & Dissertations

Fall 9-2012

Applying Positive Leadership Principles to an Investigation of Organizational Stress in Military Units and the Benefits Associated with Providing Leaders with Emotional Intelligence Social Awareness

Darcy L. Lilley
Lindenwood University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Educational Assessment, Evaluation, and Research Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Lilley, Darcy L., "Applying Positive Leadership Principles to an Investigation of Organizational Stress in Military Units and the Benefits Associated with Providing Leaders with Emotional Intelligence Social Awareness" (2012). *Dissertations*. 482.

<https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/dissertations/482>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses & Dissertations at Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@Lindenwood University. For more information, please contact phuffman@lindenwood.edu.

Applying Positive Leadership Principles to an Investigation of Organizational
Stress in Military Units and the Benefits Associated with Providing Leaders with
Emotional Intelligence Social Awareness

by

Darcy L. Lilley

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of

Doctor of Education

School of Education

Applying Positive Leadership Principles to an Investigation of Organizational
Stress in Military Units and the Benefits Associated with Providing Leaders with
Emotional Intelligence Social Awareness

by

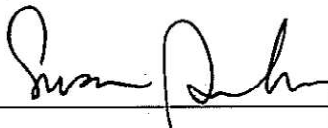
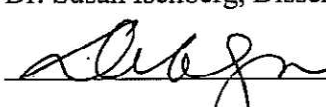

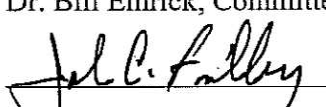
Darcy L. Lilley

This dissertation has been approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Education

at Lindenwood University by the School of Education

 _____	<u>9-14-12</u>
Dr. Susan Isenberg, Dissertation Chair	Date
 _____	<u>9/14/12</u>
Dr. Deb Ayres, Committee Member	Date
 _____	<u>9-14-12</u>
Dr. Bill Emrick, Committee Member	Date
 _____	<u>9-14-12</u>
Dr. John C. Fridley, Committee Member	Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

Full Legal Name: Darcy Lee Lilley

Signature: Darcy Lee Lilley Date: 9/14/12

Acknowledgements

My most important thank you is to God. May any credit be for His glory.

My heartfelt thanks go to Dr. Susan Isenberg for her outstanding guidance, leadership expertise, and insight during the entire dissertation process. Her professional, classy style and wisdom made this a valuable learning opportunity and enjoyable journey. Thank you to Dr. John Fridley, Dr. Deb Ayres, and Dr. Bill Emrick for their detailed review and important suggestions. CMSgts have a special place in my heart for their valuable contributions to our nation's defense and our military men and women—Dr. Fridley will always be a “Chief” and sets an example of a prototypical positive leader.

My husband, Michael, dealt gracefully with my long hours, lack of attention, and seemingly endless discussions on positive leadership principles, emotional intelligence skills, and organizational stress. What a blessing it is to have my husband as my best friend, writing critic, and biggest fan all in one—no one could have been better. Our son and daughter-in-law, Shawn and Kate, and our daughter Kristina, were very encouraging. Thank you to my wonderful friend and accountability partner, Yvonne Gibbs.

My bosses throughout the past three years were very supportive and encouraging: Gen Ray Johns, Lt Gen Robert Allardice, Cols Gary Gottschall, J.C. Millard, and Laura Lenderman, and Lt Col Matt Whiat. Finally, a salute to the core team: Ivera Harris, Nancy Kelly, Robert Nesbitt, Jaye Hurt, Takya Jones, Bill Luzier, Jan Devitt, and the military police leaders. I thank them for their passion in taking care of our Airmen and willingness to go above and beyond on their own initiative. Their dedication and positive attitudes are refreshing and they really made a big difference in many people's lives.

Abstract

This interpretive inquiry investigated, using a mixed method approach, organizational stress levels in military units and outcomes associated with heightening leaders' emotional intelligence social awareness in a positive leadership framework. The researcher designed an understandable, easily implemented leadership tool to guide skill building with actions a leader should take to implement positive leadership principles and display high emotional intelligence skills. This tool can be used for self-development, hiring for leadership positions, leaders' performance evaluations, and leadership development training.

A Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project involving five military police units from around the U.S. served as the study's basis. The researcher used Professional DynaMetrics Programs, Inc., ProScan® Surveys to gather information on individuals' stress and satisfaction levels, and electronically aggregated data into an organizational level report. Administrators used this, along with individuals' self-reported stressors and items influencing satisfaction levels to give organizational leaders increased awareness into their organization.

The researcher analyzed the pre and post data from each team separately and the quantitative results proved to be consistent across all five teams. For example, the PDP ProScan® survey was determined to be reliable and valid for a specialized high stress military community. The researcher determined that each organization in the study offered a strong and vibrant workplace, however, there were consistent patterns indicating recognition concerns. This study reconfirmed that what is really important to people is regular interaction, appreciation, and recognition. This does not require much

time, effort, or money but pays big dividends where relationships, stress/energy drain, and satisfaction are concerned.

Statistically there was no difference in the organizational stress/energy drain or satisfaction levels after heightening the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness, however, qualitative analysis provided additional valuable insight. The qualitative analysis, including evaluations, focus group, and leadership interviews provided great insight into the value of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence social awareness and showed observable decreases in stress/energy drain and increases in satisfaction levels. The quantitative and qualitative analysis combined to give the researcher a comprehensive view and overall perspective of the lived experience.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	i
List of Tables.....	vi
List of Figures.....	viii
Chapter One: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Background.....	1
Purpose of Study.....	3
Statement of the Problem	4
Research Questions	5
Hypotheses	5
Significance of the Problem	7
Overview of Methodology	8
Emotional Intelligence.....	10
Military Leadership	12
Definition of Terms	13
Limitations.....	15
Assumptions	16
Chapter Two: Review of Literature.....	18
Overview	18
Positive Leadership	19
Emotional Intelligence.....	21
Emotional Intelligence and Leadership.....	33

Organizational Stress.....	35
Military Leadership	40
Positive leadership, emotional intelligence, organizational stress, and the military: Pulling it all together.....	42
Summary.....	43
 Chapter Three: Methodology	 44
Overview	44
Research Setting	45
Research Questions	46
Hypotheses	46
Research Design	48
Subjects.....	48
Methods and Instruments	51
Sample Selection	55
Procedures	55
MOSRPP Phase I.....	56
MOSRPP Phase II	59
Data Analysis.....	59
Descriptive Summaries.....	61
Summary.....	79
 Chapter Four: Presentation of Data	 80
Data Demographics	80
Data Collection Methods.....	81

Data Analysis.....	81
Research Questions	82
Results	83
Qualitative Analysis	91
Summary.....	102
Chapter Five: Conclusions and Recommendations.....	104
Introduction	104
Protocol.....	104
Answering the Research Questions.....	117
Hypotheses	121
Recommendations for Future Research.....	124
Summary.....	125
References	128
Appendices	139
Vitae	155

List of Tables

Table 1. <i>Team 1 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors</i>	61
Table 2. <i>Team 1 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level</i>	62
Table 3. <i>Team 2 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors</i>	66
Table 4. <i>Team 2 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level</i>	67
Table 5. <i>Team 3 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors</i>	70
Table 6. <i>Team 3 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level</i>	70
Table 7. <i>Team 4 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors</i>	73
Table 8. <i>Team 4 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level</i>	73
Table 9. <i>Team 5 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors</i>	76
Table 10. <i>Team 5 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level</i>	76
Table 11. <i>PDP ProScan Reliability and Validity z Test for Difference in Proportions</i> ...	85
Table 12. <i>Strong and Vibrant Work Place z Test for Difference in Proportions</i>	86
Table 13. <i>Strong and Vibrant Work Place - Personnel Recognition z Test for Difference in Proportions</i>	87
Table 14. <i>Team Stress/Energy Drain Levels z Test for Difference in Proportions</i>	89
Table 15. <i>Team Satisfaction Levels z Test for Differences in Proportions</i>	91
Table 16. <i>Combining of the Protocols and Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles and Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies to Create the Integrated Protocol</i>	106

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1.</i> Team 1 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level	63
<i>Figure 2.</i> Team 1 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level	64
<i>Figure 3.</i> Team 1 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations	65
<i>Figure 4.</i> Team 1 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations.....	66
<i>Figure 5.</i> Team 2 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level	68
<i>Figure 6.</i> Team 2 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level	68
<i>Figure 7.</i> Team 2 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations	69
<i>Figure 8.</i> Team 2 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations.....	69
<i>Figure 9.</i> Team 3 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level	71
<i>Figure 10.</i> Team 3 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level.....	71
<i>Figure 11.</i> Team 3 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations	72
<i>Figure 12.</i> Team 3 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations.....	72
<i>Figure 13.</i> Team 4 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level.....	74
<i>Figure 14.</i> Team 4 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level.....	74
<i>Figure 15.</i> Team 4 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations	75
<i>Figure 16.</i> Team 4 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations.....	75
<i>Figure 17.</i> Team 5 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level.....	77
<i>Figure 18.</i> Team 5 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level.....	77
<i>Figure 19.</i> Team 5 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations	78

Figure 20. Team 5 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations..... 78

Chapter One: Introduction to the Study

Background

The U.S. Military has been involved in combat operations since the terrorist attack on September 11, 2001 (Insights from early RAND research on deployment effects on U.S. service members and their families, 2011). “The duration and frequency of deployments are unprecedented since the establishment of America’s all-volunteer force in 1973; and, more than two million service members have deployed to Iraq or Afghanistan” (U.S Presidential Report, 2011, p. 7). This deployment level, heavy operations tempo, and significant workload put a major amount of stress on U.S. military personnel. The Department of Defense found in their survey of health-related behaviors among active duty military personnel that “the key sources of stress for active duty military personnel were 1) being away from family (23%); 2) deployment (16%); and 3) increases in work load (15%)” (Military Health System, 2009, p. 4).

To ease this stress and address the multiple deployments and heavy operations tempo issues, the Air Force initiated the initiative titled, *Expeditionary Aerospace Force* in 2000, and later revised it and converted it to today’s *Air and Space Expeditionary Force* (AEF) (USAF Almanac, 2011). Deployment lengths have gradually increased since 2001 when they were 90 days; in 2004 the Air Force adopted a 120-day deployment (USAF Almanac, 2011). The Air Force transitioned to Tempo Bands (A through E) in 2008 with differing (most time home [A] to least time home [E]) deploy-to-dwell ratios, where “deploy” is time spent away from the home station and dwell is time spent at home station; and then quickly moved to a standard 179-day deployment (USAF Almanac,

2011). The AEF Tempo Band construct, also known as Global AEF, was “designed to accommodate high operations tempo and enduring operations, while continuing to provide Air Force personnel a high level of deployment predictability and force stability” (AF Instruction 41-106, 2011, p. 7). Under this construct, planners assign forces to one of the available categories, labeled bands A through E, according to the number of military personnel available with specific skills and associated combat requirements. When requirements change, forces move into a different band by increasing or decreasing their time at home between deployments (AF Instruction 41-106, 2011). In 2008, the Air Force adjusted the bands to meet ever-increasing requirements by moving each band’s forces into the next band level (e.g., band A forces move into band B, band B forces move into band C, etc.) (USAF Almanac, 2011). Tempo Band B now serves as the Air Force baseline for active duty military forces, which corresponds to a 1:4 deploy-to-dwell ratio (deploy for six months and dwell for 24 months) (AF Instruction 41-106, 2011). “As requirements increase, active duty forces can be moved to Tempo Band C (1:3), Tempo Band D (1:2), or Tempo Band E (1:1) and as requirements drop, the goal is to return back to a higher band (i.e., band B) as soon as possible” (AF Instruction 41-106, 2011, p. 8).

The wartime operations tempo drives the deploy-to-dwell ratio and places additional stress on the members and their families. Multiple deployments and associated stressors significantly affect not only the military member, but also the spouse and children (U.S. Presidential Report, 2011; Insights from early RAND research on deployment effects on U.S. service members and their families, 2011). Examples of stressors could include balancing military and home responsibilities, separation from family, separation from

friends, and challenges in managing two households with the associated financial pressures (Borrelli, Nelson, Babeu, & Bellis, 2010). With these significant deployment rates and the high operations tempo, stress indicators have increased, including probability of divorce and children's emotional and behavior difficulties (Insights from early RAND research on deployment effects on U.S. service members and their families, 2011); and suicide (Anestis, Bryan, Cornette, & Joiner, 2009). The military continues to look for ways to address these issues.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is twofold. The first purpose of this study is to investigate the organizational stress levels in military units and determine the benefits associated with providing leaders with emotional intelligence social awareness. The second purpose is to design a resource to assist leaders in incorporating positive leadership principles and emotional intelligence skills into four areas—self-development, hiring for leadership positions, leaders' performance evaluations, and leadership development training. The researcher used positive leadership as a framework for this study because leadership provides the foundation for a leader's ability to get results within an organization.

“Positive leadership means promoting outcomes such as thriving at work, interpersonal flourishing, virtuous behaviors, positive emotions, and energizing networks” (Cameron, 2008, p. 4). Positive leadership links closely with emotional intelligence, specifically social awareness, as it focuses on how the leader can impact an organization—positively or negatively, depending on their skills.

Goleman (1995) is the leading contributor to the emotional intelligence field (Stys & Brown, 2004), and his best-selling publication of the same title popularized the field of

emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006; Bar-On, 2010; Grayson, nd.; Stys & Brown, 2004). Goleman (2001a) described “emotional intelligence, at the most general level, as the abilities to recognize and regulate emotions in ourselves and others” (p. 14). The four domains of emotional intelligence, according to Goleman’s (2001b) most current model, are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Goleman (2001b) identified competencies for each of the four domains.

The competencies for Goleman’s (2001b) social awareness domain include: empathy, organizational awareness, and service. For example, high empathy skills allow a leader to feel the emotions in a group and understand another person’s viewpoint (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002b). Organizational awareness is a leader’s ability to be politically perceptive and understand the unspoken communications and primary power connections (Goleman et al., 2002b). Finally, leaders high in the *service* competency create a positive climate and are approachable and available to their people when needed (Goleman et al., 2002b). Positive leadership combined with this emotional intelligence model, with an emphasis on the social awareness domain, seemed to be the best fit to use as a framework for this study.

Statement of the Problem

Organizational stress is a constant companion to U.S. military organizations as leaders continue to manage high operations tempo, deployment rates, and increased workload resulting from supporting a nation at war for more than a decade. To date, the focus of stress management interventions has been on individuals, not units. Thus, shifting from a need to develop military counselors to care for one military person at a

time to a need to develop military leaders who address organizational stress to care for a whole unit all at the same time is a significant shift in philosophy.

Integrating positive leadership principles and emotional intelligence skills into an understandable and easily implemented leadership tool could facilitate this shift in philosophy. For the most part, leaders do not know how to manage organizational stress. There is no manual or book, so this approach has the potential to assist leaders in their own professional development as well as influence their ability to address organizational stress to care for their entire unit. There is also the potential to multiply these benefits by incorporating positive leadership principles and emotional intelligence skills into the areas of hiring for leadership positions, leaders' performance evaluations, and leadership development training. Organizational stress is a significant problem that needs additional emphasis from all levels of leadership.

Research Questions

1. Can emotional intelligence social awareness be developed among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
2. What are the results of heightening emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
3. Can emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress be developed in isolation without triggering the development of the three other domains in Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model—self-awareness, self-management, and relationship management?

Hypotheses

Null hypothesis #1. There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement

and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 2. There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project (MOSRPP) Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 3. There will be no decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Null hypothesis # 4. There will be no increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Alternate hypothesis #1. There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Alternate hypothesis # 2. There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant

workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Alternative hypothesis # 3. There will be a decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Alternative hypothesis # 4. There will be an increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured, by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Significance of the Problem

Although the U.S. has well-trained military personnel who are ready for any requirement, continuing pressure demands the finest performance over long periods of time in challenging, chaotic, and sometimes hazardous situations (Bray, Spira, Olmsted, & Hout, 2010). This stress is not limited to Airmen; it overflows to military families as well. Stressors in current military life and associated requirements include time in combat and repetitive wartime deployments (Bowen, 2010). While deployed, the researcher observed that such environments could be very stressful due to danger close at hand, family separation, and long work hours. In addition, reductions in military

personnel strength cause each remaining person to have more responsibilities, making high levels of stress all-encompassing, rather than limited to only people who are deployed or are in combat (Hourani, Williams, & Kress, 2006). For example, Airmen who remain in garrison (another name for home station) may be further stressed by increased workload resulting from a reduction in the number of people available to support the same, or increased, requirements from wartime demands (Kavanagh, 2005). As a military organizational leader, the researcher observed that supporting friends and co-workers deployed in harm's way and assisting their families adds more requirements to an already very high operations tempo. Based on the researcher's experience, these challenges all combine to drive higher organizational stress levels.

Overview of Methodology

A military pilot program designed to reduce organizational stress levels served as the research focus. While facilitating the MOSRPP, the researcher investigated organizational stress levels in military units and the outcomes associated with heightening leaders' emotional intelligence social awareness. The researcher developed the two-phase project to give organizational leaders insight into personnel stressors and satisfaction levels so leaders could address both that are within their control.

Theoretically, by reducing individual stressors within the leaders' control (such as lack of recognition), personnel would have additional capacity to deal with stressors not within the leaders' control (such as deployments).

The study used a tool called Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc. (PDP) ProScan® in a new way. The ProScan® is normally used to measure the dynamics of an individual's reaction to the environment (stress/energy drain), strengths, and satisfaction

levels. ProScan® was previously used with Microsoft, University of Montana, Accent Photo, U.S. Army, and other companies in this way. However, in the MOSRPP, the ProScan® was used not only to measure the individual's stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels, but the data was also aggregated to measure an organization's stress/energy drain and satisfaction level. In addition to giving each individual personal insight, the researcher chose to use PDP's group reporting module, known as TeamScan®, to heighten the organizational commander's awareness of what was happening with his/her people regarding stress/energy drain, stressors, and satisfaction level from an organizational perspective. This marks the first research conducted using the PDP ProScan® tool combined with the TeamScan® capability in this way—to evaluate organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels (Hubby & Kelly, 2012).

The MOSRPP administrators, government employees trained by PDP, also asked individuals via the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form (Appendix A) for specific stressors and items within the organization impacting their satisfaction level. In order to provide a comprehensive view of the organization's stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels to the leader, MOSRPP administrators consolidated the individual inputs and combined them with the TeamScan® results. They also provided the leaders with a comprehensive view of their organizations, including individual stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels and organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels. Leaders could use this awareness and additional insight to address stress triggers and impacts on satisfaction level within their organizations.

The MOSRPP was divided into two phases. Phase one included administering the ProScan® to all available personnel in each organization, conducting group training sessions with the individuals in the organization, and collecting their individual inputs on stressors and items impacting their satisfaction level. After the group sessions, the results of the ProScan® were aggregated via TeamScan®, the individual inputs consolidated, and both were provided to the organizational leader. Phase two was a repeat of phase one, four to six months later.

The researcher analyzed this lived experience through a qualitative research method called interpretive inquiry since “the inherent aim is to make something clear that was previously unclear and to make sense out of everyday action” (Hultgren, 1989, p. 58). Surveys, interviews, ProScan® survey results, aggregated TeamScan® results, and accompanying data analysis capabilities were used to understand and create new insights into the revealed lessons and their meaning.

Emotional Intelligence

Although Mayer and Salovey (1990) created the term, emotional intelligence, the emotional intelligence concept was founded on years of research and theory in organizational, industrial, and social psychology (Bar-On, 2006; Cherniss, 2000). For example, in 1920, “Thorndike was one of the first to identify the aspect of emotional intelligence he called social intelligence” (Goleman, 2001a, p. 16). He specifically separated social intelligence from other types of intelligence and “defined social intelligence as the ability to perceive one’s own and others’ internal states, motives, and behaviors, and to act toward them optimally on the basis of that information” (Mayer & Salovey, 1990, p. 187). Gardner (1983) popularized the concept of humans having

multiple intelligences rather than only one. He claimed, “that all human beings possess not just a single intelligence. Rather, as a species, we human beings are better described as having a set of relatively autonomous intelligences” (Gardner, 2011, p. xii). More recent researchers and psychologists based their emotional intelligence definitions and models on the work of these pioneers (Stys & Brown, 2004).

Mayer and Salovey (1990) initially defined it as “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them and to use this information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p. 189). Once Goleman’s (1995) book was published, emotional intelligence became one of the popular leadership/business topics as evidenced by the *Harvard Business Review* printing of an emotional intelligence article that had more readers than any of their other articles in 40 years (Cherniss, 2000). This level of response seemed to demonstrate a hunger in the leadership world for the emotional intelligence concept.

Initially Goleman (1995) used Mayer and Salovey’s definition (1990) and Salovey’s emotional intelligence model, noting, “Salovey subsumes Gardner’s personal intelligences in his basic definition of emotional intelligence, expanding these abilities into five domains: knowing one’s emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships” (p. 43). Goleman (1998a) continued to refine his emotional intelligence model and published an adaptation including: self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. He later refined his emotional intelligence model into four clusters: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman, 2001b). This

refinement focused on emotional intelligence as a theory of performance and underlying research associated with work performance (Goleman, 2001b).

Goleman's research on the importance of a leader's emotional intelligence skills, specifically in the work place (1998a) and work performance (2001b) made his model a good fit for this research. Originally, Goleman (1998a) incorporated Gardner (1983) and Mayer and Salovey's (1990) definitions and resulting model (1990), but then he adapted it emphasizing it as a usable leadership and workplace tool. It made sense to use Goleman's (2001b) four-domain model, since he originally incorporated work from both Gardner (1983) and Mayer and Salovey (1990) and it included his most up-to-date work. Although all four domains are addressed in this study, the researcher chose to focus on social awareness because this area specifically highlights the leader's ability to have organizational impact.

Military Leadership

Military culture places a great deal of emphasis on topnotch leadership and outstanding performance. Citizens voluntarily join the United States Armed Forces knowing that their sacrifices could ultimately include their lives to defend America's freedom (AF Pamphlet 36-2241, 2011). General Fogleman, former United States Air Force Chief of Staff, explained this importance:

Airmen are part of a unique profession that is founded on the premise of service before self. We are not engaged in just another job; we are practitioners of the profession of arms. We are entrusted with the security of our nation, the protection of our citizens, and the preservation of its way of life. In this capacity, we serve as guardians of America's future. By its very nature, this responsibility requires us to

place the needs of our service and our country before personal concerns . . . No profession demands more of its members than the profession of arms. (AF Pamphlet 36-2241, 2011, p. 206)

These circumstances are unique to the military, as are many of the associated leadership responsibilities. For example, unit commanders are not only expected to successfully accomplish the mission, but they are also expected to take care of their Airmen and the Airmen's families (Bowen, 1998). This adds more responsibility to a military leader's scope than normally found in the civilian sector (Bowen, Mancini, Martin, Ware, & Nelson, 2003). Moreover, unit commanders readily acknowledge the expectation that they establish the proper climate in the unit (Bowen, Orthner, Martin, & Mancini, 2001). This responsibility and the way the leader's support is implemented can have a preventive effect on job stress and health related issues (Bowen, 1998). As a result, it could be the case that reducing organizational stress levels provides another way for the leader to influence the climate.

Definition of Terms

Airman – “Any US Air Force member (officer or enlisted, active, Reserve, or guard, along with Department of the Air Force civilians) who supports and defends the US Constitution and serves our country” (Air Force Glossary, 2007, p. 42).

Deployment – “The relocation of forces and materiel to desired operational areas.

Deployment encompasses all activities from origin or home station through destination, specifically including intra-continental United States, intertheater, and intratheater movement legs, staging, and holding areas” (Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms, 2011, p. 97).

Deployment rate – Frequency of deployments.

Emotional Intelligence – “A type of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (Mayer & Salovey, 1990, p. 189).

Expertise – “Expert opinion or commentary” (Merriam-Webster, 1990, p. 437).

Garrison – “A permanent Air Force base where Airmen execute and support air and space operations. Also referred to as home station (AFDD 2-4)” (Air Force Glossary, 2007, p. 53).

Operations tempo – “Daily workload, training load, and deployment load” (Castro & Adler, 2000, p. 2).

Organizational Satisfaction – The extent to which individual’s goals and aspirations are being achieved and aggregated to the organizational level.

Organizational Stress – For the purposes of this study, personal stress, organizational stress, job stress, occupational stress, and work stress will all be considered interchangeable.

Professional DynaMetrics Programs (PDP) ProScan® Survey – “A DynaMetric system which provides a concise, direct procedure for measuring the major aspects of self-perception. It reveals the individual’s basic behavior, reaction to the environment, and predictable behavioral patterns” (PDP, 2003, p. 1.1).

Relationship Management – “handling other people’s emotions” (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002a, p. 51).

Social Awareness – “Being attuned to how others feel” (Goleman et al., 2002a, p. 49).

Stress – “The harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker” (U.S.

Department of Health and Human Services, 1999, p. 6).

Stressor – “Pressures that produce stress” (Cartwright & Cooper, 2011).

War – “Open and often prolonged conflict between nations (or organized groups within nations) to achieve national objectives (AFDD 1)” (Air Force Glossary, 2007).

Limitations

The military police organizations were selected to participate in the MOSRPP due to their career fields’ high deployment rates and high-risk designation (Vice Chief of Staff of the Air Force Memo, November 2010), but this also became a limitation to the study. Although this provided a very good sample for stress reduction opportunities, it also meant the organizational leaders were deploying quite often, dealing with high operations tempo issues such as juggling their team’s deployment tasks with home station tasks, shift schedules to support a 24-hour/365 day operation, and personnel issues. For example, an organizational leader managing people supporting a high operations tempo while at the same time considered high-risk may not have been able to be as engaged as another, who does not have to deal with as high an operations tempo or high-risk organization. Where another leader may have immediately created and implemented organization-specific action items to address the issues identified by his/her personnel as causing stress/energy drain and satisfaction, the leaders who participated in this study may have allowed time to lapse before creating or implementing them or not created or implemented them at all.

This limitation was also apparent at the individual level. These organizations were on a very structured 12-hour shift schedule in order to cover all the mission requirements both at home and deployed locations. Where other career fields may spend some time at a desk or have access to a computer, military police rarely do. They are usually patrolling or guarding a base, personnel or weapon system. This combined with the high operations tempo resulted in a decision by some leaders to have their personnel use their day off to participate in the group training session and complete the surveys. Needless to say, this may have impacted their attitude or perspective and therefore could have influenced the study results.

This study limits its scope to all U.S. Air Force military police organizations. The results of this study are limited to being generalized to the U.S. military police population and even within this defined population, it is most likely, there will be U.S. military police units for whom the generalization does not hold true (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003).

Assumptions

The word “stress” is widely used, often in a variety of ways with many different definitions. “Nelson and Quick (1994) for example posit that stress is one of the most creatively ambiguous words, with as many interpretations as there are people who use the word, as even the experts do not agree on its definition” (as cited in Ongori & Angolla, 2008, p. 124). Personal stress can be caused by a person’s job, which is often referred to as occupational stress. “One-fourth of employees view their jobs as the number one stressor in their lives” (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999, p. 5). In addition to affecting the individual, personal stress also affects the organization as noted in the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services’ National Institute for

Occupational Safety and Health *Stress . . . at work* pamphlet (1999): “Occupational stress impacts employees’ health and in turn, the organizations’ health” (p. 1). Perhaps, this is why many times personal stress, occupational stress, and organizational stress are used interchangeably. For the purposes of this study, personal stress, occupational stress, and organizational stress will be used interchangeably.

The PDP ProScan® Survey and TeamScan® products describe energy drain using the following terms: minimum, average, significant, quite significant, very significant, extremely significant, and critically significant. In order to reduce terminology confusion from a statistical perspective, the term significant will be replaced with notable for the purpose of this paper only. As a result, the following terms will be used to describe energy drain for this paper: minimum, average, notable, quite notable, very notable, extremely notable, and critically notable.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Overview

This chapter reviews the literature applicable to positive leadership and influencing stress in military units by heightening a leader's emotional intelligence. This study fills a gap in current research on whether an emotionally intelligent leader in a military setting can positively influence the organizational stress level. Positive leadership was used as the overarching framework for this study.

Positive leadership as a concept was introduced in 2008 (Cameron, 2008) and “although positive leadership methodologies have become fairly commonplace in the business arena, they are only recently taking root within the military” (Michel & Neuman, 2010, p. 2). Research on emotional intelligence, organizational stress, stress in a military environment, and military leadership is fairly extensive, but the empirical research on emotional intelligence and leadership is more limited (Gardner & Stough, 2001). Research encompassing all applicable areas in this study with a similar objective, to the best of the researcher's knowledge does not exist.

Positive leadership provides a framework for this study so the literature review begins with the great scope of influence leaders can have on the people in their organizations. Emotional intelligence skills can have a significant impact on a leader's approach and type of influence they have on their organization, so an explanation of emotional intelligence, its history, and the three major models follows. This is followed by a review of research on organizational stress. Although stress can be induced by both positive and negative experiences (Deutschendorf, 2009), this interpretive inquiry focuses

on organizational stress and as a result, the negative aspects of stress are addressed here. Finally, research in the literature that applies to stress present in military environments and military leadership responsibilities is explored.

Positive Leadership

There are many different definitions of leadership, but they all can be reduced to the basic premise that “leadership is influence” (Maxwell, 2011, p. 2). Through that influence, a leader establishes the climate in an organization, either positive or negative. The leader’s mood and emotions are contagious and will spread quickly throughout the entire organization (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001; Goleman et al., 2002b). Therefore, it is important that a leader keeps a positive outlook to inspire feelings of security, trust, and satisfaction in the organization and sustain an effective team (Gardner & Stough, 2001).

A positive outlook can become a habit, but so can a negative one. A person’s behavior becomes ingrained in his/her brain circuitry; so the more he/she acts in a positive or negative way, the more it becomes ingrained (Goleman et al., 2001). For example, “positive leaders focus on organizational flourishing, enabling the best of the human condition, and creating exceptionally positive outcomes, not merely on resolving problems, overcoming obstacles, increasing competitiveness, or even attaining profitability” (Cameron, 2008, p. 13). It is worth the leader’s effort to establish that habit of positive leadership.

Positive leadership contains four principles: fostering positive climate, positive relationships, positive communication, and positive meaning (Cameron, 2008). A positive approach to leadership has far-reaching implications on the people in the

organization, their stress level, and their performance. “Leadership might moderate stressor-strain relationships” (Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis, & Barling, 2005, p. 91). Taking it one step further, “positive leader behaviors (support, empowerment, and consideration) have been associated with a low degree of employee stress” (Skakon, Nielson, Borg, & Guzman, 2010, p. 131). People respond to a positive work climate. Positive emotions make a happy atmosphere and people thrive; they tend to be more optimistic, more helpful, more creative, and more productive (Gilbert, 2012; Goleman et al., 2002b). “Applying the principles of positive leadership leads to extraordinary performance” (Cameron, 2008, p. 1).

Whereas positive leadership can have positive effects on the organization, the assumption may be that the absence of positive is neutral, however, in reality the result may actually be negative (Kelloway et al., 2005). Leadership is a sequence of interactions where the leader can influence the employee’s emotions positively, as noted previously, or negatively where an employee feels isolated and threatened (Goleman, 2011b). Unfortunately people “recall negative interactions with a boss with more intensity, in more detail, and more often than they do positive ones” (Goleman, 2011b, p. 92).

Leadership can be one of the ever-present potential stressors in an organization (Kelloway et al., 2005). This ever-presence, if associated with poor leadership “may serve to isolate individuals and deny access to social support and thereby exacerbate the negative effects of workplace stressors” (Kelloway et al., 2005). This exacerbation could lead to workplace violence and “workplace violence prevention starts at the top, taking a people-first approach to leadership” (Whitmore, 2011, p. 3). Positive leadership and a

leader's emotional intelligence skills are closely linked as a people first approach to leadership.

Emotional Intelligence

Although the term emotional intelligence only recently became popular in today's terminology, the concept is not new. It goes as far back as Plato and his belief that emotion was the basis for human behavior, "Human behavior flows from three main sources: desire, emotion, and knowledge" (as cited in Shanwal & Kaur, 2008, p. 153). The ideas behind emotional intelligence are threaded through history, first as ideas of famous Greek Philosophers, like Plato, and then Aristotle when he said, "Anyone can get angry. . . ; but to do this to the right person, to the right extent, at the right time, with the right motive, and in the right way, that is not for everyone, nor is it easy" (Aristotle, 1941, p. 963). The concept of being aware of and managing ones' emotions continued to be explored and refined for many years.

In the early 20th century, emotional intelligence as a concept continued to develop with Thorndike's (1920, as cited in Goleman, 1995) use of the term social intelligence. He concluded, "social intelligence is both distinct from academic abilities and a key part of what makes people do well in the practicalities of life" (as cited in Goleman, 1995, p. 42). Gardner (1983) popularized the concept of multiple intelligences and his intelligences included "spatial bodily-kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences" (Gardner, 2011, p. xii). Gardner's (1983) multiple intelligences theory and specifically, intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence introduced part of what is known today as self-awareness and social awareness. "The intrapersonal intelligence involved chiefly in an individual's examination and knowledge

of his own feelings while the interpersonal intelligence looks outward, toward the behavior, feelings, and motivations of others" (Gardner, 2011, p. 254). In many ways these pioneers paved the way for what was yet to come in the later part of the 20th century.

However, it was not until 1990 that the term, "emotional intelligence" was finally introduced. Mayer and Salovey (1990) described emotional intelligence as "a subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one's own and others' emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p. 189). It was not until 1995 when Goleman's book was published that one document summarized the efforts of all who were previously involved in developing this concept (Deutschendorf, 2009). Goleman's (1995) book also ignited the business world where emotional intelligence quickly became the newest popular topic (Cherniss, 2000). This increase in interest expanded well beyond the business world.

This focus in the scientific, psychology, and business world attracted a large amount of media attention, which came to a head in 1995 when "What's your EQ?" appeared on the cover of Time Magazine. It stated, "It's not your IQ. It's not even a number. But emotional intelligence may be the best predictor of success in life, redefining what it means to be smart" (Time, 1995). One important benefit of emotional intelligence popularity was the significant increase in research on the topic (Mayer & Caruso, 2002). Gradually studies on emotional intelligence spread from solely academic psychology to education, psychiatric, and human resources, among others (Goleman, 2001a); Momeni, 2009). Several emotional intelligence models, potential uses, and associated research emerged within the next few years.

Since Mayer and Salovey (1990) created the term and Goleman (1995) published his book, three major emotional intelligence models have emerged: Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model, Bar-On's 1997 model, and Goleman's 2001b model (Spielberger, 2004; Webb, 2009). The three major models each have a different way of viewing emotional intelligence: (a) Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model focuses on "the complex, potentially intelligent tapestry of emotional reasoning in everyday life" (p. 9); (b) Bar-On's 1997 model "describes a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators that impact intelligent behavior, measured by self-report" (Bar-On, 2006, p. 2); and (c) Goleman's 2001a model "is competency based, comprising a discrete set of abilities that integrate affective and cognitive skills but are distinct from abilities measured by traditional IQ tests" (p. 20). There has been significant progress in developing the emotional intelligence theory and research to support it.

Research has proven that there are similarities and relationships among the three emotional intelligence models (Stys & Brown, 2004), but their approaches are different (Goleman, 2003; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). All three emotional intelligence models are based on the same broad foundation—awareness of emotions and management of emotions (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006; Goleman, 2001a; Stys & Brown, 2004). However, there is some disagreement among the emotional intelligence model designers as to how the models should be classified—either as a pure intelligence model based on abilities or a mixed model containing both cognitive and personality facets. All the designers agree that Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model is a pure ability-based intelligence model and Bar-On's 1997 model is a mixed model (Goleman, 2001a; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000; Bar-On, 2010). However, there is some disagreement

on whether Goleman's model is a mixed model (Mayer et al., 2000) or a pure model that meets Mayer et al.'s criteria (Goleman, 2001a).

The fact that there are a variety of emotional intelligence models at this stage of the field's development is a positive sign (Cherniss et al., 2006). To expect one emotional intelligence theory at this stage of development is unrealistic. For example, after nearly a century of research, there still is more than one theory on IQ and how to measure it (Cherniss et al., 2006). The newness of the field and varying approaches not only results in some disagreements, but also drives adjustments in the emotional intelligence definitions and applications of the three models.

According to Mayer and Salovey, their 1997 model is the only ability-based model and they consider emotional intelligence a type of mental ability and thus a type of intelligence (Stys & Brown, 2004). Although Mayer and Salovey created the original term and associated emotional intelligence definition in 1990, they revised their definition in 1997 because they believed their earlier version was too vague and did not include the act of thinking about feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Their updated definition follows:

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to assess and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth. (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10)

Their four branch ability-based model is a graduated approach where a person starts with the very simple psychological skills of "perception, appraisal, and expression of

emotion” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 11). The second branch is “emotional facilitation of thinking”, followed by “understanding and analyzing emotions; employing emotional knowledge”, and finally the third and highest level, “reflective regulation of emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 11).

Mayer and Salovey’s (1997) theory is quite scientific and they believe that emotional intelligence is a form of intelligence. As a result, their model aligns with three criteria: “mental problems have right or wrong answers, the measured skills correlate with other measures of mental ability, and the absolute ability level rises with age” (Mayer et al., 2000, p. 400). They continue to separate their model, which focuses on mental abilities, from mixed models, which include mental abilities and personality traits (Mayer et al., 2000; Stys & Brown, 2004). This makes this model very different from the other two major emotional intelligence models.

For example, Bar-On’s 1997 model is one of the models that refers to emotional intelligence as a mixed model, including not only cognitive ability, but also personality aspects (Stys & Brown, 2004). His model is based on the emotional intelligence definition, “to be emotionally and socially intelligent is to effectively understand and express oneself, to understand and relate well with others, and to successfully cope with daily demands, challenges and pressures” (Bar-On, 2006, p. 3). This model includes five major skill areas: intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability, and general mood (Bar-On, 2006; Stys & Brown, 2004; Mayer et al., 2000). Each major skill area includes specific skills: intrapersonal—emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-regard, self-actualization, and independence; interpersonal—interpersonal relationships, social responsibility, and empathy; stress management—stress tolerance and impulse

control; adaptability—problem solving, reality testing, and flexibility; and general mood—happiness and optimism (Bar-On, 2006; Stys & Brown; 2004, Mayer et al., 2000).

Unlike Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model, Bar-On's 1997 model measures the potential for performance and success rather than the actual performance or success (Mayer et al., 2000). As mentioned previously, there is agreement on classification of both Mayer and Salovey's 1997 model and Bar-On's 1997 model. However, that is not the case with Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model.

Goleman (2001a) believed his emotional intelligence model is a pure model because it is competency based, consisting of abilities. Others label it a mixed model, in that it focuses on cognitive ability, but it also incorporates personality and the influence on all aspects of life (Mayer et al., 2000; Stys & Brown, 2004). Like Mayer and Salovey, Goleman's emotional intelligence definition and model changed over time. Goleman (1995) initially referenced Mayer and Salovey's (1990) emotional intelligence definition. He also used their model containing five areas: knowing one's emotions, managing emotions, motivating oneself, recognizing emotions in others, and handling relationships (1995). Then in 1998, Goleman adapted Salovey and Mayer's 1997 model into five emotional and social competencies according to how these capabilities pertain to someone's professional life: 1) self-awareness, 2) self-regulation, 3) motivation, 4) empathy, and 5) social skills. He continued to refine his emotional intelligence model based on research findings and collaboration with one of his partners, Boyatzis (Goleman, 2001b).

Finally in 2001, Goleman streamlined his emotional intelligence definition by compacting it into four clusters: self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, and relationship management. Each cluster is broken into competencies, originally 25 and then further consolidated into 18, thereby resulting in “an emotional intelligence model that more clearly links specific clusters of competencies to the underlying brain dynamics that drive them” (Goleman et al., 2002a, p. 38). The 18 specific competencies will also be explored in the model’s clusters.

Goleman’s research on emotional intelligence is quite extensive, especially in leadership and the workplace; Bennis (2001) summed it up nicely:

Emotional intelligence (EI), more than any other asset, more than IQ or technical expertise, is the most important overall success factor in careers. And the higher one’s position in an organization, the more important EI is; EI accounts for 85 to 90 percent of the success of organizational leaders. (p. xv)

Since Goleman’s 2001b emotional intelligence model is specifically associated with successful leadership performance and workplace application (Bar-On, 2010), and he is the leading contributor to the emotional intelligence field (Stys & Brown, 2004), the researcher selected Goleman’s 2001b model for this study. Each of Goleman’s 2001b emotional intelligence model’s four clusters is reviewed.

Emotional intelligence self-awareness. Understanding one’s own emotions, personal strengths and improvement areas, and individual values are all part of strong self-awareness skills (Goleman et al., 2002a). Self-awareness is the first of four clusters Goleman used in his 2001b emotional intelligence model and includes three leadership competencies:

Emotional self-awareness: reading one's own emotions and recognizing their impact; using "gut sense" to guide decisions; emotionally self-aware leaders can be candid and authentic, able to speak openly about their emotions or with conviction about their guiding vision.

Accurate self-assessment: knowing one's strengths and limits; leaders high in self-awareness exhibit a gracefulness in learning where they need to improve, and welcome constructive criticism and feedback.

Self-confidence: a sound sense of one's self-worth and capabilities; self-confident leaders can welcome a difficult assignment and often have a sense of presence, a self-assurance that lets them stand out in a group.

(Goleman et al., 2002a, pp. 39 & 254-255)

Although all areas of emotional intelligence are important, self-awareness provides the foundation (McShane & Von Glinow, 2007) and is often thought to be the most important for leaders (Book, 2004; Goleman et al., 2001; Jung, 2004). "Before you can lead others, before you can help others, you have to discover yourself" (Jaworski, 1996, as cited in Goleman, 1998a, p. 63). Self-awareness is critical to genuine leadership and development as a leader (Center for Creative Leadership, 2003; George, 2004). Without it, leaders do not know where they need to improve or the influence they are having on people (Book, 2004; Goldberg, 2004). Emotions tell the brain when something feels right or wrong (Greenockle, 2010). Self-awareness is like an internal measure, telling the self if actions or behavior are advisable (Goleman, 1998a).

Self-awareness is also a critical capability in handling stress – without it, people often are out of touch with the stress levels they encounter every day in the work

environment (Center for Creative Leadership, 2003; Goleman, 1998a). Although self-awareness is only one of the four clusters in Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model, this is where leaders should start when improving their emotional intelligence skills. The second cluster, self-management, builds on the self-awareness cluster.

Emotional intelligence self-management. Strong self-awareness skills provide the foundation for effective self-management and the leader's ability to successfully attain goals (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002a).

According to Goleman's emotional intelligence model, self-management has six leadership competencies:

Self-control: keeping disruptive emotions and impulses under control; a hallmark of self-control is the leader who stays calm and clear-headed under high stress.

Transparency: displaying honesty and integrity; trustworthiness; such leaders openly admit mistakes or faults, and confront unethical behavior in others rather than turn a blind eye.

Adaptability: flexibility in adapting to changing situations or overcoming obstacles; leaders who are adaptable can juggle multiple demands without losing their focus or energy.

Achievement: the drive to improve performance to meet inner standards of excellence; leaders with strength in achievement are able to calculate risk so that their goals are worthy but attainable.

Initiative: readiness to act and seize opportunities; leaders who have a sense of efficacy—that they have what it takes to control their own destiny—excel in initiative.

Optimism: seeing the upside of events; a leader who is optimistic can roll with the punches, seeing opportunity rather than a threat in a setback.

(Goleman et al., 2002a, pp. 39 & 254-255)

This skill enables leaders to use their self-awareness to positively influence their behavior and remain adaptable (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). “By staying in control of their feelings and impulses, they craft an environment of trust, comfort, and fairness; and that self-management has a trickle-down effect from the leader” (Goleman et al., 2002a, p. 47). Leaders who are able to put the organization’s needs ahead of their own and manage their personal inclinations tend to be more successful (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Self-management is of the utmost importance because if a leader is lacking in this area, his/her influence often is more negative than positive (Bennis, 1984).

Emotional intelligence social awareness. People high in social awareness skills are able to accurately read other people’s emotions and comprehend their situation and how they feel (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009). Research confirmed that “for star performance in all jobs, in every field, emotional competence is twice as important as purely cognitive abilities” (Goleman, 1998a, p. 34). For example, Goleman (2006) found “much evidence testifies that people who are emotionally adept—who know and manage their own feelings well, and who read and deal effectively with other people's feelings--are at an advantage in any domain of life” (p. 36).

Goleman’s emotional intelligence model’s social awareness cluster has three leadership competencies:

Empathy: Sensing others’ emotions, understanding their perspective, and taking active interest in their concerns; leaders with empathy are able to attune to a

wide range of emotional signals letting them sense the felt, but unspoken emotions in a person or group.

Organizational awareness: reading the currents, decision networks, and politics at the organizational level; a leader with a keen social awareness can understand the guiding values and unspoken rules that operate among people there.

Service: recognizing and meeting follower, client, or customer needs; leaders high in the service competence foster an emotional climate so that people directly in touch with the customer will keep the relationship on the right track.

(Goleman et al., 2002a, pp. 39 & 254-255)

A leader's actions not only affect them personally, but also potentially influence the organizational climate (Goleman et al., 2002a). Out of all the emotional intelligence capabilities, self and social awareness have the most impact on an organization's climate (Momeni, 2009). Successful executives who are high in social awareness are not only aware of people's emotions, but they go one step further and show that they really care (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2001). In addition, people with higher emotional intelligence skills are more aware of when others need help and are more compassionate when responding to their co-workers in both personal and work-related instances (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Emotional intelligence skills and specifically social awareness are important in influencing other people. Accurately identifying feelings and associated behavior in those around the leader can impact a person's responses and whether he/she handles any circumstance successfully (Greenockle, 2010). Where self-awareness and self-management make up a personal competence, social awareness and relationship management are part of the social competence and combine to establish how

people handle relationships (Goleman et al., 2002a).

Emotional intelligence relationship management. Self-awareness, self-management, and social awareness are the foundation for how people manage their relationships (Bradberry & Greaves, 2009; McShane & Von Glinow, 2007).

According to Goleman's emotional intelligence model, relationship

management is made up of six competencies:

Inspirational leadership: guiding and motivating with a compelling vision; leaders who inspire both create resonance and move people with a shared mission.

Influence: wielding a range of tactics for persuasion; leaders adept in influence are persuasive and engaging when they address a group.

Developing others: bolstering others' abilities through feedback and guidance; leaders who are adept at cultivating people's abilities are natural mentors or coaches.

Change catalyst: initiating, managing, and leading in a new direction; leaders who can catalyze change find practical ways to overcome barriers to change.

Conflict management: resolving disagreements; leaders who manage conflicts best surface the conflict, acknowledge the feelings and views of all sides, and then redirect the energy toward a shared ideal.

Teamwork and collaboration: cooperation and team building; leaders who are able team players draw others into active enthusiastic commitment to the collective effort, and build spirit and identity.

(Goleman et al., 2002a, pp. 39 & 254-255)

Many feel, and research has validated, that a person's capability to understand and

relate to others is as important as knowledge and experience (Greenockle, 2010; Goleman, 1998b). As a matter of fact, getting along with and working effectively with other people is one of the most valued capabilities in the workplace (Deutschendorf, 2009). Relationship management applies to employees and leaders alike.

Emotional Intelligence and Leadership

Everyone could benefit from improving their emotional intelligence skills, however, researchers have found the more responsibility and leadership requirements associated with a position, the more important high emotional intelligence skills become (Goleman 1998b; Greenockle, 2010). Emotional intelligence skills are a natural gift for some people but if that is not the case, emotional intelligence skills can be learned (Book, 2004; Chopra & Kanji, 2010; George, 2004; Goleman, 2004; Goldberg, 2004; McShane & Von Glinow, 2007; Yu-Chi, 2011). Whereas IQ is established by about the age of 10, emotional intelligence skills can increase as a person ages (Bar-On, 2002; Book, 2004; Goleman, 2004). If leaders are interested and willing to work at increasing their emotional intelligence skills, they can succeed, if they are provided the correct information, guidelines, and assistance (Goleman, 2004). As the research pool expands, the uses and importance of emotional intelligence will increase, especially in the organizational setting.

Great leadership is tied to people and their emotions (Goleman, 2001b) and leaders set the standards for emotionally acceptable behavior within their organization (Goleman et al., 2002b). Emotionally intelligent people, and specifically those high in self-management, may have the foundation to charismatically motivate and intellectually stimulate their people (Gardner & Stough, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1990). For example,

a 1998 experiment by Sigdal Barsade at Yale University demonstrated one person can sway a whole team's emotions, and specifically, positive feelings such as cooperation, fairness, and overall group performance increased (Cherniss, 2000). Researchers found similar results in military studies. "Bachman (1988) studied United States Navy leaders and discovered the most effective leaders were warmer, more outgoing, emotionally expressive, dramatic, and sociable" (Cherniss, 2000, p. 7).

A leader's attitude and emotional behavior have critical effects on the organizational climate. "Great leaders are emotionally intelligent, face sacrifice, challenges, as well as opportunities with empathy and compassion for the people they lead and those they serve" (Boyatzis, & McKee, 2005, p. 3). Research has shown that a majority of how personnel perceive the organizational climate comes directly from the leader's actions and leadership style (Goleman et al., 2002b; Momeni, 2009). Momeni's (2009) research results also validate that the better a leader's emotional intelligence skills, the better the leader's organizational climate. The organizational climate then impacts people on an individual level. For example, when a leader builds a great organizational climate, productivity and retention increase and personnel issues decrease (Goleman et al., 2002b; Momeni, 2009; Walumbwa, Peterson, Avolio, & Hartnell, 2010). People want to be in a positive environment and they respond with increased productivity and by being more committed to the organization.

Leaders with high emotional intelligence skills could very well be more likely to hunger for success, be better team builders, and get satisfaction from working with people (Gardner & Stough, 2001). When leaders are in the midst of making challenging decisions, emotional intelligence is especially key to both their success and their

organization's success (Jung, 2004). Emotionally intelligent leaders develop a strong support system within the organization and among their personnel, where someone with low emotional intelligent skills may have a negative effect on the organization (Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Stys & Brown, 2004). This awareness is important for individuals and leaders alike, and it would be beneficial for organizations to recruit personnel with high emotional intelligence skills as they may have a positive impact on organizational success (Yu-Chi, 2011). Emotional intelligence skills influence all areas of life, but high emotional intelligence skills are especially important for leaders.

For success in senior leadership positions, the advantage is derived almost exclusively from emotional competence (Goleman, 1998a). "It is all about people and the war for talented leaders with high IQ and emotional intelligence—the war will be won or lost by leaders who are able to control stress at the leader, team, and organizational levels" (Thompson, 2009, p. 112). When comparing people with high versus low emotional intelligence skills, the individuals with low emotional intelligence skills are less able to successfully handle stressful issues related to their job (Yu-Chi, 2011). Controlling stress is one of a leader's biggest challenges.

Organizational Stress

Stress is present in all aspects of life and results from the demands of our environment (Deutschendorf, 2009). The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health defines job stress as "the harmful physical and emotional responses that occur when the requirements of the job do not match the capabilities, resources, or needs of the worker" (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999, p. 6). There are many different stressors including shortage of resources, work hours and organizational climate

(U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999; Ongori & Angolla, 2008). Stress affects people in various ways, but ultimately, “when we feel our understanding, control, or impact on events slipping away, we slide into stress response” (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005, p. 43).

The stress response varies from person to person, but the research on occupational stress is fairly consistent. Early warning signs of job stress include headaches, difficulty sleeping, lack of concentration, upset stomach, lack of job satisfaction, short temper, and low morale (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999). The research also suggests that long periods of stress may contribute to chronic diseases (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999). “Personnel with high levels of stress have significantly higher rates of mental health problems and productivity loss than those with less stress” (Hourani, Williams, & Kress, 2006, p. 849). Not only is a person’s health affected, but also “according to the research when an individual is under stress, individual decision-making processes, perception, cognition, and judgment are all affected” (Kavanagh, 2005, p. 26). This is not limited to short-term effects; significant stress can make a person lose mental capability for a moment, but long-term stress can negatively impact a person’s intellectual capability in a lasting way (Goleman, 1998a).

There are many contributors to employees’ stress at work, but the bottom line is when there are stressed employees, both the individual and the organization are impacted. Occupational stress impacts employees’ health and in turn, the organizations’ health (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1999). “According to an article in *Psychology Today*, up to 40 percent of employee turnover is related to stress and up to a million workers per day are off due to problems that can be linked to stress”

(Deutschendorf, 2009, pp. 14-15). Organizations depend on the intellectual and creative capabilities their employees provide. When under stress the human body responds in physical, intellectual, and emotional ways that cause organizational impacts such as a loss of resilience, lower performance, less job satisfaction, and an increase in tendency to leave their job (Anton, 2009; Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Ongori & Agolla, 2008). These losses can seriously impact an organization's economic health and research concluded, "good economic health of an organization depends on the control and prevention of role stress at work" (Anton, 2009, p. 193).

Leaders play a major role in organizational stress levels and unfortunately, many are unaware of their influence. They can be a strong resource for social support and that support has proven to be a buffer for occupational stress (Kelloway et al., 2005). "A leader's failure to adequately manage stress can have severe negative consequences on the leader, the organization, and its members" (Thompson, 2009, p. 125). The manager's leadership style and the employee's occupational stress level are two items that can influence the quality of a person's relationship with their supervisor and their decision to stay with the organization (Dale & Fox, 2008). Therefore, it could be beneficial to the organization for leaders to know the impact their behavior may have on an employee's organizational commitment (Dale & Fox, 2008). "The Yale School of Management found 24% of the working population reported they were chronically angry at work. With these kind of realities, it is little wonder that companies are desperately looking for ways to create better work environments" (Deutschendorf, 2009, p. 15).

Part of establishing a positive climate is making people feel appreciated. According to the United States Department of Labor, the number one reason people quit their jobs is

because they do not feel appreciated (Pritchett, 2008). Rath and Harter (2010) found that people respond to recognition and attention and when they receive it, it increases the percentage of people who will be actively engaged at work. For instance, employees who are ignored have a 40% chance of disengaging at work compared to 22% if they receive any attention whatsoever, even negative attention. The key though, is if a leader focuses on a person's strengths, the chance that they will disengage at work goes down to a mere 1% (Rath & Harter, 2010). The critical piece for leaders is that "engaged employees are more productive, give better attention to customers, and are more loyal to the organization" (Goleman, 2011b, p. 46). The opposite is also true, "disengaged workers experienced dramatic drops in happiness and interest – as well as major increases in stress – during work days" (Rath & Harter, 2010, p. 21).

This adds to the concept that a positive culture can improve more than just people's motivation or engagement levels at work. "People who receive regular recognition and praise also become more productive. Positive attention also enhances their engagement with colleagues and reduces accidents on the job . . . positive attention builds job commitment and reduces costly turnover" (Pritchett, 2008, p. 99). "An engaged workforce has trust and openness, builds effective relationships inside and outside the organization, which ultimately makes a difference in the bottom line—these are all elements of the organization's emotional intelligence" (Neale, Spencer-Arnell, & Wilson, 2009, p. 80).

It is in the organization's best interest to reduce organizational stress levels and provide a positive atmosphere for their employees. One of the first steps to reducing organizational stress levels is to identify the possible causes for the stress sign and then

develop proposed solutions for each sign (Ongori & Angolla, 2008). Leaders can go a long way in improving their organizational climate by identifying the causes of occupational stress within their organization and developing and implementing potential solutions.

Stress in military environments. The military environment offers increased opportunities for high stress situations compared to a civilian environment, including, but not limited to, deployments, separation from family, and 365 days a year/24 hours a day work availability. For example, although there are substantial overlaps when comparing stressors in the civilian and military environments, there also are major stressors that exist in a military situation, that do not appear in a civilian setting (Campbell & Nobel, 2009). Deployments are a major cause of stress among military personnel (Martin, Ghahramanlou-Holloway, Lou, & Tucciarone, 2009; Campbell & Nobel, 2009) where their lives may be in danger or they are responsible for their colleagues in dangerous situations and ensuring successful mission accomplishment (Campbell & Nobel, 2009; Kavanagh, 2005). Military personnel who remain in garrison also experience significant stress caused by high operations tempo or long hours (Kavanagh, 2005).

In addition, today's military operations are expanding and changing compared to the traditional military mission to which personnel were accustomed. For example, additional missions and expertise requirements such as humanitarian relief, peacekeeping, etc. have been added and these changes in mission expectations increase the occupational stress level for our military forces (Campbell & Nobel, 2009; Delahaij, Gaillard, & Soeters 2006). These demands and constant role changes add additional stress.

High levels of stress cause an increase in behavioral and occupational problems that take a toll on military readiness; one of Department of Defense's primary concerns in today's atmosphere of high operations tempo and frequent deployments (Bray, Spira, Olmsted, & Hout, 2010). For example, Pflanz and Ogle's (2006) research with military personnel showed that "nearly two-thirds reported work stress was adversely affecting their physical health and almost one-quarter felt job stress was severely impacting their health" (p. 864). Although these high stress levels impact both the military organization and the military families, military members often feel more stress associated with work than with family issues (Hourani et al., 2006). Many of these issues are unique to the military environment.

Military Leadership

Just as there are differences in some of the stressors that exist in a military environment compared to the civilian sector, there also are major differences in military leadership expectations. Senior military leaders regularly reinforce the philosophy that the United States Military is a profession of arms and leadership is the foundation of that profession (Dempsey, n.d.). Leadership skills, development, and organizational climate are especially important in the military (AF Pamphlet 36-2241, 2011). For example, the military leader has a significant amount of influence over the lives of personnel in the organization, both personal and professional (Campbell & Nobel, 2009). As a result, military leaders know how important strong unit morale and camaraderie are to successful mission accomplishment (Bowen, Martin, & Mancini, 1999). This morale is directly tied to the leader and the organization.

"The military unit represents the primary organizing feature of our armed forces"

(Bowen et al., 2003, p. 34). “The unit is the primary basis for one’s sense of community in the AF—a conduit by which members and families establish connections with one another and gain access to agency-based services and programs” (Bowen et al., 1999, p. 23). The military is a family and the leader’s responsibility is all encompassing, from occupation to recreation, from training to health and wellness, from work to family. No other profession demands this kind of comprehensive dedication from its leaders as described in the Air Force’s Manual for U.S. Air Force Family Support Centers:

Military unit leaders have a fundamental responsibility for building and maintaining healthy informal relationships among unit members and their families. These informal relationships represent a primary ingredient for creating and sustaining military unit cohesion. From the moment a military member joins his or her unit, this “extended family” provides a basis for their military identity and forms the core social fabric supporting their duty performance and important aspects of their personal life. Leaders have tremendous control and influence over numerous aspects of a unit member’s (and their family members’) life. They also assume, by virtue of their command authority, an inherently unparalleled responsibility for the well being of unit members and their families. (Bowen et al., 2001, p. 43)

This responsibility is “a responsibility that greatly exceeds the responsibilities of most civilian employers and supervisors in work organizations” (Bowen et al., 2003, p. 34).

This leadership culture and sense of family are demonstrated throughout the force with its genesis coming straight from the top.

In *Global Engagement: A Vision for the 21st Century Air Force*, the Air Force

Chief of Staff and Secretary of the Air Force stated, The Air Force believes that one of its most important attributes is a sense of community among its members and their families. Far more than a simple ‘pride in the team’ this factor builds the motivational identity and commitment that underlie our core values, career decisions, and combat capability. (Bowen et al., 1999, p. 5)

With this extensive responsibility ingrained in military culture, it is easy to understand why Airmen and their spouses often highlight these military leaders as an important source of support (Bowen, 1998, p. 29). “Positive support by senior leaders in the organization and supervisors in the work unit have been associated with reduced levels of occupational stress and beneficial health outcomes for employees” (Billings & Moos, 1982; Geller & Hobfoll, 1994; Kobasa & Puccetti, 1983; LaRocco, House & French, 1980; Repetti, 1987; Warren & Johnson, 1995, as cited in Bowen, 1998, p. 29). Though the expectations of a military leader are great, the culture encourages a positive climate. Morale and the way people view their situation is often dependent on the climate the leader creates and the trust integrated throughout his/her organization (Bray et al., 2010)

Positive leadership, emotional intelligence, organizational stress, and the military:

Pulling it all together

Review of literature yielded valuable material exploring the benefits of positive leadership and the importance of high emotional intelligence skills, especially as one progresses up the promotion sequence into leadership positions. Critical relationships between a leader’s influence on the organizational climate, first in the civilian environment, and then specific to a military environment also quickly emerged. Finally, specific to the military environment, the review indicated the critical role a leader plays

and the influence he/she has on the military unit and people in the organization as well as the families. Information to provide a direct link between a leader's emotional intelligence skills and their ability to reduce organizational stress in a military setting was not found. However, the review does indicate the organizational stress level in a military unit may be higher than in a civilian setting, a leader has great impact, either positive or negative, on the organization they lead, that impact may be tied to their emotional intelligence skills, and their impact is magnified when operating in a military environment. As a result, this review leads the researcher to believe that there could be a link between a leader's emotional intelligence skills and their ability to reduce organizational stress in a military setting.

Summary

This review of literature created an understanding of the importance of reducing organizational stress and the valuable role emotional intelligence could have in reducing that stress in the military. Several topics were investigated in the research that seemed to connect the examination of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence social awareness in a military setting and reducing organizational stress. The areas reviewed were: (a) positive leadership; (b) emotional intelligence; (c) emotional intelligence self-awareness; (d) emotional intelligence self-management; (e) emotional intelligence social awareness; (f) emotional intelligence relationship management; (g) emotional intelligence and leadership; (h) organizational stress; (i) stress in military environments; (j) military leadership; and (k) positive leadership, emotional intelligence, organizational stress, and the military: pulling it all together. The study methodology is outlined in the following chapter.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Overview

This study investigated the organizational stress levels in military units and sought to determine if there is any benefit associated with providing leaders with emotional intelligence social awareness. A pilot project implemented to reduce organizational stress levels in military units within the U.S. served as the basis for this research. The researcher used the PDP ProScan® Survey in a new way—normally it is used to measure the individual's strengths, the dynamics of an individual's reaction to the environment (stress/energy drain), and the individual's satisfaction levels.

As project manager, the researcher managed the process and facilitated on-site administrator training, data collection and compilation, and the administrators' interaction with organizational leaders. Using ProScan® data and a group training session evaluation form to gather individual inputs on stress triggers and impacts on their satisfaction level, administrators provided the organizational leaders with both individual and organizational feedback. This feedback gave the leaders a view of their organization -- specifically items individuals felt were increasing their stress and lowering their satisfaction levels. Leaders had the opportunity to use this feedback to create programs to address stressors and impacts on the satisfaction level within their organizations. Through interpretive inquiry, the researcher analyzed this lived experience to understand and create new insight into the revealed lessons and their meaning.

Research Setting

The U.S. military has been involved in continuous combat operations since just after the terrorist attack on September 11, 2001. “During that time, many U.S. military members have deployed multiple times and such a high operations tempo over such a long period is unprecedented for the U.S. military” (Armed Forces Health Surveillance Center, 2011 p. 2). High deployment rates to support two wars take military members away from their organizations and families for extended periods of time, placing increased stress on both organizations and families (U.S. Presidential Report, 2011; Insights from early RAND research on deployment effects on U.S. service members and their families, 2011).

The U.S. military used the PDP ProScan® in the past with great success to address personal stress levels; but addressing organizational stress levels with large groups represented an experimental use of this tool. The researcher used PDP’s database capability which aggregated data gathered from the ProScan® into a group report called TeamScan®. This report provides an overall view of a groups’ stress/energy drain and satisfaction level; however, it normally serves to give an overall view of a team and has not been used to target organizational stress levels in the past (Hubby & Kelly, 2012). The researcher developed the MOSRPP to capitalize on these potential capabilities, providing organizational leaders with insight into individual and team stressors and satisfaction issues. Thus, leaders could address items within their control such as lack of recognition with an eye toward reducing organizational stress levels. By reducing organizational stress levels, personnel may gain additional capacity to deal with stressors not within the leader’s control (such as deployments).

Research Questions

1. Can emotional intelligence social awareness be developed among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
2. What are the results of heightening emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
3. Can emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress be developed in isolation without triggering the development of the three other domains in Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model—self-awareness, self-management, and relationship management?

Hypotheses

Null hypothesis #1. There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 2. There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 3. There will be no decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Null hypothesis # 4. There will be no increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Alternate hypothesis #1. There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Alternate hypothesis # 2. There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Alternative hypothesis # 3. There will be a decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Alternative hypothesis # 4. There will be an increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction

indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Research Design

A mixed-method research design was selected for this study but the primary methodology was qualitative. According to Maxwell (2005), qualitative studies are especially effective for “understanding the meaning, for participants in the study, of the events, situations, experiences, and actions they are involved with” (p. 22). Interpretive inquiry offered the opportunity for the researcher to glean meaning from a lived experience beyond the story, as she knew it. Interpretive inquiry offered a strong qualitative framework for the research where “the researcher interprets what they see, hear, and understand” (Creswell, 2007, p. 39). Interpretive inquiry was a good fit because according to Hultgren (1989):

The investigator’s task is to go to the heart of what calls us, by looking for themes that lie concealed in unexamined events of everyday life. There is no claim for developing certainty or completeness as human understanding of human experience is always in process. (p. 59)

Since the organizational stress and satisfaction levels also provided key insight for the researcher, this data was analyzed quantitatively and incorporated into the final analysis.

Subjects

The stakeholders involved in this study included the organizational leaders, the MOSRPP administrators, and the organizational personnel. Each had a story to tell and influenced the study based on their background and circumstances. In order to

understand the lived experience there must be a deeper understanding of each of the stakeholders. Insight into their background and circumstances follows.

Organizational leaders. An individual selected to be an organizational leader in the military is usually dedicated to serving something bigger than themselves. In this case they have dedicated themselves to the service of their country. The squadron is the foundational organization within the Air Force. An Air Force squadron commander would normally have at least 11 years of service in the military and be at least 33 years old. They have at least a bachelor's degree from a four-year college or university and most likely a master's degree as well. They have been selected for and attended each level of the Air Force's officer leadership training including Squadron Officers' School and Intermediate Developmental Education. Being selected for unit command is a great honor and these individuals are carefully screened and recommended for command by a command selection board that carefully reviews their entire military record and recommends only the best to be unit commanders. A commander is on an upward track to additional responsibility and success in a military career. These are career officers who are considered the best of the best.

As the best of the best, they are expected to lead their unit to successful mission accomplishment and at the same time are given complete authority and responsibility for their people's lives and careers. They are expected to be leaders, managers, conflict managers, disciplinarians, and counselors while providing everything an Airman and their family needs from mission skills training to mentoring to life skills guidance. As a leader of an organization with life or death related responsibilities, the mission requirements tend to heavy and unceasing. With this enormous responsibility comes a

great amount of personal responsibility, stress, and need for prioritization, because none of them can do all that is asked of them. The key becomes a need for great leadership ability with a keen ability to prioritize requirements.

MOSRPP administrators/focus group participants. The administrators were selected based on the Airman and Family Readiness Center directors' recommendations with preference going to the family life specialists and spouse employment specialists. All the administrators held at least a bachelor's degree in a social science field. Each one was hand selected based on their passion to positively influence the military organizations they served.

They participated in this study as an additional duty in order to have an impact on the organizational stress prevalent in military organizations today. It required increased workload, extra training, travel, and additional hours both at home and at work, but they all did it without complaint and with a zeal for excellence. Meanwhile they performed their day to day jobs and provided outstanding daily support to other organizations on the base in the forms of classes orienting Airmen to military culture, relationship classes, productivity classes, employment services, family support programs, and life skills training. Through this experience they forged new ground in the area of organizational stress reduction and customized support to the military leaders they support.

Organizational personnel who participated in MOSRPP. Even though the organizations involved in this study ranged from 211 to 425 people, each only had three officers – the leader, plus two junior officers assigned. The majority of the unit and therefore the participants were enlisted personnel with 44% across the Air Force being under 26 years old and 18.9% women (Air Force Personnel Center, 2012). The Air Force

enlisted corps is well educated with 67.7% having some college, 20.9% with associate's degrees, and 6.5% with bachelor's degrees (Air Force Personnel Center, 2012). So across the Air Force, the enlisted corps is fairly young and yet fairly well educated.

Although fairly young, the individuals in these organizations are in a high stress career field with a high operations tempo. The military police career field provides security and protection for people, equipment, and bases. Most are on a 12-hour a day schedule with minimal days off each week – usually one. The high operations tempo is driven by extensive deployments with a 1:1 deploy to dwell ratio and high home station requirements. The same amount of high home station requirements are accomplished by fewer individuals due to the number of people who are deployed at any one time. When deployed, they are exposed to daily life and death situations, so often times the home station requirements of standing guard, patrolling a quiet military base in the United States, or taking a survey seem unimportant.

To add to this environment, unfortunately some of the individuals were brought in on their day off to accomplish the PDP ProScan® survey since their normal duties are not accomplished in front of a computer or at a desk. The feeling among the participants seemed to be, one more requirement to add to our already long list. Whereas some individuals were able to look past this during their participation, it influenced some people's perspectives in a negative way.

Methods and Instruments

Instruments. The researcher used three instruments in this study; one professionally developed survey and two instruments developed for the MOSRPP. The first instrument was the PDP ProScan® survey which was professionally developed and

tested for reliability and validity (Appendix B). The two instruments developed for the MOSRPP were the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form and the MOSRPP administrator evaluation form (Appendix C).

PDP ProScan® survey. The PDP ProScan® survey served as the primary measurement tool. According to the PDP Technical and Research Reference Guide (2003), “PDP is a DynaMetric system that provides a concise, direct procedure for measuring the major aspects of self-perception. It reveals the individual’s basic behavior, reaction to the environment, and predictable behavioral patterns” (p. 1.1). Houston, Solomon, and Hubby designed the original PDP system (PDP, 2003). “The survey contains 60 adjectives; surveyors ask respondents to react to each adjective on a 5-point Likert scale under two separate views: Basic Self and Priority environment” (PDP, 2003, p. 1.1). The basic/natural self-corresponds to how a person operates when he/she is free to respond naturally and the priority environment corresponds to the environments that are significant to the person with responses to individuals within those environments (PDP, 2003). “Validity of the instrument has been researched using four well-known approaches: construct, concurrent, predictive, and content validity; split-half reliability of all adjectives exceeded .86” (PDP, 2003, p. 1.1). The fact that this tool is reliable and valid is critical; moreover, it takes only three to five minutes to complete for ease of administration.

Group training session evaluation form. The Certified PDP Trainer and researcher collaborated on adapting PDP’s evaluation form for use with the MOSRPP. Members of the targeted organizations completed these evaluation forms during two-hour group training sessions; this resulted in detailed responses on specific stressors, items

impacting their satisfaction level, and potential solutions provided by individuals in the organization. The evaluation form also asked respondents to answer six questions based on a Gallup study (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999). Buckingham and Coffman identified twelve questions, “that are the simplest and most accurate way to measure the strength of a workplace” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 29). They also determined that “The core of a strong and vibrant workplace can be found in the first six questions” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). These six questions are used by PDP when they request an individual’s evaluation of their experience with the PDP ProScan® and were included in the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form by the Certified PDP Trainer.

The MOSRPP administrator aggregated the results from the MOSRPP group training session evaluation forms to provide organizational leaders with an overall unit perspective. This perspective included stressors, items impacting the satisfaction level, and potential solutions provided by individuals in the organization. The administrator also provided the numeric results from the six questions based on the Gallup study referenced above. Together these items gave the organizational leader a unique view of their organization.

MOSRPP administrator evaluation. The researcher and Certified PDP Trainer collaborated on developing the MOSRPP administrator evaluation form. The MOSRPP administrators provided feedback on their experience with each organization, with the goal of improving the project. The administrator evaluation form asked participants what worked well and what would improve their experiences in these areas: initial consultation with the organizational leader, group training sessions, and exit consultation with the

leader. Administrators also identified strengths and suggested improvements from an overall project perspective.

Methods. The methods used included surveys (noted above), a focus group, and interviews.

Focus group. The project manager conducted a focus group with three MOSRPP administrators via teleconference. The two MOSRPP administrators who were not available to participate in the focus group provided written responses. The teleconference was audio recorded and participants responded to the questions in Appendix D.

Leadership interviews. The researcher added organizational leader interviews (Appendix E) that were specific to this study. These interviews added the emotional intelligence social awareness perspective to the study. Interviews with participating organizational leaders resulted in their perspectives on emotional intelligence, the importance of emotional intelligence social awareness as a part of their leadership style, whether they thought the MOSRPP provided them with increased emotional intelligence social awareness, what actions they implemented in their organization as a result of the MOSRPP experience, and any recommendations on how the project could be more valuable to them as organizational leaders. The researcher limited respondent selection to those who participated in the MOSRPP.

The results of the surveys, focus group, and leader interviews combined to present an overall picture of organizational stress and satisfaction levels and the leaders perceived emotional intelligence social awareness.

Sample Selection

The researcher knew none of the MOSRPP participants. This study employed purposive sampling for the MOSRPP since high-level military decision makers identified police as the highest-risk career field (Vice Chief of Staff of the Air Force Memo, November 2010). Headquarters military police experts and human resources experts selected five military police units to participate in the project.

These five locations offered a good cross-section of different types of military bases and security requirements, which in part drive military police organizational mission requirements. Selected locations also offered a variety of situations. A description of each base follows: (a) Total Force (i.e. active duty, Air National Guard / Reserve) operational (i.e. war-fighting) military base with an extensive flying mission, (b) headquarters base with large security requirements due to 27 general officers assigned, (c) joint base (i.e. more than one military branch represented) where assigned services (Air Force, Army and Navy) recently consolidated base support functions, (d) medium-size military base with an operational and academic mission, and (e) medium-size military base with an operational flying mission. Four locations already possessed trained MOSRPP administrators assigned to Airman and Family Readiness Centers. The MOSRPP administrators traveled to the fifth base to conduct both phases of the MOSRPP. Administrators ensured all levels of leadership at these locations participated in pilot project approval, planning, and application.

Procedures

The researcher used secondary data with permission (Appendix H), which was originally collected during the MOSRPP, conducted January 2011- December 2011. The

secondary data was (a) PDP ProScan® survey results, (b) MOSRPP group training session evaluation form results, (c) MOSRPP administrator evaluation results, and (d) focus group participant responses. Primary data from interviews with organizational leaders was added to the MOSRPP secondary data specifically for this study.

After headquarters-level military police experts selected the five participating organizations, the researcher contacted the organizational leaders and outlined the pilot project procedures via a teleconference. After the organizational leaders received a project review and agreed to participate, each leader sent correspondence to every member of their organization, introducing them to the project and the potential opportunity.

MOSRPP Phase I

PDP ProScan® Survey. PDP ProScan® Survey measured squadron members' reactions to their environment and their satisfaction levels. During Phase I of the MOSRPP, the ProScan® survey was administered to all available members in the five designated organizations between January 1, 2011 and February 25, 2011. More than 400 people took the survey. Personnel on vacation, ill or on temporary duty away from their home station did not take the survey. Individuals had at least one week to complete the survey, which allowed for potential shift work, time off, and temporary duty at other locations. All study participants completed their ProScan® survey electronically via the PDPworks website. Individuals received an automatically generated report, which was also stored in the PDPworks database.

Initial consultation with organizational leader. As soon as the individual ProScan® surveys were completed, the MOSRPP administrator scheduled an initial

consultation with the organizational leader. During this session, the administrator explained the sequence of events—initial consultation with the organizational leader, two-hour group training sessions with all available organization personnel, and exit consultation with the organizational leader. The researcher attended and participated in the initial consultation with the organizational leader at one of the locations to confirm the process was conducted according to training guidelines and established procedures. This initial consultation provided the organizational leader with an overview of the MOSRPP phases.

MOSRPP group training session. After the individual surveys were completed, MOSRPP administrators also coordinated with the organizational leader and scheduled several two-hour group training sessions for organization personnel, ensuring convenient times so all respondents could participate. Since military police organizations are manned 24 hours a day, 365 days a year, scheduled sessions coincided with various work shifts—day, swing, or midnight.

Once the initial consultation was complete, MOSRPP administrators held the two-hour group training sessions on-site, within the organization, to make it as easy as possible for organization personnel to attend. The researcher attended and participated in the two-hour group training sessions at one of the locations to confirm the process was conducted according to training guidelines and established procedures. During the group training sessions, organization personnel received copies of their individual PDP ProScan® reports and MOSRPP administrators explained the report results. During the two-hour session, administrators asked organization personnel to fill out the MOSRPP group training evaluation form, providing details on individual stressors and items

driving their satisfaction level, whether these were present in the unit, and potential solutions. Administrators collected more than 200 individual MOSRPP group training session evaluation forms from the five different units, where individuals provided statements on stressors and impacts on their satisfaction levels.

TeamScan® report. Once the group training sessions were complete, MOSRPP administrators produced an organizational statistics report called TeamScan® using PDP works, the PDP website/data base. TeamScan® aggregated individual ProScan® survey results and established an organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction baseline. The TeamScan® report showed stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels from an organizational perspective.

Exit consultation with organizational leader. Leaders received the TeamScan® Report for their organization during the exit consultation to provide organizational level awareness and perspective. Using TeamScan®, and consolidated data from the MOSRPP group training session evaluation forms, MOSRPP administrators provided leaders with organizational stress/energy drain and organizational satisfaction levels, stress triggers, and impacts on satisfaction levels. They specifically provided leaders with items that their people reported were causing them stress and, when applicable, low/medium satisfaction levels. The MOSRPP administrators asked leaders to use these insights to develop methods addressing specific areas their people identified as causing stress or impacting satisfaction levels. This enabled the leaders to develop methods to reduce stress/energy drain and increase satisfaction levels, if they so choose. The researcher attended and participated in the exit consultation with the organizational leader at one of the locations to confirm the process was conducted according to training

guidelines and established procedures. Approximately one month after the exit consultation, the MOSRPP administrator followed up with the organizational leader to offer assistance, if needed, and inquired as to what if any methods the leader implemented.

MOSRPP Phase II

Phase II was a repeat of the Phase I process, four to six months later.

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted MOSRPP in two phases: Phase I included establishing the organizational stress level baseline by aggregating the ProScan® Survey results into the TeamScan® report to identify organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels. In addition, the researcher consolidated individual (a) stressors, and (b) items impacting satisfaction levels self-reported via the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form. Leaders received this information during Phase I to increase their awareness of issues affecting their people. Additionally, MOSRPP administrators asked leaders to use it to develop plans addressing specific areas identified as causing stress or impacting satisfaction. Phase II involved repeating the PDP ProScan® survey after four to six months—a time during which organizational leaders had the opportunity to implement actions they thought relevant to reducing stress and increasing satisfaction within their organization based on the feedback they received from the MOSRPP administrators. This interpretive inquiry involved reviewing organizational leaders' action items they chose to implement, quantitative, and qualitative analysis.

The researcher used quantitative analysis to determine if the PDP ProScan® survey was reliable and valid, whether each organization offered a strong and vibrant workplace,

and to compare the Phase II organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels to the Phase I baseline. Phase I group training session evaluation forms provided the data on reliability and validity via questions 1-3 and whether an organization offered a strong and vibrant workplace via questions 4a-9b, using a Likert scale of one through five. To add credibility and to be able to generalize the results, the researcher randomly selected 30 participants from each of the five teams using a computer algorithm within a random number generator. This data was statistically analyzed using a z -test: comparison of proportions with the percentage of 1s and 2s compared to the percentage of 4s and 5s. All scores of 3 were considered neutral and not incorporated into the analysis.

The quantitative analysis of the stress/energy drain evaluation included a pre and post look, so the data was scrubbed until only participants who participated in both Phase I and Phase II remained. Once again, in order to be able to generalize the results more effectively, the researcher randomly selected 30 participants from each of the five teams as noted previously. The Phase I and Phase II results for stress/energy drain and satisfaction for the 30 randomly selected participants for each team were compared and statistically analyzed using a z -test: comparison of proportions. The stress/energy drain evaluation categories of minimum, average and notable were combined since none of these offered a cause for concern on the stress level. The combination of these three categories was compared to the combined stress/energy drain evaluation categories of quite notable, very notable, extremely notable, and critically notable. The satisfaction levels of average and high were combined and compared to the low satisfaction level category.

The qualitative analysis included identification of stressors and items impacting the satisfaction level from the group training evaluation forms, MOSRPP administrators’ evaluations, leadership interviews, and a focus group. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the stressors and items impacting the satisfaction levels. MOSRPP administrators’ responses were summarized and combined with insights from the focus group. The leadership interviews were used to develop case studies and incorporated into the researcher’s findings of the lived experience.

Descriptive Summaries

The following tables describe the five teams from the MOSRPP study. Descriptive data on each team provides the self-reported stressors and items influencing individual satisfaction levels and the organizational data used in analyzing the stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels used in the statistical analysis for supporting or rejecting the null hypotheses.

MOSRPP Team 1.

Group training session evaluation form. The group training session evaluation form provided self-reported stressors (Table 1) and items influencing the individual’s satisfaction level (Table 2).

Table 1. *Team 1 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors*

Stressor Origin	% of reported stressors
Work generated	57%
Home generated	20%
Self-generated	30%

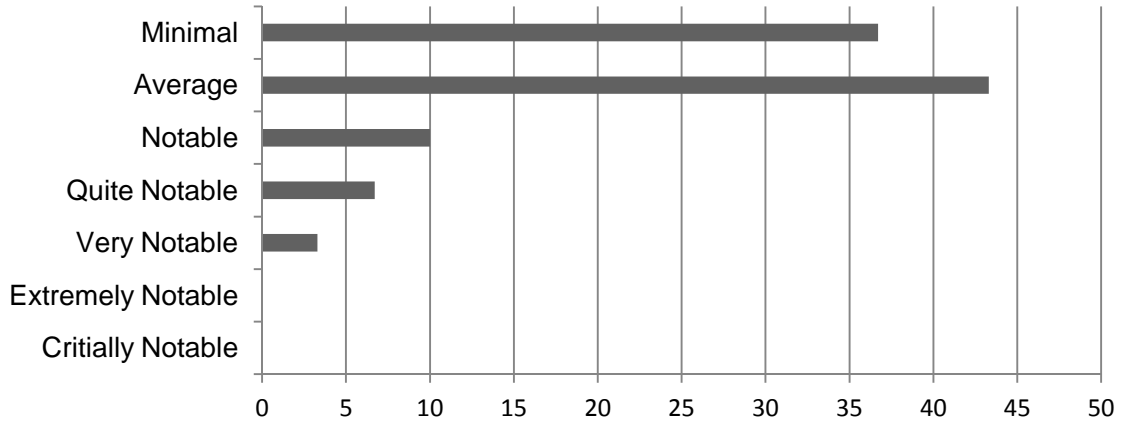
Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

Table 2. *Team 1 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level*

Area Impacting Satisfaction Level	% of Items Impacting Satisfaction Level		
	High	Average	Low
Work	7%	7%	40%
Home	13%	7%	7%
Overall	3%	7%	0

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

TeamScan® report data on energy drain. The researcher used quantitative data on Stress/Energy Drain from Team 1’s Phase I and Phase II TeamScan Reports to answer Hypothesis #3 using a z-test comparison of proportions. Combined percentages of minimum, average, and notable stress/energy drain were compared to the combined percentages of quite notable, very notable, extremely notable, and critically notable. Figures 1 and 2 show Team 1’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each stress/energy drain category.



Energy Drain Descriptions:

- 36.7% Minimal: Energy drain is almost nonexistent.
- 43.3% Average: Typical drain for functioning in daily activity requirements, drain is not significant to worry about.
- 10% Notable: Energy drain is somewhat significant, but not enough to cause great concern.
- 6.7% Quite Notable: Energy drain is reaching a level of significance that may raise a question of concern, examine causes.
- 3.3% Very Notable: Effectiveness may be diminished; as a result of stress or efforts to adjust to unnatural roles, energy drain is significant.
- 0% Extremely Notable: Evaluate how long activities can continue that drain energy; there is marginal energy to spare as a result of energy loss.
- 0% Critically Notable: It is critical to isolate the activities of greatest importance and focus efforts directly toward them; any margin of extra energy seems nonexistent.

Figure 1. Team 1 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

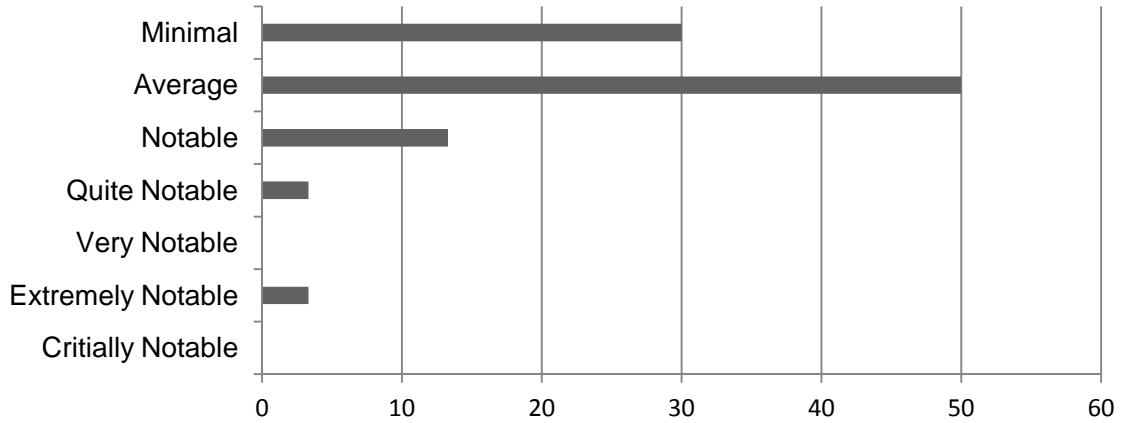
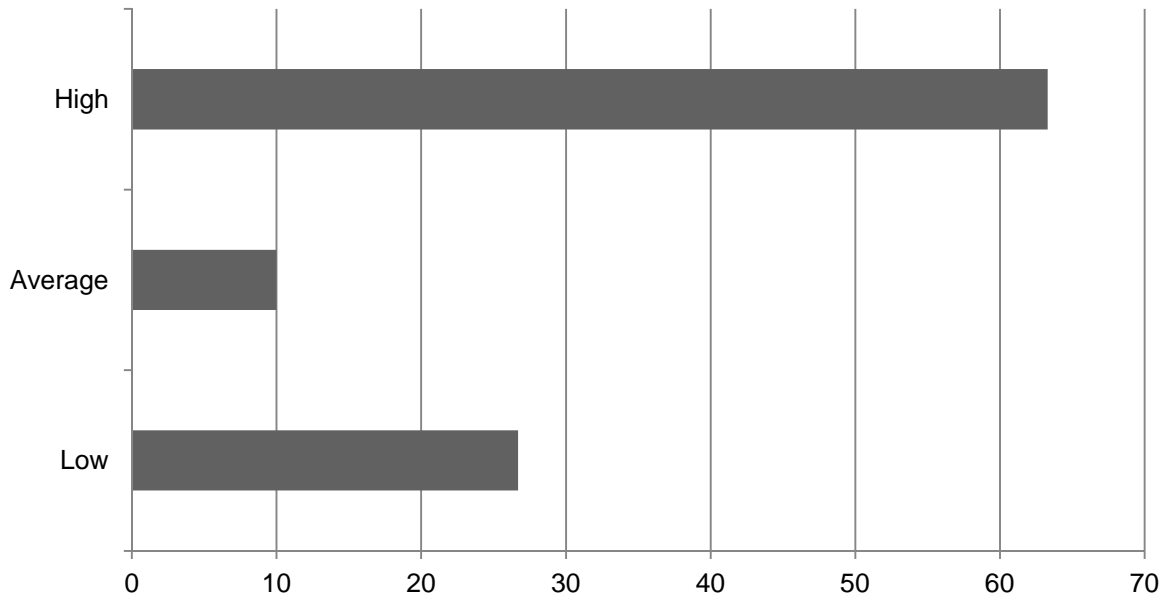


Figure 2. Team 1 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

TeamScan® report data on satisfaction. Quantitative data on satisfaction from Team 1’s Phase I and Phase II TeamScan® Reports were used to answer Hypothesis #4 using a z-test comparison of proportions. Combined percentages of high and average satisfaction were compared to the percentage of low satisfaction. Figures 3 and 4 show Phase I and Phase II data results for each satisfaction category.



Satisfaction Level Descriptions

63.3% High: Feeling of high morale; getting many rewards, feeling fulfilled.

10% Average: Getting enough rewards, seeing light at the end of the tunnel.

26.7% Low: Not getting rewards for effort being put forth, may feel discouraged, misused or not being used to fullest potential.

Figure 3. Team 1 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations
 Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and
 personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

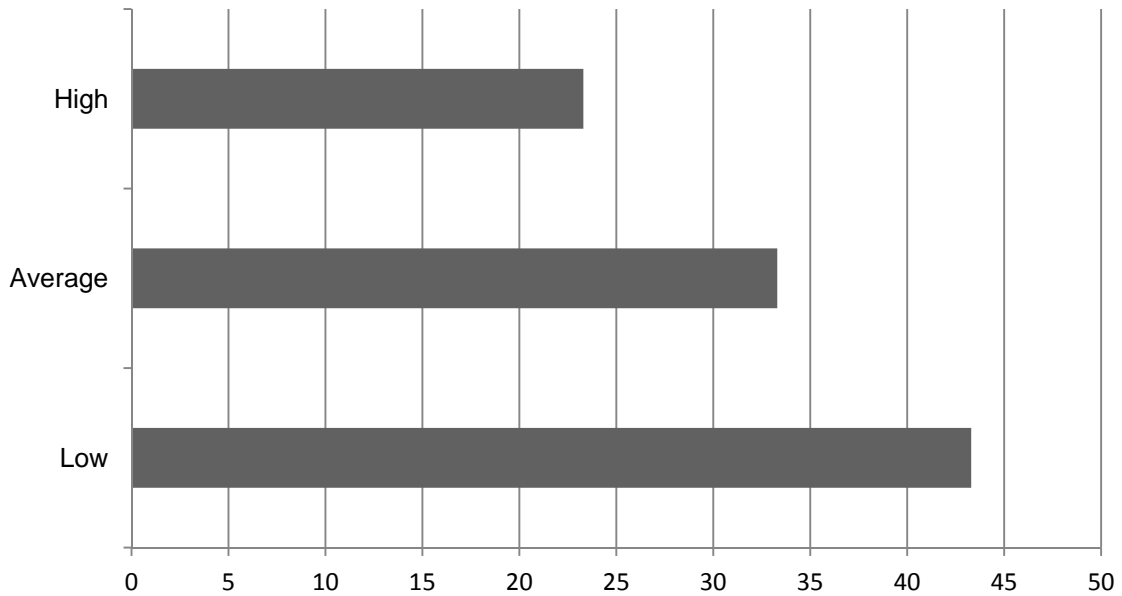


Figure 4. Team 1 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations. Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

MOSRPP Team 2.

Group training session evaluation form. The group training session evaluation form provided self-reported stressors (Table 3) and items influencing the individual’s satisfaction level (Table 4).

Table 3. Team 2 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors

Stressor Origin	% of Reported Stressors
Work generated	163%
Home generated	37%
Self-generated	33%

Note. n = 30. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

Table 4. *Team 2 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level*

<i>% of Items Impacting Satisfaction Level</i>			
<i>Area Impacting Satisfaction Level</i>	<i>High</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Low</i>
Work	20%	23%	53%
Home	3%	3%	0%
Overall	0%	10%	3%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

TeamScan® report data on energy drain. Figures 5 and 6 show Team 2's Phase I and Phase II data results for each stress/energy drain category.

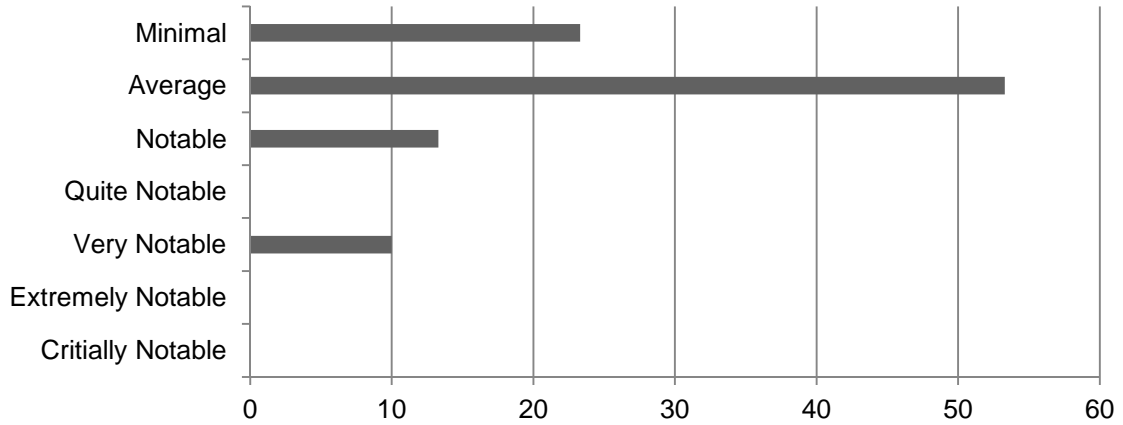


Figure 5. Team 2 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

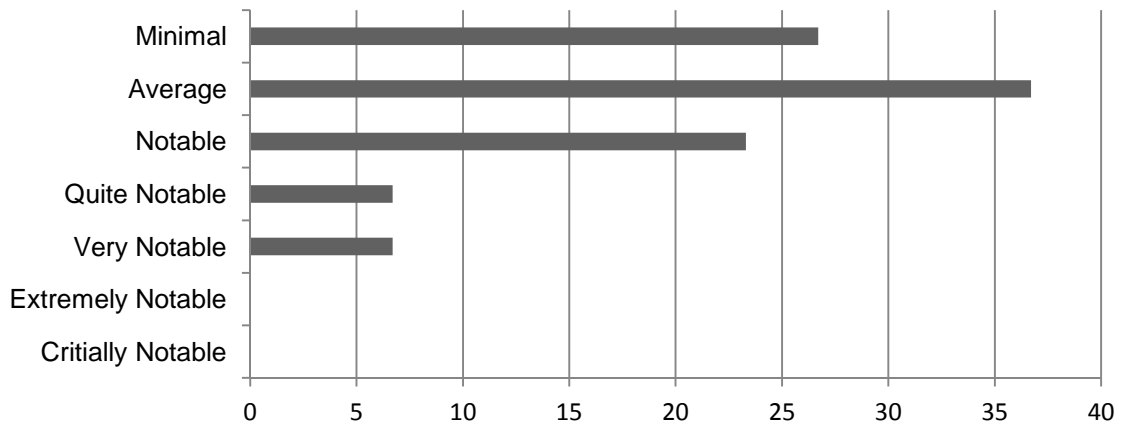


Figure 6. Team 2 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

TeamScan® report data on satisfaction. Figures 7 and 8 show Team 2’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each satisfaction category.

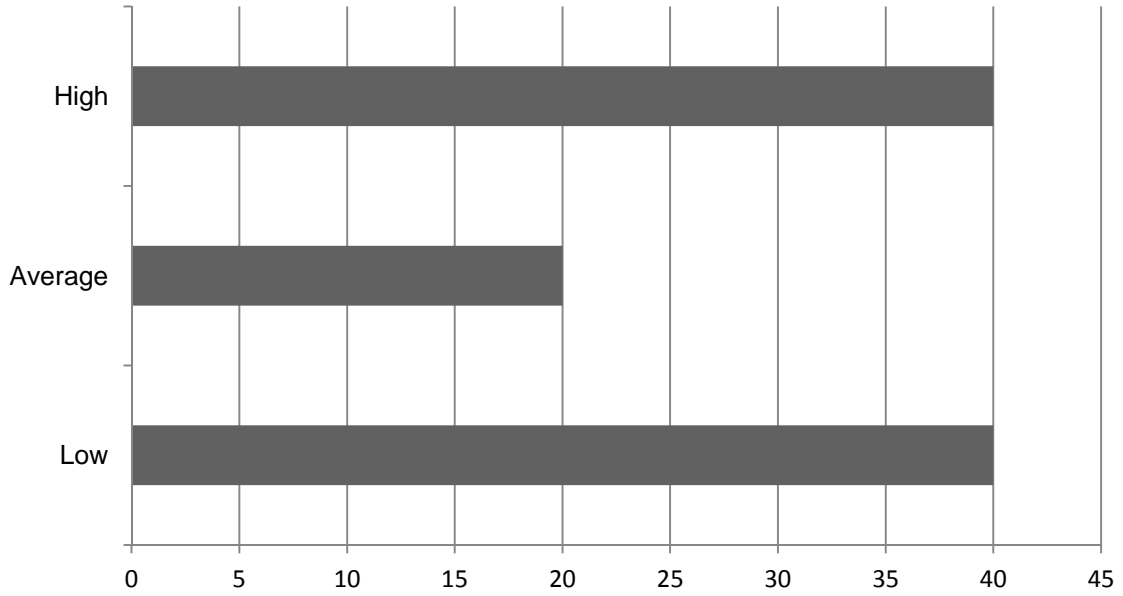


Figure 7. Team 2 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations
Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

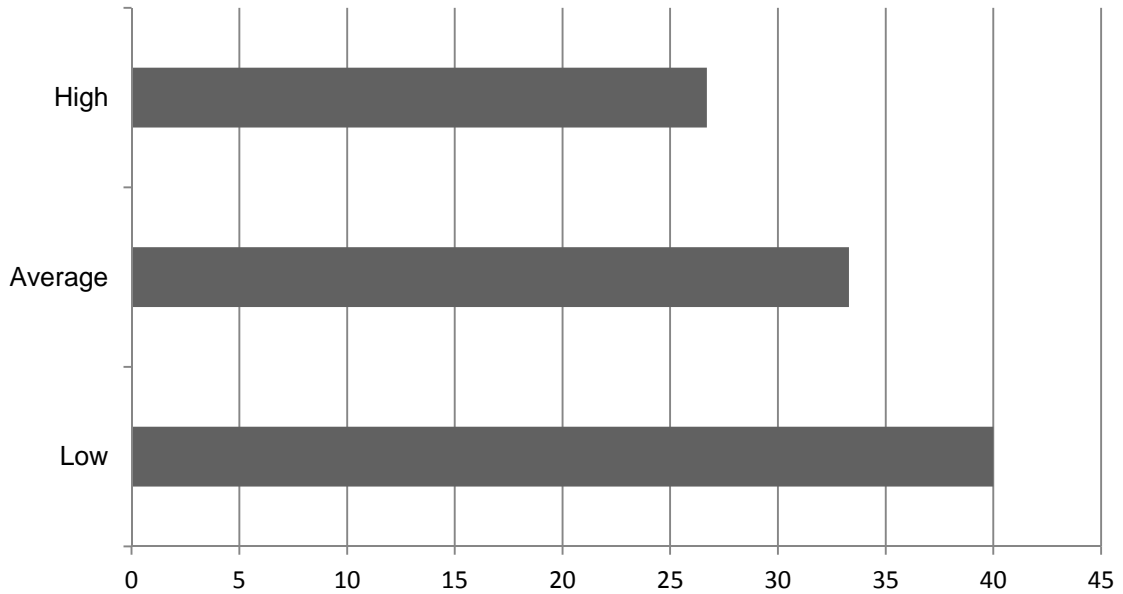


Figure 8. Team 2 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations
Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

MOSRPP Team 3.

Group training session evaluation form. The group training session evaluation form provided self-reported stressors (Table 5) and items influencing the individual’s satisfaction level (Table 6).

Table 5. *Team 3 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors*

Stressor Origin	% of Reported Stressors
Work generated	80%
Home generated	53%
Self-generated	27%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

Table 6. *Team 3 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level*

Area Impacting Satisfaction Level	% of Items Impacting Satisfaction Level		
	High	Average	Low
Work	33%	10%	23%
Home	3%	7%	3%
Overall	10%	20%	7%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

TeamScan® report data on energy drain. Figures 9 and 10 show Team 3’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each stress/energy drain category.

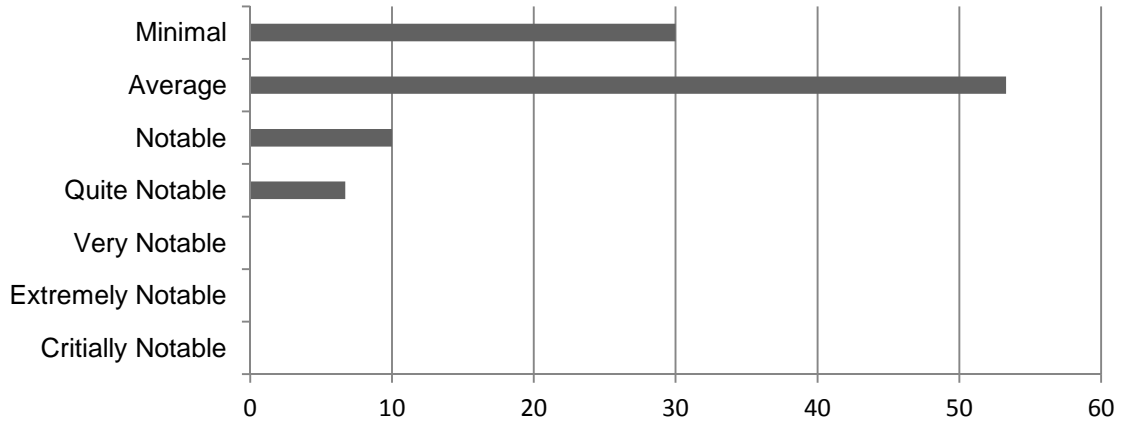


Figure 9. Team 3 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

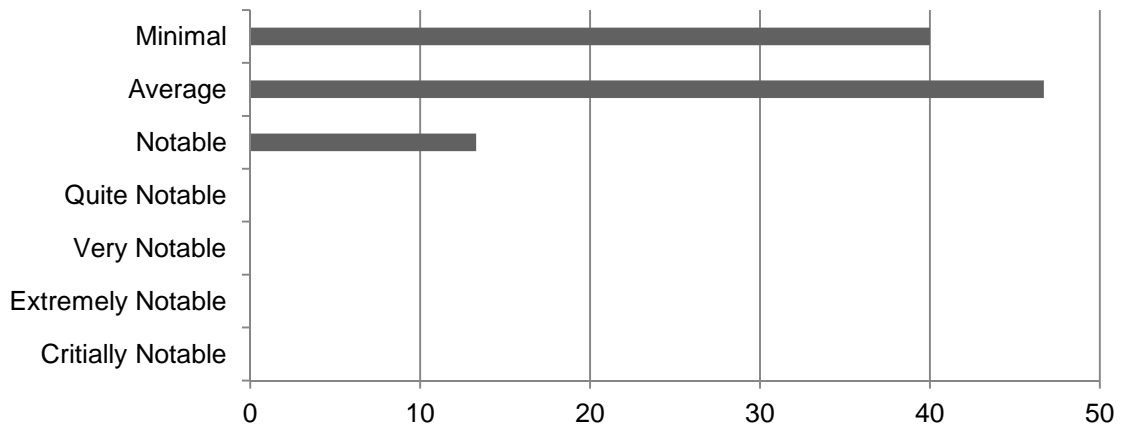


Figure 10. Team 3 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

TeamScan® report data on satisfaction. Figures 11 and 12 show Team 3’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each satisfaction category.

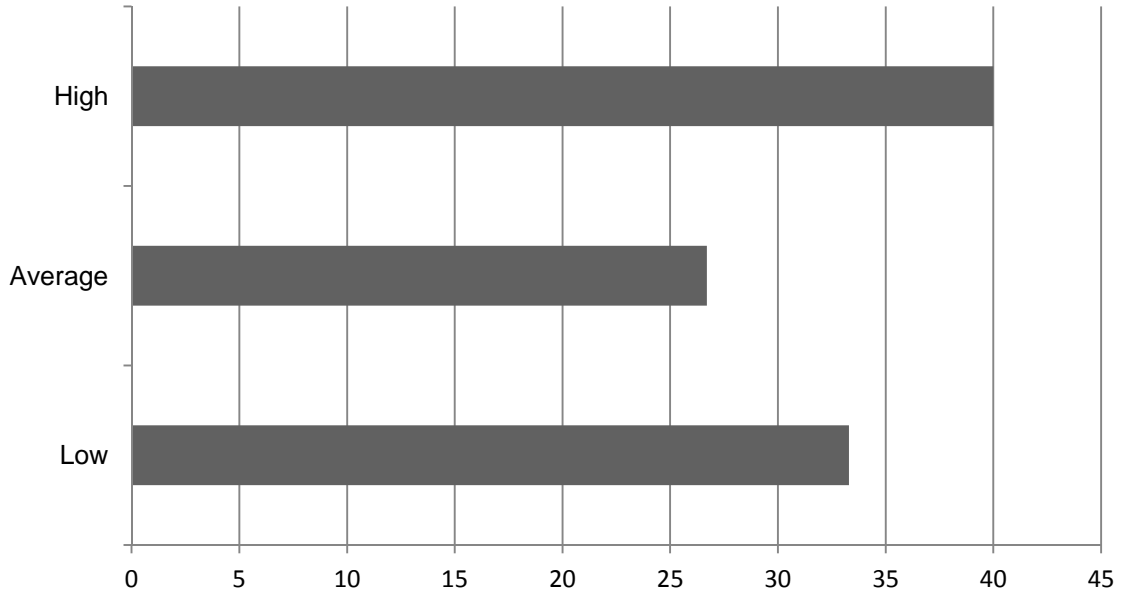


Figure 11. Team 3 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations
Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

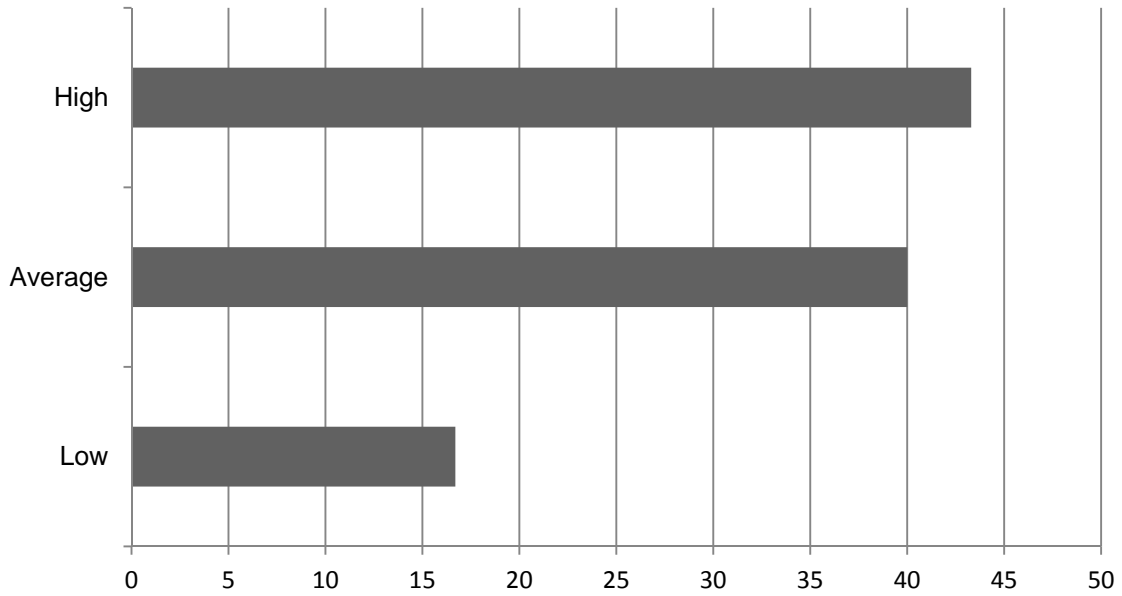


Figure 12. Team 3 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations
Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

MOSRPP Team 4.

Group training session evaluation form. The group training session evaluation form provided self-reported stressors (Table 7) and items influencing the individual’s satisfaction level (Table 8).

Table 7. *Team 4 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors*

Stressor Origin	% of Reported Stressors
Work generated	150%
Home generated	30%
Self-generated	7%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

Table 8. *Team 4 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level*

Area Impacting Satisfaction Level	% of Items Impacting Satisfaction Level		
	High	Average	Low
Work	3%	3%	50%
Home	17%	3%	3%
Overall	7%	3%	3%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none

TeamScan® report data on energy drain. Figures 13 and 14 show Team 4’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each stress/energy drain category.

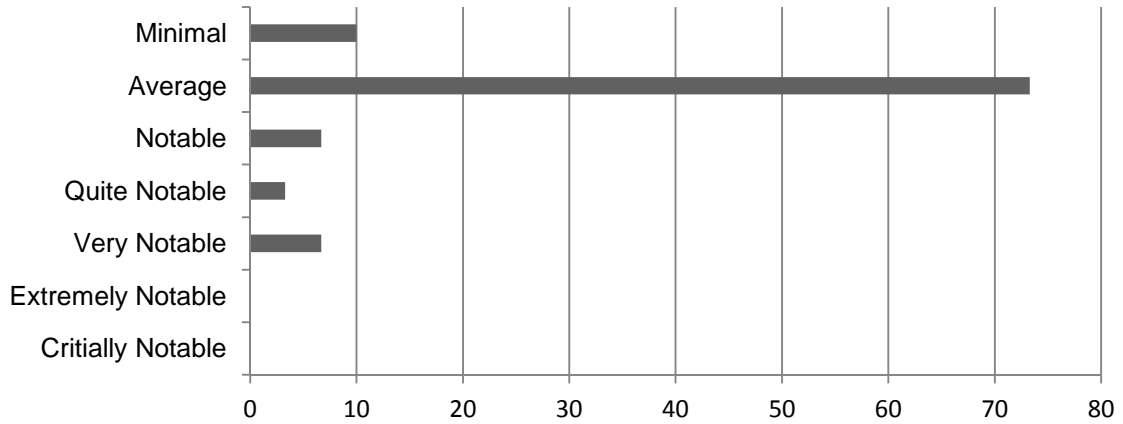


Figure 13. Team 4 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

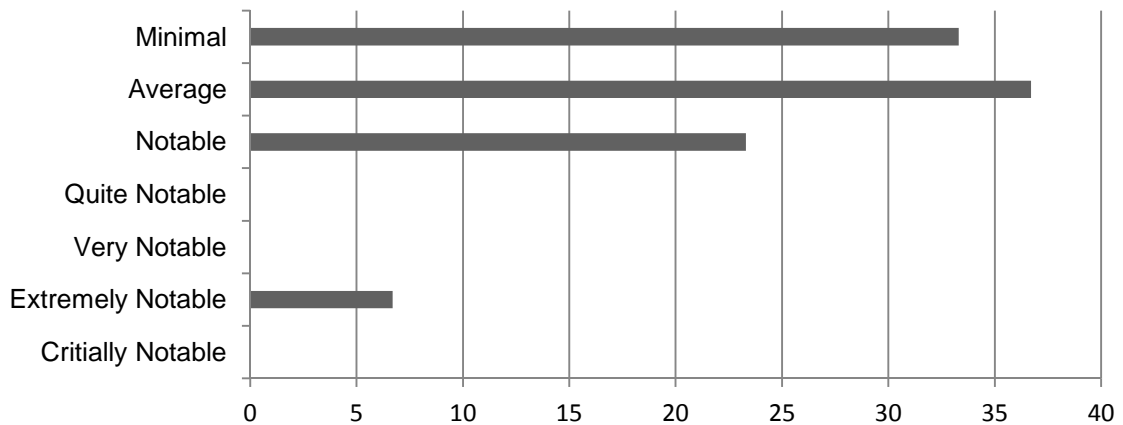


Figure 14. Team 4 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

TeamScan® report data on satisfaction. Figures 15 and 16 show Team 4’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each satisfaction category.

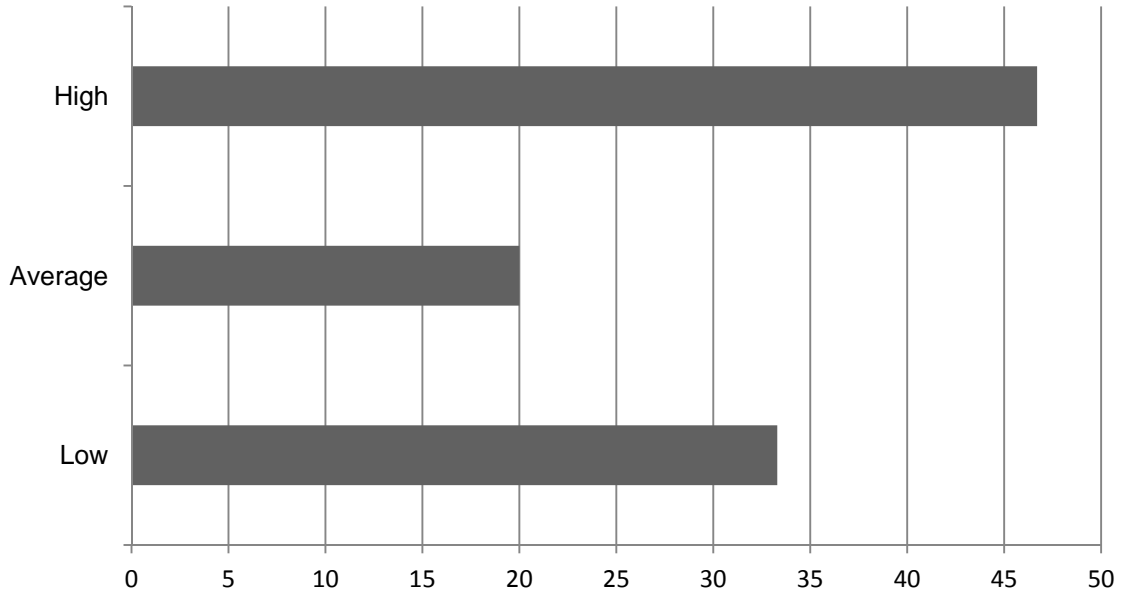


Figure 15. Team 4 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations. Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

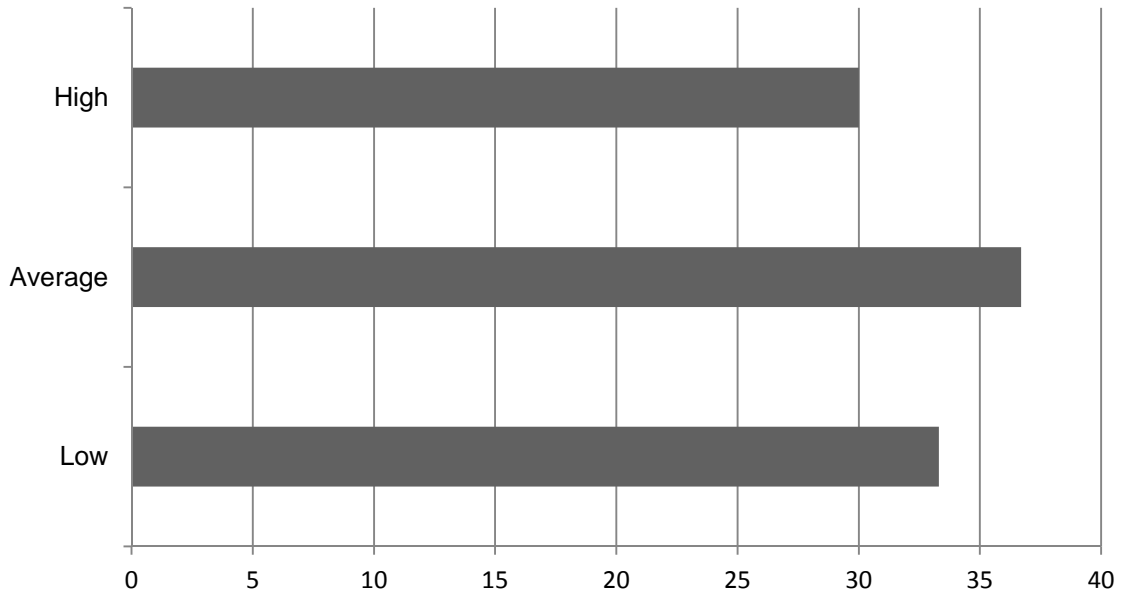


Figure 16. Team 4 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations. Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

MOSRPP Team 5.

Group training session evaluation form. The group training session evaluation form provided self-reported stressors (Table 9) and items influencing the individual’s satisfaction level (Table 10).

Table 9. *Team 5 Descriptive Statistics Self-Reported Stressors*

Stressor Origin	% of Reported Stressors
Work generated	137%
Home generated	13%
Self-generated	7%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

Table 10. *Team 5 Descriptive Statistics Satisfaction Level*

Area Impacting Satisfaction Level	% of Items Impacting Satisfaction Level		
	High	Average	Low
Work	27%	13%	30%
Home	3%	0%	0%
Overall	7%	0%	0%

Note. $n = 30$. Individuals may have reported more than one stressor or none.

TeamScan® report data on energy drain. Figures 17 and 18 show Team 5’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each stress/energy drain category.

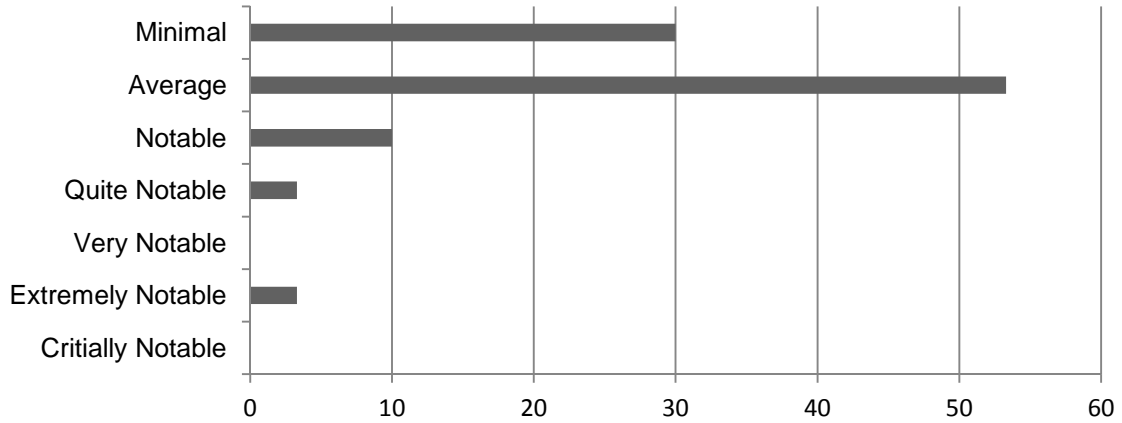


Figure 17. Team 5 Phase I energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

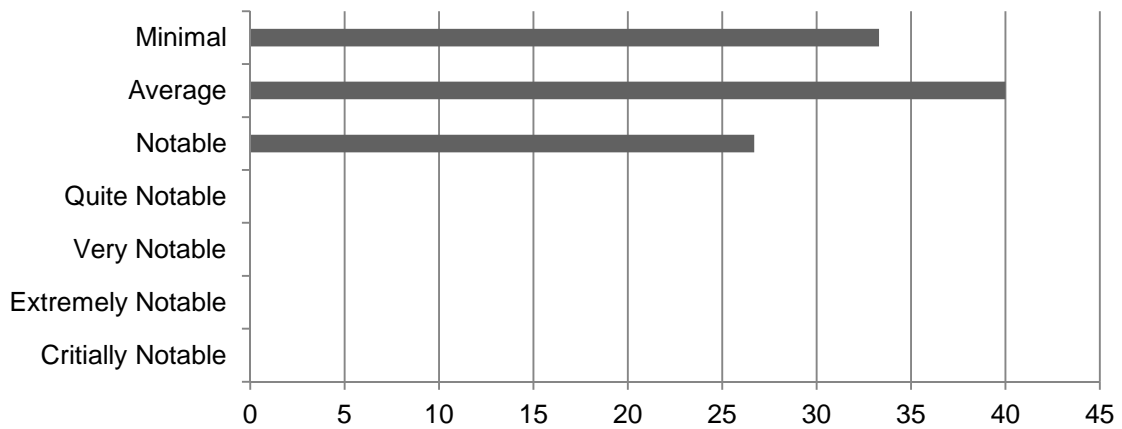


Figure 18. Team 5 Phase II energy drain. Effect of satisfaction and task adjustments on energy level. The above is a slightly modified version of original copyrighted 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

TeamScan® report data on satisfaction. Figures 19 and 20 show Team 5’s Phase I and Phase II data results for each satisfaction category.

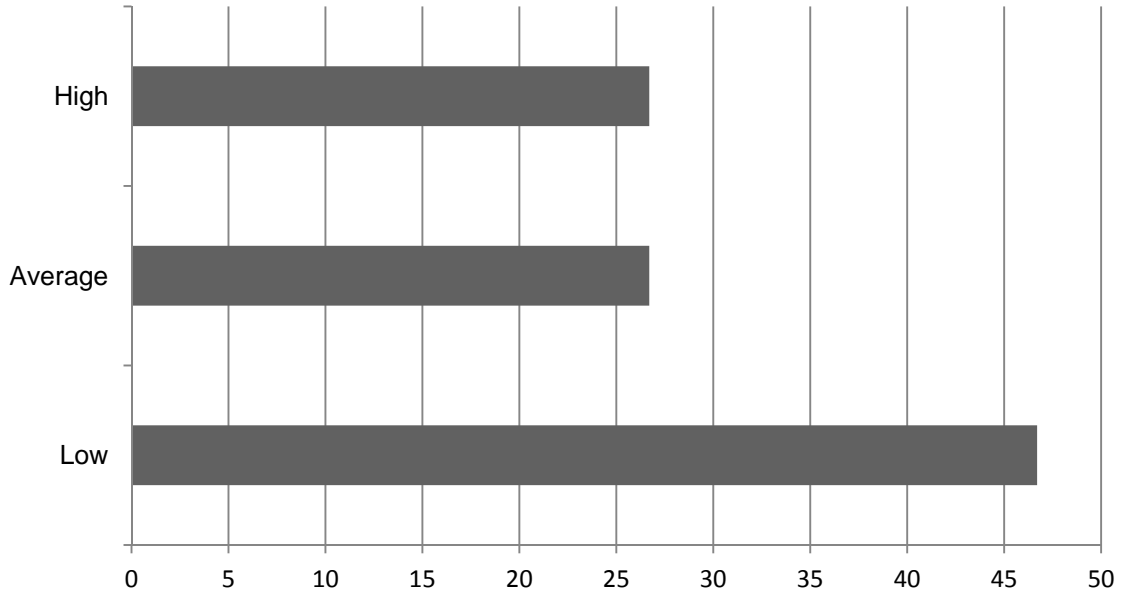


Figure 19. Team 5 Phase I satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

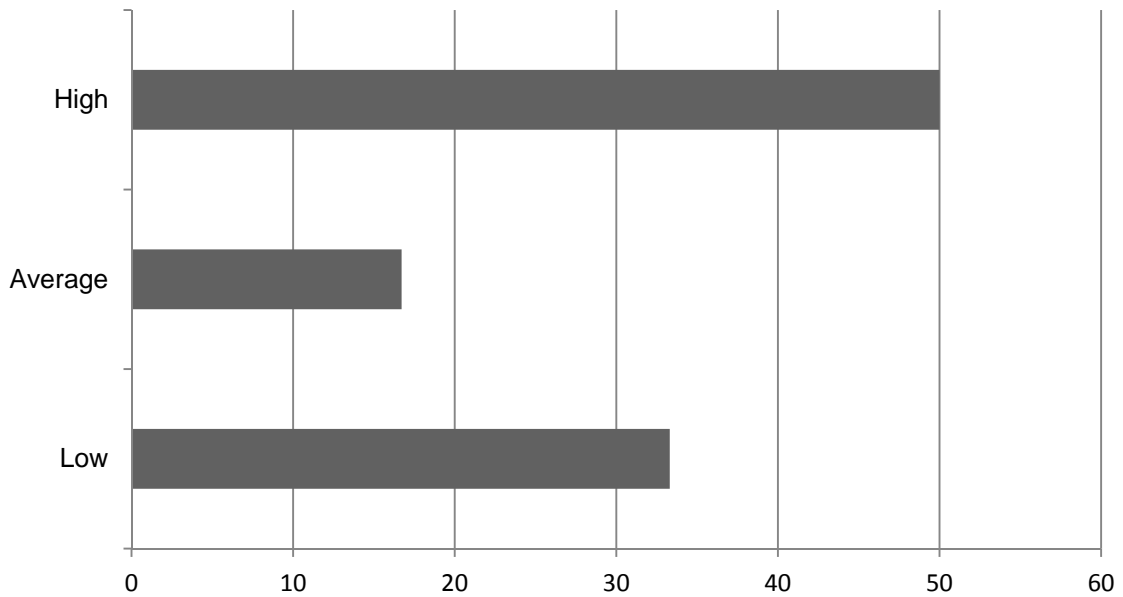


Figure 20. Team 5 Phase II satisfaction. Achieving personal goals and aspirations Indications of level of morale and feeling rewarded for efforts in life, both work and personal. Copyright 1984, Rev. 2012 by Professional DynaMetric Programs, Inc.

Summary

This interpretive inquiry research study investigated the relationship between organizational stress levels in military units and leaderships' emotional intelligence social awareness. A MOSRPP involving five different military police units from around the U.S. served as the study's basis. The researcher used ProScan® Surveys to gather information on individuals' stress level/energy drain and satisfaction level, and electronically aggregated data into an organizational level report called TeamScan®. This, along with aggregated data containing individuals' self-reported stressors and items impacting their satisfaction levels was used to give organizational leaders increased awareness and perspective into their organization. These leaders received organization-specific information, enabling them to create and implement strategies to address stress and satisfaction levels as they chose. After giving organizational leaders time to carry out their action plans (approximately four to six months), MOSRPP representatives implemented Phase II—administered ProScan® Surveys to the same organizations, using the same process. Pre- and post- survey comparisons, leadership case studies, and quantitative analysis of the organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels yielded an instructive view of positive leadership principles, a leader's emotional intelligence (particularly social awareness, but not limited to this one aspect of the four domains of Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model), and a military unit's organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels.

Chapter Four: Presentation of Data

This study investigated the organizational stress in military units and the benefits associated with providing leaders with emotional intelligence social awareness in a positive leadership framework. Positive leadership was used as a framework for this study because leadership provides the foundation for a leader's ability to get results within an organization. The quantitative and qualitative results combined provided very valuable insight. The specific data results of this study follow.

Data Demographics

The military police career field was selected for this study based on its designation as the highest-risk career field by military senior leaders (Vice Chief of Staff of the Air Force Memo, November 2010). This study used purposive sampling for the MOSRPP. Headquarters military police experts and human resources experts selected the five military police organizations that participated in the project.

The five organizations provided a variety of military organizational structure and military police requirements. Team 1 came from a medium-size military base with an operational and academic mission, Team 2 came from a medium-size military base with an operational flying mission, and Team 3 came from Total Force (i.e. active duty, Air National Guard / Reserve) operational (i.e. war-fighting) military base with an extensive flying mission. Team 4 came from a joint base (i.e. more than one military branch represented) where assigned services (Air Force, Army, and Navy) recently consolidated base support functions and Team 5 came from a headquarters base with large security requirements due to 27 general officers assigned. These five organizations offered a variety of challenges, military police requirements, and leadership opportunities.

Data Collection Methods

The researcher used three data collection methods—surveys, a focus group, and interviews. The three surveys included the professionally developed PDP ProScan® survey, the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form and the MOSRPP administrator evaluation form. Other data were collected via a focus group with MOSRPP administrators and organizational leader interviews consisting of questions that were specifically developed for this study. The results of this data collection combined to present an overall picture of reliability and validity, a strong and vibrant work place, organizational stress/energy drain, and satisfaction levels, as well as the leaders' perceived emotional intelligence social awareness.

Data Analysis

The researcher used quantitative and qualitative analysis to analyze the MOSRPP data and address the following hypotheses and research questions. The researcher used quantitative analysis to determine if the PDP ProScan® survey was reliable and valid, whether or not each organization offered a strong and vibrant workplace, and to compare the Phase II organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels to the Phase I baseline. Descriptive statistics was also used to analyze the stressors and items influencing the satisfaction levels. Qualitative analysis was used to interpret MOSRPP administrators' experiences and develop leadership case studies.

Null hypothesis #1. There will be no difference in the proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 2. There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Null hypothesis # 3. There will be no decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Null hypothesis # 4. There will be no increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

Research Questions

1. Can emotional intelligence social awareness be developed among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
2. What are the results of heightening emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress?
3. Can emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress be developed in isolation without triggering the development of the three other domains in Goleman's

2001b emotional intelligence model—self-awareness, self-management, and relationship management?

Results

Quantitative analysis. For the quantitative analysis, Phase I group training session evaluation form questions 1-3 provided the data on reliability and validity, and questions 4a-9b provided data on whether or not an organization offered a strong and vibrant workplace. A Likert scale of 1-5 was used for responses to all questions 1-9b. The researcher randomly selected 30 participants from each of the five teams to add credibility and be able to generalize the results. This data was statistically analyzed using a z-test: comparison of proportions with the percentage of 1s and 2s compared to the percentage of 4s and 5s. All scores of 3 were considered neutral and therefore not included in the analysis.

The quantitative analysis of the stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels included a pre (Phase I) and post (Phase II) review, so the data was scrubbed until only participants who participated in both Phase I and Phase II remained. Phase I established the organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction level baseline by aggregating the ProScan® Survey results into the TeamScan® report to identify organizational stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels for each team. Once again, to generalize the results more effectively, the researcher randomly selected 30 participants from each of the five teams. The researcher compared Phase I and Phase II results for stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels for the 30 randomly selected participants for each team and statistically analyzed them using a z-test: comparison of proportions.

For the stress/energy drain analysis, the categories of minimum, average, and notable were combined, since according to PDP these categories did not identify a stress level that raises concern. The combination of these three categories was compared to the combined stress/energy drain categories of quite notable, very notable, extremely notable, and critically notable. The satisfaction level analysis consisted of combining the satisfaction levels of average and high and comparing them to the low satisfaction level category.

Reliability and validity. The reliability and validity of the ProScan® Survey were evaluated against null hypothesis #1—There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

The z -test for comparison of proportions (see Table 11) showed a statistically significant difference in the percentage of individuals who responded with 1s and 2s compared to the percentage that responded with 4s and 5s. The z score value for each team fell within the critical region (Table 11) and as a result, the null hypothesis was rejected for each. Therefore, there was evidence to support alternate hypothesis #1, There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Table 11. *PDP ProScan Reliability and Validity z Test for Difference in Proportions Group Training Session Evaluation Questions 1 - 3*

	% of Responses of 1s & 2s n = 30	% of Responses of 4s & 5s n = 30	z-Score
Team 1	0.10	0.78	5.31
Team 2	0.10	0.76	5.13
Team 3	0.09	0.74	5.15
Team 4	0.07	0.78	5.57
Team 5	0.11	0.79	5.28

Note. Likert Scale 1-5; alpha = .05, Confidence Level = 95%, Critical Value = +/-1.96

Strong and vibrant work place. The strong and vibrant work place evaluation was conducted using null hypothesis #2—There will be no difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

The z-test for comparison of proportions (see Table 12) showed a statistically significant difference in the percentage of individuals who responded with 1s and 2s compared to the percentage that responded with 4s and 5s. The z score value for each team fell within the critical region (Table 12) and as a result, the null hypothesis was rejected for each. Therefore, there was evidence to support alternate hypothesis #2, There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation.

Table 12. *Strong and Vibrant Work Place z Test for Difference in Proportions Comparing Training Session Evaluation Questions 4a – 9b*

	% of Responses of 1s & 2s n = 30	% of Responses of 4s & 5s n = 30	z-Stat
Team 1	0.13	0.72	4.61
Team 2	0.18	0.68	3.89
Team 3	0.19	0.72	4.12
Team 4	0.16	0.66	3.96
Team 5	0.24	0.64	3.07

Note. Likert Scale 1-5; alpha = .05, Confidence Level = 95%, Critical Value = +/-1.96

As the analysis progressed, it became apparent that there was one question on the group training session evaluation where the responses were not consistent with the others. The overall analysis showed every organization in the study offered a strong and vibrant workplace, however, the researcher believed it was important to expand the analysis to explore the observable difference in question 7, “In the last seven days I’ve received recognition or praise”. Note the large percentage of people on each team who responded to this question with a one or two (Table 13) compared to the overall responses of one or two in Table 12. Even though only Team 5 showed a statistically significant difference between the proportion of people responding to question 7 with a one or two compared to the proportion of people responding with a 4 or 5, there is an important message here. Many people in each organization do not feel they are receiving regular recognition or praise. This became a major point of feedback for each of the organizational leaders because it was identified in both the quantitative analysis of the group training session evaluation and the descriptive statistics identifying stressors and items influencing satisfaction levels described in Chapter 3 Descriptive Summaries by team.

Table 13. *Strong and Vibrant Work Place - Personnel Recognition z Test for Difference in Proportions*

Comparing Group Training Session Evaluation Question 7 Responses

	% of Responses of 1s & 2s <i>n</i> = 30	% of Responses of 4s & 5s <i>n</i> = 30	z-Stat
Team 1	.27	.47	1.60
Team 2	.5	.4	-0.78
Team 3	.4	.37	-0.24
Team 4	.47	.33	-1.11
Team 5	.63	.23	-3.13

Note. Likert Scale 1-5; alpha = .05, Confidence Level = 95%, Critical Value = +/-1.96

Team stress/energy drain levels. The team’s stress/energy drain levels were evaluated using null hypothesis #3—There will be no decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader’s emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

The z-test for comparison of proportions (see Table 14) did not show a statistically significant difference in the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report compared to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report. The z score value for each team did not fall within the critical region (Table 14) and as a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Therefore, alternate hypothesis #3, There will be a decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader’s emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of

the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report, could not be supported. Statistically the examination did not identify any difference between the two phases.

Although from a statistical perspective the examination did not identify any difference in the teams' stress/energy drain levels between Phase I and Phase II, there was an observable difference. All teams had an observable increase in the minimum, average, and notable stress/energy drain category in Phase II compared to Phase I data except for Team 2, which showed a slight decrease. As expected, the corresponding quite notable and above category comparison of Phase I and Phase II data showed a slight decline in all teams except Team 2, which showed a slight increase. It should also be noted that the minimum, average, and notable stress/energy drain category not only increased for Team 3 and Team 5, but also resulted in 100% of both teams moving into this category and zero showing quite notable or above stress/energy drain.

Table 14. *Team Stress/Energy Drain Levels z Test for Difference in Proportions Comparing Phase I and Phase II Team Stress/Energy Drain Levels*

	Phase I Percent Min, Avg & Notable n = 30	Phase II Percent Min, Avg & Notable n = 30	z-Stat for Min, Avg & Notable	Phase I Percent Quite Notable and above n = 30	Phase II Percent Quite Notable and above n = 30	z-Stat for Quite Notable and above
Team 1	0.90	0.93	0.46	0.1	0.07	-0.47
Team 2	0.90	0.87	-0.39	0.10	0.13	0.41
Team 3	0.93	1.00	1.44	0.07	0.00	-1.44
Team 4	0.91	0.93	0.46	0.10	0.07	-0.46
Team 5	0.93	1.00	1.44	0.07	0	-1.43

Note. alpha = .05, Confidence Level = 95%, Critical Value = +/-1.96

Team satisfaction levels. The team’s satisfaction levels were evaluated using null hypothesis #4—There will be no increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader’s emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report.

The z-test for comparison of proportions (Table 15) for all five teams did not show a statistically significant difference in the proportion of organizational satisfaction levels indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report compared to the proportion of organizational satisfaction levels indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report. The z score value for each team did not fall within the critical region (Table 15). As a result, the null hypothesis was not rejected and alternate hypothesis #4, There will be an increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader’s emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as

measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report, cannot be supported. Statistically the examination identified no difference between the two phases for all teams.

Although from a statistical perspective the examination did not identify any difference in the teams' satisfaction levels between Phase I and Phase II, there was an observable difference. All teams' high and average satisfaction levels either stayed the same or increased in Phase II compared to Phase I data except for Team 1, which showed a slight decrease. As expected, the corresponding low satisfaction category comparison of Phase I and Phase II data either stayed the same or showed a slight decline in all teams except Team 1, which showed a slight increase. Although there is not any way to know for certain, it should be noted that Team 1's location experienced a major natural disaster between phase I and phase II, followed one day later by a major deployment and this could have influenced satisfaction levels.

Table 15. *Team Satisfaction Levels z Test for Differences in Proportions Comparing Phase I and Phase II Team Satisfaction Levels*

	Phase I % High & Average Satis- faction Level n = 30	Phase II % High & Average Satis- faction Level n = 30	z-Stat for High & Average Satis- faction Level	Phase I % Low Satis- faction Level n = 30	Phase II % Low Satis- faction Level n = 30	z-Stat for Low Satis- faction Level
Team 1	0.73	0.56	-1.43	0.27	0.42	1.27
Team 2	0.60	0.60	0.00	0.40	0.40	0.00
Team 3	0.67	0.83	1.48	0.33	0.17	-1.48
Team 4	0.67	0.67	0.00	0.33	0.33	0.00
Team 5	0.53	0.67	1.05	0.47	0.33	-1.06

Note. alpha = .05, Confidence Level = 95%, Critical Value = +/-1.96

Qualitative Analysis

MOSRPP administrator evaluations. Overall, the administrators believed the PDP ProScan® to be an excellent tool for organizational leaders and stressed the importance of training the right people as MOSRPP administrators. The primary suggestion for improvement was to reduce the number of attendees for each group training session. Due to the high operations tempo the MOSRPP administrators also tended to have difficulty scheduling the group training sessions. The organizational leaders were supportive for the most part and one administrator described one of the leaders as “excellent, cooperative, and insightful”. Several of the leaders were familiar with the PDP ProScan® from participating in previous training provided prior to taking this leadership position. The administrators also felt most of the leaders were open to helping alleviate stressors in the organization. They also thought it was beneficial for the organization to have two or three MOSRPP administrators (depending on the size of the

organization) participate in each organization's evaluation to support each other and the leader throughout the process.

Focus group. Three MOSRPP administrators participated in the focus group via teleconference. The other two administrators provided written responses and those were incorporated into what follows. The focus group offered insights that may not have been retrieved during a one-on-one interview. For example, when one administrator offered a perspective, very often another one joined in and expanded the idea. This added to the value of the lived experience.

Focus group question #1: What did you think of the MOSRPP? The administrators all felt it was a very good program. They believed it was an important program because the goal was for commanders to have a better awareness of the stressors affecting their people. All the administrators noted that communication with the organizational leader was critical to success. One administrator thought that the leaders he worked with had not bought into the program as they needed to in order to gain substantial benefits for the people in the organization. Although they thought very highly of the program, overall they felt that the process should be streamlined to reduce administrator time requirements. The consensus of all the administrators was that by streamlining the process and allowing each administrator to devote more time to each leader, the program could be even more valuable to the leader and the personnel within the organization.

Focus group question #2: How could the program be improved? One of the administrator's frustrations with the program stemmed from a difficulty with the PDP database. When personnel took the survey electronically, sometimes their report would

be cataloged into a higher level of the database or irretrievable. When the administrators printed out reports in preparation for the group training sessions they often were missing a large number of personal reports. If one of the people attended a group training session and a report was not printed and waiting for them to pick up, the administrators had them take the survey again. People had to leave the session, find a computer and print out their report. It disrupted the session as they came and went and individuals missed material covered in the group training session while they were downloading and printing their report. Some reports were never found and these people missed all the content; this wasted their time and the administrators' time. Both the missing reports and irretrievable reports caused embarrassment and credibility issues. The administrators felt that these issues made it look as if they did not know their job.

Another area that the administrators felt reflected poorly on them and wasted both their and the participants' time was the limited amount and poor quality of printers. There were a limited number of color printers available in the military police organizations because the participants' primarily performed their duties in a mobile manner—on patrol or providing security. They did not have the type of job where they sat at a desk or used a computer. Therefore, there was not a need for a large number of printers in the organization. In addition to a limited number of available color printers, the printers that were available tended to be poor quality color printers or black and white printers. The poor quality printers took a long time to print the 26-page report and with a group of 20 to 25 people whom needed reports, this could quickly have turned into a critical item. Since the report was designed to use colors to help portray the message, printing reports in black and white made them hard to read and difficult to understand.

Normally this would not be an issue since the administrators printed all reports prior to going to the organization to give the presentation; however, combined with the database issue noted above, the limited amount and poor quality printers quickly became an issue.

Although the administrators developed a printing plan and estimated the resources required for the MOSRPP prior to beginning the project, resources became a challenge. The cost of printing all the individual reports (26 pages each) in color used a significant amount of color toner cartridges—the amount depended on the type of printer. The administrators spent more time on Phase I of the project than originally anticipated including their training, educating the leaders, answering questions throughout the process, preparing for the group training sessions, analyzing the data, preparing the data results for the leader, and then repeating the process for Phase II. They were concerned about the impact on their co-workers and other organizations that they supported on the base. The MOSRPP took the administrators away from other tasks and co-workers often had to pick up the slack or the administrators took work home at night. The administrators believed that additional labor should be added in order to keep the quality of their work high, both on regular day-to-day tasks and a project like the MOSRPP.

Focus group question #3: What did you think about the administrator selection and training? The administrators all felt this was a great experience; one that they supported wholeheartedly and demonstrated their passion for throughout the process. They believed in it. One administrator was especially honored when she was selected believed the training helped her to improve her public speaking skills, “now I can talk more comfortably in front of people. It’s easier because I’m giving a gift; it’s not about me.” They believed that the formal training was very well done and valuable to the

project's success. The experience was very valuable from a personal and professional growth perspective and allowed them to give to others.

Focus group question #4: What did you think about the group training sessions?

The administrators evidenced a strong belief that there should always be at least two administrators for each organization, sometimes three depending on the size. The administrators supported and helped each other. They shared ideas and learned from each other. Just as importantly, when one administrator was presenting during the group training sessions, the other ones were helping individuals who had questions on their report along the way. This kept everyone moving through the material at the same pace and facilitated quality learning. Having multiple administrators was beneficial to everyone involved in the project, the leader, the administrators, and the personnel in the organization.

Focus group question #5: How did your interaction with the units go?

Communication with the organizational leaders was very important. The administrators emphasized the benefit of accommodating the organization's schedule as they scheduled the group training sessions and direct communication with the leader throughout the process. The administrators scheduled group-training sessions any day of the week and any time of the day or night to accommodate the 24-hours a day, 7 day a week mission requirements of the military police. This made the process easy for the leader and the organization and worked very well. The administrators also believed it was critical that the administrators kept in direct communication with the leader throughout the process. Continuous follow-up by the administrators was especially important and the administrators who were able to dedicate more time to follow-up phone calls, e-mails,

and visits felt it was well worth their time. The administrators saw great value in being flexible and accommodating the organization's schedule as well as keeping the communication lines open between them and the organizational leader.

Leadership case studies. The following four case studies use pseudonyms to maintain the leaders' confidentiality.

Mike. Mike received command training and had approximately 18 months of experience leading a high operations tempo organization of 217 people when the MOSRPP began in January 2011. He demonstrated a very basic knowledge level of emotional intelligence and explained it as, "The way I interpret that [emotional intelligence] is a well-rounded airman; someone focusing on their emotions and how people respond to them." Mike went on to say that, if asked to explain social awareness (one area of emotional intelligence) to someone who is new to emotional intelligence he would say that is, "one's ability to interact with others and respond to others". Although his knowledge of emotional intelligence was very limited, he believed it was a "very important" part of his leadership style.

Mike believed participating in the MOSRPP "brought to the forefront people's interaction and the effect on each other we were having" and that it provided him with increased social awareness. He used this opportunity to make some changes in his organization including increasing the amount of "basic day to day recognition that says thanks for doing a good job" and changing work schedules. They had people who had been on midnight shift for years and were not getting much interaction with the middle management. Therefore, Mike changed the work schedules and encouraged daily interaction and recognition by his middle management personnel.

This experience seemed to highlight the importance of delegation and the impact his middle management can have in the relationship building area. He emphasized the importance of educating the leader on the process and expectations prior to beginning this type of experience. Mike specifically pointed out how beneficial an opportunity like this is to both the leader and the organization. As a result, he would “like to see this incorporated across the military” because “all organizational leaders could benefit from this” opportunity.

Hank. Hank received command training and had approximately six months of experience leading a high operations tempo organization of 211 people when the MOSRPP began in January 2011. He received emotional intelligence and positive leadership training and demonstrated a working knowledge of emotional intelligence. He explained emotional intelligence as knowing “how to deal with your own emotions and knowing what can set you off, what makes you feel certain ways, and how to deal with those [triggers] and look for the same attributes in others”. Hank believed that emotional intelligence social awareness is a “very important” part of his leadership style. Even though he thought it was an important part of his leadership style, he believed some additional training on reading people and their body language would be beneficial. He believed this experience provided him with increased social awareness by helping him understand situations that made him uncomfortable. It also identified the expectation that as a leader of an organization he should be more outgoing by going out into the organization and talking with people. This expectation came from the personnel in his organization and their desire for additional face-to-face interaction and recognition.

Hank responded to this feedback and changed quite a few things in his organization because of this experience. For example, since not everyone is going to win an award or get a special coin, he started a recognition initiative called Defender Bucks. Hank and his senior enlisted leader spent more time interacting with people in the organization and being more outgoing. They took note of small things people in the organization did well to let them know that they appreciated their excellent work and gave them a slip of paper that looked like a dollar. When an individual earned five Defender Bucks, they could turn them in for a day off. Another change Hank made because of the experience was the “Defender of the Month” where the people in the organization voted on who deserved recognition as the organization’s outstanding performer for that month. The Defender of the Month received a T-shirt and their name engraved on a plaque displayed in a prominent place in the organization. He also began another initiative where a middle manager walked around the organization and talked with people about how the leadership could make their jobs easier, increase their productivity, and improve working conditions. However, Hank admitted that this was something they should have been doing already. Hank made a special effort to get supervisors out of their offices, to talk with people, get them more involved in the organization, and encourage mentoring of the younger, less senior personnel. He also “re-energized the organization’s spouse group, got social media up and running.” Hank thought that he and his leadership received some good feedback from these initiatives and improved the communication in the organization.

Hank was not in favor of the MOSRPP at first because it looked like just another survey or unit climate assessment. He felt if he received more training up front on the benefits and examples on how to best use the information provided; it would have

improved the experience. Although at first he did not see the benefit, once the administrator explained the analysis, Hank realized how he could use it to positively influence his organization. “I wasn’t a fan at first, but then I got it!”

Vince. Vince received command training and had approximately six months of experience leading a high operations tempo organization of 281 people when the MOSRPP began in January 2011. He received emotional intelligence and positive leadership training and demonstrated a working knowledge of emotional intelligence. Vince explained emotional intelligence as “the ability and the maturity to make sound decisions and react appropriately to all the different stressors, stimuli, and data we encounter on a day to day basis”. He explained social awareness as, “how you interact with your peers, subordinates, and superiors; how you react and respond when they bring their day-to-day stressors and data to you while you’re dealing with your day to day stressors”. Vince’s responses indicated that he felt very strongly about the importance of emotional intelligence and specifically, social awareness as part of his leadership style when he said, “I think it’s very important; it’s one of my front runners”.

He also thought MOSRPP provided him with increased social awareness concerning his organization. The feedback he received from the MOSRPP administrator highlighted areas where he could positively influence his organization. As a result of the MOSRPP results, Vince and his leadership team focused more on personal interaction and encouraged people to use their computers less and talk with people more. Starting at the top, he “kicked off a whole series of training modules for senior staff, then the middle management staff.” This effort was “kind of time consuming, but as a group I made them go through the Four Lenses Program and Seven Habits of Highly Effective People

Program and using those and PDP information we started taking some boundaries down and setting some ground rules for interaction and behavior, which actually I thought worked out very, very well for us.”

Although Vince found the data from the MOSRPP very useful, he felt he really had to “mine for it”. He is passionate about great leadership. Therefore, he took a lot of time and effort targeting improvement efforts. “The process was great, the focus groups were great, and I think each person that took the survey really received something out of it, and it helped me focus how I was going to act and what I was going to do within the unit”. Most portions of the experience were very positive, however, the fact remained that he had to spend a lot of time and effort thinking about what he was given and figured out how best to use that information to customize improvements for his organization. Vince felt “the end result was great” and there was benefit up and down the organization, for the leader and all the individuals in the organization. Overall, the experience was very positive and valuable. Nevertheless, in the end, the number of requirements takes a real toll on people and although this experience was quite useful, it seems to Vince that every time they turn around he and his leadership team have new, additional requirements levied on them and the organization.

Nick. Nick received command training and began leading the organization between Phase I and Phase II of the MOSRPP. He led a high operations tempo organization of 425 people from two different military services. He received emotional intelligence and positive leadership training and demonstrated a working knowledge of emotional intelligence. He explained emotional intelligence as “it’s knowledge of yourself and the way you react to different outside stimuli . . . and by knowing your response you can

adjust”. Nick also had a good working knowledge of social awareness and how as a leader it is important to “know what upsets them [people] or makes them feel better and you can adjust your behavior and get a more positive result”. This knowledge is valuable for a leader of such a large organization.

Nick did point out that it is easier to apply emotional intelligence skills and specifically social awareness in small groups or one-on-one. He found it more difficult to apply emotional intelligence to 400 people. He did feel that this experience provided him with increased social awareness, specifically, “what people respond to better”. In addition, Nick was encouraged when the MOSRPP and their unit climate assessment provided similar results. To him, this validated the results as accurate and acted upon them.

This experience highlighted two main areas that needed attention, recognition and requirements. Recognition is an area that Nick felt could influence and therefore increase the emphasis on recognizing people within his organization. However, requirements are an area where the local leader does not have much control. He expressed concern with his lack of influence in this area and explained, “there’s not much I can do about the 12-hour shifts . . . while we still deploy and maintain our fitness, and do all these computer based training . . . all these things are stressors”. Nick felt he could only make people aware of the situation, both his leadership and the personnel in the organization, when he has to bring his people in on their one day off that week to support a community event or other requirement.

Nick felt it would be beneficial to share information on organizations in the same career field or mission. It would allow a leader to compare stress and satisfaction levels

as well as stressors with other units to determine if they are consistent across the career field or specific to a unit. If they are specific to a unit, that may give a leader insight as to the value of local customization of organizational changes.

Leadership case studies summary. Overall, the leaders found participating in the MOSRPP to be a positive experience. They felt it heightened their emotional intelligence social awareness by offering them insight as to stressors within their organization and items influencing their people's satisfaction level. All the participating leaders took advantage of the opportunity to use their heightened social awareness to customize their organizational changes to address those stressors and items influencing satisfaction levels. Although they all felt there was benefit to participating in the project, there was a sense of frustration because they could not address the real issue of the amount of requirements being levied on their organizations.

Summary

The quantitative analysis was conducted using a z-test comparison of proportions using a 95% confidence level. The researcher analyzed the data from each team separately and the quantitative results proved to be consistent across all five teams. Null hypotheses #1 and #2 were rejected and therefore both alternate hypotheses #1 and #2 were supported. Conversely, null hypotheses #3 and #4 were not rejected and as a result, the two corresponding alternate hypotheses could not be supported. The researcher also consolidated individual (a) stressors, and (b) items influencing satisfaction levels self-reported via the MOSRPP group training session evaluation form and used descriptive statistics to analyze the stressors and items influencing the satisfaction levels.

The qualitative analysis, including MOSRPP administrators' evaluations, the focus group, and leadership interviews provided great insight into the value of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence social awareness, personal communication between the leader and his people within the organization, and the stress caused by the current requirements being levied on military organizations. The MOSRPP administrators' evaluations and focus group responses highlighted the need for organizational leader buy-in and involvement throughout the process and the importance of having more than one administrator to support each organization in order to maximize the benefits of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence. The leaders' interviews substantiated the need for additional administrator support, the value of the feedback received concerning personnel needs within the organization, and the frustration felt throughout the leadership teams with the amount of requirements placed on each organization. The quantitative and qualitative analysis combined to give the researcher a comprehensive view and overall perspective of the lived experience.

Chapter Five: Conclusions and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational stress levels in military units and leaders' emotional intelligence social awareness using positive leadership principles as a framework. Organizational stress is a constant companion to U.S. military organizations while leaders manage high operations tempo, deployment rates, and increased workload resulting from supporting a nation at war since 2001. To date, the military's focus of stress management interventions has been at the individual level rather than the organizational level. Changing the military culture from developing counselors who care for one person at a time to developing military leaders who address a whole organizational unit's stress at a time is a significant shift in philosophy.

To address this problem, this study yielded an integrated protocol to support the use of positive leadership principles combined with emotional intelligence leadership competencies through quantitative and qualitative analysis of the lived experience. The following discussion reviews the resulting integrated protocol, answers the research questions, analyzes the hypotheses, and provides recommendations for future studies.

Protocol

The result of this study is an integrated how-to protocol to guide skill building in positive leadership and high emotional intelligence skills strategies by merging strategies based on a literature review (Appendix G) with strategies based on the lived experience (Appendix H). The lessons gleaned from the literature and the lived experiences were

aligned with Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles and Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies (Table 16) to create an organizing structure for ease of use and understandability. This integrated protocol provides the user with a dramatic visualization of how closely these two concepts are linked and specific actions a leader should take to implement positive leadership principles and display high emotional intelligence skills

Table 16. *Combining of the Protocols and Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles and Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies to Create the Integrated Protocol*

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
1. Foster a positive work climate				
1a. Encourage compassion	EI Social Awareness: Empathy	Lower employee stress by displaying positive leader behaviors: support, empowerment, and consideration (pp. 19 & 26).	34	
		Take an active interest in other people's concerns (p. 36).	38	
		Be aware of when people need help and be compassionate when responding to both personal and work-related instances (p. 37).	43	
		Communicate clearly and confirm what you said is what people received.		16

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Encourage virtuous behaviors (p. 10).	23	
		Use self-awareness as an internal measure -- emotions tell the brain when something feels right or wrong; self-awareness will tell if the action or behavior are advisable or not (p. 34).	4	
1b. Encourage forgiveness	EI Social Awareness: Empathy	Understand that self-awareness is critical to one's development as a leader - Without it, leaders do not know where they need to improve, or the influence they are having on people (p. 34).	3	
		Set the example with a high standard for emotionally acceptable behavior within the organization (p. 39).	51	
		Care enough to take action.		15
		Stay connected with the people in one's organization and take the time to be aware of the unspoken emotions coming from a person or the group (p. 36).	39	
		Be open to new ideas.		25

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Identify possible causes for stress and develop solutions. (p. 44).	58	
1c. Encourage gratitude	EI Social Awareness: Service	Develop a strong support system within the organization and among personnel in order to have a strong effect on the organization (p. 40).	52	
		Promote positive emotions (p. 10).	24	
		Be approachable (p. 11).	28	
		Acknowledge and meet team members', customers', and supervisors' needs (p. 37).	41	
		Be available (p. 11).	29	
		Be a servant leader.		22
		Think about one's actions and how they will influence the organizational climate rather than just how they will affect the leader personally (pp. 37 & 40).		42
		Provide decision makers with actionable data.		

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Welcome feedback and gracefully accept suggested improvements. (p. 34).	9	
		Streamline the process.		11
2. Foster positive relationships				
2a. Foster positive energy	EI Relationship Management: Inspiration	Guide and motivate people with a compelling vision (p. 38).	44	
		Promote energizing networks (p. 10).	25	
		Make positive thinking a habit to make the organization flourish (p. 25).	32	
		Take the time to increase emotional intelligence skills—they can be learned (p. 39).	2	
		Be enthusiastic.		17

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Have a firm grasp of one's abilities and self-worth (p. 34).	10	
		Know one's strengths and limits (p. 34).	8	
		Provide top-cover; if it is great, the team did it, if it's not, take responsibility for it.		18
		Develop a presence that allows one to display a humble, yet charismatic self-confidence (p. 34).	12	
	EI Relationship Management: Conflict Management	Ensure one's leadership style reduces stress rather than being a constant stressor in the organization (p. 26).	35	
		Resolve disagreements rather than ignoring them (p. 38).	48	
		When resolving a disagreement, raise the issue, recognize others' feelings and perspectives, and then focus on a win for all involved (p. 38).	49	

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		A common challenge can be used to pull a team together--use it to one's advantage.		19
		Be inclusive and encourage access to social support rather than isolating individuals and exaggerating the negative effects of workplace stressors (p. 26).	36	
		Make the tough decisions.		20
		Take a people-first approach to leadership to prevent workplace violence (p. 26).	37	
2b. Capitalize on others' strengths	EI Relationship Management: Teamwork and Collaboration	Encourage collaboration, cooperation, and team building (p. 38).	50	
		Focus on enabling and bringing out the best in each person in the organization (p. 25).	33	
		Relationships are important—take time to connect with people.		2

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Be a team player.		24
		Be ready to act and seize opportunities (p. 35).	18	
		Recruit personnel with high emotional intelligence skills, as they tend to have a positive impact on organizational success (p. 40).	53	
		Smart hiring is critical—select people based on attitude, creativity, self-motivation & persistence.		10
		Openly admit one's mistakes or faults (p. 35).	14	
		Calculate risk - establish worthy, but attainable goals (p. 35).	17	
3. Foster positive communications				
3a. Provide best-self feedback	EI Relationship Management: Developing Others	Cultivate people's abilities by being a caring coach (p. 38).	46	
		Recognize people in the organization for the small day-to-day accomplishments (pp. 43/44).	56	

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Set the example—integrity first.		23
		Focus on people's strengths so they will be more likely to stay highly engaged at work (p. 43).	57	
		Invest in quality training.		12
		Learn to understand other people's viewpoints (pp. 11 & 36).	26	
3b. Use supportive communication	EI Relationship Management: Influence	Understand that self-awareness and social awareness have the most impact on the organization's climate (p. 37).	1	
		Be persuasive and engaging when addressing a group (p. 38).	45	
		Learn to be in touch with one's own emotions and acknowledge their impact on the organization (p. 33).	5	
		Learn to share one's emotions to give people insight (p. 34).	7	
		Be open and sincere (p. 33).	6	
		Be consistent and reliable.		3

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Put the organization's needs ahead of one's own (p. 36).	20	
		Follow-through.		8
		Learn self control otherwise one's influence is often more negative than positive (p. 36).	21	
4. Associate the work being done with positive meaning				
4a. Enhance the meaningfulness of the work	EI Social Awareness: Organizational Awareness	Maintain a positive outlook to inspire feelings of security, trust, and satisfaction in the organization and sustain an effective team (p. 25).	31	
		Welcome difficult assignments (p. 34).	11	
		Set one's people and organization up for success -- resource projects properly to get maximum benefit.		7
		Take one's responsibility of successful mission accomplishment and taking care of one's people and their families seriously (p. 19).		

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
		Deliver results.		1
		Set high standards and clear expectations.		4
		Understand the beliefs, values, and underlying rules in the unit (p. 36).	40	
	EI Relationship Management: Change Catalyst	Be ready to initiate, manage, and lead in a new direction when needed (p. 38).	47	
		Be flexible and focused in adapting to changing situations. (p. 35).	16	
		Get stakeholder buy-in.		9
		Be aware the leader's mood and emotions are contagious and will spread quickly throughout the entire organization (p. 25).	30	
		Give continuous feedback and positively reinforce desirable behaviors.		14
		Control stress at one's personal, team, and organizational level (p. 41).	54	

Table 16. (continued)

Cameron's (2008) Positive Leadership Principles	Goleman's (2001b) Emotional Intelligence Leadership Competencies	Integrated Protocol	Literature Protocol (1-58) (pp. 11- 44)	Lived Experience Protocol (1-25)
4b. Implement personal management interviews with your direct reports	EI Relationship Management: Developing Others	Create an environment where people can thrive (p. 10).	22	
		Be trustworthy (p. 35).	13	
		Trust one's team.		21
		Confront unethical behavior in others; lack of action is condoning it (p. 35).	15	
		Be a strong resource for social support in order to be a buffer for occupational stress (p. 43).	55	
		Encourage people—not a dream stealer.		6
		Learn to understand the unspoken communications and primary power connections (p. 11).	27	
		Set stretch goals to develop one's people.		13

Answering the Research Questions

Can emotional intelligence social awareness be developed among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress? Yes, the leaders believed this experience improved their emotional intelligence social awareness. Understanding their people's perspectives and the importance of making themselves more available and approachable went a long way in improving the leaders' social awareness. They also agreed this experience brought the importance of interacting with their people and the effect they were having on each other to the forefront. One leader specifically commented on how important it was to be able to relate to and understand the people in his organization. The leaders highlighted the fact that if they can also get their middle managers "participating and interacting" with the people more, that also has real impact. There were "people in the organization who had been on midnight shift for years and weren't getting much interaction" with senior and middle leadership. They believed this was a great experience and very beneficial to the organization as a whole.

However, not only did the leaders benefit, but each person who took the survey gained a great understanding of themselves and their co-workers, as well as had the opportunity to provide direct feedback to their organizational leader. The leaders found ways to get even more feedback from their people through increased interaction and one leader had his leadership team take advantage of other group training opportunities to increase their social awareness. Overall, the leaders appreciated the insight this experience offered and used it to improve their organizations.

What are the results of heightening emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress? As a result of participating in the MOSRPP, the leaders increased personal interaction and recognition in the organization. The leaders gained an appreciation for the need for more personal interaction and recognition not only from them at the most senior level leader, but also from first-line supervisors and middle managers. In one organization, the organizational leader and the administrator worked together to schedule training modules addressing areas of concern and skills to help the leadership teams at each level. One of the leaders summed it up nicely, “We started doing stuff that you’re supposed to do”.

The leaders emphasized the importance of walking around the organization and talking to the people and put programs in place to carve out time to make sure that happened. Ground rules for interaction and behavior were set. In one organization, middle managers were assigned for a month at a time to go out and listen to the people and give them the opportunity to discuss their ideas and concerns. The middle managers asked people, what would make their job better, do they have what they need to do their job, and do they have the opportunity to do their best every day. The leaders noted that getting out from behind their desk and interacting with their people and encouraging their middle managers to do the same was definitely an improvement. For example, the increased interaction between the people in the organization and the middle managers resulted in “good feedback on some issues that were misconstrued” in the organization and “cleared up some communication gaps” from the senior leadership down into the organization. It provided “benefit up and down the street” and “the end result was great”.

This type of feedback helped the leaders to focus their energy where it would really make a difference in the organization.

Another area where they were able to make a difference was recognition. Efforts to reward the little things and let people know that the leadership appreciated what they were doing were put in place, especially at the middle manager level. The leader also added peer recognition in one of the organizations. They realized that people were not looking for awards or trophies, just a positive comment that said, I know you are working hard and doing a good job and I appreciate it. These initiatives were all implemented as a result of heightening the leaders' emotional intelligence social awareness.

Can emotional intelligence social awareness among leaders of military security personnel who suffer from high occupational stress be developed in isolation

without triggering the development of the three other domains in Goleman's 2001b emotional intelligence model—self-awareness, self-management, and relationship

management? No, although this study focused on heightening the leaders' emotional

intelligence social awareness, it was evident that developing social awareness in

isolation, without the development of the other three domains in Goleman's 2001b

emotional intelligence model, was not possible. The stressors people identified as present

in the organization sometimes were connected to an area under the leader's control. The

same was true with items identified as influencing their satisfaction level. The four

domains of emotional intelligence are so closely connected and dependent on each other

that it became apparent that the leaders' self-awareness, self-management, and

relationship management skills were also developed during this experience.

The insight offered by their individual PDP ProScan® reports provided the leaders with heightened self-awareness and ways to improve their self-management skills. From a self-awareness perspective, a couple of the leaders felt it helped them understand situations where they tended to be uncomfortable or feel stress, and one specifically felt there was an expectation that he should be naturally more outgoing. From a self-management perspective, they received specific feedback on their stress and satisfaction levels as well as how to avoid losing their patience and displaying negative behaviors like lashing out verbally or humiliating people when fatigued or under stress. Whereas the areas of self-awareness and self-management focused on the individual, this experience also provided feedback in the relationship management area.

The feedback the leaders received and the resulting insight also linked closely to their relationship management skills. For example, one of the issues identified was a lack of recognition. The scores were lower on the group training evaluation form for the question, “I feel like I’m being recognized for the job I’m doing” than for any other question. In addition, the people in every organization that participated in the MOSRPP identified a lack of recognition as a concern. This experience reinforced the fact that leaders have to be innovative in the ways that they recognize their people because they are “definitely doing good work”, but not everyone can get a quarterly award or a coin. So although the focus of this study was emotional intelligence social awareness, the benefits crossed over all four domains in Goleman’s 2001b emotional intelligence model and the leaders were convinced that their efforts to address stress and satisfaction worked out “very, very well”. They were pleased with the results and thought it was a very “neat” program.

Hypotheses

Using quantitative analysis and analyzing each team separately, the researcher determined that the quantitative results proved to be consistent across all five teams.

Reliability and Validity. The PDP ProScan® survey was determined to be reliable and valid. Based on statistical evidence and analysis, alternate hypothesis #1, There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning the reliability and validity of the PDP ProScan® Survey, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation, was supported. Research conducted previously found the PDP ProScan® to be valid and reliable (PDP, 2003). This study went one-step further and confirmed that it is valid and reliable for a specialized high stress military community.

Strong and vibrant work place. The researcher determined that each organization studied offered a strong and vibrant workplace. Based on statistical evidence and analysis, alternate hypothesis #2, There will be a difference in proportion of those in agreement and those in disagreement with statements concerning a strong and vibrant workplace, as measured by Likert-scale response to statements contained in the MOSRPP Group Training Session Evaluation, was supported. It is important to note however, that although each organization overall offered a strong and vibrant workplace, there was a consistent pattern in the responses to question #7 on recognition. The average proportion of people on the teams who responded with a one or two was all under 20% except one at 24%. However, the proportion of people on the teams who responded with a one or two to the recognition question ranged from 27% to 63%. The researcher believes that many

leaders and supervisors relate to recognition as a significant event or award. However, this study reconfirmed for the researcher that what is really important to people is regular interaction, appreciation, and recognition that they are working hard and their contributions are important. This acknowledgement does not require much time, effort, or money but pays big dividends where relationships, stress/energy drain, and satisfaction are concerned. This is where the leaders focused much of their attention when implementing organizational improvements.

Team stress/energy drain levels. Statistically there was no difference in the organizational stress/energy drain Phase I and Phase II data after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness was heightened. Based on statistical evidence and analysis, null hypothesis #3, There will be no decline in the organizational energy drain after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by the comparison of the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational energy drain indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report, was supported. The researcher believed it was important to look deeper into the team stress/energy drain results.

Although statistically the examination did not identify any difference between the two phases, there was an observable increase in the minimal, average, and notable stress/energy drain category in Phase II compared to Phase I data except for Team 2, which showed a slight decrease. This was a positive sign. As would be expected, the corresponding quite notable and above category comparison of Phase I and Phase II data showed a slight decline in all teams except Team 2, which showed a slight increase. It

was also worth pointing out that the minimum, average and notable stress/energy drain category not only increased for Team 3 and Team 5, but also resulted in 100% of all personnel from both teams moving into this category and zero showing quite notable or above stress/energy drain. Considering the high stress environment, this was a worthwhile leadership accomplishment for both team leaders. It appears that the leaders internalized the emotional intelligence social awareness offered by the MOSRPP administrators and accurately targeted their limited resources to address stressors raised by people in their organizations.

Team satisfaction levels. Statistically there was no difference in the organizational satisfaction level Phase I and Phase II data after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness was heightened. Based on statistical evidence and analysis, null hypothesis #4, There will be no increase in the organizational satisfaction level after the organizational leader's emotional intelligence social awareness is heightened, as measured by comparison of the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the Phase II PDP TeamScan® report to the proportion of organizational satisfaction indicated on the aggregate data baseline in the Phase I PDP TeamScan® report, was supported. The satisfaction levels also provided additional insight when the researcher continued to mine the data.

Although statistically the examination identified no difference between the two phases for all teams, there was an observable difference. All teams' high and average satisfaction levels either stayed the same (two teams) or increased (two teams) in Phase II compared to Phase I data except for Team 1, which showed a slight decrease. The corresponding low satisfaction category comparison of Phase I and Phase II data either

stayed the same or showed a slight decline in all teams except Team 1, which showed a slight increase. There is not any way to know for certain based on the available data, however, the researcher believed the natural disaster that hit Team 1's location between Phase I and Phase II and a major deployment one day later could have impacted that teams' satisfaction levels. As was true with stress/energy drain levels, Team 3 and Team 5's satisfaction levels were the ones that showed an observable increase in the high and average satisfaction levels. The researcher believed this resulted from the leaders' influence in the organization and their willingness to respond to the feedback provided from their people.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study targeted stress and satisfaction levels in the military police career field, a high-stress, high-risk profession. The results highlighted several areas where further research would be beneficial including following up to ensure the results of this study are long term, expanding the types of career fields, focusing on the level of individual commitment, and exploring types of recognition. Each offers a different aspect of improving leadership capabilities and focus.

High-stress, high-risk organizations present many leadership challenges. Thus, branching out three ways in this area with additional research would be beneficial; first by redoing this study again to verify that the results were institutionalized and long lasting, second, by studying similar organizations and career fields and third, by studying those organizations with a bit less high-paced operations tempo. It might be worthwhile to redo this research in another year to ensure the benefits are still present and passed on from one leader to another. This type of research could also be expanded to include

similar high-stress career fields such as fire and police, emergency medical, explosive ordnance disposal, and intelligence-oriented organizations. One of the limitations noted in this study was the difficulty in implementing new leadership techniques in a fast-paced, high-operations tempo environment. Studying organizations with a slower operations tempo would eliminate this limitation and could increase the leadership benefits gained.

Another area that could increase such benefits would be to study people's level of commitment to the organization and the effect it has on their stress tolerance and satisfaction level. For example, would those who were committed to their career field and organization be more tolerant of stress and have higher satisfaction levels than others just in it for the money? This research could help leaders understand more about what influences their people's stress tolerance and satisfaction level.

Finally, this study consistently highlighted recognition and personal interaction; it would be advantageous to understand more about which types of recognition and interaction most effectively influence people's stress and satisfaction levels. Targeting this area could benefit people in the organization, the organization itself, and people in leadership positions. Effective leadership can spell the difference between success and failure in any organization. In the case of a military unit, it can mean the difference between life and death, victory and defeat.

Summary

This study highlighted a problem often encountered in organizations of all kinds, including, but not limited to government agencies, corporations, and healthcare organizations. In their haste to get an answer, many organizations depend solely on

quantitative data to address questions or concerns, both internally and externally. In this instance, and it very possibly could be the case in many other studies, the quantitative data showed no statistical difference or benefit. Therefore, deeper investigation using qualitative analysis proved critical.

The qualitative analysis, including MOSRPP administrator's evaluations, the focus group, and leadership interviews provided great insight into the value of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence social awareness, personal communication between the leader and his people within the organization, and the stress caused by the current requirements being levied on military organizations. The MOSRPP administrators' evaluations and focus group highlighted the need for stakeholder buy-in and involvement throughout the process and the importance of having more than one administrator to support each organization in order to maximize the benefits of heightening a leader's emotional intelligence. The leaders' interviews substantiated the need for additional administrator support, the value of the feedback received concerning personnel needs within the organization, and the frustration felt throughout the leadership teams with the amount of requirements placed on each organization. For example, every leader discussed the need for additional emphasis on personnel recognition. The leaders responded and the results showed through in the observable differences in stress/energy drain and satisfaction levels. The researcher incorporated this comprehensive view and overall perspective of the lived experience into the integrated protocol providing rich results and a usable leadership resource.

The researcher was only able to glean this valuable insight and these worthwhile results by using a mixed method approach. As such, leaders and researchers alike should

take great care in not relying solely on numbers gathered from surveys. It is critical to take the extra time and effort to obtain worthwhile, actionable results by using both quantitative and qualitative data rather than wasting precious resources on an inadequate review of an organizational issue or environment.

References

- Air Force Glossary. (2007). *Air Force Doctrine Document 1-2*.
- Air Force Instruction 41-106. (2011). *Medical Readiness Program Management*.
- Air Force Memo. (2010). Security Forces memo on high-risk career field. Retrieved from
from
http://airforcemedicine.afms.mil/idc/groups/public/documents/afms/ctb_145161.pdf
- Air Force Pamphlet 36-2241. (2011, October). Professional development guide.
- Air Force Personnel Center. (2012). Air Force Personnel Demographics. Retrieved from
<http://www.afpc.af.mil/library/airforcepersonnel demographics.asp>
- Anestis, M., Bryan, C. J., Cornette, M. M., & Joiner, T. E. (2009). Understanding suicidal behavior in the military: An evaluation of Joiner's interpersonal-psychological theory of suicidal behavior in two case studies of active duty post-deployers. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 31*, 60-75.
- Anton, C. (2009). The impact of role stress on workers' behaviour through job satisfaction and organizational commitment. *International Journal of Psychology, 44*(3), 187-194. doi:10.1080/00207590701700511
- Aristotle. (1941). Nicomachean ethics. In McKeon, R. (Ed.), *The basic works of Aristotle* (pp. 935-1126). New York, NY: Random House, Inc.
- Armed Forces Health Surveillance Center. (2011). *Associations between Repeated Deployments to Iraq (OIF/OND) and Afghanistan (OEF) and Post-deployment Illnesses and Injuries*, Active Component, U.S. Armed Forces, 2003-2010. Medical Surveillance Monthly Report, 2-11.
- Bar-On, R. (2002). *Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-I) technical manual*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems. Retrieved from

<http://www.eiconsortium.org>

Bar-On, R. (2006). The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI).

Psicothema, 18, 13-25. Retrieved from <http://www.eiconsortium.org>

Bar-On, R. (2010). Emotional intelligence: an integral part of positive psychology.

South African Journal of Psychology, 40(1), 54-63.

Bennis, W. (1984). The 4 Competencies of leadership. *Training and Development*

Journal, 8, 15-19.

Bennis, W. (2001). Foreward. In C. Cherniss, & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally*

intelligent workplace (pp. xv-xvii). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from

<http://www.eiconsortium.org>

Book, H. (2004). Gauge your awareness. *Harvard Business Review, 82*, 32.

Borrelli, C., Nelson, L., Babeu, L., & Bellis, K. (2010). *Post-deployment stressors among*

the U.S. active duty military population. Office of the Assistant Secretary of

Defense, Health Affairs: Falls Church, VA. Retrieved from

http://www.altarum.org/files/pub_resources/Post-

[deployment_Stressors_Among_Active_Duty_Military_Population-FIN.pdf](http://www.altarum.org/files/pub_resources/Post-deployment_Stressors_Among_Active_Duty_Military_Population-FIN.pdf)

Bowen, G. L. (1998, Spring). Effects of leader support in the work unit on the

relationship between work spillover and family adaptation. *Journal of Family and*

Economic Issues, 19, 25-52.

Bowen, G. L. (2010, October). Resiliency: An assets perspective. Presentation at

PHOENIX RALLY Conference of Air Mobility Command, Scott Air Force Base,

IL.

Bowen, G. L., Mancini, J. A., Martin, J. A., Ware, W. B., & Nelson, J. P. (2003).

Promoting the adaptation of military families: An empirical test of the community practice model. *Family Relations*, 52, 33-44.

Bowen, G. L., Martin, J. A., & Mancini, J. A. (1999). *Communities in blue for the 21st century*. Fairfax, VA: Caliber Associates.

Bowen, G. L., Orthner, D. K., Martin, J. A., & Mancini, J. A. (2001). *Building community capacity: A manual for U.S. Air Force family support centers*. Chapel Hill, NC: A Better Image Printing.

Boyatzis, R. & McKee, A. (2005). *Resonant Leadership*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Bradberry, T. & Greaves, J. (2009). *Emotional intelligence 2.0*. San Diego, CA: TalentSmart.

Bray, R. M., Spira, J. L., Olmsted, K. R., & Hout, J. J. (2010). Behavioral and Occupational Fitness. *Military Medicine*, 175(8),39-56.

Buckingham, M., & Coffman, C. (1999). *First, break all the rules: What the world's greatest managers do differently*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Cameron, K. S. (2008). *Positive leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Inc.

Campbell, D. C., & Nobel, O. B. (2009). Occupational stressors in military service: A review and framework. *Military Psychology*, 21(suppl. 2), S47- S67.

doi:10.1080/08995600903249149

Carmeli, A. & Josman, Z.E. (2006). The relationship among emotional intelligence, task performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Human Performance*, 19(4), pp. 403-419. doi: 10.1207//s15327043hup1904_5

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, G. (2011). *Innovations in stress and health*. New York, NY:

Palgrave Macmillan.

Castro, C. A., & Adler, A. B. (2000). *The impact of operation tempo: Issues in measurement*. Heidelberg, Germany: U.S. Army Medical Research Unit – Europe.

Center for Creative Leadership. (2003). *Leadership skills and emotional intelligence*,

Retrieved from http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/assessments/skills_intelligence.pdf

Chapman, S. (Ed.). (2011). USAF Almanac. *Air Force Magazine*, 94(5), 38-56.

Retrieved from http://www.airforcemagazine.com/MagazineArchive/Magazine%20Documents/2011/May%202011/0511facts_figs.pdf

Cherniss, C. (2000). *Emotional intelligence: What it is and why it matters*. Consortium

for research on emotional intelligence in organizations. Retrieved from

<http://www.eiconsortium.org>, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the

Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA, April 15,

2000.

Cherniss, C., Extein, M., Goleman, D., & Weissberg, R. P. (2006). Emotional

intelligence: What does the research really indicate? *Educational Psychologist*, 41(4), 239-245.

Chopra P. K., & Kanji, G. K. (2010). Emotional intelligence: A catalyst for inspirational

leadership and management excellence, *Total Quality Management*, 21(10),

971-1004. doi: 10.1080/14783363.2010.487704

Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five*

approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Dale, K., & Fox, M. L. (2008). Leadership style and organizational commitment:

Mediating effect of role stress. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 20(1), 109-130.

Retrieved from EBSCOhost.

Delahaij, R., Gaillard, A.W.K., & Soeters, J.M.L.M. (2006). Stress Training and the New Military Environment. *Human Dimensions in Military Operations – Military Leaders' Strategies for Addressing Stress and Psychological Support*. 17A-1-17A-10. Retrieved from <http://www.rto.nato.int/abstracts.asp>

Dempsey, M. E. (n.d.). *America's military – a profession of arms white paper*. United States Joint Chiefs of Staff.

Department of Defense Dictionary of Military and Associated Terms, *Joint Publication I-02* (as amended November 15, 2011). Retrieved from http://www.dtic.mil/doctrine/new_pubs/jp1_02.pdf

Deutschendorf, H. (2009). *The other kind of smart*. New York, NY: AMACOM.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: A & B Publications.

Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Gardner, H. (2011). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2001). Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(2), 68-78.

George, W. (2004). Find your voice. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 35.

- Gilbert, D. (2012, January-February). The science behind the smile. *Harvard Business Review*, 84-90.
- Goldberg, E. (2004). Train the gifted. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 31.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998a). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998b). What makes a leader? In Leadership insights, *Harvard Business Review*.
- Goleman, D. (2001a). Emotional intelligence: Issues in paradigm building. In C. Cherniss, & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 13-26). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from <http://www.eiconsortium.org>
- Goleman, D. (2001b). An EI-based theory of performance. In C. Cherniss, & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace* (pp. 27-44). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Retrieved from <http://www.eiconsortium.org>
- Goleman, D. (2003). *Apples and Applesauce. Issues and Recent Developments in Emotional Intelligence*, 1(3). Retrieved from <http://www.eiconsortium.org>
- Goleman, D. (2004). Never stop learning. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 28.
- Goleman, D. (2006). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ, tenth anniversary edition*. New York, NY: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2011a). *The brain and emotional intelligence: New insights*. North Hampton, MA: More Than Sound LLC.
- Goleman, D. (2011b). *Leadership: the power of emotional intelligence*. North

Hampton, MA: More Than Sound LLC.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2001, December). Primal Leadership: The Hidden Driver of Great Performance. *Harvard Business Review*, 79(11), 42-51.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002a). *Primal leadership: Learning to lead with emotional intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002b). *The new leaders: transforming the art of leadership into the science of results*. London: Little Brown.

Grayson, R. (n.d.). *Emotional intelligence: A summary*. Retrieved from http://www.visionrealization.com/Resources/Camper_Devel/Emotional_intelligence_handout.pdf

Greenockle, K. (2010). Emotional intelligence: The new face in leadership: Emotional Intelligence. *Quest*, 62, 260-267.

Hourani, L. L., Williams, T. V., & Kress, A. M. (2006). Stress, mental health, and job performance among active duty military personnel: Findings from the 2002 Department of Defense health-related behaviors survey, *Military Medicine*, 171(9), 849-856.

Hubby, B. W., & Kelly, N. (2012, January 4). PDP data analysis discussion with B.W. Hubby, President, PDP, Inc. and N. Kelly, Certified PDP Trainer/Interviewer: Darcy L. Lilley. Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project, Air Mobility Command, Scott Air Force Base.

Hultgren, F. H. (1989). Introduction to interpretive inquiry. In F. H. Hultgren & D. L. Coomer (Eds.), *Alternative modes of inquiry in home economics research* (pp. 37-59). Peoria, IL: Glencoe Publishing Co.

Insights from early RAND research on deployment effects on U.S. service members and their families, Testimony presented before the Senate Veterans' Affairs Committee.

(July 27, 2011). Testimony of James Hosek.

Jung, A. (2004). Seek frank feedback. *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 31.

Kavanagh, J. (2005). Stress and performance: a review of literature and its applicability to the military. Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation.

Kelloway, E. K., Sivanathan, N., Francis, L., & Barling, J. (2005). Poor leadership. In Barling, J., Kelloway, E.K., & Frone, M.R. (Eds.). *Handbook of work stress* (pp. 89-112). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Martin, J., Ghahramanlou-Holloway, M., Lou, K., & Tucciarone, P. (2009). A comparative review of U.S. military and civilian suicide behavior: Implications for OEF/OIF suicide prevention efforts. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, 31(2), 101-118.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Maxwell, J. C. (2011). *The 5 levels of leadership*. New York, NY: Center Street.

Mayer, J. D., & Caruso, D. R. (2002). The effective leader: Understanding and applying emotional intelligence. *Ivey Business Journal*, 67, 1-6. Retrieved from <http://www.mtpinnacle.com/pdfs/The%20effective%20leader%20Understanding%20and%20applying%20emotional%20intelligence.pdf>

Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1990). *Emotional intelligence*. Baywood Publishing, inc. Retrieved from <http://www.eiconsortium.org>

- Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. J. Sluyter (Eds.) *Emotional development and emotional intelligence*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R. J. Sternberg (Ed.) *Handbook of Intelligence* (pp. 396-420). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M.A. (2007). *Organizational behavior*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.
- Merriam-Webster, A. (1990). *Webster's ninth new collegiate dictionary*. Springfield, MA: Merriam-Webster Inc.
- Michel, J. E., & Neuman A. (2010, November). Positive psychology as a catalyst for change. *Harvard Business Review*, 1-4. Retrieved from <http://www.hbr.org>
- Military Health System. (2009). Department of defense 2008 survey of health-related behaviors of active duty military personnel. RTI International: Triangle Park, NC. Retrieved from <http://www.tricare.mil/2008HealthBehaviors.pdf>
- Momeni, N. (2009). The relation between managers' emotional intelligence and the organizational climate they create. *Public Personnel Management*, 38(2), 35-48.
- Neale, S., Spencer-Arnell, L., & Wilson, L. (2009). *Emotional intelligence coaching*. Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page.
- Ongori, H., & Angolla, J. E. (2008). Occupational stress in organizations and its effects on organizational performance. *Journal of Management Research*, 8(3), 123-135.
- Pflanz, S.E. & Ogle, A.D. (2008). Job Stress, Depression, Work Performance, and Perceptions of Supervisors in Military Personnel. *Military Medicine*, 171(9), 861-

865.

Pritchett, P. (2008). *Deep strengths*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Professional Dynametrics Programs, Inc. (2003). *Technical and research reference guide*. Colorado Springs, CO.

Rath, T., & Harter, J. (2010). *Well Being: The Five Essential Elements*. New York, NY: Gallup Press.

Shanwal, V. K., & Kaur, G. (2008). Emotional intelligence in education: Applications & Implications. In Emmerling, R.J., Shanwal, V.K., & Mandal, M.K. (Eds.), *Emotional Intelligence: Theoretical and cultural perspectives* (pp. 153-170). New York, NY: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.

Skakon, J., Nielsen, K., Borg, V., & Guzman, J. (2010, April-June). Are leaders' well-being behaviors and style associated with the affective well-being of their employees? A systematic review of three decades of research. *Work and Stress*, 24(2), 107-139.

Spielberger, C. (Ed.) (2004). *Encyclopedia of applied psychology*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Stys, Y. & Brown, S. L. (2004). *A review of the emotional intelligence literature and implications for corrections*. Research Branch, Correctional Service of Canada. West Ottawa, Ontario: Canada Correctional Services.

Thompson, H. L. (2009). Emotional intelligence, stress, and catastrophic leadership failure. In M. Hughes, H.L. Thompson, & J.B. Terrell (Eds.), *Handbook for developing emotional and social intelligence* (pp. 111-138). San Francisco, CA: Pfeiffer.

- Time. (1995, October 2). [Cover]. New York, NY: Time Warner.
- USAF Almanac. (2011). *Air Force Magazine*, 5, 38-56.
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, Public Health Service, Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. (1999). *Stress. . . at Work* (NIOSH Publication No. 99-101).
- U.S. Presidential Report. (2011). *Strengthening our military families: Meeting America's Commitment*. Retrieved from http://www.defense.gov/home/features/2011/0111_initiative/Strengthening_our_Military_January_2011.pdf
- Walumbwa, F. O., Peterson, S. J., Avolio, B. J., & Hartnell, C. A. (2010). An investigation of the relationships among leader and follower psychological capital, service climate, and job performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 63, 937-963.
- Webb, K. S. (2009). Why Emotional Intelligence Should Matter to Management: A Survey of the Literature. *SAM Advanced Management Journal* (07497075), 74(2), 32-41. Retrieved from EBSCO host.
- Whitmore, B. (2011). *Potential*. New York, NY: High Point Executive Publishing.
- Yu-Chi, W. (2011). Job stress and job performance among employees in the Taiwanese finance sector: the role of emotional intelligence. *Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 39(1), 21-31. doi:10.2224/sbp.2011.39.1.21

Appendices

- A. MOSRPP group training session evaluation form
- B. PDP ProScan® summary of research
- C. MOSRPP administrator evaluation form
- D. Interview questions for organizational leaders
- E. Focus group questions for MOSRPP administrators
- F. Literature protocol
- G. Lived experience protocol
- H. Approval documents

Appendix A

Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project

Group Training Session Evaluation

Name (optional): _____ Unit _____ Date: _____

Please answer all questions below and turn in upon leaving the room

Stress Analysis – ONLY look at your 2 longest arrows

<p><u>Circle the direction of your arrows</u></p> <p>Dominance: ↑ ↓</p> <p>Extroversion: ↑ ↓</p> <p>Patience: ↑ ↓</p> <p>Conformity: ↑ ↓</p> <p>Logic: ↑ ↓</p>	<p><u>What is causing these pressures</u></p>	<p><u>Solutions to reduce pressures</u></p>
<p><u>Circle your level of satisfaction:</u></p> <p><u>Low Average High</u></p>	<p><u>Causes of satisfaction level</u></p>	<p><u>Solutions to increase satisfaction</u></p>



PDP® ProScan & Gallup Poll Assessment

Please score the following questions now and return to your mentor

Use a 1 to 5 scale

1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree

1. My PDP ProScan® Survey was accurate. _____
2. My PDP ProScan® Survey stress identifiers were accurate. _____
3. My PDP ProScan® Survey report provided me with valuable personal insight _____
4. “I know what is expected of me at work” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48).
_____ ; at home _____
5. “I have the supplies and equipment I need to do my work right” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). _____
6. “I have the opportunity to do what I do best every day” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). _____
7. “In the last seven days, I have received recognition or praise” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). _____
8. “My supervisor or someone cares about me as a person” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). At work _____ At home _____
9. “There is someone who encourages my development” (Buckingham & Coffman, 1999, p. 48). At work _____ At home _____
10. Was this experience worthwhile for you? Why or why not?

Appendix B



SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

Permission to reproduce granted to client users.

PROFESSIONAL DYNAMETRIC PROGRAMS

SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

The PDP Survey: Development and Standardization — 1977-1978

Research was designed to provide a statistically validated, quantitative, instrument.

Original pool of 185 adjectives was drawn from works of Thurstone, Cattell, Guilford, Fiske, Daniels, Horst, and the designers of PDP, Hubby, Houston and Solomon. An experimental survey was administered with the responses to the self-descriptive adjectives (positive stimuli) made on a 5-point Likert scale.

Factor analysis reduced the final list to 60 self-descriptive adjectives and clearly identified four primary behavioral traits and one secondary trait.

Standardization procedures provided separate norms for each trait within each of three perspectives: (1) Basic/Natural Self, (2) Priority Environment(s), and (3) Predictor/Outward Self. The four primary factors of behavior produce a “variable norm” that permits measurement of the relative intensity of each separate trait in every individual profile. Thus, the distance of each trait from the individual’s own “central tendency norm” provided a measurement of the intensity of that trait. This unique concept and statistical procedure made it possible to measure the strength of individual behavioral traits, not only with reference to other traits of each individual, but also with reference to the population norms.

The Survey was standardized for the purpose of describing normal behaviors.

The major step was the administration of the final list of adjectives to a normative sample. That sample consisted of 1,024 persons who were carefully selected to represent a cross section of adults.

Normative data were prepared independently and confirmed by feedback from a large number of case studies.

Intrinsic Validity:

The instruments of the PDP system were highly replicable with Coefficients of Reliability above .94 for all factors.



Each of the factors was highly invariant across race, sex and occupation with coefficients above .87 in all cases.

Extrinsic Validity:

Coefficients of concurrent validity range from .39 to .87 on selected factor scores of similar instruments.

Additional Research of the PDP Survey:

Validation Study of Criterion-based (predictive) Validity — 1988

This study gave an independent, empirically-based, evaluation of the validity of the PDP ProScan® and PDP JobScan®. This analysis provided support for the use of the PDP ProScan® and PDP JobScan® as predictors of job success.

Disparate Impact Study — 1994

The study sample allowed analyses of several protected groups (females and non-white minorities) as defined by current statutory law. The results indicated that the members of either protected group did not score significantly lower on the ProScan® instrument than other individuals. Based on the available evidence, the PDP ProScan® appears to be a fair (non-biased) personnel selection instrument.

Independent Review of PDP Research — 1993

“In my opinion, PDP has taken appropriate steps to ascertain the validity of their tests. They have consistently used sound experimental procedures to make these determinations and are continuing these activities on an ongoing basis.”

Excerpt from letter written by Rick M. Gardner, Ph.D., Professor and Chair, Department of Psychology, University of Colorado at Denver.

Monograph No. 9, Validation Study, Disparate Impact Study, and the Technical and Research Reference Guide are furnished to each trained PDP Client organization.

To access this document, go to: www.pdpnet.com/representative_extranet/research/summary_of_research

Appendix C

Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project (MOSRPP)

Administrator's Evaluation

1. What worked well during the following:
 - a. In brief with organizational leader –
 - b. MOSRPP Group Training Session –
 - c. Out brief with Commander –
2. What would improve your experience with the following sessions?
 - a. In brief with Commander –
 - b. MOSRPP Group Training Session –
 - c. Out brief with Commander –
3. From an overall project perspective, please provide strengths and suggestions for improvement.

Appendix D

Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project (MOSRPP)

Focus Group Questions

1. What did you think of the MOSRPP?
2. How could the program be improved?
3. What did you think of the MOSRPP Administrator selection and formal training?
4. What did you think about the MOSRPP group training sessions?
5. How did your interaction with the organizations go?

Appendix E

Interview Questions for Leaders Who Participated in the
Military Organizational Stress Reduction Pilot Project (MOSRPP)

1. When did you assume the leadership position for your organization?
2. Did you attend the Squadron Commanders' Course? If so, when?
3. Did you attend the classes on Emotional Intelligence and Positive Leadership?
4. Did you read the book Emotional Intelligence 2.0 that was provided as part of the Squadron Commanders' Course?
5. Did you take the emotional intelligence skills test provided on the associated website?
6. If yes, would you be willing to provide me your scores? If no, would you be willing to take it now?
7. Could you please describe Emotional Intelligence in your own words?
8. As you know, social awareness is one of the four components of EI. How would you explain social awareness to someone who is new to EI?
9. How important do you believe EI, and specifically social awareness, is as a part of your leadership style?
10. Did the MOSRPP provide you with increased social awareness?
11. Do you have any recommendations on how the project could be more valuable to you as a leader?

Appendix F

Approval Documents

LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD DISPOSITION REPORT

To: Darcy Lilley

CC: Dr. Susan Isenberg

IRB Project Number 12-44

Title: *Investigating the organizational stress levels in military units and the benefits associated with providing leaders with emotional intelligence social awareness.*

The IRB has reviewed your application for research, and it has been approved.

Please remember to file a report upon completion of your research.

Thank you.

Dana Klar

12/20/11

Institutional Review Board Chair

Date



**DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE
HEADQUARTERS AIR MOBILITY COMMAND (AMC)**

October 31, 2011

MEMORANDUM FOR Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board

FROM: HQ AMC/CCX
402 Scott Dr.
Scott AFB, IL 62225

SUBJECT: Access to Research Data

Permission to use Air Mobility Command data is granted to Darcy L. Lilley in conjunction with her research on Emotional Intelligence and organizational stress reduction. It is understood that this data will be incorporated into her dissertation as partial fulfillment of Lindenwood University's Doctorate in Instructional Leadership requirements. Individual's names will not be included in the document.

LAURA L. LENDERMAN, Colonel, USAF
Chief, Commander's Action Group

Appendix G

Literature Protocol

# of Protocol Element	Protocol Entry	Page #
1.	Understand that self-awareness and social awareness have the most impact on the organization's climate.	37
2.	Take the time to increase emotional intelligence skills -- they can be learned.	39
3.	Understand that self-awareness is critical to one's development as a leader - Without it, leaders do not know where they need to improve or the influence they are having on people.	34
4.	Use self-awareness as an internal measure -- emotions tell the brain when something feels right or wrong; self awareness will tell if the action or behavior are advisable or not	34
5.	Learn to be in touch with one's own emotions and acknowledge their impact on the organization.	33
6.	Be open and sincere.	33
7.	Learn to share one's emotions to give people insight.	34
8.	Know one's strengths and limits.	34
9.	Welcome feedback and gracefully accept suggested improvements.	34
10.	Have a firm grasp of one's abilities and self-worth.	34
11.	Welcome difficult assignments.	34
12.	Develop a presence that allows one to display a humble, yet charismatic self-confidence.	34
13.	Be trustworthy.	35
14.	Openly admit one's mistakes or faults.	35

15.	Confront unethical behavior in others; lack of action is condoning it.	35
16.	Be flexible and focused in adapting to changing situations.	35
17.	Calculate risk - establish worthy, but attainable goals.	35
18.	Be ready to act and seize opportunities.	35
19.	Be optimistic and look for opportunity rather than a threat in a setback.	35
20.	Put the organization's needs ahead of one's own.	36
21.	Learn self control otherwise one's influence is often more negative than positive.	36
22.	Create an environment where people can thrive.	10
23.	Encourage virtuous behaviors.	10
24.	Promote positive emotions.	10
25.	Promote energizing networks.	10
26.	Learn to understand other people's viewpoints.	11 & 36
27.	Learn to understand the unspoken communications and primary power connections.	11
28.	Be approachable.	11
29.	Be available.	11
30.	Be aware the leader's mood and emotions are contagious and will spread quickly throughout the entire organization.	25
31.	Maintain a positive outlook to inspire feelings of security, trust, and satisfaction in the organization	25
32.	Make positive thinking a habit to make the organization flourish.	25
33.	Focus on enabling and bringing out the best in each person in the organization.	25
34.	Lower employee stress by displaying positive leader behaviors: support, empowerment, and consideration.	19 & 26

- | | | |
|-----|--|---------|
| 35. | Ensure one's leadership style reduces stress rather than being a constant stressor in the organization. | 26 |
| 36. | Be inclusive and encourage access to social support rather than isolating individuals and exaggerating the negative effects of workplace stressors | 26 |
| 37. | Take a people-first approach to leadership to prevent workplace violence. | 26 |
| 38. | Take an active interest in other people's concerns. | 36 |
| 39. | Stay connected with the people in one's organization and take the time to be aware of the unspoken emotions coming from a person or the group. | 36 |
| 40. | Understand the beliefs, values, and underlying rules in the unit. | 36 |
| 41. | Acknowledge and meet team members', customers', and supervisors' needs. | 37 |
| 42. | Think about one's actions and how they will influence the organizational climate rather than just how they will effect the leader personally. | 37 & 40 |
| 43. | Be aware of when people need help and be compassionate when responding to both personal and work-related instances. | 37 |
| 44. | Guide and motivate people with a compelling vision | 38 |
| 45. | Be persuasive and engaging when addressing a group. | 38 |
| 46. | Cultivate people's abilities by being a caring coach. | 38 |
| 47. | Be ready to initiate, manage, and lead in a new direction when needed. | 38 |
| 48. | Resolve disagreements rather than ignoring them. | 38 |
| 49. | When resolving a disagreement, raise the issue, recognize others' feelings and perspectives, and then focus on a win for all involved. | 38 |
| 50. | Encourage collaboration, cooperation, and team building. | 38 |
| 51. | Set the example with a high standard for emotionally acceptable behavior within the organization | 39 |
| 52. | Develop a strong support system within the organization and among | 40 |

personnel in order to have a strong effect on the organization.

- | | | |
|-----|--|---------|
| 53. | Recruit personnel with high emotional intelligence skills as they tend to have a positive impact on organizational success | 40 |
| 54. | Control stress at one's personal, team, and organizational level. | 41 |
| 55. | Be a strong resource for social support in order to be a buffer for occupational stress. | 43 |
| 56. | Recognize people in the organization for the small day-to-day accomplishments. | 43 & 44 |
| 57. | Focus on people's strengths so they will be more likely to stay highly engaged at work. | 43 |
| 58. | Identify possible causes for stress and develop solutions. | 44 |

Appendix H

Lived Experience Protocol

# of Protocol Element	Protocol Entry
1.	Deliver results
2.	Relationships are important--take time to connect with people
3.	Be consistent and reliable
4.	Set high standards and clear expectations
5.	Provide decision makers with actionable data
6.	Encourage people -- don't be a dream stealer
7.	Set one's people and organization up for success -- resource projects properly to get maximum benefit
8.	Follow-through
9.	Get stakeholder buy-in
10.	Smart hiring is critical--select people based on attitude, creativity, self-motivation & persistence
11.	Streamline the process
12.	Invest in quality training
13.	Set stretch goals to develop one's people
14.	Give continuous feedback and positively reinforce desirable behaviors
15.	Care enough to take action
16.	Communicate clearly and confirm what you said is what people received
17.	Be enthusiastic
18.	Provide top-cover; if it's great, the team did it, if it's not, take responsibility for it

19. A common challenge can be used to pull a team together--use it to one's advantage
20. Make the tough decisions
21. Trust one's team
22. Be a servant leader
23. Set the example--integrity first
24. Be a team player
25. Be open to new ideas

Vitae

Darcy L. Lilley serves as the Deputy Director, Commander's Action Group for the U. S. Air Force's Air Mobility Command supporting over 135,000 Airmen assigned worldwide. She designs leadership development opportunities for military and civilian leaders, teaches positive leadership and emotional intelligence, and develops strategic communications for high level international, corporate, and government dignitaries. She retired as a Lieutenant Colonel in the U. S. Air Force after serving 20 years as an active duty Airman. While on active duty, she held leadership positions at various levels in the U.S. and overseas and served as a squadron commander. She deployed to Saudi Arabia as the Central Command Chief, Joint Movement Center several months after the terrorist attack against the United States on September 11, 2001 where she developed the tactical air re-supply routes supporting U.S. Operations in Afghanistan.

Educational studies have resulted in a Master of Science degree in human resource development from Webster University, St Louis, Missouri; Bachelors of Science degree from San Diego State University, San Diego, California; graduation from Air War College and Air Command and Staff College from Air University, Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama and Armed Forces Staff College from National Defense University, Norfolk, Virginia; and Emotionally Intelligent Leader Certificate from Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.